

THE
WORKS
OF THE HONOURABLE
ROBERT BOYLE.
In SIX VOLUMES.

To which is prefixed
The LIFE of the AUTHOR.
VOLUME THE FOURTH.
A NEW EDITION.



L O N D O N:

Printed for W. JOHNSTON, S. CROWDER, T. PAYNE, G. KEARSLEY, J. ROBSON,
B. WHITE, T. BECKET and P. A. De HONDT, T. DAVIES, T. CADELL,
ROBINSON and ROBERTS, RICHARDSON and RICHARDSON, J. KNOX,
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MDCCLXXII.

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J. G. Grandet inv. et delin.
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T H E
E X C E L L E N C Y of T H E O L O G Y,
C O M P A R E D W I T H
N A T U R A L P H I L O S O P H Y.

(As both are OBJECTS of MEN'S STUDY.)

Discours'd of in a L E T T E R to a F R I E N D.

T O W H I C H A R E A N N E X E D

Some Occasional Thoughts about the Excellency and Grounds of the Mechanical Hypothesis.

The Publisher's Advertisement to the Reader.

WHEN I shall have told the reader, that the following discourse was written in the year 1665, while the author, to avoid the great plague, that then raged in *London*, was reduced, with many others, to go into the country and and frequently to pass from place to place, unaccompanied with most of his books; it will not, I presume, be thought strange, that in the mention of some things taken from other writers, as his memory suggested them, he did not annex in the margin the precise places, that are referred to. And upon the same score, it ought not to seem strange, that he has not mentioned some late discoveries and books, that might have been pertinently taken notice of, and would well have accommodated some parts of his discourse; since things, that may thus seem to have been omitted, are of too recent a date to have been known to him when he writ. But if it be demanded, why then a discourse finished so long ago, did not come abroad much sooner? I must acquaint the reader, that it was chiefly his real concern for the welfare of the study he seems to depreciate, that kept these papers so long by him. For he resisted for several years the desires of persons, that have much power with him, and suppressed the following discourse, whilst he feared it might be misapplied by some enemies to experimental philosophy, that then made a noise against it, without suffering these papers to come abroad, till the addresses and encomiums of many eminent foreign virtuosi, and their desire to be admitted into the Royal Society, had sufficiently manifested, how little its reputation was prejudiced, or like to be endangered, by the attempts of some envious or misinformed persons. And to this reason must be added the author's backwardness to venture abroad a discourse of an unusual nature, on which account, among others, he declined to have his name prefixed to it; though now the book is printed, he finds cause to fear, that it will not be long concealed; since he meets with some marginal references to other tracts of his, which (these papers having long lain by him) he forgot to have been set down for private use, and which should not have been exposed to public view.

The A U T H O R's P R E F A C E.

I AM not so little acquainted with the temper of this age, and of the persons, that are likeliest to be perusers of the following tract, as not to foresee it to be probable enough, that some will ask, for what reason a discourse of this nature was written at all, and that others will be displeased, that it has been written by me.

THOSE, that would know, by what inducements my pen was engaged on this subject, may be in great part informed by the epistle itself, in divers places whereof, as especially about the beginning, and at the close, the motives, that invited me to put pen to paper, are sufficiently expressed. And though several of those things are peculiarly applied, and (if I may so speak) appropriated to the person the letter is addressed to; yet that under-valuation, I would dissuade him from, of the study of things sacred, is not his fault alone, but is grown so rife among many (otherwise ingenious) persons) especially studiers of physicks, that I wish the ensuing discourse were much less seasonable than I fear it is.

BUT I doubt, that some readers, who would think a discourse of this nature needless or useless, may yet not be pleased at its being written by one, whom they imagine the acceptance his endeavours have met with, ought to oblige to spend his whole time in cultivating that natural philosophy, which in this letter he would persuade to quit the precedency, they think it may well challenge, before all other sorts of learning.

I am not unsensible of the favourable reception, that the philosophical papers, I have hitherto ventured abroad, have had the happiness to receive from the curious: but I hope, they will not be displeased, if I represent, that I am no lecturer, or professor of physicks, nor have ever engaged myself, by any promise made to the publick, to confine myself never to write of any other subject; nor is it reasonable, that what I did, or may write, to gratify other men's curiosity, should deprive me of mine own liberty, and confine me to one subject; especially, since there are divers persons, for whom I have a great esteem and kindness, who think they have as much right to solicit me for composures of the nature of this, that they will now have to go abroad, as the virtuosi have to exact of me physiological pieces. And though I be not ignorant, that, in particular, the following discourse, which seems to depreciate the study of nature, may, at first sight, appear somewhat improper for a person, that has purposely written to shew the excellence and usefulness of it; yet I confess, that upon a more attentive consideration of the matter, I cannot reject, no, nor resist their reasons, who are of a quite differing judgment.

AND 1. My condition, and my being a secular person (as they speak) are looked upon as circumstances, that may advantage an author, that is to write upon such a subject as I have handled. I need not tell you, that as to religious books in general, it has been observed, that those penned by lay-men, and especially gentlemen, have (*cæteris paribus*) been better entertained, and more effectual, than those of ecclesiasticks. And indeed it is no great wonder, that exhortations to piety, and dissuasions from vice, and from the lusts and vanities of the world, should be the more prevalent for being pressed by those, who have, and yet decline, the opportunities to enjoy plentifully themselves the pleasures they dissuade others from. And (to come yet closer to our present purpose) though I will not venture to say with an excellent divine, that whatever comes out of the pulpit, does with many pals but for the foolishness of preaching; yet it cannot well be denied, but that if all other circumstances be equal, he is the fittest to commend divinity, whose profession it is not; and that it will somewhat add to the reputation of

almost any study, and consequently to that of things divine, that it is praised and preferred by those, whose condition and course of life exempting them from being of any particular calling in the common-wealth of learning, frees them from the usual temptations to partiality to this or that sort of study, which others may be engaged to magnify, because it is their trade or their interest, or because it is expected from them; whereas these gentlemen are obliged to commend it, only because they really love and value it.

BUT there is another thing, that seems to make it yet more fit, that a treatise on such a subject should be penn'd by the author of this: for professed divines are supposed to be busied about studies, that even, by their being of an higher, are confessed to be of another nature, than those, that treat of things corporal. And since it may be observed, that there is scarce any sort of learned men, that is more apt to undervalue those, that are versed only in other parts of knowledge, than many of our modern naturalists, (who are conscious of the excellency of the science they cultivate,) it is much to be feared, that what would be said of the pre-eminences of divinity above physiology, by preachers (in whom the study of the latter is thought either but a preparatory thing, or an excursion) would be looked upon as the decision of an incompetent, as well as interested judge; and their undervaluations of the advantages of the study of the creatures would be (as their depreciating the enjoyment of the creatures too often is,) thought to proceed but from their not having had sufficient opportunities to relish the pleasures of them. But these prejudices will not lie against a person, who has made the indignation of nature somewhat more than a paragon, and having, by a not-lazy, nor short enquiry, manifested, how much he loves and can relish the delight it affords, has had the good fortune to make some discoveries in it, and the honour to have them publickly, and but too complimentally, taken notice of by the virtuosi. And it may not be impertinent to add, that those, who make natural philosophy their mistress, will probably, be the less offended to find her in this tract represented, if not as an handmaid to divinity, yet as a lady of a lower rank; because the inferiority of the study of nature is maintained by a person, who, even whilst he asserts it, continues, if not a passionate, an assiduous courter of nature: so that as far as his example can reach, it may shew, that as on the one side a man need not be acquainted with, or unfit to relish the lessons taught us in the book of the creatures, to think them less excellent than those, that may be learned in the book of the scriptures; so on the other side, the preference of this last book is very consistent with an high esteem and an assiduous study of the first.

AND if any should here object, that there are some passages, which I hope are but very few that seem a little too unfavourable to the study of natural things; I might alledge for my excuse the great difficulty, that there must be in comparing two sorts of studies, both of which a man much esteems, so to behave one's self, as to split a hair between them, and never offend either of them: but I will rather represent, that in such kind of discourses, as the ensuing, it may justly be hoped, that equitable readers will consider, not only what is said, but on what occasion, and with what design it is delivered. Now it is plain by the series of the following discourse, that the phylsophilus, whom it most relates to, was by me looked upon as a person, both very partial to the study of nature, and somewhat prejudiced against that of the scripture; so that I was not always to treat with him, as with an indifferent man, but according to the advice given in such cases by the wise, I was (to use *Aristotle's* expression) to bend the crooked stick the contrary way, in order to the bringing it to be strait, and to depreciate the study of nature somewhat beneath its true value, to reduce a great over-valuer, to a just estimate of it. And to gain the more upon him, I allowed myself now and then to make use of the contempt he had of the peripatetick and vulgar philosophy, and in some passages to speak of them

The A U T H O R ' s P R E F A C E .

more flightingly, than my usual temper permits, and than I would be forward to do another occasion; that, by such a complaisance for his opinions, I might have risen to argue with him from them.

BUT to return to the motives, that were alledged to induce me to the publication of these papers, though I have not named them all, yet all of them together would scarce have proved effectual, if they had not been made more prevalent by the just indignation I conceived, to see even inquisitive men depreciate that kind of knowledge, which does the most elevate, as well as the most bless mankind, and look upon the noblest and wisest employments of the understanding, as signs of weakness in it.

It is not, that I expect, that whatever can be said, and much less what I have had occasion to say here, will make proselytes of those, that are resolved against the being made so, and had rather deny themselves the excellentest kinds of knowledge, than allow, that there can be any more excellent, than what they think themselves masters of: but I despair not, that what is here represented, may serve to fortify in a high esteem of divine truths those, that have already a just veneration for them, and preserve others from being seduced by injurious, though sometimes witty insinuations, to undervalue that kind of knowledge, that is as well the most excellent in itself, as the most conducive to man's happiness. And for this reason I am the less displeased to see, that the following letter is swelled to a bulk far greater than its being but a letter promises, and than I first intended. For I confess, that when the occasion happened, that made me put pen to paper, as I chanced to be in a very unsettled condition (which I fear has had too much influence on what I have written) so I did not design the insisting near so long upon my subject as I have done; but new things springing up, if I may so speak, under my pen, I was content to allow them room in my paper, because writing as well for my own satisfaction, as for that of my friend, I thought it would not be useless to lay before my own eyes, as well as his, those considerations, that seemed proper to justify to myself, as well as to him, the preference I gave divine truths (before physiological ones) and to confirm myself in the esteem I had for them. And though I freely confess, that the following discourse doth not consist of nothing but ratiocinations, and consequently is not altogether of an uniform contexture; yet that will, I hope be thought no more than was fit in a discourse, designed not only to convince, but to persuade: which if it prove so happy as to do, as I hope the peruser will have no cause to regret the trouble of reading it, so I shall not repent that of writing it.

The I N T R O D U C T I O N .

S I R,

I Hoped you had known me better, than to doubt in good earnest, how I relished the discourse your learned friend entertained us with yester-night. And I am the more troubled at your question, because your way of enquiring, how much your friend's discourse obtained of my approbation, gives me cause to fear, that you vouchsafe it more of yours than I could wish it. But before I can safely offer you my sense of the discourses, about which you desire to know it, I must put you in mind, that they were not all upon one subject, nor of the same nature: and I am enough his servant to acknowledge, without the least reluctancy, that he is wont to shew a great deal of wit, when he speaks like a naturalist, only of things purely physical; and when he is in the right, seldom wrongs a good cause by his way of managing it. But as for those passages, wherein he gave himself the liberty of disparaging the learned Dr. N. only because

because that doctor cultivates theological, as well as physical studies, and does both both oftentimes read books of devotion, and sometimes write them ; I am not so much a courtier, as to pretend, that I liked them. 'Tis true he did not deny the doctor to be a learned, and a witty man, as indeed the wise providence of God has so ordered it, that to stop the bold mouths of some, who would be easily tempted to imagine, and more easily to give out that none are philosophers, but such as like themselves, desire to be nothing : else our nation is happy in several men, who are as eminent for humane, as studious of divine learning ; and as great a veneration as they pay to *Moses*, and St. *Paul*, are as well versed in the doctrine of *Aristotle*, and of *Euclid* ; nay, of *Epicurus* and *Des Cartes* too, as those, that care not to study any thing else. But though, for this reason, Mr. N. had not the confidence to despise the doctor, and some of his ressemblers, whom he took occasion to mention ; yet he too plainly disclosed himself to be one of those, who, though they will not deny, but that some, who own a value for theology, are men of parts ; yet they talk, as if such persons were so, in spite of their being religiously given ; that being, in their opinion, such a blemish, that a man must have very great abilities otherwise, to make amends for the disadvantage of valuing sacred studies, and surmount the disparagement it procures him. Wherefore, since this disdainful humour begins to spread, much more than I wish it did, among different sorts of men, among whom I should be glad not to find any naturalists ; and since the question you asked me, and the esteem you have for your friend, makes me fear you may look on it with very favourable eyes ; I shall not decline the opportunity you put into my hands of giving you together with a profession of my dislike of his practice, some of my reasons for that dislike ; and the rather, because I may do it without too much exceeding the limits of an epistle, or those which the haste, wherewith I must write this, does prescribe to me. For your friend does not oppose, but only undervalue theology ; and professing to believe the scriptures, (which I so far credit, as to think he believes himself when he says so) we agree upon the principles : so that I am not to dispute with him, as against an atheist, that denies the author of nature, but only against a naturalist, that over-values the study of it. And the truths of theology are things which I need not bring arguments for, but am allowed to draw arguments from them.

BUT though, as I am just now intimated, I design brevity ; yet, for fear the fruitfulness, and importance of my subject, should suggest things enough to me, to make some little method requisite to keep them from appearing confused ; I shall divide the following epistle into two distinct parts. In the former of which, I shall offer you the chief positive considerations, by which I would represent to you the study of divinity, as preferable to that of physick : And, in the second part, I shall consider the allegations, that I foresee your friend may interpose, in favour of natural philosophy. From which distribution you will easily gather, that the motives on the one hand, and the objections on the other, will challenge to themselves distinct sections, in the respective parts whereto they belong. So that, of the order of the particulars you will meet with, I shall not need to trouble you with any further account.

T H E
 Excellency of T H E O L O G Y :
 O R

The Pre-eminence of the Study of Divinity above that of
 Natural Philosophy.

T H E F I R S T P A R T .

TO address myself then, without any farther circumstance, or preamble, to the things themselves, that I mainly intend in this discourse, I consider in the general, that there are scarce any motives accounted fitter to engage a rational man in a study, than that the subject is noble, that it is his duty to apply himself to it, and that his proficiency in it will bring him great advantages ; so there is not any of these three inducements, that does not concur, in a very plentiful measure, to recommend to us the study of theological truths.

S E C T I O N I.

AND first, the excellency and sublimity of the object we are invited to contemplate, is such, that none, that does truly acknowledge a deity, can deny, but that there is no speculation, whose object is comparable, in point of nobleness, to the nature and attributes of God. The souls of inquisitive men are commonly so curious, to learn the nature and condition of spirits, as that the over-greedy desire to discover so much, as that there are other spiritual substances, besides the souls of men, has prevailed with too many to try forbidden ways of attaining satisfaction ; and many have chosen rather to venture the putting themselves within the power of dæmons, than remain ignorant whether or no there are any such beings : as I have learned by the private acknowledgments made me of such unhappy (though not unsuccessful) attempts, by divers learned men, (both of other professions, and that of physick,) who themselves made them in different places, and were persons neither timorous, nor superstitious : (but this only upon the by.) And certainly that man must have as wrong, as mean a notion of the deity, and must very little consider the nature and attributes of that infinitely perfect Being, and as little the nature and infirmities of man, who can imagine the divine perfections to be subjects, whose investigation a man may (inculpably) despise, or be so much as fully sufficient for. Not only the scripture tells us, That his greatness is incomprehensible, and his wisdom is inscrutable ; That he humbles himself to look in-
Psal. cxlv.
 Ps. cxlvii.
 5.
 Pt. cxliii. 6.
 Isa. xl. 15. to (or upon) the heavens and the earth ; and, That not only this, or that man, but all the nations of the world are, in comparison of him, but like the small drop of a bucket, or the smaller dust of a balance : but even the heathen philosopher, who wrote that eloquent book *de Mundo*, ascribed to *Aristotle* in his riper years, speaks of the power, and wisdom, and amiableness of God, in terms little less lofty, though necessarily inferior to so infinitely sublime a subject ; which they, that think they can, especially without revelation, sufficiently understand, do very little understand themselves.

BUT perhaps your friend will object, that, to the knowledge of God there needs no other than natural theology ; and I readily confess, being warranted by an apostle, that
 the

the γινώσκον τῷ Θεῷ was not unknown to the heathen philosophers ; and that so much knowledge of God is attainable by the light of nature, duly employed, as to encourage men to exercise themselves, more than most of them do, in that noblest of studies, and render their being no proficient in it, injurious to themselves, as well as to their maker. But notwithstanding this, as God knows himself infinitely better than pur-blind man knows him, so the informations he is pleased to vouchsafe us, touching his own nature, and attributes, are exceedingly preferable to any account, that we can give ourselves of him, without him. And, methinks, the different prospects we may have of heaven, may not ill adumbrate to us the differing discoveries, that may be made of the attributes of its maker. For as though a man may, with his naked eye, see heaven to be a very glorious object, enobled with radiant stars of several sorts ; yet, when his eye is assisted with a good telescope, he cannot only discover a number of stars, (fixed and wandering,) which his naked eye would never have shewn him ; but those planets, which he could see before, will appear to him much bigger, and more distinct : so, although bare reason, well improved, will suffice to make a man behold many glorious attributes in the deity ; yet the same reason, when assisted by revelation, may enable a man to discover far more excellencies in God, and perceive them, than he contemplated before, far greater and more distinctly. And to shew how much a dim eye, illuminated by the scriptures, is able to discover of the divine perfections, and how unobvious they are to the most piercing philosophical eyes, that enjoy but the dim light of nature ; we need but consider, how much more suitable conceptions and expressions concerning God are to be met with in the writings of those fishermen and others, that penned the new testament, and those illiterate Christians, that received it, than among the most civilized nations of the world (such as anciently the Greeks and Romans, and now the Chinese and East-Indians) and amongst the eminentest of the wise-men and philosophers themselves, (as *Aristotle, Homer, Hesiod, Epicurus*, and others.)

BESIDES that the book of scripture discloses to us much more of the attributes of God, than the book of nature, there is another object of our study, for which we must be entirely beholden to theology : for though we may know something of the nature of God by the light of reason, yet we must owe the knowledge of his will, or positive laws, to his own revelation. And we may guess, how curious great princes and wise men have been to inform themselves of the constitutions established by wise and eminent legislators ; partly by the frequent travels of the ancient sages and philosophers into foreign countries, to observe their laws and government, as well as bring home their learning ; and partly by those royal and sumptuous expences, at which that great and learned monarch *Ptolomeus Philadelphus* stuck not to procure an authentick copy of the law of Moses, whom he considered but as an eminent legislator. But certainly that, and other laws recorded in the bible, cannot but appear more noble and worthy objects of curiosity to us Christians, who know them to proceed from an omniscient deity, who being the author of mankind, as well as of the rest of the universe, cannot but have a far perfecter knowledge of the nature of man, than any other of the law-givers, or all of them put together can be conceived to have had.

BUT there is a farther discovery of divine matters, wherewith we are also gratified by theology : for besides what the scripture teaches us of the nature and the will of God, it contains divers historical accounts (if I may so call them) of his thoughts and actions. The great *Alexander* thought himself nobly employed, when he read the Grecian actions in *Homer's* verses ; and, to know the sentiments of great and wise persons upon particular occasions, is a curiosity so laudable, and so worthy of an inquisitive soul, that the southern queen has been more praised and admired, for coming from the re-

meter

Genes. vi.
Numb.
xxvii. 7.
Genes. xx.
Genes.
xvii.
1 Kings iii.
Jonah iv.
1 Kings
xxii, from
ver. 19.
to ver. 24.
Job i.
6, 7. &c.
Job. ii. 3.

moter parts of the earth, to hear the wisdom of *Solomon*. Now the scripture does in many places give our curiosity a nobler employment, and thereby a higher satisfaction, than the King of *Macedon*, or the queen of *Sheba* could enjoy; for in many places it does, with great clearness and ingenuity, give us accounts of what God himself hath declared of his own thoughts, of divers particular persons and things, and relates, what he, that knows and commands all things, was pleased to say and do upon particular occasions. Of this sort of passages are the things recorded to have been said by God to *Noah*, about the sinful world's ruin, and that just man's preservation; and to *Moses* in the case of daughters of *Zelophehad*. And of this sort are the conferences, mentioned to have passed betwixt God and *Abimelech*, concerning *Abraham's* Wife; betwixt God and *Abraham*, touching the destruction of *Sodom*; betwixt God and *Solomon*, about that king's happy choice; betwixt God and *Jonah*, about the fate of the greatest city of the world: and above all these, those two strange and matchless passages, the one in the first book of *Kings*, touching the seducing spirit, that undertook to seduce *Ahab's* prophets; and the other, that yet more wonderful relation of what passed betwixt God and Satan, wherein the deity vouchsafes, not only to praise, but (if I may so speak with reverence) to glory in a mortal. And the being admitted to the knowledge of these transactions of another world, (if I may so call them) wherein God has been pleased to disclose himself so very much, is an advantage afforded us by the scripture, of so noble a nature, and so unattainable by the utmost improvement we ourselves can make of our own reason, that, did the scripture contain nothing else, that were very considerable, yet that book would highly deserve our curiosity and gratitude.

See Heb.
v. 9.
Psal. ciii.
17, 13.

Acts i. 21.
1 John. iii.
20.

AND on this occasion, I must by no means leave unobserved another advantage, that we have from some discourses made us in the bible, since it too highly concerns us, not to be very great one; and it is, that the scripture declares to us the judgment, that God is pleased to make of some particular men, upon the estimate of their life and deportment. For though reason alone, and the grounds of religion in general, may satisfy us in some measure, that God is good and merciful, and therefore it is likely he may pardon the sins and frailties of men, and accept of their imperfect services; yet besides that we do not know, whether he will pardon, unless we have his promise of it; besides this, (I say) though by virtue of general revelation, such as is pretended to in divers religions, we may be assured, that God will accept, forgive, and reward those, that sincerely obey him, and perform the conditions of the covenant, whether it be express, or implicit, that he vouchsafes to make with them; yet since it is he, that is the judge of the performance of the conditions, and of the sincerity of the person; and since he is omniscient, and a *Καρδιολογίας* and so may know more ill of us, than even we know of ourselves; a concerned conscience may rationally doubt, whether in God's estimate any particular man was so sincere as to be accepted. But when he himself is pleased to give elogimus (if I may with due respect so style them) to *David*, *Job*, *Noah*, *Daniel*, &c. whilst they were alive, and to others after they were dead, (and consequently having finished their course, were passed into an irreversible state) we may learn with comfort, both that the performance of such an obedience, as God will accept, is a thing really practicable by men; and that even great sins and misdemeanors are not (if seasonably repented of) certain evidences, that a man shall never be happy in the future life. And it seems to be for such an use of consolation to frail men, (but not at all to encourage licentious ones) that the lapses of holy persons are so frequently recorded in the scriptures. And bating those divine writings, I know no books in the world, nor all of them put together, that can give a considering Christian, who has due apprehensions of the inexpressible happiness or misery of an immortal state

state in heaven or in hell, so great and well grounded a consolation, as may be derived from three or four lines in St. *John's* apocalypse, where he says, "That he saw in Revel. vi. heaven a great multitude, not to be numbered of all nations, and tribes, and peo- 9. ple, and tongues, standing before the throne, and before the lamb, clothed in white robes, with palms (the ensigns of victory) in their hands;" and the praises of God and of the lamb in their mouths. For from thence we may learn, that heaven is not reserved only for prophets, and apostles, and martyrs, and such extraordinary persons, whose sanctity the church admires, but that, through God's goodness multitudes of his more imperfect servants have access thither.

THOUGH the infinite perfections and prerogatives of the deity be such, that theology itself can, no more than philosophy, afford us another object for our studies, any thing near so sublime and excellent, as what it discloses to us of God; yet divinity favours us with some other discoveries, namely, about angels, the universe, and our own souls, which, though they must needs be inferior to the knowledge of God himself, are, for the nobleness of their objects, or for their importance, highly preferable to any, that natural philosophy has been able to afford its votaries.

BUT before I proceed to name any more particulars, disclosed to us by revelation, it will be requisite, for the prevention or removal of a prejudice, to mind you, that we should not make our estimates of the worth of the things we owe to revelation, by the impressions they are wont now to make upon us christians, who learned divers of them in our catechisms, and perhaps have several times met with most of the rest in sermons, or theological books. For it is not to be admired, that we should not be strongly affected at the mention of those truths, which (how valuable soever in themselves) were for the most part taught us when we were either children, or too youthful to discern and prize their excellency and importance. So that though afterwards they were presented to our riper understanding, yet their being by that time become familiar, and our not remembering, that we ignored them, kept them from making any vigorous impressions on us. Whereas if the same things had been (with circumstances evincing their truth) discovered to some heathen philosopher, or other vertuous and inquisitive man, who valued important truths, and had nothing but his own reason to attain them with, he would questionless have received them with wonder and joy. Which to induce us to suppose we have sundry instances, both in the records of the primitive times, and in the recent relations of the conversion of men to Christianity among the people of *China*, *Japan*, and other illiterate nations. For though bare reason cannot discover these truths, yet when revelation has once sufficiently proposed them to her, she can readily embrace, and highly value divers of them; which being here intimated once for all, I now advance to name some of the revelations themselves.

AND first, as for angels, I will not now question, whether bare reason can arrive at so much as to assure us, that there are such beings in *rerum natura*. For though reason may assure, that their existence is not impossible, and perhaps too, not improbable; yet I doubt, whether 'twere to mere ratiocination, or clear experience, or any thing else but revelation, convey'd to them by imperfect tradition, that those heathen Math. xxi. 53. philosophers, who believed, that there were separate spirits other than human, owed Dan. vii. 10. that persuasion; and particularly as to good angels, I doubt, whether those antient Job. i. 3. Heb. i. 7. sages had any cogent reasons, or any convincing historical proofs, or, in short, any Luke xx. 35, 36. one unquestionable evidence of any kind, to satisfy a wary person so much as of the Col. i. 16. being (much less to give a farther account) of those excellent spirits. Whereas theo- Math. xxiv. 36.logy is enabled by the scripture to inform us, that not only there are such spirits, but Mark xiii. 32.a vast multitude of them; that they were made by God and Christ, and are immor- Matr. xviii. 10.tal, and propagate not their species; and that these spirits have their chief residence in heaven,

Isa. vi. 2, 3. heaven, and enjoy the vision of God, whom they constantly praise, and punctually
 Matth. vi. 10. obey, without having sinned against him; that also these good angels are very intelli-
 2 Sam. xiv. 20. gent beings, and of so great power, that one of them was able in a night to destroy a
 Mark xiii. 32. vast army; that they have degrees among themselves, are enemies to the devils, and
 2 Kings xix. 35. fight against them; that they can assume bodies shaped like ours, and yet disappear in
 1 Thess. iv. 16. a trice; that they are sometimes employed about human affairs, and that not only for
 Jude ix. 16. the welfare of empires and kingdoms, but to protect and rescue single good men. And
 Dan. x. 13, 21. though they are wont to appear in a dazzling splendor, and an astonishing majesty yet
 Col. i. 16. they are all of them ministring spirits, employed for the good of the designed heirs of
 Revel. xii. 7. salvation. And they do not only refuse men's adoration; and admonish them to pay
 Acts xii. 7, 8, 9, 10. it unto God; but, as they are in a sense made by Jesus Christ, who was true man as
 Dan. x. 13. well as God; so they do not only worship him, and call him simply, as his own fol-
 Acts xii. 11. lowers were wont to do, the Lord, but stile themselves fellow servants to his dis-
 2 Kings vi. 17. ciples.

AND as for the other angels, though the Gentiles, as well philosophers as others,
 Luke xxiv. 4. were commonly so far mistaken about them, as to adore them for true gods and yet
 Judg. xiii. 6. many of them to doubt whether they were immortal; the scripture informs us, that
 Heb. i. 14. they are not self-originated, but created beings; that however a great part of mankind
 Rev. xix. 10. worship them, they are wicked and impure spirits, enemies to mankind, and seducers
 Matth. xxviii. 6. of our first parents to their ruin; that though they beget and promote confusion among
 Rev. xix. 10. men, yet they have some order among themselves, as having one chief, or leader;
 John i. 3. that they are evil spirits, not by nature, but apostacy; that their power is very limited,
 Colos. i. 16. infomuch that a legion of them cannot invade so contemptible a thing as a herd of
 Matth. vii. 7. swine, without particular leave from God; that not only good angels, but good men,
 Luke iv. 33. may, by resisting them, put them to flight, and the sincere Christians, that worsted
 John viii. 34. them here, will be among those, that shall judge them hereafter; that their being im-
 1 Pet. v. 8. mortal, will make their misery so too; that they do themselves believe, and tremble at
 2 Cor. xi. 3. those truths, they would persuade man to reject; and that they are so far from being
 Rev. xii. 9. able to confer that happiness, which their worshippers expect from them, that them-
 Rev. xii. 7. selves are wretched creatures, reserved in chains of darkness to the judgment of the
 Matth. xxv. 41. great day; at which they shall be doomed to suffer everlasting torments, in the com-
 1 John iii. 8. pany of those wicked men, that they shall have prevailed on.

WE may farther consider, that as to things corporeal themselves, which the na-
 1 Pet. v. 9. turalist challenges as his peculiar theme, we may name particulars, and those of the
 1 Cor. vi. 11. most comprehensive nature, and greatest importance, whose knowledge the naturalist
 Matth. xxv. 41. must owe to theology. Of which truths I shall content my self to give a few instances
 Jam. ii. 19. in the world itself, or the universal aggregate of things corporeal; that being looked
 2 Pet. ii. 4. upon as the noblest and chiefest object, that the physicks afford us to contemplate.
 Jude 6. 13. AND first, those that admit the truths revealed by theology, do generally allow,
 Matth. xxv. 41. that God is not only the author, but creator of the world. I am not ignorant of
 what *Anaxagoras* taught, of what he called *νῆς*; — (and *Tully* mentions) in the pro-
 duction of the world; and that what many other Grecians afterwards taught of the
 world's eternity, is peculiarly due to *Aristotle*, who does little less than brag, that all
 the philosophers that preceded him were of another mind. Nor will I here examine
 (which I elsewhere do) whether, and how far, by arguments merely physical, the cre-
 ation of the world may be evinced. But whether or no mere natural reason can reach
 so sublime a truth, yet it seems not, that it did actually, where it was not excited by
 revelation-discovery. For though many of the ancient philosophers believed the world
 to have had a beginning, yet they all took it for granted, that matter had none; nor
 does any of them, that I know of, seem to have so much as imagined, that any substance
 could

could be produced out of nothing. Those, that ascribe much more to God than *Aristotle*, make him to have given form only, not matter to the world, and to have but contrived the pre-existent matter into this orderly system we call the universe.

NEXT, whereas very many of the philosophers, that succeeded *Aristotle*, suppose the world to have been eternal; and those, that believed it to have been produced, had not the confidence to pretend to the knowing how old it was; unless it were some extravagant ambitious people, such as those fabulous Chaldeans, whose fond account reached up to forty thousand or fifty thousand years: theology teaches us, that the world is very far from being so old by thirty or forty thousand years as they, and by very many ages, as divers others have presumed: and does, from the scripture, give us such an account of the age of the world, that it has set us certain limits, within which so long a duration may be bounded, without mistaking in our reckoning. Whereas philosophy leaves us to the vastness of indeterminate duration, without any certain limits at all.

THE time likewise, and the order, and divers other circumstances of the manner, wherein the fabrick of the world was compleated, we owe to revelation; bare reason being evidently unable to inform us of particulars, that preceded the origin of the first man; and though I do not think religion so much concerned, as many do, in their opinion and practise, that would deduce particular theorems of natural philosophy from this or that expression of a book, that seems rather designed to instruct us about spiritual than corporeal things. I see no just reason to embrace their opinion, that would so turn the two first chapters of *Genesis*, into an allegory, as to overthrow the literal and historical sense of them. And though I take the scripture to be mainly designed to teach us nobler and better truths, than those of philosophy; yet I am not forward to condemn those, who think the beginning of *Genesis*, contains divers particulars, in reference to the origin of things, which though not unwarily, or alone to be urged in physicks, may yet afford very considerable hints to an attentive and inquisitive peruser.

AND as for the duration of the world, which was by the old philosophers held to be indeterminable, and of which the Stoicks opinion, that the world shall be destroyed by fire, (which they held from the *Jews*) was physically precarious; theology teaches us expressly from divine revelation, that the present course of nature shall not last always, ^{Τὸ τέλος τῆς} but that one day this world, or at least, this vortex of ours, shall either be abolished ^{ἐκείνου.} by annihilation, or, which seems far more probable, be innovated, and, as it were ^{Jam. iii. 6.} transfigured, and that, by the intervention of that fire, which shall dissolve and de- ^{2 Pet. iii.} stroy the present frame of nature: so that either way, the present state of things, (as well ^{7, 10, 13.} natural as political) shall have an end.

AND as theology affords us these informations about the creatures in general; so touching the chiefest and noblest of the visible ones, men, revelation discovers very plainly divers very important things, where reason must needs be in the dark.

AND first, touching the body of man; the Epicureans attributed its original, as that of all things else, to the casual concourse of atoms; and the Stoicks absurdly and injuriously enough (but much more pardonably than their follower herein, Mr. *Hobbes*) would have men to spring up like mushrooms out of the ground; and whereas other philosophers maintain conceits about it, too wild to be here recited; the book of *Genesis* assures us, that the body of man was first formed by God in a peculiar manner, of a terrestrial matter; and it is there described, as having been perfected before the ^{Gen. ii. 7.} soul was united to it. And as theology thus teaches us, how the body of man had its first beginning; so it likewise assures us, what shall become of the body after death, ^{Acts xxii.} though bare natural reason will scarce be pretended to reach to so abstruse and difficult ^{15.}

Acts xvii.
20, 32.

an article as that of a resurrection; which, when proposed by St. *Paul*, produced among the Athenian philosophers nothing else but wonder or laughter.

Gen. ii.
Acts xvii.
26.

Gen. ii. 21,
22.

Acts xxv.
15.
Luke xx.
35, 36.

Not to mention, that theology teaches us divers other things about the origin and condition of men's bodies; as, that all mankind is the offspring of one man and one woman; that the first woman was not made of the same matter, nor after the same manner as the first man, but was afterwards taken from his side; that both *Adam* and *Eve* were not, as many Epicureans and other philosophers fancied, that the first men were first infants; whence they did, as we do, grow by degrees, to be mature and compleat human persons, but were made so all at once; and that hereafter, as all mens bodies shall rise again, so they shall all (or at least, all those of the just) be kept from ever dying a second time.

Matth. x.
28.

Gen. ii. 7.
Zek. xii. 1.
Luke xx.
35, 36.
Matth. xxv.
46.

And as for the human soul, though I willingly grant, that much may be deduced from the light of reason only, touching its existence, properties and duration; yet divine revelation teaches it us with more clearness, and with greater authority; as sure he, that made our souls, and upholds them, can best know what they are, and how long he will have them last. And as the scripture expressly teaches us, that the rational soul is distinct from the body, as not being to be destroyed by those very enemies, that kill the body; so about the origin of this immortal soul (about which philosophers can give us but wide and precarious conjectures) theology assures us, that the soul of man had not such an origination, as those of other animals, but was God's own immediate workmanship, and was united to the body already formed: and yet not so united, but that upon their divorce, she will survive, and pass into a state, in which death shall have no power over her.

I expect you will here object, that for the knowledge of the perpetual duration of separate souls, we need not be beholden to the scripture, since the immortality of the soul may be sufficiently proved by the sole light of nature, and particularly has been demonstrated by your great *Des Cartes*. But you must give me leave to tell you, that besides that a matter of that weight and concernment cannot be too well proved, and consequently ought to procure a welcome for all good mediums of probation; besides this, I say, I doubt many Cartesians do, as well as others, mistake both the difficulty under consideration, and the scope of *Des Cartes*'s discourse. For I grant, that by natural philosophy alone, the immortality of the soul may be proved against its usual enemies Atheists and Epicureans. For the ground, upon which these men think it mortal, being, that it is not a true substance, but only a modification of the body, which consequently must perish, when the frame or structure of the body, whereto it belongs, is dissolved; their ground being this, I say, if we can prove, by some intellectual operations of the rational soul, which matter, however modified, cannot reach, that it is a substance distinct from the human body, there is no reason, why the dissolution of the latter should infer the destruction of the former, which is a simple substance, and as real a substance as matter itself, which yet the adversaries affirm to be indestructible. But though by the mental operations of the rational soul, and perhaps by other mediums it may, against the Epicureans, and other mere naturalists, who will not allow God to have any thing to do in the case, be proved to be immortal in the sense newly proposed; yet the same proofs will not evince, that absolutely it shall never cease to be, if we dispute with philosophers, who admit, as the Cartesians and many others do, that God is the sole creator and preserver of all things. For how are we sure, but that God may have so ordained, that though the soul of man, by the continuance of his ordinary and upholding concurrence, may survive the body, yet, as it is generally believed not to be created, till it be just to be infused into the body; so it shall be annihilated, when it parts with the body, God withdrawing at death that supporting

supporting influence, which alone kept it from relapsing to its first nothing. Whence it may appear, that notwithstanding the physical proofs of the spirituality and separableness of the human soul, we are yet much beholden to divine revelation for assuring us, that its duration shall be endless. And now to make good what I was intimating above concerning the Cartesians, and the scope of *Des Cartes's* demonstration, I shall appeal to no other than his own expressions to evince, that he considered this matter for the main as we have done, and pretended to demonstrate, that the soul is a distinct substance from the body; but not that absolutely speaking it is immortal. *Cur* (answers *Des Cartes* that excellent author) *de immortalitate animæ nihil scripserim, jam dixi in synopsi meorum Meditationum. Quod ejus ab omni corpore distinctionem satis probaverim, supra ostendi. Quod vero additis, ex distinctione animæ a corpore non sequi ejus immortalitatem, quia nihilominus dici potest, illam a deo talis naturæ factam esse, ut ejus duratio simul cum duratione vitæ corporeæ finiatur, fateor a me refelli non posse. Neque enim tantum mihi assumo, ut quicquam de iis, quæ a libera Dei voluntate dependent, humanæ rationis vi determinare aggrediar. Docet naturalis cognitio, &c. Sed si de absoluta Dei potestate quærat, an forte decreverit, ut humanæ animæ iisdem temporibus esse desinant, quibus corpora quæ illis adjunxit; solius Dei est, respondere.* And if he would not assume to demonstrate by natural reason so much as the existence of the soul after death, unless upon a supposition; we may well presume, that he would less take upon him to determine, what shall be the condition of that soul after it leaves the body. And that you may not doubt of this, I will give you for it his own confession, as he freely writ it in a private letter to that admirable lady, the princess *Elizabeth*, first daughter to *Frederick* king of *Bohemia*, who seems to have desired his opinion on that important question, about which he sends her this answer, *Pour ce qui, &c. i. e.* As to the state of the soul after this life, my knowledge of it is far inferior to that of monsieur (he means *Sir Kenelm*) *Digby*. For, setting aside that, which religion teaches us of it, I confess, that by mere natural reason we may indeed make many conjectures to our own advantage, and have fair hopes, but not any assurance. And accordingly in the next clause he gives the imprudence, of quitting what is certain for an uncertainty, as the cause why, according to natural reason, we are never to seek death.

NOR do I wonder he should be of that mind. For all, that mere reason can demonstrate, may be reduced to these two things; one, that the rational soul, being an incorporeal substance, there is no necessity, that it should perish with the body; so that, if God have not otherwise appointed, the soul may survive the body, and last for ever: the other, that the nature of the soul, according to *Des Cartes*, consisting in its being a substance, that thinks, we may conclude, that though it be by death separate from the body, it will nevertheless retain the power of thinking. But now, whether either of these two things, or both, be sufficient to endear the state of separation after death, to a considering man, I think may be justly questioned. For immortality or perseverance in duration, simply considered, is rather a thing presupposed to, or a requisite of felicity, than a part of it; and being in itself an adiaphorous thing, assumes the nature of the state or condition, to which it is joined, and does not make that state happy or miserable, but makes the possessors of it more happy, or more miserable than otherwise they would be. And tho' some school-men, upon airy metaphysical notions, would have men think it is more eligible to be wretched, than not to be at all; yet we may oppose to their speculative subtilties the sentiments of mankind, and the far more considerable testimony of the Saviour of mankind, who speaking of the disciple, that betrayed him, says, "That it had been good for that man, if he had never been born." And eternity is generally conceived to aggravate no less the miseries of hell, than it heightens the joys of heaven. And here we may consider, first, that mere reason cannot so much as assure

us absolutely, that the soul shall survive the body ; for the truth of which we have not only *Cartesius's* confession, lately recited, but a probable argument, drawn from the nature of the thing, since, as the body and soul were brought together, not by any mere physical agents, and since their association and union, whilst they continued together, was made upon conditions, that depended solely upon God's free and arbitrary institution ; so, for aught reason can secure us of, one of the conditions, of that association may be, that the body and soul should not survive each other. Secondly, supposing, that the soul be permitted to outlive the body, mere reason cannot inform us, what will become of her in her separate state, whether she will be vitally united to any other kind of body or vehicle ; and if to some, of what kind that will be, and upon what terms the union will be made. For possibly she may be united to an unorganized, or very imperfectly organized body, wherein she cannot exercise the same functions she did in her human body. As we see, that even in this life the souls of natural fools are united to bodies, wherein they cannot discourse, or, at least, cannot philosophize. And it is plain, that some souls are introduced into bodies, which, by reason of paralytical and other diseases, they are unable to move, though that does not always hinder them from being obnoxious to feel pain. So that, for aught we naturally know, a human soul, separated from the body, may be united to such a portion of matter, that she may neither have the power to move it, nor the advantage of receiving any agreeable informations by its interventions, having upon the account of that union no other sense than that of pain. But let us now consider, what will follow, if I should grant, that the soul will not be made miserable, by being thus wretchedly matched. Suppose we then, that she be left free to enjoy what belongs to her own nature ; that being only the power of always thinking, it may be well doubted, whether the exercise of that power will suffice to make her happy. You will perchance easily believe, that I love, as well as another, to entertain my self with my own thoughts, and to enjoy them undisturbed by visits and other avocations : I would, only accompanied by a servant and a book, go to dine at an inn upon a road, to enjoy my thoughts the more freely for that day. But yet, I think, the most contemplative men would, at least in time, grow weary of thinking, if they received no supply of objects from without, by reading, seeing, or conversing ; and if they also wanted the opportunity of executing their thoughts, by moving the members of their bodies, or of imparting them, either by discoursing, or writing of books, or by making of experiments. On this occasion I remember, that I knew a gentleman, who was in *Spain* for a state-crime, which yet he thought an heroic action, kept close prisoner for a year in a place, where, though he had allowed him a diet not unfit for a person of note as he was ; yet he was not permitted the benefit of any light, either of the day or candles, and was not accosted by any human creature, save at certain times by the gaoler, that brought him meat and drink, but was strictly forbidden to converse with him. Now, though this gentleman, by his discourse, appeared to be a man of a lively humour ; yet being asked by me, how he could do to pass the time in that sad solitude, he confessed to me, that though he had the liberty of walking to and fro in his prison, and though, by often recalling into his mind all the adventures and other passages of his former life, and by several ways combining, and diversifying his thoughts, he endeavoured to give his mind as much variety of employment as he was able ; yet that would not serve his turn, but he was often reduced, by drinking large draughts of wine, and then casting himself upon his bed, to endeavour to drown that melancholly, which the want of new objects cast him into. And I can easily admit, he found a great deal of difference between the sense he had of thinking when he was at liberty, and that, which he had, when he was confined to that employment, whose delightfulness, like fire, cannot last long, when it is, as his was, denied both fuel and vent.

vent. And, in a word, though I most readily grant, that thinking, interwoven with conversation and action, may be a very pleasant way of passing one's time; yet man being by nature a sociable creature, I fear that alone would be a dry and wearisome employment to spend eternity in.

BEFORE I proceed to the next section, I must not omit to take notice, that though the brevity I proposed to myself, keeps me from discoursing of any theological subjects, save what I have touched upon about the divine attributes, and the things I have mentioned about the universe in general, and the human soul; yet there are divers other things, knowable by the help of revelation, and not without it, that are of so noble and sublime a nature, that the greatest wits may find their best abilities both fully exercised, and highly gratified by making enquiries into them. I shall not name for proof of this the adorable mystery of the trinity, wherein it is, acknowledged, that the most soaring speculators are wont to be posed, or to lose themselves: but I shall rather mention the redemption of mankind, and the decrees of God concerning men. For though these seem to be less out of the ken of our natural faculties; yet it is into some things, that belong to the former of them, that the scripture tells us, *The angels desire to pry*; and it was the consideration of the latter of them, that made one, that had been caught up into the mansion of the angels, amazedly cry out, *ὦ βάθος*, &c. 1 Pet. i.
12.
Rom. xi.
33.

NOR are these the only things, that the scripture itself terms mysteries, though, for brevity sake, instead of specifying any of them, I shall content myself to represent to you in general; that since God's wisdom is boundless, it may, sure, have more ways than one to display itself. And though the material world be full of the productions of his wisdom; yet that hinders not, but that the scripture may be enobled with many excellent impresses, and, as it were, signatures of the same attribute. For, as I was beginning to say, it cannot but be highly injurious to the Deity, in whom all other true perfections, as well as omniscience, are both united and transcendent, to think, that he can contrive no ways to disclose his perfections, besides the ordering of matter and motion, and cannot otherwise deserve to be the object of men's studies, and their admiration, than in the capacity of a creator.

AND I think, I might safely add, that besides these grand and mysterious points I came from mentioning, there are many other noble and important things, wherein unassisted reason leaves us in the dark; which though not so clearly revealed in the scripture, are yet in an inviting measure discovered there, and consequently deserve the indagation of a curious and philosophical soul. Shall we not think it worth enquiring, whether the satisfaction of Christ was necessary to appease the justice of God, and purchase redemption for mankind? Or whether God, as absolute and supreme governor of the world, might have freely remitted the penalties of sin? Shall we not think it worth the enquiring, upon what account, and upon what terms, the justification of men towards God is transacted, especially considering how much it imports us to know, and how perplexedly a doctrine, not in itself abstruse, is wont to be delivered? Shall not we enquire, whether or no the souls of men, before they were united to their bodies, pre-existed in a happier state, as many of the ancient and modern Jews and Platonists, and (besides Origen) some learned men of our times do believe? And shall not we be curious to know, whether, when the soul leaves the body, it do immediately pass to heaven or hell (as it is commonly believed,) or for want of organs be laid, as it were, asleep in an insensible and unactive state, till it recover the body at the resurrection, as many Socinians and others maintain? or whether it be conveyed into secret recesses, where, though it be in a good or bad condition, according to what it did in the body, it is yet reprieved from the flames of hell, and restrained from the beatifick vision till the day of judgment? (which seems to have been the opinion of many, if not most of the primitive

Gen. ii. 21.
22, 23.

mitive fathers and Christians.) Shall not we be curious to know, whether, at that great decreitory day, the vast fabrick of the world, which all confess must have its frame quite shattered, shall be suffered to relapse into its first nothing, as several divines assert? or shall be, after its dissolution, renewed to a better state, and as it were, transfigured? And shall not we enquire, whether or no, in that future state of things, which shall never have an end, we shall know one another? (as *Adam*, when he awaked out of his profound sleep, knew *Eve*, whom he never saw before;) and whether those personal friendships and affections, we had for one another here, and the pathetic consideration of the relations (as of father and son, husband and wife, chaste mistress and virtuous lover, prince and subject,) on which many of them were grounded, shall continue? Or whether all those things, as antiquated and slight, shall be obliterated, and, as it were swallowed up? (as the former relation of a cousin a great way off is scarce at all considered, when the persons come so to change their state, as to be united by the strict bonds of marriage.)

BUT it were tedious to propose all the other points, whereof the divine takes cognizance, that highly merit an inquisitive man's curiosity; and about which, all the writings of the old Greek and other heathen philosophers put together, will give us far less information, than the single volume of canonical scripture. I foresee, indeed, that it may nevertheless be objected, that in some of these enquiries, revelation incumbers reason, by delivering things, which reason is obliged to make its hypothesis consistent with. But besides, that this cannot be so much as pretended of all; if you consider, how much unassisted reason leaves us in the dark about these matters, wherein she has not been able to frame so much as probable determinations, especially in comparison of those probabilities, that reason can deduce from what it finds one way or other delivered in the scripture: if you consider this, I say, you will, I presume, allow me to say, that the revealed truths, which reason is obliged to comply with, if they be burdens to it, are but such burdens, as feathers are to a hawk, which, instead of hindering his flight by their weight, enable him to soar toward heaven, and take a larger prospect of things, than, if he had not feathers, he could possibly do.

AND, on this occasion, Sir, the greater reverence I owe to the scripture itself, than to its expositors, prevails upon me to tell you freely, that you will not do right, either to theology, or (the greatest repository of its truths) the bible, if you imagine, that there are no considerable additions to be made to the theological discoveries we have already, nor no clearer expositions of many texts of scripture, or better reflections on that matchless book, than are to be met with in the generality of commentators, or of preachers, without excepting the antient fathers themselves. For there being, in my opinion, two things requisite, to qualify a commentator to do right to his theme, a competency of critical knowledge, and a concern for the honour and interest of Christianity in general, assisted by a good judgment, to discern and select those things, that may most conduce to it; I doubt, there are not many expositors, as they are called, of the scripture, that are not deficient in the former, or the latter of these particulars, and I wish there be not too many, that are defective in both.

THAT the knowledge of at least Greek and Hebrew is requisite to him, that takes upon him to expound writings penned originally in those languages, if the nature of the thing did not manifest it, you might easily be persuaded to believe, by considering, with what gross mistakes the ignorance of languages has oftentimes blemished, not only the interpretations of the school-men and others, but even those of the venerable fathers of the church. For though generally they were worthy men, and highly to be regarded, as the grand witnesses of the doctrines and government of the antient churches; most of them very pious, many of them very eloquent, and some of them (especially

(especially the two criticks, *Origen* and *Jerom*) very learned; yet so few of the Greek fathers were skilled in Hebrew, and so few of the Latin fathers either in Hebrew, or Greek, that many of their homilies, and even comments, leave hard texts as obscure as they found them; and, sometimes misled by bad translations, they give them senses exceeding wide of the true: so that many times in their writings they appear to be far better divines than commentators, and in an excellent discourse upon a text, you shall find but a very poor exposition of it; many of their eloquent and devout sermons being much better encomiasts of the divine mysteries they treat of, than unvailers. And though some modern translations deserve the praise of being very useful, and less unaccurate than those, which the Latin fathers used; yet when I read the scriptures (especially some books of the Old Testament) in their originals, I confess I cannot but sometimes wonder, what came into the mind of some, even of our modern translators, that they should so much mistake, and sometimes injure certain texts as they do; and I am prone to think, that there is scarce a chapter in the bible (especially that part of it, which is written in Hebrew,) that may not be better translated, and consequently more to the credit of the book itself.

THIS credit it misses of, not only by men's want of sufficient skill in critical learning, but (to come to the second member of our late division) for want of their having judgment enough to observe, and concern enough to propose those things in the scripture, and in theology, that tend to the reputation of either. For I fear there are too many, both commentators and other divines, that (though otherwise perhaps pious men) having espoused a church or party, and an aversion from all dissenters, are solicitous, when they peruse the scripture, to take notice chiefly, if not only (I mean in points speculative) of those things, that may either suggest arguments against their adversaries, or answers to their objections. But I meet with much fewer than I could wish, who make it their business to *search the scriptures* for those things (such as un-^{Ερμηνεύται} heeded prophecies, over-looked mysteries, and strange harmonies) which being clearly ^{ῥαφεί.} and judiciously proposed, may make that book appear worthy of the high extraction it challenges (and consequently of the veneration of considering men) and who are solicitous to discern and make out, in the way of governing and of saving men, revealed by God, so excellent an œconomy, and such deep contrivances, and wise dispensations, as may bring credit to religion, not so much as it is Roman, or protestant, or Socinian, but as it is Christian. But (as I intimated before) these good affections for the repute of religion in general are to be assisted by a deep judgment. For men, that want either that, or a good stock of critical learning, may easily over-see the best observations (which usually are not obvious) or proposed as mysteries, things that are either not grounded, or not weighty enough; and so (notwithstanding their good meaning) may bring a disparagement upon what they desire to recommend. And I am willing to grant, that it is rather for want of good skill and good judgment, than good will, that there are so few, that have been careful to do right to the reputation of the scripture, as well as to its sense. And indeed when I consider, how much more to the advantage of those sacred writings, and of Christian theology in general, divers texts have been explained and discoursed of by the excellent *Grotius*, by *Episcopus*, *Masius*, Mr. *Mede*, and Sir *Francis Bacon*, and some other late great wits (to name now no living ones) in their several kinds, than the same places have been handled by vulgar expositors, and other divines: and when I remember too, that none of these newly named worthies was at once a great philosopher, and a great critick; (the three first being not so well versed in philosophical learning, and the last being unacquainted with eastern tongues:) I cannot but hope, that when it shall please God to stir up persons of a philosophical genius, well furnished with critical learning, and the principles of

true philosophy, and shall give them a hearty concern, for the advancement of his truths; these men, by exercising upon theological matters that inquisitiveness and sagacity, that has made in our age such a happy progress in philosophical ones, will make explications and discoveries, that will justify more than I have said in praise of the study of our religion, and the divine books, that contain the articles of it. For these want not excellencies, but only skilful unvailers. And if I do not tell you, that you should no more measure the wisdom of God couched in the bible, by the glosses or systems of common expositors and preachers, than estimate the wisdom he has expressed in the contrivance of the world by *Magirus's* or *Eustachius's* physicks; yet I shall not scruple to say, that you should as little think, that there are no more mysteries in the books of scripture, besides those, that the school-divines and vulgar commentators have taken notice of, and unfolded; as that there are no other mysteries in the book of nature, than those, which the same school-men (who have taken upon them to interpret *Aristotle* and nature too) have observed and explained. All the fine things, that poets, orators, and even lovers have hyperbolically said in praise of the beauty of eyes, will nothing near so much recommend them to a philosopher's esteem, as the sight of one eye skilfully dissected, or the unadorned account given of its structure, and the admirable uses of its several parts, in *Scheiner's Oculus*, and *Des Cartes's* excellent dioptricks. And though I do not think myself bound to acquiesce in, and admire every thing, that is proposed, as mysterious and rare by many interpreters and preachers; yet I think, I may safely compare several things in the books we call the scripture, to several others in that of nature, in (at least) one regard. For, though I do not believe all the wonders, that *Pliny*, *Ælian*, *Porta*, and other writers of that stamp, relate of the generation of animals; yet by perusing such faithful and accurate accounts, as sometimes *Galen de usu Partium*, sometimes *Vesalius*, sometimes our *Harvey (de Ovo)* and our later anatomists, and sometimes other true naturalists, give of the generation of animals, and of the admirable structure of their bodies, especially those of men, and such other parts of zoology, as *Pliny*, and the other writers I named with him, could make nothing considerable of; by perusing these, I say I receive more pleasure and satisfaction, and am induced more to admire the works of nature, than by all their romantick and superficial narratives. And thus (to apply this to our present subject) a close and critical account of the more veiled and pregnant parts of scripture, and theological matters, with such reflections on them, as their nature and collation would suggest to a philosophical, as well as critical speculator, would far better please a rational considerer, and give him a higher, as well as a better grounded veneration, for the things explained, than a great many of those slighter or ill founded remarks, wherewith the expositions and discourses of superficial writers, though never so florid or witty, gain the applause of the less discerning sort of men.

And here, on this occasion, I shall venture to add, that I despair not, but that a farther use may be made of the scripture, than either our divines or philosophers seem to have thought on. Some few theologues indeed have got the name of Supralapsarians, for venturing to look back beyond the fall of *Adam* for God's decrees of election and reprobation. But besides that, their boldness has been disliked by the generality of divines, as well as other Christians, the object of their speculation is much too narrow to be any thing near and adequate to such an hypothesis as I mean. For methinks, that the *Encyclopedia's* and *Pansophia's*, that even men of an elevated genius have aimed at, are not diffused enough to comprehend all, that the reason of a man, improved by philosophy, and elevated by the revelations already extant in the scripture, may, by the help of free ratiocination, and the hints contained in those pregnant writings (with those assistances of God's spirit, which he is still ready to

vouchsafe

vouchsafe to them, that duly seek them,) attain unto in this life. The gospel comprises indeed, and unfolds the whole mystery of man's redemption, as far forth as it is necessary to be known for our salvation: and the corpuscularian or mechanical philosophy strives to deduce all the phænomena of nature from adiabhorous matter, and local motion. But neither the fundamental doctrine of Christianity, nor that of the powers and effects of matter and motion, seems to be more than an epicycle (if I may so call it) of the great and universal system of God's contrivances, and makes but a part of the more general theory of things, knowable by the light of nature, improved by the information of the scriptures: so that both these doctrines, though very general, in respect of the subordinate parts of theology and philosophy, seem to be but members of the universal hypothesis, whose objects I conceive to be the nature, counsels, and works of God, as far as they are discoverable by us (for I say not to us) in this life.

For those, to whom God has vouchsafed the privilege of mature reason, seem not to enlarge their thoughts enough, if they think, that the omniscient and almighty God has bounded the operations of his power, and wisdom, and goodness, to the exercise, that may be given them for some ages, by the production and government of matter and motion, and of the inhabitants of the terrestrial globe, which we know to be but a physical point in comparison of that portion of universal matter, which we have already discovered.

For I account, that there are four grand communities of creatures, whereof things merely corporeal make but one; the other three, differing from these, are distinct also from one another. Of the first sort are the race of mankind, where intellectual beings are vitally associated with gross and organical bodies. The second are dæmons, or evil angels; and the third good angels; (whether in each of those two kinds of spirits, the rational beings be perfectly free from all union with matter, though never so fine and subtle; or whether they be united to vehicles, not gross, but spirituous, and ordinarily invisible to us.)

Nor may we think, because angels and devils are two names quickly uttered, and those spirits are seldom or never seen by us, there are therefore but few of them, and the speculation of them is not considerable. For, as their excellency is great, (as we shall by and by shew) so for their number, they are represented in scripture as an heavenly host, standing on the right and left hand of the throne of God. And of the good angels, our saviour speaks of having more than twelve legions of them at his command. Nay, the prophet *Daniel* saith, that to the ancient of days, no less than millions ministered unto him, and hundreds of millions stood before him. And of the evil angels, the gospel informs us, that enough to call them a legion (which, you know, is usually reckoned, at a moderate rate, to consist of betwixt six and seven thousand) possessed one single man. For my part, when I consider, that matter, how vastly extended, and how curiously shaped soever, is but a brute thing, that is only capable of local motion, and its effects and consequents on other bodies, or the brain of man, without being capable of any true, or at least any intellectual perception, or true love or hatred; and when I consider the rational soul as an immaterial and immortal being, that bears the image of its divine maker, being endowed with a capacious intellect, and a will, that no creature can force: I am by these considerations disposed to think the soul of man a nobler and more valuable being, than the whole corporeal world; which though I readily acknowledge it to be admirably contrived, and worthy of the almighty and omniscient author, yet it consists but of an aggregate of portions of brute matter, variously shaped and connected by local motion (as dough, and roles, and loaves, and cakes and vermicelli, wafers, and pie-crust, are all of them diversified meal; but without

Matth. xxvi.

53.
Dan. vii. 10.

Mark v. 9.

Luke vii.

30.

any knowledge either of their own nature, or of that of their author, or of that of their fellow-creatures.) And as the rational soul is somewhat more noble and wonderful, than thing merely corporeal, how vast soever it can be, and is of a more excellent nature, than the curiousest piece of mechanism in the world, the human body; so to enquire what shall become of it, and what fates it is like to undergo hereafter, does better deserve a man's curiosity, than to know what shall befall the corporeal universe, and might justly have been to *Nebuchadnezzar* a more desirable part of knowledge, than that he was so troubled for want of, when it was adumbrated to him in the mysterious dream, that contained the characters and fates of the four great monarchies of the world. And as man is intrusted with a will of his own, whereas all material things move only as they are moved, and have no self-determining power, on whose account they can resist the will of God; and as also of angels, at least some orders of them, are of a higher quality (if I may so speak) than human souls; so it is very probable, that in the government of angels, whether good or bad, that are intellectual voluntary agents, that is required and employed far greater displays of God's wisdom, power, and goodness, in the guidance of adiaphorous matter; and the method of God's conduct in the government of these, is a far nobler object for men's contemplation, than the laws, according to which the parts of matter hit against, and juggle one another, and the effects or results of such motions.

Dan. ii. 31,
32, &c.

Isa. lxxv. 2.

AND accordingly we find in scripture, that, whereas about the production of the material world, and the setting of the frame of nature, God employed only a few commanding words, which speedily had their full effects; to govern the race of mankind, even in order to their own happiness, he employed not only laws and commands, but revelations, miracles, promises, threats, exhortations, mercies, judgments, and divers other methods and means; and yet oftentimes, when he might well say, as he did once by his prophet, "What could I have done more to my vineyard, that I have not done it?" he had just cause to expostulate as he did in the same place, "Wherefore, when I looked, that it should bring forth grapes, brought it forth wild grapes?" and to complain of men, as by that very prophet he did even of *Israel*, "I have spread out my hands all the day to a rebellious people." But not to wander too far in this digression; what we have said of men, may render it probable, that the grand attributes of God are more signally exercised, and made more conspicuous in the making and governing of each of the three intellectual communities, than in the framing and upholding the community of mere bodily things. And since all immaterial substances are for that reason naturally immortal, and the universal matter is believed so too, possibly those revolutions, that will happen after the day of judgment, wherein though probably not the matter, yet that state and constitution of it, on whose account it is this world will be destroyed, and make way for quite new frames and sets of things corporeal, and the beings, that compose each of these intellectual communities, will, in those numberless ages they shall last, travel through I know not how many successive changes and adventures; perhaps, I say, these things will no less display, and bring glory to the divine attributes, than the contrivance of the world, and the oeconomy of man's salvation, though these be (and that worthily) the objects of the naturalists and the divines contemplation. And there are some passages in the prophetic part of the scripture, and especially in the book of the Apocalypse, which, as they seem to intimate, that as God will perform great and noble things, which mechanical philosophy never reached to, and which the generality of divines seem not to have thought of; so divers of those great things may be, in some measure, discovered by an attentive searcher into the scriptures, and that so much to the advantage of the devout indagator, that St. *John*, near the beginning of his *Revelations*, pronounces them happy, that

Πολιτεια
κλεις
σφιδας τε
Θ:δ
Ephes. iii.
10.

AND here, Sir, let me freely confess to you, that I am apt to think, that if men were not wanting to God's glory, and their own satisfaction, there would be far more discoveries made, than are yet attained to, of the divine attributes. When we consider the most simple, or uncompounded essence of God, we may easily be persuaded, that what belongs to any of his attributes (some of which thinking men generally admire) must be an object of enquiry exceeding noble, and worthy of our knowledge. And yet the abstruseness of this knowledge is not in all particulars so invincible, but that I strongly hope, a philosophical eye, illustrated by the revelations extant in the scripture, may pierce a great deal farther than has yet been done, into those mysterious subjects, which are too often (perhaps out of a mistaken reverence) so poorly handled by divines and schoolmen, that not only what they have taught, is not worthy of God (for that is a necessary, and therefore excusable deficiency) but too frequently it is not worthy of men, I mean, of rational creatures, that take upon them to treat of such high points, and instruct others about them. And I question not but your friend will the less scruple at this, if he call to mind those new and handsome notions about some of the attributes of God, that his master *Cartesius*, though but moderately versed in the scriptures, has presented us with. Nor do I doubt, but that a much greater progress might be made in the discovery of subjects, where, though we can never know all, we may still know farther if speculative geniuses would propose to themselves particular doubts and enquiries, about particular attributes and frame and examine hypotheses, establish theorems, draw corollaries; and (in short) apply to this study the same sagacity, assiduity, and attention of mind, which they often employ about enquiries of a very much inferior nature; insomuch, as *Des Cartes* (how profound a geometrician so-

* To render the original word (*observe*, or) *watch*, rather than *keep*, seems more congruous to the sense of the text, and is a criticism suggested to me by an eminent mathematician, as well as divine, who took notice, that the word $\tau\alpha\pi\epsilon\iota$ is used by the Greeks, as a term of art to express the astronomical observation of eclipses, planetary conjunctions, oppositions, and other celestial phenomena.

ever he were) confesses in one of his epistles, that he employed no less than six weeks to find the solution of a problem or question of *Pappus*. And *Pythagoras* was so addicted to, and concerned for geometrical speculations, that when he had found that famous proposition, which makes the 47th in *Euclid's* First Book, he is recorded to have offered a hecatomb, to express his joy and gratitude for the discovery: which yet was but of one property of one sort of right-lined triangles. And certainly, if Christian philosophers did rightly estimate, how noble and fertile subjects the divine attributes are, they would find in them wherewithal to exercise their best parts, as well as to recompence the employment of them. But because, what I would dissuade, does not, perhaps, proceed only from laziness, but from a mistake; as if there were little to be known of so incomprehensible an object as God, save, that in general, all his attributes are like himself, infinite, and consequently not to be fully known by human understandings, because they are finite; I shall add, that though it be true, that by reason of God's infinity, we cannot comprehend him, that is, have a full and adequate knowledge of him; yet, we may not only know very many things concerning him, but, which is more, may make an endless progress in that knowledge. As no doubt, *Pythagoras* (newly mentioned) knew very well what a triangle was, and was acquainted with divers of its properties and affections, before he discovered that famous one. And though, since him, *Euclid*, *Archimedes*, and other geometricians have demonstrated, I know not how many other affections of the same figure, yet they have not to this day exhausted the subject: and possibly I (who pretend not to be a mathematician) may now and then, in managing certain æquations I had occasion for, have lighted upon some theorems about triangles, that occurred not to any of them. The divine attributes are such fruitful themes, and so worthy of our admiration, that the whole fabric of the universe, and all the phænomena exhibited in it, are but imperfect expressions of God's wisdom, and some few of his other attributes. And I do not much marvel, that the angels themselves are represented in scripture, as employed in adoring God, and admiring his perfections. For even they being but finite, can frame but inadequate conceptions of him; and consequently must endeavour, by many of them, to make amends for the incompleatness of every one of them; which yet they can never but imperfectly do. And yet God's infinity can but very improperly be made a discouragement of our enquiries into his nature and attributes. For (not now to be expressed by a negative word, be not a positive thing in God) we may, notwithstanding his infinity, discover as much of him as our nature is capable of knowing: and what harm is it to him, that is drinking in a river, that he cannot drink up all the water, if he have liberty fully to quench his thirst, and take in as much liquor as his stomach can contain? Infinity therefore should not hinder us from a generous ambition to learn as much as we can of an object, whose being infinite does but make our knowledge of it the more noble and desirable, which indeed it is, in such a degree, that we need not wonder, that the angels are represented as never weary of their employment of contemplating and praising God. For, as I lately intimated, that they can have but inadequate ideas of those boundless perfections, and by no number of those ideas can arrive to make amends for the incompleatness of them; so it need not seem strange, that in fresh discoveries of new parts (if I may so call them) of the same object, it being such a one, they should find nobler and happier entertainments, than any where else variety could afford them.

Isa. vi. 2, 3.
 Luke ii. 13,
 14.
 Rev. v. 11,
 12.

SECTION II.

HAVING thus taken notice of some particulars of those many, which may be employed to shew, how noble the objects are, that theology proposes to be contemplated; I now proceed to some considerations, that may make us sensible, how great an obligation there lies on us, to addict ourselves to the study of them.

YET, of the particulars, whereon this obligation may be grounded, I shall now name but two, they being indeed comprehensive ones, obedience, and gratitude.

AND first, let me represent, that it needs not, I suppose, be solicitously proved, that it is the will and command of God, that men should learn those truths, that he has been pleased to teach, whether concerning his nature or attributes, or the way, wherein he will be served and worshipped by man. For if we had not injunctions of scripture to that purpose, yet your friend is too rational a man to believe, that God would so solemnly cause his truths to be published to mankind, both by preaching and writing, without intention to oblige those (at least) that have the capacity and opportunity to enquire into some of them; and if it appear to be his will, that a person so qualified should search after the most important truths, that he hath revealed, it cannot but be their duty to do so. For though the nature of the thing itself did not lay any obligation on us, yet the authority of him, that commands it, would; since, being the supreme and absolute Lord of all his creatures, he has as well a full right to make what laws he thinks fit, and enjoin what service he thinks fit, as a power to punish those, that either violate the one, or deny the other; and accordingly it is very observable, that before *Adam* fell, and had forfeited his happy state, by his own transgression, he not only had a law imposed upon him, but such a law, as, being about a matter itself indifferent, (for so it was to eat, or not to eat, of the tree of life, as well as of any other,) derived its whole power of obliging from the mere will and pleasure of the law-giver. Whence we may learn, that man is subject to the laws of God, not as he is obnoxious to him, but as he is a rational creature, and that the thing, that is not a duty in its own nature, may become an indispensable one, barely by its being commanded. And indeed, if our first parent, in the state of innocence and happiness, wherein he tasted of God's bounty, without as yet standing in need of his mercy, was most strictly obliged, out of mere obedience, to conform to a law, the matter of which was indifferent in itself; sure we, in our lapsed condition, must be under a high obligation to obey the declared will of God, whereby we are enjoined to study his truths, and perform that, which has so much of intrinsic goodness in it, that it would be a duty, though it were not commanded; and has such recompences proposed to it, that it is not more a duty, than it will be an advantage.

BUT it is not only obedience, and interest, that should engage us to the study of divine things, but gratitude; and that exacted by so many important motives, that he, who said, *ingratum si dixeris, omnia dixeris*, could not think ingratitude so much worse than ordinary vices, as a contempt of the duty I am pressing would be worse than an ordinary ingratitude.

IT were not difficult, on this occasion, to manifest, that we are extremely great debtors unto God, both as he is the author, and the preserver of our very beings; and as he (immediately, or mediately,) fills up the measure of those continual benefits, with all the prerogatives, and other favors we do receive from him, as men; and the higher blessings, which (if we are not wanting to ourselves,) we may receive from him, as Christians.

Seraph
Love.Psal. xxxii.
9.Deut. viii.
10, 11, 12,
13, 14,
18.Job xxxviii.
5, 6, 7.

Psal. l. 23.

Hos. xiv. 2.

Psal. civ.
24.

Psal. xix. 1.

Psal. cxxxix.
54.

BUT to shew, in how many particulars, and to how high a degree, God is our benefactor, were to launch out into too immense a subject; which it were the less proper for me to do, because I have, in other papers, discoursed of those matters already. I will therefore single out a motive of gratitude, which will be peculiarly pertinent to our present purpose. For, whereas your friend does so highly value himself upon the study of natural philosophy, and despises not only divines, but statesmen, and even the learnedest men in other parts of philosophy and knowledge, because they are not versed in physicks; he owes to God that very skill, among many other vouchsafements. For it is God, who *made man unlike the horse and the mule, who have no understanding*, and endowed him with that noble power of reason, by the exercise of which, he attains to whatever knowledge he has of natural things above the beasts that perish. For that may justly be applied to our other acquisitions, which *Moses*, by God's appointment, told the Israelites concerning the acquits of riches; where he bids the people beware, that when their herds, and their flocks, and other treasures were multiplied, their heart be not lifted up, and prompt them to say, "My power, and the might of my hand, hath gotten me this wealth." But, (subjoins that excellent person, as well as matchless law-giver,) Thou shalt remember thy Lord thy God, for it is he, that giveth thee power to get wealth. But to make men rational creatures, is not all God has done towards the making them philosophers. For, to the knowledge of particular things, objects are as well requisite as faculties; and if we admit the probable opinion of divines, who teach us, that the angels were created before the material world, as being meant by those *sons of God*, and *morning stars*, that, with glad songs and acclamations, celebrated the foundation of the earth; we must allow, that there were many creatures endowed with, at least as much reason as your friend, who yet were unacquainted with the mysteries of nature, since she herself had not yet received a being. Wherefore, God having as well made the world, as given man the faculties; whereby he is enabled to contemplate it; naturalists are as much obliged to God for their knowledge, as we are for our intelligence to those, that writ us secrets in cyphers, and teach us the skill of decyphering things so written; or to those, who writ what would fill a page in the compass of a single penny, and present us to boot a microscope to read it. And as the naturalist hath peculiar inducements to gratitude, for the endowment of knowledge; so ingenuity lays this peculiar obligation on him to express his gratitude, in the way I have been recommending, that it is one of the acceptablest ways it can be expressed in; especially since, by this way, philosophers may not only exercise their own gratitude towards God, but procure him that of others. How pleasing men's hearty praises are to God, may appear, among other things, by what is said and done by that royal poet, whom God was pleased to declare a man after his own heart; for he introduces God pronouncing, "Who so offereth praise, glorifieth me;" where the word our interpreters render offereth, in the *Hebrew*, signifies to sacrifice; with which agrees, that elsewhere those, that pay God their praises, are said to sacrifice to him "the calves of their lips." And that excellent person, to whom God vouchsafed so particular a testimony, was so assiduous in this exercise, that the book which we, following the *Greek*, call *Psalms*, is, in the original, from the things it most abounds with, called *Sepher Tebillim*, i. e. the book of praises. And to let you see, that many of his praises were such, as the naturalist may best give, he exclaims, in one place, "How manifold are thy works, O Lord? how wisely hast thou made them," (as *Junius* and *Tremellius* render it, and the *Hebrew* will bear;) and elsewhere, "The heavens declare the glory of God, and the firmament sheweth his handy-work, &c." Again, in another place, "I will praise thee, because I am fearfully and wonderfully made. Marvellous are thy works, and that my soul knoweth

“ knoweth right well.” And not content with many of the like expressions, he does several times, in a devout transport, and poetical strain, invite the heavens, and the stars, and the earth, and the seas, and all the other inanimate creatures, to join with him in the celebration of their common maker. Which, though it seem to be merely a poetical scheme, yet, in some sort, it might become a naturalist, who, by making out the power, wisdom, and goodness of the Creator; and by reflecting thence on those particulars, wherein those attributes shine, may, by such a devout consideration of the creatures, make them, in a sense, join with him in glorifying their author.

In any other case, I dare say, your friend is not so ill natured, but that he would think it an unkind piece of ingratitude, if some great and excellent prince, having freely and transcendently obliged him, he should not concern himself to know what manner of man his benefactor is; and should not be solicitous to inform himself of those particulars, relating to the person and affairs of that obliging monarch, which were not only in themselves worthy of any man’s curiosity, but about which the prince had solemnly declared, he was very desirous to have men inquisitive. And surely it is very disingenuous, to undervalue, or neglect the knowledge of God himself, for a knowledge, which we cannot attain without him, and by which he designed to bring us to that study we neglect for it: which is not only, not to use him as a benefactor, but as if he meant to punish him, (if I may so speak,) for having obliged us, since we so abuse some of his favours, as to make them inducements to our unthankful disregard of his intentions in the rest. And this ingratitude is the more culpable, because the laws of ingenuity, and of justice itself, charge us to glorify the maker of all things visible, not only upon our own account, but upon that of all his other works. For, by God’s endowing of none but man here below, with a reasonable soul, not only he is the sole visible being, that can return thanks and praises in the world, and thereby is obliged to do so, both for himself, and for the rest of the creation; but it is for man’s advantage, that God has left no other visible beings in the world, by which he can be studied and celebrated. For reason is such a ray of divinity, that, if God had vouchsafed it to other parts of the universe besides man, the absolute empire of man over the rest of the world must have been shared, or abridged. So that he, to whom it was equally easy to make creatures superior to man, (as the scripture tells us of legions, and myriads of angels,) as to make them inferior to him, dealt so obligingly with mankind, as rather to trust (if I may so speak) our ingenuity, whether he shall reap any celebrations from the creatures we converse with, than lessen our empire over them, or our prerogatives above them.

BUT I fear, that, notwithstanding all the excellency of revealed truths, and consequently of that only authentic repository of them, the scripture, you, as well as I, have met with some (for I hope there are not many) virtuosi, that think to excuse the neglect of the study of it, by alledging, that, to them, who are laymen, not ecclesiasticks, there is required to salvation the explicit knowledge but of very few points, which are so plainly summed up in the apostles creed, and are so often and conspicuously set down in the scripture, that one needs not much search, or study, to find them there.

In answer to this allegation, I readily grant, that through the great goodness of God, who is willing to have all men saved, and come to the knowledge of the truth, that is necessary to be so; there are much fewer articles absolutely necessary to be by all men distinctly believed, than may be met with in divers long confessions of faith, some of which have, I fear, less promoted knowledge than impaired charity. But than it may be also considered, 1. That it is not so easy for a rational man, that will trouble

1 Tim. ii. 4.

himself to enquire no farther than the apostles creed, to satisfy himself upon good grounds, that all the fundamental articles of Christianity are contained in it. 2. That the creed proposes only the *credenda*, not the *agenda* of religion; whereas the scriptures were designed, not only to teach us what truths we are to believe, but by what rules we are to live; the obedience to the laws of Christianity being as necessary to salvation, as the belief of its mysteries. 3. That besides the things, which are absolutely necessary, there are several, that are highly useful, to make us more clearly understand, and more rationally and firmly believe, and more steadily practice, the points, that are necessary. 4. And since whether or no those words of our Saviour to the Jews, *ἐρευνᾶτε τὰς γραφὰς* *, be to be rendered in the imperative or indicative mode; St. Paul would have the word of Christ to dwell richly in us, (by which, whether he mean the holy scriptures then extant, or the doctrine of Christ, is not here material;) thereby teaching us, that searching into the matters of religion may become necessary, as a duty, though it were not otherwise necessary, as a means of attaining salvation. And indeed it is far more pardonable to want or miss the knowledge of truths, than to despise or neglect it. And the goodness of God to illiterate or mistaken persons is to be supposed meant in pity to our frailties, not to encourage our laziness; nor is it necessary, that he, that pardons those seekers of his truths, that miss them, should excuse those despisers, that will not seek them.

BUT whether or no by this designed neglect of theology the persons, I deal with, do sufficiently consult their own safety, I doubt they will not much recommend their ingenuity. For to have received from God a greater measure of intellectual abilities than the generality of Christians, and yet willingly to come short of very many of them, in the knowledge of the mysteries, and other truths of Christianity, which he often invites us, if not expressly commands, to search after, is a course, that will not relish of over-much gratitude. Is it a piece of that, and of ingenuity, to receive one's understanding and one's hopes of eternal felicity from the goodness of God, without being solicitous of what may be known of his nature and purposes by so excellent a way as his own revelation of them? to dispute anxiously about the properties of an atom, and be careless about the enquiry into the attributes of the great God, who formed all things; to investigate the spontaneous generation of such vile creatures as insects, than the mysterious generation of the adorable Son of God; and, in a word, to be more concerned to know every thing, that makes a corporeal part of the world, than the divine and incorporeal author of the whole?

AND then, is it not, think you, a great piece of respect, that these men pay to those truths, which God thought fit to send sometimes prophets and apostles, sometimes angels, and sometimes his only Son himself, to reveal, that such truths are so little valued by them, that rather than take the pains to study them, they will implicitly, and at adventures believe, what that society of Christians, they chance to be born and bred in, have, truly or falsely, delivered, concerning them? And does it argue a due regard to points of religion, that those, who would not believe a proposition in statics, perhaps about a mere point, the centre of gravity, or in geometry, about the properties of some nameless curve line, or some such other things, (which to ignore, is usually not a blemish, and about which to be mistaken, is more usually without danger) should yet take up the articles of faith, concerning matters of great and everlasting consequence, upon the authority of men, fallible as themselves, when satisfaction may be had without them from the infallible word of God? in this very unlike those Bereans, whom the Evangelist honours with the title of Noble, that when the doctrines of the gospel were proposed to them, "they searched the scriptures daily, whether those things were so."

* Search, or, you search the Scriptures.

AGAIN, if a man should refuse to learn to read any more, than just as much as may serve his turn, by intituling him to the benefit of the clergy, to save him from hanging, would these men think so small a measure of literature, as he had acquired on such an account, could prove that man to be a lover of learning; and yet a neglecter of the study of all not absolutely necessary-divine truths, during one's life, because the belief of the articles of the creed may make a shift to keep him from being doomed to hell for ignorance after his death, will not by (what in a learned man must be) so pitiful a degree of knowledge be much better intitled to that ingenuous love of God and his truths, that becomes a rational creature and a Christian.

THE ancient prophets, though honoured by God with direct illuminations, were yet very solicitous to find out and learn the very circumstances of the evangelical dispensations, which yet they did not know. And some of the gospel mysteries are of so noble and excellent a nature, that "the angels themselves desire to look into them." And though all the evangelical truths are not precisely necessary to be known, it may be both a duty not to despise the study of them, and a happiness to employ ourselves about it. It was the earnest prayer of a great king, and no less a prophet, that his eyes might be opened to behold (not the obvious and necessary truths, but) the wondrous things of God's law. He is pronounced happy in the beginning of the Apocalypse, that reads and observes the things contained in that dark and obscure part of scripture. And it is not only those truths, that make articles of the creed, but divers other doctrines of the gospel, that Christ himself judged worthy to be concluded with this epiphonema, "He that hath ears to hear, let him hear;" on which the excellent *Grotius* makes this just paraphrase, *Intellectus nobis a Deo potissimum datus est, ut eum intendamus documentis ad pietatem pertinentibus.*

1 Pet. i. 10, 11.

1 Pet. i. 12.

Psal. cxix.

18. Rev. i.

Mat. xii. 15.

Mark iv. 9,

23.

Luke viii. 8.

SECTION III.

I COME now to our third and last inducement to the study of divine things, which consists in, and comprises the advantages of that study, which do as much surpass those of all other contemplations, as divine things transcend all other objects. And indeed, the utility of this study is so pregnant a motive, and contains in it so many invitations, that your friend must have as little sense of interest, as of gratitude, if he can neglect such powerful and such engaging invitations.

FOR, in the first place, theological studies ought to be highly endeared to us, by the delightfulness of considering such noble and worthy objects, as are therein proposed.

THE famous answer given by an excellent philosopher, who being asked, what he was born for? replied, "To contemplate the sun," may justly recommend their choice, who spend their time in contemplating the maker of the sun, to whom that glorious planet itself is but a shadow. And perhaps that philosopher failed more in the instance than in the notion: for his answer implies, that man's end and happiness consist in the exercise of his noblest faculties on the noblest objects. And surely the seat of formal happiness being the soul, and that happiness consequently consisting in the operations of her faculties; as the supreme faculty of the mind is the understanding, so the highest pleasures may be expected from the due exercise of it upon the sublimest and worthiest objects. And therefore I wonder not, that though some of the school-men would assign the will a larger share in man's felicity, than they will allow the intellect; yet the generality of them are quite of another mind, and ascribe the pre-eminence, in point of felicity, to the superior faculty of the soul. But whether

or no this opinion be true in all cases, it may, at least, be admitted in ours: for the chief objects of a Christian philosopher's contemplation being as well the infinite goodness, as the other boundless perfections of God, they are naturally fitted to excite in his mind an ardent love of that adorable Being, and those other joyous affections and virtuous dispositions, that have made some men think happiness chiefly seated in the will. But having intimated thus much by the way, I pass on to add, that the contentment afforded by the assiduous discovery of God and divine mysteries has so much of affinity with the pleasures, that shall make up men's blessedness in heaven it self, that they seem rather to differ in degree than in kind. For the happy state even of angels is by our Saviour represented by this employment, "That they continually see the face of his father, who is in heaven." And the same infallible teacher, intending elsewhere to express the celestial joys, that are reserved for those, who for their sake denied themselves sensual pleasures, employs the vision of God as an emphatical periphrase of felicity, "Blessed, said he, are the pure in heart, for they shall see God." And as *Aristotle* teaches, that the soul doth after a sort become that, which it speculates, St. *Paul* and St. *John* assure us, that God is a transforming object, and that in heaven "we shall be like him, for (or, because) we shall see him, as he is." And though I readily admit, that this beatifick vision of God, wherein the understanding is the proper instrument, includes divers other things, which will concur to the complete felicity of the future life; yet I think, we may be allowed to argue, that that ravishing contemplation of divine objects will make no small part of that happy estate, which in these texts take its denomination from it.

Matth. v. 8.

1 John iii. 2.
C71.

Medit.
tertia sub
finem.

I have above intimated, that the scripture attributes to the angels themselves transports of wonder and joy upon the contemplation of God, and the exercises they consider of his wisdom, justice, or some other of his attributes. But lest, in referring you to the angels, you should say, that I do in this discourse lay aside the person of a naturalist, in favour of divines; I will refer you to *Des Cartes* himself, whom I am sure your friend will allow to have been a rigid philosopher, if ever there were any. Thus then speaks he in that treatise, where he thinks he employs a more than mathematical rigor; and where he was obliged to utter those (I had almost said passionate) words, I am going to cite from him, only by the impressions made on him by the transcendent excellency of the object he contemplated, *Sed priusquam* (says he) *hoc diligentius examinem, simulque in alias veritates, quæ inde colligi possunt, inquiram, placet hic aliquandiu in ipsius Dei contemplatione immorari, ejus attributa apud me expendere, & immensi hujus luminis pulchritudinem, quantum caligantis ingenii mei acies ferre poterit, intueri, admirari, adorare. Ut enim in hac sola Divinæ Majestatis contemplatione summam alterius vitæ felicitatem consistere fide credimus; ita etiam jam ex eadem, licet multo minus perfectâ, maximam, cujus in hac vita capaces sumus, voluptatem, percipi posse experimur.*

Exod. xv.
25.

Matth. v.
29. 30.

BUT as high a satisfaction as the study of divine things affords by the nobleness of its object, the contentment is not much inferior, that accrues from the same study, upon the score of the sense of a man's having in it performed his duty. To make actions of this nature satisfactory to us, there is no need, that the things we are employed about, should in themselves be excellent or delightful; the inward gratulations of conscience for having done our duties is able to gild the bitterest pills, and like the wood, that grew by the waters of *Marah*, to correct and sweeten that liquor, which before was the most distasteful. Those ancient Pagan heroes, whose virtues may make us blush, being guided but by natural reason, and innate principles of moral virtues, could find the most difficult and most troublesome duties, upon the bare account of their being duties, not only tolerable, but pleasant. And though to deny some lusts be, in our Saviour's esteem, no less uneasy, than for a man to pluck out his right eye, or cut off his right hand;

hand; yet even ladies have with satisfaction chosen, not only to deny themselves the greatest pleasures of the senses, but to sacrifice the seat of them, the body itself, to preserve the satisfaction of being chaste. Nor are they only the dictates of obedience, that we comply with in this study, but those of gratitude; and that is a virtue, that has so powerful an ascendant upon ingenuous minds, that those, whose principles and aims were not elevated by religion, have, in acknowledgment to their parents and their country, courted the greatest hardships, and hazards, and sufferings, as if they were as great delights and advantages. And a grateful person spends no part of his life to his greater satisfaction, than that, which he ventures or employs for those to whom he is obliged for it; and oftentimes finds a greater contentment even in the difficultest acknowledgments of a favour, than he did in receiving of it.

ANOTHER advantage, and that no mean one, that may accrue from the contemplation of theological truths, is, the improvement of the contemplator himself in point of piety and virtue. For, as the gospel is styled, the mystery of godliness; and St. Paul elsewhere calls what it teaches, the truth, which is according to godliness, that is, a doctrine framed and fitted to promote the interest of piety and virtue in the world: so this character and encomium belongs (though perhaps not equally) to the more retired truths discovered by speculation, as well as to those more obvious ones, that are familiarly taught in catechisms and confessions of faith. I would by no means lessen the excellency and prerogatives of fundamentals; but, since the grand and noblest engagements to piety and virtue are a high veneration for God and his Christ, and an ardent love of them; I cannot but think, that those particular enquiries, that tend to make greater discoveries of the attributes of God, of the nature, and offices, and life of our Saviour, and of the wisdom and goodness they have displayed in the contrivance and effecting of man's redemption, do likewise tend to encrease our admiration, and inflame our love, for the possessors of such divine excellencies, and the authors of such invaluable benefits. And as the brazen serpent, that was but a type of one of the gospel mysteries, brought recovery to those, that looked up to it; so the mysteries themselves, being duly considered, have had a very sanative influence on many, that contemplated them. Nor is it likely, that he, that discerns more of the depth of God's wisdom and goodness, should not, *ceteris paribus*, be more disposed than others to admire him, to love him, to trust him, and so to resign up himself to be governed by him: which frame of mind both is itself a great part of the worship of God, and doth directly tend to the production and increase of those virtues, without the practice of which, the scripture plainly tells us, that we can neither obey God, nor express our love to him. And from this bettering of the mind by the study of theology, will flow (to add that upon the by) another benefit, namely, that by giving us a higher value for God and his truths, it will endear heaven to us, and so not only assist us to come thither, but heighten our felicity there.

I know it may be said, that the melioration of the mind is but a moral advantage. But give me leave to answer, that besides that it is such a moral advantage, as supposes an intellectual improvement, whose fruit it is, a moral benefit may be great enough, even in the judgment of a mere philosopher, and an Epicurean, to deserve as much study as natural philosophy itself. And that you may not think, that I speak this only, because I write in this epistle as a friend to divines, I will tell you, that *Epicurus* himself, who has now a-days so numerous a sect of naturalists to follow him, studied physics, and writ so many treatises about them for this end, that by knowing the natural causes of thunder, lightning, and other dreadful phænomena, the mind might be freed from the disquieting apprehensions men commonly had, that such strange and formidable things proceeded from some incensed deity, and so might trouble the mind, as well

Diogenes
Laertii lib.
10.

well as the air. This account I have been giving of *Epicurus's* design, is but what seems plainly enough intimated by his own words, preserved us by *Laertius*, near the end of his physiological epistle to *Herodotus*, where recommending to him the consideration of what he had delivered about physical principles in general, and meteors in particular, he subjoins, *Si enim ab istis non discesserimus, tum id unde oritur perturbatio, quodque metum ingerit, recta cum ratione edisseremus, nosque ab ipsis eximemus.* And to this in the close of his meteorological epistle to *Pythocles*, his best interpreter, *Gassendus*, makes him speak constantly in these words, *Maxime verò dede teipsum speculationi principiorum, ex quibus constant omnia, & infinitatis naturæ, aliorumque his cohærentium. Insuper verò criteriorum, affectuumque animi, & scopum illius, in quem ista edisserentes collineavimus, attende, tranquillitatem intelligo statumque mentes imperturbatum.* But this is not all the testimony I can give you from *Epicurus* himself to the same purpose; for among his *Ratæ Sententiæ*, preserved us by *Laertius*, (himself reputed an Epicurean) I find one, that goes further; *Si nihil*, says he, *conturbaret nos quod suspicamur, veremurque ex rebus sublimibus, neque item quod ex ipsa morte, ne quando nimirum ad nos pertineat aliquid, ac nosse præterea possemus, qui Germani fines dolorum atque cupiditatum sint* (*ἐν δὲ προσηρόμεθα φυσιολογίαις*) *nihil physiologiâ indigeremus.* Thus far the testimony of *Epicurus*, of whose mind though I am not at all, as to what he would intimate, “That physiology is either proper to free the mind from the belief of a provident deity, and the soul’s immortality, or fit for no other considerable purposes;” yet this use we may well make of these declarations, that in *Epicurus's* opinion a moral advantage, that relates to the government of the affections, may deserve the pains of making enquiries into nature. And since it hence appears, that a mere philosopher, who admitted no providence, may think it worth his pains, to search into the abstrusest parts of physics, and the difficultest phænomena of nature, only to ease himself of one troublesome affection, fear; it need not be thought unphilosophical, to prosecute a study, that will not only restrain one undue passion, but advance all virtues, and free us from all servile fears of the Deity; and tend to give us a strong and well grounded hope in him; and make us look upon God’s greatest power, not with terror, but with joy.

THERE is yet another advantage belonging to the study of divine truths, which is too great to be here pretermitted. For whereas there is scarce any thing more incident to us whilst we inhabit our (*batté chômer*) cottages of clay, and dwell in this vale of tears, than afflictions; it ought not a little to endear to us the newly mentioned study, that it may be easily made to afford us very powerful consolations in that otherwise uneasy state.

I know it may be said, that the speculations, about which the naturalist is busied, are as well pleasing diversions, as noble employments of the mind. And I deny not, that they are often so, when the mind is not hindered from applying it self attentively to them; so that afflictions slight and short may well be weathered out by these philosophical avocations; but the greater and sharper sort of afflictions, and the approaches of death, require more powerful remedies, than these diversions can afford us. For in such cases, the mind is wont to be too much discomposed, to apply the attention requisite to the finding a pleasure in physical speculations; and in sicknesses, the soul is oftentimes as indisposed to relish the pleasures of merely human studies, as the languishing body is to relish those meats, which at other times were delightful: and there are but few, that can take any great pleasure to study the world, when they apprehend themselves to be upon the point of being driven out of it, and in danger of losing all their share in the objects of their contemplation. It will not much qualify our sense of the burning heat of a fever, or the painful gripes of the cholick, to know, that the

three angles of a triangle are equal to two right ones; or, that heat is not a real quality (as the schools would have it,) but a modification of the motion of the insensible parts of matter; and pain not a distinct, inherent quality in the things, that produce it, but an affection of the sentiment. The naturalist's speculations afford him no consolations, that are extraordinary in, or peculiar to the state of affliction; and the avocations, they present him with, do rather amuse the mind from an attention to lesser evils, than bring it any advantages to remove or compensate them, and so work rather in the nature of opiates, than of true cordials.

BUT now, if such a person as Dr. N. falls into adversity, the case is much otherwise; for we must consider, that when the study of divine things is such as it ought to be, though that in itself, or in the nature of the employment, be an act or exercise of reason; yet being applied to, out of obedience, and gratitude, and love to God, it is upon the account of its motives and its aim, an act of religion; and as it proceeds from obedience, and thankfulness, and love to God, so it is most acceptable to him; and upon the account of his own appointment, as well as goodness, is a most proper and effectual means of obtaining his favour; and then I presume, it will easily be granted, that he, who is so happy as to enjoy that, can scarce be made miserable by affliction. For not now to enter upon the common place of the benefits of afflictions to them, that love God, and to them, that are loved by him, it may suffice, that he, who (as the scripture Psal. ciii. speaks) knows our frame, and has promised those, that are his, that they shall not be 14. overburdened, is disposed and wont to give his afflicted servants, both extraordinary com- 1 Cor. xx. forts in afflictions, and comforts appropriated to that state. For though natural philosophy be like its brightest object, the stars, which, however the astronomer can with pleasure contemplate them, are unable, being mere natural agents to afford him a kinder influence than usual, in case he be cast upon his bed of languishing, or into prison; yet the almighty and compassionate maker of the stars, being not only a voluntary, but the most free agent, can suit and proportion his reliefs to our necessities, and alleviate our heaviest afflictions by such supporting consolations, that not only they can never surmount our patience, but are oftentimes unable so much as to hinder our joy; and when death, Job xviii. that king of terrors, presents itself, whereas the mere naturalist sadly expects to be de- 14. prived of the pleasure of his knowledge, by losing those senses and that world, which are the instruments and the objects of it; and perhaps, discovering beyond the grave nothing but either a state of eternal destruction, or of eternal misery, fears either to be confined for ever to the sepulchre, or exposed to torments, that will make even such a condition desirable; the pious student of divine truths is not only freed from the racking apprehensions of having his soul reduced to a state of annihilation, or cast into hell, but enjoys a comfortable expectation of finding far greater satisfaction than ever, in the study he now rejoices to have pursued; since the change, that is so justly formidable to others, will but bring him much nearer to the divine objects of his devout curiosity, and strangely elevate and enlarge his faculties to apprehend them.

AND this leads me to the mention of the last advantage belonging to the study I would persuade you to; and indeed, the highest advantage, that can recommend any study, or invite men to any undertaking; for this is no less than the everlasting fruition of the divine objects of our studies hereafter, and the comfortable expectation of it here. For the employing of one's time and parts, to admire the nature and providence of God, and contemplate the divine mysteries of religion, as it is one of the chief of those homages and services whereby we venerate and obey God; so it is one of those, to which he hath been pleased to apportion no less a recompence, than (that which can have no greater) the enjoyment of himself. The saints and angels in heaven

Psal. lxxii.
have

Luke i. 11, 26.
Acts x. 4, 5, 6.
1 Pet. i. 12. have divers of them been employed to convey the truths of theology, and are solicitous to look into those sacred mysteries; and God hath been pleased to appoint, that those men who study the same lessons, that they do here, shall study them in their company hereafter. And doubtless, though heaven abound with unexpressible joys, yet it will be none of the least, that shall make up the happiness, even of that place, that the knowledge of divine things, that was here so zealously pursued, shall there be compleatly attained. For those things, that do here most excite our desires, and quicken the curiosity and industry of our searches, will not only there continue, but be improved to a far greater measure of attractiveness and influence. For all those interests, and passions, and lusts, that here below either hinder us from clearly discerning, or keep us from sufficiently valuing, or divert us from attentively enough considering, the beauty and harmony of divine truths, will there be either abolished, or transfigured: and as the object will be unveiled; so our eye will be enlightened, that is, as God will there disclose those worthy objects of the angels curiosity, so he will enlarge our faculties, to enable us to gaze, without being dazzled, upon those sublime and radiant truths, whose harmony, as well as splendor, we shall be then qualified to discover, and consequently with transports to admire. And this enlargement and elevation of our faculties will, proportionably to its own measure, increase our satisfaction at the discoveries it will enable us to make. For theology is like a heaven, which wants not more stars than appear in it, but we want eyes, quick-sighted and piercing enough to reach them. And as the milky way, and other whiter parts of the firmament, have been full of immortal lights from the beginning, and our new telescopes have not placed, but found them, there; so, when our Saviour, after his glorious resurrection, instructed his apostles to teach the gospel, it is not said, that he altered any thing in the scriptures of *Moses* and the prophets, but only opened and enlarged their intellects, that they might understand the scriptures, and the royal prophet makes it his prayer, “That God would be pleased to open his eyes, that he might see wonderful things out of the law;” being (as was above intimated) so well satisfied, that the word of God wanted not admirable things, that he is only solicitous for the improvement of his own eyes, that they might be qualified to discern them.

Luke xxiv.
45.
Psalm. cxix.
18.

I had almost forgotten one particular about the advantages of theological studies, that is too considerable to be left unmentioned: for as great as I have represented the benefits accruing from the knowledge of divine truths; yet to endear them to us, it may be safely added, that, to procure us these benefits, the actual attainment of that knowledge is not always absolutely necessary, but a hearty endeavour after it may suffice to entitle us to them. The patient chemist, that consumes himself and his estate in seeking after the philosopher's stone, if he miss of his idolized elixir, had as good, nay better, have never sought it, and remains as poor in effect, as he was rich in expectation. The husbandman, that employs his seed and time, to obtain from the ground a plentiful harvest, if, after all, an unkind season happen, must see his toil made fruitless;

——— *longique perit labor irritus anni.*

Too many patients, that have punctually done and suffered for recovery, all, that physicians could prescribe, meet at last with death, instead of health. You know what entertainment has been given by skilful geometricians to the laborious endeavours, even of such famous writers as *Scaliger*, *Logomontanus*, and other Tetragonists; and that their successor Mr. *Hobbes*, after all the ways he has taken, and those he has proposed, to square the circle, and double the cube, by missing of his end, has, after his

his various attempts, come off, not only with disappointment, but with disgrace. And (to give an instance even in things celestial) how much pains has been taken to find out longitudes, and make astrological predictions with some certainty, which for want of coming up to what they aimed at, have been useless, if not prejudicial to the attempters?

BUT God (to speak with *St. Paul* on another occasion) “that made the world, and Acts xvii. 24, 25. “all things therein, and is lord of heaven and earth,” seeks not our services, as though he “needed any thing, seeing he giveth life, and breath, and all things:” his self-sufficiency and bounty are such, that he seeks in our obedience the occasions of rewarding it, and prescribes us services, because the practice of them is not only suitable to our rational nature, but such as will prevail with his justice, to let his goodness make our persons happy. Agreeably to this doctrine we find in the scripture, Jam. ii. 21. that *Abraham* is said to have been “justified by faith, when he offered his son *Isaac* upon the altar,” (though he did not actually sacrifice him) because he endeavoured to do so; although God graciously accepting the will for the deed, accepted also of the blood of a ram instead of *Isaac*’s. And thus we know, that it was not *David*, but *Solomon*, that built the temple of *Hierusalem*, and yet God says to the former of those 2 Chron. vi. 8, 9. kings (as we are told by the latter) “Forasmuch as it was in thine heart to build an “house for my name, thou didst well in that it was in thine heart, notwithstanding “thou shalt not build the house, &c.” And if we look to the other circumstances 2 Sam. vii. of this story, as they are delivered in the second book of *Samuel*, we shall find, that upon *David*’s declaration of a design to build God an house, God himself vouchsafes to honour him, as he once did *Moses*, with the peculiar title of his servant; and commands the prophet to say to him, “Also the Lord tells thee, that he will make thee verse 5. “an house;” to which is added one of the graciousest messages, that God ever sent verse 11. to any particular man. By which we may learn, that God approves and accepts even those endeavours of his servants, if they be real and sincere, that never come to be actually accomplished: good designs and endeavours are our part, but the events of those, as of all other things, are in the all disposing hand of God, who, if we be not wanting to what lies in us, will not suffer us to be losers, by the defeating dispositions of his providence; but crown our endeavours, either with success, or with some other recompence, that will keep us from being losers, by missing of that. And indeed, if we consider the great elogies, that the scripture, as well frequently as justly, gives God’s goodness (which it represents as over, or as above all his works) and that his Hab. i. 13. purer eyes punish, as well as see, the murder and adultery of the heart, when those intentional sins are hindered from advancing into actual ones; we can scarce doubt, but he, whose justice punishes sinful aims, will allow his infinite goodness to recompense pious attempts: and therefore our Saviour pronounces them blessed, that hunger and Matth. v. 6. thirst after righteousness, assuring them, that they shall be satisfied, and thereby sufficiently intimating to us, that an earnest desire, after a spiritual grace (and such is the knowledge of divine things) may intitle a man to the compleat possession of it, if not in this life, yet in the next, where we shall not any more walk by faith, but by 2 Cor. v. 7. sight, and obtain as well a knowledge as other endowments, befitting that glorious state, wherein the purchaser of it for us, assures us, that we shall be [ἰσὺς ᾧ ἄγγελοι] equal, Luke xx. 36. or like to the angels.

THE considerations, Sir, I have hitherto laid before you, to recommend the study of divine truths, have, I hope, persuaded you, that it is on many accounts, both noble and eligible in itself; and therefore I shall here conclude the first part of this discourse. And in regard, that the under-valuation *Physiophilus* expresses for that excellent employment, seems to flow (chiefly at least) from his fondness and partiality

for natural philosophy; it will next concern us to compare the study of theology with that of physicks, and shew, that the advantages, which your friend alledges in favor of the latter, are partly much lessened by disadvantageous circumstances, and partly much outweighed by the transcendent excellencies of theological contemplations: the study whereof will thereby appear to be not only eligible in itself, but preferable to its rival. And I must give you warning to expect to find the second part, which the making this comparison challenges to itself, a good deal more prolix than the first; not only because it often requires more trouble, and more words to detect and disprove an error, than to make out a truth; but also because, that divers things tending to the credit of divinity, and which consequently might have been brought into the first part of this discourse, were thought more fit to be interwoven with other things, in the answers made to the objections examined in the second.

T H E

Excellency of T H E O L O G Y:

O R

The Pre-eminence of the Study of Divinity above that of
Natural Philosophy.

THE SECOND PART.

I SHALL, without preamble, begin this discourse, by considering the delightfulness of physicks, as the main thing, that inveigles your friend, and divers other virtuosi, from relishing, as they ought, and otherwise would, the pleasantness of theological discoveries. And to deal ingenuously with you, I shall not scruple to acknowledge, that though the address I have made to nature has lasted several years, and has been toilsome enough, and not unexpensive; yet I have been pleased enough with the favours, such as they are, that she has from time to time accorded me, not to complain of having been unpleasantly employed. But though I readily allow the attainments of naturalists to be able to give philosophical souls sincerer pleasures, than those, that the more undiscerning part of mankind is so fond of; yet I must not therefore allow them to surpass, or even equal the contentment, that may accrue to a soul qualified by religion, to relish the best things most from some kind of theological contemplations.

THIS, I presume, will sufficiently appear, if I shew you, that the study of physiology is not unattended with considerable inconveniencies, and that the pleasantness of it may be, by a person studious of divinity, enjoyed with endearing circumstances.

BUT before I name any of the particular reasons, that I am to represent, I fear it may be requisite to interpose a few words, to obviate a mistake, which, if not prevented may have an ill aspect, not only upon the first section, but upon a great part of the following discourse. For I know, that it may be said, that whereas I alledge divers things, to lessen the lately mentioned delightfulness of the study of physick, and to depreciate some other advantages, by which the following sections would recommend it,

some

some of the same things may be objected against the delightfulness of the study of divinity. But this objection will not, I presume, much move you, if you consider the argument and scope of the two parts of this letter. For in the former I have shewn by positive proofs, that the study of theology is attended with divers advantages, which belong to it, either only as some of them do, or principally as others. And now in the second part I come to consider, whether what is alledged in behalf of the study of philosophy, deserve to counter-balance those prerogatives or advantages; and therefore it neither need be, nor is my design, to compare, for instance, the delightfulness of the two studies, theology and physicks, but by shewing the inconveniencies, that allay the latter, to weaken the argument, that is drawn from that delightfulness, to conclude it preferable to the study of theology. So that my work, in this and the following sections, is, not so much to institute comparisons, as to obviate or answer allegations. For since I have in the past discourse grounded the excellency of the study of divinity, chiefly upon those great advantages, that are peculiar to it; my reasonings would not be frustrated, though it should appear, that in point of delightfulness, certainty, &c. that study should, in many cases, be liable to the same objections with the study of nature, since it is not mainly for these qualities, but, as I was saying, for other and peculiar excellencies, that I recommended divinity. And therefore, supposing the delightfulness, &c. of that and of physicks to be allayed by the same, or equal inconveniencies or imperfections; that supposition would not hinder the scales to be swayed in favour of divinity, upon the score of those advantages, that are unquestioned, and peculiarly belong to it. I know not, whether I need add, that notwithstanding this, you are not to expect, that I should give philosophy the wounds of an enemy. For my design being not to discourage you, nor any ingenious man, from courting her at all, nor from courting her much, but from courting her too much, and despising divinity for her, I employ against her not a sword to wound her, but a balance, to shew, that her excellencies, though solid and weighty, are less so, than the preponderating ones of theology. And this temper and purpose of mine renders my task difficult enough to have, perhaps, some right to your pardon, as well as some need of it, if I do not every way steer so exactly, as equally to avoid injuring the cause I am to plead for, and disparaging a study, which I would so little depreciate, that I allow it a great part of my inclinations, and not a little share of my time. And having said this, to keep the design of this discourse from being misunderstood, I hope we may now proceed to the particulars, whose scope we have been declaring.

RETURNING then to what I was about to say before this long, but needful, advertisement interrupted me, I shall resume my discourse of the delightfulness of the study of physicks, about which I was going in the first place to tell you, that I know you and your friend will freely grant me, that the knowledge of the empty and barren physiology, that is taught in the schools, as it exacts not much pains to be acquired, so it affords but little satisfaction when attained. And as I know you will give me leave to say this; so, being warranted by no slight experience of my own, I shall take leave to say also, that the study of that experimental philosophy, which is that, whereof your friend is so much enamoured, is, if it be duly prosecuted, a very troublesome and laborious employment. For, (to mention at present but this) that great variety of objects the naturalist is not only by his curiosity, but by their secret dependances upon one another, engaged to consider, and several ways to handle, will put him upon needing, and consequently upon applying himself to such a variety of mechanick people, (as distillers, druggists, smiths, turners, &c.) that a great part of his time, and perhaps all his patience, shall be spent in waiting upon tradesmen, and repairing the losses he sustains by their disappointments, which is a drudgery greater

than any, who has not tried it, will imagine, and which yet being as inevitable as unwelcome, does very much counter-balance and allay the delightfulness of the study we are treating of. In which so great a part of a man's care and time must be laid out in providing the apparatus's necessary for the trying of experiments.

BUT this is not all. For when you have brought an experiment to an issue, though the event may often prove such as you will be pleased with, yet it will seldom prove such as you can acquiesce in. For it fares not with an inquisitive mind in studying the book of nature, as in reading of *Æsop's* fables, or some other collection of apologues of differing sorts, and independent one upon another; where, when you have read over as many at one time as you think fit, you may leave off when you please, and go away with the pleasure of understanding those you have perused, without being solicited by any troublesome itch of curiosity to look after the rest, as those, which are needful to the better understanding of those you have already gone over, or that will be explicated by them, and scarce without them. But in the book of nature, as in a well-contrived romance, the parts have such a connection and relation to one another, and the things we would discover are so darkly or incompletely knowable by those, that precede them, that the mind is never satisfied till it comes to the end of the book; till when all that is discovered in the progress, is unable to keep the mind from being molested with impatience, to find that yet concealed, which will not be known, till one does at least make a further progress. And yet the full discovery of nature's mysteries is so unlikely to fall to any man's share in this life, that the case of the pursuers of them is at best like theirs, that light upon some excellent romance, of which they shall never see the latter parts. For indeed (to speak now without a simile) there is such a relation betwixt natural bodies, and they may in so many ways (and divers of them unobserved) work upon, or suffer from one another, that he who makes a new experiment, or discovers a new phenomenon, must not presently think, that he has discovered a new truth, or detected an old error. For, (at least if he be a considering man) he will oftentimes find reason to doubt, whether the experiment or observation have been so skilfully and warily made in all circumstances, as to afford him such an account of the matter of fact, as a severe naturalist would desire. And then, supposing the historical part no way defective, there are far more cases than are taken notice of, wherein so many differing agents may produce the exhibited phenomenon, or have a great influence upon the experiment or observation, that he must be less jealous than becomes a philosopher, to whom experiments do not oftentimes as well suggest new doubts, as present new phenomena.

AND even those trials, that end in real discoveries, do, by reason of the connection of physical truths, and the relations that natural bodies have to one another, give such hopes and such desires of improving the acquits we have already made, to the explicating of other difficulties, or the making of further discoveries, that an inquisitive naturalist finds his work to encrease daily upon his hands, and the event of his best toils, whether it be good or bad, does but engage him into new ones, either to free himself from his scruples, or improve his successes. So that, though the pleasure of making physical discoveries is, in itself considered, very great; yet this does a little impair it, that the same attempts, which afford that delight, do so frequently beget both anxious doubts, and a disquieting curiosity. So that, if knowledge be, as some philosophers have stiled it, the aliment of the rational soul, I fear I may too truly say, that the naturalist is usually fain to live upon fallads and fauces, which, though they yield some nourishment, excite more appetite than they satisfy, and give us indeed the pleasure of eating with a good stomach, but then reduce us to an unwelcome necessity of always rising hungry from the table.

OF divers things, that lessen the delightfulness of physiological studies, I do so amply discourse in other papers, that I might well remit you thither; but indeed it is not necessary, that I should insist on this argument any further. It is true, that such a reference might be very proper, if the mysteries of theology and physick were like those of theology and necromancy, or some other part of unlawful magick, whereof the former could not be well relished without an abhorrence of the latter. But as the two great books, of nature and of scripture, have the same author; so the study of the latter does not at all hinder an inquisitive man's delight in the study of the former. The doctor I am pleading for, may as much relish a physical discovery, as *Physiophilus*; nay, by being addicted to theology and religion, he is so far from being incapable of the contentments accruing from the study of nature, that beside those things, that recommend it to others, there are several things, that peculiarly endear it to him.

FOR 1. he has the contentment to look upon the wonders of nature, not only as the productions of an admirably wise author of things, but of such an one, as he intirely honours and loves, and to whom he is related. He, that reads an excellent book, or sees some rare engine, will be otherwise affected with the sight or the perusal, if he knows it to have been made by a friend, or a parent, than if he considers it but as made by a stranger, whom he has no particular reason to be concerned for. And if *Reboboam* did not as well degenerate from the sentiments of mankind, as from his family, he could not but look upon that magnificent temple of *Solomon* with another eye, than did the throngs of strangers, that came only to gaze at it, as an admirable piece of architecture, whilst he considered, that it was his father, that built it. And if, as we see, the same heroick actions, which we read in history, of some great monarch, that strangers barely and unconcernedly admire, the natives of his country do not only venerate, but affectionately interest themselves therein, because they are his country-men, and their ancestors were his subjects: how much may we suppose the same actions would affect them, if they had the honour to be that prince's children? We may well therefore presume, that it is not without a singular satisfaction, that the contemplator, we are speaking of, does in all the wonders of nature discover, how wise, and potent, and bountiful, that author of nature is, in whom he has a great interest, and that so great an one, as both to be admitted into the number of his friends, and adopted into the number of his sons, and is thereby in some measure, concerned in all the admirations and praises, that are paid, either by himself or others, to those adorable attributes, that God has displayed in that great master-piece of power and wisdom, the world. And when he makes greater discoveries in these expresses and adumbrations of the divine perfections, the delightfulness of his contemplation is proportionably increased upon such an account, as that, which endears to the passionate lover of some charming beauty an excellent, above an ordinary, picture of her; because that the same things, that make him, as it does other gazers, look upon it as a finer piece, make him look upon it as the more like his mistress, and thereby entertain him with the sublimer ideas of the beloved original; to whose transcendent excellencies he supposes, that the noblest representations must be the most resembling.

AND there is a farther reason, why our contemplator should find a great deal of contentment in these discoveries. For we have in our nature so much of imperfection, and withall so much of inclination to self-love, that we do too confidently proportion our ideas of what God can do for us, to what we have already the knowledge, or the possession of. And though, when we make it our business, we are able with much ado somewhat to enlarge our apprehensions, and raise our expectations beyond their wonted pitch; yet still they will be but scantily promoted and heightened, if those things

things themselves be but mean and ordinary, which we think we have done enough, if we make them surpass. A country villager, born and bred in a homely cottage, cannot have any suitable apprehensions of the pleasures and magnificence of a great monarch's court. And if he should be bid to scrue up his imagination to frame ideas of them, they would be borrowed from the best tiled house he had seen in the market-towns, where he had sold his turnips or corn, and the wedding-feast of some neighbouring farmer's daughter. And though a child in the mother's womb had the perfect use of reason, yet could it not in that dark cell have any ideas of the sun or moon, or beauties or banquets, or algebra, or chemistry, and many other things, which his elder brothers, that breath fresh air, and freely behold the light, and are in a more mature estate, are capable of knowing and enjoying. Now among thinking men, whose thoughts run much upon that future state, which they much shortly enter into, but shall never pass out of; there will frequently and naturally arise a distrust, which, though seldom owned, proves oftentimes disquieting enough. For such men are apt to question, how the future condition, which the gospel promises, can afford them so much happiness as it pretends to; since they shall in heaven but contemplate the works of God, and praise him, and converse with him; all which they think may, though not immediately, be done by men here below, without being happy. But he, that by telescopes and microscopes, dexterous dissections, and well employed furnaces, &c. discovers the wondrous power and skill of him, that contrived so vast and immense a mass of matter into so curious a piece of workmanship as this world, will pleasingly be convinced of the boundless power and goodness of the great architect. And when he sees, how admirably every animal is furnished with parts requisite to his respective nature; and that there is particular care taken, that the same animal, as for example, man, should have differing provisions made for him, according to his differing states within the womb, and out of it, (a human egg, and an embryo, being much otherwise nourished and fitted for action, than is a (complete) man;) he, I say, who considers this, and observes the stupendous providence, and excellent contrivances, that the curious piers into nature (and none but they) can discover, will be as well enabled as invited to reason thus within himself; that sure God, who has with such admirable artifice framed silk-worms, butterflies, and other meaner insects, and with such wonderful providence taken care, that the nobler animals should as little want any of all the things requisite to the completing of their respective natures; and who, when he pleases, can furnish some things with qualifications quite differing from those, which the knowledge of his other works could have made us imagine, (as is evident in the load stone, and in quick-silver among minerals, and the sensitive plant among vegetables, the camelion among animals, &c.) this God, I say, must needs be fully able to furnish those he delights to honour, with objects suitable to their improved faculties, and with all, that is requisite to the happiness he intends them in their glorified state; and is able to bring this to pass by such amazing contrivances, as perhaps will be quite differing from any, that the things we have yet seen suggest to us any ideas of. And sure he, that has in so immense, so curious, and so magnificent a fabrick, make such provision for men, who are either desperately wicked, or but very imperfectly good, and in a state, where they are not to enjoy happiness, but by obedience and sufferings to fit themselves for it, may safely be trusted with finding them in heaven employments and delights becoming the felicity he designs them there; as we see, that here below he provides as well for the soaring eagle, as for the creeping caterpillar, (and is able to keep the ocean as fully supplied with rivers, as lakes or ponds are with springs and brooks.) And as a state of celestial happiness is so great a blessing, that those things, that afford us either greater assurances, or greater foretastes of it, are
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of the number of the greatest contentments and advantages, that short of it we can enjoy; so it is hard for any divine to receive so much of this kind of satisfaction, as he, who by skilfully looking into the wonders of nature, has his apprehensions of God's power and manifold wisdom (as an apostle calls it) elevated and enlarged. As when the queen of *Sheba* had particularly surveyed the astonishing prudence, that *Solomon* ^{Ephes. iii. 10.} displayed in the ordering of his magnificent court, she transportedly concluded those servants of his to be happy enough to deserve a monarch's envy, that were allowed the honour and privilege of a constant and immediate attendance on him.

S E C T I O N II.

I DOUBT not but you have too good an opinion of your friend, not to think, that you may alledge in his favour, that the chief thing, which makes him prefer physiology to all other kind of knowledge, is, that it enables those, who are proficient in it, to do a great deal of good, both by improving of trades, and by promoting of physick itself. And I am too mindful of what I writ to *Pyrophilus*, to deny, either that it can assist a man to advance physick and trades, or that, by so doing, he may highly advantage mankind. And this I (who would not lessen your friend's esteem for physicks, but only his partiality) willingly acknowledge to be so allowable an endearment of experimental philosophy, that I do not know any thing, that to men of a humane, as well as ingenious disposition, ought more to recommend the study of nature, except the opportunity it affords men to be just and grateful to the author both of nature and of man. I do not then deny, that the true naturalist may very much benefit mankind; but I affirm, that, if men be not wanting to themselves, the divine may benefit them much more. It were not perchance either unseasonable, or impertinent, to tell you on this occasion, that he, who effectually teaches men to subdue their lusts and passions, does as much as the physician contribute to the preservation of their bodies, by exempting them from those vices, whose no less usual than destructive effects are wars, and duels, and rapines, and desolations, and the pox, and surfeits, and all the train of other diseases, that attend gluttony and drunkenness, idleness and lust; which are not enemies to man's life and health barely upon a physical account, but upon a moral one, as they provoke God to punish them with temporal as well as spiritual judgments; such as plagues, wars, famines, and other publick calamities, that sweep away a great part of mankind; besides those personal afflictions of bodily sickness, and disquiets of conscience, that do both shorten men's lives, and imbitter them. Whereas piety having (as the scripture assures us) promises both of this life, and of that, which is to come, those teachers, that make men virtuous and religious, by making them temperate, and chaste, and inoffensive, and calm, and contented, do not only procure them great and excellent dispositions to those blessings, both of the right hand and of the left, which God's goodness makes him forward to bestow on those, who by grace and virtue are made fit to receive them; but do help them to those qualifications, that by preserving the mind in a calm and cheerful temper, as well as by affording the body all, that temperance can confer, do both lengthen their lives, and sweeten them. These things, I say, it were not impertinent to insist on; but I will rather chuse to represent to you, that the benefits, which men may receive from the divine, surpass those, which they receive from the naturalist, both in the nobleness of the advantages, and in the duration of them.

Be it granted then, that the naturalist may much improve both physick and trades; yet since these themselves were devised for the service of the body, (the one to preserve

or

or restore his health, and the other to furnish it with accommodations or delights;) the boasted use of natural philosophy, by its advancing trades and physick, will still be to serve the body, which is but the lodging and instrument of the soul, and which, I presume, your friend, and which I am sure your self will be far from thinking the noblest part of man. I know it may be said, nor do I deny it, that divers mechanical arts are highly beneficial, not only to the inventors, but to those places, and perhaps those states, where such improvements are found out and cherished. But though I most willingly grant, that this consideration ought to recommend experimental philosophy, as well to states as to private persons; yet many of these improvements do rather transfer than encrease mankind's goods, and prejudice one sort of men as much as they advantage another, (as in the case of the eastern spices, of whose trade the Portugals and Dutch by their later navigations, did, by appropriating it to themselves, deprive the Venetians) or else do but increase that, which, though very beneficial to the producers, is not really so to mankind in general: of which we have an example in the invention of extracting gold and silver out of the ore, with mercury. For though it have vastly enriched the Spaniards in the *West Indies*, yet it is not of any solid advantage to the world; no more than the discovery of the Peruvian and other American mines; by which, (especially reckoning the multitudes of unhappy men, that are made miserable, and destroyed in working them,) mankind is not put into a better condition than it was before. And if the philosopher's stone itself, (supposing there be such a thing) were not an incomparable medicine, but were only capable of transmuting other metals into gold I should perhaps doubt, whether the discoverer of it would much advantage mankind; there being already gold and silver enough to maintain trade and commerce among men; and for all other purposes, I know not, why a plenty of iron, brass, and quicksilver, which are far more useful metals, should not be more desirable. But not to urge this; we may consider, that these advancements of enriching trades do still bring advantages but to the outward man, and those many arts and inventions, that aim at the heightening the pleasures of the senses*, belong but to the body; and even in point of gratifying that, are not so requisite and important, as many suppose; education, custom, &c. having a greater interest, than most imagine, in the relish men have even of sensitive pleasures. And as for physick, not to mind you, that it has been loudly, (how justly, I here examine not,) complained of, that the new philosophy has made it far greater promises than have yet been performed; I shall only take notice, that since all, that physick is wont to pretend to, is, to preserve health, or restore it; there are multitudes in the world, that have no need of the assistance the naturalist would give the physician; and a healthy man, as such, is already in a better condition, than the philosopher can hope to place him in, and is no more advantaged by the naturalist's contribution to physick, than a sound man, that sleeps in a whole skin, is by all the fine tools of a surgeon's case of instruments, and the various compositions of his chest.

AND as the benefits, that may be derived from theology, much surpass those, that accrue from physicks, in the nobleness of the subject they relate to; so have they a great advantage in point of duration. For all the services, that medicines, and engines, and improvements can do a man, as they relate but to this life, so they determine with it. Physick indeed, and chymistry do, the one more faintly, and the other more boldly, pretend sometimes, not only to the cure of diseases, but the prolongation of life; but since none will suspect, but that the masters of those parts of knowledge would employ their utmost skill to protract their own lives, those, that remember, that *Solomon* and *Helmont* lived no longer, than millions, that were strangers to philosophy;

* See examples of this, in my notes about Sensation and Sensible Qualities.

losophy; and that even *Paracelsus* himself, for all his boasted *Arcana*, is by *Helmont* and other chemists confessed to have died some years short of fifty; we may very justly fear, that nature will not be so kind to her greatest votaries, as to give them much more time than other men, for the payment of the last debt all men owe her. And if a few years respite could by a scrupulous and troublesome use of diet and remedies be obtained; yet that, in comparison of the eternity, that is to follow, is not at all considerable. But whereas within no great number of years, (a little sooner, or a little later) all the remedies, and reliefs, and pleasures, and accommodations, that philosophical improvements can afford a man, will not keep him from the grave, (which within very few days will make the body of the greatest virtuoso as hideous and as loathsome a carcase, as that of any ordinary man;) the benefits, that may accrue to us by divinity, as they relate chiefly, though not only, to the other world; so they will follow us out of this, and prove then incomparably greater than ever, when they alone shall be capable of being enjoyed. So that philosophy, in the capacity we here consider it, does but as it were provide us some little conveniences for our passage, like some accommodations for a cabin, which outlasts not the voyage; but religion provides us a vast and durable estate, or, as the scripture stiles it, an unshaken kingdom, when we are arrived at our journey's end. And therefore the benefits accruing from religion, may well be concluded preferable to their competitors, since they not only reach to the mind of man, but reach beyond the end of time itself; whereas all the variety of inventions, that philosophy so much boasts of, as whilst they were in season they were devised for the service of the body, so they make us busy, and pride ourselves about things, that within a short time will not (so much as upon its score) at all concern us.

S E C T I O N III.

I EXPECT you should here urge on your friend's behalf, that the study of physicks has one prerogative, (above that of divinity,) which, as it is otherwise a great excellency, so does much add to the delightfulness of it. I mean, the certainty, and clearness, and thence resulting satisfactoriness of our knowledge of physical, in comparison of any we can have of theological matters, whose being dark and uncertain, the nature of the things themselves, and the numerous controversies of differing sects about them, sufficiently manifest.

BUT upon this subject, divers things are to be considered.

FOR first, as to the fundamental and necessary articles of religion, I do not admit the allegation, but take those articles to be both evident, and capable of a moral demonstration. And if there be any articles of religion, for which a rational and cogent proof cannot be brought, I shall for that very reason conclude, that such articles are not absolutely necessary to be believed; since it seems no way reasonable to imagine, that God having been pleased to send not only his prophets and his apostles, but his only son into the world, to promulgate to mankind the Christian religion, and both to cause it to be consigned to writing, that it may be known, and to alter the course of nature by numerous miracles, that it might be believed; it seems not reasonable, I say, to imagine, that he should not propose those truths, which he in so wonderful and so solemn a manner recommended, with at least so much clearness, as that studious and well-disposed readers may certainly understand such, as are necessary for them to believe.

2. THOUGH I will not here engage myself in a disquisition of the several kinds, or, if you please, degrees, of demonstration (which yet is a subject, that I judge far more

considerable than cultivated,) yet I must tell you, that as a moral certainty (such as we may attain about the fundamentals of religion) is enough in many cases for a wise man, and even a philosopher to acquiesce in; so that physical certainty, which is pretended for the truths demonstrated by naturalists, is, even where it is rightfully claimed, but an inferior kind or degree of certainty, as moral certainty also is. For even physical demonstrations can beget but a physical certainty, (that is, a certainty upon supposition, that the principles of physick be true,) not a metaphysical certainty, (wherein it is absolutely impossible, that the thing believed should be other than true.) For instance, all the physical demonstrations of the antients about the causes of particular phænomena of bodies suppose, that *ex nihilo nihil fit*; and this may readily be admitted in a physical sense, because, according to the course of nature, no body can be produced out of nothing, but speaking universally it may be false, as Christians generally, and even the Cartesian naturalists, asserting the creation of the world, must believe, that, *de facto*, it is. And so whereas *Epicurus* does, I remember, prove, that a body once dead cannot be made alive again, by reason of the dissipation and dispersion of the atoms, it was, when alive, composed of; though all men will allow this assertion to be physically demonstrable, yet the contrary may be true, if God's omnipotence intervenes, as all the philosophers, that acknowledge the authority of the New Testament, where *Lazarus* and others are recorded to have been raised from the dead, must believe, that it actually did appear, and even all unprejudiced reasoners must allow it to be possible, there being no contradiction implied in the nature of the thing. But now to affirm, that such things, as are indeed contradictories, cannot be both true, or that *factum infectum reddi non potest*, are metaphysical truths, which cannot possibly be other than true, and consequently beget a metaphysical and absolute certainty. And your master *Cartesius* was so sensible of a dependance of physical demonstrations upon metaphysical truths, that he would not allow any certainty not only to them, but even to geometrical demonstrations, until he had evinced, that there is a God, and that he cannot deceive men, that make use of their faculties aright.

To which I may add, that even in many things, that are looked upon as physical demonstrations, there is really but a moral certainty. For when, for instance, *Des Cartes* and other modern philosophers, take upon them to demonstrate, that there are divers comets, that are not meteors, because they have a parallax lesser than that of the moon, and are of such a bigness, and some of them move in such a line, &c. it is plain, that divers of these learned men had never the opportunity to observe a comet in their lives, but take these circumstances upon the credit of those astronomers, that had such opportunities. And though the inferences, as such, may have a demonstrable certainty; yet the premises they are drawn from having but an historical one, the presumed physico-mathematical demonstration can produce in a wary mind but a moral certainty, and not the greatest neither of that kind, that is possible to be attained; as he will not scruple to acknowledge, that knows by experience, how much more difficult it is, than most men imagine, to make observations about such nice subjects, with the exactness, that is requisite for the building of an undoubted theory upon them. And there are I know not how many things in physicks, that men presume they believe upon physical and cogent arguments, wherein they really have but a moral assurance; which is a truth heeded by so few, that I have been invited to take the more particular notice of them in other papers, written purposely to show the doubtfulness and incompleatness of natural philosophy; of which discourse, since you may command a sight, I shall not scruple to refer you thither for the reasons of my affirming here, that the most even of the modern virtuosi are wont to fancy more of clearness and certainty in their physical theories, than a critical examiner will find. Only, that you may not look upon this

as a put off, rather than a reference, I will here touch upon a couple of subjects, which men are wont to believe to be, and which indeed ought to be, the most thoroughly understood; I mean the nature of body in general, and the nature of sensation.

AND for the first of these, since we can turn ourselves no way, but we are every where environed, and incessantly touched by corporeal substances, one would think, that so familiar an object, that does so assiduously, and so many ways affect our senses, and for the knowledge of which we need not enquire into the distinct nature of particular bodies, nor the properties of any one of them, should be very perfectly known unto us. And yet the notion of body in general, or what it is, that makes a thing to be a corporeal substance, and discriminates it from all other things, has been very hotly disputed of, even among the modern philosophers, & *ad hoc sub judice lis est*. And though your favourite *Des Cartes*, in making the nature of a body to consist in extension every way, has a notion of it, which it is more easy to find fault with, than to substitute a better; yet I fear, it will appear to be attended, not only with this inconvenience, that God cannot, within the compass of this world, wherein if any body vanish into nothing, the place or space left behind it, must have the three dimensions, and so be a true body, annihilate the least particle of matter, at least without, at the same instant and place, creating as much (which agrees very ill with that necessary and continual dependance, which he asserts matter itself to have on God for its very being;) but with such other inconveniences, that some friends of yours, otherwise very inclinable to the Cartesian philosophy, know not how to acquiesce in it: and yet I need not tell you, how fundamental a notion the deviser of it asserts it to be. Neither do I see, how this notion of a corporeal substance will any more than any of the formerly received definitions of it, extricate us out of the difficulties of that no less perplexed, than famous controversy, *de compositione continui*. And though some ingenious men, who perhaps perceive better than others, how intricate it is, have of late endeavoured to shew, that men need not be solicitous to determine this controversy, it not being rightly proposed by the school-men, that have started it; and though I perhaps think, that natural philosophy may be daily advanced without the decision of it, because there is a multitude of considerable things to be discovered and performed in nature, without so much as dreaming of this controversy; yet still, as I would propose the question, the difficulties, till removed, will spread a thick night over the notion of body in general. For either a corporeal and extended substance is (either really or mentally) divisible into parts endowed with extension, and each of these parts is divisible also in other corporeal parts, lesser and lesser, *in infinitum*; or else this subdivision must stop somewhere, (for there is no mean between the two members of the distinction;) and in either case the opinion pitched upon will be liable to those inconveniences, not to say absurdities, that are rationally urged against it by the maintainers of the opposite; the objections on both sides being so strong, that some of the more candid, even of the modern metaphysicians, after having tired themselves and their readers with arguing *Pro* and *Con*, have confessed the objections on both sides to be insoluble.

BUT though we do not clearly understand the nature of body in general; yet sure we cannot but be perfectly acquainted with what passes within ourselves in reference to the particular bodies we daily see, and hear, and smell, and taste, and touch. But alas, though we know but little, save by the informations of our senses; yet we know very little of the manner, by which our senses inform us. And to avoid prolixity, I will at present suppose with you, that the ingenious *Des Cartes* and his followers have given the fairest account of sensation, that is yet extant. Now, according to him, a

man's body being but a well organized statue, that, which is truly called sensation, is not performed by the organ, but by the mind, which perceives the motion produced in the organ; (for which reason he will not allow brutes to have sense properly so called;) so that if you ask a Cartesian, how it comes to pass, that the soul of man, which he justly asserts to be an immaterial substance, comes to be wrought upon, and that in such various manners, by those external bodies, that are the objects of our senses, he will tell you, that by their impressions on the sensories, they variously move the fibres or threads of the nerves, wherewith those parts are endowed, and by which the motion is propagated to that little kernel in the brain, called by many writers the Conarion, where these differing motions being perceived by the there residing soul, become sensations, because of the intimate union, and, as it were, permission (as *Cartesius* himself expresses it) of the soul with the body.

BUT now, Sir, give me leave to take notice, that this union of an incorporeal, with a corporeal substance, (and that without a medium) is a thing so unexampled in nature, and so difficult to comprehend, that I somewhat question, whether the profound secrets of theology, not to say the adorable mystery itself of the incarnation, be more abstruse than this. For how can I conceive, that a substance purely immaterial, should be united without a physical medium, (for in this case there can be none,) with the body, which cannot possibly lay hold on it, and which it can pervade, and fly away from at pleasure, as *Des Cartes* must confess the soul actually does in death. And it is almost as difficult to conceive, how any part of the body, without excepting the animal spirits, or the Conarion, (for these are as truly corporeal, as other parts of the human statue,) can make impressions upon a substance perfectly incorporeal, and which is not immediately affected by the motions of any other parts, besides the *Genus Nervosum*. Nor is it a small difficulty to a mere naturalist (who, as such, does not in physical matters take notice of revelations about angels,) to conceive, how a finite spirit can either move, or, which is much the same thing, regulate and determine the motion of a body. But that, which I would on this occasion invite you to consider, is, that supposing the soul does in the brain perceive the differing motions communicated to the outward senses; yet this, however it may give some account of sensation in general, will not at all shew us a satisfactory reason of particular and distinct sensations. For if I demand, why, for instance, when I look upon a bell, that is ringing, such a motion or impression in the Conarion produces in the mind that peculiar sort of perception, seeing, and not hearing; and another motion, though coming from the same bell, at the same time, produces that quite differing sort of perception, that we call sound, but not vision; what can be answered, but that it was the good pleasure of the author of human nature to have it so? And if the question be asked about the differing objects of any one particular sense; as, why the great plenty of unperturbed light, that is reflected from snow, milk, &c. does produce a sensation of whiteness, rather than redness or yellowness? or why the smell of castor, or assa foetida, produces in most persons that, which they call a stink, rather than a perfume? (especially since we know some hysterical women, that think it not only a wholesome, but a pleasing smell.) And if also you further ask, why melody and sweet things do generally delight us? and discords and bitter things do generally displease us? Nay, why a little more than enough of some objects, that produce pleasure, will produce pain? (as may be exemplified in a cold hand, as it happens to be held out at a just, or at too near a distance from the fire:) if, I say, these, and a thousand other questions of the like kind, be asked, the answer will be but the general one, that is already given, that such is the nature of man. For to say, that moderate motions are agreeable to the nature of the sensory they are excited in, but violent and disorderly ones (as jarring sounds, and scorching

scorching heat) do put it into too violent a motion for its texture ; will by no means satisfy. For besides that this answer gives no account of the variety of sensations of the same kind, as of differing colours, tastes, &c. but reaches only to pleasure and pain ; even as to these, it will reach but a very little way ; unless the givers of it can show, how an immaterial substance should be more harmed by the brisker motion of a body, than by the more languid.

AND as you and your friend think, you may justly smile at the Aristotelians, for imagining, that they have given a tolerable account of the qualities of bodies, when they have told us, that they spring from certain substantial forms, though when they are asked particular questions about these incomprehensible forms, they do in effect but tell us in general, that they have such and such faculties, or effects, because nature, or the author of nature, endowed them therewith ; so, I hope, you will give me leave to think, that it may keep us from boasting of the clearness and certainty of our knowledge, about the operations of sensible objects, whilst, as the Aristotelians cannot particularly show, how their qualities are produced, so we cannot particularly explicate, how they are perceived ; the principal thing, that we can say, being in substance this, that our sensations depend upon such an union or permission of the soul and body, as we can give no example of in all nature, nor no more distinct account of, than that it pleased God so to couple them together. But I beg your pardon for having detained you so long upon one subject, though perhaps it will not prove time mis-spent, if it have made you take notice, that in spite of the clearness and certainty, for which your friend so much prefers physicks before theology, we are yet to seek, (I say yet, because I know not what time may hereafter discover) both for the definition of a corporeal substance, and a satisfactory account of the manner of sensation : though without the true notion of a body we cannot understand, that object of physicks in general, and without knowing the nature of sensation, we cannot know that, from whence we derive almost all that we know of any body in particular.

IF after all this your friend shall say, that *Des Cartes's* account of body, and other things in physicks, being the best, that men can give, if they be not satisfactory, it must be imputed to human nature not to the Cartesian doctrine, I shall not stay to dispute, how far the allegation is true ; especially since, though it be admitted, it will not prejudice my discourse. For, whatsoever the cause of the imperfection of our knowledge about physical matters be, that there is an imperfection in that knowledge is manifest ; and that ought to be enough to keep us from being puffed up by such an imperfect knowledge, and from undervaluing upon its account the study of those mysteries of divinity, which, by reason of the nobleness and remoteness of the objects, may much better than the nature of corporeal things, (which we see, and feel, and continually converse with,) have their obscurity attributed to the weakness of our human understandings. And if it be a necessary imperfection of human nature, that, whilst we remain in this mortal condition, the soul being confined to the dark prison of the body, is capable (as even *Aristotle* somewhere confesses) but of a dim knowledge ; so much the greater value we ought to have for Christian religion, since, by its means (and by no other without it) we may attain a condition, wherein, as our nature will otherwise be highly blessed and advanced ; so our faculties will be elevated and enlarged, and probably made thereby capable of attaining degrees and kinds of knowledge, to which we are here but strangers. In favour of which I will not urge the received opinion of divines, that before the fall (which yet is a less noble condition than is reserved for us in heaven,) *Adam's* knowledge was such, that he was able at first sight of them, to give each of the beasts a name expressive of its nature ; because that, in spite of some skill (which my curiosity for divinity, not philosophy, gave me)

in the holy tongue, I could never find, that the Hebrew names of animals, mentioned in the beginning of *Genesis*, argued a (much) clearer insight into their natures, than did the names of the same or some other animals in Greek, or other languages: wherefore, as I said, I will not urge *Adam's* knowledge in paradise for that of the saints in heaven, though the notice he took of *Eve* at his first seeing of her, (if it were not conveyed to him by secret revelation) may be far more probably urged, than his naming of the beasts: but I will rather mind you, that the proto-martyr's sight was strengthened so, as

Acts vii. 56. to "see the heavens opened, and Jesus standing at the right hand of God;" and when

2 Kings vi. 17. the prophet had prayed, that his servant's eyes might be opened, he immediately saw the mountain, where they were, all covered with chariots and horsemen, which, though mentioned to be of fire, were altogether invisible to him before. To which, as a higher argument, I shall only add a couple of passages of scripture, which seem to allow us even vast expectations as to the knowledge our glorified nature may be advanced to.

1 Cor. xiii. 12. The one is that, which St. *Paul* says to the *Corinthians*, "for now we see through a darkly, but then face to face: now I know in part, but then shall I know even as also I am known." And the other, where Christ's favourite-disciple tells believers,

1 John. iii. 2. "Beloved, now we are the sons of God, and it doth not yet appear what we shall be; but we know, that when he shall appear, we shall be like him for we shall see him as he is."

WHAT has hitherto been discoursed, contains the first consideration, that I told you might be proposed about the certainty ascribed to the knowledge we are said to have of natural things; but this is not all I have to represent to you on this subject. For I consider further, that it is not only by the certainty we have of them, that the knowledge of things is endeared to us, but also by the worthiness of the object, the number of those, that are unacquainted with it, the remoteness of it from common apprehensions, the difficulty of acquiring it without peculiar advantages, the usefulness of it when attained, and other particulars, which it is not here necessary to enumerate. I presume, you doubt not but your friend does very much prefer the knowledge he has of the mysteries of nature (at many of which we have as yet but ingenious conjectures) to the knowledge of one, that understands the elements of arithmetick, though he be demonstratively sure of the truth of most of his rules and operations. And questionless *Copernicus* received a much higher satisfaction in his notion about the stability of the sun, and the motion of the earth, though it were not so clear, but that *Tycho*, *Ricciolus*, and other eminent astronomers have rejected it, than in the knowledge of divers of the theorems about the sphere that have been demonstrated by *Euclid*, *Theodosius*, and other geometricians. Our discovering, that some comets are not, as the schools would have them, sublunary meteors, but celestial bodies, and the conjectural theory, which is all, that hitherto we have been able to attain of them, do much better please both your friend, and you, and me, than the more certain knowledge we have of the time of the rising and setting of the fixed stars. And the estimates we can make, by the help of parallaxes, of the heights of those comets, and of some of the planets, though they are uncertain enough, (as may appear by the vastly different distances, that are assigned to those bodies by eminent astronomers;) yet these uncertain, measures of such elevated and celestial lights do far more please us, than that we can by the help of a geometrical quadrant, or some such instrument, take with far greater certainty the height of a tower or a steeple. And so a mathematician, when he probably conjectures at the compass of the terrestrial globe, and divides, though but unaccurately, its surface, first, into proportions of sea and land, and then into regions of such extents and bounds, and, in a word, skillfully plays the cosmographer; thinks himself much more nobly and pleasantly employed, than when, being reduced to play the

the surveyor, he does, with far more certainty, measure how many acres a field contains, and set out, with what hedges and ditches it is bounded. Now, that the knowledge of God, and of those mysteries of theology, that are ignored by far the greatest part of mankind, has more sublime and excellent objects, and is unattained to by much the greatest part even of learned men, and nevertheless is of unvaluable importance, and of no less advantage towards the purifying and improving of us here, and the making us perfect and happy hereafter, the past discourse has very much miscarried, if it have not evinced. Wherefore, as to be admitted into the privy-council of some great monarch, and thereby be enabled to give a probable guess at those thoughts and designs of his, that govern kingdoms, and make the fates of nations, is judged preferable to that clearer knowledge, that a notary can have of the dying thoughts and intentions of an ordinary person, whose will he makes: and as the knowledge of a skilful physician, whose art is yet conjectural, is preferable, to that of a cutler, that makes his dissecting knives, though this man can more certainly perform what he designs in his own profession, than the physician can in his: and (in fine) as the skill of a jeweller, that is conversant about diamonds, rubies, sapphires, and some other sorts of small stones, which being, for the most part brought us out of the *Indies*, we must take many things about them upon report, is, because of the nobleness of the object, preferred to that of a mason, that deals in whole quarries of common stones, and may be sure upon his own experience of divers things concerning them, which as to jewels we are allowed to know but upon tradition: so a more dim and imperfect knowledge of God, and the mysteries of religion, may be more desireable, and upon that account more delightful, than a clearer knowledge of those inferior truths, that physicks are wont to teach.

I must now mention one particular more, which may well be added to those, that peculiarly endear physicks to the divine, that is studious of them. For as he contemplates the works of nature not barely for themselves, but to be the better qualified and excited to admire and praise the author of nature; so his contemplations are delightful to him, not barely as they afford a pleasing exercise to his reason, but as they procure him a more welcome approbation from his conscience, these distinct satisfactions being not at all inconsistent. And questionless, though *Esau* did at length miss of his aim, yet, while he was hunting venison for the good old patriarch, that desired it of him, besides the pleasure he was used to take in pursuing the deer he chased, he took a great one, in considering, that now he hunted to please his father, and in order to obtain of him an inestimable blessing. So, when *David* employed his skilful hand and voice, in praising God with vocal and instrumental musick, he received in one act a double satisfaction, by exercising his skill and his devotion; and was no less pleased with those melodious sounds, as they were hymns, than as they were songs. And this example prompts me to add, that as the devout student of nature we were speaking of, does intentionally refer the knowledge he seeks of the creatures to the glory of the creator; so in his discoveries, that, which most contents him, is, that the wonders he observes in nature, heighten that admiration he would fain raise to a less disproportion to the wisdom of God; and furnish him with a nobler holocaust for those sacrifices of praise, he is justly ambitious to offer up to the deity. And as there is no doubt to be made, but that, when *David* invented (as the scripture intimates, that he did) new instruments of musick, there was nothing in that invention, that pleased him so much, as that they could assist him to praise God the more melodiously; so the pious student of nature finds nothing more welcome in the discoveries he makes of her wonders, than the rises and helps they may afford him, the more worthily to celebrate and glorify the divine attributes adumbrated in the creatures. And as a huntsman, or a fowler, if he meets

Gen. xxxvii.

Amos vi. 5.

meets with some strange bird or beast, or other natural rarity, thinks himself much the more fortunate, if it happen to be near the court, where he may have the king to present it to, than if he were to keep it but for himself, or some of his companions; so our devout naturalist has his discoveries of nature's wonders endeared to him, by having the deity to present them to, in the veneration they excite in the finder, and which they enable him to engage others to join in.

SECTION IV.

BUT I confess, Sir, I much fear, that that, which makes your friend have such detracting thoughts of theology, is a certain secret pride, grounded upon a conceit, that the attainments of natural philosophers are of so noble a kind, and argue so transcendent an excellency of parts in the attainer, that he may justly undervalue all other learning, without excepting theology itself.

You will not, I suppose, expect, that a person, who has written so much in the praise of physicks, and laboured so much for a little skill in it, should now here endeavour to depreciate that so useful part of philosophy. But I do not conceive, that it will be at all injurious to it, to prefer the knowledge of supernatural to that of mere natural things, and to think, that the truths, which God indiscriminately exposes to the whole race of mankind, and to the bad, as well as to the good, are inferior to those mysterious ones, whose disclosure he reckons among his peculiar favours, and whose contemplation employs the curiosity, and, in some points, exacts the wonder of the very angels. That I may therefore repress a little the overweening opinion your friend has of his physical attainments, give me leave to represent a few particulars conducive to that purpose.

AND first, as for the nobleness of the truths taught by theology and physicks, those of the former sort have manifestly the advantage, being not only conversant about far nobler objects, but discovering things, that human reason of itself can by no means reach unto; as has been sufficiently declared in the foregoing part of this letter.

NEXT we may consider, that, whatever may be said to excuse pride (if there were any) in *Moschus* the Phœnician, who is affirmed to have first invented the atomical hypothesis, and in *Democritus* and *Leucippus*, (for *Epicurus* scarce deserves to be named with them) that highly advanced that philosophy; and in Monsieur *Des Cartes*, who either improved, or at least much innovated the corpuscularian hypothesis: whatever, I say, may be alledged on the behalf of these mens pride; I see no great reason, why it should be allowed in such as your friend; who, though ingenious men, are neither inventors, nor eminent promoters of the philosophy they would be admired for, but content themselves to learn what others have taught, or, at least, to make some little further application of the principles, that others have established, and the discoveries they have made. And whereas your friend is not a little proud of being able to confute several errors of *Aristotle*, and the ancients, it were not amiss if he considered, that many of the chief truths, that overthrow those errors, were the productions of time and chance, and not of his daring ratiocinations: for there needs no great wit to disprove those, that maintain the uninhabiteness of the torrid zone, or deny the antipodes, since navigators have found many parts of the former well peopled, and sailing round the earth, have found men living in countries diametrically opposite to ours. Nor will it warrant a man's pride, that he believes not the moon to be the only planet, that shines with a borrowed light, or the galaxy to be a meteor; since that now the telescope shews us, that *Venus* has her full and wain like the moon, and that the
milky

milky way is made up of a vast multitude of little stars, inconspicuous to the naked eye. And indeed of those other discoveries, that overthrow the astronomy of the ancients, and much of their philosophy about the celestial bodies, few or none have any cause to boast, but the excellent *Galileus*, who pretends to have been the inventor of the telescope : for that instrument once discovered, to be able to reject the septenary number of the planets, by the detection of the four Satellites of *Jupiter*, or talk of the mountains and valleys in the moon, requires not much more excellency in your friend, than it would to descry in a ship, where the naked eye could discern but the body of the vessel (to descry, I say) by the help of a prospective glass, the masts, and sails, and deck, and perceive a boat towed at her stern : though indeed, *Galileo* himself had no great cause to boast of the invention, though we are much obliged to him for the improvement of the telescope, since no less a master of dioptricks than *Des Cartes*, does acknowledge with other writers, that perspective-glasses were not first found out by mathematicians or philosophers, but casually by one *Metius*, a Dutch spectacle maker. On which occasion I shall mind you, that to hide pride from man, divers others of the chief discoveries, that have been made in physicks, have been the productions, not of philosophy, but chance, by which gun-power, glass, and, for aught we know, the verticity of the load-stone, (to which we owe both the *Indies*) came to be found in these later ages ; as (more recently) the milky vessels of the mysentery, the new receptacle of the chyle, and that other sort of vessels, which most men call the lymphæducts, were lighted on but by chance, according to the ingenuous confession of the discoverers themselves.

WE may further consider, that those very things, which are justly alledged in the praise of the corpuscularian philosophy itself, ought to lessen the pride of those, that but make use of it. For that hypothesis, supposing the whole universe (the soul of man excepted) to be but a great Automaton, or self-moving engine, wherein all things are performed by the bare motion (or rest) the size, the shape, and the situation, or texture of the parts of the universal matter it consists of ; all the phænomena result from those few principles, single or combined, (as the several tunes or chimes, that are rung on five bells,) and these fertile principles being already established by the inventors and promoters of the particularian hypothesis ; all that such persons, as your friend, are wont farther to do, is but to investigate, or guess by what kind of motions the three or four other principles are varied. So that the world being but, as it were, a great piece of clock-work, the naturalist, as such, is but a mechanician ; however the parts of the engine, he considers, be some of them much larger, and some of them much minuter, than those of clocks or watches. And for an ordinary naturalist to despise those, that study the mysteries of religion, as much inferior to physical truths, is no less unreasonable, than it were for a watchmaker, because he understands his own trade, to despise privy-counsellors, who are acquainted with the secrets of monarchs, and mysteries of state ; or than it were for a ship-carpenter, because he understands more of fabrick of the vessel, to despise the admiral, that is acquainted with the secret designs of the prince, and employed about his most important affairs.

THAT great restorer of physicks, the illustrious *Verulam*, who has traced out a most useful way to make discoveries in the intellectual globe, as he calls it, confesses, that his work was (to speak in his own terms) *partus temporis potius quam ingenii*. And though I am not of his opinion, where he says in another place, that his way of philosophizing does *exæquare ingenia* ; yet I am apt to think, that the fertile principles of the mechanical philosophy being once settled, the methods of enquiring and experimenting being found out, and the physico-mechanical instruments of working on nature's and art's productions being happily invented, the making of several lesser im-

provements,

provements, especially by rectifying of some almost obvious of supine errors of the schools, by the assistance of such facilitating helps, may fall to the lot of persons not endowed with any extraordinary sagacity, or accuteness of parts. And though the investigation, and clear establishment of the true principles of philosophy, and the devising the instruments of knowledge, be things, that may be allowed to be the proper work of sublimer wits; yet, if a man be furnished with such assistances, it is not every discourse, that he makes, or thing, which he does by the help of them, that is difficult enough to raise him to that illustrious rank. And indeed, divers of the vulgar errors, as well as of scholars as other men, being mainly grounded upon the mere and often mistaken authority of *Aristotle*, and perhaps some frivolous reasons of his scholastic interpreters of such precarious and ungrounded things, that to ruin them, does oftentimes require more of boldness than skill; it may perhaps be said of your friend, in relation to his philosophical successes against such vulgar errors, as I am speaking of, what a Roman said of *Alexander's* triumph over the effeminate Asiatics, *Quod nihil aliud quam bene ausus sit vana contemnere*. And in some cases it happens that, when once a grand truth, or a happy way of experimenting has been found, divers phænomena of nature, that had been left unexplained, or were left mis-explained by the schools, did, in my opinion, require a far less straining exercise of the mind to unriddle and explain them, than must have been requisite to dispel the darkness, that attended divers theological truths, that are now cleared up, and perhaps than I have myself, now and then, employed in some of those attempts, to illustrate theological matters, that you may have met in some papers, that I have presumed to write on such subjects. And indeed the improvements, that such virtuosi, as your friend, are wont to make of the fertile theorems and hints, that have been presented them by the founders, or prime benefactors of true natural philosophy, are so poor and slender, and do so much oftener proceed from industry and chance, than they argue a transcendent sagacity, or a sublimity of reason, that, though such persons may have cause enough to be delighted with what they have done, yet they have none to be proud of it; and their performances may deserve our thanks, and perhaps some of our praise, but reach not so high, as to merit our admiration; which is to be reserved for those, that have been either framers, or grand promoters, of true and comprehensive hypothesis, or (else) the authors of other noble and useful discoveries, many ways applicable.

It will not perhaps be improper to add on this occasion, that, as our knowledge is not very deep, not reaching with any certainty to the bottom of things, nor penetrating to their intimate or innermost natures; so its extent is not very large, not being able to give us, with any clearness and particularity, an account of the celestial and deeply subterranean parts of the world, of which all the others make but a very small (not to say contemptible) portion.

For, as to the very globe, that we inhabit, not to mention, how many plants, animals, and minerals, we are as yet wholly ignorant of, and how many others we are but slenderly acquainted with; I consider, that the objects, about which our experiments and enquiries are conversant, do all belong to the superficial parts of the terrestrial globe, of which the earth, known to us, seems to be but as it were the crust or scurf. But what the internal part of this globe is made up of, is no less disputable, than of what substance the remotest stars we can descry, consist: for even among the modern philosophers some think, the internal portion of the earth to be pure and elementary earth, which, say they, must be found there, or no where. Others imagine it to be fiery, and the receptacle, either of natural or hellish flames. Others will have the body of the terrestrial globe to be a great and solid magnet. And the Cartesians on the other side, (though they all admit store of subterranean loadstones) teach, that

same globe was once a fixed star, and that, though it have since degenerated into a planet, yet the internal part of it is still of the same nature, that it was before; the change it has received proceeding only from having had its outward parts quite covered over with thick spots (like those to be often observed about the sun,) by whose condensation the firm earth we inhabit was formed. And the mischief is, that each of these jarring opinions is almost as difficult to be demonstratively proved false as true. For, whereas to the centre of the earth there is, according to the modestest account of our late cosmographers, above three thousand and five hundred miles; my enquiries among navigators and miners have not yet satisfied me, that men's curiosity has actually reached above one mile or two at most downwards, (and that not in above three or four places) either into the earth or into the sea. So that as yet our experience has scarce grated any thing deep upon the husk, if I may so speak, without at all reaching the kernal of the terraqueous globe.

AND alas! what is this globe of ours, of which itself we know so little, in comparison of those vast and luminous globes, that we call the fixed stars, of which we know much less? For, though former astronomers have been pleased to give us, with a seeming accurateness, their distances and bignesses, as if they had had certain ways of measuring them; yet later and better mathematicians will, I know, allow me to doubt of what those have delivered. For since it is confessed, that we can observe no parallax in the fixed stars, nor perhaps in the highest planets, men must be yet to seek for a method to measure the distance of those bodies. And not only the Copernicans make it to be I know not how many hundred thousands of miles greater than the Ptolomeans, and very much greater than even *Tycho*; but *Ricciolus* himself, though a great Anti-Copernican, makes the distance of the fixed stars vastly greater, than not only *Tycho*, but, if I mis-remember not, than some of the Copernicans themselves. Nor do I wonder at these so great discrepances, (though some amount, perhaps, to some millions of miles) when I consider, that astronomers do not measure the distance of the fixed stars by their instruments, but accommodate it to their particular hypothesis. And by this uncertainty of the remoteness of the fixed stars you will easily gather, that we are not very sure of their bulk, no not so much as in reference to one another; since it remains doubtful, whether the differing sizes, they appear to us to be of, proceed from a real inequality of bulk, or only from an inequality of distance, or partly from one of those causes, and partly from the other.

BUT it is not my design to take notice of those things, which the famous disputes among the modern astronomers manifest to be dubious. For I consider, that there are divers things relating to the stars, which are so remote from our knowledge, that the causes of them are not so much as disputed of, or enquired into, such as may be among others, why the number of the stars is neither greater nor lesser than it is? why so many of those celestial lights are so placed, as not to be visible to our naked eyes, nor even when they are helped by ordinary telescopes? (which extraordinary good ones have assured me of.) Why among the familiarly visible stars, there are so many in some parts of the sky, and so few in others? why their sizes are so differing, and yet not more differing? why they are not more orderly placed, so as to make up constellations of regular or handsome figures (of which the triangle is, perhaps, the single example) but seem to be scattered in the sky as it were by chance, and have as confused configurations, as the drops, that fall upon one's hat in a shower of rain? To which divers other questions might be added, as about the stars, so about the interstellar part of heaven, which several of the modern Epicureans would have to be empty, save where the beams of light (and perhaps some other celestial effluvia) pass through it; and the Cartesians, on the contrary, think to be full of an æthereal matter, which

some, that are otherwise favourers of their philosophy, confess they are reduced to take up but as an hypothesis. So that our knowledge is much short of what many think, not only if it be considered intensively, but extensively, (as a school-man would express it.) For there being so great a disproportion between the heavens and the earth, that some moderns think the earth to be little better than a point in comparison even of the orb of the sun; and the Cartesians, with other Copernicans, think the great orb itself, (which is equal to what the Ptolomeans called the sun's orb) to be but a point in respect of the firmament; and all our astronomers agree, that, at least, the earth is but a physical point in comparison of the starry heaven: of how little extent must our knowledge be, which leaves us ignorant of so many things, touching the vast bodies, that are above us, and penetrates so little a way even into the earth, that is beneath us, that it seems confined to but a small share of the superficial part of a physical point! of which consideration the natural result will be, that, though what we call our knowledge, may be allowed to pass for a high gratification to our minds, it ought not to puff them up; and what we know of the system, and the nature of things corporeal, is not so perfect and satisfactory, as to justify our despising the discoveries of spiritual things.

ONE of the former parts of this letter may furnish me with one thing more, to evince the excellencies and prerogatives of the knowledge of the mysteries of religion; and that one thing is such, that I hope I shall need to add nothing more, because it is not possible to add any thing higher; and that is, that the pre-eminence above other knowledge adjudged to that of divine truths by a judge above all exception, and above all comparison, namely, by God himself.

THIS having been but lately shown, I shall not now repeat it, but rather apply what hath been there evinced, by representing, that if he, who determines in favour of divine truths, were such an one, as was less acquainted, than our over-weening naturalists, with the secrets of their idolized physicks; or if he were, though an intelligent, yet (like an angel) a bare contemplator of what we call the works of nature, without having any interest in their productions, your friend's not acquiescing in his estimate of things might have, though not a fair excuse, yet a stronger temptation.

BUT when he, by whose direction we prefer the higher truths revealed in the scripture, before those, which reason alone teaches us, concerning those comparatively mean subjects, things corporeal, is the same God, that not only understands the whole universe, and all its parts, far more perfectly, than a watch-maker can understand one of his own watches, (in which he can give an account only of the contrivance, and not of the cause of the spring, nor the nature of the gold, steel, and other bodies his watch consists of,) but did make both this great Automaton, the world, and man in it: we have no colour to imagine, that he should either be ignorant of, or injuriously disparage his own workmanship, or impose upon his favourite creature, man, in directing him what sort of knowledge he ought most to covet and prize. So that since it is he, who framed the world, and all those things in it we most admire, that would have us prefer the knowledge he has vouchsafed us in his word, before that, which he has allowed us of his works; sure it is very unreasonable and unkind, to make the excellencies of the workmanship a disparagement to the author, and the effects of his wisdom a motive against acquiescing in the decisions of his judgment; as if, because he is to be admired for his visible productions, he were not to be believed, when he tells us, that there are discoveries, that contain truths more valuable than those, which relate but to the objects, that he has exposed to all men's eyes.

SECTION V.

I DOUBT, I should be guilty of a most important omission, if I should here forget to consider one thing, which I fear has a main stroke in the partiality your friend expresseth in his preference of physicks to theology; and that is, that he supposes he shall, by the former, acquire a fame, both more certain and more durable, than can be hoped for from the latter.

AND I acknowledge, not only with readiness, but with somewhat of gratulation of the felicity of this age, that there is scarce any sort of knowledge more in request, than that which natural philosophy pretends to teach; and that among the awakened and inquisitive part of mankind, as much reputation and esteem may be gained by an insight into the secrets of nature, as by being entrusted with those of princes, or dignified with the splendidest marks of their favour.

BUT though I readily confess thus much, and though perhaps I may be thought to have had, I know not by what fate, as great a share of that perfumed smoke, applause, as (at least) some of those, which among the writers, that are now alive, your friend seems most to envy for it; yet I shall not scruple to tell you, partly from observation of what has happened to others, and partly too upon some little experience of my own, that neither is it so easy, as your friend seems to believe it, to get by the study of nature a sure and lasting reputation, neither ought the expectation of it, in reason, make men undervalue the study of divinity. Nor would it here avail to object (by way of prevention) that the difficulties and impediments of acquiring and securing reputation lie as well in the way of divines as philosophers, since this objection has been already considered at the beginning of this second part of our present tract. Besides that the progress of our discourse will shew, that the naturalist, aspiring to fame, is liable to some inconveniences, which are either not at all, or not near equally incident to the divine. Wherefore, without staying to take any further notice of this preventive allegation, I shall proceed to make good the first part of the assertion, that preceded it; which that I may the more fully do, give me leave (after having premised, that a man must either be a writer, or forbear to print what he knows;) to propose to you the following considerations.

AND first, if your *Physiophilus* should think to secure a great reputation, by forbearing to couch any of his thoughts or experiments in writing, he may thereby find himself not a little mistaken. For if once he have gained a repute (upon what account soever) of knowing some things, that may be useful to others, or of which studious men are wont to be very desirous, he will not avoid the visits and questions of the curious. Or, if he should affect a solitude, and be content to hide himself, that he may hide the things he knows; yet he will not escape the solicitations, that will be made him by letters. And if these ways of tempting him to disclose himself, prevail not at all with him to do so, he will provoke the persons, that have employed them; who finding themselves disobliged, by being defeated of their desires, if not also their expectations, will for the most part endeavour to revenge themselves on him, by giving him the character of an uncourteous and ill-natured person; and will endeavour, perhaps, successfully enough, to decry his parts, by suggesting, that his affected concealments proceed but from a conscientiousness, that the things he is presumed to possess, are but such, as, if they should begin to be known, would cease to be valued.

You will say (perchance,) that so much reservedness is a fault: nor shall I dispute it with you, whether it be or not; but if he be open and communicative in discourse to
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those strangers, that come to pump him, such is the disingenuous temper of too many, that he will be in great danger of having his notions or experiments arrogated by those, to whom he imparts them, or at least, by others, to whom those may (though perchance designlessly) happen to discourse of them. And then, if either *Physeophilus*, or any of his friends, that know him to be author of what is thus usurped, should mention him as such, the usurpers and their friends would presently become his enemies; and, to secure their own reputation, will be solicitous to lessen and blemish his. And if you should now tell me, that your friend might here take a middle way, as that, which in most cases is thought to be the best, by discoursing at such a rate of his discoveries, as may somewhat gratify those, that have a curiosity to learn them, and yet not speak so clearly, as to divest himself of his propriety in them; I should reply, that neither is this expedient a sure one, nor free from inconveniencies. For most men are so self-opiniated, that they will easily believe themselves masters of things, if they do but half understand them. And however, though the persons, to whom the discourse was immediately made, should not have too great an opinion of themselves, no more than too great a sagacity; yet they may easily, by repeating what they heard and observed, give some more piercing wit a hint sufficient to enable him to make out the whole notion, or the discovery, which he will then without scruple, and without almost any possibility of being disproved, assume for his own. But if it happen, (as it often will in extemporaneous discourse) that a philosopher be not rightly understood, either because he has not the leisure, no more than a design, to explain himself fully, or because the persons he converses with, bring not a competent capacity and attention; he then runs a greater danger than before. For the vanity most men take in being known to have conversed with eminent philosophers, makes them very forward to repeat what they heard such a famous wit say; and oftentimes being secure of not being contradicted, ignorantly to mis-recite it, or wittingly to wrest it in favour of the opinion they would countenance by it. So that, whereas by the formerly mentioned frankness of discourse, he is only in danger to have the truths he discovered arrogated by others, this reservedness exposes him to have opinions and errors, that he never dreamed of, fathered on him. And when a man's opinions, or discoveries, come once to be publicly discoursed of, without being proposed by himself, or some friend well instructed by him, he knows not what errors or extravagancies may be imputed to him (and that without a moral possibility left to most men to discern them,) by the mistake of the weak, or the disingenuity of the partial, or the artifices of the malicious. And even the greatness of a man's reputation does sometimes give such countenance to vain reports and surmises, as by degrees to shake, if not ruin it. As we see, that Frier *Bacon*, and *Tritemius*, and *Paracelsus*, who, for their times, were knowing, as well as famous men, had such feats ascribed to them, as by appearing fabulous to most of the judicious, have tempted many to think, that all the great things, that were said of them, were so too.

THESE are some of the inconveniencies, that a naturalist may be liable to, if he forbear the communicating of his thoughts and discoveries himself: but if *Physeophilus* should, to shun these, aspire to fame by the usual way of writing books, he may indeed avoid these, but perhaps, not without running into other inconveniencies and hazards, very little inferior to them.

FIRST then, we may consider, that whether a man writes in a systematical way, as they have done, who have published entire bodies of natural philosophy, or methodical treatises of some considerable part of it; or whether he write in a more loose and unconfined way, of any particular subject, that belongs to physicks; whichsoever, I say,

say, of these two ways of writing books he shall make choice of, he will find it liable to inconvenience enough.

For if he write systematically, first, he will be obliged, that he may leave nothing necessary undelivered, to say divers things, that have been said (perhaps many times) by others already, which cannot but be unpleasant, not only to the reader, but (if he be ingenious) to the writer. Next, there are so many things in nature, whereof we know little or nothing, and so many more, of which we do not know enough, that our systematical writer, though we should grant him to be very learned, must needs, either leave divers things, that belong to his theme, untreated of, or discourse of them slightly, and oftentimes (in likelihood) erroneously. So that in this kind of books there is always much said, that the reader did know, and commonly not a little, that the writer does not know. And to this, I must add, in the third place, that natural philosophy, being so vast and pregnant a subject, that (especially in so inquisitive an age as this) almost every day discovers some new thing or other about it, it is scarce possible for a method, that is adapted but to what is already known, to continue long the most proper; as the same clothes will not long fit a child, whose age will make him quickly out-grow them. And therefore succeeding writers will have a fair pretence to compile new systems, that may be more adequate to philosophy, improved since the publication of the former. And though there were little of new to be added, and it were more easy to alter, than to mend the method of our supposed author; yet novelty itself is a thing so pleasing and inviting to the generality of men, that it often recommends things, that have nothing else to recommend them; and we may apply to a great many other things, what, I remember, a famous courtier of my acquaintance used to say of mistresses, that another was preferable to a better, (the better being but the same.)

But now, if, declining the systematical way, one should choose the other of writing loose tracts and discourses, he may indeed avoid some of the lately mentioned inconveniencies, but will scarce avoid the being plundered by systematical writers: for these will be apt to cull out those things, that they like best, and insert them in their methodical books, (perhaps much curtailed, or otherwise injured in the repeating,) and will place them, not as their own author did, where they may best confirm or adorn his discourse, and be illustrated or upheld by it; but where it may best serve the turn of the compiler: and these methodical books promise so much more compendious a way, than others, to the attainment of the sciences they treat of, that though really for the most part they prove greater helps to the memory, than the understanding; yet most readers being, for want of judgment, or of patience, of another mind, they are willing to take it for granted, that in former writers, if there have been any thing considerable, it has been all carefully extracted, as well as orderly digested by the later compilers: and though I take this to be a very erroneous and prejudicial conceit, yet it obtains so much, that as goldsmiths, that only give shape and lustre to gold, are far more esteemed, and in a better condition, than miners, who find the ore in the bowels of the earth, and with great pains and industry dig it up, and refine it into metal; so those, that with great study and toil, successfully penetrate into the hidden recesses of nature, and discover latent truths, are usually less regarded, or taken notice of, by the generality of men, than those, who by plausible methods, and a neat stile, reduce the truths, that others have found out, into systems of a taking order, and a convenient bulk.

I consider in the second place, that as the method of the books one writes, so the bulk of them may prove prejudicial to the naturalist, that aspires to fame: for if he write large books, it is odds but that he will write in them many things unaccurate, if
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not impertinent, or that he will be obliged to repeat many things, that others have said before; and if he write but small tracts, as is the custom of the judiciousest authors, who have no mind to publish but what is new and considerable, as their excellency will make them to be the sooner dispersed, so the smallness of the bulk will endanger them to be quickly lost, as experience shews us of divers excellent little tracts, which, though published not many years ago, are already out of print, (as they speak) and not to be met with, save by chance, in stationers shops. So that these writings (which deserve a better fate) come, after a while, either to be lost (which is the case of divers,) or to have their memory preserved only in the larger volume of some compiler, whose industry is only preferable to his judgment; it being observable, that (by I know not what unlucky fate) very few (for I do not say none) that addict themselves to make collections out of others, have the judgment to cull out the choicest things in them; and the small tracts, we are speaking of, being preserved but in such a quoter or abridger, will run a very great danger of being conveyed to posterity but under such a representation, as it pleases the compiler.

AND this (that I may proceed to my third consideration) may make the naturalist's fame very uncertain, not only because of the want of judgment, that (as I newly said) is too often observable in compilers, whereby they frequently leave far better things than they take, but for the want of skill to understand the author they cite and epitomize, or candor to do him right. For sometimes men's physical opinions, and several passages of their writings, are so misrepresented by mistake or design, especially if those, that recite their opinions be not of them, that men are made to teach or deliver things quite differing from their sense, and perhaps quite contrary to it; of which I myself have had some unwelcome experience, a learned writer pretending, I know not how often, that I asserted an opinion, about which I did expressly ἐπεχείρει. And another noted writer having (not out of design, but unacquaintedness with mechanicks, and the subject I writ of,) given me commendations for having, by a new experiment, proved a thing, the quite contrary whereof I intended thereby to evince, and am not alone mistaken, if I did not do it. Other naturalists I have met with, whose writings compilers, have traduced out of hatred to their persons, or their religion; as if truth could in nothing be a friend to one, that is the traducer's enemy; or as if a man, that falls into an error in religion, could not light upon a good notion in philosophy, in spite of all the truths we owe to *Aristotle*, *Epicurus*, and the other heathen philosophers. Nay, some there are, that will set themselves to decry a man's writings, not because they are directly his enemies, but because he is esteemed by theirs; as you may remember an instance in a servant of yours, who had divers things written against him upon this very account. Nor is it only by the citations of professed adversaries, or opponents, that a worthy writer's reputation may be prejudiced, since it is not unfrequently so by those, that mention him with an encomium, and seem disposed to honour him. For I have observed it to be the trick of certain writers, to name an author with much compliment, only for some one or few of the least considerable things they borrow of him; by which artifice they endeavour to conceal their being plagiaries of more and better; which yet is more excusable than the practice of some, who proceed to that pitch of dissingenuity, that they will rail at an author, to whom indeed they owe too much, that they may not be thought to be beholden to him.

BUT (4.) I must add, that besides these dangers, that a naturalist's reputation with posterity may run through the ignorance or perverseness of men, it is liable to divers other hazards, from the very nature both of men, of opinions and of things.

FOR, as men's geniusses and inclinations are naturally various in reference to studies, one man passionately affecting one sort of them, and another being fond of quite dif-

fering ones; so those inclinations are oftentimes variously and generally determined by external and accidental causes. As when some great monarch happens to be a great patron, or a despiser, and perhaps adversary of this or that kind of learning; and when some one man has gained much applause for this or that kind of study; imitation or emulation oftentimes makes many others addict themselves to it. Thus though *Rome*, under the consuls, was inconsiderable for learning, yet the reputation of *Cicero*, and favour of *Augustus*, brought learning into request there; where the small countenance it met with amongst most of the succeeding emperors, kept it far inferior to what it had been among the Greeks about *Alexander's* age. And the age of the same *Augustus* was ennobled with store of poets, not only by the countenance, which he and *Mæcenæ*s afforded them, but probably also by the examples they gave to, and the emulation they excited in one another. And after the decay of the Roman empire, in the fourth century, natural philosophy and the mathematicks being very little valued, and less understood, by reason that men's studies were by the genius of those ages applied to other subjects, every hundred years scarce produced one improver, (not to say one eminent cultivator) either of mathematicks or of physicks: by which you may see, how little certainty there is, that, because a man is skilled in natural philosophy, and that science is now in request, his reputation shall be as great as now, when perhaps the science itself will be grown out of repute.

BUT besides the contingencies, that may happen to a naturalist's fame upon this account, that the science he cultivates is, as well as others, subject to wanes and eclipses in the general esteem of men; there is another uncertainty arising from the vicissitudes, that are to be met with in the estimates men make of differing hypotheses, sects, and ways of philosophizing about the same science, and particularly about natural philosophy. For during those learned times, when physicks first and most flourished among the Grecians, *Democritus*, *Leucippus*, *Epicurus*, *Anaxagoras*, *Plato*, and almost all the naturalists, that preceded *Aristotle*, were Corpuscularians, endeavouring, though not all by the same way, to give an account of the phænomena of nature, and even of qualities themselves, by the bigness, shape, motion, &c. of corpuscles, or the minutest active parts of matter: whereas *Aristotle*, having attempted to deduce the phænomena from the four first qualities, the four elements, and some few other barren hypotheses, ascribing what could not be explicated by them, (and consequently far the greatest part of nature's phænomena) to substantial forms and occult qualities; (principles, that are readily named, but scarce so much as pretended to be understood,) and having upon these slight and narrow principles reduced physicks into a kind of system, which the judicious modesty of the Corpuscularians had made them backward to do; the reputation, that his great pupil *Alexander*, as well as his learning gave him; the easiness of the way he proposed to the attainment of natural philosophy; the good luck his writings had to survive those of *Democritus*, and almost all the rest of the Corpuscularians, when *Charles* the Great began to establish learning in *Europe*: these, I say, and some other lucky accidents, that concurred, did for about seven or eight hundred years together, make the Corpuscularian philosophy not only be justified, but even exploded out of the schools by the Peripatetick; which in our times is, by very many, upon the revival of the Corpuscularian philosophy, rejected, and, by more than a few derided as precarious, unintelligible, and useless. And to give an instance in a particular thing, (which, though formerly named, deserves to be again mentioned to our present purpose,) *Aristotle*, himself somewhere confesses, (not to say brags) that the Greek philosophers, his predecessors, did unanimously teach, that the world was (I say not created, but) made, and yet he, almost by his single authority, and the subtle arguments (as some have been pleased to think them,) that he employed, (though

divers of them were borrowed of *Ocellus Lucanus*,) was able for many ages to introduce into the schools of philosophers that irreligious and ill-grounded opinion of the eternity of the world, which afterwards the Christian doctrine made men begin to question, and which now, both that and right reason have persuaded most men to reject.

AND this invites me to consider farther, than the present success of the opinions, that your *Physeophilus* befriends, ought not to make him so sure, as he thinks he is, that the same opinions will be always in the same, or a greater vogue, and have the same advantages, in point of general esteem, that they now have, over their rivals. For, opinions seem to have their fatal seasons and vicissitudes, as well as other things; as may appear, not only by the examples of it newly given, but also by the hypothesis of the earth's motion, which having been in great request before *Pythagoras*, (who yet is commonly thought the inventor of it,) had its reputation much increased by the suffrage of the famous sect of the Pythagoreans, (whom *Aristotle* himself takes notice of as the patrons of that opinion;) and yet afterwards for near 2000 years it was laughed at, as not only false, but ridiculous. After all which time, this so long antiquated opinion being revived by *Copernicus*, has in a little time made so great a progress among the modern astronomers and philosophers, that if it go on to prevail at the same rate, the motion of the earth will be acknowledged by all its mathematical inhabitants. But though it be often the fate of an oppressed truth, to have at length a resurrection, yet it is not always its peculiar privilege; for obsolete errors are sometimes revived, as well as discredited truths: so that the general disrepute of an opinion in one age will not give us an absolute security, that it will not be in as general request in another, in which it may perhaps, not only revive, but reign.

NOR is it only in the credit of men's opinions about philosophical matters, that we may observe an inconstancy and vicissitude, but in the very way and method of philosophizing, for *Democritus*, *Plato*, *Pythagoras*, and others, who were of the more sincere and ingenious cultivators of physicks among the Greeks, exercised themselves chiefly either in making particular experiments and observations, as *Democritus* did in his manifold dissections of animals; or else applied the mathematicks to the explicating of a particular phaenomenon of nature, as may appear (not to mention what *Hero* teaches in his Pneumaticks,) by the accounts, *Democritus*, *Plato*, and others, give of fire and other elements, from the figure and motion of the corpuscles they consist of. And although this way of philosophizing were so much in request before *Aristotle*, that (albeit he unluckily brought in another, yet) there are manifest and considerable footsteps of it to be met with in some of his writings, (and particularly in his books of animals, and his mechanical questions;) yet the scholastick followers of *Aristotle* did, for many ages, neglect the way of philosophizing of the ancients, and (to the great prejudice of learning) introduced every where, instead of it, a quite contrary way of writing. For, not only they laid aside the mathematicks, (of which they were for the most part very ignorant,) but instead of giving us intelligible and explicate (if not accurate) accounts of particular subjects, grounded upon a distinct and heedful consideration of them, they contented themselves with hotly disputing, in general, certain unnecessary, or at least unimportant questions about the objects of physicks, about *Materia Prima*, substantial forms, privation, place, generation, corruption, and other such general things, with which when they had quite tired themselves and their readers, they usually remained utter strangers to the particular productions of that nature, about which they had so much wrangled, and were not able to give a man so much true and useful information about particular bodies, as even the meanest mechanicks, such as mine-diggers, butchers, smiths, and even dairy-maids, could do. Which made their
philosophy

philosophy appear so imperfect and useless, not only to the generality of men, but to the more elevated and philosophical wits, that our great *Verulam* attempted with much skill and industry, (and not without some indignation) to restore the more modest and useful way practised by the antients, of enquiring into particular bodies, without hastening to make systems, into the request it formerly had; wherein the admirable industry of two of our *London* physicians, *Gilbert* and *Harvey*, has not a little assisted him. And I need not tell you, that since him, *Des Cartes*, *Gassendus*, and others, having taken in the application of geometrical theorems, for the explication of physical problems; he, and they, and other restorers of natural philosophy, have brought the experimental and mathematical way of enquiring into nature, into at least as high and growing an esteem, as ever it possessed when it was most in vogue among the naturalists, that preceded *Aristotle*.

To the considerations I have hitherto deduced, which (perhaps) might alone suffice for my purpose, I shall yet subjoin one, that I take to be of greater weight than any of them, for the manifesting, how difficult it is to be sure, that the physical opinions, which at present procure a champion or promoter of them veneration, shall be still in request. For besides that inconstant fate of applauded opinions, which may be imputed to the inconstancy of men, there is a greater danger, that threatens the aspirer's reputation from the very nature of things: for the most general principles of all, viz. the figure, bigness, motion, and other mechanical affections of the small parts of matter, being (as your friend believes) sufficiently and clearly established already; he must expect to raise his reputation from subordinate hypotheses and theories; and in these I shall not scruple to say, that it is extremely difficult, even for those, that are more exercised than he in framing them, and in making of experiments to have so reaching and attentive a prospect of all things fit to be known, as not to be liable to have their doctrine made doubtful, or disproved by something, that he did not discover, or that after-times may. This, I doubt not, but you would easily be prevailed with to allow, if I had leisure and conveniency to transmit to you my sceptical naturalist. And without having recourse to that tract, it may possibly suffice, that we consider, that one of the conditions of a good * hypothesis is, that it fairly comport not only with all other truths, but with all other phænomena of nature, as well as those it is framed to explicate. For this being granted, (which cannot be denied,) he, that establishes a theory, which he expects shall be acquiesced in by all succeeding times, and make him famous in them, must not only have a care, that none of the phænomena of nature, that are already taken notice of, do contradict his hypothesis at the present, but that no phænomena, that may be hereafter discovered, shall do it for the future. And I very much question, whether *Physeophilus* do know, or, upon no greater a number and variety of experiments than most men build upon, can know, how incompleat the history of nature we yet have, is, and how difficult it is to build an accurate hypothesis upon an incompleat history of the phænomena it is to be fitted to; especially considering, that (as I was saying) many things may be discovered in after-times by industry or chance, which are not now so much as dreamed of, and which may yet overthrow doctrines speciously enough accommodated to the observations, that have been hitherto made.

THOSE antient philosophers, that thought the torrid zone to be uninhabitable, did not establish their opinion upon wild reasonings; and as it continued uncontrouled for many ages, so perhaps it would have always done, if the discoveries made by modern navigations had not manifested it to be erroneous. The solidity of the celestial orbs was, for divers centuries above 1000 years, the general opinion of astronomers and philosophers; and yet in the last age, and in ours, the free trajection, that has been

* See the requisites of a good hypothesis.

observed in the motion of some comets, from one of the supposed orbs to another, and the intricate motions in the planet *Mars*, (observed by *Kepler* and others, to be sometimes nearer, as well as sometimes remoter from the earth than is the sun;) these, I say, and other phænomena undiscovered by the antients, have made even *Tycho*, as well as most of the recent astronomers, exchange the too long received opinion of solid orbs for the more warrantable belief of a fluid æther. And though the celestial part of the world, by reason of its remoteness from us, be the most unlikely of any other to afford us the means of over-throwing old theories by new discoveries; yet even in that we may take notice of divers instances to our present purpose, though I shall here name but this one, viz. That, after the Ptolemaick number and order of the planets had past uncontradicted for very many ages; and even the Tychonians and Copernicans, (however they did, by their differing hypotheses, dissent from the Ptolemaick system (as to the order) did (yet) acquiesce in it as to the number of the planets; by the happy discoveries, made by *Galileo* of the Satellites of *Jupiter*, and by the excellent *Hugenius*, of the new planet about *Saturn*, (which I think I had the luck to be the first, that observed and shewed disbelievers of it in *England*) the astronomers of all persuasions are brought to add to the old septenary number of the planets, and take in five others, that their predecessors did not dream of. That the chyle prepared in the stomach passed through the mesaraick veins to the liver, and so to the heart, was for many ages the unanimous opinion, not only of physicians, but anatomists, whose numerous dissections did not tempt them to question it; and yet, since the casual, though lucky, discoveries made of the milky vessels in the thorax by the dextrous *Pecquet*, those, that have had with you and me the curiosity to make the requisite experiments, are generally convinced, that, at least, a good part of the chyle goes from the stomach to the heart, without passing through the mesaraick veins, or coming at all to the liver.

It were easy to multiply instances of this kind, but I rather chuse to add, that it is not only about the qualities, and other attributes of things, but about their causes also, that new, and oftentimes accidental discoveries may destroy the credit of long and generally approved opinions. That quick-lime exceedingly heats the water, that is poured on to quench it, on the account of *Antiperistasis*, has been very long and universally received by the school-philosophers, where it is the grand and usual argument, urged to establish *Antiperistasis**; and yet I presume you have taken notice, that this proof is made wholly ineffectual in the judgment of many of the virtuosi, by some contrary experiments of mine, and particularly that of exciting in quick-lime full as great an effervescence by the affusion of hot water instead of cold. So it has been generally believed, that in the congelation of water, that liquor is condensed into a narrower room; whereas our late experiments † have satisfied most of the curious, that ice is water expanded, or, if you please, that ice takes up more room than the water did, whilst it remained unfrozen. And whereas the notion of nature's abhorrence of a vacuum has not only, ever since *Aristotle's* time, made a great noise in the schools, but seems to be confirmable by a multitude of phænomena; the experiments of *Torricellius* and some of ‡ ours, evidencing, that the air has a great weight and a strong spring, have, I think, persuaded almost all, that have impartially considered them, that, whether there be or be not such a thing, as they call *fuga vacui*, yet suction, and the ascension of water in pumps, and those other phænomena, that are generally ascribed to it, may be very well explicated without it, and are, indeed, caused by the weight of the atmosphere, and the elastical power of the air.

* See this subject handled at large in an appendix to the author's *Examen of Antiperistasis*.

† In the history of cold.

‡ Now published in the book of new physico-mechanical experiments.

AND this puts me in mind to take notice, that even practical inventions, where one would think the matter of fact to be evident, may, by undreamed-of discoveries be brought to lose the general reputation they had for compleatness in their kind. For to endear the invention of sucking pumps, and of syphons, it has been generally presumed, that by means of either of these, water and any other liquor may, *ob fugam vacui*, be raised to what height one pleases; and accordingly ways have been proposed by famous authors, to convey water from one side of an high mountain to the other: whereas, first, the unexpected disappointments, that were met with by some pump-makers, and afterwards experiments purposely made, sufficiently evince, that neither a pump nor a siphon will raise water to above 35 foot, or thereabouts, nor quick-silver to so many inches.

AND as to the invention of weather-glasses, which has been so much, and justly applauded and used, as it has been generally received for the truest standard of the heat and cold of the weather; so it seems to be liable to no suspicion of deceiving us: for not only it is evident, that in winter, when the air is very cold, the water rises much higher than in summer, and other seasons, when it is not so; but if you but apply your warm hand to the bubble at the top, the water will be visibly depressed by the rarified air, which upon the removal of the hand returning to its former coldness, the water will forthwith as manifestly ascend again. * And yet by finding, that, as the atmosphere has a considerable weight, so this weight is not always the same, but varies much, and that, as far as I can yet discover, uncertainly enough; I have had the luck to satisfy many of the curious, that these open thermometers are not to be safely relied on, since in them the liquor is made to rise and fall, not only, as men have hitherto supposed, by the cold and heat of the ambient air, but (as I have shewn by divers new experiments) according to the varying gravity of the atmosphere; which variation has not only a sensible, but a very considerable influence upon the weather-glass. To these instances I shall annex only one more, from which we may learn, that notwithstanding a very heedful survey of all, that at present a man can take notice of, or well suspect, that he ought to take into his consideration, the case may be such, that having devised an instrument, he may use it many years with good success; and yet, unless he were able to live very many more, he shall not be sure to outlive the danger of finding the same instrument (though the sense as well conditioned as ever) fallacious: as he, that first applied a magnetick needle to the finding of the meridian line, might very probably conclude, that his needle pointing directly N. and S. or declining from it just two or three, or some other determinate number of degrees, he had discovered a certain and ready way, without the help of sun or stars, or astronomical instruments, to describe a meridian line, and if he lived but an ordinary number of years after his observation, he might probably have found his instrument not deceitful; which yet it may now be, the magnetick needle, not only declining in many places from the true points of N. and S. but (as later discoveries inform us) varying in tract of time its declination in the self same place.

THE considerations hither to proposed might easily enough be increased by more of the same tendency, especially if I thought fit to borrow from a discourse (of mine) purposely written about the partiality and uncertainty of fame; but instead of adding to their number, I should think myself obliged to excuse my having already mentioned so many, and insisted so much upon them, if I did not vehemently suspect, that in your *Physiophilus*, (as well as in many other modern naturalists) scarce any thing does more contributes to an undervaluation of the study of divinity, than, that being eagerly ambitious of a certain, as well as a posthume fame, he is confident, that phy-

siology

* See a Tract on this Subject, premised by the Author to his Book of Cold.

siology will help to it; and therefore, the design of his discourse made me think it expedient to spend some time to manifest, “that it is far less easy than he thinks, to be
“as sure, that he shall have the praises of future ages, as that (though he have them)
“he shall not hear them.”

THE past considerations have, I presume, convinced you, that it is no such easy matter for a naturalist to acquire a great reputation, and be sure it will prove a lasting one. Wherefore, that I may also confirm the second part of what formerly I proposed, I now proceed to show, that, though the case were otherwise, yet he would have no reason to slight the study of divinity.

1. For, in the first place, nothing hinders, but that a man, who values and enquires into the mysteries of religion, may attain to an eminent degree in the knowledge of those of nature. For frequently men of great parts may successfully apply themselves to more than one study; and few of them have their thoughts and hours so much engrossed by that one subject or employment, but that if they have great inclinations, as well as fitness for the study of nature, they will find time, not only to cultivate it, but to excel in it. You need not be told, that *Copernicus*, to whom our late philosophers owe so much, was a churchman; that his champion *Lansbergius* was a minister, and that *Gassendus* himself was a doctor of divinity. Among the Jesuits you know, that *Clavius*, and divers others, have as prosperously addicted themselves to mathematicks as divinity. And as to physicks, not only *Scheiner*, *Aquilonius*, *Kircher*, *Schottus*, *Zucchi*, and others, have very laudably cultivated the optical and some other parts of philosophy; but *Ricciolus* himself, the learned compiler of that voluminous and judicious work of the *Almagestum novum*, wherein he has inserted divers accurate observations of his own, is not only a divine, but a professor of divinity. And without going out of our own country, I could, if I durst for fear of offending the modesty of those I should name, or injuring the merit of those I should omit; I could, I say, if it were not for this, among our English ecclesiasticks name you divers, who though they apply themselves so much to the study of the scripture, as to be not only solid divines, but excellent preachers, have yet been so happily conversant with nature, that, if they had lived in the learned times of the Greeks, they would have rivalled, if not eclipsed, some of them, *Pythagoras* and *Euclid*; others of them, *Anaxagoras* and *Epicurus*; and some of them, even *Archimedes* and *Democritus* themselves.

AND certainly, provided there be curiosity and industry enough employed in the study of nature, it is not necessary, that the knowledge of nature should be the ultimate end of that study; a fondness of the object being required only in order to the engaging the mind to such a serious application, as a higher aim may sufficiently invite us to; and will rather promote than discourage. *David* became no less skilful in music, than those, that were addicted to it only to please themselves in it; though we may reasonably suppose, that so pious an author of psalms and instruments aspired to an excellency in that delightful science, that he might apply and prefer it to the service of the temple, and promote the celebration of God's praises with it. And as experience has manifested, that the heathen philosophers, that courted moral virtue for herself, did not raise it to that pitch, to which it was advanced by the heroick practices of those true Christians, that in the highest exercise of virtue had a religious aim at the pleasing and enjoying of God; so I see not, why natural knowledge must be more prosperously cultivated by those selfish naturalists, that aim but at the pleasing of themselves in the attainment of that knowledge, than those religious naturalists, who are invited to attention and industry, not only by the pleasantness of the knowledge itself, but by a higher and more engaging consideration; namely, that by the discoveries they

they make in the book of nature, both themselves and others may be excited and qualified the better to admire and praise the author, whose goodness does so well match the wisdom they celebrate, that he declares in his word, that "those, that honour 1 Sam. ii. 30. him, he will honour."

AND as a man, that is not in love with a fair lady, but has only a respect for her, may have as true and perfect, though not as discomposing an idea of her face, as the most passionate Inamorato; so I see not, why a religious and inquisitive contemplator of nature may not be liable to give a good account of her, without preferring her so far to all other objects of his study, as to make her his mistress, and perhaps too his idol.

II. AND now I proceed to consider in the second place, that matters of divinity may, as well as those of philosophy, afford a reputation to him, that discovers, or illustrates them. For though the fundamental articles of Christian religion be, as I have formerly declared, little less evident than important; yet there are many other points in divinity, and passages in the scripture, which (for reasons, that I have elsewhere mentioned) are exceeding hard to be cleared, and do not only pose ordinary readers, and the common sort of scholars, but will sufficiently exercise the abilities of a great wit, and give him opportunity enough to manifest, that he is one. For divers of the points I speak of, are much benighted upon the score of the sublimity of the things they treat of; such as are the nature, attributes, and decrees of God, which cannot be easy to the dim understandings of us, that are but men: and many other particulars, that are not abstruse in their own nature, are yet made obscure to us by our ignorance, (or at least imperfect knowledge,) of the difused languages, wherein they are delivered, and the great remoteness of the ages when, and the countries where, the things recorded were done or said. So that oftentimes a man may need and show as great learning and judgment to dispel the darkness, wherein time has involved things, as that, which nature has cast on them: and in effect we see, that St. *Augustin*, St. *Hierom*, *Origen*, and others of the fathers, have acquired no less a reputation, than *Empedocles*, *Anaxagoras*, or *Zeno*; and *Grotius*, *Salmasius*, Mr. *Mede*, Dr. *Hamond*, and some other critical expounders of difficult texts of scripture, have thereby got as much credit, as *Fracastrorius* by his book *De Sympathia & Antipathia*; *Levinus Lemnius* by his *De occultis rerum Miraculis*; or *Cardanus* (and his adversary *Scaliger*) by what they writ *De Subtilitate*; or even *Fernelius* himself by his book *De Abditis rerum Causis*. And it will contribute to the credit, which theological discoveries and illustrations may procure a man, that the importance of the subjects, and the earnestness, wherewith men are wont to busy themselves about them, some upon the score of piety, and others upon that of interest, some to learn truths, and others to defend what they have long or publickly taught for truth, does make greater numbers of men take notice of such matters, and concern themselves far more about them, than about almost any other things, and especially far more, than about matters purely philosophical, which but few are wont to think themselves fit to judge of, and concerned to trouble themselves about. And accordingly we see, that the writings of *Socinus Calvin*, *Bellarmino*, *Padre Paulo*, *Arminius*, &c. are more famous, and more studied, than those of *Telefius*, *Campanella*, *Severinus Danus*, *Magnenus*, and divers other innovators in natural philosophy. And *Eraſtus*, though a very learned physician, is much less famous for all his elaborate disputations against *Paracelsus*, than for the little tract against particular forms of church-government. And I presume you have taken notice, as well as I, that there are scarce any five new controversies in all physicks, that are known to, and hotly contended for by so many, as are the five articles of the Remonstrants.

III. My second consideration being thus dispatched, it remains, that I tell you in the third place, that supposing, but not granting, that to prosecute the study of divinity, one must of necessity neglect the acquit of reputation; yet this inconvenience itself ought not to deter us from the duty they would dissuade. For in all deliberations, wherein any thing is proposed to be quitted or declined, to obey or please God; methinks, we may fitly apply that of the prophet to the Jewish king, who being persuaded (to express his concern for God's glory) to decline the assistance of an idolatrous army of *Israelites*, and objecting, that by complying with the advice given him, he should lose a sum of money, amounting to no less than the hire of a potent army; received from the prophet this brisk, but rational answer, "The Lord is able to give thee far more than this." The apostle *Paul*, who had been traduced, reviled, buffeted, scourged, imprisoned, ship-wrecked, and stoned for his zeal to propagate the truths, whose study I plead for; after he had once had a glimpse of that great recompence of reward, that is reserved for us in heaven, scruples not to pronounce, that he finds upon casting up the account (for he uses the arithmetical λογίζομαι) "that the sufferings of this present time are not worthy to be compared with the glory, that is to be revealed in us." And if all, that the persecuted Christians of his time could suffer were not suitable (for so I remember the same Greek word to signify elsewhere) or proportionable to that glory; it will sure far outweigh what we can now forego or decline for it; the loss of an advantage, and much more the bare missing of it, being usually but a negative affliction, in comparison of the actual sufferance of evil. Christ did not only tell his disciples, that he, who should give the least of his followers so much as a cup of cold water upon the score of their relation to him, should not be unrewarded; but when the same persons asked him, what should be done to them, who had left all to follow him, he presently allots them thrones, as much over-valuing that all they had lost, as an ordinary recompence may exceed a cup of cold water. And indeed God's goodness is so great, and his treasure so unexhausted, that as he is forward to recompence even the least services, that can be done him, so he is able to give the greatest a proportionable reward. *Solomon* had an opportunity, such as never any mortal had, (that we know of,) either before or since, of satisfying his desires, whether of fame, or any other thing, that he could wish; "Ask what I shall give thee," was the proffer made him by him, that could give all things worth receiving; and yet the wisdom even of *Solomon's* choice, approved by God himself, consisted in declining the most ambitious things of this life for those things, that might the better qualify him to serve and please God. And to give you an example in a greater than *Solomon*, we may consider, that he, "who being in the form of God, thought it not robbery to be equal with God;" and who, by leaving heaven, did, to dwell on earth, quit more than any inhabitant of the earth can gain in heaven, and denied more to become capable of being tempted, than he did when he was tempted with an offer of all the kingdoms of the world, and the glory of them: this Saviour, I say, is said in scripture to have, "for the joy, that was set before him, endured the cross, and despised the shame;" as if heaven had been a sufficient recompence for even his renouncing honours, and embracing torments.

He, that declines the acquit of the applause of men for the contemplation of the truths of God, does but forbear to gather that, whilst it is immature which, by waiting God's time, he will more seasonably gather when it is full ripe, and wholesome, and sweet. That immarcescible crown, as St. *Peter* calls it, which Gospel promises to them, "who, by patient continuance in well-doing, seek for glory and honour;" will make a rich amends for the declining of a fading wreath here upon earth, where reputation

reputation is oftentimes as undeservedly acquired, as lost; whereas in heaven, the very having celestial honours argues a title to them. And since it is our Saviour's reasoning, that his disciples ought to rejoice when their reputation is pursued by calumny, as well as their lives by persecution, "because their reward is great in heaven," we may justly infer, that the grounded expectation of so illustrious a condition may bring us more content, even when it is not attended with a present applause, than this applause can give those, who want that comfortable expectation. So that, upon the whole matter, we have no reason to despond, or to complain of the study of theology, for but making us decline an empty and transitory fame for a solid and eternal glory.

Matth. v.
11, 12.

The CONCLUSION.

BY this time, Sir, I have said as much as I think fit (and therefore, I hope, more than upon your single account was necessary) to manifest, that *Physeophilus* had no just cause to undervalue the study of divinity nor our friend the doctor, for addicting himself to it. I hope you have not forgotten what I expressly enough declared at the beginning of this letter, that both your friend and you admitting the holy scriptures, I know myself thereby to be warranted to draw proofs from their authority. And if I need not remind you of this, perhaps I need not tell you by way of apology, that I am not so unacquainted with the laws of discoursing, but that, if I had been to argue with Atheists or Scepticks, I should have forborn to make use of divers of the arguments I have employed, as fetched from unconceded topicks, and substituted others for such, as yet, I think, it very allowable for me to urge, when I deal with a person, that, as your friend, does only undervalue the study of the scriptures, not reject their authority. And if the prolixity I have been guilty of already, did forbid me to encrease it by apologies not absolutely necessary, I should perchance, rather think myself obliged to excuse the plainness of the stile of this discourse; which both upon the subject's score, and yours, may seem to challenge a richer dress. But the matter is very serious, and you are a philosopher, and when the things we treat of are highly important, I think truths clearly made out to be the most persuasive pieces of oratory. And a discourse of this nature is more likely to prove effectual on intelligent perusers, by having the reasons it presents perspicuously proposed, and unprejudicedly entertained, than by their being pathetically urged, or curiously adorned. And I have the rather forborn expressions, that might seem more proper to move, than to convince; because I foresee, I may very shortly have occasion to employ some of the former sort in another letter to a friend of yours and mine, who will, I doubt, make you a sharer in the trouble of reading it. But writing this for you, and *Physeophilus*, I was far more solicitous to give the arguments I employ a good than a bright gloss. For even when we would excite devotion, if it be in rational men, the most effectual pieces of oratory are those, which like burning-glasses inflame, by nothing but numerous and united beams of light. If this letter prove so happy as to give you any satisfaction, it will thereby bring me a great one. For prizing you as I do, I cannot but wish to see you esteem those things now, which I am confident we shall always have cause to esteem; and then most, when the light of glory shall have made us better judges of the true worth of things. And it would

extremely trouble me to see you a disesteemer of those divine things, which as long as a man undervalues, the possession of heaven itself would not make him happy. And therefore, if the blessing of him, whose glory is aimed at in it, make the success of this paper answerable to the wishes, the importance of the subject will make the service done you by it, suitable to the desires of,

S I R,

Your most faithful,

most affectionate,

and most humble servant.



ABOUT THE
 E X C E L L E N C Y
 A N D
 G R O U N D S
 O F THE
 M E C H A N I C A L H Y P O T H E S I S;
 SOME CONSIDERATIONS,

Occasionally proposed to a F R I E N D.

The Publisher's Advertisement.

THE following paper having been but occasionally and hastily penned, long after what the author had written (by way of dialogue) about the requisites of a good hypothesis, it was intended, that if it came forth at all, it should do so as an appendix to that discourse; because, though one part of it does little more than name some of the heads treated of in the dialogue, yet, according to the exigency of the occasion, the other part contains several things either pretermitted, or but more lightly touched on in this discourse. But, although the author's design were to reserve these thoughts, as a kind of paralipomena to his dialogue; yet, since he is not willing to let that, at least quickly, come abroad, and these are fallen into my hands; I will make bold, with his good leave, to annex them to the foregoing treatise, not only to compleat the bulk of the book, but because of some affinity between them, since both aim at manifesting the excellency of the studies they would recommend. And perhaps it will not be unwelcome to some of the curious to find, that our noble author in the same book, wherein he prefers the study of divine things to that of natural ones, does himself prefer the mechanical principles before all other hypotheses about natural things; they being in their own nature so accommodate, to make considering men understand, rather than dispute of, the effects of nature.

O F T H E
E X C E L L E N C Y and G R O U N D S
O F T H E
C O R P U S C U L A R O R M E C H A N I C A L P H I L O S O P H Y.

THE importance of the question, you propose, would oblige me to refer you to “the dialogue about a good hypothesis,” and some other papers of that kind, where you may find my thoughts about the advantages of the mechanical hypothesis somewhat amply set down, and discoursed of. But, since your desires confine me to deliver in few words, not what I believe resolvedly, but what I think may be probably said for the preference or the pre eminence of the corpuscular philosophy above *Aristotle’s*, or that of the chemists, you must be content to receive from me, without any preamble, or exact method, or ample discourses, or any other thing, that may cost many words, a succinct mention of some of the chief advantages of the hypothesis we incline to. And I the rather comply, on this occasion, with your curiosity, because I have often observed you to be alarmed and disquieted, when you hear of any book, that pretends to uphold, or repair the decaying philosophy of the schools, or some bold chymist, that arrogates to those of his sect the title of philosophers, and pretends to build wholly upon experience, to which he would have all other naturalists thought strangers. That therefore you may not be so tempted to despond, by the confidence or reputation of those writers, that do some of them applaud, and others censure, what, I fear, they do not understand, (as when the Peripateticks cry up substantial forms, and the chemists, mechanical explications) of nature’s phænomena, I will propose some considerations, that, I hope, will not only keep you kind to the philosophy you have embraced, but perhaps, (by some considerations, which you have not yet met with,) make you think it probable, that the new attempts you hear of from time to time, will not overthrow the corpuscularian philosophy, but either be foiled by it, or found reconcilable to it.

BUT when I speak of the corpuscular or mechanical philosophy, I am far from meaning with the Epicureans, that atoms, meeting together by chance in an infinite vacuum, are able of themselves to produce the world, and all its phænomena; nor with some modern philosophers, that, supposing God to have put into the whole mass of matter such an invariable quantity of motion, he needed do no more to make the world, the material parts being able by their own unguided motions, to cast themselves into such a system (as we call by that name:) but I plead only for such a philosophy, as reaches but to things purely corporeal, and distinguishing between the first original of things, and the subsequent course of nature, teaches, concerning the former, not only that God gave motion to matter, but that in the beginning he so guided the various motions of the parts of it, as to contrive them into the world he designed they should compose, (furnished with the seminal principles and structures, or models of living creatures,) and established those rules of motion, and that order amongst things corporeal, which we are wont to call the laws of nature. And having told this as to the former, it may be allowed as to the latter to teach, that the universe being once framed by God, and the laws of motion being settled and all upheld by his incessant concurrence
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and general providence, the phænomena of the world thus constituted are physically produced by the mechanical affections of the parts of matter, and what they operate upon one another according to mechanical laws. And now having shewn what kind of corpuscular philosophy it is, that I speak of, I proceed to the particulars, that I thought the most proper to recommend it.

I. THE first thing, that I shall mention to this purpose, is the intelligibleness or clearness of mechanical principles and explications. I need not tell you, that among the Peripateticks, the disputes are many and intricate about matter, privation, substantial forms, and their education, &c. And the chemists are sufficiently puzzled, (as I have elsewhere shewn,) to give such definitions and accounts of their hypostatical principles, as are reconcileable to one another, and even to some obvious phænomena. And much more dark and intricate are their doctrines about the Archeus, Astral Beings, Gas, Blasts, and other odd notions, which perhaps have in part occasioned the darkness and ambiguity of their expressions, that could not be very clear, when their conceptions were far from being so. And if the principles of the Aristotelians and Spagyristes are thus obscure, it is not to be expected, the explications, that are made by the help only of such principles should be clear. And indeed many of them are either so general and slight, or otherwise so unsatisfactory, that granting their principles, it is very hard to understand or admit their applications of them to particular phænomena. And even in some of the more ingenious and subtle of the peripatetick discourses upon their superficial and narrow theories, methinks, the authors have better plaid the part of painters than philosophers, and have only had the skill, like drawers of landscips, to make men fancy they see castles and towns, and other structures, that appear solid and magnificent, and to reach to a large extent, when the whole piece is superficial, and made up of colours and art, and comprised within a frame perhaps scarce a yard long. But to come now to the corpuscular philosophy, men do so easily understand one another's meaning, when they talk of local motion, rest, bigness, shape, order, situation, and contexture of material substances; and these principles do afford such clear accounts of those things, that are rightly deduced from them only, that even those Peripateticks or chymists, that maintain other principles, acquiesce in the explications made by these, when they can be had, and seek not any further, though perhaps the effect be so admirable, as would make it pass for that of a hidden form, or occult quality. Those very Aristotelians, that believe the celestial bodies to be moved by intelligences, have no recourse to any peculiar agency of theirs to account for eclipses. And we laugh at those East-Indians, that to this day go out in multitudes, with some instruments, that may relieve the distressed luminary, whose loss of light they fancy to proceed from some fainting fit, out of which it must be rouzed. For no intelligent man, whether chemist or Peripatetic, flies to his peculiar principles, after he is informed, that the moon is eclipsed by the interposition of the earth betwixt her and it, and the sun by that of the moon betwixt him and the earth. And when we see the image of a man cast into the air by a concave spherical looking-glass, though most men are amazed at it, and some suspect it to be no less than an effect of witchcraft, yet he, that is skilled enough in catoptricks, will, without consulting *Aristotle*, or *Paracelsus*, or flying to hypostatical principles and substantial forms, be satisfied, that the phænomenon is produced by the beams of light reflected, and thereby made convergent according to optical, and consequently mathematical laws.

BUT I must not now repeat what I elsewhere say, to shew, that the corpuscular principles have been declined by philosophers of different sects, not because they think not our explications clear, if not much more so, than their own; but because they ima-
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gine, that the applications of them can be made but to few things, and consequently are insufficient.

II. IN the next place I observe, that there cannot be fewer principles than the two grand ones of mechanical philosophy, matter and motion. For, matter alone, unless it be moved, is altogether unactive; and whilst all the parts of the body continue in one state without any motion at all, that body will not exercise any action, nor suffer any alteration itself, though it may perhaps modify the action of other bodies, that move against it.

III. NOR can we conceive any principles more primary, than matter and motion. For, either both of them were immediately created by God, or, (to add that for their sakes, that would have matter to be unproduced,) if matter be eternal, motion must either be produced by some immaterial supernatural agent, or it must immediately flow by way of emanation from the nature of the matter it appertains to.

IV. NEITHER can there be any physical principles more simple than matter and motion; neither of them being resolvable into any things, whereof it may be truly, or so much as tolerably said to be compounded.

V. THE next thing I shall name to recommend the corpuscular principle, is their great comprehensiveness. I consider then, that the genuine and necessary effect of the sufficiently strong motion of one part of matter against another, is, either to drive it on in its intire bulk, or else to break or divide it into particles of determinate motion, figure, size, posture, rest, order or texture. The two first of these, for instance, are each of them capable of numerous varieties. For the figure of a portion of matter may either be one of the five regular figures treated of by geometricians, or some determinate species of solid figures, as that of a cone, cylinder, &c. or irregular, though not perhaps anonymous, as the grains of sand, hoops, feathers, branches, forks, files, &c. And as the figure, so the motion of one of these particles may be exceedingly diversified, not only by the determination to this or that part of the world, but by several other things, as particularly by the almost infinitely varying degrees of celerity, by the manner of its progression with, or without rotation, and other modifying circumstances; and more yet, by the line, wherein it moves, as (besides streight) circular, elliptical, parabolical, hyperbolical, spiral, and I know not how many others. For as later geometricians have shewn, that those crooked lines may be compounded of several motions, (that is, traced by a body, whose motion is mixed of, and results from, two or more simpler motions,) so how many more curves may, or rather may not be made by new compositions and decompositions of motion, is no easy task to determine.

Now, since a single particle of matter, by virtue of two only of the mechanical affections, that belong to it, be diversifiable so many ways; how vast a number of variations may we suppose capable of being produced by the compositions and decompositions of myriads of single invisible corpuscles, that may be contained and contexted in one small body, and each of them be embued with more than two or three of the fertile catholick principles above-mentioned? Especially since the aggregate of those corpuscles may be farther diversified by the texture resulting from their convention into a body, which, as so made up, has its own bigness, and shape, and pores, (perhaps very many and various) and has also many capacities of acting and suffering upon the score of the place it holds among other bodies in a world constituted as ours is: so that, when I consider the almost innumerable diversifications, that compositions and decompositions may make of a small number, not perhaps exceeding twenty of distinct things, I am apt to look upon those, who think the mechanical principles may
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serve indeed to give an account of the phænomena of this or that particular part of natural philosophy, as staticks, hydrostaticks, the theory of the planetary motions, &c. but can never be applied to all the phænomena of things corporeal; I am apt, I say, to look upon those, otherwise learned men, as I would do upon him, that should affirm, that by putting together the letters of the alphabet, one may indeed make up all the words to be found in one book, as in *Euclid*, or *Virgil*; or in one language, as Latin, or English; but that they can by no means suffice to supply words to all the books of a great library, much less to all the languages in the world.

AND whereas there is another sort of philosophers, that, observing the great efficacy of the bigness, and shape, and situation, and motion, and connexion in engines, are willing to allow, that those mechanical principles may have a great stroke in the operations of bodies of a sensible bulk, and manifest mechanism, and therefore may be usefully employed in accounting for the effects and phænomena of such bodies, who yet will not admit, that these principles can be applied to the hidden transactions, that pass among the minute particles of bodies; and therefore think it necessary to refer these to what they call nature, substantial forms, real qualities, and the like unmechanical principles and agents.

BUT this is not necessary; for both the mechanical affections of matter are to be found, and the laws of motion take place, not only in the great masses, and the middle sized lumps, but in the smallest fragments of matter; and a lesser portion of it being as well a body as a greater, must, as necessarily as it, have its determinate bulk and figure: and he, that looks upon sand in a good microscope, will easily perceive, that each minute grain of it has as well its own size and shape, as a rock or mountain. And when we let fall a great stone and a pebble from the top of a high building, we find not, but that the latter as well as the former moves conformably to the laws of acceleration in heavy bodies descending. And the rules of motion are observed, not only in cannon bullets, but in small shot; and the one strikes down a bird according to the same laws, that the other batters down a wall. And though nature (or rather its divine author) be wont to work with much finer materials, and employ more curious contrivances than art, (whence the structure even of the rarest watch is incomparably inferior to that of a human body;) yet an artist himself, according to the quantity of the matter he employs, the exigency of the design he undertakes, and the bigness and shape of the instruments he makes use of, is able to make pieces of work of the same nature or kind of extremely differing bulk, where yet the like, though not equal art and contrivance, and oftentimes motion too, may be observed: as a smith, who with a hammer, and other large instruments, can, out of masses of iron, forge great bars or wedges, and make those strong and heavy chains, that were employed to load malefactors, and even to secure streets and gates, may, with lesser instruments, make smaller nails and filings, almost as minute as dust; and may yet, with finer tools, make links of a strange slenderness and lightness, insomuch, that good authors tell us of a chain of divers links, that was fastened to a flea, and could be moved by it; and if I misremember not, I saw something like this, besides other instances, that I beheld with pleasure, of the littleness, that art can give to such pieces of work, as are usually made of a considerable bigness. And therefore to say, that though in natural bodies, whose bulk is manifest and their structure visible, the mechanical principles may be usefully admitted, that are not to be extended to such portions of matter, whose parts and texture are invisible; may perhaps look to some, as if a man should allow, that the laws of mechanism may take place in a town clock, but cannot in a pocket-watch; or, (to give you an instance, mixed of natural and artificial,) as if, because the terra-

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queous globe is a vast magnetical body of seven or eight thousand miles in diameter, one should affirm, that magnetical laws are not to be expected to be of force in a spherical piece of loadstone, that is not perhaps an inch long: and yet experience shews us, that notwithstanding the inestimable disproportion betwixt these two globes, the terræ, as well as the earth, hath its poles, æquator, and meridians, and in divers other magnetical properties, emulates the terrestrial globe.

THEY, that, to solve the phænomena of nature, have recourse to agents, which, though they involve no self-repugnancy in their very notions, as many of the judicious think substantial forms and real qualities to do, yet are such, that we conceive not, how they operate to bring effects to pass: these, I say, when they tell us of such indeterminate agents, as the soul of the world, the universal spirit, the plastic power, and the like; though they may in certain cases tell us some things, yet they tell us nothing, that will satisfy the curiosity of an inquisitive person, who seeks not so much to know, what is the general agent, that produces a phænomenon, as, by what means, and after what manner, the phænomenon is produced. The famous *Sennertus*, and some other learned physicians, tell us of diseases, which proceed from incantation; but sure it is but a slight account, that a sober physician, that comes to visit a patient reported to be bewitched, receives of the strange symptoms he meets with, and would have an account of, if he be coldly answered, that it is a witch, or the devil, that produces them; and he will never sit down with so short an account, if he can by any means reduce those extravagant symptoms to any more known and stated diseases, as epilepsies, convulsions, hysterical fits, &c. and, if he cannot, he will confess his knowledge of this distemper to come far short of what might be expected and attained in other diseases, wherein he thinks himself bound to search into the nature of the morbid matter, and will not be satisfied, till he can, probably at least, deduce from that, and the structure of an human body, and other concurring physical causes, the phænomena of the malady. And it would be but little satisfaction to one, that desires to understand the causes of what occurs to observation in a watch, and how it comes to point at, and strike the hours, to be told, that it was such a watch-maker that so contrived it; or to him, that would know the true cause of an eccho, to be answered, that it is a man, a vault, or a wood, that makes it.

AND now at length I come to consider that, which I observe the most to alienate other sects from the mechanical philosophy; namely, that they think it pretends to have principles so universal and so mathematical, that no other physical hypothesis can comport with it, or be tolerated by it.

BUT this I look upon as an easy, indeed, but an important mistake; because by this very thing, that the mechanical principles are so universal, and therefore applicable to so many things, they are rather fitted to include, than necessitated to exclude, any other hypothesis, that is founded in nature, as far as it is so. And such hypotheses, if prudently considered by a skilful and moderate person, who is rather disposed to unite sects than multiply them, will be found, as far as they have truth in them, to be either legitimately (though perhaps not immediately) deducible from the mechanical principles, or fairly reconcileable to them. For, such hypotheses will probably attempt to account for the phænomena of nature, either by the help of a determinate number of material ingredients, such as the *tria prima* of the chemists, by participation whereof other bodies obtain their qualities; or else by introducing some general agents, as the Platonic soul of the world, or the universal spirit, asserted by some spagyrist; or by both these ways together.

Now, to dispatch first those, that I named in the second place; I consider, that the chief thing, that inquisitive naturalists should look after in the explicating of difficult

ficult phænomena, is not so much what the agent is or does, as, what changes are made in the patient, to bring it to exhibit the phænomena, that are proposed; and by what means, and after what manner, those changes are effected. So that the mechanical philosopher being satisfied, that one part of matter can act upon another but by virtue of local motion, or the effects and consequences of local motion, he considers, that as if the proposed agent be not intelligible and physical, it can never physically explain the phænomena; so, if it be intelligible and physical, it will be reducible to matter, and some or other of those only catholick affections of matter, already often mentioned. And the indefinite divisibility of matter, the wonderful efficacy of motion, and the almost infinite variety of coalitions and structures, that may be made of minute and insensible corpuscles, being duly weighed, I see not, why a philosopher should think it impossible, to make out, by their help, the mechanical possibility of any corporeal agent, how subtil, or diffused, or active soever it be, that can be solidly proved to be really existent in nature, by what name soever it be called or disguised. And though the Cartesians be mechanical philosophers, yet, according to them, their *Materia Subtilis*, which the very name declares to be a corporeal substance, is, for aught I know, little (if it be at all) less diffused through the universe, or less active in it than the universal spirit of some spagyrist, not to say, the *Anima Mundi* of the Platonists. But this upon the by; after which I proceed, and shall venture to add, that whatever be the physical agent, whether, it be inanimate or living, purely corporeal, or united to an intellectual substance, the above mentioned changes, that are wrought in the body, that is made to exhibit the phænomena, may be effected by the same or the like means, or after the same or the like manner; as for instance, if corn be reduced to meal, the materials and shape of the millstones, and their peculiar motion and adaptation, will be much of the same kind; and (though they should not, yet) to be sure the grains of corn will suffer a various contrition and comminution in their passage to the form of meal; whether the corn be ground by a water-mill or a wind-mill, or a horse mill, or a hand-mill; that is, by a mill, whose stones are turned by inanimate, by brute, or by rational agents. And, if an angel himself should work a real change in the nature of a body, it is scarce conceivable to us men, how he could do it without the assistance of local motion; since, if nothing were displaced, or otherwise moved than before, (the like happening also to all external bodies to which it related,) it is hardly conceivable, how it should be in itself other, than just what it was before.

BUT to come now to the other sort of hypothesis formerly mentioned; if the chemists, or others, that would deduce a compleat natural philosophy from salt, sulphur, and mercury, or any other set number of ingredients of things, would well consider, what they undertake, they might easily discover, that the material parts of bodies, as such, can reach but to a small part of the phænomena of nature, whilst these ingredients are considered but as quiescent things, and therefore they would find themselves necessitated to suppose them to be active; and that things purely corporeal cannot be but by means of local motion, and the effects, that may result from that, accompanying variously shaped, sized, and aggregated parts of matter: so that the chemist and other materialists, if I may so call them, must (as indeed they are wont to do) leave the greatest part of the phænomena of the universe unexplicated by the help of the ingredients (be they fewer or more than three) of bodies, without taking in the mechanical, and more comprehensive affections of matter, especially local motion. I willingly grant, that salt, sulphur, and mercury, or some substances analogous to them, are to be obtained by the action of the fire, from a very great many dissipable bodies here below; nor would I deny, that in explicating divers of the phænomena

of such bodies, it may be of use to a skilful naturalist to know and consider, that this or that ingredient, as sulphur, for instance, does abound in the body proposed, whence it may be probably argued, that the qualities, that usually accompany that principle, when predominant, may be also, upon its score, found in the body, that so plentifully partakes of it. But not to mention, what I have elsewhere shewn, that there are many phænomena, to whose explication this knowledge will contribute very little or nothing at all; I shall only here observe, that, though chemical explications be sometimes the most obvious and ready, yet they are not the most fundamental and satisfactory: for, the chemical ingredient itself, whether sulphur or any other, must owe its nature and other qualities to the union of insensible particles in a convenient size, shape, motion or rest, and contexture; all which are but mechanical affections of convening corpuscles. And this may be illustrated by what happens in artificial fire-works. For, though in most of those many differing sorts that are made, either for the use of war, or for recreation, gunpowder be a main ingredient, and divers of the phænomena may be derived from the greater or lesser measure, wherein the compositions partake of it; yet, besides that there may be fire-works made without gunpowder, (as appears by those made of old by the Greeks and Romans,) gunpowder itself owes its aptness to be fired and exploded to the mechanical contexture of more simple portions of matter, nitre, charcoal, and sulphur; and sulphur itself, though it be by many chemists mistaken for an hypostatical principle, owes its inflammability to the convention of yet more simple and primary corpuscles; since chemists confess, that it has an inflammable ingredient, and experience shews, that it very much abounds with an acid and unflammable salt, and is not quite devoid of terrestreity. I know it may be here alledged, that the productions of chemical analyses are simple bodies, and upon that account irresoluble. But, that divers substances, which chemists are pleased to call the salts, or sulphurs, or mercuries of the bodies, that afforded them, are not simple and homogeneous, has elsewhere been sufficiently proved; nor is their not being easily dissipable, or resolvable, a clear proof of their not being made up of more primitive portions of matter. For, compounded, and even decomposed bodies, may be as difficultly resolvable, as most of those, that chemists obtain by what they call their analysis by the fire; witness common green glass, which is far more durable and irresoluble than many of those, that pass for hypostatical substances. And we see, that some amels will be several times even vitrified in the fire, without losing their nature, or oftentimes so much as their colour; and yet amel is manifestly, not only a compounded, but a decomposed body, consisting of salt and powder of pebbles or sand, and calcined tin, and, if the amel be not white, usually of some tinging metal or mineral. But how indestructible soever the chemical principles be supposed, divers of the operations ascribed to them will never be well made out, without the help of local motion, (and that diversified too;) without which, we can little better give an account of the phænomena of many bodies, by knowing what ingredients compose them, than we can explain the operations of a watch, by knowing of how many, and of what metals the balance, the wheels, the chain, and other parts are made; or than we can derive the operations of a wind-mill from the bare knowledge, that it is made up of wood, and stone, and canvas, and iron. And here let me add, that it would not at all overthrow the Corpuscularian hypothesis, though either by more exquisite purifications, or by some other operations, than the usual analysis of the fire, it should be made appear, that the material principles, or elements of mixed bodies, should not be the *tria prima* of the vulgar chemists, but either substances of another nature, or else fewer, or more in number; as would be, if that were true, which some spagyrist affirm, (but I could never find,) that from all sorts of

of mixed bodies, five, and but five, differing similar substances can be separated: or, as if it were true, that the Helmontians had such a resolving menstruum as the Alkahest of their master; by which he affirms, that he could reduce stones into salt of the same weight with the mineral, and bring both that salt, and all other kind of mixed and tangible bodies, into insipid water. For, whatever be the number or qualities of the chemical principles, if they be really existent in nature, it may very possibly be shewn, that they may be made up of insensible corpuscles of determinate bulks and shapes; and by the various coalitions and contextures of such corpuscles, not only three or five, but many more material ingredients, may be composed or made to result. But, though the Alkahestical reductions newly mentioned should be admitted, yet the mechanical principles might well be accommodated even to them. For the solidity, taste, &c. of salt, may be fairly accounted for, by the stiffness, sharpness, and other mechanical affections of the minute particles, whereof salts consist; and if, by a farther action of the alkahest, the salt, or any other solid body, be reduced into insipid water, this also may be explicated by the same principles, supposing a farther comminution of the parts, and such an attrition, as wears off the edges and points, that enabled them to strike briskly the organ of taste: for, as to fluidity and firmness, those mainly depend upon two of our grand principles, motion and rest. And I have elsewhere shewn, by several proofs, that the agitation of rest, and the looser contact, or closer cohæsion, of the particles, is able to make the same portion of matter, at one time a firm, and at another time a fluid body. So that, though the further sagacity and industry of chemists (which I would by no means discourage) should be able to obtain from mixed bodies homogeneous substances, differing in number, or nature, or both, from their vulgar salt, sulphur, and mercury; yet the corpuscular philosophy is so general and fertile, as to be fairly reconcilable to such a discovery; and also so useful, that these new material principles will, as well as the old *tria prima*, stand in need of the more catholick principles of the Corpuscularians, especially local motion. And indeed, whatever elements or ingredients men have (that I know of) pitched upon, yet if they take not in the mechanical affections of matter, their principles have been so deficient, that I have usually observed, that the materialists, without at all excepting the chemists, do not only, as I was saying, leave many things unexplained, to which their narrow principles will not extend; but, even in the particulars, they presume to give an account of, they either content themselves to assign such common and indefinite causes, as are too general to signify much towards an inquisitive man's satisfaction; or if they venture to give particular causes, they assign precarious or false ones, and liable to be easily disproved by circumstances, or instances, whereto their doctrine will not agree, as I have often elsewhere had occasion to shew. And yet the chemists need not be frightened from acknowledging the prerogative of the mechanical philosophy, since that may be reconcileable with the truth of their own principles, as far as these agree with the phænomena they are applied to. For these more confined hypotheses may be subordinated to those more general and fertile principles, and there can be no ingredient assigned, that has a real existence in nature, that may not be derived either immediately, or by a row of decompositions, from the universal matter, modified by its mechanical affections. For if, with the same bricks, diversly put together and ranged, several walls, houses, furnaces, and other structures, as vaults, bridges, pyramids, &c. may be built, merely by a various contrivement of parts of the same kind; how much more may great variety of ingredients be produced by, or, according to the institution of nature, result from the various coalitions and contextures of corpuscles, that need not be supposed, like bricks, all of the same, or near the same size and shape, but may have amongst them, both of the one and the other, as

great a variety as need be wished for, and indeed a greater than can easily be so much as imagined? And the primary and minute concretions, that belong to these ingredients, may, without opposition from the mechanical philosophy, be supposed to have their particles so minute and strongly coherent, that nature of herself does scarce ever tear them asunder; as we see, that mercury and gold may be successively made to put on a multitude of disguises, and yet so retain their nature, as to be reducible to their pristine forms. And you know, I lately told you, that common glass and good amels, though both of them but factitious bodies, and not only mixed, but decomposed concretions, have yet their component parts so strictly united by the skill of illiterate tradesmen, as to maintain their union in the vitrifying violence of the fire. Nor do we find, that common glass will be wrought upon by aqua fortis, or aqua regis, though the former of them will dissolve mercury, and the latter gold.

From the foregoing discourse it may (probably at least) result, that if, besides rational souls, there are any immaterial substances (such as the heavenly intelligences, and the substantial forms of the Aristotelians,) that regularly are to be numbered among natural agents, their way of working being unknown to us, they can but help to constitute and effect things, but will very little help us to conceive how things are effected; so that by whatever principles natural things be constituted, it is by the mechanical principles, that their phænomena must be clearly explicated. As for instance, though we should grant the Aristotelians, that the planets are made of a quintessential matter, and moved by angels, or immaterial intelligences; yet, to explain the stations, progressions, and retrogradations, and other phænomena of the planets, we must have recourse either to eccentricks, epicycles, &c. or to motions made in elliptical or other peculiar lines; and, in a word, to theories, wherein the motion and figure, situation, and other mathematical or mechanical affections of bodies are mainly employed. But if the principles proposed be corporeal things, they will be then fairly reducible, or reconcilable, to the mechanical principles; these being so general and pregnant, that among things corporeal, there is nothing real, (and I meddle not with chimerical beings, such as some of *Paracelsus's*,) that may not be derived from, or be brought to, a subordination to such comprehensive principles. And when the chemists shall shew, that mixed bodies owe their qualities to the predominancy of this or that of their three grand ingredients, the Corpuscularians will shew, that the very qualities of this, or that ingredient, flow from its peculiar texture, and the mechanical affections of those corpuscles it is made up of. And to affirm, that, because the furnaces of chemists afford a great number of uncommon productions and phænomena, there are bodies or operations amongst things purely corporeal, that cannot be derived from, or reconciled to, the comprehensive and pregnant principles of the mechanical philosophy, is, as if, because there are a great number and variety of anthems, hymns, pavins, threnodies, courants, gavots, branles, sarabands, jigs, and other (grave and sprightly) tunes to be met with in the books and practises of musicians, one should maintain, that there are in them a great many tunes, or at least, notes, that have no dependence on the scale of musick; or, as if, because, besides rhombusses, rhomboids, trapeziums, squares, pentagons, chiliagons, myriagons, and innumerable other polygons, regular, and irregular, one should presume to affirm, that there are among them some rectilinear figures, that are not reducible to triangles, or have affections, that will overthrow what *Euclid* has taught of triangles and polygons.

To what has been said I shall add but one thing more; that as, according to what I formerly intimated, mechanical principles and explications are for their clearness preferred, even by materialists themselves, to others, in the cases where they can be had; so, the sagacity and industry of modern naturalists and mathematicians having hap-
pily

pily applied them to several of those difficult phænomena, (in hydrostaticks, the practical part of opticks, gunnery, &c.) that before were, or might be referred to occult qualities; it is probable, that when this philosophy is deeper searched into, and farther improved, it will be found applicable to the solution of more and more of the phænomena of nature. And on this occasion let me observe, that it is not always necessary, though it be always desirable, that he, that propounds an hypothesis in astronomy, chemistry, anatomy, or other part of physicks, be able *à priori*, to prove his hypothesis to be true, or demonstratively to shew, that the other hypotheses proposed about the same subject must be false. For as, if I mistake not, *Plato* said, that the world was God's epistle written to mankind, and might have added, consonantly to another saying of his, it was written in mathematical letters: so, in the physical explications of the parts and system of the world, methinks, there is somewhat like what happens, when men conjecturally frame several keys to enable us to understand a letter written in cyphers. For though one man by his sagacity have found out the right key, it will be very difficult for him, either to prove otherwise than by trial, that this or that word is not such, as it is guessed to be by others, according to their keys; or to evince, *à priori*, that theirs are to be rejected, and his to be preferred; yet, if due trial being made, the key he proposes, shall be found so agreeable to the characters of the letter, as to enable one to understand them, and make a coherent sense of them, its suitableness to what it should decypher, is, without either confutations, or extraneous positive proofs, sufficient to make it be accepted as the right key of that cypher. And so, in physical hypotheses, there are some, that, without noise, or falling foul upon others, peaceably obtain discerning men's approbation only by their fitness to solve the phænomena, for which they were devised, without crossing any known observation or law of nature. And therefore, if the mechanical philosophy go on to explicate things corporeal at the rate it has of late years proceeded at, it is scarce to be doubted, but that, in time, unprejudiced persons will think it sufficiently recommended by its consistency with itself, and its applicableness to so many phænomena of nature.

A R E C A P I T U L A T I O N.

PERCEIVING, upon a review of the foregoing paper, that the difficulty and importance of the subject, has seduced me to spend many more words about it, than I at first designed; it will not now be amiss to give you this short summary of what came into my mind, to recommend to you the mechanical philosophy, and obviate your fears of seeing it supplanted; having first premised once for all, that presupposing the creation and general providence of God, I pretend to treat but of things corporeal, and do abstract in this paper from immaterial Beings, (which otherwise I very willingly admit,) and all agents and operations miraculous or supernatural.

I. Of the principles of things corporeal, none can be more few, without being insufficient, or more primary, than matter and motion.

II. THE natural and genuine effect of variously determined motion in portions of matter is, to divide it into parts of differing sizes, and shapes, and to put them into different motions; and the consequences, that flow from these, in a world framed as ours is, are, as to the separate fragments, posture, order, and situation, and, as to the conventions of many of them, peculiar compositions and contextures.

III. THE parts of matter endowed with these catholick affections are, by various associations, reduced to natural bodies of several kinds, according to the plenty of the matter, and the various compositions and decompositions of the principles; which all suppose the common matter they diversify: and these several kinds of bodies, by virtue of their motion, rest, and other mechanical affections, which fit them to act on, and suffer from one another, become endowed with several kinds of qualities, (whereof some are called manifest, and some occult,) and those, that act upon the peculiarly framed organs of sense, whose perceptions, by the animadversive faculty of the soul, are sensations.

IV. THESE principles, matter, motion, (to which rest is related) bigness, shape, posture, order, texture, being so simple, clear, and comprehensive, are applicable to all the real phænomena of nature, which seem not explicable by any other not consistent with ours. For, if recourse be had to an immaterial principle or agent, it may be such an one, as is not intelligible; and however it will not enable us to explain the phænomena, because its way of working upon things material, would probably be more difficult to be physically made out, than a mechanical account of the phænomena. And, notwithstanding the immateriality of a created agent, we cannot conceive, how it should produce changes in a body, without the help of mechanical principles, especially local motion; and accordingly we find not, that the reasonable soul in man is able to produce what changes it pleases in the body, but is confined to such, as it may produce by determining, or guiding the motions of the spirits, and other parts of the body, subservient to voluntary motion.

V. AND if the agents, or active principles resorted to, be not immaterial, but of a corporeal nature, they must either in effect be the same with the corporeal principles above-named; or, because of the great universality and simplicity of ours, the new ones proposed, must be less general than they, and consequently capable of being subordinate, or reduced to ours, which by various compositions may afford matter to several hypotheses, and by several coalitions afford minute concretions exceedingly numerous and durable, and consequently fit to become the elementary ingredients of more compounded bodies, being in most trials similar, and as it were the radical parts, which may, after several manners, be diversified; as in Latin, the themes are by prepositions, terminations, &c. and in Hebrew, the roots by the hæmantic letters. So that the fear, that so much of a new physical hypothesis, as is true, will overthrow, or make useless the mechanical principles, is, as if one should fear, that there will be a language proposed, that is discordant from, or not reducible to, the letters of the alphabet.

T R A C T S.

CONTAINING

- I. Suspicions about some Hidden Qualities of the AIR; with an Appendix touching CELESTIAL MAGNETS, and some other Particulars.
- II. Animadversions upon Mr. HOBBS's PROBLEMATICA DE VACUO.
- III. A Discourse of the Cause of Attraction by SUCTION.

P R E F A C E.

AMONG other papers, that I designed to contribute towards the natural history of the air, I began some years ago to set down a collection of some new or less heeded observations and experiments relating to the causes and effects of changes in the air, which I referred to several heads, as to the air's heat, coldness, moisture, dryness, diaphaneity, opacity, consistence, several saltinesses and other titles; the last of which was of the occult qualities of the air, supposing there be any such. And though afterwards I was, by sickness and other impediments, diverted from proceeding in that collection, and induced to lay aside some of the observations I had provided, and employ in other treatises, such as were proper to them; yet as to the title, that contained suspicions about some hidden qualities of the air, the possibility, if not likelihood, that either the matters of fact, or the intimations delivered in them, might afford hints not useless to the sagacious and inquisitive, persuaded me to let it escape the fate of its companions, though possibly, if I had more consulted my own reputation, I should least of all have suffered this title to appear, there being none of the rest, that was not less conjectural. But it being thought unfit, that any thing should perish, that related to so considerable and uncommon a subject, as that of this title, I was content to cast the collected experiments into the following essay, for the reasons expressed at the beginning and close of the ensuing paper. Which, it was hoped, may be the better understood, and less liable to have its design mistaken, by being ushered in by this advertisement about the occasion of it.

OBSERVATIONS about the GROWTH

OF

METALS in their ORE, exposed to the AIR.

IT is altogether unnecessary to my present purpose, to examine, whether metals and minerals, as if they were a kind of subterranean plants, do properly grow as vegetables do. For this enquiry belongs to another place, but not to this, where the reference made in a future page of the following paper does not oblige me to speak of the growth of metals in any other than a lax and popular sense, in which a
metal

metal may be said to grow, if a portion of matter being assigned, wherein as yet men can find either no metal, as gold or tin, or but such a quantity of it; this being exposed to the air, will after a time either afford some metal, where there appeared none before, or a greater proportion of metal than it had before.

OBSERVATIONS of this kind requiring length of time, as well as residence near places abounding with minerals, I have little or no opportunity to make any of them myself, at least with the wariness, that to me seems due to observations, that I think not easy to be well made. And therefore I must content myself to set down what I have been able to learn by conversing with mineralists and travellers, and to add some particulars, that I met with in authors of good credit.

OBSERVATIONS about the GROWTH of TIN.

AN ancient owner of mines, being asked by me, whether he could, otherwise than upon the conjectures of vulgar tradition, prove, that minerals grow, even after the veins have been dug? answered affirmatively; and being desired to let me know his proofs, he gave me these that follow.

He told me, that not far from his house there was a tin-mine, which the old diggers affirmed to have been left off, some said eighty, some an hundred and twenty years ago, because they had by their washing and vanning separated all the ore from the rest of the earth, and yet of late years they found it so richly impregnated with metalline particles, that it was wrought over again with very good profit, and preferred to some other mines, that were actually wrought, and had never been so robbed. And when I objected, that probably this might proceed from the laziness and unskilfulness of workmen in those times, who left in the earth the tin, that was lately separated, and might then have been so; I was answered, that it was a known thing in the country, that in those times the mine-men were more careful and laborious, to separate the metalline part from the rest of the ore, than now they are.

He also affirmed to me, that in his own time some tenants and neighbours of his (employed by him) having got all the ore they could out of a great quantity of stuff, dug out of a tin-mine, they laid the remains in great heaps, exposed to the air, and within twenty and thirty years after, found them so richly impregnated, that they wrought them over again with good benefit.

And lastly, he assured me, that in a work of his own, wherein he had exercised his skill and experience, (which is said to be very great) to separate all the particles of tin from the terrestrial substances, that were dug up with it out of the vein, he caused dams to be made to stop the earthy substance, which the stream washed away from the ore, giving passage to the water; after it had let fall this substance, which lying in heaps exposed to the air, within ten or twelve years, and sometimes much less, he examined this, or that heap, and found it to contain such store of metalline particles, as invited him to work it again, and do it with profit. And yet this gentleman was so dextrous at separating the metalline from the other parts of tin-ore, that I could (not without wonder) see, what small corpuscles he would, to satisfy my curiosity, sever from vast quantities (in proportion) of earthy and other mineral stuff.

RELATIONS agreeable to these I received from another very ingenious gentleman, that was conversant with tin-mines, and lived not far from more than one of them.

I was the more solicitous to procure an information about the growth of this metal, because the bulk of that, which is used in *Europe*, being found in *England*, I have met with little or no mention of the growth of it in outlandish writers.

OBSER-

OBSERVATIONS about the GROWTH of LEAD.

AS for the growth of lead in the ore exposed to the air, I remember, I enquired about it of a person of quality, who had a patent for divers leaden mines, that were supposed to contain silver, and wrought some of them himself at no small charge, yet not without profit; and, as I remember, he answered me, that the lead-ore, that had been wrought and laid in heaps, did, in tract of time, grow impregnated with metal again, and, as experience manifested, became worth working a second time. And indeed some mineralists deliver it as a general observation, that the growth and renaissance of metals is more manifest in lead than in any other of them. *Fessularum mons in Hetruria*, says *Boccatius Certardus*, who delivers it as a most approved truth, *Florentiæ Civitati imminens, lapides plumbarios habet, qui, si excidantur, brevi temporis spatio novis incrementis instaurantur.* J. Gerhard. in *decade quæstionum*, pag. m 22.

Tu subtilius ne quæras (says *Agricola*, speaking of the growth of mines in general) *sed tantummodo refer animum ad cuniculos, & considera, eos adeo interdum memoriâ hominum in angustum venisse, ut aliqua sui parte nullum aut admodum difficile præbeant transitum, cum eos satis late agere soleant fossores, ne transitorios impedian.* In tales autem angustias sunt adducti propter accretionem materiæ, ex qua lapis est factus.

BUT whether this increment of lead is observable in all mines of that metal, I was induced to doubt by the answer given me by a gentleman, whose house was seated near several lead-mines, and who was himself owner of one or two, which he yet causes to be wrought: for this gentleman, though a chemist, assured me, that in the country, where he lives, which is divided by the sea from that of the person above-mentioned, he never observed the lead-ore to encrease, either out of the veins or in them; but that in some places, whence ore had been dug thirty or forty, if not fifty years before, he perceived not on the sides of the passages, whence the ore had been dug, that any other had grown in its place, or that the passages, though narrow before, were sensibly straightened, much less blocked up.

AND indeed, if there were no other arguments in the case, the straightning of the ancient passages in process of time would not convince me. For, when I consider, that the soils, that abound with metals, do usually also abound with waters, which are commonly imbibed by the neighbouring earth; and when I consider too, that water is somewhat expanded by being turned into ice, and that this expansion is made, (as I have often tried) though slowly, yet with an exceeding great force, by which it often stretches or breaks the vessels that contain it: when I consider these things, I say, I am apt to suspect, that sometimes the encreasing narrowness of the subterranean passages in mines may proceed from this, that the soil, that invirons them, if they lie not deep, may have the water, imbibed by them, frozen in sharp winters. By which glaciation, the moistened portion of the soil must forcibly endeavour to expand itself, and actually do so in the parts contiguous to the passage, since there it finds no resistance: and though the expansion made in one year or two be but small, and therefore not observed; yet, in a succession of many winters, it may by degrees grow to be very considerable. But this suspicion I suggest not, that I would deny the growth of minerals, but to recommend this argument for it to further consideration. And yet I take this to be a better proof, than what is much relied on by some writers of metals, who urge, that in churches, and other magnificent buildings, that are leaded over, the metalline roofs, in a long tract of years, grow far more ponderous, insomuch, that oftentimes there is a necessity to remove them, and exchange them for brass ones. For though this plausible argument be urged by several writers, and among them by the learned *Jo. Gerhardus*,

bardus, pag. m. 22; yet I fear they proceed upon a mistake. For having had some occasion to observe and enquire after this kind of lead, I soon suspected, that the increment of weight, (which sometimes may indeed be very great) was no clear proof of the real growth of the metal itself. For in that, which I had occasion to consider, the additional weight, as well as bulk, seemed to proceed from acetous or other saline corpuscles of the timber of those buildings, which by degrees exhaling and corroding, that side of the lead which they fastened on, turned it with themselves into a kind of Cerusse: which suspicion I shall briefly make probably by noting, 1. That I have found by trial purposely made, that woods afford an acid, though not merely acid, liquor, capable of corroding lead. 2. That it is known, that lead turned into Cerusse increases notably in weight, some say, (for I had not opportunity to try it) about six or seven in the hundred. 3. That from the sheets of lead, that have very long covered churches, and the like buildings, there is often obtained by scraping, a good proportion of white lead, which I have known much preferred, by an eminent artist, to common Cerusse, when a white pigment was to be employed. And, by the way, men's finding this Cerusse not on that side of the lead, that is exposed to the outward air, (where I scarce ever observed any) but on the inside, that regards the timber and other wooden work, may disabuse those, that fancied this cerusse to be a part of the lead calcined by the beams of the sun, that strike immediately upon the metal. And if to this it be added, that by distillation and otherwise I have found cause to suspect, that alabaster and white marble may emit spirituous parts, that will invade lead, it may be doubted, whether what *Galen* relates of the great intumescence of leaden bands or fastenings, wherewith the feet of statues were fastened to their pedestals, be a sure argument of the real growth of that metal in the air.

BUT I begin to digress, and seemingly to the prejudice of the particular scope of this paper; but yet not to that of one of the main scopes of all my physical writings, the disquisition and advancement of truth.

OBSERVATIONS about the GROWTH of IRON.

I DID not find in one of our chief mines of iron, that there was any notice taken of the growth of that metal; but in another place or two, some, that deal in iron-ore; informed me, that they believe it grows, and may be regenerated; and upon that account one of them set up a work, contiguous to some land of mine, to melt over again the remainder of ore, that had been already wrought (at a great distance from that place) and had for some ages lain in heaps exposed to the free air; but with what success this chargeable attempt has been made, I am not yet informed.

Lib. III.
cap. 6.

BUT of the growth of iron in the island of *Ilva* or *Elva*, in the Tyrrhene sea, not far from the coast of *Tuscany*, not only ancient authors, as *Pliny* and *Strabo*, take special notice, but modern mineralists of very good credit, as *Falopius* and *Cæsalpinus*, particularly attest the same thing; of whom the latter speaks thus: *Vena ferri copiosissima est in Italia, ob eam nobilitata, Ilva, Tyrreni maris insula, incredibili copia etiam nostris temporibus eam gignens: nam terra, quæ eruitur, dum vena effoditur, tota procedente tempore in venam convertitur.*

Agric. de
V. &
Journ. Met.
lib. II.
cap. 15.

AND the experienced *Agricola* gives us the like account of a place in his country, *Germany*, In *Lygiis*, says he, *ad Sagam oppidum in pratis eruitur ferrum, fossis ad altitudinem bipedancam actis. Id decennio renatum denuo foditur, non aliter ac Ilvæ ferrum.*

THE learned *Johan. Gerhardus*, out of a book, which he calls *Conciones Metallicæ*; I suppose he means the High Dutch Sermons of *Matbesius*, (whose language I understand

derstand not) has this notable passage to our present purpose: *Relatum mihi est a metal-* J. Gerhard.
lico fossore, ad ferrarias, quæ non longè Ambergâ distant, terram inanem cum ferri minera Professor
erutam, quam vocant den Gummer, mixtam cum recrementis ferri, quæ appellatur der Tubingenſis.
Sinder, congestam in cumulos, instar magni cujusdam valli, solibus pluviisque exponi, & de- Dicaſ Quæſt.
cimo quinto anno denuo excoqui, eliquarique ferrum tantæ tenacitatis, ut solæ laminæ inde Physico-mat.
procudantur. p. 15. m. 18.

OBSERVATIONS about the G R O W T H of SILVER.

OF the growth, as is supposed, of silver in the form of trees or glass or other vegetables, I have met with some instances among mineralists, and I have elsewhere mentioned, that an acquaintance of mine shewed me a stone, wherein he affirmed the silver, I saw in it, to have increased since he had it. But for certain reasons, none of these relations seem to me very proper to my present purpose; in order to which, I shall therefore set down only one instance, which I lately met with in a French collection of voyages, published by a person of great curiosity and industry, from whose civility I received the book. For there, in an account given by a gentleman of his country of a late voyage he made to *Peru*, wherein he visited the famous silver-mines of *Potosi*, I found a passage, which speaks to this sense: *Le meilleur argent, &c.* i. e. The best silver in all the *Indies*, and the purest, is that of the mines of *Potosi*, the chief have been found in the mountain of *Aranzasse*: and (some lines being interposed) it is added, that they draw this metal even from the mineral earths, that were in times past thrown aside, when the ground was open, and the grooves and shafts, that are in the mountains, were made; it having been observed, that in these recrements, metal had been formed afresh since those times, which sufficiently shews the propensity of the soil to the production of this metal; yet it is true, that these impregnated earths yield not so much as the ordinary ore, which is found in veins betwixt the rocks

OBSERVATIONS about the G R O W T H of GOLD.

AS for the growth of gold, the enquiries I have yet made among travellers give me no great satisfaction about it, and though I have spoken with several, that have been at the coast of *Guinea*, and in *Congo*, and other parts of *Afric*, where much gold is to be had; yet I could not learn by them, that they, or any acquaintance of theirs among the natives, had seen any mines or veins of gold, (which yet divers authors affirm to be found in more than one kingdom of *Æthiopia*, and in some other African Countries.) And having afterwards met with a learned traveller, that had carefully visited the famous gold-mines of *Cremnitz* in *Hungary*, he answered me, that he did not learn from the miners, whether or no the ores of gold, &c. did really grow or were regenerated in tract of time, by being exposed to the air, or upon any other account; but the grand overseer, who was lord of part of the soil, told him, that he thought the whole mountain to abound with particles of gold, and therefore was wont, when the diggers had almost exhausted the vein, to cast in store of earth, and dig up other neighbouring places, which, being kept there as in a conservatory, would afterwards afford gold, as the mine did before.

AND, if a late German professor of physick do not misinform us, his country affords an eminent instance of the growth or regeneration of gold. *Nam Corbachi*, says he,

Joan. Gerbardus in Decade Quæstionum, pag. m. 19. he, *quæ est civitas Westphaliæ, sub ditio- ne comitis de Isenborg & Waldeck, aurum exco- quitur ex cumulis congestis, ita ut singulis quadrienniis iterum elaboretur cumulus unus, sem- per se restaurante naturâ, &c.*

P O S T S C R I P T.

SINCE the setting down of the foregoing observations, I casually met with a cu- rious book of travels, lately made by the very ingenious Dr. *Edward Brown*, and find- ing in page 100, a couple of relations, that seem pertinently referable, the one to a passage above-cited out of *Agricola*, in the notes about the growth of lead, and the other to the present title about the growth of gold; I thought fit to annex them in the learned author's own words, viz.

“ 1. SOME passages in this mine cut through the rock, and long disused, have grown up again: and I observed the sides of some, which had been formerly wide enough to carry their ore through, to approach each other, so as we passed with difficulty. This happens most in moist places; the passages unite not from the top to the bot- tom, but from one to another.

“ 2. THE common yellow earth of the country near *Cremnitz*, especially of the hills towards the west, although not esteemed ore, affords some gold: and in one place, I saw a great part of an hill digged away, which hath been cast into the works, washed and wrought in the same manner as pounded ore, with considerable profit.”

THE fore-going observations about the growth of gold and other metals are not all, that I might, perhaps without being blamed for it, have referred to that title. But all my papers, wherein other observations of this kind were set down, are not now at hand, and divers other instances, that I have met with among writers, of the growth of metals, (taking that expression in the sense I formerly declared) do not seem to me so pertinent in this place, because the improving ores were not exposed, nor perchance accessible to the air. And even as to the instances, that I have now mentioned, till severer observations have been made, to determine, whether it be partly the contact or the operation of the air, or some internal disposition, analogous to a metalline feed or ferment, that causes this metalline increment, I dare not be positive; though I thought the interest of the air in this effect might make it pardonable, to add on this occasion to the history of nature some particulars, of which the cause con- jecturally proposed may be probably enough to countenance a suspicion, till further ex- perience have more clearly instructed us.

To what has been said of the growth of metals in the air, I add some instances of the growth of fossile salts, and of some other minerals: but, besides that these belong to the paper about the saltiness of the air; what has been already said may suffice for the present occasion.

P O S T S C R I P T.

AFTER what I writ in a part of the following discourse, having an oppor- tunity to look again upon the marchasite there mentioned to have been hermetically sealed up after its surface had been freed from the grains of vitriolate salt, that adhered to it, I preceived, that notwithstanding the glass had been so closely stopped, yet there plainly appeared from the outside of the mass some grains of an efflorescence, whose colour between blue and green, argued it to be of a vitriolate nature. If this be se- conded with other trials made with the like success, it may suggest new thoughts about the growth of metals and minerals, especially with reference to the air.

S U S.

S U S P I C I O N S

A B O U T

Some HIDDEN QUALITIES in the AIR.

BESIDES the four first qualities of the air, (heat, cold, dryness and moisture) that are known even to the vulgar; and those more unobvious, that philosophers and chemists have discovered, such as gravity, springiness, the power of refracting the beams of light, &c. I have often suspected, that there may be in the air some yet more latent qualities or powers differing enough from all these, and principally due to the substantial parts or ingredients, whereof it consists. And to this conjecture I have been led, partly (though not only, or perhaps chiefly) by considering the constitution of that air we live and breathe in, which, to avoid ambiguities, I elsewhere call Atmospherical air. For this is not, as many imagine, a simple and elementary body, but a confused aggregate of effluvioms from such differing bodies, that, though they all agree in constituting, by their minuteness and various motions, one great mass of fluid matter, yet perhaps there is scarce a more heterogeneous body in the world.

AND as by air I understand not, (as the Peripateticks are wont to do) a mere elementary body; so when I speak of the qualities of the air, I would not be thought to mean such naked and abstracted beings (as the schools often tell us of,) but such as they call qualities *in concreto*, namely, corpuscles endued with qualities, or capable of producing them in the subjects they invade and abound in.

I have elsewhere shewn it to be highly probable, that, besides those vapours and ex-
halations, which by the heat of the sun are elevated into the air, and there afford
matter to some meteors, as clouds, rain, parhelions and rain-bows, there are, at least
at some times, and in some places, store of effluvioms emitted from the subterranean
parts of the terrestrial globe; and it is no less probable, (from what I have there and
elsewhere delivered) that in the subterranean regions there are many bodies, some fluid
and some consistent, which, though of an operative nature, and like, upon occasion,
to emit steams, seldom or never appear upon the surface of the earth, so that many of
them have not so much as names assigned them even by the mineralists. Now, among
this multitude and variety of bodies, that lie buried out of our sight, who can tell,
but that there may be some, if not many, of a nature very differing from those we are
hitherto familiarly acquainted with; and that, as divers wonderful and peculiar opera-
tions of the loadstone, (though a mineral many ages ago famous among philosophers
and physicians) were not discovered till of later ages, wherein its nobler virtues have
been disclosed; so there may be other subterraneous bodies, that are endowed with con-
siderable powers, which, if they were known, be found very differing from those of
the fossiles we are wont to deal with?

I also further consider, that (as I have elsewhere endeavoured to make it probable) the sun and planets (to say nothing of the fixed stars) may have influences here below distinct from their heat and light. On which supposition it seems not absurd to me to suspect, that the subtil, but corporeal, emanations even of these bodies may (sometimes at least) reach to our air, and mingle with those of our globe in that great receptacle or rendezvous of celestial and terrestrial effluvioms, the atmosphere. And if
this

this suspicion be not groundless, the very small knowledge we have of the structure and constitution of globes, so many thousands or hundreds of thousands of miles remote from us, and the great ignorance we must be in of the nature of the particular bodies, that may be presumed to be contained in those globes, (as minerals and other bodies are in the earth) which in many things appear of kin to those that we inhabit, (as with excellent telescopes I have often with attention and pleasure observed, particularly in the moon) this great imperfection, I say, of our knowledge may keep it from being unreasonable to imagine, that some, if not many, of those bodies and their effluxions, may be of a nature quite differing from those we take notice of here about us, and consequently may operate after a very differing and peculiar manner.

AND though the chief of the heteroclite effluvia, that endow the air with hidden qualities, may probably proceed from beneath the surface of the earth, and from the celestial bodies; yet I would not deny, but that, especially at some times, and in some places, the air may derive multitudes of efficacious particles from its own operations, acting as a fluid substance upon that vast number and variety of bodies, that are immediately exposed to it. For, though, by reason of its great thinness, and of its being in its usual state devoid both of taste and smell, it seems wholly unfit to be a menstruum; yet I am not sure but it may have a dissolving, or at least a consuming, power on many bodies, especially such as are peculiarly disposed to admit its operations.

FOR I consider, that the air has a great advantage by the vast quantity of it, that may come to work in proportion to the bodies that are exposed to it: and I have long thought, that, in divers cases, the quantity of a menstruum may much more considerably compensate its want of strength, than chemists are commonly aware of, (as there may be occasion elsewhere to exemplify.) And there are liquors, which pass for insipid, (and are therefore thought to be altogether unfit to be solvents,) which, though they have their active parts too thinly dispersed to be able presently to make sensible impressions upon our organs of tasting, yet are not quite destitute of corpuscles fit to act as a solvent; especially if they have time enough to make with the other parts of the fluid such numerous and various motions, as must bring, now some of them, and then others, to hit against the body exposed to them. Which may be illustrated by the rust like to verdigrease, which we have observed in copper, that has been long exposed to the air, whose saline particles, little by little, do, in tract of time, fasten themselves in such numbers to the surface of the metal as to corrode it, and produce that efflorescence coloured like verdigrease which you know is a factitious body, wont to be made of the same metal, corroded by the sharp corpuscles of vinegar, or of the husks of grapes: besides, that by the power, which mercury has to dissolve gold and silver, it appears, that it is not always necessary for the making a fluid fit to be a dissolvent, that it should affect the taste. And as to those bodies, on which the aerial menstruum can, though but slowly, work, the greatest quantity of it may bring it this advantage, that, whereas even the strongest menstrua, if they bear no great proportion in bulk to the bodies they are to work on, are easily glutted, and being unable to take up any more, are fain to leave the rest of the body undissolved, our aerial menstruum bears so vast a proportion to the bodies exposed to it, that when one portion of it has impregnated itself as much as it is able, there may still come fresh and fresh to work further on the remaining part of the exposed body.

BESIDES the saline and sulphureous particles, that, at least in some places, may (as I have elsewhere shewn) impregnate the air, and give it a greater affinity to chemical menstrua more strictly so called; I am not averse from thinking, that the air, merely as a fluid body, that consists of corpuscles of differing sizes and solidities restlessly and very variously moved, may upon the account of these corpuscles be still resolving, or

preying

preying upon the particles of the bodies, that are exposed to their action. For many of those aerial corpuscles, some hitting and some rubbing themselves every minute against those particles of exposed bodies, that chance to lie in their way, may well, by those numerous occurrences and affrictions, strike off and carry along with them now some, and then others of those particles; as you see it happens in water, which, as soft and fluid as it is, wears out such hard and solid bodies as stones themselves, if it often enough meet them in its passage, according to the known saying,

Gutta cavat lapidem non vi, sed sæpe cadendo.

And though the aerial corpuscles be very minute, and the bodies exposed to them oftentimes large and seemingly solid; yet this needs not make you reject our supposition, because it is not upon the whole body at once, that, according to us, the aerial corpuscles endeavour to work, but upon the superficial particles, which may often be more minute than those corpuscles; as you will the more easily believe, if you first observe with a good microscope, how many extant particles may be met with on the surface of bodies, that to the naked eye seem very smooth, and even of those, that are polished by art with tripoli or puttee; and then consider, that one of these protuberances, being yet manifestly visible, may well be presumed to consist of a multitude of lesser particles, divers of which may very well be as minute as those aerial corpuscles, that successively hit against them, and endeavour to carry them along with themselves. And this may be illustrated by a familiar instance. For if you take a lump of loaf sugar, or even of a much solider and harder body, *sal gemmæ*, and cast it into common water, though this liquor is insipid, and the motions of its corpuscles but very languid; yet these corpuscles are capable to loosen and carry off the superficial particles of sugar or salt, that chance to lie in their way, and fresh corpuscles of water still succeeding to work upon the remaining particles of the exposed body, that stands in their way, the whole lump is, by and little, dissolved, and ceases to appear to the eye a thing distinct from the liquor.

SOME things, that have occurred to me, have made me suspect, that it is not impossible, but that some bodies may receive a disposition to volatility, and consequently to pass into the air by the action either of the sun-beams, in the form of sun-beams, or of some substance, that once issued out of the sun, and reached unto the air. For there may be certain bodies for the most part in the form of liquors, which though they pass off from some peculiarly disposed bodies, may during their stay or contact produce in them a great and strange aptness to be volatilized. In favour of which conjecture, I might here alledge both the effects, which the Paracelsians and Helmontians ascribe to the Alkahest, of volatilizing even fixed and ponderous bodies barely by being often abstracted from them, and some other things, which I shall now leave unmentioned, because you may find them in my notes about Volatility and Fixity.

BUT whatever become of this conjecture, it is consonant to experience, that, either upon the above recited accounts, or also some others, those parts of the atmosphere, which, in a stricter sense, may be called the air, are, at least, in some places, so intermixed with particles of differing kinds, that among that great number of various sorts of them, it is very likely that there should be some of an uncommon and unobserved nature. And I could countenance what has been said by the wasting of odorous bodies, and especially camphire, and by representing, that I have observed some solid bodies actually cold, when their superficial parts were newly taken off, to emit, though invisibly, such copious steams into the air, as to grow continually and manifestly lighter upon the balance, so as to suffer a notable decrement of weight in a minute of an hour. But the mention I make of such things in another paper, dissuades me from in-

sisting

sisting on them here, where it will be seasonable to resume the discourse, which the mention of the dissolving power, that may be guessed to be in the air, has for some pages interrupted, and to tell you, that those propounded, before I entered upon the digression, are the two main considerations *à priori* (as they speak) whereon I have grounded my surmise, which being proposed but as a suspicion, I presume it will not be expected, that the argument *à posteriori*, which I shall bring to countenance it, should be more than conjectures, much less, that they should be demonstrations. And therefore I shall venture to lay before you some few phænomena, which seem to be at least as probably referable to some latent quality in the air, as to any other cause I yet know. Upon which score such phænomena may be allowed to be pleaded in favour of our suspicion, until some other certain cause of them shall be satisfactorily assigned.

HAVING premised thus much to keep you from looking for stronger proofs than I think my task obliges me to give; the first phænomenon, I shall propose, shall be the appearing or growth of some salts in certain bodies, which we observed to afford them either not at all, or at least nothing near in such plenty, or so soon, unless they be exposed to the air. Of such a phænomenon as this, that is not so much as mentioned by vulgar philosophers, and very rarely, if at all, to be met with in the laboratories of chymists, you will not, I suppose, wonder, that I do not present you many examples, and some few I am able to name. For I remember, that suspecting a solid marchasite, hard as stone, to be fit to be made an instance for my purpose, I caused it to be broken, that the internal more shining parts might be exposed to the air; but, though this were done in a room, where a good fire was usually kept, so that the marchasite was not only sheltered from the rain, but kept in a dry air, yet after a while I discovered upon the glistering parts an efflorescence of a vitriolate nature.

AND afterwards meeting with a ponderous and dark coloured mineral, and which, at the first breaking, discovered to the eye no appearance of any salt, nor so much as any shining marchasitical particles, we found nevertheless, that a good quantity of these hard and heavy bodies, being kept exposed to the air, even in a room, that preserved them from the rain, though probably they had lain many ages entire in the hill, wherein they were found under ground; yet in not many months, by the operation of the air upon them, they were, in great part, crumbled to powder exceeding rich in copperas. Nay, I remember, that having for curiosity sake, laid up some of these stones in a room, where I constantly kept fire, and in the drawer of a cabinet, which I did not often take out to give them fresh air, some, if not most of them, were notwithstanding covered with a copious efflorescence, which by its conspicuous colour between blue and green, by its taste, and by its fitness to make in a trice an inky mixture with infusion of galls, sufficiently manifested itself to be vitriol; whose growth by the help of the contact of the air is the more considerable, because it is not a mere acid salt, but abounds in sulphureous and combustible parts, which I have divers times been able, by methods elsewhere mentioned actually to separate or obtain from common vitriol without the addition of any combustible body, and sometimes without any additament at all. It was also uncommon, that our blackish minerals required no longer time, nor no rain, to make them afford their vitriolate efflorescences: for I remember, I kept many of those marchasites, both glittering ones and others, of which they make and sell great quantities of vitriol at *Deptford*, without perceiving in them a change, that came any thing near to what I have recited. And I observed those, whose trade it is to make vitriol, to be often obliged to let their vitriol-stones, as they call them, lie half a year, or even eighteen months, or two years exposed, not only to the open air, but to the rain and sun, to be able to obtain from them their vitriolate parts.

THAT also the earth or ore of allum, being robbed of its salt, will in tract of time recover it by being exposed to the air, we are assured by the experienced *Agricola*, where, having delivered the way of making allum, he subjoins this advertisement: *Terra aluminosa, quæ in castellis diluta, postquam effluxit, supersuit egesta & coacervata quotidie, rursus magis & magis fit aluminosa, non aliter atque terra, ex qua halinitrum fuit confectum, suo succo plenior fit; quare denuo in castella conjicitur, & aquæ affusæ ea percolantur.*

I have likewise observed, as you also perchance have done, that some kind of lime in old walls and moist places has gained in length of time a copious efflorescence, very much of nitrous nature; as I was convinced by having obtained salt-petre from it by barely dissolving it in common water, and evaporating the filtrated solution: and, that in calcined vitriol, whose saline parts have been driven away by the violence of the fire, particles of fresh salt may be found, after it has lain a competent time in the air, I shall before long have occasion to inform you.

BUT in the mean time, (to deal ingenuously with you,) I shall confess to you, that though these and the like observations have satisfied learned men, without having been called in question, and consequently have, at least, probability enough to ground our suspicion upon; yet I, that am more concerned for the discovery of a truth than the reputation of a paradox, propose the argument drawn from the foregoing observations, but as a probationer. For it yet seems to me somewhat doubtful, whether the salts, that appear in the forementioned cases, are really produced by the operation of the air working as an agent, or also concurring as an ingredient; or whether these saline substances be not the production of some internal thing, that is analagous to a seminal principle, which makes in these bodies a kind of maturation of some parts, which being once ripened, and perhaps assisted by the moisture of the air, disclose themselves in the form of saline concretions; as in the feculent or tartareous parts of many wines, there will in tract of time be generated or produced store of corpuscles of a saline nature, that produce the acid taste we find in tartar, especially, that of rhenish wine. It may also be suspected, that the formerly mentioned salts found in marchasites, in nitrous and aluminous earths, &c. are made by the saline particles of the like nature, that among multitudes of other kinds swim in the air, and are attracted by the congenerous particles, that yet remain in the terrestrial bodies that are, as it were, the wombs of such minerals, (as I have elsewhere shewn, that the spirit of nitre will, with fixed nitre and some other alkalies, compose salt-petre;) or else, that these ærial salts, if I may so call them, assisted by the moisture of the air, do soften and open, and almost corrode or dissolve the more terrestrial substance of these wombs, and thereby solicit out and somewhat extricate the latent saline particles, and, by their union with them, compose those emerging bodies, that resemble vitriol, allum, &c.

BUT not only to suggest these scruples, as if I had a mind they should but trouble you, and keep you irresolute, I shall propound something towards the removal of them; namely, that a convenient quantity of nitrous earth, or that other of those substances, which you would examine, be kept in a close vessel to which the air has not access, for at least as long time as has been observed to be sufficient to impregnate the like substance, or rather a portion of the same parcel, that was chosen to be included: for if the body, that was kept close, have either gained no salt at all, or very much less in proportion to its bulk than that, which was kept exposed, we may thence estimate what is to be ascribed to the air in the production of nitre or other saline concretions. And, because I have observed none of these bodies, that would so soon, and so manifestly even to the eye, disclose a saline substance, as the blackish vitriol-ore, I lately told you I kept in a drawer of my cabinet; I judged, that a very fit sub-

ject, wherewith to try, what maturation, or time, when the air was secluded, would perform towards the deciding of our difficulty: and accordingly having taken some fragments of it, which we had carefully freed from the adhering vitriolate efflorescence, by whose plenty we are assured, that it was very well disposed to be wrought on by the air, we put of these fragments of differing sizes into two conveniently shaped glasses, which being hermetically sealed were ordered to be carried away, and kept in fixed places; by which means it was expected, that, even without opening the glasses, we should be able easily to see by the changed colour of the superficial parts, whether any vitriolate efflorescence were produced; but, through the negligence or mistake of those, to whom the care was recommended, the experiment was never brought to an issue; and though I afterwards got more of the mineral, and made a second trial of the same, I have not yet been informed of the event.

BUT, Sir, though, until the success of some trial be known, I dare not too confidently pronounce about the production or regeneration of salts in bodies, that have been robbed of them, and ascribe it wholly to the air; yet, when I consider the several and great effects of the air upon divers other bodies, I think it not rash to conjecture, in the mean time, that the operations of the air may have a considerable share in these phænomena, and so that there may be latent qualities in the air, in the sense I declared above, where I told you, that when I speak of these qualities, I look upon them *in concreto*, (as they phrase it,) together with the substances or corporeal effluvia they reside in: and of these ærial qualities, taken in this sense, I shall now proceed to mention some other instances.

THE difficulty we find of keeping flame and fire alive, though but for a little time, without air, makes me sometimes prone to suspect, that there may be dispersed through the rest of the atmosphere some odd substance, either of a solar, or astral, or some other exotic nature, on whose account the air is so necessary to the subsistence of flame; which necessity I have found to be greater, and less dependent upon the manifest attributes of the air, than naturalists seem to have observed. For I have found by trials purposely made, that a small flame of a lamp, though fed perhaps with a subtil thin oyl, would in a large capacious glass-receiver expire, for want of air, in a far less time than one would believe. And it will not much lessen the difficulty to alledge, that either the gross fuliginous smoak did in a close vessel stifle the flame, or, that the pressure of the air is requisite to impel up the aliment into the wick: for, to obviate these objections, I have in a larger receiver employed a very small wick with such rectified spirit of wine, as would in the free air burn totally away; and yet, when a very small lamp, furnished (as I was saying) with a very slender wick, was made to burn, and, filled with this liquor, was put lighted into a large receiver, that little flame, though it emitted no visible smoak at all, would usually expire within about one minute of an hour, and, not seldom, in a less time; and this, though the wick was not so much as singed by the flame: nor indeed is a wick necessary for the experiment, since highly rectified spirit of wine will in the free air flame away well without it. And indeed it seems to deserve our wonder, what that should be in the air, which enabling it to keep flame alive, does yet, by being consumed or depraved, so suddenly render the air unfit to make flame subsist. And it seems by the sudden wasting or spoiling of this fine subject, whatever it be, that the bulk of it is but very small in proportion to the air it impregnates with its virtue. For after the extinction of the flame, the air in the receiver was not visibly altered, and, for aught I could perceive by the ways of judging I had then at hand, the air retained either all, or at least far the greatest part of its elasticity, which I take to be its most genuine and distinguishing property.

AND this undestroyed springiness of the air seems to make the necessity of fresh air to the life of hot animals, (few of which, as far as I can guess after many trials, would be able to live two minutes of an hour, if they were totally and all at once deprived of air,) suggest a great suspicion of some vital substance, if I may so call it, diffused through the air, whether it be a volatile nitre, or (rather) some yet anonymous substance, sydereal or subterranean, but not improbably of kin to that, which I lately noted to be so necessary to the maintenance of other flames.

I know not, whether you will think it pertinent to our present discourse, that I observe to you, that by keeping putrifying bodies in glasses, which by *Hermes* his seal were secured from the contact of the external air, I have not been able to produce any insect, or other living creature, though sometimes I have kept animal substances, and even blood so included, for many months, and one or two of them for a longer time; and though all these substances had a manifest change made in their consistence whilst they remained sealed up.

ON this occasion I shall add an odd observation, that I met with in a little dissertation *de admirandis Hungariæ aquis*, written by an anonymous, but ingenious nobleman of that country, where, speaking of the native salt, that abounds in their regions, he says, that in the chief mine (by them called *Desiensis*) of *Transylvania*, there was, a few years before he writ, a great oak, like a huge beam, dug out of the middle of the salt; but, though it was so hard, that it would not easily be wrought upon by iron tools, yet being exposed to the air out of the mine, it became so rotten, as he expresses it, that in four days it was easy to be broken, and crumbled between one's fingers. And of that corruptive or dissolutive power of air near those mines, the same author mentions other instances.

HAVING found an antimonial preparation to procure vomits, in a case where I did not at all expect it, I was afterwards curious to enquire of some physicians and chymists, that were of my acquaintance, whether they had not taken notice, that Antimonium Diaphoreticum, which, as its name imports, is wont to work by sweat or transpiration, would not become vomitive, if it were not kept from the air? To which one physician, that was a learned man, assured me, it would, as he had found by particular trials: and the like answer has been given me by more than one. And I find, that the experienced *Zwelfer* himself does somewhere give a caution against letting the air have access to these antimonial medicines, lest it should render them, as he says it will, in tract of time, not only emetic, but disposed to produce heart-burnings, (as they call them,) faintings, and other bad symptoms. And I learned by enquiry, from a very ingenious doctor of physic, that, having carefully prepared Antimonium Diaphoreticum, he gave many doses whilst it was fresh and kept stopped in a glass, (without finding, that in any patient it procured so much as one vomit,) but having kept a parcel of the self-same remedy for a pretty while in a glass only covered loosely with a paper, the medicine, vitiated by the air, proved emetic (strongly enough) to those, who neither by constitution, or foulness of stomach, or on any other discernible account, were more than others, that had taken it disposed to vomit. By which observations, and from what I formerly told you of the salt-petre obtainable from quicklime, a man partial to the air would be made forward to tell you, that this looks, as if either there were in the air a substance disposed to be assimilated by all kinds of bodies, or that the air is so vast and rich a rendezvous of innumerable seminal corpuscles, and other analogous particles, that almost any body long exposed to it may there meet with particles of kin to it, and fit to repair its wrongs and losses, and restore it to its natural condition. But without taking any further notice of this odd surmise, I will

ject, wherewith to try, what maturation, or time, when the air was secluded, would perform towards the deciding of our difficulty: and accordingly having taken some fragments of it, which we had carefully freed from the adhering vitriolate efflorescence, by whose plenty we are assured, that it was very well disposed to be wrought on by the air, we put of these fragments of differing sizes into two conveniently shaped glasses, which being hermetically sealed were ordered to be carried away, and kept in fixed places; by which means it was expected, that, even without opening the glasses, we should be able easily to see by the changed colour of the superficial parts, whether any vitriolate efflorescence were produced; but, through the negligence or mistake of those, to whom the care was recommended, the experiment was never brought to an issue; and though I afterwards got more of the mineral, and made a second trial of the same, I have not yet been informed of the event.

BUT, Sir, though, until the success of some trial be known, I dare not too confidently pronounce about the production or regeneration of salts in bodies, that have been robbed of them, and ascribe it wholly to the air; yet, when I consider the several and great effects of the air upon divers other bodies, I think it not rash to conjecture, in the mean time, that the operations of the air may have a considerable share in these phænomena, and so that there may be latent qualities in the air, in the sense I declared above, where I told you, that when I speak of these qualities, I look upon them *in concreto*, (as they phrase it,) together with the substances or corporeal effluvia they reside in: and of these ærial qualities, taken in this sense, I shall now proceed to mention some other instances.

THE difficulty we find of keeping flame and fire alive, though but for a little time, without air, makes me sometimes prone to suspect, that there may be dispersed through the rest of the atmosphere some odd substance, either of a solar, or astral, or some other exotic nature, on whose account the air is so necessary to the subsistence of flame; which necessity I have found to be greater, and less dependent upon the manifest attributes of the air, than naturalists seem to have observed. For I have found by trials purposely made, that a small flame of a lamp, though fed perhaps with a subtil thin oyl, would in a large capacious glass-receiver expire, for want of air, in a far less time than one would believe. And it will not much lessen the difficulty to alledge, that either the gross fuliginous smoak did in a close vessel stifle the flame, or, that the pressure of the air is requisite to impel up the aliment into the wick: for, to obviate these objections, I have in a larger receiver employed a very small wick with such rectified spirit of wine, as would in the free air burn totally away; and yet, when a very small lamp, furnished (as I was saying) with a very slender wick, was made to burn, and, filled with this liquor, was put lighted into a large receiver, that little flame, though it emitted no visible smoak at all, would usually expire within about one minute of an hour, and, not seldom, in a less time; and this, though the wick was not so much as singed by the flame: nor indeed is a wick necessary for the experiment, since highly rectified spirit of wine will in the free air flame away well without it. And indeed it seems to deserve our wonder, what that should be in the air, which enabling it to keep flame alive, does yet, by being consumed or depraved, so suddenly render the air unfit to make flame subsist. And it seems by the sudden wasting or spoiling of this fine subject, whatever it be, that the bulk of it is but very small in proportion to the air it impregnates with its virtue. For after the extinction of the flame, the air in the receiver was not visibly altered, and, for aught I could perceive by the ways of judging I had then at hand, the air retained either all, or at least far the greatest part of its elasticity, which I take to be its most genuine and distinguishing property.

AND this undestroyed springiness of the air seems to make the necessity of fresh air to the life of hot animals, (few of which, as far as I can guess after many trials, would be able to live two minutes of an hour, if they were totally and all at once deprived of air,) suggest a great suspicion of some vital substance, if I may so call it, diffused through the air, whether it be a volatile nitre, or (rather) some yet anonymous substance, sydereal or subterranean, but not improbably of kin to that, which I lately noted to be so necessary to the maintenance of other flames.

I know not, whether you will think it pertinent to our present discourse, that I observe to you, that by keeping putrifying bodies in glasses, which by *Hermes* his seal were secured from the contact of the external air, I have not been able to produce any insect, or other living creature, though sometimes I have kept animal substances, and even blood so included, for many months, and one or two of them for a longer time; and though all these substances had a manifest change made in their consistence whilst they remained sealed up.

ON this occasion I shall add an odd observation, that I met with in a little dissertation *de admirandis Hungariæ aquis*, written by an anonymous, but ingenious nobleman of that country, where, speaking of the native salt, that abounds in their regions, he says, that in the chief mine (by them called *Defiensis*) of *Transylvania*, there was, a few years before he writ, a great oak, like a huge beam, dug out of the middle of the salt; but, though it was so hard, that it would not easily be wrought upon by iron tools, yet being exposed to the air out of the mine, it became so rotten, as he expresses it, that in four days it was easy to be broken, and crumbled between one's fingers. And of that corruptive or dissolutive power of air near those mines, the same author mentions other instances.

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proceed to mention two or three other phænomena of nature, that seem to favour the suspicion, that there may be secret qualities in the air, in reference to some bodies.

THE ingenious Monsieur de *Rockeford*, in the handsome account he gives of the apple, or fruit of the tree *junipa*, whose juice is employed by the Indians to black their skins, that they may look the more terrible to their enemies, observes, that, though the stain, or, as he speaks, the tincture of this fruit cannot be washed out with soap, yet, within nine or ten days, it will vanish of itself; which would make one suspect, that there may be in the air some secret powerful substance, that makes it a menstruum of more efficacy than soap itself to obliterate stains. I remember, I have seen this fruit, but not whilst it was succulent enough to have a trial made with it; which I was therefore troubled at, because the author does not clearly express, whether this disappearing of the tincture happens indifferently to the bodies it chances to stain, or only is observed on the skins of men. For, as in the former case, it will afford an instance pertinent to our present purpose; so in the latter I should suspect, that the vanishing of the tincture may be due, not so much to the operation of the air upon it, as to the sweat and exhalations of a human body, which abounding with volatile salt, may either destroy or carry off with them, the coloured particles they meet with in their passages.

I have sometimes, not altogether without wonder, observed the excellency of the better sort of *Damascio-steel*, (for I speak not of all that goes under that name,) in comparison of ordinary steel. And, besides what I have elsewhere taken notice of concerning it, there is one phænomenon, which though I am not sure it belongs to the latent qualities of the air, yet, because it may well do so, and I am unwilling it should be lost, I will here tell you, that having enquired of an eminent and experienced artificer, (whom I long since employed in some difficult experiments,) about the properties of *Damascio-steel*, this honest and sober man averred to me, that when he made instruments of it, and gave them the true temper, which is somewhat differing from that of other steel, he generally observed, that though, when rasors or other instruments made of it were newly forged, they would be sometimes no whit better, and sometimes less good, than those made of other steel; yet when they had been kept a year or two or three in the air, though nothing else were done to improve them, they would be found much to surpass other instruments of the same kind, and what themselves were before; insomuch, that some of them have been laid aside at first, as no way answering the great expectation conceived of them, which after two or three years were found to surpass it; of which also I am now making a trial. I have several times made a substance, that consists chiefly of a metalline body, and is of a texture close enough to lie for many hours undissolved in a corrosive menstruum; and yet this substance, that was fixed enough to endure the being melted by the fire without losing its colour, would, when I had purposely exposed it to the air, be discoloured in a very short time, and have its superficial parts turned almost black.

AND this brings into my mind that very pretty observation, that has been newly made in *Italy* by an ingenious man, who took notice, that, if after the opening of a vein, the blood be kept till it be concreted, and have excluded the superficial serum, though the lower part be usually of a dark and blackish colour, in comparison of the superficial parts, and therefore be counted far more feculent; yet, if the lump, or clot of blood be broken, and the internal, and dark coloured parts of the blood be exposed to the air, it will after a time (for it is not said how long) be wrought on by the contact of the air, that the superficial part of the blood will appear as florid, as the lately mentioned upper part (supposed to be, as it were, the flower of the blood,) did seem before. And this observation I found to hold in the blood of some beasts, whereon

whereon I tried it, in which I found it to succeed in much fewer minutes, than the Italian virtuoso's experiment on human blood would make me expect.

ON the other side I have often prepared a substance, whose effect appears quite contrary to this. For, though this factitious concrete, whilst kept to the fire, or very carefully preserved from the air, be of a red colour, almost like the common opacous bloodstone of the shops; yet, if I broke it, and left the lumps, or fragments of it, a little while in the air, it would in a short time (sometimes perhaps, not amounting to a quarter of an hour) it would, I say, have its superficial part turned of a dark colour, very little, and sometimes scarce at all, short of blackness.

A very inquisitive person of my acquaintance, having occasion to make, by distillation, a medicine of his own devising, chanced to observe this odd property in it, that, at that time of the year, if it were kept stopped, it would be coagulated almost like oil of anniseeds in cold weather; yet, if the stopple were taken out, and so access were for a while given to the air, it would turn to a liquor, and the vessel being again stopped, it would, though more slowly, recoagulate. The hints, that I guessed, might be given by such a phænomenon, making me desirous to know something of it more than barely by relation, I expressed rather a curiosity than diffidence about it; and the maker of it telling me, he thought, he had in a small vial about a spoonful of this medicine left in a neighbouring chamber, I desired his leave to consider it myself, which request being presently complied with, I found it, when he brought it into the room which I stayed in, not liquid but consistent, though of but a slight and soft texture. And having taken out the cork, and set the vial in a window, which (if I well remember) was open, though the season, which was winter, was cold, yet in a little time, that I stayed talking with the chemist, I found, that the so lately coagulated substance was almost all become fluid. And another time, when the season was less cold, having occasion to be where the vial was kept well stopped, and casting my eyes on it, I perceived the included substance to be coagulated much like oil of anniseeds. And this substance having, as the maker assured me, nothing at all of mineral in it, nor any chemical salt, it consisting only of two simple bodies, the one of a vegetable, and the other of an animal substance, distilled together, I scarce doubt but you will think with me, that these contrary operations of the air, which seems to have a power in some circumstances to coagulate such a body, and yet to dissolve and make it fluid, when fresh and fresh parts are allowed access to it, may deserve to be further reflected on, in reference (among other things) to the opportune operations, the inspired air may have on the consistence and motion of the circulating blood, and to the discharge of the fuliginous recrements to be separated from the blood in its passage through the lungs.

THERE are two other phænomena, that seemed favourable to our suspicion, that there are anonymous substances and qualities in the air, which ought not to be altogether prætermitted on this occasion; though, because to speak fully of them would require far more time than I can now spare, I shall speak of them but succinctly.

THE latter of these two phænomena is the growth or appearing production of metals or minerals dug out of the earth, and exposed to the air. And this, though it be the last of the two, I mention first, because it seems expedient, lest it should prove too long an interruption to our discourse, to postpone the observations, and annex them to the end of this paper; only intimating to you now, that the caution I formerly interposed about the regeneration of salts in nitrous, and other earths, may, for greater security, be applied, *mutatis mutandis*, to that production of metalline and mineral bodies we are speaking of.

THE other of the two phænomena, I lately promised to mention, is afforded me by those various and odd diseases, that at some times, and in some places, happen to invade, and destroy numbers of beasts, sometimes of one particular kind, and sometimes of another. Of this we have many instances in the books of approved authors, both physicians and others; and I have myself observed some notable examples of it. But yet I should not mention it as a ground of suspicion, that there may be, in some times and places, unknown effluvia and powers in the air, but, that I distinguish these from those diseases of animals, that proceed, as the rot in sheep often does, from the exorbitancy of the seasons, the immoderateness of cold, heat, or any other manifest quality in the air. And you will easily perceive, that some of these examples probably argue, that the subterranean parts do sometimes (especially after earthquakes, or unusual cleavings of the ground) send up into the air peculiar kinds of venomous exhalations, that produce new and mortal diseases in animals of such a species, and not in those of another, and in this or that particular place, and not elsewhere: of which we have an eminent instance in that odd plague or murrain of the year 1514, which, *Fernelius* tells us, invaded none but cats. And even in animals of the same species, sometimes one sort have been incomparably more obnoxious to the plague than another; as *Dionysius Halicarnassæus* mentions a plague, that attacked none but maids; whereas, the pestilence, that raged in the time of *Gentilis* a famed physician, killed few women, and scarce any but lusty men. And so *Boterus* mentions a great plague, that assaulted almost only the younger sort of persons, few past thirty years of age being attacked by it: which last observation has been also made by several later physicians. To which may be added, what learned men of that faculty have noted at several times concerning plagues, that particularly invaded those of this or that nation, though confusedly mingled with other people; as *Cardan* speaks of a plague at *Basil*, with which only the Switzers, and not the Italians, French, or Germans, were infected. And *Johannes Utenhovius* takes notice of a cruel plague at *Copenhagen*, which, though it raged among the Danes, spared both the English, Dutch, and Germans, though they freely entered infected houses, and were not careful to shun the sick. In reciting of which instances I would not be understood, as if I imputed these effects merely to noxious subterranean fumes; for I am far from denying, that the peculiar constitutions of men's bodies are likely to have a great interest in them: but yet it seems less probable, that the pestilent venom diffused through the air should owe its enormous and fatal efficacy to the excess of the manifest qualities of the air, than to the peculiar nature of the pestilential poison sent up into the air from under-ground, which when it is by dilution or dissipation enervated, or by its progress past beyond the air we breathe in, or rendered ineffectual by subterranean, or other corpuscles, of a contrary quality, the plague, which it, as a con-cause, produced, either quite ceases, or degenerates into somewhat else. But I have not time to countenance this conjecture, much less to consider, whether some of those diseases, that are wont to be called new, which either did begin to appear, or at least to be rife, within these two or three centuries, as the *Sudor Anglicus* in the fifteenth century, the scurvy, and the *Morbus Hungaricus*, the *Lues Moraviæ*, *Novus Morbus Luneburgensis*, and some others, in the last century of all, may be in part caused by the exotic steams this discourse treats of. But this consideration I willingly resign to physicians.

AND now, if the two forementioned suspicions, the one about subterranean, the other about sidereal, effluvia, shall prove to be well grounded, they may lead us to other suspicions and further thoughts about things of no mean consequence; three of which I shall venture to make mention of in this place.

I. FOR we may hence be awakened to consider, whether divers changes of temperature and constitution in the air, not only as to manifest qualities, but as to the more latent ones, may not sometimes in part, if not chiefly, be derived from the paucity or plenty, and peculiar nature of one or both of these sorts of effluvia. And in particular, we find in the most approved writers such strange phænomena to have several times happened in great plagues and contagious diseases, fomented and communicated, nay (as many eminent physicians believed) begun, by some latent pestiferous, or other malignant, diathesis or constitution of the air, as have obliged many of the learnedest of them to have recourse to the immediate operation of the angels, or of the power and wrath of God himself, or at least to some unaccountable influence of the stars; none of the solutions of which difficulties seem preferable to what may be gathered from our conjecture; since of physical agents, of which we know nothing so much, as that they are to us invisible and probably of a heteroclite nature, it need be no great wonder, that the operation should also be abstruse, and the effects uncommon. And on this occasion it may be considered, that there are clearer inducements to persuade us, that another quality of the atmosphere, its gravity, may be altered by unseen effluvia, ascending from the subterraneous regions of our globe; and we have often perceived by the mercurial baroscope the weight of the air to be notably encreased, when we could not perceive in the air, nor surface of earth, any cause, to which we could ascribe so notable a change. And this gives me a rise to add, that I have sometimes allowed myself to doubt, whether even the sun itself may not now and then alter the gravity of the atmosphere otherwise than by its beams of heat. And I remember, I desired some virtuosi of my acquaintance to assist me in the enquiry, whether any of the spots, that appear about the sun, may not, upon their sudden dissolution, have some of their dissolved and dispersed matter thrown off, as far as to our atmosphere, and, that copiously enough to produce some sensibly alterations in it, at least as to gravity.

II. ANOTHER thing, that our two forementioned suspicions, if allowed of, will suggest, is, that it may not seem altogether improbable, that some bodies, we are conversant with, may have a peculiar disposition and fitness to be wrought on by, or to be associated with, some of those exotic effluvia, that are emitted by unknown bodies lodged under ground, or that proceed from this or that planet. For what we call sympathies and antipathies depending indeed on the peculiar textures and other modifications of the bodies, between whom these friendships and hostilities are said to be exercised, I see not, why it should be impossible, that there be a cognation betwixt a body of a congruous or convenient texture, (especially as to the shape and size of its pores,) and the effluvia of any other body, whether subterranean or sidereal. We see, that convex burning-glasses, by virtue of their figure and the disposition of their pores, are fitted to be pervaded by the beams of light and to refract them, and thereby to kindle combustible matter; and the same beams of the sun will impart a lucidness to the Bolonian stone. And as for subterranean bodies, I elsewhere * mention two minerals, which being prepared, (as I there intimate,) the steams of the one, ascending without adventitious heat, and wandering through the air, will not sensibly work on other bodies; but if they meet with that, which we prepared, they will immediately have an operation on it, whose effect will be both manifest and lasting.

III. I now pass on to the other thing, that the two formerly mentioned suspicions may suggest, which is, that if they be granted to be well founded, we may be allowed to consider, whether among the bodies we are acquainted with here below, there may not be found some, that may be receptacles, if not also attractives, of the sidereal, and other exotic effluvia, that rove up and down in our air.

* See the Experiment in the discourse of the Determinate Nature of Effluvia.

SOME of the mysterious writers about the philosophers-stone speak great things of the excellency of what they call their philosophical magnet, which, they seem to say, attracts and (in their phrase) corporifies the universal spirit, or (as some speak) the spirit of the world. But these things being abstrusities, which the writers of them professed to be written for, and to be understood only by the sons of art; I, who freely acknowledge I cannot clearly apprehend them, shall leave them in their own worth as I found them, and only, for brevity sake, make use of the received word of a magnet, which I may do in my own sense, without avowing the received doctrine of attraction. For by such a magnet as I here propose to speak of, I mean not a body, that can properly attract our foreign effluvia; but such an one, as is fitted to detain and join with them, when by virtue of the various motions, that belong to the air as a fluid, they happened to accost the magnet. Which may be illustrated by the known way of making oil of tartar (as the chemists call it) *per deliquium*. For, though the spagyricists and others suppose, that the fiery salts draw to it the aqueous vapours, yet indeed it does but arrest, and embody with such of those, that wander through the air, as chance in their passage to accost it.

AND, without receding from the Corpuscularian principles, we may allow some of the bodies, we speak of, a greater resemblance to magnets, than what I have been mentioning. For not only such a magnet may upon the bare account of adhesion by juxtaposition, or contact, detain the effluvia, that would glide along it, but these may be the more firmly arrested by a kind of precipitating faculty, that the magnet may have in reference to such effluvia; which, if I had time, I could illustrate by some instances; nay, I dare not deny it to be possible, but, that in some circumstances of time, or place, one of our magnets may, as it were, fetch in such steams, as would indeed pass near it, but would not otherwise come to touch it. On which occasion I remember, I have in certain cases been able to make some bodies, not all of them electrical, attract (as they speak) without being excited by rubbing, &c. far less light bodies, than the effluvia we are speaking of.

BUT this it may suffice to have glanced at, it not being here my purpose to meddle with the mystical theories of the chemists; but rather to intimate, that, without adopting, or rejecting them, one may discourse like a naturalist about magnets of celestial, and other emanations, that appear not to have been considered, not to say thought of, either by the scholastick, or even the mechanical philosophers.

Of CELESTIAL and AERIAL MAGNETS.

IF now, upon what I have granted in the close of the past discourse, you should urge the question further, and press me to declare, whether, as I think it no impossible thing, that nature should make, so I think it no unpracticable or hopeless thing, that men should find, or art should prepare, useful magnets of the exotic effluvia of the lower region of the earth, or the upper of the world: it would much distress me to give any other answer, than that I think it extremely difficult, and not absolutely impossible; and therefore I would not discourage any curious or industrious man from attempting to satisfy himself by experiments, because even a seemingly slight discovery in a thing of this nature may be of no small use in the investigation of the nature of the air, especially in some particular places, and of the correspondency, which, by the intervention of the air, the superficial part of the terrestrial globe may

have both with the subterranean regions of the earth, and the celestial ones of the universe. Some of the things I have tried or seen relating to this discovery, I must, for certain reasons, leave here unmentioned; and only advertise you, that several bodies, which experience has assured us do imbibe or retain something from the air, as some calcined minerals, some marchasites, some salts, as well factitious as natural, &c. may be fit to be often exposed to it, and then weighed again, and further diligently examined, whether that, which makes the increment of weight, be a mere imbibed moisture, or also somewhat else; and likewise, whether it be separable from the body or not, or however have endowed it with any considerably quality; and if you chance to meet with a good magnet, you may then vary experiments with it, by exposing it long to the air in regions differing much in climate, or soil, or both, by exposing it by day only, or by night, at several seasons of the year, in several temperatures of the air, at several considerable aspects of the stars and planets, by making it more or less frequently part with what it has gained from the air; and in short, by having regard to variety of circumstances, which your curiosity and sagacity may suggest. For, by thus diversifying the experiment many ways, you may perhaps, by one or other of them, make some unexpected and yet important discovery of what effluvia the air, in particular places and times, abounds with, or wants, and perchance too, of some correspondency between the terrestrial and ethereal globes of the world.

I shall neither be surprized, nor quarrel with you, if you tell me, that these are extravagant thoughts; but if I had been fortunate in preserving all, that trial, observation, or other productions of some curiosity, I once had for such enquiries, procured me, you would not, perhaps, think me so very extravagant. But though I must not here make any further mention of them, and shall only take notice of one body, namely vitriol, whether crude, or unripe, and (as chemists speak) embrionated, or spagyrically prepared; yet some phænomena of these vitriolate substances may for the present, I hope, somewhat moderate your censure for my putting you upon observations, that I fear you yourself will judge unpromising, and less favourable persons than you, would think phantastical. And to let you see by a pregnant instance, that the air may not only have a notable operation upon vitriol, and that, after a strong fire could work no farther on it, but that this operation was considerably diversified by circumstances; I shall begin what I have to alledge, with what the experienced *Zwelfer* occasionally observed, and relates to usher in a caution about a chemical preparation of vitriol: For, having informed his reader, that the colcothar, that is made by a strong distillation, is not corrosive, he denies, that (to use his own words) *statim à distillatione sal ex eodem, affusâ aquâ, elici queat; sed tum prius, (continues he,) ubi aliquandiu æri expositum fuerit; tunc enim sal præbet quandoque candidum, quandoque purpureum, aspectu pulcherrimum, quod aliquando in copia acquisivi, & penes me asservo, quandoque etiam nitrosum.*

WHICH testimony of this candid spagyrist has much the more weight with me, because I find, what he affirms of the saltiness of newly and strongly calcined vitriol to be very agreeable to some of my experiments about colcothar of blue (venereal) vitriol; which salt or mineral (I mean vitriol) is so odd a concrete, that I have thought fit more than once to recommend the making experiments about it to several curious persons, that had better opportunity to continue them than I, whose residence was not so fixed. And I remember, that one of these, a person industrious and versed in chemical operations, gave me this account, that not only he had differing kinds of salts from colcothar exposed to the air for many months, and robbed at convenient times of what it had acquired, but that in tract of time he found it so altered, that he obtained from it a pretty quantity of true running mercury.

AND now, to resume and conclude what I was saying about colcothar, there are two or three things I would propose to be observed by you, or any virtuoso, that would assist me in these trials about this odd *calcinatum*, (for to call it *terra damnata* were to injure it.)

THE first is, to take notice of some circumstances, that most observers would overlook; such as (besides the nature of the soil) the temperature of the air, the month of the year, and the winds, the weight of the atmosphere, the spots of the sun, if any be, the moon's age, and her place in the Zodiac, and the principal aspects of the planets, and the other chief stars. For, though it be a boldness to affirm, that any, or perhaps all of these together, will have any interest in the production of the salt or other substance, to be made or disclosed in the colcothar; yet in things new and exorbitant, it may be sometimes rash and peremptory to deny, even such things as cannot, without rashness, be positively asserted; and in our case, the small trouble of taking notice of circumstances will be richly paid by the least discovery made in things so abstruse and considerable. And as we cannot yet knowingly pronounce, so much as negatively, whether the libration of the moon, and the motion of the sun (and perhaps of some of the other planets) about their own centers, and consequently their obverting several parts of their bodies to us, may have an operation upon our atmosphere; so, for aught I know, there may be in those vast internal parts of the earth, whose thin crust only has been here and there dug into by men, considerable masses of matter, that may have periodical revolutions, or accensions, or eustations, or fermentations, or, in short, some other notable commotions, whose effluvia and effects may have operations, yet unobserved, on the atmosphere, and on some particular bodies exposed to it; though these periods may be perhaps either altogether irregular, or have some kind of regularity differing from what one would expect. As we see, that the sea has those grand intumescencies, we call spring tides, not every day, nor at any constant day of the month or week, but about the full and new moon; and these spring tides are most notably heightened, not every month, but twice a year, at or about the vernal and autumnal equinoxes; which observations have not been near so ancient and known, as the daily ebbing and flowing of the sea. The Etesians of the ancients I shall not now insist on, nor the observations, that I think I elsewhere mentioned of the elder inhabitants of the *Caribbee islands*, who, when the Europeans first resorted thither, were wont to have hurricanes but once in seven years; afterwards they were molested with them but once in three years; and of late they are troubled with them almost every year. And a physician, that lived there, told me, that he had scarce ever observed them to come but within the compass of two months joining to one another. In which instances, and divers others, that may be noted of what changes happened to great quantities of matter, nature seems to affect something of periodical, but not in a way, that appears too regular.

ONE may add on this occasion, that memorable passage related by the learned *Varenius** of those hot springs in *Germany*, that he calls *Thermæ Piperinæ*, of which he affirms in more than one place, that they have this peculiarity, that they annually begin and cease to flow at certain times; the former about the third of *May*, and the latter near the middle of *September*, at which time they are wont to rest till the following spring. But though, for aught I know, our geographer's observation will hold in hot spring; yet it must not be extended to all, at least, if we admit that, which is related by the accurate *Johannes de Laet*, (I suppose out of *Ximenes*, or the famous conqueror of *Mexico*, *Cortes*,) who tells us, that in the Mexican province, *Xilotepec fons celebratur qui quatuor continuis annis scaturit, deinde quatuor sequentibus deficit, & rur-*

Amer. lib. V. cap. 7.

* *Varenius, lib. 1. Geograph. Un. vers. Thermæ omnes sive quas novimus sine cessatione fluunt, exceptis Piperinis Germaniæ, &c.*

sus ad priorem modum erumpit, & quod mirabile, pluviis diebus, parcius, quum sudum est tempus & aridum, copiosius, exuberat.

BUT this is not a place to enlarge upon the grounds of my suspecting, there may be some periodical motions and commotions within the terrestrial globe; what has been mentioned being only to invite you to take notice of circumstances in your observations of colcothar, some of which may, with the more shew of probability, be kept exposed for a long time, because that bars of windows, and other erected irons, I have found to acquire, in tract of time, from the effluvia of the earth, a settled magnetism.

THE other main thing I would recommend, is, that notice be taken not only of the kind of vitriol, the colcothar is made of; (for I generally used blue Dantzick vitriol) as martial vitriol, Hungarian vitriol, Roman vitriol, &c. to which I have, for curiosity, added vitriol made by ourselves of the solution of the more saline parts of marshaltes in water, without the usual additament of iron, or copper; but also, to what degree the calcination is made, and how far the calcined matter is freed from the salt by water. For these circumstances, at least in some places, may be of moment, and perhaps may afford us good hints of the constitution of the atmosphere in particular parts, as well as of the best preparation of colcothar for detaining the exotic effluvia. And I would the rather have experiments tried again in other places with colcothar not calcined to the utmost, nor yet so exquisitelyedulcorated, but that some saline particles should be left in it for future encrease; because I have more than once purposely tried in vain, that the *Caput Mortuum* of blue vitriol, whereof the oil and other parts had been driven off with a violent and lasting fire, would not, when fresh, impart any saltiness to the water; nor do I think, that out of some ounces purposelyedulcorated I obtained one grain of salt. And this saltless colcothar being exposed, some by me, and some by a friend, that had conveniency in another place not far off, to the air, some for many weeks and some for divers months, we did not find it to have manifestly encreased in weight, or to have acquired any sensible saltiness, which, supposing the vitriol to have nothing extraordinary, gave me the stronger suspicion of some peculiarity in the air of that part of *London*, where the trials had been made, at least, during those times, wherein we made them; because not only former experience, made here in *England*, had assured me, that some colcothars will gain no despicable accession of weight by being exposed to the air; but accidentally complaining of my lately mentioned disappointment to an ingenious traveller, that had, in divers countries, been curious to examine their vitriols, he assured me, that, though he usually dulcified his colcothar very well, yet within four or five weeks he found it considerably impregnated by the air it was exposed to.

IT remains, that I add one intimation more about vitriol, which is, that I have found it to have so great a correspondency with the air, that it would not be amiss to try, not only colcothar of differing vitriols (whether barely made the common way, or without any metalline addition to the vitriol stones or ore,) but other preparations of vitriol too, such as exposing vitriol, only calcined to whiteness by the sun-beams, or further to an higher colour by a gentle heat, or thoroughly calcined, and then impregnated with a little of its own oil. For such vitriolate substances as these the air may work upon, nay even liquid preparations of vitriol may be peculiarly affected by the air, and thereby perhaps be useful to discover the present constitution, or foretel some approaching changes of it. Of the use of which conjecture, namely the peculiar action of the air on some vitriolate liquors, I remember I shewed some virtuosi a new instance in an experiment, whereof this was the sum:

[I elsewhere mention a composition, that I devised, to make with sublimate, copper, and spirit of salt, a liquor of a green exceeding lovely. But in the description of it I

mentioned not (having no need to do it there) a circumstance as odd, as the liquor itself was grateful. For the air has so much interest in the production of this green, that when you have made the solution of the copper and mercury with the spirit of salt, that solution will not be green, nor so much as greenish, as long as you keep it stopped in the bolt-head, or such like glass, wherein it is made. But if you pour it out into a vial, which, by not being stopped, leaves it exposed to the air, it will after a while sooner or later attain that delightful green, that so much endears it to the beholder's eye. This appeared so odd an experiment to the virtuosi, to whom I first related it, that those, that could not guess by what means I attained it, could scarce believe it. But that troubled not me, who, to satisfy myself not only of the truth of the experiment, but that it was not so contingent as many others, repeated it several times, and found the solution, till the air made it flourish, to be of a muddy reddish colour, quite differing from green. So that I remember, that having once kept some of the liquor in the same glass egg, wherein the solution had been made, it looked like very dirty water, whilst the other part of the same solution, having been exposed to the air, emulated the colour of an emerald. In which change it is remarkable, that to clarify this liquor and give it a transparent greenness, I perceived not, that any precipitation of foul matter was made, to which the alteration could be ascribed; and yet to make it the more probable, that this change proceeded not from a subsidence made of some opacating matter effected by some days rest, I kept some of the solution sealed up in a fine vial several months, without finding it at the end of that time other than a dark or muddy liquor, which in short time it ceased to be, when, the hermetic seal being broken off, the air was permitted to work upon it. And this I further observed in our various experiments on this liquor, that, according to the quality of the matter and other circumstances, the greenness was not attained to but at certain periods of time, now and then disclosing itself within two or three days, and sometimes not before nine or ten.]

WITH how little confidence of success trials, that have the aims of these I have been speaking of, are to be attempted, not only consideration but experience have made me sensible. But yet I would not discourage men's curiosity from venturing even upon slight probabilities, where the nobleness of the subjects and scope may make even small attainments very desirable. And till trial have been made on occasions of great moment, it is not easy to be satisfied, that men have not been wanting to themselves; which I shall only illustrate by proposing what, I presume, will not need, that I should make an application of it. Those adventurous navigators, that have made voyages for discovery in unknown seas, when they first discerned something obscure near the horizon, at a great distance off, have often doubted, whether what they had so imperfect a sight of, were a cloud, or an island, or a mountain: but though sometimes it were more likely to be the former, as that, which more frequently occurred, than the latter; yet they judged it advisable to steer towards it, till they had a clearer prospect of it: for if it were a deluding meteor, they would not however sustain so great a loss in that of a little labour, as, in case it were a country, they would in the loss of what might prove a rich discovery: and if they desisted too soon from their curiosity, they could not rationally satisfy themselves, whether they slighted a cloud, or neglected a country.

Some additional EXPERIMENTS

RELATING TO THE

SUSPICIONS about the HIDDEN QUALITIES of the AIR.

THE essay about Suspicions of some Hidden Qualities of the Air having been detained somewhat long at the press, that it might come abroad accompanied with the other tracts designed to attend it, whilst I was rumaging among several papers to look for some other things, I met now and then with an experiment or observation, that seemed to relate to some of the things delivered in that tract; and though they be in themselves of no great moment, I am content to annex them to the rest, because, as in that company they may signify somewhat, so I am unwilling, that any matter of fact, relating to such a subject, should perish to save the labour of transcribing.

EXPERIMENT I.

HAVING occasion to dulcify some calx of Dantzick vitriol, from which the oil had been a good while before distilled; water was put upon two large portions of it, that the liquor might be impregnated with the vitriolate particles remaining in the calx; the water put upon one of these portions was, soon after it was sufficiently impregnated, filtrated and gently abstracted, by which means it afforded many drachms of a kind of salt of vitriol, that seemed to differ very little from the vitriol, that had been calcined: but the water, that was put upon the other portion of calcined vitriol, was in a wide-mouthed vessel left in the air for a month or six weeks; after which time, when it came to be abstracted after the manner formerly recited, it afforded many drachms of a salt, that did not then, nor long after, look at all like common vitriol, or like the other, but shot white almost like salt-petre, or some other untinged salt. Whether this experiment will constantly succeed, and at other seasons of the year than that it was made in, which was summer, I had not the opportunity to make a full trial, though I endeavoured it. But that the air may have a great stroke in varying the salts obtainable from calcined vitriol, seemed the more probable, because we had some colcothar, that had lain many months, if not some years, in the air, but in a place sheltered from the rain; and having caused a lixivium to be made of it, to try what sort or plenty of saline particles it would yield, we found, when the superfluous moisture was exhaled, that they began to shoot into salt far more white than vitriol, and very differing from it in its figure and way of concretion.

EXPERIMENT II.

WE took colcothar of venereal vitriol carefully dulcified, and leaving it in my study in the months of *January* and *February*, by weighing it carefully before an ounce of it was exposed to the air, and after it had continued there some weeks, we found it to have encreased in weight four grains and about a quarter, besides some little dust, that stuck to the glass. This was made at Oxford.

THIS slight experiment is here mentioned, that, being compared with the next ensuing trial, it may appear, that the difference of airs, seasons, calces of vitriol, or other circumstances, may produce a notable disparity in the increment of weight, the exposed bodies gain in the air.

EXPERIMENT III.

WE put eight ounces of outlandish vitriol, calcined to a deep redness, into a somewhat broad and flat metalline vessel, and set it by upon a shelf, in a study, that was seldom frequented; and at the same time, that we might observe what increment would be gained by exposing to the air a larger superficies of the powder, in reference to the bulk, we put into another metalline vessel, smaller than the other, only two ounces of colcothar, and set it on the same shelf with the other, this was done at the vernal equinox, (the twelfth of *March*;) on the twenty-fifth of *June* we weighed these powders again, and found the eight ounces to have gained one drachm and seventeen grains; but the two ounces had acquired the same weight within a grain: then putting them back into their former vessels, we left them in the same place as formerly, till the twenty-fourth of *August*, when we found cause to suppose, that the greater parcel of colcothar had met with some mischance, either by mice or otherwise; but the lesser parcel weighed twenty-six grains heavier than it did in *June*, amounting now to two ounces, one dram, forty-two grains, having increased, in less than six months, above an hundred grains, and consequently above a tenth part of its first weight.

No trial was made to discover, what this acquired substance may be, that we might not disturb the intended prosecution of the experiment.

EXPERIMENT IV.

BECAUSE in most of the experiments of substances exposed to be impregnated by the air, or detain its saline or other exotic particles, we employed bodies prepared and much altered by the previous operation of the fire; we thought fit to make some trials with bodies unchanged by the fire; and to this purpose we took a marchasite, which was partly of a shining and partly of a darkish colour, and which seemed well-disposed to afford vitriol: of this we took several smaller lumps, that amounted to two ounces; these were kept in a room, where they were freely accessible to the air, which, by reason that the house, that was seated in the country, stood high, was esteemed to be very pure. After the marchasites had been kept in this room somewhat less than seven weeks, we weighed them again in the same balance, and found the two ounces to have gained above twelve grains in weight.

EXPERIMENT V.

THE experiment used at the latter end of our paper, about celestial and aerial magnets, seeming to some virtuosi very strange, and the way, that I employed in making that liquor, that turns green in the air, being somewhat troublesome, I remember I thought fit to try, upon the same ground, a way of producing the same phænomenon more easy and more expeditious. And though perhaps this way will not succeed so constantly, nor always so well as the other, yet, for its easiness and cheapness, it will not probably be unwelcome to those, that are desirous to see the odd phænomenon.

WE took then, more than once, filings of clean crude copper, and having put on them a convenient quantity of good spirit of salt, we suffered the menstruum in heat (which need not be very great) to work upon the metal, which it usually does slowly, and not like aqua fortis. When the liquor had by this operation acquired a thick and muddy colour, we decanted it into a clean glass with a wide mouth, which being left for a competent time in the open air, the exposed liquor came to be of a fair green, though it did not appear, that any thing was precipitated at the bottom, to make it clear.

EXPERIMENT VI.

PERHAPS it may not be impertinent to add, that I once or twice observed the fumes of a sharp liquor to work more quickly or manifestly on a certain metal sustained in the air, than did the menstruum itself, that emitted those fumes on those parts of the metal, that it covered. And this brings into my mind, that, asking divers questions of a chemist, that had been in *Hungary*, and other parts, purposely to see the mines; he answered me, among other things, that, as to the ladders and other wooden work employed in one or more of the deep Hungarian mines, those, that were in the upper part of the grooves, any thing near the external air, would, by the fretting exhalations, be rendered unserviceable, in not many months; whereas those ladders, and pieces of timber, &c. that were employed in the lower part of the mine, would hold good for two or three times as long.

EXPERIMENT VII.

WE took, about the bigness of a nutmeg, of a certain soft but consistent body, that we had caused to be chemically prepared, and which, in the free air, would continually emit a thick smoke: this being put into a vial, and placed in a middle-sized receiver in our engine, continued for some time to afford manifest fumes, whilst the exhaustion was making; till at length, the air having been more and more pumped out, the visible ascension of fumes out of the vial quite ceased; and the matter having remained some time in this state, the smoking substance was so altered, that it would not emit fumes, not only when the air was let into the receiver, but not in a pretty while after the vial was taken out of it, till it had been removed to the window, where the wind blowing in fresh and fresh air, it began to smoke as formerly.

THE other phænomena of this experiment belong not to this place; but there are two, which will not be impertinent here, and the latter of them may deserve a serious reflection.

THE first of them was, that the substance hitherto mentioned had been kept in a large glass, wherein it had been distilled at least five or six weeks, and yet would smoke very plentifully upon the contact of the air, and be kept from smoking, though the chemical receiver were stopped but with a piece of paper.

THE second was, that, when the vial was put unstopped in the receiver, and the receiver close luted on, though no exhaustion were made, yet the white fumes did very quickly cease to ascend into the receiver, as if this smoke participated of the nature of flame, and presently glutted the air, or otherwise made it unfit (and yet without diminution of its gravity) to raise the body, that should ascend.

ANIMADVERSIONS

U P O N

Mr. HOBBS'S PROBLEMATICA DE VACUO.

P R E F A C E.

UPON the coming abroad of Mr. *Hobbes's Problemata Physica*, finding them in the hands of an ingenious person, that intended to write a censure of them, which several employments, private and publick, have it seems, hindered him to do, I began, as is usual on such occasions, to turn over the leaves of the book, to see what particular things it treated of. This I had not long done, before I found, by obvious passages in the third chapter, or dialogue, as well as by the title, which was *Problemata de Vacuo*, that I was particularly concerned in it; upon which I desired the possessor of the book, who readily consented, to leave me to examine that dialogue, on which condition I would leave him to deal with all the rest of the book. Nor did I look upon the reflections I meant to make, as repugnant to the resolutions I had taken against writing books of controversy, since the explications, Mr. *Hobbes* gave of his problems, seemed to contain but some variations of, or an appendix to, his tract *De Natura Aeris*, which, being one of the two first pieces that were published against what I had written, was one of those, that I had expressly reserved myself the liberty to answer. But the animadversions I first made upon Mr. *Hobbes's* Problems *de Vacuo*, having been casually mislaid ere they were finished; before I had occasion to resume my task, there passed time enough to let me perceive, that his doctrine, which it will easily be thought, that the vacuists disapproved, was not much relished by most of the Plenists themselves, the modernest Peripateticks, and the Cartesians; each of them maintaining the fullness of the world, upon their own grounds, which are differing enough from those of our author, the natural indisposition I have to polemical discourses, easily persuaded me to let alone a controversy, that did appear needful. And I had still persisted in my silence, if Mr. *Hobbes* had not, as it were, summoned me to break it by publishing again his explications, which in my Examen of his dialogue *De Natura Aeris*, I had shewn to be erroneous.

AND I did not grow at all more satisfied, to find him so constant, as well as stiff an adversary to interspersed vacuities, by comparing what he maintains in his dialogue *De Vacuo*, with some things, that he teaches, especially concerning God, the cause of motion, and the imperviousness of glass, in some other of his writings, that are published in the same volume with it. For since he asserts, that there is a God, and owns Him to be the Creator of the World; and since, on the other side, the penetration of dimensions is confessed to be impossible, and he denies, that there is any vacuum in the universe; it seems difficult to conceive, how in a world, that is already perfectly full of body, a corporeal Deity such as he maintains in his *Append. ad Leviath. cap. 3.* can have that access, even to the minute parts of the mundane matter, that seems requisite to the attributes and operations, that belong to the Deity, in reference to the world. But I leave divines to consider, what influence the conjunction of Mr. *Hobbes's* two opinions, the corporeity of the Deity, and the perfect plenitude of the world, may have on theology. And perhaps, I should not in a physical discourse have taken any notice of the proposed difficulty, but that, to prevent an imputation on the study of nature's

nature's works, (as if it taught us rather to degrade, than admire their author,) it seemed not amiss to hint (*in transitu*) that Mr. *Hobbes's* gross conception of a corporeal God is not only unwarranted by sound philosophy, but ill-befriended even by his own.

My adversary having proposed his problems by way of dialogue between *A.* and *B.*; it will not I presume, be wondered at, that I have given the same form to my animadversions; which come forth no earlier, because I had divers other treatises, that I was more concerned for, to publish before them.

BUT, because it will probably be demanded, why, in a tract, that is but short, my animadversions should take up so much room? it will be requisite, that I here give an account of the bulk of this treatise.

AND first, having found, that there was not any one problem, in whose explication, as proposed by Mr. *Hobbes*, I saw cause to acquiesce, I was induced, for the reader's ease, and that I might be sure to do my adversary no wrong, to transcribe his whole dialogue, bating some few transitions, and other clauses not needful to be transferred hither,

NEXT, I was not willing to imitate Mr. *Hobbes*, who recites in the dialogue we are considering the same experiments, that he had already mentioned in his tract *De Natura Aeris*, without adding as his own (that I remember) any new one to them. But my unwillingness to tire the reader with bare repetitions of the arguments I employed in my *Examen* of that tract, invited me to endeavour to make him some amends for the exercise of his patience by inserting, as occasion was offered, five or six new experiments, that will not perhaps be so easily made by every reader, that will be able (now that I have perspicuously proposed them) to understand them.

AND lastly, since Mr. *Hobbes* has not been content to manage himself and his way of treating of physical matters, but has been pleased to speak very slightly of experimental philosophers (as he styles them) in general, and, which is worse, to disparage the making of elaborate experiments; * I judged the thing, he seemed to aim at, so prejudicial to true and useful philosophy, that I thought it might do some service to the less knowing, and less wary sort of readers, if I tried to make his own explications enervate his authority, and by a somewhat particular *Examen* of the solutions he has given of the problems I am concerned in, shew, that it is much more easy to undervalue a frequent recourse to experiments, than truly to explicate the phænomena of nature without them. And since our author, speaking of his *Problemata Physica*, (which is but a small book) scruples not to tell his majesty, to whom he dedicates them, that he has therein comprised (to speak in his own terms) the greatest and most probable part of his physical meditations; and since by the alterations, he has made in what he formerly writ about the phænomena of my engine, he seems to have designed to give it a more advantageous form; I conceive, that by these selected solutions of his, one may, without doing him the least injustice, make an estimate of his

* Credo, (says Mr. *Hobbes* in his *Dialogus Physicus* :) Nam motus hic Resitutionis Hobbii est, & ab illo primo & solo explicatus in Lib. de corpore, cap. 21. Art. 1. Sine qua Hypothesi, quantuscunque labor, ars, sumptus, ad rerum Naturalium invisibiles causas inveniendos adhibeatur, frustra erit. And speaking of the Gentlemen (to whom it were not here proper for me to give Epithets) that used to meet at *Gresham-College*, and are known by the Name of the *Royal Society*, he thus treats them and their way of inquiring into Nature: Conveniant, studia conferant, Experimenta faciant quantum volunt, nisi & Principiis utantur meis, nihil proficiant.

A. Fateris ergo nihil hactenus à Collegis tuis promotam esse scientiam Causarum Naturalium, nisi quod unus eorum Machinam invenit, quâ motus excitari Aeris possit talis, ut partes Sphæræ simul undique tendant ad Centrum, & ut Hypotheses Hobbianæ, antè quidem satis probabiles, hinc reddantur probabiliores.

B. Ne fateri pudeat, nam est aliquid prodire tenus, si non datur alitra.

A. Quid tenus? quorsum autem tantus apparatus & sumptus Machinarum factu difficilium, ut catenus tantum prodiretis, quantum ante prodierat Hobbii? Cur non inde potius incepissis, ubi ille desit? Cur principiis ab illo positus non estis usi? Cumque Aristoteles recte dicat, ignorato motu ignorari Naturam, &c.

— Ad Causas autem, propter quas proficere ne paululum quidem potuissis, nunc poteritis, accedunt etiam aliæ, ut odium Hobbii, &c.

way of discoursing about natural things. And though I would not interest the credit of experimentarian philosophers in no considerabler a paper than this; yet if Mr. *Hobbes's* explication and mine be attentively compared, it will not, I hope, by them be found, that the way of philosophising he employs is much to be preferred before that, which he undervalues.

ANIMADVERSIONS, &c.

A. **M**AY, one, without too bold an inquisitiveness, ask, what book you are reading so attentively?

B. You will easily believe you may, when I shall have answered you, that it was Mr. *Hobbes's* lately published tract of physical problems, which I was perusing.

A. WHAT progress have you made in it?

B. I was finishing the third dialogue or chapter, when you came in, and finding myself, though not named, yet particularly concerned, I was perusing it with that attention, which it seems you take notice of.

A. DIVERS of your experiments are so expressly mentioned there, that one need not be skilled in decyphering to perceive, that you are interested in that chapter; and therefore seeing you have heedfully read it over, pray give me leave to ask your judgment, both of Mr. *Hobbes's* opinion, and his reasonings about a vacuum.

B. CONCERNING his opinion, I am sorry I cannot now satisfy your curiosity, having long since taken, and ever since kept a resolution to decline, at least, until a time, that is not yet come, the declaring myself either for or against the Plenists. But as to the other part of your question, which is about Mr. *Hobbes's* arguments for the absolute plenitude of the world, I shall not scruple readily to answer, that his ratiocinations seem to me far short of that cogency, which the noise he would make in the world, and the way, wherein he treats both ancient and modern philosophers, that dissent from him, may warrant us to expect.

A. You will allow me the freedom to tell you, that, to convince me, that your resentment of his explicating divers of the phænomena of your pneumattick engine otherwise than you have been wont to do, (and perhaps in terms, that might well have been more civil) has had no share in dictating this judgment of yours; the best way will be, that entering for a while into the party of the vacuists, you answer the arguments he alledges in his chapter to confute them.

B. HAVING always, as you know, forbore to declare myself either way in this controversy, I shall not tie myself strictly to the principles and notions of the vacuists, nor, though but for a while, oppose myself to those of the Plenists: but so far I shall comply with your commands, as either upon the doctrine of the vacuists, or upon other grounds, to consider, whether this dialogue of Mr. *Hobbes* have cogently proved his, and the schools assertion, *Non dari vacuum*; and whether he has rightly explained some phænomena of nature, which he undertakes to give an account of, and especially some produced in our engine, whereof he takes upon him to render the genuine causes. And this last inquiry is that, which I chiefly design.

A. By this I perceive, that if you can make out your own explications of your adversary's problems *de vacuo*, and shew them to be preferable to his, you will think you have done your work; and that it is but your secondary scope to shew, that in Mr. *Hobbes's* way of solving them, he gives the vacuists an advantage against him, though not against the Plenists in general.

B. You

B. You do not mistake my meaning, and therefore without any further preamble, let us now proceed to the particular phænomena considered by Mr. *Hobbes*; the first of which is an experiment proposed by me in the one and thirtieth of the physico-mechanical experiments concerning the adhesion of two flat and polished marbles, which I endeavoured to solve by the pressure of the air. And this experiment Mr. *Hobbes* thinks so convincing an one to prove the plenitude of the world, that, though he tells us he has many cogent arguments to make it out, yet he mentions but this one, because that, he says, suffices.

A. THE confidence he thereby expresses of the great force of the argument does the less move me, because I remember, that formerly in his elements of philosophy he thought it sufficient to employ one argument to evince the plenitude of the world, and for that one he pitched upon the vulgar experiment of a gardener's watering-pot: but whether he were wrought upon by the objections made to his inference from that phænomenon in your examen of his dialogue *De Natura Aeris*, or by some other considerations, I will not pretend to divine. But I plainly perceive, he now prefers the experiment of the cohering marbles.

B. OF which it will not be amiss, though the passage be somewhat long, to read you his whole discourse out of the book I have in my hand.

A. IT is fit, that you, who for my sake are content to take the pains of answering what he says, should be eased of the trouble of reading it, which I will therefore, with your leave, take upon me. His discourse then about the marbles is this:

A. *Ad probandam universi plenitudinem, nullum nostrin' argumentum cogens?*

B. *IMO multa: unum autem sufficit ex eo sumptum, quod duo corpora plana, si se mutuo secundum amborum planitiem communem tangant, non facile in instante divelli possunt; succedere vero facillime. Non dico, impossibile esse duo durissima marmora ita coherentia divellere, sed difficile; Et vim postulare tantam, quanta sufficit ad duritiem lapidis superandam. Siquidem vero majore vi ad separationem opus sit quam illa, qua moventur separata, id signum est, non dari vacuum.*

A. *ASSERTIONES illæ demonstratione indigent. Primò autem ostende, quomodo ex duorum durissimorum corporum, conjunctorum ad superficies exquisitè læves, diremptione difficili, sequatur plenitudo mundi?*

A. *Si duo plana, dura, polita corpora (ut marmora) collocentur unum supra alterum, ita ut eorum superficies se mutuo per omnia puncta exactè, quantum fieri potest, contingant, illa sine magna difficultate ita divelli non possunt, ut eodem instante per omnia puncta dirimantur. Veruntamen marmora eadem, si communis eorum superficies ad horizontem erigatur, aut non valde inclinetur, alterum ab altero facillime (ut scis) etiam solo pondere dilabentur. Nonne causa hujus rei hæc est, quod labenti marmori succedit aer, Et relictum locum semper implet?*

A. *CERTISSIME. Quid ergo?*

B. *QUANDO vero eadem uno instante divellere conaris, nonne multo major vis adhibenda est; quam ob causam?*

A. *EGO, Et mecum (puto) omnes causam statuunt, quod spatium totum inter duo illa marmora divulsa simul uno instante implere aer non potest, quantacunque celeritate fiat divulsio.*

B. *AN qui spatia in aere dari vacua contendunt, in illo aere solo dari negant, qui marmora illa conjuncta circumdat?*

A. *MINIME, sed ubique interpersa.*

B. *DUM ergo illi, qui marmor unum ab altero revellentes aerem comprimunt, Et per consequens vacuum expriment, vacuum faciunt locum per revulsionem relictum; nulla ergo separationis erit difficultas, saltem non major, quam est difficultas corpora eadem movendi in aere.*

aere, postquam separata fuerint. Itaque quoniam, concesso vacuo, difficultas marmora illa dirimendi nulla est, sequitur per difficultatis experientiam, nullum esse vacuum.

A. RECTE quidem illud infers. Mundi autem plenitudine supposita, quomodo demonstrabis possibile omnino esse, ut divellantur?

B. COGITA primo corpus aliquod ductile, nec nimis durum, ut ceram, in duas partes distrabi, quæ tamen partes non minus exacte in communi plano se mutuo tangunt quam levissima marmora. Jam quo pacto distrabatur cera, consideremus. Nonne perpetuo attenuatur, donec in filum evadat tenuissimum, & omni dato crasso tenuius, & sic tandem divellitur? Eodem modo etiam durissima columna in duas partes distrabetur, si vim tantam adhibeas, quanta sufficit ad resistantiam duritici superandam. Sicut enim in cera partes primò extimæ distrabuntur, in quarum locum succedit aer; ita etiam in corpore quantumlibet duro aer locum subit partium extimarum, quæ primæ vulsionis viribus dirumpuntur. Vis autem, quæ superat resistantiam partium extimarum duri, facile superabit resistantiam reliquarum. Nam resistantia prima est à toto duro, reliquarum verò semper à residuo.

A. ITA quidem videtur consideranti, quàm corpora quædam, præsertim verò durissima fragilia sint.

DOES this ratiocination seem to you as cogent, as it did to the proposer of it?

B. You will quickly think it does not; and perhaps you would think it should not, if you please to consider with me some of the reflections, that the reading of it suggested to me.

AND first, without declaring for the vacuist's opinion, I must profess myself unsatisfied with Mr. Hobbes's way of arguing against them: for, where he says, *Dum ergo illi, qui marmor unum ab altero revellentes aerem comprimunt, & per consequens vacuum expriment, vacuum faciunt locum per revulsionem relictum; nulla ergo separationis erit difficultas, saltem non major, quàm est difficultas corpora eadem movendi in aere, postquam separata fuerint. Itaque quoniam, concesso vacuo, difficultas marmora illa dirimendi nulla est, sequitur per difficultatis experientiam, nullum esse vacuum.* Methinks he expresses himself but obscurely, and leaves his readers to guess, what the word *dum* refers to. But that, which seems to be his drift in this passage, is, that, since the vacuists allow interspersed vacuities, not only in the air, that surrounds the conjoined marbles, but in the rest of the ambient air, there is no reason, why there should be any difficulty in separating the marbles, or at least any greater difficulty than in moving the marbles in that air after their separation. But, not to consider, whether his adversaries will not accuse his phrase of squeezing out a vacuum, as if it were a body, they will easily answer, that notwithstanding the vacuities they admit in the ambient air, a manifest reason may be given in their hypothesis of our finding a difficulty in the divulsion of the marbles. For, the vacuities they admit, being but interspersed, and very small, and the corpuscles of the atmosphere being, according to them, endowed with gravity, there lean so many upon the upper surface of the uppermost marble, that that stone cannot be at once perpendicularly drawn up from the lower marble contiguous to it, without a force capable to surmount the weight of the aerial corpuscles, that lean upon it. And this weight has already so constipated the neighbouring parts of the ambient air, that he, that would perpendicularly raise the upper marble, from the lower, shall need a considerable force to make the revulsion, and compel the already contiguous parts of the incumbent air to a subingression into the pores or intervals, intercepted between them. For the conatus of him, that endeavours to remove the upper marble, whilst the lower surface of it is fenced from the pressure of the atmosphere, by the contact of the lower marble, which suffers no air to come in between them, is not assisted by the weight or pressure of the atmosphere, which, when the marbles are once separated, pressing as strongly against the undermost surface of the

upper marble, as the incumbent atmospherical pillar does against the upper surface of the same marble, the hand, that endeavours to raise it in the free air, has no other resistance, than that small one of the marble's own weight to surmount.

A. BUT what say you to the reason, that Mr. *Hobbes*, and, as he thinks, all others give of the difficulty of the often-mentioned divulsion? namely, *Quòd spatium totum inter duo illa marmora divulsa simul uno instante implere aer non potest, quantacunque celeritate fiat divulsio.*

B. I say, that, for aught I know, the plenists may give a more plausible account of this experiment, than Mr. *Hobbes* has here done; and therefore, abstracting from the two opposite hypotheses, I shall further say, that the genuine cause of the phænomenon seems to be that, which I have already assigned; and that difficulty of raising the upper stone, that accompanies the air's not being able to come in all at once, to possess the space left between the surfaces of the two marbles upon their separation, proceeds from hence, that, till that space be filled with the atmospherical air, the hand of him, that would lift up the superior marble, cannot be fully assisted by the pressure of the air against the lower surface of that marble.

A. THIS is a paradox, and therefore I shall desire to know on what you ground it.

B. THOUGH I mention it but as a conjecture proposed *ex abundanti*, yet I shall on this occasion countenance it with two things; the first, that, since I declare not for the hypothesis of the Plenists, as it is maintained by Mr. *Hobbes*, I am not bound to allow, what the common explication, adopted by my adversary, supposes; namely, that either nature abhors a vacuum (as the schools would have it,) or that there could be no divulsion of the marbles, unless, at the same time, the air were admitted into the room, that divulsion makes for it. And a vacuist may tell you, that, provided the strength employed to draw up the superior marble be great enough to surmount the weight of the aerial corpuscles accumulated upon it, the divulsion would ensue, though, by divine Omnipotence, no air, or other body, should be permitted to fill the room made for it by the divulsion; and that the air's rushing into that space does not necessarily accompany, but in order of nature and time follow upon, a separation of the marbles, the air, that surrounded their contiguous surfaces, being by the weight of the collaterally superior air, impelled into the room newly made by the divulsion. But I shall rather countenance what you call my paradox, by an experiment I purposely made in our pneumatical receiver, where, having accommodated two flat and polished marbles, so that the lower being fixed, the upper might be laid upon it, and drawn up again as there should be occasion, I found, that if, when the receiver was well exhausted, the upper marble was, by a certain contrivance, laid flat upon the lower, they would not then cohere as formerly, but be with great ease separated, though it did not, by any phænomenon appear, that any air could come to rush in, to possess the place given it, by the recess of the upper marble, whose very easy avulsion is as easily explicable by our hypothesis; since the pressure of that little air, that remained in the receiver, being too faint to make any at all considerable resistance to the avulsion of the upper marble, the hand, that drew it up, had very little more than the single weight of the stone to surmount.

A. AN Anti-plenist had expected, that you would have observed, that the difficult separation of the marbles in the open air does rather prove, that there may be a vacuum, than that there can be none. For in case the air can succeed as fast at the sides, as the divulsion is made, a vacuist may demand, whence comes the difficulty of the separation? And if the air cannot fill the whole room made for it by the separated marbles, at the same instant they are forced asunder, how is a vacuum avoided for that time,
how

how small soever, that is necessary for the air to pass from the edges to the middle of the room newly made?

B. WHAT the Plenists will say to your argument, I leave them to consider; but I presume, they will be able to give a more plausible account of the phenomenon we are treating of, than is given by Mr. *Hobbes*.

A. WHAT induces you to dislike his explication of it?

B. Two things; the one, that I think the cause he assigns improbable; and the other, that I think another, that is better, has been assigned already.

AND first, whereas Mr. *Hobbes* requires to the divulsion of the marbles a force great enough to surmount the hardness of the stone, this is asserted gratis, which it should not be; since it seems very unlikely, that the weight of so few pounds, as will suffice to separate two coherent marbles of about an inch, for instance, in diameter, should be able to surmount the hardness of such solid stones, as we usually employ in this experiment. And though it be generally judged more easy to bend, if it may be, or break a broader piece of marble *ceteris paribus*, than a much narrower; yet, whereas neither I, nor any else that I know, nor I believe Mr. *Hobbes*, ever observed any difference in the resistance of marbles to separation from the greater or lesser thickness of the stones; I find by constant experience, that, *ceteris paribus*, the broadness of the coherent marble does exceedingly encrease the difficulty of disjoining them: insomuch, that, whereas not many pounds, as I was saying, would separate marbles of an inch, or a lesser diameter; when I encreased their diameter to about four inches, if I misremember not, there were several men, that successively tried to pull them asunder, without being able by their utmost force to effect it.

A. BUT what say you to the illustration, that Mr. *Hobbes*, upon the supposition of the world's plenitude, gives of our phenomenon, by drawing asunder the opposite parts of a piece of wax?

B. To me it seems an instance improper enough. For first, the parts, that are to be divided in the wax, are of a soft and yielding consistence, and according to him, of a ductile, or, if you please, of a tractile nature, and not, as the parts of the coherent marbles, very solid and hard. Next, the parts of the wax do not stick together barely by a superficial contact of two smooth planes, as do the marbles we are speaking of; but have their parts implicated, and as it were intangled with one another. And therefore, they are far from a disposition to slide off, like the marbles, from one another, in how commodious a posture soever you place them. Besides, it is manifest, that the air has opportunity to succeed in the places successively deserted by the receding parts of the attenuated wax; but it is neither manifest, nor as yet well proved, by Mr. *Hobbes*, that the air does after the same manner succeed between the two marbles, which, as I lately noted, are not forced asunder after such a way, but are, as himself speaks, severed in all their points at the same instant.

A. I know, you forget not what he says, of the dividing of a hard column into two parts, by a force sufficient to overcome the resistance of its hardness.

B. HE does not here either affirm, that he, or any he can trust, has seen the thing done; nor does he give us any such account of the way wherein the pillar is to be broken, whether in an erected, inclined, or horizontal posture; nor describe the particular circumstances, that were fit to be mentioned in order to the solution of the phenomenon. Wherefore, till I be better informed of the matter of fact, I can scarce look upon what Mr. *Hobbes* says of the pillar, as other than his conjecture, which now I shall the rather pass by, not only because the case is differing from that of our polished marbles, which are actually distinct bodies, and only contiguous in one commissure; but also, because I would hasten to the second reason of my dislike of Mr.

Hobbes's

Hobbes's explication of our phænomenon, which is, that a better has been given already, from the pressure of the atmosphere upon all the superficial parts of the upper marble, save those, that touch the plane of the lower.

A. You would have put fair for convincing Mr. Hobbes himself, at least would have put him to unusual shifts, if you had succeeded in the attempt you made, among other of your physico-mechanical experiments, to disjoin two coherent marbles, by suspending them horizontally in your pneumatical receiver, and pumping out the air, that environed them; for, from your failing in that attempt, though you rendered a not improbable reason of it, Mr. Hobbes took occasion, in his dialogue *De Natura Aeris*, to speak in so high a strain as this: *Nil isthic erat, quod ageret pondus; experimento hoc excogitari contra opinionem eorum, qui vacuum asserunt, aliud argumentum fortius aut evidentius non potuit. Nam si duorum coherentium alterutrum secundum eam viam, in qua jacent ipsæ contiguæ superficies, propulsum esset, facile separarentur, Aere proximo in locum relictum successive semper influente; sed illa ita divellere, ut simul totum amitterent contactum, impossibile est, mundo pleno. Oporteret enim aut motum fieri ab uno termino ad alium in instante, aut duo corpora eodem tempore in eodem esse loco: quorum utrumvis dicere, est absurdum.*

B. You may remember, that where I relate that experiment, I expressed a hope, that, when I should be better accommodated than I then was, I might attempt the trial with prosperous success; and accordingly afterwards, having got a lesser engine than that I used before, wherewith the air might be better pumped out, and longer kept out, I cheerfully repeated the trial. To shew then, that when two coherent marbles are sustained horizontally in the air, the cause, why they are not to be forced asunder, if they have two or three inches in diameter, without the help of a considerable weight, is the pressure I was lately mentioning of the ambient air; I caused two such coherent marbles to be suspended in a large receiver, with a weight at the lowermost, that might help to keep them steady, but was very inconsiderable to that, which their cohesion might have surmounted; then causing the air to be pumped by degrees out of the receiver, for a good while the marbles stuck close together, because, during that time, the air could not be so far pumped out, but that there remained enough to sustain the small weight, that endeavoured their divulsion: but when the air was further pumped out, at length the spring of the little, but not a little expanded air, that remained, being grown too weak to sustain the lower marble and its small clog, they did, as I expected, drop off.

A. This will not agree over-well with the confident and triumphant expressions just now recited.

B. I never envied Mr. Hobbes's forwardness to triumph, and am content, his conjectures be recommended by the confidence, that accompanies them, if mine be by the success, that follows them. But to confirm the explication given by me of our phænomenon, I shall add, that as the last mentioned trial, which I had several times occasion to repeat, shews, that the cohesion of our two contiguous marbles would cease upon the withdrawing of the pressure of the atmosphere; so by another experiment I made, it appears, that the supervening of that pressure sufficed to cause that cohesion. For, in prosecution of one of the lately mentioned trials, having found, that when the receiver was well exhausted, two marbles, though considerably broad, being laid upon one another after the requisite manner, their adhesion was, if any at all, so weak, that the uppermost would be easily drawn up from off the other; we laid them again one upon the other, and then letting the external air flow into the receiver, we found, according to expectation, that the marbles now cohered well, and we could not raise the uppermost, but accompanied with the lowermost. But I am sensible, I have detained you too long upon the single experiment of the marbles: and though I

hope

hope the strefs Mr. *Hobbes* lays on it, will plead my excuse, yet, to make your patience some amends, I shall be the more brief in the other particulars, that remain to be considered in his dialogue *De Vacuo*. And it will not be difficult for me to keep my promise without injuring my cause, since almost all these particulars being but the same, which he has already alledged in his dialogue *De Natura Aeris*, and I soon after answered in my Examen of that dialogue, I shall need but to refer you to the passages, where you may find these allegations examined, only subjoining here some reflections upon those few and slight things, that he has added in his problems *De Vacuo*.

A. I may then, I suppose, read to you the next passage to that long one, you have hitherto been considering, and it is this: *Ad vacuum nunc revertor: Quas causas sine suppositione vacui redditurus es illorum effectuum, qui ostenduntur per Machinam illam, quæ est in Collegio Greshamensi?*

B. *Machina illa*—

A. Stop here, I beseech you a little, that, before we go any further, I may take notice to you of a couple of things, that will concern our subsequent discourse,

WHEREOF the first is, that it appears by Mr. *Hobbes's* Dialogue about the Air, that the explications he there gave of some of the phænomena of the Machina Boyliana, were directed partly against the virtuosi, that have since been honoured with the title of the Royal Society, and partly against the author of that engine, as if the main thing therein designed were to prove a vacuum. And since he now repeats the same explications, I think it necessary to say again, that if he either takes the Society or me for professed vacuists, he mistakes, and shoots besides the mark; for, neither they nor I have ever yet declared either for or against a vacuum.

AND the other thing I would observe to you, is, that Mr. *Hobbes* seems not to have rightly understood, or at least not to have sufficiently heeded in what chiefly consists the advantage, which the vacuists may make of our engine against him: for, whereas in divers places he is very solicitous to prove, that the cavity of a pneumatical receiver is not altogether empty, the vacuists may tell him, that since he asserts the absolute plenitude of the world, he must, as indeed he does, reject not only great vacuities, but also those very small and interspersed ones, that they suppose to be intercepted between the solid corpuscles of other bodies, particularly of the air: so that it would not confute them to prove, that in our receiver, when most diligently exhausted, there is not one great and absolute vacuity, or, as they speak, a *vacuum coacervatum*, since smaller and disseminated vacuities would serve their turn. And therefore they may think their pretensions highly favoured, as by several particular effects, so by this general phænomena of our engine, that it appears by several circumstances, that the common or atmospherical air, which, before the pump is set to work, possessed the whole cavity of our receiver, far the greatest part is by the intervention of the pump made to pass out the cavity into the open air, without being able, at least for a little while, to get in again; and yet it does not appear by any thing alledged by Mr. *Hobbes*, that any other body succeeds to fill adequately the places deserted by such a multitude of aerial corpuscles.

A. If I guess aright, by those words, (viz. “it appears not by any thing alledged “by Mr. *Hobbes*,”) you design to intimate, that you would not in general prejudice the plenists.

B. YOUR conjecture was well founded: for I think divers of them, and particularly the Cartesians, who suppose a subtile matter or æther fine enough to permeate glass, though our common air cannot do it, have not near so difficult a task to avoid the arguments the vacuists may draw from our engine, as Mr. *Hobbes*, who, without having recourse to the porosity of glass, which indeed is impervious to common air, strives

to solve the phenomena, and prove our receiver to be always perfectly full, and therefore as full at any one time as at any other of common or atmospherical air, as far as we can judge of his opinion by the tendency or import of his explications.

A. YET, if I were rightly informed of an experiment of yours, Mr. Hobbes may be thereby reduced either to pass over to the vacuists, or to acknowledge some ætherial or other matter more subtil than air, and capable of passing through the pores of glass; and therefore, to shew yourself impartial between the vacuists and their adversaries in this controversy, I hope you will not refuse to gratify the plenists by giving your friends a more particular account of the experiment.

B. I know which you mean, and remember it very well. For, though I long since devised it, yet having but the other day had occasion to peruse the relation I writ down of one of the best trials, I think I can repeat it, almost in the very words, which if I mistake not, were these:

THERE was taken a bubble of thin white glass, about the bigness of a nutmeg, with a very slender stem, of about four or five inches long, and of the bigness of a crow's-quill. The end of the quill being held in the flame of a lamp blown with a pair of bellows, was readily and well sealed up, and presently the globous part of the glass, being held by the stem, was kept turning in the flame, until it was red hot and ready to melt: then being a little removed from the flame, as the included air began to lose of its agitation and spring, the external air manifestly and considerable pressed in one of the sides of the bubble. But the glass being again, before the cold could crack it, held as before in the flame, the rarified air distended and plumped up the bubble; which being the second time removed from the flame, was the second time compressed; and, being the third time brought back to the flame, swelled as before, and removed, was again compressed, (either this time or the last by two distinct cavities;) until at length, having satisfied ourselves, that the included air was capable of being condensed or dilated without the ingress or egress of air (properly so called) we held the bubble so long in the flame, strengthened by nimble blasts, that not only it had its sides plumped up, but a hole violently broken in it by the over-rarified air, which together with the former watchfulness, we employed from time to time to discern, if it were any where cracked or perforated, satisfied us, that it was until then entire.

A. I confess, I did not readily conceive before, how you could, (as I was told you had,) make a solid vessel, wherein there was no danger of the air's getting in or out, whose cavity should be still possessed with the same air, and yet the vessel be made by turns bigger and lesser. And, though I presently thought upon a well stopped bladder, yet I well foresaw, that a distrustful adversary might make some objections, which are by your way of proceeding obviated; and the experiment agrees with your doctrine in shewing, how impervious we may well think your thick pneumatick receivers are to common air, since a thin glass bubble, when its pores were opened or relaxed by flame, would not give passage to the springy particles of the air, though violently agitated; for if those particles could have got out of the pores, they never would have broke the bubble, as at length a more violent degree of heat made them do; nor probably would the compression, that afterwards ensued, of the bubble by the ambient air, be checked near so soon, if those springy corpuscles had not remained within to make the resistance. Methinks, one may hence draw a new proof of what I remember you elsewhere teach, that the spring of the air may be much strengthened by heat. For, in our case, the spring of the air was thereby enabled to expand the compressed glass, it was imprisoned in, in spite of the resisting pressure of the external air; and yet, that this pressure was considerable, appears by this, that the weight of so small a column of atmospherical air, as could bear upon the bubble, was able to press in the heated glass, in spite of the resistance of its tenacity and arched figure.

B. YET that, which I mainly designed in this experiment, was, (if I were able) to shew and prove at once, by an instance not liable to the ordinary exceptions, the true nature of rarefaction and condensation, at least of the air. For to say nothing of the Peripatetick rarefaction and condensation, ~~strictly~~ so called, which I scruple not to declare, I think to be physically inconceptible or impossible; it is plain by our experiment, that, when the bubble, after the glass had been first thrust in towards the center, was expanded again by heat, the included air possessed more room than before, and yet it could perfectly fill no more room than formerly, each aerial particle taking up, both before and after the heating of the bubble, a portion of space adequate to its own bulk; so that in the cavity of the expanded bubble we must admit either vacuities interspersed between the corpuscles of the air, or that some fine particles of the flame, or other subtil matter, came in to fill up those intervals, which matter must have entered the cavity of the glass at its pores: and afterwards, when the red-hot bubble was removed from the flame, it is evident, that since the grosser particles of the air could not get through the glass, which they were not able to do, even when vehemently agitated by an ambient flame, the compression of the bubble, and the condensation of the air, which was necessarily consequent upon it, could not, supposing the plenitude of the world, be performed without squeezing out some of the subtil matter contained in the cavity of the bubble, whence it could not issue but at the pores of the glass. But I will no longer detain you from Mr. *Hobbes's* explications of the *Machina Boyleana*; to the first of which you may now, if you please, advance.

A. THE passage I was going to read, when you interrupted me, was this:

B. *MACHINA illa eosdem effectus producit, quos produceret in loco non magno magnus inclusus ventus.*

A. *QUOMODO ingreditur istuc ventus? Machinam nosti cylindrum esse cavum, aeneum, in quem protruditur cylindrus alius solidus ligneis, corio tectus, (quem suetorem dicunt) ita exquisitè congruens, ut ne minimus quidem aer inter corium & aes intrare (ut putant) possit.*

B. *SCIO, & quò suetor facilius intrudi possit, foramen quoddam est in superiori parte cylindri, per quod aer (qui suetoris ingressum alioqui impedire possit) emittatur. Quod foramen aperire possunt, & claudere, quoties usus postulat. Est etiam in cylindri cavi recessu summo datus aditus aeri in globum concavum vitreum, quem etiam aditum claviculâ obturare & aperire possunt, quoties volunt. Denique in globo vitreo summo relinquitur foramen satis amplum, (claviculâ item claudendum & recludendum) ut in illum, quae volunt, immittere possint, experiendi causâ,*

B. THE imaginary wind, to which Mr. *Hobbes* here ascribes the effects of our engine, he formerly had recourse to in the thirteenth page of his Dialogue; and I have sufficiently answered that passage of it in a part of my Examen, to which I therefore refer you.

A. I presume, you did not overlook the comparison Mr. *Hobbes* annexes to what I last read out of the problems, since he liked the conceit so well, that we meet with it in his Dialogue *De Natura Aeris*. The words (as you see) are these: *Tota denique machina non multum differt, si naturam ejus spectes, à sclopeto ex sambuco, quo pueri se delectant, imitantes sclopetos militum, nisi quòd major sit, & majori arte fabricatus, & pluris constet.*

B. I could scarce, for the reason you give, avoid taking notice of it. And if Mr. *Hobbes* intended it for a piece of raillery, I willingly let it pass, and could more easily forgive him a more considerable attempt than this, to be revenged on an engine, that has destroyed several of his opinions: but if he seriously meant to make a physical comparison, I think he made a very improper one. For not to urge, that one may well doubt how he knows, that in the enclosed cavity of his pot-gun, there is a very
vehement

vehement wind, since that does not necessarily follow from the compression of the enclosed air: in Mr. *Hobbes's* instrument, the air, being forcibly compressed, has an endeavour to expand itself, and when it is able to surmount the resistance of its prison, that part, that is first disjoined, is forcibly thrown downwards; whereas in our engine it appears by the passage lately cited of our Examen, that the air is not compressed, but expanded, in our receiver, and if an intercourse be opened, or the vessel be not strong enough, the outward air violently rushes in; and if the receiver chance to break, the fragments of the glass are not thrown outwards, but forcibly inwards.

A. So that, whether or no Mr. *Hobbes* could have pitched upon a comparison more suitable to his intentions, he might easily have employed one more suitable to the phænomena.

B. I presume, you will judge it the less agreeable to the phænomena, if I here subjoin an experiment, that possibly you will not dislike; which I devised to shew, not only that in our exhausted receivers there is no such strong endeavour outwards, as most of Mr. *Hobbes's* explications of the things, that happen in them are built upon, but that the weight of the atmospherical air, when it is not resisted by the counter-pressure of any internal air, is able to perform what a weight of many pounds would not suffice to do.

A. I shall the more willingly learn an experiment to this purpose, because in your receivers the rigidity of the glass keeps us from seeing, by any manifest change of its figure, whether, if it could yield without breaking, it would not be pressed in, as your hypothesis requires.

B. THE desires to obviate that very difficulty, for their satisfaction, that had not yet penetrated the grounds of our hypothesis, made me think of employing, instead of a receiver, of glass, one of a stiff and tough, but yet somewhat flexible, metal. And accordingly, having provided a new pewter porringer, and whelmed it upside down upon an iron plate, fastened to the upper end of our pneumatical pump, we carefully fastened, by cement, the orifice to the plate; and though the inverted vessel, by reason of its stiffness and thickness, and the convexity of its superficies, were strong enough to have supported a great weight without changing its figure; yet, as soon as, by an exsuction or two, the remaining part of the included air was brought to such a degree of expansion, that its weakened spring was able to afford but little assistance to the tenacity and firmness of the metal, the weight of the pillar of the incumbent atmosphere (which, by reason of the breadth of the vessel, was considerably wide also) did presently and notably depress the upper part of the porringer, both lessening its capacity and changing its figure; so that, instead of the convex surface, the receiver had before, it came to a concave one, which new figure was somewhat, though not much, increased by the further withdrawing of the included and already rarified air. The experiment succeeded also with another common porringer of the same metal. But in such kind of vessels, made purposely of iron plates, it will sometimes succeed and sometimes not, according to the diameter of the vessel, and the thickness of the plate, which was sometimes strong enough, and sometimes too weak to resist the pressure of the incumbent air. And sometimes I found also, that the vessel would be thrust in, not at the top but side-ways, in case that side were the only part, that were made too thin to resist the pressure of the ambient; which phænomenon I therefore take notice of, that you may see, that that powerful pressure may be exercised laterally as well as perpendicularly.

PERHAPS this experiment, and that I lately recited of an hermetically sealed bubble, by their fitness to disprove Mr. *Hobbes's* doctrine, may do somewhat towards the letting him see, that he might have spared that not over-modest and wary expression,

where, speaking of the gentlemen, that meet at Gresham-college, (of whom I pretend not to be one of the chief) he is pleased to say, *Experimenta faciant quantum volunt, nisi principiis utantur meis, nihil proficient.* But let us, if you please, pass on to what he further alledges to prove, that the space in the exhausted receiver, which the vacuists suppose to be partly empty, is full of air. *Video* (says A.) *si suctor trahatur usque ad fundum cylindri aenei, obturenturque foramina, sectarum esse, dum suctor retrahitur, locum in cylindro cavo relictum fore vacuum.* Nam ut in locum ejus succedat aer, est impossibile. To which B. answers, *Credo equidem, suctorem cum cylindri cavi superficie satis arte coherere ad excludendum stramen & plumam, non autem aerem neque aquam.* Cogita enim, quod non ita accurate congruerent, quin undiquaque interstitium relinqueretur, quantum tenuissimi capilli capax esset. Retraeto ergo suctore, tantum impelleretur aeris, quamvis viribus illis conveniret, quibus aer propter suctoris retractionem reprimatur, idque sine omni difficultate sensibili. Quanto autem interstitium illud minus esset, tantum ingrederetur aer velocius: vel si contactus sit, sed non per omnia puncta, etiam tunc intrabit aer, modo suctor majore vi retrahatur. Postremo etsi contactus ubique exactissimus sit, vitamen satis aucta per cochleam ferream, tum corium cedit, tum ipsum aes; atque ita quoque ingreditur aer. Credin' tu, possibile esse duas superficies ita exacte componere, ut has compositas esse supponunt illi; aut corium ita durum esse, ut aeri, qui cochleae ope incutitur, nihil omnino cedat? Corium, quamquam optimum, admittit aquam, ut ipse scis, si forte fecisti unquam iter vento & pluvia $\nu\acute{o}\mu\epsilon\nu\sigma$ & $\alpha\eta\mu\epsilon\nu\sigma$. Itaque dubitare non potes, quin retractus suctor tantum aeris in cylindrum adeoque in ipsum recipiens incutiat, quantum sufficit ad locum semper relictum perfecte implendum. Effectus ergo, qui oritur a retractione suctoris, alius non est quam ventus (inquam) vehementissimus, qui ingreditur undiquaque inter suctoris superficiem convexam, & cylindri aenei concavam, proceditque (versa claviculâ) in cavitatem globi vitrei, sive (ut vocatur) recipientis.

THE substance of this ratiocination having been already proposed Mr. Hobbes, in his dialogue of the air, the eleventh page, I long since answered it in my Examen; and therefore I shall only now take notice *in transitu* of some slight, whether additions or variations, that occur in what you have been reading. And, first, I see no probability in what he *gratis* asserts, that so thick a cylinder of brass, as made the chief part of the pump of our engine, should yield to the sucker, that was moved up and down in it, though by the help of an iron rack. And whereas he adds, that the leather, that surrounds the more solid part of the sucker, would yield to such a force; it seems, that that compression of the leather should, by thrusting the solid parts into the pores, make the leather rather less, than more fit to give passage to the air. Nor would it however follow, notwithstanding Mr. Hobbes's example, that, because a body admits water, it must be pervious to air; for I have several times, by ways elsewhere taught, made water penetrate the pores of bladders, and yet bladders resist the passage of the air so well, that even when air included in them was sufficiently rarified by heat, or by our engine, it was necessary for the air to break them before it could get out; which would not have been, if it could have escaped through their pores. What Mr. Hobbes inculcates here again concerning his *ventus vehementissimus*, you will find answered in the place of my Examen I lately directed you to.

A. WE may then proceed to Mr. Hobbes's next explication, which he proposes in these terms:

A. CAUSAM video nunc unius ex machinae mirabilibus, nimirum cur suctor, postquam est aliquatenus retractus & deinde amissus, subito recurrit ad cylindri summitatem. Nam aer, qui vi magna fuit impulsus, rursus per repercussionem ad externa vi eadem revertitur.

B. ATQUE hoc quidem argumenti satis est, etiam solum, quod locus a suctore relictus non est vacuus. Quid enim aut attrahere aut impellere suctorem potuit ad locum illum, unde

retractus erat, si cylindrus fuisset vacuus? Nam ut aeris pondus aliquod id efficere potuisset, falsum esse satis supra demonstravi ab eo, quod aer in aere gravitare non potest. Nosti etiam, quod cum è recipiente aerem omnem (ut illi loquuntur) exegerint, possunt tamen trans vitrum id quod intus fit videre, & sonum, si quis fiat, inde audire. Id quod solum, etsi nullum aliud argumentum esset (sunt autem multa,) ad probandum, nullum esse in recipiente vacuum, abundè sufficit.

B. HERE are several things joined together, which the author had before separately alledged in his often-mentioned dialogue. The first is, the cause he assigns of the ascension of the sucker, forcibly depressed to the bottom of the exhausted cylinder, and then let alone by him that pumped; to which might be added, that this ascension succeeded, when the sucker was clogged with an hundred pound weight. This explication of Mr. Hobbes you will find examined in my discourse. And as to his denying, that the weight or pressure of the air could drive up the sucker in that phænomenon, because the air does not weight in air, we may see the contrary largely proved in divers places of my Examen, and more particularly and expressly in the first pages of the third chapter. And whereas he says, in the last place, that the visibility of bodies included in our receivers, and the propagation of sound, (which, by the way, is not to be understood of all sound, that may be heard, though made in the exhausted receiver,) are alone sufficient arguments to prove no vacuum; I have considered that passage in the answer I made to the like allegation, in a part of the Examen; and shall only observe here, that, since the vacuists can prove, that much of the air is pumped out of the exhausted receiver, and will pretend, that, notwithstanding many interspersed vacuities, there may be in the receiver corporeal substance enough to transmit light and stronger sounds, Mr. Hobbes has not performed what he pretended, if he have but barely proved, that there may be substances capable of conveying light and sound in the cavity of our receiver, since he triumphantly asserts, *nullum esse in recipienti vacuum*. But we may leave Mr. Hobbes and his adversaries to dispute out this point, and go on to the next passage.

A. WHICH follows in these words:

Ad illud autem, quod si vesica aliquatenus inflata in recipiente includatur, paulo post per exuctionem aeris inflatur vehementius, & dirumpitur, quid respondes?

B. *Motus partium aeris undiquaque concurrentium velocissimus & per concursum in spatiis brevissimis numeroque infinitis gyrationis velocissimæ vesicam in locis innumerabilibus simul & vi magna, instar totidem terebrarum, penetrat, praesertim si vesica, antequam immittatur, quò magis resistat aliquatenus inflata sit. Postquam autem aer penetrans semel ingressus est, facile cogitare potes, quo pacto deinceps vesicam tendet, & tandem rumpet. Verùm si antequam rumpatur, versâ claviculâ, aer externus admittatur, videbis vesicam propter vehementiam motus temperatum diminutâ tensione rugosiorē. Nam id quoque observatum est. Jam si haec, quam dixi, causa minùs tibi videatur verisimilis, vide an tu aut alius quicunque imaginari potest, quo pacto vesica distendi & rumpi possit à viribus vacui, id est, nihili.*

B. THIS explication Mr. Hobbes gives us in the 19th page of his dialogue *De Natura Aeris*, and you may find it at large confuted in the latter part of the third chapter of my Examen. Nor does, what he here says in the close about the *vires vacui* or *nihili*, deserve to detain us, since there is no reason at all, that the vacuists should ascribe to nothing a power of breaking a bladder, of whose rupture the spring of the included air supplies them so easily with a sufficient cause.

AFTER what Mr. Hobbes has said of the breaking of a bladder, he proceeds to an experiment, which he judges of affinity with it, and his academian having proposed this question:

Unde

Unde fit, ut animalia tam cito, nimirum spatio quatuor minutorum borae, in recipiente interficiantur?

FOR answer to it our author says:

B. Nonne animalia sic inclusa insugunt in pulmones aerem vehementissimè motum? quo motu necesse est, ut transitus sanguinis ab uno ad alterum cordis ventriculum interceptus, non multò post sistatur. Cessatio autem sanguinis mors est. Possunt tamen animalia cessante sanguine reviviscere, si aer externus satis maturè intromittatur, vel ipsa in aerem temperatum, antequam refrixerit sanguis, extrahantur.

THIS explication is not probable enough, to oblige me to add any thing about it to what I have said in my Examen; especially the most vehement motion, ascribed to the air in the receiver, having been before proved to be an imaginary thing. You may therefore, if you please, take notice of the next explication.

[Idem aer (says he) in recipiente carbones ardentes extinguat, sed & illi, si, dum satis calidi sunt, eximantur, relucebunt. Notissimum est, quòd in fodinis carbonum terreorum (cujus rei experimentum ipse vidi) saepissime à lateribus foveae ventus quidam undiquaque exit, qui fossiles interficit, ignemque extinguat, qui tamen reviviscunt, si satis cito ad aerem liberum extrahantur.]

THIS comparison, which Mr. *Hobbes* here summarily makes, he more fully displayed in his dialogue *De Natura Aeris*, and I considered, what he there alledged, in my Examen. And though I will not contradict Mr. *Hobbes* in what he historically asserts in this passage; yet I cannot but somewhat doubt, whether he mingles not his conjecture with the bare matter of fact. For, though I have with some curiosity visited mines in more places than one, and proposed questions to men, that have been conversant in other mines, both elsewhere and in *England* (and particularly in *Derbyshire* where Mr. *Hobbes* lived long;) yet I could never find, that any such odd and vehement wind, as Mr. *Hobbes* ascribes the phænomenon to, had been by them observed to kill the diggers, and extinguish well-lighted coals themselves: and indeed, it seems more likely, that the damp, by its tenacity or some peculiarly malign quality, did the mischief, than a wind, of which I found not any notice taken; especially since we see, what vehement winds men will be able to endure for a long time, without being near killed by them; and that it seems very odd, that a wind, that Mr. *Hobbes* does not observe to have blown away the coals, that were let down, should be able (instead of kindling them more fiercely) to blow them out.

A. THE last experiment of your engine, that your adversary mentions in these problems, is delivered in this passage:

A. Si phialam aquae in recipiens demiseris, exueto aere bullire videbis aquam. Quid ad hoc respondebis?

B. Credo sanè in tanta aeris motitatione saltaturam esse aquam, sed ut calefiat, nondum audiui. Sed imaginabile non est, saltationem illam à vacuo nasci posse.

B. THIS phænomenon he likewise took notice of, and attempted to explicate in his above-mentioned dialogue, which gave me occasion, to shew, how unlikely it is, that the vehement motion of the air should be the cause of it; but he here tells us, that it is not imaginable, that this dancing of the water (as he is pleased to call it) proceeds from a vacuum, nor do I know any man, that ever pretended, that a vacuum was the efficient cause of it. But the vacuists perhaps will tell him, that, though the bubbling of the water be not an effect of a vacuum, it may be a proof of it against him; for they will tell him, that it has been formerly proved, that a great part of the atmospherical air is by pumping removed out of our exhausted receiver, and consequently can no more, as formerly, press upon the surface of the water. Nor does Mr. *Hobbes* shew what succeeds in the room of it; and therefore it will be allowable,

for

for them to conclude against him (though not perhaps against the Cartesians) that there are a great many interspersed vacuities left in the receiver, which are the occasion, though not the proper efficient cause of the phænomenon. For they will say, that the springy particles of the yet included air, having room to unbend themselves in the spaces deserted by the air, that was pumped out, the aerial and springy corpuscles, that lay concealed in the pores of the water, being now freed from the wonted pressure, that kept them coiled up in the liquor, expanded themselves into numerous bubbles, which because of their comparative lightness, are extruded by the water, and many of them appear to have risen from the bottom of it. And Mr. *Hobbes's* vehement wind, to produce the several circumstances of this experiment, must be a lasting one. For, after the agitation of the pump has been quite left off, provided the external air be kept from getting in, the bubbles will sometimes continue to rise for an hour after. And that, which agrees very well with our explication, and very ill with that of Mr. *Hobbes's*, is, that, when by having continued to pump a competent time, the water has been freed from the aerial particles, that lurked in it before, though one continue to pump as lustily as he did, yet the water will not at all be covered with bubbles, as it was, the air that produced them, being spent; though, according to Mr. *Hobbes's* explications, the wind in the receiver continuing, the dance of the water should continue too.

A. I easily guess, by what you have said already, what you may say of that epiphomena, wherewith Mr. *Hobbes* (in his 18th page) concludes the explications of the phænomena of your engine. [*Spero jam te certum esse, says he, nullum esse machinae illius phænomenon, quo demonstrari potest ullum in universo locum dari corpore omni vacuum.*]

B. If you guessed aright, you guessed, that I would say, that as to the phænomena of my engine, my business was to prove, that he had not substituted good explications of them in the place of mine, which he was pleased to reject. And as for the proving a vacuum by the phænomena of my engine, though I declared, that was not the thing intended, yet I shall not wonder, that the vacuists should think those phænomena give them an advantage against Mr. *Hobbes*. For, though in the passage recited by you he speak more cautiously than he is wont to do, yet, by what you may have already observed in his argumentations, the way he takes to solve the phænomena of our engine, is by contending, that our receiver, when we say it is almost exhausted, is as full as ever (for he will have it perfectly full,) of common air; which is a conceit so contrary to I know not how many phænomena, that I do not remember I have met with or heard of any naturalist, whether vacuist or plenist, that having read my physico-mechanical experiments and his dialogue, has embraced his opinion.

A. AFTER what you have said, I will not trouble you with what he subjoins about vacuum in general, where having made his academian say, [*Mundum scis finitum esse, & per consequens vacuum esse oportere totum illud spatium, quod est extra mundum infinitum. Quid impedit, quo minus vacuum illud cum aere mundano permisceatur?*] he answers: *De rebus transmundanis nihil scio.* For I know, that it concerns not you to take notice of it. But possibly the vacuists will think he fathers upon them an impropriety they would not be guilty of, making them speak, as if they thought, the *ultra munden vacuum* were a real substance, that might be brought into this world, and mingled with our air. And since, for aught I know, Mr. *Hobbes* might have spared this passage, if he had not designed it should introduce the slighting answer he makes to it; I shall add, that by the account Mr. *Hobbes* has given of several phænomena within the world, it is possible, that the vacuists may believe his profession of knowing nothing of things beyond it.

AFTER

AFTER the *Experimenta Boyliana* (as your other adversary calls them;) Mr. *Hobbes* proceeds to the Torricellian experiment, of which he thus discourses:

A. *Quid de experimento censes Torricelliano, probante vacuum per argentum vivum hoc modo: est in seq. figura ad A, pelvis, sive aliud vas, & in eo argentum vivum usque ad B; est autem C D tubus vitreus concavus repletus quoque argento vivo. Hunc tubum si digito obturaveris, erexerisque in vase A, manumque abstuleris, descendet argentum vivum à C; verum non effundetur totum in pelvim, sed sistetur in distantia quadam, puta in D. Nonne ergo necessarium est, ut pars tubi inter C & D sit vacua? non enim puto negabis, quin superficies tubi concava & argenti vivi convexa se mutuo exquisitissime contingant.*

B. *Ego neque nego contactum, neque vim consequentiae intelligo.*

By which passage it seems, that he still persists in the solution of this experiment, which he gave in his dialogue *De Natura Aeris*, and formerly did, for the main, either propose, or adopt, in his elements of philosophy.

B. THIS opinion or explication of Mr. *Hobbes* I have, as far as concerns me, considered in my *Examen*, to which it may well suffice me to refer you. But yet let me take notice of what he now alledges:

B. *Si quis (says he) in argentum vivum, quod in vase est, vesicam immerferit inflatam, nonne illa amotâ manu emerget?*

A. *Ita certè, etsi esset vesica ferrea vel ex materia quacunque præter aurum.*

B. *Vides igitur ab aere penetrari posse argentum vivum.*

A. *Etiam, & quidem illâ ipsâ vi, quam à pondere accipit argenti vivi.*

I confess this allegation did a little surprize me: it concerned Mr. *Hobbes* to prove, that as much air, as was displaced by the descending mercury, did at the orifice of the tube, immersed in stagnant mercury, invisibly ascend to the upper part of the pipe. To prove this he tells us, that a bladder full of air being depressed in quicksilver, will, when the hand, that depressed it, is removed, be squeezed up by the very weight of the mercury, whence it follows, that air may penetrate quicksilver. But I know not, who ever denied, that air invironed with quicksilver may thereby be squeezed upwards; but, since even very small bubbles of air may be seen to move in their passage through mercury, I see not, how this example will at all help the proposer of it. For it is by mere accident, that the air included in the bladder comes to be buoyed up, because the bladder itself is so; and if it were filled with water instead of air, or with stone instead of water, it would nevertheless emerge, as himself confesses it would do, if it were made of iron, or of any matter besides gold, because all other bodies are lighter in specie than quicksilver. But since the immersion of the bladder is manifest enough to the sight, I see not how it will serve Mr. *Hobbes*'s turn, who is to prove, that the air gets into the Torricellian tube invisibly; since it is plain, that even heedful observations can make our eyes discover no such trajection of the air; which (to add that enforcement of our argument) must not only pass unseen through the sustained quicksilver, but must likewise unperceivedly dive, in spite of its comparative lightness, beneath the surface of the ponderous stagnant mercury, to get in at the orifice of the erected tube. But let us, if you please, hear the rest of his discourse about this experiment.

A. THOUGH it be somewhat prolix, yet, according to my custom hitherto, I will give it you verbatim.

B. SIMUL. *atque argentum vivum descenderit ad D, altius erit in vase A quàm antè nimirum plus erit argenti vivi in vase quàm erat ante descensum, tanto quantum capit pars tubi C, D. Tanto quoque minus erit aeris extra tubum quàm ante erat. Ille autem aer, qui ab argento vivo loco suo extrusus est, (suppositâ universi plenitudine) quò abire potest nisi ad eum locum, qui in tubo inter C & D à descensu argenti vivi relinquebatur? sed quâ, inquires, viâ in illum locum successurus est? Quâ nisi per ipsum corpus argenti vivi aerem urgentis?*

Sicut

Sicut enim omne grave liquidum, sui ipsius pondere, aerem, quem descendendo premit, ascendere cogit (si via alia non detur) per suum ipsius corpus; ita quoque aerem quem premit ascendendo, (si via alia non detur) per suum ipsius corpus transire cogit. Manifestum igitur est, suppositâ mundi plenitudine posse aerem externum ab ipsa gravitate argenti vivi cogi in locum illum inter C & D. Itaque phaenomenon illud necessitatem vacui non demonstrat. Quoniam autem corpus argenti vivi penetrationi, quae fit ab aere, non nihil resistit, & ascensionem argenti vivi in vase A resistit aer; quando illae duae resistentiae aequales erunt, tunc in tubo sistetur alicubi argentum vivum; atque ibi est D.

B. In answer to this explication I have in my Examen proposed divers things, which you may there meet with: and indeed his explication has appeared so improbable to those, that have written of this experiment, that I have not found it embraced by any of them, though, when divers of them opposed it, the phaenomena of our engine were not yet divulged. Not then needlessly to repeat what has been said already, I shall on this occasion only add one experiment, that I afterwards made, and it was this: having made the Torricellian experiment (in a straight tube) after the ordinary way, we took a little piece of a fine bladder, and raising the pipe a little in the stagnant mercury, but not so high as the surface of it, the piece of bladder was dexterously conveyed in the quicksilver, so as to be applied by one's finger to the immersed orifice of the pipe, without letting the air get into the cavity of it; then the bladder was tied very straight and carefully to the lower end of the pipe, whose orifice, as we said, it covered before, and then the pipe being slowly lifted out of the stagnant mercury, the impendent quicksilver appeared to lean but very lightly upon the bladder, being so near an exact æquilibrium with the atmospherical air, that, if the tube were but a very little inclined, whereby the gravitation of the quicksilver, being not so perpendicular, came to be somewhat lessened, the bladder would immediately be driven into the orifice of the tube, and to the eye, placed without, appear to have acquired a concave superficies instead of the convex it had before. And when the tube was re-erected, the bladder would no longer appear sucked in, but be again somewhat protuberant. And if, when the mercury in the pipe was made to descend a little below its station into the stagnant mercury, if, I say, at that nick of time, the piece of bladder were nimbly and dexterously applied, as before, to the immersed orifice, and fastened to the sides of the pipe, upon the lifting the instrument out of the stagnant mercury, the cylinder of that liquor being now somewhat short of its due height, was no longer able fully to counterpoise the weight of the atmospherical air, which consequently, though the glass were held in an erected posture, would press up the bladder into the orifice of the pipe, and both make and maintain there a cavity sensible both to the touch and the eye.

A. WHAT did you mainly drive at in this experiment?

B. To satisfy some ingenious men, that were more diffident of, than skilful in hydrostaticks, that the pressure of the external air is capable of sustaining a cylinder of twenty-nine or thirty inches of mercury; and upon a small lessening of the gravitation of that ponderous liquor, to press it up higher into the tube. But a farther use may be made of it against Mr. Hobbes's preterfion. For, when the tube is again erected, the mercury will subside as low as at first, and leave as great a space as formerly was left deserted at the top; into which, how the air should get to fill it, will not appear easy to them, that, like you and me, know by many trials, that a bladder will rather be burst by air than grant it passage. And if it should be pretended, either, that some air from without had yet got through the bladder, or, that the air, that they may presume to have been just before included between the bladder and the mercury, made its way from the lower part of the instrument to the upper; it is obvious to an-

swer, that it is no way likely, that it should pass all along the cylinder unseen by us; since when there are really any aerial bubbles, though smaller than pins heads, they are easily discernible. And in our case, there is no such resistance of the air to the ascension of the stagnant mercury, as Mr. *Hobbes* pretends in the Torricellian experiment made the usual way.

A. BUT, whatever becomes of Mr. *Hobbes's* explication of the phænomenon; yet may not one still say, that it affords no advantage to the vacuists against him?

B. WHETHER or no it do against other Plenists, I shall not now consider; but I doubt, the vacuists will tell Mr. *Hobbes*, that he is fain in two places of the explication, we have read, to suppose the plenitude of the world, that is, to beg the thing in question, which it is not to be presumed they will allow.

A. BUT may not Mr. *Hobbes* say, that it is as lawful for him to suppose a plenum, as for them to suppose a vacuum.

B. I think he may justly say so; but it is like they will reply, that, in their way of explicating the Torricellian experiment, they do not suppose a vacuum as to air, but prove it. For they shew a great space, that having been just before filled with quicksilver, is now deserted by it, though it appeared not, that any air succeeded in its room; but rather, that the upper end of the tube, is either totally, or near totally so devoid of air, that the quicksilver may without resistance, by barely inclining the tube, be made to fill it to the very top: whereas, Mr. *Hobbes* is fain to have recourse to that, which he knows they deny, the plenitude of the world, not proving by any sensible phænomena, that there did get in, through the quicksilver, air enough to fill the deserted part of the tube, but only concluding, that so much air must have got in there, because, the world being full, it could find no room any where else; which the vacuists will take for no proof at all, and the Cartesians, though Plenists, who admit an ethereal matter capable of passing through the pores of glass, will, I doubt, look upon but as an improper explication.

A. I remember on this occasion another experiment of yours, that seems unfavourable enough to Mr. *Hobbes's* explication; and you will perhaps call it to mind, when I tell you, that it was made in a bended pipe almost filled with quicksilver.

B. To see, whether we understand one another, I will briefly describe the instrument I think you mean. We took a cylindrical pipe of glass, closed at the upper end, and of that length, that being dexterously bent at some inches from the bottom, the shorter leg was made as parallel, as we could, to the longer: in this glass we found an expedient, (for it is not easy to do,) to make the Torricellian experiment, the quicksilver in the shorter leg serving instead of the stagnant quicksilver in the usual baroscope, and the quicksilver in the longer leg reaching above that in the shorter, about eight or nine and twenty inches. Then, by another artifice, the shorter leg, into which the mercury did not rise within an inch of the top, was so ordered, that it could in a trice be hermetically sealed, without disordering the quicksilver. And this is the instrument, that I guess you mean.

A. IT is so, and I remember, that it is the same with that, which in the paradox about suction you call, whilst the shorter leg remains unsealed, a travelling baroscope. But when I saw you make the experiment, that leg was hermetically sealed, an inch of air in its natural or usual consistence being left in the upper part of it, to which air you outwardly applied a pair of heated tongs.

B. YET that, which I chiefly aimed at in the trial, was not the phænomenon I perceive you mean; for my design was, by breaking the ice for them, to encourage some, that may have more skill and accommodation than I then had, to make an attempt, that I did not find to have been made by any; namely, to reduce the expansive force
of

of heat in every way included air, if not in some other bodies also, to some kind of measure, and, if it were possible, to determine it by weight. And I presumed, that, at least, the event of my trial would much confirm several explications of mine, by shewing, that heat is able, as long as it lasts, very considerably to encrease the spring or pressing power of the air. And in this conjecture I was not mistaken; for, having shut up, after the manner newly recited, a determinate quantity of uncompressed air, which (in the experiment you saw) was about one inch; we warily held a pair of heated tongs near the outside of the glass, (without making it touch the instrument, for fear of breaking it,) whereby the air being agitated, was enabled to expand itself to double its former dimensions, and consequently had its spring so strengthened by heat, that it was able to raise all the quicksilver in the longer leg, and keep up, or sustain, a mercurial cylinder of about nine and twenty inches high, when, by its expansion, it would, if it had not been for the heat, have lost half the force of its elasticity. But whatever I design in this experiment, pray tell me, what use you would make of it against Mr. Hobbes.

A. I believe, he will find it very difficult to shew, what keeps the mercury suspended in the longer leg of the travelling baroscope, when the shorter leg is unstopped, at which it may run out; since this instrument may, as I have tried, be carried to distant places, where it cannot with probability be pretended, that any air has been displaced by the fall of the quicksilver in the longer leg, which perhaps fell long before above a mile off. And when the shorter leg is sealed, it will be very hard for Mr. Hobbes to shew there the odd motions of the air, to which he ascribes the Torricellian experiment. For, if you warily incline the instrument, the quicksilver will rise to the top of the longer leg, and immediately subside, when the instrument is again erected, and yet no air appears to pass through the quicksilver interposed between the ends of the longer and the shorter leg. But that, which I would chiefly take notice of in the experiment, is, that upon the external application of a hot body to the shorter leg of the baroscope, when it was sealed up, the included air was expanded from one inch to two, and so raised the whole cylinder of mercury in the longer leg, and, whilst the heat continued undiminished, kept it from subsiding again. For, if the air were able to get unseen through the body of the quicksilver, why had it not been much more able, when rarified by heat, to pass through the quicksilver, than for want of doing so to raise and sustain so weighty a cylinder of mercury? I shall not stay to enquire on this occasion, how Mr. Hobbes will, according to his hypothesis, explicate the rarefaction of the air to double its former dimensions, and the condensation of it again; especially since, asserting that part of the upper leg, that is unfilled with the quicksilver, to be perfectly full of air, he affirms that, which I doubt he cannot prove, and which may very probably be disproved by the experiment you mention in the discourse about suction, where you shew, to another purpose, that in a travelling baroscope, whose shorter leg is sealed, if the end of the longer leg be opened, whereby it comes indeed to be filled with air, the pressure of that air will enable the subjacent mercury notably to compress the air included in the shorter leg.

B. I leave Mr. Hobbes to consider what you have objected against his explication of the Torricellian experiment; to which I shall add nothing, though, perhaps, I could add much, because I think it may be well spared, and our conference has lasted long already.

A. I will then proceed to the last experiment recited by Mr. Hobbes in his *Problemata de Vacuo*.

A. *Si phialam, collum habentem longiusculum, eandemque cum corpore praeter aerem vacuum ore sugas, continuoque phialae os aquae immergas, videbis aquam aliquousque ascendere*

dere in phialam. Quâ fieri hoc potest, nisi factum sit vacuum ab exuptione aeris, in cujus locum possit aqua illa ascendere?

B. Concesso vacuo, oportet quaedam loca vacua fuisse in illo aere, etiam qui erat intra phialam ante suctionem. Cur ergo non ascendebat aqua ad ea implenda absque suctione? is qui sugit phialam, neque in ventrem quicquam, neque in pulmones, neque in os è phiala exugit. Quid ergo agit? Aerem commovet, & in partibus ejus conatum sugendo efficit per os exeundi, & non admittendo, conatum redeundi. Ab his conatibus contrariis componitur circumitio intra phialam, & conatus exeundi quaquaversum. Itaque phialae ore aquae immerso, aer in subiectam aquam penetrat è phiala egrediens, & tantundem aquae in phialam cogit.

Praeterea vis illa magna suctionis facit, ut sugentis labra cum collo phialae aliquando arctissime cohaereant propter contactum exquisitissimum.

B. As to the first clause of Mr. Hobbes's account of our phænomenon, the vacuists will easily answer his question, by acknowledging, that there were indeed interspersed vacuities in the air contained in the vial before the suction; but they will add, there was no reason, why the water should ascend to fill them, because, being a heavy body, it cannot rise of itself, but must be raised by some prevalent weight or pressure, which then was wanting. Besides, that there being interspersed vacuities as well in the rest of the air, that was very near the water, as in that contained in the vial, there was no reason, why the water should ascend to fill the vacuities of one portion of air rather than those of another. But when once by suction a great many of the aerial corpuscles were made to pass out of the vial, the spring of the remaining air being weakened, whilst the pressure of the ambient air, which depends upon its constant gravity, is undiminished, the spring of the internal becomes unable to resist the weight of the external air, which is therefore able to impel the interposed water, with some violence, into the cavity of the glass, until the air, remaining in that cavity, being reduced almost to its usual density, is able, by its spring, and the weight of the water got up into the vial, to hinder any more water from being impelled up. For, as to what Mr. Hobbes affirms, that, *Is qui sugit phialam neque in ventrem quicquam, neque in pulmones, neque in os quicquam exugit*; how it will agree with what he elsewhere delivers about suction, I leave him to consider. But I confess, I cannot but wonder at his confidence, that can positively assert a thing so repugnant to the common sentiments of men of all opinions, without offering any proof for it. But I suppose they, that are by trial acquainted with sucking, and have felt the air come in at their mouths, will prefer their own experience to his authority. And as to what he adds that the person, that sucks, agitates the air, and turns it within the vial into a kind of circulating wind, that endeavours every where to get out; I wish, he had shewn us by what means a man, that sucks, makes this odd commotion of the air; especially in such vials as I use to employ about the experiment, the orifice of whose neck is sometimes less than a pin's head.

A. THAT there may be really air extracted by suction out of a glass, methinks you might argue from an experiment I saw you make with a receiver, which was exhausted by your pump, and consequently by suction. For I remember, when you had counterpoised it with very good scales, and afterwards by turning a stop-cock, let in the outward air, there rushed in as much air to fill the space, that had been deserted by the air pumped out, as weighed some scruples (consisting of twenty grains a-piece) though the receiver were not of the largest size.

B. You did well to add that clause; for, the *Magdeburgic* experiment, mentioned by the industrious *Schottus*, having been made with a vast receiver, the re-admitted air amounted to a whole ounce and some drachms. But to return to Mr. Hobbes. I fear

not,

not, that he will persuade you, that have seen the experiment he recites, that as soon as the neck of the vial is unstopped under water, the air, that whirled about before, makes a sally out, and forces in as much water. For, if the orifice be any thing large, you will, instead of feeling an endeavour to thrust away your finger, that stopped it, find the pulp of your finger so thrust inward, that a *Peripatetick* would affirm, that he felt it sucked in. And that intrusion may be the reason, why the lip of him, that sucks, is oftentimes strongly fastened to the orifice of the vial's neck, which Mr. *Hobbes* ascribes to a most exquisite contact, but without clearly telling us, how that extraordinary contact is effected. And when your finger is removed, instead of perceiving any air go out of the vial through the water, (which, if any such thing happen, you will easily discover by the bubbles,) you shall see the water briskly spring up in a slender stream to the top of the vial, which it could not do, if the cavity were already full of air. And to let you see, that when the air does really pass in or out of the vial immersed under water, it is very easy to perceive its motions, if you dip the neck of vial in water, and then apply to the globulous part of it either your warm hands or any other competent heat, the internal air being rarified; you shall see a portion of it, answerable to the degree of heat you applied, manifestly pass through the water in successive bubbles, whilst yet you shall not see any water get into the vial to supply the place deserted by that air. And if, when you have (as you may do by the help of sucking) filled the neck and part of the belly of the vial with water, you immerse the orifice into stagnant water, and apply warm hands to the globulous part as before, you will find the water in the vial to be driven out, before any bubbles pass out of the vial into the surrounding water; which shews, that the air is not so forward to dive under the water, (and much less under so ponderous a liquor as quicksilver,) as Mr. *Hobbes* has supposed.

A. THAT it is the pressure of the external air, that (surmounting the spring of the internal) drives up the water into the vial we have been speaking of, does, I confess, follow upon your hypothesis: but an experimentarian philosopher, as Mr. *Hobbes* calls you among others, may possibly be furnished with an experiment to confirm this to the eye.

B. You bring into my mind what I once devised to confirm my hypothesis about suction, but found a while since, that I had omitted it in my discourse about that subject. And therefore I shall now repeat to you the substance at least of the memorial, that was written of that experiment, by which the great interest of the weight of the atmospherical air in suction will appear, and in which also some things will occur, that will not well agree with Mr. *Hobbes*'s explication, and prevent some of his allegations against mine.

A. HAVING not yet met with an experiment of this nature, such an one, as you speak of, will be welcome to me.

B. WE took a glass bubble, whose long stem was both very slender and very cylindrical; then by applying to the outside of the ball or globulous part a convenient heat, we expelled so much of the air, as that, when the end of the pipe was dipped in water, and the inward air had time to recover its former coolness, the water ascended either to the top of the pipe or very near it. This done, we gently and warily rarified the air in the cavity of the bubble, 'till by its expansion it had driven out almost all the water, that had got up into the stem, that so it might attain, as near as could be, to that degree of heat and measure of expansion, that it had when the water began to rise in it. And we were careful to leave two or three drops of water unexpelled at the bottom of the pipe, that we might be sure, that none of the included air was by this second rarefaction driven out at the orifice of it; as the depression of the water so low assured us, on the
other

other side, that the included air wanted nothing considerable of the expansion it had when the water began to ascend into the pipe. Whilst the air was in this rarified state, we presently removed the little instrument out of the stagnant water into stagnant quicksilver, which in a short time began to rise in the pipe. Now, if the ascension of the liquor were the effect of nature's abhorrence of a vacuum; or of some internal principle of motion; or of the compression and propagated pulsion of the outward air by that, which had been expelled, why should not the mercury have ascended to the top of the pipe, as the water did before? But *de facto* it did not ascend half, or perhaps a quarter so far; and if the pipe had been long enough, as well as it was slender enough, I question, whether the mercury would have ascended (in proportion to the length of the stem) half so high as it did.

Now of this experiment, which we tried more than once, I see not, for the reason lately expressed, how any good account will be given without our hypothesis, but according to that it is clear.

A. I think I perceive, why you say so; for the ascension of liquors being an effect of the prevalency of the external air's pressure against the resistance it meets with in the cavity of the instrument, and the quicksilver being bulk for bulk many times heavier than water, the same surplussage of pressure, that was able to impel up water to the top of the pipe, ought not to be able to impel up the quicksilver to any thing near that height. And if it be here objected, as it very plausibly may be, that the raised cylinder of mercury was much longer than it ought to have been in reference to a cylinder of water, the proportion in gravity between those two liquors (which is almost that of fourteen to one) being considered; I answer, that when the cylinder of water reached to the pipe, the air possessed no more than the cavity of the globulous part of the instrument, being very little assisted to dilate itself by so light a cylinder as that of water: but when the quicksilver came to be impelled into the instrument by the weight of the external air, that pondrous body did not stop its ascent as soon as it came to be equiponderant to the formerly expelled cylinder of water; because, to attain that height, it reached but a little way into the pipe, and left all the rest of the cavity of the pipe to be filled with part of that air, which formerly was all shut up in the cavity of the bubble; by which means the air, included in the whole instrument, must needs be in a state of expansion, and thereby have its spring weakened, and consequently disabled to resist the pressure of the external air, as much as the same included air did before, when it was less rarified; on which account, the undiminished weight or pressure of the external air was able to raise the quicksilver higher and higher, till it had obtained that height, at which the pressure, compounded of the weight of the mercurial cylinder, and the spring of the internal air (now less rarified than before,) was equivalent to the pressure of the atmosphere or external air.

B. You have given the very explication I was about to propose; wherefore I shall only add, that, to confirm this experiment by a kind of inversion of it, we drove by heat a little air out of the bubble, and dipped the open end of the pipe into quicksilver, which by this means we made to ascend, till it had filled about a fourth part, or less, of the pipe, when that was held erected. Then carefully removing it without letting fall any quicksilver, or letting in any air, we held the orifice of the pipe a little under the surface of a glass full of water, and applying a moderate heat to the outside of the ball, we warily expelled the quicksilver, yet leaving a little of it to make it sure, that no air was driven out with it; then suffering the included air to cool, the external air was found able to make the water not only ascend to the very top of the pipe, and thence spread itself a little into the cavity of the ball, but to carry up before it the quicksilver, that had remained unexpelled at the bottom of the stem. And if in making

ing the experiment we had first raised, as we sometimes did, a greater quantity of quicksilver, and afterwards drove it out, the quantity of water, that would be impelled into the cavity of the pipe and ball, would be accordingly increased.

A. IN this experiment it is manifest, that something is driven out of the cavity of the glass, before the water or quicksilver begins to ascend in it: and here also we see not, that the air can pass through the pores of quicksilver or water, but that it drives them on before it, without sensibly mixing with them. In this experiment there appears not at all any circular wind, as Mr. *Hobbes* fancies in the sucked vial we are disputing of, nor any tendency outwards of the included air upon the account of such a wind; but, instead of these things, that the ascension of the liquors into the cavity of the pipe depends upon the external air, pressing up the liquors into that cavity, may be argued by this, that the same weight of the atmosphere impelled up into the pipe so much more of the lighter liquor, water, than of the heavier liquor, mercury.

B. You have said enough on this experiment; but it is not the only one I have to oppose to Mr. *Hobbes*'s explication: for, that there is no need of the fallying of air out of a vial, to make the atmospherical air press against a body, that closes the orifice of it, when the pressure of the internal air is much weakened; I have had occasion to shew some virtuosi, by sucking out, with the help of an instrument, a considerable portion of the air contained in a glass; for having then, instead of unstopping the orifice under water, nimbly applied a flat body to it, the external air pressed that body so forcibly against it, as to keep it fastened and suspended, though it were clogged with a weight of many ounces.

A. ANOTHER experiment of yours Mr. *Hobbes*'s explication brings into my mind, by which it appears, that, if there be such a circular wind, as he pretends, produced by suction in the cavity of the vial, it must needs be strangely lasting. For I have seen more than once, that, when you have by an instrument sucked much of the air out of a vial, and afterwards carefully closed it, though you kept the slender neck of it stopped a long time, perhaps for some weeks or months, yet when it was opened under water, a considerable quantity of the liquor would be briskly impelled up into the neck and belly of the vial. So that, though I will not be so pleasant with Mr. *Hobbes*, as to remind you on this occasion of those writers of natural magick, that teach us to shut up articulate sounds in a vessel, which being transported to a distant place, and opened there, will render the words, that are committed to it; yet I must needs say, that so lasting a circular wind, as, according to Mr. *Hobbes*, your experiments exhibited, may well deserve our wonder.

B. Your admiration would perchance increase, if I should assure you, that, having with the sun-beams produced smoke in one of those well-stopped vials, this circular wind did not at all appear to blow it about, but suffered it to rise, as it would have done if the included air had been very calm. And now I shall add but one experiment more, which will not be liable to some of the things, as invalid as they are, which Mr. *Hobbes* has alledged in his account of the vial, and which will let you see, that the weight of the atmospherical air is a very considerable thing; and which may also incline you to think, that, whilst Mr. *Hobbes* does not admit a subtiler matter, than common air, to pass through the pores of close and solid bodies, the air, he has recourse to will sometimes come too late to prevent a vacuum. The experiment, which was partly accidental, I lately found registered to this sense, if not in these words: [Having, to make some discovery of the weight of the air, and for other purposes, caused an æolipile, very light, considering its bulk, to be made by a famous artist, I had occasion to put it so often into the fire for several trials, that at length the copper scaled off by degrees, and left the vessel much thinner than when it first came out of the artificer's

rificer's hands; and a good while after, this change in the instrument being not in my thoughts, I had occasion to employ it, as formerly, to weigh how many grains it would contain of the air at such a determinate constitution of the atmosphere, as was to be met with, where I then chanced to be. For the making this experiment the more exactly, the air was, by a strong but warily applied fire, so carefully driven away, that, when clapping a piece of sealingwax to the pin-hole, at which it had been forced out, we hindered any communication betwixt the cavity of the instrument and the external air, we supposed the æolipile to be very well exhausted, and therefore laid it by, that, when it should be grown cold we might, by opening the orifice with a pin, again let in the outward air, and observe the encrease of weight, that would thereupon ensue: but the instrument, that, as I was saying, was grown thin, had been so diligently freed from air, that the very little that remained, and was kept by the wax from receiving any assistance from without, being unable, by its spring, to assist the æolipile to support the weight of the ambient air; this external fluid did, by its weight, press against it so strongly, that it compressed it, and thrust it so considerably inwards, and in more than one place so changed its figure, that, when I shewed it to the virtuosi, that were assembled at *Gresham-college*, they were pleased to command it of me to be kept in their repository, where I presume it is still to be seen.

OF THE
C A U S E
O F
A T T R A C T I O N by S U C T I O N,
A P A R A D O X.

P R E F A C E.

HAVING, about twelve years ago, summarily expressed and published my opinion of the cause of suction, and a while before, or after, brought to the Royal Society the glass instrument I employed to make it out; I desisted for some time to add any thing about a problem, that I had but occasionally handled: only, because the instrument, I mentioned in my *Examen* of Mr. *Hobbes's* opinion, and afterwards used at *Gresham-college*, was difficult enough to be well made, and not to be procured ready made, I did, for the sake of some virtuosi, that were curious of such things, devise a slight and easy made instrument, described in the following tract, chap. iv. in which the chief phænomena, I shewed before the Society, were easily producible. But afterwards the mistakes and erroneous opinions, that in print, as well as in discourse, I met with, even among the learned men, about suction, and the curiosity of an ingenious person, engaged me to resume that subject and treat of it, as if I had never before meddled with it, for the reason intimated in the beginning of the ensuing paper. And finding, upon the review of my latter *Animadversions* on Mr. *Hobbes's Problemata de Vacuo*, that some passages of this tract are referred to there, I saw myself thereby little less than engaged to annex that discourse to those animadversions.

madversions. And this I the rather consented to, because it contains some experiments, that I have not elsewhere met with, which, together with some other parts of that essay, may, I hope, prove of some use to illustrate and confirm our doctrine about the weight and spring of the air, and supply the less experienced than ingenious friends to our hypothesis, with more grounds of answering the latter objections of some learned men, against whose endeavours I perceive it will be useful to employ variety of experiments and other proofs, to evince the same truth; that some or other of these may meet with those arguments or evasions, with which they strive to elude the force of the rest.

THE title of the following essay may sufficiently keep the reader from expecting to find any other kind of attraction discoursed of, than that which is made by suction. But yet thus much I shall here intimate in general, that I have found by trials purposely made, that the examples of suction are not the only noted ones of attraction, that may be reduced to pulsion.

OF THE

CAUSE of ATTRACTION by SUCTION.

C H A P. I.

I MIGHT, Sir, save myself some trouble in giving you that account you desire of me about suction, by referring you to a passage in my Examen, I long since writ, of Mr. *Hobbes's Dialogus Physicus de Natura Aeris*, if I knew you had those two books lying by you. But because I suspect, that my Examen may not be in your hands, since it is almost out of print, and has not for some years been in my own; and because I do not so well remember, after so long a time, the particulars, that I writ there about suction, as I do in general, that the hypothesis I proposed, was very incidentally and briefly discoursed of, upon an occasion ministered by a wrong explication given of suction by Mr. *Hobbes*, I shall here decline referring you to what I there writ; and proposing to you those thoughts about suction, that I remember I there pointed at, I shall annex some things to illustrate and confirm them, that would not have been so proper for me to have insisted on in a short, and but occasional excursion.

AND I should immediately proceed to what you expect from me, but, that suction being generally looked upon as a kind of attraction, it will be requisite for me to premise something about attraction itself. For, besides that the cause of it, which I here dispute not of, is obscure, the very nature and notion of it is wont by naturalists to be either left untouched, or but very darkly delivered, and therefore will not be unfit to be here somewhat explained.

How general and ancient soever the common opinion may be, that attraction is a kind of motion quite differing from pulsion, if not also opposite to it; yet I confess, I concur in opinion, though not altogether upon the same grounds, with some modern naturalists, that think attraction a species of pulsion. And at least among inanimate bodies I have not yet observed any thing, that convinces me, that attraction cannot be reduced to pulsion; for, these two seem to me to be but extrinsical denominations of the same local motion, in which, if a moved body precede the movent, or tend to acquire a greater distance from it, we call it pulsion; and if, upon the score of the

motion, the same body follow the movent or approach to it, we call it attraction. But this difference may consist but in an accidental respect, which does not physically alter the nature of the motion, but is founded upon the respect, which the line, wherein the motion is made, happens to have to the situation of the movent. And that, which seems to me to have been the chief cause of men's mistaking attraction for a motion opposite to pulsion, is, that they have looked upon both the moving and moved bodies in too popular and superficial a manner, and considered in the movent rather the situation of the conspicuous, and more bulky part of the animal or other agent, than the situation of that part of the animal, or instrument, that does immediately impress that motion upon the mobile.

For those, that attentively heed this, may easily take notice, that some part of that body, or of the instrument, which by reason of their conjunction in this operation is to be looked on but as making one with it, is really placed behind some part of the body to be drawn, and therefore cannot move outwards itself without thrusting that body forward. This will be easily understood, if we consider, what happens when a man draws a chain after him; for though his body do precede the chain, yet his finger or some other part of the hand, wherewith he draws it, has some part or other, that reaches behind the fore part of the first link, and the hinder part of this link comes behind the antierior part of the second link; and so each link has one of its parts placed behind some part of the link next after it, till you come to the last link of all. And so, as the finger, that is in the first link, cannot move forwards, but it must thrust on that link, by this series of trusions the whole chain is moved forwards; and if any other body be drawn by that chain, you may perceive, that some part of the last link comes behind some part of that body, or of some intervening body, which, by its cohesion with it, ought in our present case to be considered as part of it. And thus attraction seems to be but a species of pulsion, and usually belongs to that kind of it, which, for distinction's sake, is called trusion, by which we understand that kind of pulsion, wherein the movent goes along with the moved body, without quitting it, whilst the progress lasts; as it happens, when a gardener drives his wheel-barrow before him without letting go his hold of it.

BUT I must not here dissemble a difficulty, that I foresee may be speciously urged against this account of attraction. For it may be said, that there are attractions, where it cannot be pretended, that any part of the attrahent comes behind the attracted body; as in magnetical and electrical attractions, and in that, which is made of water, when it is drawn up into springs and pumps.

I need not tell you, that you know so well, as that partly the Cartesians, and partly other modern philosophers, have recourse on this occasion, either to screwed particles and other magnetical emissions, to explicate phaenomena of this kind. And according to such hypothesis, one may say, that many of these magnetical and electrical effluvia come behind some parts of the attracted bodies, or at least of the little solid particles, that are, as it were, the walls of their pores, or procure some discussion of the air, that may make it thrust the moveable towards the loadstone or amber, &c. But if there were none of these, nor any other subtil agents, that cause this motion by a real, though unperceived pulsion; I should make a distinction betwixt other attractions and these, which I should then stile attraction by invisibles. But, whether there be really any such in nature, and why I scruple to admit things so hard to be conceived, may be elsewhere considered. And you will, I presume, the freelier allow me this liberty, if (since in this place it is proper to do it,) I shew you, that in the last of the instances I formerly objected, (that of the drawing up of water into the barrel of a syringe,) there is no attraction of the liquor made by the external air. I say then, that by the ascending rammer, as a part of which I
here

here consider the obtuse end, plug or sucker, there is no attraction made of the contiguous and subjacent water, but only there is room made for it, to rise into, without being exposed to the pressure of the superior air. For, if we suppose the whole rammer to be by divine omnipotence annihilated, and consequently incapable of exercising any attraction; yet, provided the superior air were kept off from the water by any other way, as well as it was by the rammer, the liquor would as well ascend into the cavity of the barrel; since (as I have elsewhere abundantly proved) the surface of the terraqueous globe being continually pressed on by the incumbent air or atmosphere, the water must be, by that pressure, impelled into any cavity here below, where there is no air to resist it; as by our supposition there is not in the barrel of our syringe, when the rammer, or whatever else was in it, had been annihilated. Which reasoning may be sufficiently confirmed by an experiment, whereby I have more than once shewn some curious persons, that, if the external air, and consequently its pressure, be withdrawn from about the syringe, one may pull up the sucker as much as he pleases, without drawing up after it the subjacent water. In short, let us suppose, that a man standing in an inner room does by his utmost resistance keep shut a door, that is neither locked nor latched, against another, who with equal force endeavours to thrust it open; in this case, as if one should forcibly pull away the first man, it could not be said, that this man, by his recess from the door he endeavoured to press outwards, did truly and properly draw in his antagonist, though upon that recess the coming in of his antagonist would presently ensue; so it cannot properly be said, that by the ascent of the rammer, which displaces the superior air, either the rammer itself, or the expelled air, does properly attract the subjacent water, though the ingress of that liquor into the barrel does thereupon necessarily ensue. And that, as the comparison supposes, there is a pressure of the superior air against the upper part of the sucker, you may easily perceive, if having well stopped the lower orifice of the syringe with your finger, you forcibly draw up the sucker to the top of the barrel. For if then you let go the rammer, you will find it impelled downwards by the incumbent air with a notable force.

C H A P. II.

HA V I N G thus premised something in general about the nature of attraction, as far as it is necessary for my present design; it will be now seasonable to proceed to the consideration of that kind of attraction, that is employed to raise liquors, and is by a distinct name called suction.

ABOUT the cause of this there is great contention between the New Philosophers, as they are stiled, and the Peripateticks. For the followers of *Aristotle*, and many learned men, that in other things dissent from him, ascribe the ascension of liquors upon suction to nature's abhorrence of a vacuum. For, say they, when a man dips one end of a straw, or reed into stagnant water, and sucks at the other end, the air contained in the cavity of the reed passes into that of his lungs, and consequently the reed would be left empty, if no other body succeed in the place it deserts; but there are only (that they take notice of) two bodies, that can succeed, the air and the (grosser liquor) the water; and the air cannot do it, because of the interposition of the water, that denies it access to the immersed orifice of the reed, and therefore it must be the water itself, which accordingly does ascend to prevent a vacuum detested by nature.

BUT many of the modern philosophers, and generally all the Corpuscularians, look upon this *Fuga Vacua* as but an imaginary cause of suction, though they do it upon very differing grounds. For, the atomists, that willingly admit of vacuities, pro-

perly so called, both within and without our world, cannot think, that nature hates or fears a vacuum, and declines her usual course to prevent it: And the Cartesians, though they do, as well as the Peripateticks, deny, that there is a vacuum, yet since they affirm not only, that there is none *in rerum natura*, but that there can be none, because what others call an empty space having three dimensions, hath all, that they think belonging to the essence of a body, they will not grant nature to be so indiscreet, as to strain herself to prevent the making of a thing, that is impossible to be made.

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THE Peripatetick opinion about the cause of suction, though commonly defended by the schools, as well modern as ancient, supposes in nature such an abhorrence of a vacuum, as neither has been well proved, nor does well agree with the lately discovered phænomenon of suction. For, according to their hypothesis, water and other liquors should ascend upon suction to any height to prevent a vacuum, which yet is not agreeable to experience. For I have carefully tried, that by pumping with a pump far more stanch than those, that are usually made, and indeed as well closed as we could possibly bring it to be, we could not by all our endeavours, raise water by suction to above 33 1-half foot. The Torricellian experiment shews, that the weight of the air is able to sustain, and some of our experiments shew, it is able to raise a mercurial cylinder equal in weight to as high a cylinder of water, as we were able to raise by pumping. For mercury being near 14 times as heavy as water of the same bulk, if the weight of the air be equivalent to that of a mercurial cylinder of 29 or 30 inches, it must be able to counterpoise a cylinder of water near fourteen times as long, that is, from thirty-four to near thirty-six foot. And very disagreeable to the common hypothesis, but consonant to ours, is the experiment, that I have more than once tried, and I think elsewhere delivered, namely; that, if you take a glass pipe of about three foot long, and, dipping one end of it in water, suck at the other, the water will be suddenly made to flow briskly into your mouth. But, if instead of water you dip the lower end into quicksilver, though you suck as strongly as ever you can, provided, that in this case, as in the former, you hold the pipe upright, you will never be able to suck up the quicksilver near so high as your mouth; so that if the water ascended upon suction to the top of the same pipe, because else there would have been a vacuum left in the cavity of it, why should not we conclude, that, when we have sucked up the quicksilver as strongly as we can, as much of the upper part of the tube, as is deserted by the air, and yet not filled by the mercury, admits, in part at least, a vacuum, (as to air) of which consequently nature cannot reasonably be supposed to have so great and unlimited an abhorrency, as the Peripateticks and their adherents presume. Yet I will not determine, whether there be any more than many little vacuities, or spaces devoid of air, in the cavity, so called, of the pipe unfilled by the mercury, (so that the whole cavity is not one entire empty space; it being sufficient for my purpose, that my experiment affords a good argument *ad hominem* against the Peripateticks, and warrants us to seek for some other cause than the *fuga vacui*, why a much stronger suction, than that, which made water ascend with ease into the sucker's mouth, will not also raise quicksilver to the same height or near it.

THOSE modern philosophers, that admit not the *fuga vacui* to be the cause of the raising of liquors in suction, do generally enough agree in referring it to the action of the sucker's thorax. For, when a man endeavours to suck up a liquor, he does by means of the muscles enlarge the cavity of his chest, which he cannot do, but at the same time he must thrust away those parts of the ambient air, that were contiguous to his chest, and the displaced air does, according to some learned men, (therein, if I mistake not, followers of *Gassendus*,) compress the contiguous air, and that the next

to it, and so outwards, till the pressure, successively passing from one part of the air to the other, arrive at the surface of the liquor; and all other places being as to sense full, the impelled air cannot find place, but by thrusting the water into the room made for it in the pipe, by the recess of the air, that passed into the sucker's lungs. And they differed not much from this explication, that, without taking in the compression of the ambient air made by the thorax, refer the phænomenon to the propagated motion or impulse, that is impressed on the air displaced by the thorax in its dilatation, and yet unable to move in a world perfectly filled, as they suppose ours to be, unless the liquor be impelled into as much of the cavity of the pipe, as fast as it is deserted by the air, that is said to be sucked up. But though I readily confess this explication to be ingenious, and such as I wonder not they should acquiesce in, who are acquainted but with the long known, and obvious phænomena of suction; and though I am not sure, but that in the most familiar cases the causes assigned by them may contribute to the effect; yet, preserving for *Cartesius* and *Gassendus* the respect I willingly pay such great philosophers, I must take the liberty to tell you, that I cannot acquiesce in their theory. For I think, that the cause of suction they assign, is in many cases not necessary, in others not sufficient. And first, as to the condensation of the air by the dilatation of the sucker's chest; when I consider the extent of the ambient air, and how small a compression no greater an expansion than that of the thorax is like to make, I can scarce think so slight a condensation of the free air can have so considerable an operation on the surface of the liquor to be raised, as the hypothesis I examine requires: and that this impulse of the air by a sucker's dilated thorax, though it be wont to accompany the ascension of the water procured by suction, yet is not of absolute necessity to it, will, I presume, be easily granted, if it can be made out, that even a propagated pulsion, abstracted from any condensation of air, is not so necessarily the cause of it, but that the effect may be produced without it. For suppose, that by divine omnipotence so much air, as is displaced by the thorax, were annihilated; yet I see not, why the ascension of the liquor should not ensue. For, when a man begins to suck, there is an æquilibrium, or rather æquipollency between the pressure, which the air, contained in the pipe, (which is shut up with the pressure of the atmosphere upon it,) has, by virtue of its spring, upon that part of the surface of the water, that is environed by the sides of the pipe, and the pressure, which the atmospheric air has, by virtue of its weight, upon all the rest of the surface of the stagnant water; so that, when by the dilatation of the sucker's thorax, the air within the cavity of the pipe comes to be rarified, and consequently lose of its spring, the weight of the external air continuing in the mean time the same, it must necessarily happen, that the spring of the internal air will be too weak to compress any longer the gravitation of the external, and consequently, that part of the surface of the stagnant water, that is included in the pipe, being less pressed upon, than all the other parts of the same surfaces must necessarily give way, where it can least resist; and consequently be impelled up into the pipe, where the air, having had its spring weakened by expansion, is no longer able to resist, as it did before. This may be illustrated by somewhat varying an instance already given, and conceiving, that within a chamber three men thrust all together with their utmost force against a door, (which we suppose to have neither bolt nor latch) to keep it shut, at the same time the three other men have just equal strength, and employ their force to thrust it open. For though, whilst their opposite endeavours are equal, the door will continue to be kept shut, yet if one of the three men, within the room, should go away, there will need no new force, nor other accession of strength to the three men, to make them prevail and thrust open the door
against.

against the resistance of those, that endeavoured to keep it shut, who are now but two.

AND here (upon the by) you may take notice, that, to raise water in suction, there is no necessity of any rarified and forcibly stretched rope, as it were, of the air, to draw up the subjacent water into the pipe, since the bare debilitation of the spring of the included air may very well serve the turn. And though, if we should suppose the air within the pipe to be quite annihilated, it could not be pretended (since it would not have so much as existence) that it exercises an attractive power; yet in this case the water would ascend into the pipe, without the assistance of nature's imaginary abhorrence of a vacuum, but by a mechanical necessity, plainly arising from this, that there would be a pressure of the incumbent atmosphere upon the rest of the surface of the stagnant water, and no pressure at all upon that part of the surface, that is within the pipe, where consequently there could be no resistance made to the ascension of the water, every where else strongly urged by the weight of the incumbent air.

I shall add on this occasion, that, to shew some inquisitive men, that the weak resistance within a vessel, that had but one orifice exposed to the water, may much more contribute to the ascension of that liquor into the vessel, than either the compression, or the continued or reflected impulse of the external air; I thought fit to produce a phenomenon, which by the beholders was without scruple judged an effect of suction, and yet could not be ascribed to the cause of suction, assigned by either of the sects of philosophers I dissent from. The experiment was this: by a way, elsewhere delivered, the long neck of a glass bubble was sealed up, and almost all the air had been by heat driven out of the whole cavity of the bubble or vial, and then the glass was laid aside for some hours, or as long as we pleased; afterwards the sealed apex of the neck was broken off under water. I demand now of a Peripatetic, whether the liquor ought to be sucked or drawn into the cavity of the glass, and why? If he says, as questionless he will, that the water would be attracted to hinder a vacuum, he would thereby acknowledge, that, till the glass was unstopped under water, there was some empty space in it; for, till the sealed end was broken off, the water could not get in, and therefore, if the *fuga vacui* had any thing to do in the ascension, the liquor must rise, not to prevent an empty space, but to fill one, that was made before. Nor does our experiment much more favour the other philosophers I dissent from; for in it there is no dilatation made of the sides of the glass, as in ordinary suction there is made of the thorax, but only there is so much air driven out of the cavity of the bubble, into whose room since neither common air nor water is permitted to succeed, it appears not, how the propagated and returning impulse, or the circle of motion, as to common air and water, does here take place. And then I demand, what becomes of the air, that has been by heat driven out, and is by the hermetical seal kept out of the cavity of the bubble? If it be said, that it diffuses itself into the ambient air, and mingles with it, that will be granted, which I contended for, that so little air, as is usually displaced in suction, cannot make any considerable compression of the free ambient air; for, what can one cubic inch of air, which is sometimes more than one of our glasses contains, do, to the condensation so much as of all the air in the chamber, when the expelled corpuscles are evenly distributed among those of the ambient? And how comes this inconsiderable condensation to have so great an effect in every part of the room, as to be able there to impel into the glass as much water in extent, as the whole air, that was driven out of the cavity of it? But if it be said, that the expelled air condensed only the contiguous or very neighbouring air, it is easy to answer, that it is no way probable, that the expelled particles of the air should not, by the differing motions of the ambient air, be quickly made to mingle with it, but should rather wait (which, if it did, we sometimes made it do for many hours)

hours) till the vessels, whence it was driven out, were unstopped again. But, though this could probably be pretended, it cannot truly be asserted. For if you carry the sealed glass quite out of the room or house, and unstop it at some other place, though two or three miles distant; the ascension of the water will (as I found by trial) nevertheless ensue; in which case I presume, it will not be said, that the air, that was expelled out of the glass, and condensed the contiguous or near contiguous air, attended the bubble in all its motions, and was ready at hand to impel in the water, as soon as the sealed apex of the vial was broken off. But I doubt not, but most of the embracers of the opinion I oppose, being learned and ingenious persons, if they had been acquainted with these and the like phænomena, would rather have changed their opinion about suction, than have gone about to defend it by such evasions, which I should not have thought worth proposing, if I had not met with objections of this nature publicly maintained by a learned writer, on occasion of the air's rushing into the exhausted Magdenburgic engine. But as in our experiment these objections have no place, so in our hypothesis the explication is very easy, as will anon be intimated.

C H A P. III.

HAVING thus shewn, that the ascension of water upon suction may be caused otherwise than by the condensation or the propagated pulsion of air contiguous to the sucker's thorax, and thrust out of place by it; it remains, that I shew, (which was one of the two things I chiefly intended) that there may be cases, wherein the cause, assigned in the hypothesis I am examining, will not have place. But this will be better understood, if, before I proceed to the proof of it, I propose to you the thoughts, I had many years since, and do still retain, about the cause of the ascension of liquors in suction.

To clear the way to the right understanding of the ensuing discourse, it will not be amiss here to premise a summary intimation of some things, that are supposed in our hypothesis.

WE suppose then first, without disputing either the existence or the nature of elementary air, that the common air we breathe in, and which I often call atmospherical air, abounds with corpuscles not devoid of weight, and endowed with elasticity or springiness, whereby the lower parts, compressed by the weight of the upper, incessantly endeavour to expand themselves, by which expansion, and in proportion to it, the spring of the air is weakened, (as other springs are wont to be) the more they are permitted to stretch themselves.

NEXT, we suppose, that the terraqueous globe, being environed with this gravitating and springy air, has its surface and the bodies placed on it, pressed by as much of the atmosphere, as either perpendicularly leans on them, or can otherwise come to bear upon them. And this pressure is, by the Torricellian and other experiments, found to be equivalent to a perpendicularly erected cylinder of about twenty-nine or thirty inches of quicksilver, (for the height is differing, as the gravity of the atmosphere happens to be various.)

LASTLY, we suppose, that air being contained in a pipe or other hollow body, that has but one orifice open to the free air, if this orifice be hermetically sealed, or otherwise (as with the mouth of one, that sucks) closed, the now included air, whilst it continues without any farther expansion, will have an elasticity equivalent to the weight of as much of the outward air, as did before press against it. For if the weight of the atmosphere, to which it was then exposed, had been able to compress it further, it would have done so, and then the closing of the orifice, at which the internal and external

ternal air communicated, as it fenced the included air from the pressure of the incumbent, so it hindered the same included air from expanding itself; so that, as it was shut up with the pressure of the atmosphere upon it, that is in a state of as great compression, as the weight of the atmosphere could bring it to, so, being shut up, and thereby kept from weakening that pressure by expansion, it must retain a springiness equipollent to the pressure it was exposed to before, which (as I just now noted) was as great, as the weight of the incumbent pillar of the atmosphere could make it. But if as was said in the first supposition, the included air should come to be dilated or expanded, the spring being then unbent, its spring, like that of other elastical bodies, would be debilitated answerably to that expansion.

To me then it seems, that, speaking in general, liquors are upon suction raised into the cavities of pipes and other hollow bodies, when, and so far as there is a less pressure on the surface of the liquor, in the cavity, than on the surface of the external liquor, that surrounds the pipe, whether that pressure on those parts of the external liquor, that are from time to time impelled up into the orifice of the pipe, proceed from the weight of the atmosphere, or the propagated compression, or impulse of some parts of the air, or the spring of the air, or some other cause, as the pressure of some other body quite distinct from air.

UPON the general view of this hypothesis, it seems very consonant to the mechanical principles. For, if there be on the differing parts of the surface of a fluid body unequal pressures, it is plain, as well by the nature of the thing, as by what has been demonstrated by *Archimedes*, and his commentators, that the greater force will prevail against the lesser, and that that part of the water's surface must give way, where it is least pressed. So that that, wherein the hypothesis I venture to propose to you, differs from that, which I dissent from, is not, that mine is less mechanical; but partly in this, that, whereas the hypothesis, I question, supposes a necessity of the protrusion or impulse of the air, mine does not require that supposition, but, being more general, reaches to other ways of procuring the ascension of liquors, without raising them by the impulse of the air; and partly, and indeed chiefly, in that the hypothesis, I decline, makes the cause of the ascension of liquors to be only the increased pressure of the air external to the pipe; and I chiefly make it to depend upon the diminished pressure of the air within the pipe, on the score of the expansion it is brought to by suction.

To proceed now to some experiments, that I made in favour of this hypothesis, I shall begin with that which follows:

WE took a glass-pipe beaded like a syphon, but so, that the shorter leg was as parallel to the longer, as we could get it made, and was hermetically sealed at the end: into this syphon we made a shift (for it is not very easy) to convey water, so that the crooked part being held downwards, the liquor reached to the same height in both the legs, and yet there was about an inch and a half of uncompressed air shut up in the shorter leg. This little instrument (for it was but about fifteen inches long) being thus prepared, it is plain, that according to the hypothesis I dissent from, there is no reason, why the water should ascend upon suction. For, though we should admit, that the external air were considerably compressed, or received a notable impulse, when the sucker's chest is enlarged; yet in our case, that compression, or protrusion, will not reach the surface of the water in the shorter leg, because it is there fenced from the action of the external air by the sides of the glass, and the hermetical seal of the top, and yet, if one sucked strongly at the open orifice in the longer leg, the water in the shorter would be depressed; and that in the longer ascended at one suck about an inch and half: of which the reason is clear in our hypothesis. For, the spring of the included air, together with the weight of the water in the shorter leg, and the pressure of the atmospherical air, assisted by the weight of the liquor in the longer leg, counter-

counter-balanced one another before the suction began: But when afterwards upon suction, the air in the longer leg came to be dilated, and thereby weakened, it was rendered unable to resist the undiminished pressure of the air included in the shorter leg, which consequently expanding itself by virtue of its elasticity, depressed the contiguous water, and made it proportionably rise in the opposite leg, till, by the expansion, its spring being more and more weakened, it arrived at an equipollency with the gravitation or pressure of the atmosphere. Which last clause contains the reason, why, when the person, that sucked, had raised the water in the longer leg, less than three inches higher by repeated endeavours to suck, and that without once suffering the water to fall back again, he was not able to elevate the water in the longer, so much as three inches above its first station. And if in the shorter leg, there was but an inch and a quarter of space left for the air unfilled by the water, by divers skilfully reiterated acts of suction, he could not raise the liquor in the longer leg above two inches; because, by that time, the air included in the shorter leg, had, by expanding itself further and further, proportionably weakened its spring, till at length it became as rarified, as was the air in the cavity of the longer leg, and consequently was able to thrust away the water with no more force than the air in the long leg was able to resist. And by the recited trial it appeared, that the rarefaction usually made of air by suction is not near so great, as one would expect, probably, because by the dilatation of the lungs, the air being still shut up, is but moderately rarified, and the air in the longer leg, can by them, be brought to no greater degree of rarity, than that of the air within the chest. For, whereas the included air in our instrument was not expanded, by my estimate, at one suck, to above the double of its former dimensions, and by divers successive sucks was expanded but from one inch and an half, to less than four inches and an half, if the suction could have been conveniently made with a great and staunch syringe, the rarefaction of the air would probably have been far greater; since in our pneumattick engine air may, without heat, and by a kind of suction, be brought to possess many hundreds of times the space it took up before. From this rarefaction of the air in both the legs of our instrument proceeds another phænomenon, readily explicable by our hypothesis. For if, when the water was impelled up as high as the suction could raise it, the instrument were taken from the sucker's mouth, the elevated water would with violence return to its wonted station. For, the air, in both the legs of the instrument, having by the suction lost much of the spring, and so of its power of pressing; when once the orifice of the longer leg was left open, the atmospherical air came again to gravitate upon the water in that leg, and the air, included in the other leg, having its spring debilitated by the precedent expansion, was not able to hinder the external air from violently repelling the elevated water, till the included air was thrust into the space it possessed before the suction; in which space it had density and elasticity enough to resist the pressure, that the external air exercised against it through the interposed water.

BUT our hypothesis about the cause of suction would not need to be solicitously proved to you by other ways, if you had seen what I have sometimes been able to do in our pneumattick engine. For, there we found, by trials purposely devised, and carefully made, that a good syringe being so conveyed into our receiver, that the open orifice of the pipe or lower part was kept under water; if the engine were exhausted, though the handle of the syringe were drawn up, the water would not follow it, which yet it would do, if the external air were let in again. The reason of which is plain in our hypothesis; for the air, that should have pressed upon the surface of the stagnant water, having been pumped out, there was nothing to impel up the water into the deserted cavity of the syringe, as there was, when the receiver was filled with air.

BUT because such a conveniency as our engine, and the apparatus necessary for such trials, are not easily procurable, I shall endeavour to confirm our hypothesis about suction, by subjoining some experiments, that may be tried without the help of that engine, for the making out these three things:

I. THAT a liquor may be raised by suction, when the pressure of the air, neither as it has weight nor elasticity, is the cause of the elevation.

II. THAT the weight of the atmospherical air is sufficient to raise up liquors in suction.

III. THAT, in some cases, suction will not be made, as, according to the hypothesis I dissent from, it should, although there be a dilatation of the sucker's thorax, and no danger of a vacuum, though the liquor should ascend.

AND first, to shew, how much the rising of liquors in suction depends upon the weight or pressure of the impellent body, and how little necessity there is, where that pressure is not wanting, that, in the place deserted by the liquor, that is sucked there should succeed air, or some other visible body, as the Peripatetic schools would have it; to shew this, I say, I thought on the following experiments. We took a glass pipe, fit to have the Torricellian experiment made with it, but a good deal longer than was necessary for that use: this pipe being hermetically sealed at one end, the other end was so bent, as to be reflected upwards, and make as it were the shorter leg of the syphon as parallel as we could to the longer, so that the tube now was shaped like an inverted syphon, with legs of a very unequal length. This tube, notwithstanding its inconvenient figure, we made a shift (for it is not easily done) to fill with mercury, when it was in an inclined posture, and then erecting it, the mercury subsided in the longer leg, as in the Torricellian experiment, and attained to between two foot and a quarter and two foot and an half above the surface of the mercury in the shorter leg, which in this instrument answers to the stagnant mercury in an ordinary barometer, from which to distinguish it, I have elsewhere called this syphon, furnished with mercury, a travelling baroscope, because it may be safely carried from place to place. Out of the shorter leg of this tube, we warily took as much mercury, as was thought convenient for what we had further to do; and this we did by such a way, as to hinder any air from getting into the deserted cavity of the longer leg, by which means the mercurial cylinder (estimated as I lately mentioned) retained the same height above the stagnant mercury in the shorter: the upper and closed part of this travelling baroscope, you will easily grant to have been free from common air, not only for other reasons, that have been given elsewhere, but particularly for this, that if you gently incline the instrument, the quicksilver will ascend to the top of the tube; which you know it could not do, if the place, formerly deserted by it, were possessed by the air, which, by its spring, would hinder the ascension of the mercury (as is easy to be tried.) The instrument having been thus fitted, I caused one of the by-standers to suck at the shorter leg, whereupon (as I expected) there presently ensued an ascension of four or five inches of mercury in that leg, and a proportionable subsidence of the mercury in the longer, and yet in this case the raising of the mercury cannot be pretended to proceed from the pressure of the air. For the weight of the atmosphere is fenced off by that, which closes the upper end of the longer tube, and the spring of the air has here nothing to do, since, as we have lately shewn, the space deserted by the mercury is not possessed by the included air, and the pulsion or condensation of the air, supposed, by divers modern philosophers, to be made by the dilatation of the sucker's chest,

chest, and to press upon the surface of the liquor, that are to be sucked up: this, I say, cannot here be pretended, in regard the surface of the liquor in the longer leg is every way fenced from the pressure of the ambient air. So that it remains, that the cause, which raised the quicksilver in the shorter leg, upon the newly recited suction, was the weight of the collaterally superior quicksilver in the longer leg, which being (at the beginning of the suction) equivalent to the weight of the atmosphere, there is a plain reason, why the stagnant mercury, in the shorter leg, should be raised some inches by suction; as mercury, stagnant in an open vessel, will be raised by the weight of the atmosphere, when the suction is made in the open air. For in both cases, there is a pipe, that reaches to the stagnant mercury, and a competent weight to impel it into the pipe; when the air in the cavity of the pipe has its spring weakened by the dilatation, that accompanied suction.

THE second point formerly proposed, which is, that the weight of the air is sufficient to raise liquors in suction, may not be ill proved by arguments, legitimately drawn from the Torricellian experiment itself, and much more clearly by the first and fifteenth of our continued physico-mechanical experiments. And therefore I shall only here take notice of a phenomenon, that may be exhibited by the travelling baroscope, which, though it be much inferior to the experiments newly referred to, may be of some use on the present occasion.

HAVING then provided an instrument like the travelling baroscope, mentioned under the former head, but whose legs were not so unequally long, and having in it made the Torricellian experiment, after the manner lately described, we ordered the matter so, that there remained in the shorter leg the length of divers inches unfilled with stagnant mercury. Then I caused one, versed in what he was to do, so to raise the quicksilver by suction to the open orifice of the shorter leg, that the orifice being seasonably and dexterously closed, the mercury continued to fill that leg, as long as we thought fit; and then, having put a mark to the surface of the mercury in the longer leg, we unstopped the orifice of the shorter; whereupon the mercury, that before filled it, was depressed, till the same liquor in the longer leg was raised five inches or more above the mark, and continued at that height. I said, that the mercury, that had been raised by suction, was depressed, rather than that it subsided, because its own weight could not here make it fall, since a mercurial cylinder of five inches was far from being able to raise so tall a cylinder of mercury, as made a counterpoise in the longer leg; and therefore the depression we speak of, is to be referred to the gravitation of the atmospherical air upon the surface of the mercury in the shorter leg: and I see no cause to doubt, but that, if we could have procured an instrument, into whose shorter leg a mercurial cylinder of many inches higher could have been sucked up, it would, by this contrivance, have appeared, that the pressure of the atmosphere would easily impel up a far taller cylinder of mercury, than it did in our recited experiment.

THAT this is no groundless conjecture, may appear probable by the experiment you will presently meet with. For, if the gravity of an incumbent pillar of the atmosphere be able to compress a parcel of included air, as much as a mercurial cylinder, equivalent in weight to between thirty and five and thirty foot of water, is able to condense it, it cannot well be denied, that the same atmospherical cylinder may be able, by its weight, to raise and counter-balance eight or nine and twenty inches of quicksilver, or an equivalent pillar of water in tubes, where the resistance of these two liquors, to be raised and sustained by the air, depends only upon their own unassisted gravity.

To confirm our doctrine of the gravitation of the atmosphere upon the surface of the liquors exposed to it, I will subjoin an experiment, that I devised to shew, that the

incumbent air, in its natural or usual state, would compress other air not rarified, but in the like natural state, as much as a cylinder of eight or nine and twenty inches of mercury would condense or compress it.

IN order to the making of this, I must put you in mind of what I have shewn elsewhere * at large, and shall further confirm by one of the experiments, that follows the next; namely, that about twenty-nine or thirty inches of quicksilver will compress air, that being in its natural or usual state (as to rarity and density) has been shut up in the shorter leg of our travelling or syphon-like baroscope, into half the room, that included air possessed before. This premised, I pass on to my experiment, which was this :

WE provided a travelling baroscope, wherein the mercury in the longer leg was kept suspended by the counterpoise of the air, that gravitated on the surface of the mercury in the shorter leg, which we had so ordered, that it reached not by about two inches to the top of the shorter leg. Then making a mark at the place, where the stagnant mercury rested, it was manifest, according to our hypothesis, that the air in the upper part of the shorter leg was in its natural state, or of the same degree of density with the outward air, with which it freely communicated at the open orifice of the the shorter leg; so that this stagnant air was equally pressed upon by the weight of the collaterally superior cylinder of mercury in the longer leg, and the equivalent weight of a directly incumbent pillar of the atmosphere. Things being in this posture, the upper part of the shorter leg, which had been before purposely drawn out to an almost capillary smallness, was hermetically sealed, which, though the instrument was kept erected, was so nimbly done by reason of the slenderness of the pipe, that the included air did not appear to be sensibly heated, though for greater caution we staid a while from proceeding, that, if any rarefaction had been produced in the air, it might have time to lose it again. This done, we opened the lower end of the longer leg, (which had been so ordered before, that we could easily do it, and without concussion of the vessel,) by which means the atmospherical air, gaining access to the mercury included in the longer leg, did, as I expected, by its gravitation upon it, so compress the air included in the shorter leg, that, according to the estimate we made with the help of a ruler, (for by reason of the conical figure of the upper part of the glass we could not take precise measures,) it was thrust into near half the room it took up before, and consequently, according to what I put you lately in mind of, endured a compression like that, which a mercurial cylinder of about twenty nine inches would have given it.

THIS experiment, as to the main of it, was for greater caution made the second time with much the like success; and though it had been more easy to measure the condensation of the air, if, instead of drawing out and sealing up the shorter leg of the instrument, we had contented ourselves to close it some other way; yet we rather chose to employ *Hermes's* seal, lest, if any other course had been taken, it might be pretended, that some of the included air, when it began to be compressed, might escape out at the not perfectly and strongly closed orifice of the leg, wherein it was imprisoned.

To make it yet further appear, how much the ascension of liquors by suction depends upon pressure, rather than upon nature's imaginary abhorrence of a vacuum, or the propagated pulsion of the air; I will subjoin an instance, wherein that presumed abhorrence cannot be pretended. This experiment was thus made :

A glass-syphon, like those lately described, with one leg far longer than the other, was hermetically sealed at the shorter leg, and then by degrees there was put in, at the orifice.

* See the Author's Defence of the Doctrine touching the Spring and Weight of the Air, against *Fr. Linus*, ch. v.

orifice of the longer leg, as much quicksilver, as by its weight sufficed to compress the air in the shorter leg into about half the room it possessed before; so that, according to the Peripatetick doctrine, the air must be in a state of preternatural condensation, and, that to a far greater degree, than (as I have tried) it is usually brought to by cold, intense enough to freeze water. Then measuring the height of the quicksilver in the longer tube above the superficies of that in the shorter, we found it not exceed thirty inches. Now, if liquors did rise in suction *ob fugam vacui*, there is no reason, why this quicksilver in the longer part of the siphon should not easily ascend upon suction, at least till the air in the shorter leg had regained its former dimensions, since it cannot in this place be pretended, that, if the mercury should ascend, there would be any danger of a vacuum in the shorter leg of the tube, in regard, that the contiguous included air is ready at hand to succeed, as fast as the mercury subsides in the shorter leg of the siphon. Nor can it be pretended, that, to fill the place deserted by the quicksilver, the included air must suffer a preternatural rarefaction or descension; since it is plain in our case, that on the contrary, as long as the air continues in the state, where-to the weight of the quicksilver has reduced it, it is kept in a violent state of compression; since in the shorter leg it was in its natural state, when the mercury, poured into the longer leg, did by its weight thrust it into about half the room it took up before. And yet, having caused several persons, one of them versed in sucking, to suck divers times as strongly as they could, they were neither of them able, not so much as for a minute of an hour, to raise the mercury in the longer leg, and make it subside in the shorter for more than about an inch at most. And yet to shew you, that the experiment was not favourably tried for me, the height of the mercurial cylinder in the longer leg above the surface of that in the shorter leg was, when the suction was tried, an inch or two shorter than thirty inches, and the compressed air in the shorter leg was so far from having been by the exsuction expanded beyond its natural and first dimensions, that it did not, when the contiguous mercury stood as low as we could make it subside, regain so much as one half of the space it had lost by the precedent compression, and consequently was in a preternatural state of condensation, when it had been freed from that state as far as suction would do it. Whence it seems evident, that it was not *ob fugam vacui*, that the quicksilver did upon suction ascend one inch; for, upon the same score it ought to have ascended two, or perhaps more inches, since there was no danger, that by such an ascension any vacuum should be produced or left in the shorter leg of the siphon; whereas, according to our hypothesis, a clear cause of the phaenomenon is assignable. For, before the suction was begun, there was an æquilibrium, or equipollency, between the weight of the superior quicksilver in the longer leg, and a spring of the compressed air included in the shorter leg; but when the experimentor began to suck, his chest being widened, part of the air included in the upper part of the longer leg passed into it, and that, which remained, had by that expansion its pressure so weakened, that the air in the shorter leg, finding no longer the former resistance, was able by its own spring to expand itself, and consequently to depress the contiguous mercury in the same shorter leg, and raise it as much in the longer.

BUT here a hydrostatician, that heedfully marks this experiment, may discern a difficulty, that may perhaps somewhat perplex him, and seems to overthrow our explication of the phaenomenon. For he may object, that if the compressed air in the shorter leg had a spring equipollent to the weight of the mercury in the longer leg, it appears not, why the mercury should not be sucked up in this instrument, as well as in the free air; since, according to me, the pressure of the included air upon the subjacent mercury must be equivalent to the weight of the atmosphere, and yet experience shews,

shews, that the weight of the atmosphere will, upon suction, raise quicksilver to the height of several inches.

To clear this difficulty, and shew, that, though it be considerable, it is not at all insuperable, be pleased to consider with me, that I make indeed the spring of the compressed air to be equipollent to the weight of the compressing mercury, and I have a manifest reason to do it; because, if the spring of the air were not equipollent to that weight, the mercury must necessarily compress the air farther, which it is granted *de facto* not to do. But then I consider, that in our case there ought to be a great deal of difference between the operation of the spring of the included air and the weight of the atmosphere, after suction has been once begun. For the weight of the atmosphere, that impels up mercury and other liquors, when the suction is made in the open air, continues still the same; but the force or pressure of the included air is equal to the counterpressure of the mercury, no longer than the first moment of the suction; after which, the force of the imprisoned air still decreases more and more, since this compressed air, being further and further expanded, must needs have its spring proportionably weakened; so that it need be no wonder, that the mercury was not sucked up any more than we have related; for there was nothing to make it ascend to a greater height, than that, at which the debilitated spring of the (included but) expanded air was brought to an equipollency with the undiminished, and indeed somewhat increased weight of the mercurial cylinder in the longer leg, and the pressure of the aerial cylinder in the same leg, lessened by the action of him, that sucked. For whereas, when the orifice of this leg stood open, the mercury was pressed on by a cylinder of the atmospherical air, equivalent to about thirty inches of quicksilver; by the mouth and action of him that sucked, the tube was freed from the external air, and by the dilatation of his thorax, the neighbouring air, that had a free passage through his wind-pipe to it, was proportionably expanded, and had its spring and pressure weakened: by which means, the compressed air in the shorter leg of the syphon was enabled to impel up the mercury, until the lately mentioned equilibrium or equipollency was attained. And I must here take notice, that, as the quicksilver was raised by suction but a little way, so the cylinder, that was raised, was a very long one; whereas, when mercury is sucked up in the free air, it is seldom raised to half that length; though, as I noted before, the impellent cause, which is the weight of the atmosphere, continued still the same, whereas in our syphon, when the mercury was sucked up but an inch, the compressed air, possessing double the space it did before, had by this expansion already lost a very considerable part of its former spring and pressure.

I should here conclude this discourse, but that I remember a phenomenon of our pneumatick engine, which to divers learned men, especially Aristotelians, seemed so much to argue, that suction is made either by a *fuga vacui*, or some internal principle, that divers years ago I thought fit to set down another account of it, and lately meeting with that account among other papers, I shall subjoin it just as I found it, by way of appendix to the foregoing Tract.

AMONG the more familiar phenomena of the *Machina Boyliana*, as they now call it, none leaves so much scruple in the minds of some sorts of men, as this, that when one's finger is laid close upon the orifice of the little pipe, by which the air is wont to pass from the receiver into the exhausted cylinder, the pulp of the finger is made to enter a good way into the cavity of the pipe, which doth not happen without a considerable sense of pain in the lower part of the finger. For most of those, that are strangers to hydrostaticks, especially if they be prepossessed with the opinions generally received, both in the Peripatetick and other schools, persuade themselves, that they

they feel the newly mentioned and painful protuberance of the pulp of the finger, to be effected, not by pressure, as we would have it, but distinctly by attraction.

To this we are wont to answer, that common air being a body not devoid of weight, the phænomenon is clearly explicable by the pressure of it: for, when the finger is first laid upon the orifice of the pipe, no pain nor swelling is produced, because the air, which is in the pipe, presses as well against that part of the finger, which covereth the orifice, as the ambient air doth against the other parts of the same finger. But when by pumping, the air in the pipe, or the most part of it, is made to pass out of the pipe into the exhausted cylinder, then there is nothing left in the pipe, whose pressure can any thing near countervail the undiminished pressure of the external air on the other parts of the finger; and consequently, that air thrusts the most yielding and fleshy part of the finger, which is the pulp, into that place, where its pressure is unresisted, that is, into the cavity of the pipe, where this forcible intrusion causeth a pain in those tender parts of the finger.

To give some visible illustration of what we have been saying, as well as for other purposes, I thought on the following experiment.

WE took a glass pipe of a convenient length, and open at both ends, whose cavity was near about an inch in diameter, (such a determinate breadth being convenient, though not necessary :) to one of the ends of this pipe we caused to be firmly tied on a piece of very fine bladder, that had been ruffled and oiled, to make it both very limber and unapt to admit water; and care was taken, that the piece of bladder tied on should be large enough, not only to cover the orifice, but to hang loose somewhat beneath it.

THIS done, we put the covered end of the pipe into a glass body, or cucurbit, purposely made more than ordinarily tall, and the pipe being held in such manner, as that the end of it reached almost, but not quite, to the bottom of the glass body, we caused water to be poured, both into this vessel, and into the pipe (at its upper orifice, which was left open) that the water might ascend equally enough, both without and within the pipe. And when the glass body was full of water, and the same liquor was level to it, or a little higher within the pipe, the bladder at the lower orifice was kept plump, because the water within the pipe did, by its weight, press as forcibly downwards, as the external water in the large glass endeavoured to press it inwards and upwards.

ALL this being done, we caused part of the water in the pipe to be taken out of it, (which may be done either by putting in and drawing out a piece of sponge or of linnen, or more expeditiously by sucking up part of the water with a smaller pipe to be immediately after laid aside;) upon which removal of part of the internal water, that, which remained in the pipe, being no longer able, by reason of its want of weight, to press against the inside of the bladder near as forcibly as it did before, the external water, whose weight was not lessened, pressed the sides and bottom of the bladder, whereto it was contiguous into the cavity of the pipe, and thrust it up therein so strongly, that the distended bladder made a kind of either thimble or hemisphere within the pipe. So that here we have a protuberance, like that above-mentioned of the finger, effected by pulsion, not attraction; and in a case, where there can be no just pretence of having recourse to nature's abhorrence of a vacuum, since the upper orifice of the pipe being left wide open, the air may pass in and out without resistance.

THE like swelling of the bladder in the pipe we could procure without taking out any of the internal liquor, by thrusting the pipe deeper into the water; for then the external liquor having, by reason of its increase of depth, a greater pressure on the outside

outside of the bladder, than the internal liquor had on the inside of it, the bladder must yield to the stronger pressure, and consequently be impelled up.

If the bladder lying loose at the lower end of the pipe, the upper end were carefully closed with one's thumb, that the upper air might not get out, until the experimenter thought fit, and if the thus closed pipe were thrust almost to the bottom of the water, the bladder would not be protuberant inwards, as formerly; because the included air, by virtue of its spring, resisted from within the pressure of the external water against the outside of the bladder: but if the thumb, that stopped the pipe's upper orifice, were removed, the formerly compressed air having liberty to expand itself, and its elasticity being weakened thereby, the external water would with suddenness and noise enough, not to be unpleasant to the spectators, drive up the bladder into the cavity of the pipe, and keep it there very protuberant.

To obviate an objection, that I foresaw might be brought in by persons not well versed in hydrostatics, I caused the pipe fore-mentioned, or such another, to be so bent near the lower end, as that the orifice of it stood quite on one side, and the parts of the pipe made an angle as near to a right one, as he, that blew it, could bring it to. This lower orifice being fitted with a bladder and the pipe, with its contained liquor, being thrust under water after the former manner, the lateral pressure of the water forced the bladder into the short and horizontal leg, and made it protuberate there, as it had done when the pipe was straight.

LASTLY, that the experiment might appear not to be confined to one liquor; instead of water, we put into the unbent pipe, as much red wine (whose colour would make it conspicuous) as was requisite to keep the bladder somewhat swelling outwards, when it was somewhat near the bottom of the water; and then it was manifest, that, according as we had foreseen, the superficies of the red liquor in the pipe was a good deal higher than that of the external water, and if the depth of both liquors were proportionably lessened, the difference of height betwixt the two surfaces would indeed, as it ought to happen, decrease, but still the surface of the wine would be the higher of the two, because, being lighter in specie than the common water, the æquilibrium between the pressures of the two liquors upon the bladder would not be maintained, unless a greater height of wine compensated its defect of specifick gravity. And if the pipe was thrust deeper into the water, then the bladder would be made protuberant inwards, as when the pipe had water in it. By which it appears, that these phænomena, without recourse to attraction, may be explicated barely by the laws of the æquilibrium of liquors,

NEW EXPERIMENTS

ABOUT THE

PRESERVATION of BODIES in VACUO BOYLIANO.

P R E F A C E.

MY willingness to make the bulk of the papers about the hidden qualities of the air less inconsiderable, by things, that were of affinity to the subject, inducing me to tumble over some of my *adversaria*, I met among them with divers loose notes, or short memorials of some experiments I made several years ago (and some of a fresher date) about the preservation of bodies by excluding the air. Wherefore I was easily persuaded to subjoin these to the additional experiments last recited. For it seems not yet clear, by what manifest quality the exclusion of the air should so much contribute to keep from putrefaction variety of bodies, that are usually found very much disposed to it. And therefore, till the cause of this preservation be further penetrated, it may not be altogether impertinent to mention some experiments relating to it. And though these be only such, as come now to hand, and were most of them set down rather as notes than relations; yet being faithfully registered, and most of them having been made in *Vacuo Boyliano* (as they call it) they will probably be new, and so perhaps not altogether useless to naturalists, who may vary them, and requite me for them, by trying the same experiments, I made by the removal of the air, by the bare exclusion of adventitious air. For sometimes through haste I did not, and sometimes for want of conveniency I could not try, whether the same phænomena would appear, if the same bodies were shut up with air in them, provided they were diligently kept from all commerce with the air about them.

E X P E R I M E N T I.

A PIECE of roasted rabbit, being exactly closed up in an exhausted receiver the sixth of *November*, was two months, and some few days after taken out, without appearing to be corrupted, or sensibly altered in colour, taste, or smell.

E X P E R I M E N T II.

A SMALL glass-receiver, being half filled with pieces of white-bread, (part crust and part crumb) was exhausted, and secured the eleventh of *March*: the receiver being opened the first of *April*, part of the bread was shaken out, and appeared not to have been considerably, if at all sensibly, impaired in that time, save, that the outside of some pieces of crumb seemed to be a little, and but a little, less soft and white than before. There appeared no drops, or the least dew on the inside of the glass. The remaining bread was again secured soon after.

THE eighteenth of *April*, the bread was taken out again, and tasted much as it did the last time, the crust being also soft, and no drops of water appearing on the inside of the glass.

E X P E R I M E N T III.

THIS day (being the ninth of *March*) I opened a small exhausted and secured receiver, wherein, about the ninth of *December*, that is, about three months ago, we

had included some milk: upon opening an access to the air, we found the milk well coloured, and turned partly into a kind of whey, and partly into a kind of soft curd. The taste was not offensive, only a little sourish like whey, and the smell was not at all stinking, but somewhat like that of sourish milk.

EXPERIMENT IV.

THE violet-leaves, that were put up, and freed and secured from air the fifth of *March*, being this day opened, (*April* the seventh) appeared not to have changed their shape, or colour, or consistence: for, as for their odour, it could not be well judged of, because he that included them had, for his own ease, contrary to my express direction, crushed many of them together in thrusting them down; and by such a violation of their texture, it is natural for violets to lose their fragrancy, and acquire an earthly smell.

EXPERIMENT V.

HAVING carefully placed some violets in an exhausted receiver, of a convenient size and bigness, and secured it from immediate commerce with the external air; the seventh month after we looked upon them again, and found they were not putrified, or resolved into any mucilaginous substance, but kept their shape entire, some of them retaining their colour, but more of them having so lost it, as to look like white-violets.

EXPERIMENT VI.

NOVEMBER the fifth, we conveyed into a convenient shaped receiver some ounces of sheep's-blood, taken from an animal, that had been killed that afternoon. And after the exhaustion of the air, during which store of bubbles were generated in the liquor, that made it swell notably, the included blood was kept in a place, (whose warmth we judged equal to that of a digestive furnace) for twenty days; for one or two of the first of which, the blood seem to continue fluid, and of a florid colour, which afterwards degenerated into one, that tended more to blackness. On the twenty-fifth of *November*, we came to let in the external air, and found it to rush into the receiver, and the glass containing the blood, being held in a lightsome place, the most part of the bottom of it seemed to be thinly overlaid with a coagulated substance, of a higher colour than that, which swam above it, which yet, though it appeared dark, and almost blackish in the glass, whilst it was looked on in the bulk, yet, if it was shook, those parts of it, that fell down along the inside of the glass, appeared of a deep, but fair colour. But whilst the blood continued in the glass, it was supposed not to stink, since, even when it was poured out, though its smell seemed to me (whose organs of smelling are tender) to have I know not what, that was offensive, yet to others it seemed to smell but as the blood of a newly killed dog.

EXPERIMENT VII.

SOME cream being put up and secured the seventeenth of *March*, in an exhausted receiver, did this day appear to be more thick, and almost butter-like at the top (whose superficies seemed rugged) than otherwise; and afterwards by being well shaken together in the not inconveniently shaped glass, was easily enough reduced to butter, whose butter-milk, by the judgment of those, who were more used to deal in it than I, appeared not differing from ordinary butter-milk. And I found it had, like that, a grateful sourness. The butter was judged to be a little sourer than ordinary, but was not, as they speak, made.

[In the entry of this experiment, blanks were left for the years; but the tenor of the words, and design of the experiment, and other circumstances, assure me, that the cream continued a year in the vessel.]

EXPERIMENT VIII.

FEBRUARY the eighteenth, we looked again upon three vials, that had been exhausted and secured the fifteenth of *September* last; the one of these had in it some slices of roasted beef, and the other some shivers of white bread, and the last some thin pieces of cheese; all which seemed to be free from putrefaction, and looked much as they did, when they were first put up: wherefore we thought not fit to let the air into the receiver, but left them as they were, to lengthen the designed trial.

EXPERIMENT IX.

FEBRUARY the eighteenth, there was a fourth vial, wherein, about six months before, viz. *August* the twelfth, had been inclosed and secured some July flowers and a rose; and yet these being kept in the same place with the rest, though they seemed a little moist, retained their shape and colour, especially the rose, which looked fresh enough to seem to have been gathered but lately.

N. B. THAT we observed not in any of these four receivers any great drops, or so much as dew in the upper parts, viz. those, that were situated above the included matter.

EXPERIMENT X.

JUNE the fourth, we left some strawberries in an exhausted receiver, and coming to look upon them after the beginning of *November*, we found them to be discoloured, but not altered in shape, nor affording any sign of corruption, by being at all mouldy; wherefore we thought fit to leave them still in the receiver for further trial.

EXPERIMENT XI.

MAY the second, 1669, a piece of roasted beef, secured *September* the fifteenth, appeared to be not at all altered: as did likewise a piece of cheese secured in another receiver; and some pieces of a French rose the same day (*September* the fifteenth) secured in a third.

N. B. THE flowers sealed up *August* the twelfth, 1668, being this day looked upon, appeared fresh, and consequently did so, after having been kept eight months and an half.

EXPERIMENT XII.

THERE was taken beer of eight shillings a barrel, of a year old, near a pint of which, *June* the seventeenth, was put into a convenient shaped glass, and it was afterwards exhausted and secured from the air; the most part of the month of *August* proved extraordinarily hot. Towards the latter end, there was, at several times, great thunder, which made the beer in our cellar, and in most of those of the neighbourhood, turn sour. The first of *September* the beer was opened, but did not seem to have degenerated into any sourness.

EXPERIMENT XIII.

BEING desirous to try, whether the thunder would have such effect upon ale, exactly stopped in glass vessels, as it often has on that liquor in the ordinary wooden casks, I caused some ale, moderately strong, to be put into a conveniently shaped receiver; and

had included some milk: upon opening an access to the air, we found the milk well coloured, and turned partly into a kind of whey, and partly into a kind of soft curd. The taste was not offensive, only a little sourish like whey, and the smell was not at all stinking, but somewhat like that of sourish milk.

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NOVEMBER the fifth, we conveyed into a convenient shaped receiver some ounces of sheep's-blood, taken from an animal, that had been killed that afternoon. And after the exhaustion of the air, during which store of bubbles were generated in the liquor, that made it swell notably, the included blood was kept in a place, (whose warmth we judged equal to that of a digestive furnace) for twenty days; for one or two of the first of which, the blood seem to continue fluid, and of a florid colour, which afterwards degenerated into one, that tended more to blackness. On the twenty-fifth of *November*, we came to let in the external air, and found it to rush into the receiver, and the glass containing the blood, being held in a lightsome place, the most part of the bottom of it seemed to be thinly overlaid with a coagulated substance, of a higher colour than that, which swam above it, which yet, though it appeared dark, and almost blackish in the glass, whilst it was looked on in the bulk, yet, if it was shook, those parts of it, that fell down along the inside of the glass, appeared of a deep, but fair colour. But whilst the blood continued in the glass, it was supposed not to stink, since, even when it was poured out, though its smell seemed to me (whose organs of smelling are tender) to have I know not what, that was offensive, yet to others it seemed to smell but as the blood of a newly killed dog.

EXPERIMENT VII.

SOME cream being put up and secured the seventeenth of *March*, in an exhausted receiver, did this day appear to be more thick, and almost butter-like at the top (whose superficies seemed rugged) than otherwise; and afterwards by being well shaken together in the not inconveniently shaped glass, was easily enough reduced to butter, whose butter-milk, by the judgment of those, who were more used to deal in it than I, appeared not differing from ordinary butter-milk. And I found it had, like that, a grateful sourness. The butter was judged to be a little sourer than ordinary, but was not, as they speak, made.

[In the entry of this experiment, blanks were left for the years ; but the tenor of the words, and design of the experiment, and other circumstances, assure me, that the cream continued a year in the vessel.]

EXPERIMENT VIII.

FEBRUARY the eighteenth, we looked again upon three vials, that had been exhausted and secured the fifteenth of *September* last; the one of these had in it some slices of roasted beef, and the other some shivers of white bread, and the last some thin pieces of cheese; all which seemed to be free from putrefaction, and looked much as they did, when they were first put up: wherefore we thought not fit to let the air into the receiver, but left them as they were, to lengthen the designed trial.

EXPERIMENT IX.

FEBRUARY the eighteenth, there was a fourth vial, wherein, about six months before, viz. *August* the twelfth, had been inclosed and secured some July flowers and a rose; and yet these being kept in the same place with the rest, though they seemed a little moist, retained their shape and colour, especially the rose, which looked fresh enough to seem to have been gathered but lately.

N. B. THAT we observed not in any of these four receivers any great drops, or so much as dew in the upper parts, viz. those, that were situated above the included matter.

EXPERIMENT X.

JUNE the fourth, we left some strawberries in an exhausted receiver, and coming to look upon them after the beginning of *November*, we found them to be discoloured, but not altered in shape, nor affording any sign of corruption, by being at all mouldy; wherefore we thought fit to leave them still in the receiver for further trial.

EXPERIMENT XI.

MAY the second, 1669, a piece of roasted beef, secured *September* the fifteenth, appeared to be not at all altered: as did likewise a piece of cheese secured in another receiver; and some pieces of a French rose the same day (*September* the fifteenth) secured in a third.

N. B. THE flowers sealed up *August* the twelfth, 1668, being this day looked upon, appeared fresh, and consequently did so, after having been kept eight months and an half.

EXPERIMENT XII.

THERE was taken beer of eight shillings a barrel, of a year old, near a pint of which, *June* the seventeenth, was put into a convenient shaped glass, and it was afterwards exhausted and secured from the air; the most part of the month of *August* proved extraordinarily hot. Towards the latter end, there was, at several times, great thunder, which made the beer in our cellar, and in most of those of the neighbourhood, turn sour. The first of *September* the beer was opened, but did not seem to have degenerated into any sourness.

EXPERIMENT XIII.

BEING desirous to try, whether the thunder would have such effect upon ale, exactly stopped in glass vessels, as it often has on that liquor in the ordinary wooden casks, I caused some ale, moderately strong, to be put into a conveniently shaped receiver; and

having exhausted the air, and secured a glass vessel, it was put into a quiet, but not cool, place: last week, which was about six weeks after the liquor had been inclosed, there happening some very loud thunder, and our beer, though the cask was kept in a good cellar, being generally noted to have been turned sour after this thunder; I staid yet a day or two longer, that the operation upon our included liquor might be the more certain and manifest; and then, permitting an access to the outward air, we took out the ale, and found it to be good drink, and not at all soured.

COMPARE this with the wish made in the Essay of the great efficacy of effluvia, chap. V. that such an experiment should be tried.

EXPERIMENT XIV.

SEPTEMBER the twenty-first, 1670, some blackberries, included in an exhausted receiver, were opened *June* the twentieth, 1673, and were found free from all mouldiness and ill-scent; only there was found some liquor, that was sour, which being taken out, the berries were secured again.

[AT the same time, was another parcel of the same berries exactly closed up in a receiver, whence the air was not pumped, to try what difference in the event would appear by this variation. But, coming in *October* the eleventh, 1673, to look upon the glass, we found it cracked, and the fruit all covered over with a thick mould. Nor was this the only vessel, wherein trials, made to preserve fruits, without any exhaustion of the air, miscarried.]

OCTOBER the eleventh, 1674, the same berries, being looked upon, appeared to have their colour altered, and much less black than before; but did not appear putrefied by either loss of shape, or by any stinking smell, nor was the least mouldiness observed to be on them, though they had been kept in the same receiver above four years.

THAT *fructus borarii*, especially so tender and juicy ones, should, without any additament, be preserved from putrefaction so many times longer than otherwise they would have lasted; as it is more than would be expected, so it may give hopes, that both odd and useful things of this kind, may be this way performed.

P O S T S C R I P T.

THE foregoing experiments, as the memorials themselves declare, were all of them made *in vacuo Boyleano*, nor did I intend to set down any other: but meeting, among those memorials, with a short account of a couple of trials made without the help of our pneumatic engine, I was induced to annex them, because many may make the like, that will not be able to make such as have been hitherto recited. And these two requiring no peculiarly shaped vessels, it is thought, it may prove of some oeconomical, as well as physical use; if it be shewn by experience, that liquors hermetically sealed the ordinary way in common bolt-heads, may be kept from souring very much beyond their usual time of lasting.

JUNE the fourteenth, we put a convenient quantity of good ale into a bolt-head, and sealed it up hermetically; the next year, on the fifth of *July*, we broke off the seal, and found the liquor very good, and without any sensible sourness. The next day it was sealed up again, and set by for thirteen months, at which time the neck of the glass being broken, the ale was found pretty sour, and therefore the trial was prosecuted no farther: so that, though this liquor would not by this way of preservation be kept from souring so long as the wine, to be mentioned in the following experiment, yet even a small quantity of it was preserved good at the least above a year, which is very much longer than ale is wont to keep from souring.

JUNE the fourteenth, 1670, in a large bolt-head was hermetically sealed up about a pint, by guess, of French claret wine, which, when we came to look upon, *July* the fifth, 1671, appeared very clear and high coloured and had deposited store of feces at the bottom of the glass, but fastened no tartar, that we could perceive to the sides. Upon the breaking of the sealed end of the glass, the bystanders thought, that there was an eruption of included air or steams, and, above the surface of the wine, there appeared, to a pretty height, a certain white smoke almost like a mist, and then gradually vanished: the wine continued well-tasted, and was a little rough upon the tongue, but not at all sour,

THE bolt-head was sealed up again *July* the sixth, 1671, and so set by till *August* the fifth, 1672, at which time it was opened again, and then the wine did still taste very well.

JUNE the twenty-sixth, 1673, the bolt-head, with the same claret wine, was opened, and was found very good, and was sealed up again.

OCTOBER the eleventh, 1674, the same claret wine was opened again, and appeared of a good colour, not sour, but seemed somewhat less spirituous than other good claret wine, perhaps because of the cold weather.

THIS, and the foregoing trial about the preservation of ale, were made in Mr. *Oldenburg's* house, and presence.

An Account of the Two Sorts of the HELMONTIAN LAUDANUM,
together with the Way of the Noble Baron *F. M. Van Helmont*, (Son to the famous *Johannes Baptista*) of Preparing his
LAUDANUM.

First published in the PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS, N^o. cvii. p. 147, for
October 26, 1674.

AS for the Helmontian Laudanum, you may use your own liberty in suspecting, the receipts, that go about of it. For the name itself seems ambiguous to me, who am well informed, that there are two sorts of the Helmontian Laudanum; the one used by the elder *Helmont*, the other by his son. The former was as a great secret communicated to me by an expert chemist, sent by a German prince to compliment *Johannes Baptista Van Helmont*, some of whose manuscripts (one of which perished in the fire of *London*,) he procured, together with a way of making his Laudanum, which, having received from him fourteen or fifteen years ago, I carefully prepared, and thought my labour so well recompensed by the extraordinary operations it had, not so much in my hands, as those of learned physicians and others, to whom I presented portions of it, that I should have thought the chemist a benefactor to physic, if he would have made publick, or permitted me to publish the way of making so successful a medicine. And though the access to my laboratory was so free to ingenious men, who knew such a medicine to be preparing there, that some of them might easily suppose themselves masters of the secret; yet my justice to the communicator, who made a great and deserved benefit of the laudanum, made me take that care to conceal some circumstances, that men may easily be much more confident than sure, that they have

have the right way of making the medicine. Which because I durst not communicate, meeting two years ago with that obliging and very ingenious person, *F. M. baron Van Helmont*, son to the famous *Jobannes Baptista*, I obtained from him, by word of mouth, some directions about the laudanum he uses, which though he confessed, and I soon perceived to be differing from his father's, yet he seemed to think it not inferior and more parable. But he having, for a certain reason, imparted to me his process only by word of mouth; lest it should slip out of my memory, I soon after committed it to writing, as the particulars I gathered from his writing occurred to me; and at the next season caused the medicine to be prepared in my laboratory, where the progress was often watched in my absence by a very learned and industrious London doctor, who having, at my request, made many trials with it, and in some cases, where other laudanums had been found unavailable, both uses it, and commends it, more than I could expect from so wary and judicious a man. This medicine being somewhat more cheap and easy to be made than the elder *Helmont's*, the experience of its efficacy made me desire of the younger a permission to communicate it for the publick good, and to prevent those spurious receipts, that go about of the Helmontian laudanum: which request of mine being almost as soon granted as made, I think myself bound both to his own readiness, to oblige the publick, and to acquaint them with his way of making so a considerable medicine, as I practised it; though if I had received his directions in writing, they might have been more full and methodical. But though I perceived, that he sometimes a little varies his preparations; yet that laudanum proving very successful, that was made according to the annexed paper, I think it will not be amiss to keep to that: which I wish could have been published, before the season of the quinces were so far advanced. And I shall the more hope it may come abroad before it be quite too late, if you please to afford it room in the papers, wherewith I am informed you intend this week to gratify the curious:

Laudanum Helmontii Junioris.

TAKE of opium a quarter of a pound, and of the juice of quinces four pound at least **; the opium being cut into very thin slices, and then as it were minced, to reduce it into smaller parts, is to be put into, and well mixed with, the liquor, (first made lukewarm) and fermented with a moderate heat for eight or ten days, rather more than less; then filter* it, and having infused in it of cinnamon, nutmeg and cloves, of each an ounce ||, let them stand three or four days more; if it be a full week, it may be so much the better; then filter § the liquor once more, having let it boil a whalm or two after the spices have been put in: this being done evaporate away the superfluous water to the consistence of an extract, or to what consistence you please.

LASTLY, incorporate very well with it two, or at most three ounces of the best saffron reduced to fine † powder.

ACCORDING to the consistence you desire to have your medicine of, you may order it so, as either to make it up into a mass of pills (in which form I have caused it to be given,) or keep it in a liquid form; but in this later case the evaporation must have been made more sparingly, that after the putting in of the ‡ saffron it may not grow too thick. In this form the dose may be from five or six drops to ten or fewer, according to circumstances; and of the pills a somewhat less quantity is required.

** (For near five pound would perhaps do better.) * (Which circumstance the author often omits, though I do not.)
 || (The author sometimes uses half an ounce more of each spice.) § Or strain it well through a canvass-bag. † (Some-
 times the author instead of the powder makes use of as much extract as can be obtained from that quantity of saffron. ‡ (Or
 its extract.)

Some **C O N S I D E R A T I O N S**
 ABOUT THE
RECONCILEABLENESS of REASON and RELIGION.

By *T. E.* a L A Y - M A N.

To which is annexed by the P U B L I S H E R,

A D I S C O U R S E of Mr. *B O Y L E*,

ABOUT THE
 P O S S I B I L I T Y of the R E S U R R E C T I O N.

The Publisher to the Reader.

THESE considerations about religion and reason, delivered by a person of an excellent genius and ability to consider the nature of the things he is wont to discourse upon, being fallen into my hands, nor being forbidden to publish them; I thought the subject so weighty, and the way of handling it both so discrete and solid, that I could not forbear recommending it to the press, being fully persuaded, the publick in general, as well as all persons in particular, that are concerned for the safety both of reason and religion, and consequently for their dignity as they are men, and their nobleness as they are Christians, will find sufficient cause to be pleased with the publication of it. To which I have nothing to add but that, whereas at the beginning of the following discourse there is mention made of its being to consist of two parts; one, to shew, that a Christian need not lay aside his reason; and the other, that he is not commanded to do so: the author thought fit to keep that paper, which concerned the latter, from now accompanying the former, which seems the most seasonable, and likeliest to make impressions on that sort of persons, whom he chiefly designs to persuade.

The P R E F A C E.

IT is the just grief, and frequent complaint of those, that take to heart the concerns of religion, that they see it now more furiously assaulted and studiously undermined than ever, not only by the vicious lives of men, but by their licentious discourses. I know, there have been vices in the world, as long as there have been men; and it is an observation as old as *Solomon*, *Eccles.* vii. 10. that men are apt to look upon their own times as worse than those, that preceded them. And because I remember too, that in reciting this complaint he disapproves it; I shall not dispute, whether other ages have been less faulty than this we live in: but this I think I may say with as much truth as grief, that among us here in *England*, the times, to which our memory can reach, have been less guilty, than the present time is, of a spreading and bold profaneness. For though many allowed themselves to court gold, and cups, and mistresses,
 little.

little less than now they do; yet these were still acknowledged to be faults even by those, that committed them, and the precepts and the counsels of religion were neglected or disobeyed, but not their authority thrown off or affronted; men retaining yet such a kind of respect for her, as the elder son in the parable did for his father, when, receiving a command from him to go and work in his vineyard, he answered, "I go, Sir," though he went not, *Matth.* xxi. 30. But now too many of the vicious do not only scandalously violate the laws of religion, but question the truth, and despise the very name of it. They rather chuse to imitate the rebels in the other parable, and say of religion what they did of their lawful king, when they insolently declared, "That they would not have him to reign over them," *Luke* xix. 14. They seek not to hide their sins, like *Adam*, but think either to cover or protect all others, by that greatest of all impiety; and instead of cheating conscience into silence, (as sinners, not impudent, are wont to do,) by deceitful promises of repenting hereafter of their sins, they endeavour to stifle or depose it, by maintaining, that repentance is a weakness of mind, and conscience ought not to be looked on as the vicegerent of a deity, whose very existence or providence they dispute.

AND that, which more troubled me, and made me most apprehend the spreading of this impiety, was, that it was propagated in a new way, that made me fear, the arguments not only of vulgar preachers, but even of learned divines themselves, would be much less fit than formerly to give a check to its progress. For, till of late, the generality of our infidels did; either as philologers, question the historical part of the scriptures, and perhaps cavil at some of the doctrines; or, if they employed philosophical arguments, as *Pomponatius* and *Vaninus* did, they borrowed them from *Aristotle*, or the Peripatetick school. And against both these sorts of adversaries, the learned champions of the Christian religion, such as *Vives*, *Mornay*, and *Grotius*, had furnished divines with good and proper weapons. For, the historical part of the scriptures, and especially the miracles, were strongly confirmable by competent testimonies, and other moral proofs, sufficient in their kind. And *Aristotle* being himself a dark and dubious writer, and his followers being on that account divided into sects and parties, which for the most part had nothing to alledge but his single authority, it was not difficult to answer the arguments drawn from the Peripatetick philosophy; and, if that could not have been done, it had not been difficult to reject the doctrines themselves as false or precarious. But our new libertines take another and shorter way, (though I hope it will not be a more prosperous one,) to undermine religion. For, not troubling themselves to examine the historical or doctrinal parts of Christian theology, in such a way as Jews, Pagans, Mahometans, would do; these deny those very principles of natural theology, wherein the Christian, and those other differing religions agree, and which are supposed in almost all religions, that pretend to revelation, namely, the existence and providence of a Deity, and a future state (after this life is ended.) For, these libertines own themselves to be so upon the account of the Epicurean, or other mechanical principles of philosophy; and, therefore, to press them with the authorities wont to be employed by preachers, is improper, since they are so far from paying any respect to the venerable fathers of the church, that they slight the generality of the heathen philosophers themselves, judging no writers worthy of name, but those, that, like *Leucippus*, *Democritus*, *Epicurus*, &c. explicate things by matter and local motion; and therefore it is not to be expected, that they should reverence any more the Peripatetick arguments of *Scotus* or *Aquinas*, than the homilies of *St. Augustine*, or *St. Chrysostom*; and to give *Aristotle* himself the title of the philosopher, were enough to make some of them conclude the ascriber were no philosopher. And this, by the way, may excuse me for not having brought into the following papers the sentences of the fathers

The P R E F A C E.

thers or the moralists, or the authority of *Aristotle*, or any of the school philosophers, which I should have declined to employ, though my frequent removes from place to place, when I was writing these papers, had not denied me the convenience of a library.

THINGS being at this pass, though the title of this discourse acknowledges the author of it to be a layman; yet I shall not beg pardon for the ensuing papers as for an intrenchment upon the ecclesiasticks. For besides that, though I know some functions, yet I know no truths of religion, that have the peculiarity of the shew bread under the law, *Matth. xii. 4.* with which it was lawful only for the priests to meddle; I will not so far mistrust the charity of churchmen, as not to suppose, that they will rather thank than blame any man, that being not altogether a stranger to this warfare, offers them his assistance against the common enemy in so important a quarrel, and so great a danger. The fathers, and other divines, being wont to compare the church militant to a ship, it will not be an improper extension of the comparison, to say, that, when the vessel is threatened with shipwreck, or boarded by pirates, it may be the duty, not only of professed seamen, but any private passenger, to lend his helping hand in that common danger. And I wish I were as sure, that my endeavours will prove successful, as I am, that such churchmen, as I most esteem, will think them neither needless nor unseasonable. Nay, perhaps my being a secular person may the better qualify me to work on those I am to deal with, and may make my arguments, though not more solid in themselves, yet more prevalent with men, that usually (though how justly, let them consider) have a particular pique at the clergy, and look with prejudice upon whatever is taught by men, whose interest is advantaged by having what they teach believed. And I was the more invited not to be a mere spectator, or a lazy deplorer of the danger I saw religion in, because it seemed not unlikely, that philosophical infidels, as they would be thought, would be less tractable to divines, though never so good humanists and antiquaries, than to a person, that reasons with them upon their own grounds, and discourses with them in their own way, having had a somewhat more than ordinary curiosity to acquaint himself with the Epicurean or Cartesian principles, and exercise himself in that philosophy, which is very conversant with things corporeal, and strives to explain them by matter and motion, and shakes off all authority (at least that is not infallible.) Upon such considerations as these, I complied with an occasion I had of solemnly asking reason the question, that *Joshua* once asked the angel, that appeared to him in the plains of *Jericho*, “Art thou for us, or for our adversaries?” *Josh. v. 14*; and of committing to paper those thoughts, that should occur to me on that subject. And this I the rather did, that I might thereby, as well contribute to my own satisfaction, as to that of my friends. For, as I think, that there is nothing, that belongs to this life, that so much deserves our serious care, as what will become of us when we are past it; so I think, that he, who takes a resolution, either to embrace or reject so important a thing, as religion, without seriously examining, why he does it, may happen to make a good choice, but can be but a bad chooser. And, that I might not exclude, by too early a method, those things, that, for aught I knew, might hereafter be pertinent and useful, I threw my reflections into one book, as into a repository, to be kept there only as a heap of differing materials, that, if they appeared worth it, they might be afterwards reviewed, and sorted, and drawn into an orderly discourse. But, before I began to do what I intended, a succession of accidents (wherewith it would not be proper to trouble the reader,) quite diverted me to employments of a very distant nature; so that these papers, being thrown by, did, for divers years, lie neglected, with many others, till at length the person, for whose perusal I, in the first place, designed them, joined with some other intelligent friends, to urge me to send them abroad, though I was not in a condition to give them the finishing

strokes, or so much as to fill up several of the blanks, my haste had made me leave to be supplied when I should be at leisure. And indeed, notwithstanding the just averseness I had from letting a piece so incomplete and uncorrected appear in this critical age; yet the hopes, they confidently gave me, that this piece, such as it is, might not be unacceptable nor useless, were not, I confess, altogether groundless.

NOVELTY being a thing very acceptable in this age, and particularly to the persons I am to deal with, to whom perhaps it is none of the least endearments of their errors, I despair not, that it will somewhat recommend these papers, to which I designed to commit not transcripts of what I thought they may have already met with in authors, but such considerations, as a serious attention, and the nature of the things I treated of, suggested to me; so that most of the things will perhaps be thought new; and some few things coincident with what they may have elsewhere met with, may possibly appear rather to have been suggested by considering the same subjects, to other authors and to me, than to have been borrowed by me of them. But some few things, I confess, I employ, that were commonly enough employed before, and, I hope, I may, in that, have done religion, no disservice; for having taken notice, that some of the more familiar arguments had a real force in them, but had been so unwarily proposed, as to be liable to exceptions, that had discredited them; I made it my care, by proposing them more cautiously, to prevent such objections, which alone kept their force from being apparent.

I was not unmindful of the great disadvantage this tract was likely to undergo, partly for want of a more curious method, and partly because my other occasions required, that if I published it at all, it must be left to come abroad unpolished and unfinished. But though this inconvenience had like to have suppressed this discourse; yet the force of it was much weakened by this consideration, that this immethodical way of writing would best comply with what was designed and pretended in this paper, which was, not to write a compleat treatise of the subject of it, but only to suggest about it some of those many considerations, that (questionless) might have occurred to (what I do not pretend to) an enlightened and penetrating intellect. And the loadstone, divers of whose phænomena are mentioned in the body of this little tract, suggested somewhat to me in reference to the publication of it, by exciting in me a hope, that, if this discourse have any thing near as much truth, as I endeavoured to furnish it with, that truth will have its operation upon sincere lovers of it notwithstanding the want of regularity in the method; as a good loadstone will not, by being rough and rudely shaped, be hindered from exercising its attractive and directive powers upon steel and iron.

As for the stile, I was rather shy than ambitious of bringing in the thorns of the school-men, or the flowers of rhetorick; for, the latter, though they had, of their own accord, sprung up under my pen, I should have thought improper to be employed in so serious and philosophical a subject: and as to the former, I declined them, in complaisance to the humour of my infidels, who are generally so prejudiced against the school-men, that scarce any thing can be presented them with more disadvantage than in a scholastick dress; and a demonstration will scarce pass for a good argument with some of them, if it be formed into a syllogism in mode and figure. That therefore, which I chiefly aimed at in my expressions, was significancy and clearness, that my reader might see, that I was willing to make him judge of the strength of my arguments, and would not put him to the trouble of divining in what it lay, nor inveigle him by ornaments of speech, to think it greater than it was. I was also led by my reason, as well as by my inclination, to be careful not to rail at my infidels: and though I have some cause to think, that many of them had their understandings debauched by their lives, and were seduced from the church, not by *Diagoras* or *Pyrrho*, but by *Bacchus* and

and *Venus*; yet I treat them, as supposing them to be what they would be thought, friends to philosophy: and being but a layman, I did not think myself obliged to talk to them, as out of a pulpit, and threaten them with damnation, unless they believed me, but chose to discourse to them rather as to erring virtuosi, than wicked wretches.

THIS moderation, that I have used towards them, will, I hope, induce them to grant me two or three reasonable requests; whereof the first shall be, that they would not make a final judgment of these papers, till they have perused them quite through: especially having in their eye what is declared in the preamble, where both the design and scope of the whole discourse, and what it does not pretend to, is expressed. The next thing I am to request of them, and my readers, is, that they would not have the meaner thoughts of my arguments, for not being proposed with the confidence, wherewith many writers are wont to recommend weaker proofs. For I wrote to intelligent men, and, in the judgment of such, I never observed, that a demonstration ceased to be thought one, for being modestly proposed; but I have often known a good argument lose of its credit by the invidious title of a demonstration. And I must further beg my readers, to estimate my design in these papers, by the title of them, in which I do not pretend to make religion trample upon reason, but only to shew the reconcileableness of the one to the other, and the friendly agreement between them. I am a person, who looking upon it as my honour and happiness to be both a man, and a Christian, would neither write nor believe any thing, that might misbecome me in either of those two capacities. I am not a Christian, because it is the religion of my country, and my friends; nor, because I am a stranger to the principles, either of the atomical, or the mechanical philosophy. I admit no man's opinions in the whole lump, and have not scrupled, on occasion, to own dissents from the generality of learned men, whether philosophers or divines: and when I chuse to travel in the beaten road, it is not, because I find it is the road, but because I judge it is the way. Possibly I should have much fewer adversaries, if all those, that yet are so, had as attentively and impartially considered the points in controversy, as I have endeavour to do. They would then, it is like, have seen, that the question I handle, is not, whether rational beings ought to avoid unreasonable assents, but whether, when the historical and other moral proofs clearly sway the scales in favour of Christianity, we ought to fly from the difficulties, that attend the granting of a Deity and Providence, to hypotheses, whether Epicurean, or others, that are themselves incumbered with confounding difficulties: on which account I conceive, that the question between them and me is not, whether they, or I, ought to submit to reason (for we both agree in thinking ourselves bound to that;) but whether they or I submit to reason the fullest informed, and least biassed by sensuality, vanity, or secular interest.

I reverence and cherish reason as much, I hope, as any of them; but I would have reason practice ingenuity as well as curiosity, and both industriously pry into things within her sphere, and frankly acknowledge, (what no philosopher, that considers, will deny,) that there are some things beyond it. And in these it is, that I think it as well her duty to admit revelation, as her happiness to have it proposed to her; and, even as to revelations themselves, I allow reason to judge of them, before she judges by them. The following papers will, I hope, manifest, that the main difference betwixt my adversaries and me is, that they judge upon particular difficulties and objections, and I upon the whole matter. And to conclude; as I make use of my watch to estimate time, when ever the sun is absent or clouded, but when he shines clearly forth, I scruple not to correct and adjust my watch by his beams cast on a dial; so, wherever no better light is to be had, I estimate truth by my own reason; but were divine revelation can

be consulted, I willingly submit my fallible reason to the sure informations afforded by celestial light.

I should here put an end to this long preface, but that, to the things, which have been said concerning what I have written of my own, I see it is requisite, that I add a few words about what I quote from other writers; especially because in this very preface I mention my having intended to entertain my friend with my own thoughts. Of the citations therefore, that my reader will meet with in the following papers, I have this account to give him: 1. That I had written the considerations and distinctions, to which they are annexed, before I met with these cited passages, which I afterwards inserted in the margin, and other vacant places of my epistle. 2. That these passages are not borrowed from books, that treat of the truth of the Christian religion, or of Christian theology at all, but are taken from authors, that write of philosophical subjects, and are by me applied to mine, which are usually very distant from theirs. 3. If you then ask me, why I make use of their authority, and did not content myself with my own ratiocinations? I have this to answer; that my design being to convince another, who had no reason to look upon my authority, and whom I had cause to suspect to have entertained some prejudices against any reasons, that should come from one, that confessedly aimed at the defending of the Christian religion, I thought it very proper and expedient to let him see, that divers of the same things (for substance) that I delivered in favour of that religion, had been taught as philosophical truths by men, that were not professed divines, and were philosophers, and such strict naturalists, too, as to be extraordinarily careful, not to take any thing into their philosophy upon the account of revelation. And on this occasion let me observe to you, that there are some arguments, which being clearly built upon sense, or evident experiments, need borrow no assistance from the refutation of any of the proposers or approvers and may, I think, be fitly enough compared to arrows shot out of a cross-bow, and bullets shot out of a gun, which have the same strength, and pierce equally, whether they be discharged by a child, or a strong man. But then, there are other ratiocinations, which either do, or are supposed to depend, in some measure, upon the judgment and skill of those, that make the observations, whereon they are grounded, and their ability to discern truth from counterfeits, and solid things from those, that are but superficial ones: and these may be compared to arrows shot out of a long-bow, which make much the greater impression, by being shot by a strong and skilful archer. And therefore when we question, what doctrines ought, or ought not to be thought reasonable, it does not a little facilitate a proposition's appearing (not contrary, but) consonant to reason, that it is looked upon as such by those, that are acknowledged the masters of that faculty.

Some CONSIDERATIONS

ABOUT THE

RECONCILEABLENESS

OF

REASON and RELIGION.

PART I.

AS to what you write in your friend's name, near the bottom of the first page of your letter, perhaps I shall not mistake, if I guess, that, when he seems but to propose a question, he means an objection; and covertly intimates, that I, among many others, am reduced to that pass, that to embrace our religion, we must renounce our reason; and consequently, that to be a Christian, one must cease to be a man, and much more, leave off being a philosopher.

WHAT liberal concessions soever some others have been pleased to make on such an occasion as this, they do not concern me; who, being asked but my own opinion, do not think myself responsible for that of others. And therefore, that I may frame my answer so, as to meet both with the obvious sense of the question, and the intimated meaning of him, that proposes it, I shall roundly make a negative reply, and say, "that I do not think, that a Christian, to be truly so, is obliged to forego his reason; either by denying the dictates of right reason, or by laying aside the use of it."

I doubt not, but this answer is differing enough from what your friend expects; and perhaps those grants, that have been made by the indulgence, or inadvertency of many persons, eminent for being pious or learned, may make you yourself startle at this declaration: and therefore, though you will not, I know, expect an answer to what objections your friend may make, since he has expressed but what he thinks ought to be a Christian's opinion, not what he has to object against what is so; yet, to satisfy those scruples, that you yourself may retain, I shall endeavour (but with the brevity, that becomes a letter) to acquaint you by themselves, with some of the positive inducements, that have led me to this opinion, and interweave some others, in answering the chief objections, that I think likely to be made against it.

AND this preamble, short as it is, will, I hope, serve to keep you from mistaking my design; which, as you may gather from what I have intimated, is not to give you the positive proofs of the Christian religion (which is not here to be expected from a bare defendant,) but to give you some specimens of such general considerations, as may probably shew, that the matter (or essential doctrines) peculiar to the Christian religion is not so repugnant to the principles of true natural philosophy, as that to believe them, a man must cease to act like a rational man, any more than he would be obliged to do by embracing other religions, or even the tenets, that have been held without disparagement to their intellectuals, by the mere philosophers themselves; which last clause I add, because, I presume, you do not expect, that I should be so solicitous to vindicate the Christian's belief of a Deity from being irrational; since, besides that, perhaps your friend would think himself affronted to be dealt with as an Atheist, without having professed himself one, the acknowledgement of a Deity blemishes the Christian's reason no more, than it does that of men of all religions, not to say of all mankind; and.

and imports no other contradiction to reason, than what has been judged to be none at all by the greatest, if not by all, of the philosophers, that were famed for being guided by reason (without revelation.) And I shall venture to add (upon the by) that, as I do not, for my own part, think the Atheist's philosophical objections (if your friend had produced them) to be near so considerable for weight or number, as not only those few, that deny a God, but many of those, that believe one, are wont to think; so the Christian is not reduced, as is imagined, to make the Being of a Deity a mere postulatium; since, besides the philosophical arguments he can alledge in common with the best champions for a Deity, he has a peculiar historical proof, that may suffice; the miracles performed by Christ and his followers being such, that if the matter of fact can be (as it may be) well evinced, they will not only prove the rest of the Christian religion, but in the first place, that there must be a God to be the Author of them.

BUT though of the two things, which my design obliges me to endeavour the making good of, the most natural order seems to be, that I should first shew, that no precepts of Christianity do command a man to lay aside his reason in matters of religion; and then, that there is nothing in the nature of the Christian doctrine itself, that makes a man need to do so; yet I think it not amiss in treating of these two subjects to invert the order, and first consider that difficulty, which is the principal, and which your friend and you jointly desire to have my thoughts of; namely, "Whether there be a necessity for a Christian to deny his reason?" And then we shall proceed to examine, whether, though he need not disclaim his reason, it be nevertheless his duty so to do?

S E C T I O N I.

TO proceed then to the considerations, that make up the former part of this epistle; I shall, in the first place, distinguish betwixt that, which the Christian religion itself teaches, and that, which is taught by this or that church, or sect of Christians, and much more by this or that particular divine or school-man.

I need not persuade you, who cannot but know it so well already, that there are many things taught about the attributes and decrees of God, the mysteries of the trinity, and incarnation, and divers other theological subjects, about which not only private Christians, but churches of Christians do not at all agree. There are too many men, whose ambition, or boldness, or self-conceit, or interest, leads them to obtrude upon others, as parts of religion, things, that are not only strangers, but oftentimes enemies to it. And there are others, who, out of an indiscrete devotion, are so solicitous to encrease the number, and the wonderfulness of mysteries, that, to hear them propose and discourse of things, one would judge, that they think it is the office of faith, not to elevate, but to trample upon reason; and that things are then fittest to be believed, when they are not clearly to be proved or understood. And indeed, when, on the one side, I consider the charitable design of the gospel, and the candid simplicity, that shines in what it proposes, or commands; and on the other side, what strange and wild speculations and inferences have been fathered upon it, not only in the metaphysical writings of some school-men, but in the articles of faith of some churches; I cannot but think, that if all these doctrines are parts of the Christian religion, the apostles, if they were now alive, would be at best but *Catechumeni*; and I doubt not, but many of the nice points, that are now much valued and urged by some, would be as well disapproved by St. *Paul*, as by *Aristotle*; and should be as little entertained by an orthodox divine, as a rigid philosopher. I do not therefore allow all that for gospel, which is taught for such in a preacher's pulpit, or even a professor's chair. And therefore, if scholastick writers, of what church soever, take the liberty of imposing upon the Christian

Christian religion, their metaphysical speculations, or any other merely human doctrines, as matters of faith, I who, not without some examination, think metaphysics themselves not to have been for the most part over-well understood, and applied, shall make bold to leave all such private doctrines to be defended by their own broachers or abettors; and shall deny, that it will follow, that in case of this multitude of placets, which some bold men have been pleased to adopt into the catalogue of Christian verities, any, or all, should be found inconsistent with right reason, the Christian religion must be so too. For by that name I understand only that system of revealed truths, that are clearly delivered in the scriptures; or by legitimate and manifest consequences deduced thence. And by this one declaration, so many unnecessary, and perhaps hurtful retainers to Christianity will be at once thrown off, that I doubt not, but if you consider the matter aright, you will easily discern, that by this first distinction I have much lessened the work, that is to be done by those, that are to follow it.

S E C T I O N II.

IN the next place, among the things, that seem not rational in religion, I make a great difference between those, in which unlightened reason is manifestly a competent judge, and those, which natural reason itself may discern to be out of its sphere.

You will allow me, that natural theology is sufficient to evince the existence of the deity; and we know, that many of the old philosophers, that were unassisted by revelation, were, by the force of reason, led to discover and confess a God, that is, a being supremely perfect; under which notion, divers of them expressly represent him. Now, if there be such a being, it is but reasonable to conceive, that there may be many things relating to his nature, his will, and his management of things, that are without the sphere of mere or unassisted reason. For, if his attributes and perfections be not fully comprehensible to our reason, we can have but inadequate conceptions of them; and since God is a Being, *toto cælo*, as they speak, differing from all other beings, there may be some things in his nature, and in the manner of his existence, which is without all example, or perfect analogy, in inferior beings. For we see, that even in man himself, the co-existence and intimate union of the soul and body, that is, an immaterial and a corporeal substance, is without all precedent or parallel in nature. And though the truth of this union may be proved; yet, the manner of it was never yet, nor perhaps ever will be, in this life clearly understood, (to which purpose I shall elsewhere say more.) Moreover, if we suppose God to be omnipotent, (that is, to be able to do whatever involves no contradiction, that it should be done,) we must allow him to be able to do many things, that no other agent can afford us any examples of, and some of them perhaps, such as we, who are but finite, and are wont to judge of things by analogy, cannot conceive how they can be performed. Of the last sort of things may be the recollecting a sufficient quantity of the scattered matter of a dead human body, and the contriving of it so, that (whether alone, or with some addition of other particles) upon a re-conjunction with the soul, it may again constitute a living man, and so effect that wonder we call the resurrection. Of the latter sort, is the creation of matter out of nothing, and much more the like production of those rational and intelligent beings, human souls. For as for angels (good or bad) I doubt, whether mere philosophy can evince their existence, though I think it may the possibility thereof. And since we allow the Deity a wisdom equal to this boundless power, it is but reasonable to conceive, that these unlimited attributes conspiring, may produce contrivances and frame designs, which we men must be un-
able

able (at least of ourselves) sufficiently to understand, and to reach to the bottom of. And by this way of arguing, it may be made to appear, that there may be many things relating to the Deity above the reach of unenlightened human reason. Not that I affirm all these things to be, in their own nature, incomprehensible to us, (though some of them may be so,) when they are once proposed; but that reason, by its own light, could not discover them particularly, and therefore it must owe its knowledge of them to divine revelation. And if God vouchsafes to disclose those things to us, since not only he must needs know about his own nature, attributes, &c. what we cannot possibly know unless he tells us, and since we know, that whatever he tells us is infallibly true, we have abundant reason to believe rather what he declares to us concerning himself and divine things, than what we should conclude or guess about them, by analogy to things of a nature infinitely distant from his, or by maxims framed according to the nature of inferior beings. If therefore he clearly reveal to us, that there is in the Godhead, three distinct persons, and yet that God is one, we, that think ourselves bound to believe God's testimony in all other cases, ought sure not to disbelieve it concerning himself, but to acknowledge, that in an unparalleled and incomprehensible Being, there may be a manner of existence not to be paralleled in any other being, though it should never be understood by us men, who cannot clearly comprehend, how in ourselves two such distant natures, as that of a gross body, and an immaterial spirit, should be united, so as to make up one man. In such cases therefore, as we are now speaking of, there must indeed be something, that looks like captivating one's reason, but it is a submission, that reason itself obliges us to make; and he, that in such points as these, believes rather what the divine writings teach him, than what he would think, if they had never informed him, does not renounce or enslave his reason, but suffers it to be pupil to an omniscient and infallible instructor, who can teach him such things, as neither his own mere reason, nor any others could ever have discovered to him.

I thought to have here dismissed this proposition, but I must not omit to give it a confirmation afforded me by chance, (or rather providence :) for, since I writ the last paragraph, resuming a philosophical enquiry, I met, in prosecuting it, with a couple of testimonies of the truth of what I was lately telling you, which are given, not by divines or school-men, but by a couple of famous mathematicians, that have both led the way to many of the modern philosophers, to shake off the reverence wont to be borne to the authority of great names, and have advanced reason in a few years, more than such as *Vaninus* and *Pomponatius* would do in many ages; and have always boldly, and sometimes successfully, attempted to explain intelligibly those things, which others scrupled not, either openly or tacitly, to confess inexplicable.

Pag. 22, 23. THE first of these testimonies I met with in a little French treatise put out by some mathematician, who, though he conceals his name, appears, by his way of writing, to be a great virtuoso, and takes upon him to give his readers in French the new thoughts of *Galilæo*, by making that the title of his book. This writer then speaking of a paradox (which I but recite) of *Galilæo*'s, that makes a point equal to a circle, adds, *Et per consequent l'on peut dire*, i. e. and consequently one may say, that all circles are equal between themselves, since each of them is equal to a point. For though the imagination be over-powered by this idea, or notion, yet reason will suffer itself to be persuaded of it. I know (continues he) divers other excellent persons, (besides *Galilæo*) who conclude the same thing by other ways; but all are constrained to acknowledge, that indivisible and infinite are things, that do so swallow up the mind of man, that he scarce knows what to pitch on, when he contemplates them. For it will follow, from *Galilæo*'s speculation, &c. which passage I have cited, to shew you, that

Galilæo

Galileo is not the only philosopher and mathematician, who has confessed his reason quite passed about the attributes of what is infinite.

THE other testimony I mentioned to you, is that of the excellent *Des Cartes*, in the second part of his principles of philosophy, where, speaking of the circle to be made by matter moving through places still lesser and lesser, he has this ingenious acknowledgment; *fatendum tamen est* (says he) *in motu isto aliquid reperiri, quod mens quidem nostra percipit esse verum, sed tamen quo pacto fiat non comprehendit, nempe divisionem quarundam particularum materie in infinitum, sive indefinitam, atque in tot partes ut nulla cogitatione determinare possimus tam exiguam, quin intelligamus ipsam in alias adhuc minores reipsa esse divisam.* And in the close of the next paragraph, he gives this for a reason, why, though we cannot comprehend this indefinite division, yet we ought not to doubt of the truth of it, that we discern it to be of that kind of things, that cannot be comprized by our minds, as being but finite.

If then such bold and piercing wits, and such excellent mathematicians, are forced to confess, that not only their own reason, but that of mankind, may be passed and non-plussed about quantity, which is an object of contemplation natural, nay, mathematical, and which is the subject of the rigid demonstrations of pure mathematicks, why should we think it unfit to be believed, and to be acknowledged, that in the attributes of God, who is essentially an infinite Being, and an *ens singularissimum*, and in divers other divine things, of which we can have no knowledge without revelation, there should be some things, that our finite understandings cannot, especially in this life, clearly comprehend.

S E C T I O N III.

TO this consideration, I shall, for affinity's sake, subjoin another, which I leave to your liberty to look upon as a distinct one, or as an enlargement and application of the former.

I consider then, that there is a great difference between a doctrine's being repugnant to the general and well-weighed rules or dictates of reason, in the forming of which rules, it may be supposed to have been duly considered; and its disagreeing with axioms, at the establishment whereof the doctrine in question was probably never thought on. There are several rules, that pass current, even among the most learned men, and which are indeed of very great use, when restrained to those things whence they took their rise, and others of the like nature; which yet ought not to overthrow those divine doctrines, that seem not consonant to them. For the framers of these rules having generally built them upon the observations they had made of natural and moral things, since (as we lately argued) reason itself cannot but acknowledge, there are some things out of its sphere, we must not think it impossible, that there may be rules, which will hold in all inferior beings for which they were made; and yet not reach to that infinite and most singular Being, called God, and to some divine matters, which were not taken into consideration, when those rules were framed. And indeed, if we consider God as the author of the universe, and the free establisher of the laws of motion, whose general concurrence is necessary to the conservation and efficacy of every particular physical agent, we cannot but acknowledge, that, by with-holding his concurrence, or changing these laws of motion, which depend perfectly upon his will, he may invalidate most, if not all the axioms and theorems of natural philosophy: these supposing the course of nature, and especially the established laws of motion among the parts of the universal matter, as those upon which all the phænomena depend. It is a rule in natural philosophy, that *causæ necessariae semper agunt quantum possunt*; but it will not follow from thence,

Considerations about the RECONCILEABLENESS

thence, that the fire must necessarily burn *Daniel's* three companions, or their clothes, that were cast by the Babylonian king's command into the midst of a burning fiery furnace, when the author of nature was pleased to withdraw his concurrence to the operation of the flames, or supernaturally to defend against them the bodies, that were exposed to them. That men once truly dead cannot be brought to life again, hath been in all ages the doctrine of mere philosophers; but though this be true, according to the course of nature, yet it will not follow, but that the contrary may be true, if God interpose either to recal the departed soul, and re-conjoin it to the body, if the organization of this be not too much vitiated, or by so altering the fabrick of the matter, whereof the carcase consists, as to restore it to a fitness for the exercise of the functions of life. Agreeably to this, let me observe to you, that, though it be unreasonable to believe a miraculous effect, when attributed only to a mere physical agent; yet the same thing may reasonably be believed, when ascribed to God, or to agents assisted with his absolute or supernatural power. That a man born blind should, in a trice, recover his sight, upon the application of clay and spittle, would justly appear incredible, if the cure were ascribed to one, that acted as a mere man; but it will not follow, that it ought to be incredible, that the Son of God would work it. And the like may be said of all the miracles performed by Christ, and those apostles and other disciples of his, that acted by virtue of a divine power and commission. For in all these, and the like cases, it suffices not to make one's belief irrational, that the things believed are impossible to be true, according to the course of nature; but it must be shewn, either that they are impossible, even to the power of God, to which they are ascribed, or that the records, we have of them, are not sufficient to beget belief in the nature of a testimony; which latter objection against these relations is foreign to our present discourse. And as the rules about the power of agents will not all of them hold in God, so I might shew the like, if I had time, concerning some of his other attributes; insomuch, that even in point of justice, wherein we think we may freeliest make estimates of what may or may not be done, there may be some cases, wherein God's supreme dominion, as maker and governor of the world, places him above some of those rules; I say, some, for I say not above all those rules of justice, which oblige all inferior beings, without excepting the greatest and most absolute monarchs themselves. I will not give examples of his power of pardoning or remitting penalties, which is but a relaxing of his own right; but will rather give an instance in his power of afflicting, and exterminating men, without any provocation given him by them. I will not here enter upon the controversy, *de jure Dei in creaturas*, upon what it is founded, and how far it reaches. For, without making myself a party in that quarrel, I think, I may safely say, that God, by his right of dominion, might, without any violation of the laws of justice, have destroyed, and even annihilated *Adam* and *Eve*, before they had eaten of the forbidden fruit, or had been commanded to abstain from it. For man being as much and as entirely God's workmanship as any of the other creatures, unless God had obliged himself by some promise or pact, to limit the exercise of his absolute dominion over him, God was no more bound to preserve *Adam* and *Eve* long alive; than he was to preserve a lamb, or a pidgeon; and therefore, as we allow, that he might justly recal the lives he had given those innocent creatures, when he pleased, (as actually he often ordered them to be killed, and burned in sacrifice to him :) so he might, for the declaration of his power to the angels, or for other reasons, have suddenly taken away the lives of *Adam* and *Eve*, though they had never offended him. And upon the same grounds he might, without injustice, have annihilated, I say not, damned their souls; he being no more bound to continue existence to a nobler, than a less noble creature; as he is no more bound to keep an eagle, than an oyster always alive. I know, there is a difference betwixt God's resuming a being he lent *Adam*, and his doing the same

to inferior creatures : but that disparity, if it concern any of his attributes, will concern some other than his justice ; which allowed him to resume, at pleasure, the being he had only lent them, or lay any affliction on them, that were lesser than that good could countervail. But, mentioning this instance only occasionally, I shall not prosecute it any further, but rather mind you of the result of this and the foregoing consideration ; which is, that divinely revealed truths may seem to be repugnant to the dictates of reason, when they do but seem to be so : nor does Christianity oblige us to question such rules, as to the cases they were framed for, but the application of them to the nature of God, who has already been truly said to be *ens singularissimum*, and to his absolute power and will ; so that we do not reject the rules we speak of, but rather limit them ; and when we have restrained them to their due bounds, we may safely admit them.

FROM men's not taking notice of, or not pondering this necessary limitation of many axioms delivered in general terms, seems to have proceeded a great error, which has made so many learned men presume to say, that this or that thing is true in philosophy, but false in divinity, or on the contrary : as for instance, that a virgin, continuing such, may have a child, is looked upon as an article, which theology asserts to be true, and philosophy pronounces impossible. But the objection is grounded upon a mistake, which might have been prevented by wording the propositions more warily and fully. For though we grant, that physically speaking, it is false, that a virgin can bring forth a child ; yet that signifies no more, than that, according to the course of nature, such a thing cannot come to pass ; but speaking absolutely and indefinitely, without confining the effect to mere physical agents, it may safely be denied ; that philosophy pronounces it impossible, that a virgin should be a mother. For why should the author of nature be confined to the ways of working of dependent and finite agents ? And to apply the answer to the divines, that hold the opinion I oppose, I shall demand, why God may not out of the substance of a woman form a man, without the help of a man, as well as at the beginning of the substance of a man he formed a woman without the concurrence of a woman ? And so that iron, being a body far heavier (*in specie*, as they speak,) will, if upheld by no other body, sink in water, is a truth in natural philosophy ; but since physicks themselves lead men to the acknowledgment of a God, it is not repugnant to reason, that, if God please to interpose his power, he may (as in *Elisba's* case) make iron swim, either by withholding his concurrence to the agents, whatever they be, that cause gravity in bodies, or perhaps by other ways unknown to us ; since a vigorous loadstone may, as I have more than once tried, keep a piece of iron, which it touches not, swimming in the air, though this thin body must contribute far less, than water would, to the sustaining it aloft.

THAT strict philosopher *Des Cartes*, who has with great wit and no less applause attempted to carry the mechanical powers of matters higher than any of the modern philosophers ; this naturalist, I say, that ascribes so great a power to matter and motion, was so far from thinking, that what was impossible to them, must be so to God too, that, though he were urged by a learned adversary with an argument, as likely as any to give him a strong temptation to limit the omnipotence of God ; yet even on this occasion he scruples not to make this ingenious and wary acknowledgment, and that in a private letter ; “ For my part, says he, I think we ought never to say of any
“ thing, that it is impossible to God. For all, that is true and good, being depen-
“ dent on his all-mightiness, I dare not so much as say, that God cannot make a
“ mountain without a valley, or cannot make it true, that one and two shall not make
“ three ; but I say only, that he has given me a soul of such a nature, that I cannot

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“conceive a mountain without a valley, nor that the aggregate of one and of two shall not make three, &c. and I say only, that such things imply a contradiction in my conception.” And consonantly to this, in his Principles of Philosophy he gives, on a certain occasion, this useful caution,—*Quod ut satis tuto & sine errandi periculo aggre-
grediamur, eâ nobis cautela est utendum, ut semper quàm maxime recordemur, & Deum au-
torem rerum esse infinitum, & nos omnino finitos.*

S E C T I O N IV.

IN the next place, I think we ought to distinguish between reason considered in it-
self, and reason considered in the exercise of it, by this or that philosopher, or by
this or that man, or by this or that company, or society of men, whether all of one
sect or of more.

If you will allow me to borrow a school phrase, I shall express this more shortly by
saying, I distinguish between reason *in abstracto*, and *in concreto*. To clear this matter,
we may consider, that whatever you make the faculty of reason to be in itself, yet the
ratiocinations it produces are made by men, either singly reasoning, or concurring in
the same ratiocinations and opinions; and consequently, if these men do not make the
best use of their reasoning faculty, it will not be necessary, that what thwarts their ra-
tiocinations, must likewise thwart the principles or the dictates of right reason. For
man having a will and affections as well as an intellect, though our dijudications and
tenents ought indeed (in matters speculative) to be made and pitched upon by our un-
biassed understandings; yet really our intellectual weaknesses, or our prejudices, or
prepossession by custom, education, &c. our interest, passions, vices, and I know not
how many other things, have so great and swaying an influence on them, that there are
very few conclusions, that we make, or opinions, that we espouse, that are so much
the pure results of our reason, that no personal disability, prejudice, or fault, has any
interest in them.

About the
Diversity of
Religion.

THIS I have elsewhere more amply discoursed of on another occasion; wherefore I
shall now add but this, that the distinction, I have been proposing, (does if I mistake
not) reach a great deal further than you may be aware of. For not only whole sects,
whether in religion or philosophy, are in many cases subject to prepossessions, envy,
ambition, interest, and other misleading things, as well as single persons; but, which
is more considerable to our present purpose, the very body of mankind may be embued
with prejudices, and errors, and that from their childhood, and some also even from
their birth, by which means they continue undiscerned, and consequently unreformed.

THIS you will think an accusation as bold as high; but to let you see, that the phi-
losophers, you most respect, have made the same observation, though not applied to
the same case, I must put you in mind, that Monsieur *Des Cartes* begins his principles
of philosophy with taking notice, that, because we are born children, we make divers
unright judgments of things, which afterwards are wont to continue with us all our
lives, and prove radicated prejudices, that mislead our judgments on so many occa-
sions, that he elsewhere tells us, he found no other way to secure himself from their
influence, but once in his life solemnly to doubt of the truth of all, that he had till
then believed, in order to the re-examining of his former dijudications. But I remem-
ber, our illustrious *Verulam* warrants a yet further prejudice against many things, that
are wont to be looked on as the suggestions of reason. For having told us, that the
mind of man is besieged with four differing kinds of idols or phantasms, when he
comes to enumerate them, he reaches, that there are not only such, as men get by con-
versation and discourse one with another, and such as proceed from the divers hypo-
theses

theses or theories and opinions of philosophers, and from the perverse ways of demonstration, and likewise such as are personal to this or that man, proceeding from his education, temperament, studies, &c. but such as he calls *idola tribus*, because they are founded in humane nature itself, and in the very tribe or nation of mankind; and of these he particularly discourses of seven or eight; as, that the intellect of man has an innate propensity to suppose in things a greater order and equality than it finds, and that being unable to rest or acquiesce, it does always tend further and further; to which he adds divers other innate prejudices of mankind, which he solicitously as well as judiciously endeavours to remove.

Now, if not only single philosophers, and particular sects, but the whole body of mankind be subject to be swayed by innate and unheeded prejudices and proclivities to errors about matters, that are neither divine, nor moral, nor political, but physical, where the attainment of truth is exceeding pleasant to human nature, and is not attended with consequences distasteful to it: why may not we justly suspect not only this or that philosopher, or particular sect; but the generality of men, of having some secret propensities to err about divine things, and indispositions to admit truths, which not only detect the weaknesses of our nature, and our personal disabilities, and thereby offend or mortify our pride and our ambition, but shine into the mind with so clear, as well as pure and chaste a light, as is proper both to discover to ourselves and others our vices and faults, and oftentimes to cross our designs and interests?

AND to this purpose we may take notice, that divers of those very idols, which my lord *Bacon* observes to besiege, or pervert men's judgments in reference to things natural, may probably have the same kind of influence (and that much stronger) on the minds of men in reference to supernatural things. Thus he takes notice, that if some things have once pleased the understanding, it is apt to draw all others to comport with, and give suffrage to them, though perhaps the inducements to the contrary belief be either more numerous or more weighty. He observes also, that man is apt to look upon his senses and other perceptions as the measures of things, and also that the understanding of man is not sincerely disposed to receive the light of truth, but receives an infusion as it were of adventitious colours, (that disguise the light) from the will and affections, which makes him sooner believe those things, that he is desirous should be true, and reject many others upon accounts, that do no way infer their being false. Now if we apply these things to divine truths (to which it were well they were less justly applicable) and consider, that in our youth we generally converse but with things corporeal, and are swayed by affections, that have them for their objects, we shall not much wonder, that men should be very prone, either to frame such notions of divine things, as they were wont to have about others of a far different and meaner nature; or else to reject them for not being analogous to those things, which they have been used to employ for the measures of truth and falsity. And if we consider the inbred pride of man, which is such, that if we believe the sacred story, even *Adam* in paradise affected to be like God, knowing good and evil; we shall not so much marvel, that almost every man in particular makes the notions he has entertained already, and his senses, his inclinations, and his interests, the standards, by which he estimates and judges of all others things, whether natural or revealed. And as *Heraclitus* justly complained, that every man sought the knowledge of natural things in the microcosm, that is, himself, and not in the macrocosm, the world; so we may justly complain, that men seek all the knowledge, they care to find, or will admit, either in these little worlds themselves, or from that great world, the universe; but not from the omniscient author of them both. And lastly, if even in purely physical things, where one would not think it likely, that rational beings should seek truth with any other designs than of finding and enjoying it,

our

our understandings are so universally biased, and imposed upon by our wills and affections; how can we admire, especially if we admit the fall of our first parents, that our passions and interests, and oftentimes our vices, should pervert our intellects about those revealed truths; divers of which we discern to be above our comprehensions, and more of which we find to be directly contrary to our inclinations?

S E C T I O N V.

AND now it will be seasonable for me to tell you, that I think, there may be a great difference betwixt a thing's being contrary to right reason, or so much as to any true philosophy, and its being contrary to the received opinions of philosophers, or to the principles or conclusions of this or that sect of them.

FOR here I may justly apply to my present purpose what *Clemens Alexandrinus* judiciously said on another occasion, that philosophy was neither Peripatetical, nor Stoical, nor Epicurean, but whatsoever among all those several parties was fit to be approved.

AND indeed, if we survey the hypotheses and opinions of the several sects of philosophers, especially in those points, wherein they hold things repugnant to theological truths, we shall find many of them so slightly grounded, and so disagreeing among themselves, that a severe and inquisitive examiner would see little cause to admit them upon the bare account of his being a philosopher, though he did not see any to reject them upon the account of his being a Christian. And in particular, as to the Peripateticks, who by invading all the schools of *Europe* (and some in *Asia* and *Africk*) have made their sect almost Catholick, and have produced divers of the famous questioners of Christianity in the last age, and the first of this; the world begins to be apace undeceived, as to many of their doctrines, which were as confidently taught and believed for many ages, as those, that are repugnant to our religion; and there is now scarce any of the modern philosophers, that allow themselves the free use of their reason, who believes any longer, that there is an element of fire lodged under the supposed sphere of the moon; that heaven consists of solid orbs; that all celestial bodies are ingenerable and incorruptible; that the heart, rather than the brain, is the origine of nerves; that the torrid zone is uninhabitable; and I know not how many other doctrines of the Aristotelians, which our Corpuscularian philosophers think so little worth being believed, that they would censure him, that should now think them worthy to be solicitously confuted; upon which score I presume you will allow me to leave those, and divers others, as weak Peripatetick conceits, to fall by their own groundlessness.

BUT you will tell me, that the Epicureans, and the Somatici, that will allow nothing but body in the world, nor no author of it but chance, are more formidable enemies to religion than the Aristotelians. And indeed I am apt to think they are so, but they may well be so, without deserving to have any of their sects looked upon as philosophy itself, there being none of them, that I know of, that maintain any opinion inconsistent with Christianity, that I think may not be made appear to be also repugnant to reason, or at least not demonstrable by it. You will not expect I should descend to particulars, especially having expressly discoursed against the Epicurean hypotheses of the origin of the world in another paper; and therefore, I shall observe to you in general, that the Cartesian philosophers, who lay aside all supernatural revelation in their inquiries into natural things, do yet both think, and, as to the two first of them, very plausibly prove, the three grand principles of *Epicurus*, that the little bodies he calls atoms are indivisible, that they all have their motion from themselves, and, that there is a vacuum in *rerum naturâ*, to be as repugnant to mere reason, as the Epicureans think the notion of an incorporeal substance, or the creation of the world, or the immortality of the soul. And as for the new Somatici, such as Mr. *Hobbes* (and some few others) by what

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I have yet seen of his, I am not much tempted to forsake any thing, that I looked upon as a truth before, even in natural philosophy itself, upon the score of what he (though never so confidently) delivers, by which hitherto I see not, that he hath made any great discovery either of new truths, or old errors. An honourable member of the Royal Society hath elsewhere purposely shewn, how ill he has proved his own opinions about the air, and some other physical subjects, and how ill he has understood and opposed those of his adversary. But to give you in this place a specimen, how little their repugnancy to his principles of natural philosophy ought to affright us from those theological doctrines they contradict, I shall here examine the fundamental maxim of his whole physicks, that nothing is removed but by a body contiguous and moved; it having been already shewn (by the gentleman newly mentioned) that, as to the next to it, which is, that there is no vacuum, whether it be true or no, he has not proved it.

[If no body can possibly be moved, but by a body contiguous and moved, as Mr. *Hobbes* teaches; I demand, how there comes to be local motion in the world? For, either all the portions of matter, that composed the universe, have motion belonging to their nature, which the Epicureans affirmed for their atoms; or some parts of matter have this motive power, and some have not; or else none of them have it, but all of them are naturally devoid of motion. If it be granted, that motion does naturally belong to all parts of matter, the dispute is at an end, the concession quite overthrowing the hypothesis. If it be said, that naturally some portions of matter have motion, and others not, then the assertion will not be universally true: for though it may hold in the parts, that are naturally moveless, or quiescent, yet it will not do so in the others, there being nothing, that may shew a necessity, why a body, to which motion is natural, should not be capable of moving, without being put into motion by another contiguous and moved. And if there be no body, to which motion is natural, but every body needs an outward movent, it may well be demanded, how there comes to be any thing locally moved in the world? which yet constant and obvious experience demonstrates, and Mr. *Hobbes* himself cannot deny. For if no part of matter have any motion but what it must owe to another, that is contiguous to it, and being itself in motion, impels it; and if there be nothing but matter in the world, how can there come to be any motion amongst bodies, since they neither have it upon the score of their own nature, nor can receive it from external agents? If Mr. *Hobbes* should reply, that the motion is impressed upon any of the parts of the matter by God, he will say that, which I most readily grant to be true, but will not serve his turn, if he would speak congruously to his own hypothesis. For I demand, whether this supreme Being, that the assertion has recourse to, be a corporeal or an incorporeal substance? If it be the latter, and yet be the efficient cause of motion in bodies, then it will not be universally true, that whatsoever body is moved, is so by a body contiguous and moved. For, in our supposition, the bodies, that God moves, either immediately, or by the intervention of any other immaterial being, are not moved by a body contiguous, but by an incorporeal spirit. But because Mr. *Hobbes*, in some writings of his, is believed to think the very notion of an immaterial substance to be absurd, and to involve a contradiction; and because it may be subsumed, that if God be not an immaterial substance, he must by consequence be a material and corporeal one, there being no *medium negationis*, or third substance, that is none of those two. I answer, that, if this be said, and so that Mr. *Hobbes*'s deity be a corporeal one, the same difficulty will recur, that I urged before. For this body will not, by Mr. *Hobbes*'s calling or thinking it divine, cease to be a true body; and consequently a portion of divine matter will not be able to move a portion of our mundane matter, without it be itself contiguous and moved; which it cannot be, but by another portion of divine matter, so qualified to impress a motion, nor this again, but by another portion.

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AND besides that it will breed a strange confusion, in rendering the physical causes of things, unless an expedient be found, to teach us how to distinguish accurately the mundane bodies from the divine, (which will perhaps prove no easy task;) I see not yet, how this corporeal deity will make good the hypothesis I examine. For I demand, how this divine matter comes to have this local motion, that is ascribed to it? If it be answered, that it hath it from its own nature, without any other cause, since the Epicureans affirm the same of their atoms, or merely mundane matter, I demand, how the truth of Mr. *Hobbes's* opinion will appear to me, to whom it seems as likely by the phaenomena of nature, that occur, that mundane matter should have a congenit motion, as that any thing, that is corporeal, can be God, and capable of moving it; which to be, it must, for aught we know, have its subsistence divided into as many minute parts, as there are corpuscles and particles in the world, that move separately from their neighbouring ones. And, to draw towards a conclusion, I say, that these minute divine bodies, that thus moved those portions of mundane matter, concerning which Mr. *Hobbes* denies, that they can be moved but by bodies contiguous and moved, these divine substances, I say, are, according to the late supposition, true bodies, and yet are moved themselves, not by bodies, contiguous and moved, but by a motion, which must be innate, derived or flowing from their very essence or nature, since no such body is pretended to have a being, as cannot be referred as a portion, either to the mundane, or the divine matter. In short, since local motion is to be found in one, if not in both, of these two matters, it must be natural to (at least some parts of) one of them in Mr. *Hobbes's* hypothesis; for, though he should grant an immaterial being, yet it could not produce a motion in any body, since, according to him, no body can be moved, but by another body contiguous and moved.]

As then to this grand position of Mr. *Hobbes*, though, if it were cautiously proposed, as it is by *Des Cartes*, it may perhaps be safely admitted, because *Cartesius* acknowledges the first impulse, that set matter a moving, and the conservation of motion once begun, to come from God; yet, as it is crudely proposed by the favourers of Mr. *Hobbes*, I am so far from seeing any such cogent proof for it, as were to be wished for a principle, on which he builds so much, (and which yet is not at all evident by its own light,) that I see no competent reason to admit it.

I expect your friend should here oppose to what I have been saying, that formerly recited sentence, that is so commonly employed in the schools, as well of divines as of philosophers: that such or such an opinion is true in divinity, but false in philosophy; or, on the contrary, philosophically true, but theologically false.

UPON what warrant those, that are wont to employ such expressions, ground their practice, I leave to them to make out; but as to the objection itself, as it supposes these ways of speaking to be well grounded, give me leave to consider that philosophy may signify two things, which I take to be very differing.

For, first, it is most commonly employed to signify a system, or body of the opinions, and other doctrines of the particular sect of those philosophers, that make use of the word. As when an Aristotelian talks of philosophy, he usually means the Peripatetick, as an Epicurean does the Atomical, or a Platonist the Platonick.

BUT we may also, in a more general, and no less just acception of the term, understand by philosophy, a comprehension of all those truths or doctrines, which the natural reason of man, freed from prejudices and partiality, and assisted by learning, attention, exercise, experiments, &c. can manifestly make out, or, by necessary consequence deduce from clear and certain principles.

THIS being briefly premised, I must, in the next place, put you in mind of what I formerly observed to you, that many opinions are maintained by this, or that sect of Christians,

Christians, or perhaps by the divinity-schools of more than one or two sects, which either do not at all belong to the Christian religion, or, at least, ought not to be looked upon as parts of it, but upon supposition, that the philosophical principles and ratiocinations, upon which, and not upon express or mere revelation, they are presumed to be founded, are agreeable to right reason.

AND having premised these two things, I now answer more directly to the objection; that, if philosophy be taken in the first sense above-mentioned, it's teaching things repugnant to theology, especially taking this word in the more large and vulgar sense of it, will not cogently conclude any thing against the Christian religion. But, if philosophy be taken in the latter sense for true philosophy, and divinity only for a system of those articles, that are clearly revealed as truths in the scriptures; I shall not allow any thing to be false in philosophy so understood, that is true in divinity so explained, till I see some clearer proof of it, than I have yet met with. I have had occasion, in the foregoing discourse, to say something, that may be applied to the point under debate; and in the following part of this letter, I shall have occasion to touch upon it again: and therefore I shall now say but this in short, that it is not likely, that God, being the author of reason as well as revelation, should make it men's duty to believe as true, that, which there is just reason to reject as false.

THERE is indeed a sense, wherein the phrases, I disapprove, may be tolerated. For if by saying, that such a thing is true in divinity, but false in philosophy, it were meant, that if the doctrine were proposed to a mere philosopher, to be judged of according to the principles of his sect, or at most, according to what he, being supposed not to have heard of the Christian religion, or had it duly proposed to him, would reject it, the phrase might be allowed, or at least indulged. But then we must consider, that the reason, why such a philosopher would reject the articles of Christian faith, would not be, because they could by no mediums be possibly proved, but because these doctrines, being founded upon a revelation, which he is presumed either not to have heard of, or not to have had sufficiently proposed to him, he must, as a rational man, refuse to believe them upon the score of their prooflessness. And the same philosopher, supposing him to be a true one, though he will be very wary, how he admits any thing as true, that is not proved, if it fall properly under the cognizance of philosophy; yet he will be as wary, how he pronounces things to be false or impossible, in matters, which he discerns to be beyond the reach of mere natural reason, especially if sober and learned men do very confidently pretend to know something of those matters by divine revelation, which though he will not easily believe to be a true one, yet he will admit, in case it should be proved true, to be a fit medium to evince truths, which, upon the account of mere natural light, he could not discover or embrace. To be short, such a philosopher would indeed reject some of the articles of our faith hypothetically, i. e. upon supposition that he need employ no other touch-stone to examine them by, than the principles and dictates of natural philosophy, that he is acquainted with (upon which score I shall hereafter shew, that divers strange chemical experiments, and other discoveries would also be rejected;) but yet he would not pronounce them false, but upon supposition, that the arguments, by which they lay claim to divine revelation, are incompetent in their kind. For as he will not easily believe any thing within the sphere of nature, that agrees not with the established laws of it; so he will not easily adventure to pronounce one way or other in matters, that are beyond the sphere of nature: he will indeed, as he justly may, expect as full a proof of the divine testimony, that is pretended, as the nature of the thing requires and allows; but he will not be backward to acknowledge, that God, to whom that testimony is ascribed, is able to know and to do

many more things, than we can explicate how he can discover, or imagine how any physical agent can perform.

Princip.
Philos. part.
prima.
Artic. 25.

[SINCE I proposed to you this fifth consideration, I happened to light on a passage in *Des Cartes's* principles, which affords of what I have been discovering the suffrage of a philosopher, that is wont to be accused of excluding theology too scrupulously out of his philosophy. His words are so full to my present purpose, that I need not, to accommodate them to it, alter one of them, and therefore shall transcribe them just as they lie: *Si forté nobis Deus de seipso, vel aliis, aliquid revelet, quod naturales ingenii nostri vires excedat, qualia sunt mysteria incarnationis & trinitatis, non recusabimus illa credere, quamvis non clarè intelligamus, nec ulla modo mirabimur, multa esse tum in immensa ejus natura, tum etiam in rebus ab eo creatis, quæ captum nostrum excedant.*]

AND let me add on this occasion, that whereas the main scruples, that are said to be suggested by philosophy against some mysterious articles of religion, are grounded upon this, that the *modus*, as they speak of those things, is not clearly conceivable, or at least, is very hardly explicable; these objections are not always so weighty, as perhaps, by the confidence, wherewith they are urged, you many think them. For, whereas I observed to you already, that there are divers things maintained by school divines, which are not contained in the scripture, that observation is chiefly applicable to the things we are considering; since in several of these nice points, the scripture affirms only the thing, and the schoolmen are pleased to add the *modus*: and as by their unwarrantable boldness, the school divines determine many things without book; so the scruples and objections, that are made against what the scripture really delivers, are usually grounded upon the erroneous or precarious assertions of the school philosophers, who often give the title of metaphysical truths to conceits, that do very little deserve that name, and to which a rigid philosopher would perhaps think, that of sublime nonsense more proper. But of this I elsewhere say enough, and therefore shall now proceed to the consideration I chiefly intended, viz. that from hence, that the *modus* of a revealed truth is either very hard, or not at all explicable, it will not necessarily follow, that the thing itself is irrational, provided the positive proofs of its truth be sufficient in their kind. For even in natural things philosophers themselves do and must admit several things, whereof they cannot clearly explicate or perhaps conceive the *modus*. I will not here mention the origin of substantial forms as an instance in this kind, because, though it may be a fit one as to the Peripatetick philosophy, yet not admitting, that there are any such beings, I will take no farther notice of them; especially because, for a clear instance to our present purpose, we need go no further than ourselves, and consider the union of the soul and body in man. For who can physically explain, both how an immaterial substance should be able to guide or determine, and excite the motions of a body, and yet not be able to produce motion in it (as by dead palsies, great faintnesses, &c. it appears the soul cannot,) and, which is far more difficult, how an incorporeal substance should receive such impressions from the motions of a body, as to be thereby affected with real pain and pleasure; to which I elsewhere add some other properties of this union, which, though not taken notice of, are perhaps no less difficult to be conceived and accounted for. For how can we comprehend, that there should be naturally such an intimate union betwixt two such distant substances, as an (incorporeal) spirit and a body, as that the former may not, when it pleases, quit the latter, which cannot possibly have any strings or chains, that can tie, or fasten to it that, which has no body, on which they may take hold. And I there shew, that it is full as difficult, physically to explicate, how these so differing beings come to be united, as how they are kept from parting at pleasure, both the one and the other being to be resolved into the mere appointment of God. And if to avoid the abstruseness of the *modus* of

of this conjunction betwixt the rational soul and the human body, it be said, as it is by the Epicureans, that the former is but a certain contexture of the finer and most subtle parts of the latter, the formerly proposed abstruseness of the union betwixt the soul and the body will indeed be shifted off; but it will be by a doctrine, that will not much relieve us. For those, that will allow no soul in man but what is corporeal, have a modus to explain, that I doubt they will always leave a riddle. For of such I desire, that they would explain to me, (who know no effects, that matter can produce, but by local motion and rest, and the consequences of it,) how mere matter, (let them suppose it as fine as they please, and contrive it as well as they can) can make syllogisms, and have conceptions of universals, and invent speculative sciences and demonstrations, and in a word do all those things, which are done by man, and by no other animal; and he, that shall intelligibly explicate to me the modus of matter's framing theories and ratiocinations, will, I confess, not only instruct me, but surprize me too.

AND now give me leave to make this short reflection on what has been said in this section, compared with what formerly I said in the first section; that if on the one hand we lay aside all the irrational opinions, that the schoolmen and other bold writers have unwarrantably fathered on Christian religion, and on the other hand all the erroneous conceits repugnant to Christianity, which the schoolmen and others have prooflessly fathered upon philosophy, the seeming contradictions betwixt solid divinity and true philosophy will appear to be but few, as I think the real ones will be found to be none at all.

S E C T I O N VI.

THE next consideration I shall propose, is, that a thing may, if singly or precisely considered, appear unreasonable, which yet may be very credible, if considered as a part of, or a manifest consequence from a doctrine, that is highly so.

Of this I could give you more instances in several arts and sciences, than I think fit to be here specified; and therefore I shall content myself to mention three or four.

WHEN astronomers tell us, that the sun, which seems not to us a foot broad, nor considerably bigger than the moon, is above a hundred and threescore times bigger than the whole globe of the earth, which yet is forty times greater than the moon; the thing thus nakedly proposed seems very incredible. But yet, because astronomers very skilful in their art have, by finding the semidiameter of the earth, and observing the parallaxes of the planets, concluded the proportion of these three bodies to be such as has been mentioned, or thereabout, even learned and judicious men of all sorts, (philosophers, divines, and others,) think it not credulity to admit what they affirm.

So the relations of earthquakes, that have reached divers hundreds of miles; of eruptions of fire, that have at once overflowed and burned vast scopes of land; of the blowing up of mountains by their own fires; of the casting up of new islands in the sea itself, and other prodigies of too unquestionable truth; (for I know what work ignorance and superstition have made about other prodigies;) if they were attested but by slight and ordinary witnesses, they would be judged incredible, but we scruple not to believe them, when the relations are attested with such circumstances, as make the testimony as strong, as the things attested are strange.

If ever you have considered, what *Clavius*, and divers other geometricians teach upon the sixteenth proposition of the third book of *Euclid*, (which contains a theorem about the tangent, and the circumference of a circle,) you cannot but have taken notice, that there are scarce greater paradoxes delivered by philosophers or divines, than you will find asserted by geometricians themselves. And though of late the learned Jesuit

Tacquet, and some rigid mathematicians, have questioned divers of those things, yet even what some of these severe examiners confess to be geometrically demonstrable from that proposition, contains things so strange, that philosophers themselves, that are not well acquainted with that proposition and its corollaries, can scarce look upon them as other than incomprehensible, or at least incredible, things; which yet, as improbable as they are considered in themselves, even rigid demonstrators refuse not to admit, because they are legitimately deducible from an acknowledged truth.

AND so also among the magnetical phænomena there are divers things, which, being nakedly proposed, must seem altogether unfit to be believed, as indeed having nothing like them in all nature; whereas those, that are versed in magnetick philosophy, even before they have made particular trials of them, will look upon them as credible, because, how great paradoxes soever they may seem to others, they are consonant and consequent to the doctrine of magnetism, whose grand axioms (from what cause soever magnetisms are to be derived) are sufficiently manifest; and therefore a magnetical philosopher would not, though an ordinary philosopher would, think it unreasonable to believe, that one part of the same loadstone should draw a needle to it, and the other part drive the same needle from it; and that the needle in a seaman's compass, after having been carried many hundred leagues (through differing climates, and in stormy weather) without varying its declination, may, upon a sudden, without any manifest cause, point at some part of the horizon several whole degrees distant from that, which it pointed to before. To which might here be added divers other scarce credible things, which either others or I have tried about magnetical bodies; but I shall hereafter have occasion to take notice of some of them in a fitter place.

WHEREFORE, when something delivered in, or clearly deduced from scripture, is objected against, as a thing, which it is not reasonable to believe, we must not only consider, whether, if it were not delivered in that book, we should upon its own single account think it fit or unworthy to be believed; but whether or no it is so improbable, that it is more fit to be believed, that all the proofs, that can be brought for the authority of the scripture, are to be rejected, than that this thing, which comes manifestly recommended to our belief by that authority, is worthy to be admitted: I say, "manifestly recommended by that authority," because that, if the thing be not clearly delivered in scripture, or be not clearly and cogently deduced thence, so far as that clearness is wanting, so far the thing itself wants of the full authority of the scripture, to impose it on our assent.

[PERHAPS it will procure what I have said the better reception, if I add a couple of testimonies not of any modern bigots, no, nor of any devout fathers of the church; but of two modern authors of sects, and who in their kinds have been thought extremely subtle reasoners, and no less rigid exacters of reason in whatever they admitted.

THE first passage I shall alledge, is the confession of *Socinus*, who in his second epistle to *Andreas Dudithius*, speaks thus: *Jam verò ut rem in pauca conferam, quod ad meas aliorumve opiniones, quæ novitatis præ se ferunt speciem, attinet, mihi ita videtur; si detur, scripturam sacram ejus esse auctoritatis, ut nullo modo ei contradici possit, ac de interpretatione illius omnis duntaxat sit scrupulus*, (which he allows) *nihil, utut verisimile aut ratione conclusum videatur, offerri contra eas possit, quod ullarum sit virium, quotiescunque illæ sententiis atque verbis illius libri aut rationibus liquidò inde deductis probatæ atque assertæ fuerint*. Which confession of *Socinus* is surpassed by that of his champion

Part II.
Artic. 34,
35.

Smalcus, to be produced elsewhere in this paper. The other passage I met with in the excellent Monsieur *Des Cartes*'s principles of philosophy, where discoursing of the either infinite or indefinite division of the particles of matter, which is necessary to make them fill exactly all the differinglly figured spaces, through which various motions

do

do sometimes make them pass; he confesses, as he well may, that the point is exceedingly abstruse, and yet concludes: *Et quamvis quomodo fiat indefinita ista divisio, cogitatione comprehendere nequeamus, non ideo tamen debemus dubitare, quin fiat, quia clarè percipimus illam necessario sequi ex natura materiæ nobis evidentissimè cognitâ, &c.*]

AND in this place it may be seasonable, as well as pertinent, to take notice of three or four particulars, which, though they be in some measure implied in the former general consideration, yet deserve to be distinctly inculcated here, both for their importance, and because they may as well be deduced as corollaries from the foregoing discourse, as be confirmed by the proofs I shall add to each of them. Of these the first shall be this, that we must not presently conclude a thing to be contrary to reason, because learned men profess or even complain, that they are not able clearly to comprehend it, provided there be competent proof, that it is true, and the thing be primary or heteroclite.

FOR it is not always necessary to the making the belief of a thing rational, that we have such a comprehension of the thing believed as may be had, and justly required in ordinary cases; since we may be sure of the truth of a thing, not only by arguments suggested by the nature of the thing itself clearly understood by us, but by the external testimony of such a witness, as we know will not deceive us, and cannot (at least in our case) be reasonably suspected to be himself deceived. And therefore it may in some cases suffice to make our belief rational, that we clearly discern sufficient reason to believe, that a thing is true, whether that reason spring from the evidence and cogency of the extrinseck motives we have to believe, or from the proofs suggested to us by what we know of the thing believed, nay, though there be something in the nature of that thing, which does puzzle and pose our understanding.

THAT many things, that are very hard, and require a great attention, and a good judgment to be made out, may yet be true, will be manifest from what I shall, within a page or two, note about divers geometrical demonstrations, which require, besides a good stock of knowledge in those matters, an almost invincible patience, to carry so many things along in one's mind, and go through with them. That also there are other things, which, though they be as manifestly existent, as those newly mentioned can be demonstratively true, are yet of so abstruse a kind, that it is exceeding difficult to frame clear and satisfactory notions of their nature, we might learn, if we were inquisitive enough, even from some of the most obvious things; such as, for instance, matter and time: As to the former whereof, (matter,) though the world and our own bodies be made of it, yet the ideas, that are wont to be framed of it, even by the greatest clerks, are incumbered with too great difficulties (some of which I elsewhere mention) to be easily acquiesced in by considering men. And as for the latter, (time,) though that justly celebrated saying of *Augustine*, *Si nemo ex me quærat, quid sit tempus, scio; si quærenti explicare velim, nescio*; seem in the first part of it to own a knowledge of what time is, yet by the latter part, (wherein he confesses he cannot declare what it is,) I am not only allowed to believe, that he could not propose an intelligible idea of it, but invited to think, that, in the first part of the sentence, he only meant, that when he did not attentively consider the nature of it, he thought he understood it, or that he knew, that there is such a thing as time, though he could not explain what it is.

AND indeed, though time be that, which all men allow to be, yet, if *per impossibile* (as the schools speak) a man could have no other notion or proof of time and eternity, (even such eternity as must be conceded to something,) than what he could collect from the best descriptions of its nature and properties, that are wont to be given; I scarce doubt, but he would look upon it as an unintelligible thing, and incumbered with too many difficulties to be fit to be admitted into a wise man's belief. And this perhaps
you

you will grant me, if you have ever put yourself to the penance of perusing those confounding disputes and speculations about time and eternity, that partly in *Aristotle* and his commentators, and partly among the schoolmen, and others, are to be met with upon these abstruse subjects. And no wonder, since the learned *Gassendus* and his followers have very plausibly (if not solidly) shewn, that duration (and time is but duration measured) is neither a substance nor an accident, which they also hold of space; about which the altercations among philosophers and schoolmen are but little, if at all, inferior to those about time. And I the rather choose to mention these instances of time and space, because they agree very well with what I intimated by the expression of primary or heteroclite things.

To which may be referred some of those things, that are called spiritual or supernatural, about which the same considerations may have place, especially by reason of this affinity between them, that when we treat of either, some proofs may in certain cases be sufficient, in spite of such objections, as in other (and more ordinary cases) should invalidate arguments seemingly as strong as those proofs.

If it be here objected, that I am too bold in venturing, without the precedence or authority of learned men, to introduce so great a difference betwixt other things, and those, which I call primary and heteroclite; I answer, that I shall not solicitously enquire, whether any others have had the same thoughts, that I proposed; since, whether they be new or no, they ought not to be rejected, if they be rational.

AND I have this inducement to suppose, that there ought to be in some cases a great difference between them and other things, and consequently between the judgments we make of the ways of arguing about them, and about other things; so that they are exceeding difficult, to be clearly conceived and explicated by our imperfect faculties, and by that difficulty, apt to make what men say of them, though true, to be less satisfactory and acquiesced in, than things not more true or rational, suggested upon enquiries about subjects more familiar, or which are, at least, more proportionate to our faculties: for those abstruse things, of which we have been speaking, being such, as either have no proper and clear genus, by the help of which they may be comprehended, or have not any thing in nature, that is (sufficiently, like them) by a resemblance to which we may conceive them; or being perhaps, both primary and heteroclite too, as not being derived from the common physical causes of other things, and having a nature widely differing from the rest of things; it is no wonder, that our limited and imperfect understandings should not be able to reach to a full and clear comprehension of them; but should be swallowed up with the scruples and difficulties, that may be suggested by a bold and nice enquiry into things, to which there seems to belong, in some respect or other, a kind of infinity.

UPON these, and other considerations of kin to them, I count it not irrational to think, that things primary and heteroclite, as also by a parity of reason, some things immaterial and supernatural, may be sufficiently proved in their kind, if there be such a positive proof of them, as would be competent and satisfactory, in case there were no considerable objections made against the thing proved (especially supposing, that the asserted doctrine be not incumbered with much greater inconveniencies than the contrary doctrine, or than any other, proposed concerning that subject:) nay, I know not, why we may not, in judging of primary, and of immaterial things, safely enough prefer that opinion, which has the more cogent positive proofs, though it seem liable to somewhat the greater inconveniencies; because, in such cases, our understanding is gratified with what it most requires in all cases, that is, competent positive inducements to assent; and it is not confounded by the objections, because a disability

to answer them directly, and fully, may very well proceed, either from the too abstruse nature of the thing, or the limitedness and weakness of our human intellects.

AND thus we may render a reason, why, when we discourse of such uncommon matters, we may sometimes reasonably acquiesce in proofs, in spite of such objections, as in ordinary cases would be prevailing ones. For the things, about which these proofs are conversant, being primary or heteroclitic, or of as abstruse a nature, as if they were so, it too often happens, that, what opinion soever we choose about them, we must admit something, that is incumbered with great difficulties, and therefore will be liable to great objections, that perhaps will never be directly and satisfactorily answered. And since it may fare thus with us, where two opposite opinions are contradictory, we may conclude, that those difficulties will not cogently evince the falsity of a theological opinion, which are but such, that the same, or as great, may be objected against another, that either is manifestly or confessedly a truth, or which must necessarily be admitted to be one, if the contrary theological tenet be supposed not to be one.

2. ANOTHER corollary, that may be drawn from the discourse, that afforded us the former, may be this; that it may not be unreasonable to believe a thing, though its proof be very difficult to be understood. To manifest this, I shall need no other argument, than what may be afforded by divers geometrical and other mathematical demonstrations; some of which are fetched, by intermediate conclusions, from principles so very remote, and require so long a series of mediums to be employed about them, that not only a man, that were of *Pilate's* temper, who having asked him, that could best tell him, what is truth? would not stay a while to be satisfied about his enquiry, would, before he reaches half way to the end of the demonstration, or perhaps of the lemmas, be quite discouraged from proceeding any further; but even sedulous and heedful perusers do find themselves oftentimes unable to carry along such a chain of inferences in their minds, as clearly to discern, whether the whole ratiocination be coherent, and all the particulars have their due strength and connection. And if you please to make a trial upon some of the demonstrations of *Vitellio*, or even of *Clavius*, that I can direct you to, I doubt they will put you to the full exercise of your patience, and quite tire your attention: and though the modern algebraists, by their excellent way of expressing quantities by symbols, have so abridged geometrical and arithmetical demonstrations, that, by the help of species, it is sometimes easy to demonstrate, that in a line, which in the ordinary way would require a whole page, (as our most learned friend Dr. *Ward* has ingeniously shewn, by giving the demonstrations of about twenty of Mr. *Hobbes's* theorems, in less than so many lines;) yet some demonstrable truths are so abstruse, that, even in the symbolical way, men need more attention to discern them, than most men would employ in any speculation whatsoever. And *Des Cartes* himself, as famous and expert a master as he was in this way, confesses, in a letter to one of his friends, that the solution of a problem in *Pappus* cost him no less than six weeks study; though now, most mathematical demonstrations do indeed seem far shorter than they are, because that *Euclid's* elements being generally received among mathematicians, all his propositions are so many lemmata, which need be but referred to in the margin, being known and demonstrated already. By all which it may appear, that, granting some theological truths to be complained of by many, as things so mysterious and abstruse, that they cannot readily discern the force of those proofs, that *Des Cartes*, and other subtle speculators, have proposed to evince them; yet if other learned men, that are competent estimators, and are accustomed to bring much patience and attention to the discernment of difficult and important truths, profess themselves satisfied with them, the probations may yet be cogent, notwithstanding the difficulty.

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difficulty to have their strength apprehended. For, if such a difficulty ought to pass for a mark, that a ratiocination is not valid, no reasonings will be found fitter to be rejected or distrusted, than many of those, whose cogency has procured such a repute to mathematical demonstrations.

3. It may also be deduced from the foregoing discourse, that it is not always against reason to embrace an opinion, which may be incumbered with a great difficulty, or liable to an objection not easy to be solved; especially if the subject be such, that other opinions about it avoid not either the same inconveniencies, or as great ones. The first part of what is said in this consideration will often follow from the supposition made in the precedent discourse. For those things, that render a doctrine or assertion difficult to be conceived and explained, will easily supply the adversaries of it with objections against it.

AND as for the latter, viz. the clause, which takes notice, that the consideration, to which it is annexed, will chiefly take place in that sort of opinions, that are specified in it; it will need but little of distinct proof.

FOR it is manifest enough, that if the subject or object, about which the opinion proposed is conversant, be such, that not only the contradictory opinion, but others also, are obnoxious either to the same inconveniencies, or to others, that are equal or greater; the difficulties, that are urged against a theological doctrine, may (as hath been shewn already in the first corollary,) be rationally enough attributed, not to the unreasonableness of the opinion, but to somewhat else.

THE last consectary, that (as I intimated) may be deduced from the precedent discourse, is, that it is not always unreasonable to believe something theological for a truth, which (I do not say, is truly inconsistent with, but) we do not clearly discern to comport very well with something else, that we also take for a truth, or perhaps, that is one indeed; if the theological tenet be sufficiently proved in its kind, and be of that sort of things, that we have been of late, and are yet discoursing of.

THE generality of our philosophers, as well as divines, believe, that God has a foreknowledge of all future contingencies; and yet how a certain prescience can consist with the freewill of man, (which yet is generally granted him, in things merely moral or civil,) is so difficult to discern, that the Socinians are wont to deny such things, as depend upon the will of free agents, to be the proper objects of omniscience; and the head of the Remonstrants, though a very subtle writer, confesses, that he knows not, how clearly to make out the consistency of God's prescience, and man's freedom; both which he yet confesses to be truths, being compelled to acknowledge the former, (for the latter is evident,) as well by the infiniteness, that must be ascribed to God's perfections, as by the prophetick predictions, whereby such contingent events have been actually foretold. And the reconciliation of these truths is not a difficulty peculiar to the Christian religion, but concerns speculative men in all religions, who acknowledge the Deity to be infinitely perfect, and allow man, as they do, to be a free agent.

[BUT I have made this section so prolix already, that I must not enlarge on this third particular. And therefore I shall shut it up with an acknowledgment of *Des Cartes*, which may be applied not only to it, but to almost all, that has been discoursed in this section, and indeed to a great part of this letter. He then in an epistle, that came not forth, till some years after the writer's death, speaks thus to the philosophical adversary, to whom it is addressed: "As I have often said, when the question
" is about things that relate to God, or to what is infinite, we must not consider,
" what we can comprehend of them, (since we know, that they ought not to be com-
" prehended by us) but only what we can conceive of them, or can attain to by any
" certain reason or argument."]

S E C T I O N VII.

AND now it is time to advance to one of the main considerations I had to propose to you, concerning the subject of this letter, and it is this ; that when we are to judge, whether a thing be contrary to reason or not, there is a great deal of difference, whether we take reason for the faculty furnished only with its own innate principle, and such notions, as are generally obvious, (nay, and if you please, with this or that philosophical theory ;) or for the faculty illuminated by divine revelation, especially that, which is contained in the books commonly called the Scripture.

To clear and enforce this the better, I shall invite you to take notice with me of the two following particulars.

We may then in the first place consider, that even in things merely natural, men do not think it at all irrational, to believe divers such things upon extrinsecal proofs, especially the testimony of the skilful, as, if it were not for that testimony, a man, though born with good parts, and possibly very learned in the Peripatetick, or some other particular philosophy, would look upon as irrational to be believed, and contrary to the laws of nature.

Of this I shall give you some instances in the phænomena of the loadstone, and particularly such as these ; that the loadstone, though (as was above intimated) with one part it will draw, yet with another the same stone will repel the same point of the same excited needle ; and yet at the same time be fit to attract either point of another needle, that never came near a loadstone before : that though it be the loadstone, that imparts an attractive virtue to the iron, yet when the loadstone is capped, as they called it, and so a piece of iron (and consequently a distance) is interposed betwixt the stone and the weight to be raised, it will take up by many times more, than if it be itself applied immediately thereunto, insomuch that *Mersennus* relates, that (if there be no mistake,) he had a loadstone, that of itself would take up but half an ounce of iron, which when armed (or capped) would lift up ten pounds, which, says he, exceeded the former weight three hundred and twenty times : that a mariner's needle, being once touched with a vigorous loadstone, will afterwards, when freely poised, turn itself north and south ; and if it be by force made to regard the east and west, or any other points of the compass, as soon as it is left at liberty, it will of itself return to its former position : that a loadstone floating on water will as well come to, and follow a piece of iron, that is kept from advancing towards it, as, when itself is fixed, and the iron at liberty, it will draw that metal to it : that without any sensible alteration in the agent or the patient, the loadstone will in a trice communicate all its virtues to a piece of steel, and enable that to communicate them to another piece of the same metal : that if a loadstone, having been marked at one end, be cut longwise according to its axis, and one segment be freely suspended over the other, the halves of the marked end, that touched one another before, will not now lie together, but the lower will drive away the upper ; and that, which regarded the north in the marked end of the intire loadstone, will join with that extreme of the lower half, which in the intire stone regarded the south : that (as appears by this last named property) there are the same magnetical qualities in the separated parts of a magnet, as in the intire stone ; and if it be cut, or even rudely broken into a great many parts or fragments, every one of these portions, though perhaps not so big as a corn of wheat, will, if I may so speak, set up for itself, and have its own northern and southern poles, and become a little magnet *sui juris*, or independent upon the stone, from which it was severed, and from all its other parts : that if a loadstone be skilfully made spherical, this little mag-

In his little tract *De Magnētis Proprietatibus*. p. m. 350.

netick globe, very fitly by our *Gilbert* called a terrella, will not only, being freely placed, turn north and south, and retain that position, but have its poles, its meridians, its æquator, &c. upon good grounds designable upon it, as they are upon the great globe of the earth. And this will hold, whether the terrella be great or small.

I might not only much encrease the number of these odd magnetical phænomena, but add others about other subjects; but these may suffice to suggest to us this reflection, that there is no doubt to be made, but that a man, who never had the opportunity to see or hear of magnetical experiments, would look upon these as contrary to the principles of nature, and therefore to the dictates of reason, as accordingly some learned Aristotelians, to whom I had occasion to propose some of them, rejected them as incredible. And I doubt not, but I could frame as plausible arguments from the mere axioms of philosophers, and the doctrine of philosophick schools against some magnetical phænomena, which experience hath satisfied me of, as are wont to be drawn from the same topicks against the mysterious articles of faith; since among the strange properties of the loadstone there are some, which are not only admirable and stupendous, but seem repugnant to the dictates of the received philosophy and the course of nature. For whereas natural bodies, how subtile soever, require some particular dispositions in the medium, through which their corpuscles are to be diffused, or their actions transmitted; so that light itself, whether it be a most subtile body, or a naked quality, is resisted by all opacous mediums, and the very effluvia of amber and other electricks will not permeate the thinnest glass, or even a sheet of fine paper; yet the loadstone readily performing his operations through all kind of mediums, without excepting glass itself.

If the poles of two magnetick needles do both of them regard the north, another philosopher would conclude them to have a sympathy, at least to be unlikely to disagree: and yet, if he bring these extremes of the same denomination within the reach of one another, one will presently drive away the other, as if there were a powerful antipathy between them.

A somewhat long needle being placed horizontally, and exactly poised upon the point of a pin, if you gently touch one end with the pole of a vigorous magnet, that end shall manifestly dip or stoop, though you often take it off the pin, and put it on again. And this inclination of the needle will continue many years, and yet there is not only no other sensible change made in the metal by the contact of the loadstone; but one end has required a durable preponderancy, though the other be not lighter, nor the whole needle heavier than before. And the inclination of the magnetick needle may be by another touch of the loadstone taken away, without lessening the weight of the part, that is deprived of it.

THE operation, that, in a trice, the loadstone has on a mariner's needle, though it makes no sensible change in it, or weakens the loadstone itself, will not be lost, though you carry it as far as the southern hemisphere: but it will not be the same in all places, but in some, the magnetick needle will point directly at the north, in others, it will deviate or decline some degrees towards the east or the west: and, which seems yet more strange, the same needle in the same place will not always regard the same point of the compass, but, looked on at distant times, may vary from the true meridian, sometimes to the west, and afterwards to the east.

ALL the communicable virtues of the magnet may be imparted to iron, without any actual contact of the two bodies, but barely by approaching in a convenient way the iron to the loadstone for a few moments. And the metal may likewise be deprived of those virtues in a trice, without any immediate contact by the same, or another loadstone.

If you mark one end of a rod, or other oblong piece of iron, that never came near a magnet, and hold it perpendicularly, you may at pleasure, and in the hundredth part of a minute, make it become the north or south pole of a magnetical body. For if, when it is held upright, you apply to the bottom of it the north extreme of an excited and well-poised needle, the lower end of the iron will drive away that extreme, which yet will be drawn by the upper end of the same iron. And if, by inverting, you make this lower end the uppermost, it will not attract, but repel the same lilly or north point of the needle, just under which it is to be perpendicularly held.

THOUGH *vis unita fortior* be a received rule among naturalists; yet oftentimes, if a magnet be cut into pieces, these will take up, and sustain much more iron, than the entire stone was able to do.

If, of two good loadstones, the former be much bigger, and on that account stronger than the other, the greater will draw a piece of iron, and retain it much more strongly than the lesser; and yet, when the iron sticks fast to the greater and stronger loadstone, the lesser and weaker may draw the iron from it, and take it quite away.

THESE phænomena, (to mention now no more,) are so repugnant to the common sentiments of naturalists, and the ordinary course of things, that, if, antecedently to any testimony of experience, these magnetical properties had been proposed to *Aristotle* himself, he would probably have judged them fictitious things, as repugnant to the laws of nature: nevertheless, though it seems incredible, that the bare touch of a loadstone should impart to the mariner's needle a property, which, (as far as we know) nothing in the whole world, that is not magnetical, can communicate or possess; and should operate (as men suppose) upon it at three or four thousand leagues distance; yet this is believed by the Peripateticks themselves upon the testimony of those navigators, that have sailed to the *East* and *West-Indies*; and divers even of the more rigid of the modern philosophers believe more than this, upon the testimony of *Gilbert*, *Cabeus*, *Kircherus*, and other learned magnetical writers, who have affirmed these things; most of which I can also aver to you upon my own knowledge.

THUS the habitableness of the torrid zone, though (as I lately noted) upon probable grounds denied by *Aristotle*, and the generality of philosophers for many ages; yet not only that, but its populousness, is now confidently believed by the Peripatetick schoolmen themselves, who never were there.

AND though *Ptolomy*, and some other eminent astronomers, did with great care and skill, and by the help of geometry, as well as observations, frame a theory of the planets so plausibly contrived, that most of the succeeding mathematicians for twelve or fourteen ages acquiesced in it; yet almost all the modern philosophers and astronomers, that have searched into these matters, with a readiness to believe their eyes, and allow their reason to act freely, have been forced, if not to reject the whole theory, yet, at least to alter it quite, as to the number and order of the planets, though these last named innovations are sometimes solely, and always mainly, built upon the phænomena, discovered to us by two or three pieces of glass placed in a long hollow cane, and honoured with the name of a telescope.

THE last of the two things, I invited you to consider with me, is this, that when we are to judge, which of two disagreeing opinions is most rational, i. e. to be judged most agreeable to right reason, we ought to give sentence, not for that, which the faculty, furnished only with such and such notions, whether vulgar, or borrowed from this or that sect of philosophers, would prefer, but that, which is preferred by the faculty, furnished, either with all the evidence requisite or advantageous to make it give

a right judgment in the case lying before it, or, when that cannot be had, with the best and fullest informations, that it can procure.

THIS is so evident by its own light, that your friend might look upon it as an affront to his judgment, if I should go about solicitously to prove it. And therefore I shall only advertise you, that, provided the information be such, as a man has just cause to believe, and perceives, that he clearly understands, it will not alter the case, whether he have it by reason, as that is taken for the faculty furnished but with its inbred notions, and the more common observations, or by some philosophical theory, or by experiments purposely devised, or by testimony human or divine; which last we call revelation. For all these are but differing ways of informing the understanding, and of signifying to it the same thing; as the sight and the touch may assure a man, that a body is smooth or rough, or in motion or at rest; (and in some other instances, several senses discover to us the same object, which is therefore called *objectum commune*;) and provided these informations have the conditions lately intimated, which way soever the understanding receives them, it may safely reason and build opinions upon them.

ASTRONOMERS have within these hundred years observed, that a star hath appeared among the fixed ones for some time, and having afterwards disappeared, has yet some years after that shewed itself again. And though, as to this surprizing phænomenon, our experimental philosophers could have contributed nothing to the producing it, and though it is quite out of all the received systems of the heavens, that astronomers have hitherto delivered; yet the star itself may be a true celestial light, and may allow us to philosophize upon it, and draw inferences from the discoveries it makes us; as well as we can from the phænomena of those stars, that are not extraordinary, and of those falling stars, that are within our own ken and region.

THAT the supernatural things, said to be performed by witches and evil spirits, might, if true, supply us with hypotheses and mediums, whereby to constitute and prove theories, as well as the phænomena of mere nature, seems tacitly indeed, but yet sufficiently, to be acknowledged, by those modern naturalists, that care not to take any other way to decline the consequences, that may be drawn from such relations, than solicitously to shew, that the relations themselves are all, as I fear most of them are, false, and occasioned by the credulity or imposture of men.

BUT not to do any more than glance at these matters, let us proceed upon what is more unquestionable, and consider, that, since even our most critical philosophers do admit many of the astonishing attributes of magnetick bodies, which themselves never had occasion to see, upon the testimony of *Gilbert*, and others, who never were able to give the true causes of them; because they look upon those relators as honest men, and judicious enough not to be imposed upon as to the matter of fact; since, I say, such amazing things are believed by such severe naturalists, upon the authority of men, who did not know the intimate nature of magnetick bodies; and since these strange phænomena are not only assented to, as true, by the philosophers we speak of, but many philosophical consequences are without hæsitancy deduced from them, without any blemish to the judgment of those, that give their assent both to the things and the inferences; why should it be contrary to reason to believe the testimony of God, either about his nature, which he can best, and he alone can fully know, or about the things, which either he himself has done, as the creation of the world, and of man; or which he means to do, as the destroying the world, (whether the whole world, or our great vortex only, I dispute not) and the raising both of good and bad men to life again, to receive rewards and punishments, according to their demerits. For methinks that

² John v. 9. apostle argues very well, who says, “if we receive the testimony of men, the testimony of God is greater;” especially about such things concerning his own nature, will,

will, and purposes, as it is evident, that reason, by its own unassisted light, cannot give us the knowledge of.

So that we Christians, in assenting to doctrines upon the account of revelation, need not, nor do not, reject the authority of reason, but only appeal from reason to itself, i. e. from reason, as it is more slightly, to its dictates, as it is more fully informed. Of which two sorts of dictates there is nothing more rational, than to prefer the latter to the former.

AND for my part, I am apt to think, that, if what has been represented in this section, were duly considered, this alone would very much contribute to prevent or answer most of the objections, that make such of the questioners of religion, as are not resolutely vicious, entertain such hard thoughts of some articles of the Christian faith, as if they were directly repugnant to reason. For, as we were observing, that is not to be looked on as the judgment of reason, that is pronounced even by a rational man, according to a set of notions, though the inferences from these would be rational, in case there were nothing else fit to be taken into consideration by him, that judges; but that is rather to be looked upon as the judgment of reason, which takes in the most information procurable, that is pertinent to the things under consideration. And therefore men, though otherwise learned and witty, shew themselves not equal estimators of the case of those, that believe the articles we speak of, when they pronounce them to assent irrationally, because the things they assent to cannot be demonstrated or maintained by mere natural reason, and would probably be rejected by *Democritus*, *Epicurus*, *Aristotle*, or any other of the ancient philosophers, to whom they should be nakedly proposed, and whose judgment should be desired about them. For, although this allegation would signify much, if we pretended to prove what we believe only by arguments drawn from the nature of the thing assented to; yet it will not signify much in our case, wherein we pretend to prove what we believe, chiefly by divine testimony, and therefore ought not to be concluded guilty of an irrational assent, unless it can be shewn, either that divine testimony is not duly challenged by us for the main of our religion; or that in the particular articles we father something on that testimony, which is not contained in it, or rightly deducible from it. And to put us upon the proving our particular articles of faith, sufficiently delivered in the scriptures, and not knowable without revelation, by arguments merely natural, without taking notice of those we can bring for the proof of that revelation, on whose account we embrace those articles, is to challenge a man to a duel, upon condition he shall make no use of his best weapons; and is as unreasonable, as if a schoolman should challenge your friend to prove, that the torrid zone is inhabited, against the reasons, that the Aristotelians are wont to give to prove it uninhabitable, without allowing him to make use of the testimony of navigators, who assure us of the constant breezes, that daily ventilate the air, and qualify that heat, which otherwise would not be supported, and who furnish us with those other circumstances, whereon to build our proofs, which we, that were never there, can have but by relation.

AND indeed, the limitations, that Christian religion puts to some of the dictates of philosophy, which were wont to be admitted in a more general and unrestrained sense, and the doctrines about God and the soul, &c. that it superadds to those, which the light of nature might lead men to about the same subjects; though to some they may seem injurious to philosophy and reason, are as little unkind to either, as is the gardener to a crab-stock, or some such other wild plant, when by cutting off some of the branches, and by making a slit in the bark, that he may graft on it a pare-main, or some other choice apples, by this seemingly hard usage he brings it to bear much nobler fruit, than, if left to its own natural condition, it ever would have done.

I know

I know not, whether to all, that hath been said in this section, I may not add thus much further, that it sometimes happens, that those very things, which at first were proposed to the understanding, and believed upon the score of revelation, are afterward assented to by it upon the account of mere reason. To which purpose I consider, that not any of the ancient philosophers, nay, as far as I have read, even of those, that believed God to be the author of the world, dreamed, that he created matter of nothing, but only formed the world out of præ-existent matter; whereas Christian divines usually teach, as an article of faith, that besides what they call a mediate creation, as when fishes were made out of the water, or *Adam's* body was made out of the earth, there was an immediate production of matter itself out of nothing.

S E C T I O N VIII.

AFTER what has been hitherto discoursed, it may be seasonable to consider, what kind of probation, or what degree of evidence may reasonably be thought sufficient, to make the Christian religion thought fit to be embraced.

PERHAPS I shall not need to tell you, that, besides the demonstrations wont to be treated of in vulgar logick, there are among philosophers three distinct, whether kinds or degrees, of demonstration. For there is a metaphysical demonstration, as we may call that, where the conclusion is manifestly built on those general metaphysical axioms, that can never be other than true; such as *nihil potest simul esse & non esse; non entis nullæ sunt proprietates reales, &c.* There are also physical demonstrations, where the conclusion is evidently deduced from physical principles; such as are *ex nihilo nihil fit: Nulla substantia in nihilum redigitur, &c.* which are not so absolutely certain as the former, because, if there be a God, he may (at least for aught we know) be able to create and annihilate substances; and yet are held unquestionable by the ancient naturalists, who still suppose them in their theories. And lastly, there are moral demonstrations, such as those, where the conclusion is built, either upon some one such proof cogent in its kind, or some concurrence of probabilities, that it cannot be but allowed, supposing the truth of the most received rules of prudence and principles of practical philosophy.

AND this third kind of probation, though it come behind the two others in certainty, yet it is the surest guide, which the actions of men, though not their contemplations, have regularly allowed them to follow. And the conclusions of a moral demonstration are the surest, that men aspire to, not only in the conduct of private men's affairs, but in the government of states, and even of the greatest monarchies and empires. And this is considerable in moral demonstrations, that such may consist, and be, as it were, made up of particulars, that are each of them but probable; of which, the laws established by God himself among his own people, as well as the practice of our courts of justice here in *England*, afford us a manifest instance in the case of murder, and some other criminal causes. For, though the testimony of a single witness shall not suffice to prove the accused party guilty of murder; yet the testimony of two witnesses, though but of equal credit, that is, a second testimony added to the first, though of itself never a whit more credible than the former, shall ordinarily suffice to prove a man guilty; because it is thought reasonable to suppose, that, though each testimony single be but probable, yet a concurrence of such probabilities, (which ought in reason to be attributed to the truth of what they jointly tend to prove) may well amount to a moral certainty, *i. e.* such a certainty, as may warrant the judge to proceed to the sentence of death against the indicted party.

To apply these things now to the Christian religion: if you consider, with how much approbation from discerning men, that judicious observation of *Aristotle* has been

been entertained, where he says, that it is as unskilful and improper a thing, to require mathematical demonstrations in moral affairs, as to take up with moral arguments in matters mathematical; you will not deny, but that those articles of the Christian religion, that can be proved by a moral, though not by a metaphysical or physical demonstration, may, without any blemish to a man's reason, be assented to; and that consequently (by virtue of the foregoing considerations) those other articles of the Christian faith, that are clearly and legitimately deducible from the so demonstrated truths, may likewise, without disparagement, be assented to.

WE may also here consider further, that the chusing, or refusing to embrace the Christian religion, which is not proposed to us only as a system of speculative doctrines, but also as a body of laws; according to which, it teaches us, that God commands us to worship him, and regulate our lives; the embracing, I say, or not embracing this religion, is an act of human choice, and therefore ought to be determined according to the dictates of prudence. Now, though in matters, that very much import us, we may wish for and endeavour after such reasons, whereby to determine our resolves, as may amount to moral demonstrations; yet prudence will not always require, that we should refuse to act upon arguments of a less cogency, than moral demonstrations. For oftentimes, in human affairs, it so falls out, that divers hazards, or other inconveniencies, will attend whatever resolution we take; and in that case, all that prudence requires, or can enable us to do, is, to take that resolution, which upon the whole matter seems to be preferable to any other; though that, which is thus preferred, may perhaps be liable to some objection, that cannot be directly answered, but only obliquely, by the preponderancy of the arguments, that persuade the choice, against which the objection is made.

BUT here perhaps you will tell me, that the safest way, in case of such importance, is to suspend an action, that is every way attended with difficulties, and to forbear either embracing or rejecting the Christian religion, till the truth or falseness of it come to appear evident and unquestionable.

TO which I answer, that indeed in matters of bare speculation, about which our understandings only need to be conversant, the suspension of assent is not only practicable, but usually the safest way; but *Des Cartes* himself, who has been the greatest example and inculcator of this suspension, declares, that he would have it practised only about human speculations, not about human actions; *sed hæc interim dubitatio ad solam contemplationem veritatis restringenda; non quantum ad usum vitæ: quia persæpe rerum agendarum occasio præteriret, antequam nos dubiis nostris exolvere possemus. Non raro quod tantum est verisimile cogimur amplecti, vel etiam interdum, etsi è duobus unum altero verisimilius non appareat, alterutrum tamen eligere.* And in some of his other writings he speaks so much to shew, that it is unreasonable to expect in matters, where embracing or rejecting a course, that requires practice, is necessary, such a certainty, as he judges necessary to make a true philosopher acquiesce in reference to propositions about speculative matters, that I find by one of his letters, that he was vehemently accused for having taught, that men need not have as sure grounds for chusing virtuous and avoiding vicious courses, as for determining about things merely notional.

AND here let me observe to you the difference, that I take notice of in the cases, where we are put upon deliberating, whether we will chuse or refuse a thing proposed. For it may be propounded to us, either as a proffer, on whose acceptance an advantage may be hoped, or as a duty, which, besides the advantage it promises to the performance, has a penalty annexed to the non-performance, or as an only expedient to avoid a great mischief, or obtain a great good.

Thus,

THUS, when in the *Theatrum Chymicum* some of its chief authors, as *Lully*, *Geber*, *Artephius*, who pretend to have been *adepti*, i. e. possessors of the elixir, very earnestly exhort their readers to apply themselves to so noble and useful a study as alchymy, (by the help of which, the last named *Artephius* is said to have lived 1000 years,) they make but a proposition of the first sort. For though a prosperous attempt to make the philosophers stone (supposing there be such a thing) would possess a man of an inestimable treasure; yet, if he either refuse to believe these writers, or if he do believe them, refuses to take the pains required of him, that would follow their counsel, he can only miss of the wealth, &c. they would make him hope for, but is really never a whit the poorer, or in a worse condition, than if they had not endeavoured to engage him.

BUT if an absolute sovereign commands something to be done by his subjects; and to enforce his command, does not only propose great recompenses to those, that shall perform what it prescribed, but threatens heavy penalties to the disobedient; this will belong to the second sort of cases above mentioned, in which, as it is evident, a man has not the same latitude allowed him as in the first.

BUT if we suppose, that a man by a translation of very peccant matter has got a spreading gangrene in his arm, and a skilful surgeon tell him, that, if he will part with his arm, he may be recovered, and save his life, which else he will certainly lose; this case will belong to the last sort above-mentioned; the patient's parting with his arm being the only remedy of the gangrene, and expedient to save his life, and recover his health. And here also it is manifest, that there are far stronger motives, than those mentioned in the first case, to make a positive and timely resolution.

To bring this home to our subject, I need but mind you, that the Christian doctrine does not only promise a heaven to sincere believers, but threatens no less than a hell to the refractory.

Deutr. xi.
26, 27, 28.

THE voice of *Moses* to the *Jews* is this, "Behold, I set before you this day a blessing and a curse; a blessing, if ye obey the commandments of the Lord your God, which I command you this day; and a curse, if ye will not obey the commandment of the Lord your God, but turn aside out of the way, which I command you this day."

Mark xvi.
15, 16.

AND the commission, that Christ gave his apostles, to preach the gospel, runs thus: "Go ye into all the world, and preach the gospel to every creature," i. e. to all mankind; "he that believeth, and is baptized, shall be saved; but he, that believeth not, shall be damned."

John vi. i.
24.

By this you may perceive, that as far as there is either truth or probability in the Christian religion, so far forth he, that refuses to become a disciple to it, runs a venture, not only to lose the greatest blessings, that men can hope, but to fall eternally into the greatest miseries that they can fear. And indeed our case, in reference to the Christian religion may not only be referred to the second sort of cases lately mentioned, but to the third sort too. For as the language of the author of the Christian religion was to his auditors. "If ye believe not, that I am he (the *Messias*) ye shall die in your sins;" so of the two greatest heralds of it, the one tells the *Jews*, that neither is there salvation in any other: for, "there is no other name under heaven given among men, whereby we must be saved:" And the other tells the *Thessalonians*, that the "Lord

Acts iv. 12.

2 Thess. i.
7, 8, 9.

"Jesus shall be revealed from heaven with his mighty angels in flaming fire, taking vengeance on them, that know not God, and obey not the gospel of our Lord Jesus Christ; who shall be punished with everlasting destruction from the presence of the Lord, and from the glory of his power."

By all this it appears, that the Christian religion is not proposed barely as a proffer of heaven in case men embrace it, but as a law, that men should embrace it upon the greatest

greatest penalty, and as the only expedient and remedy to attain eternal happiness, and escape endless misery; so that the forbearing to submit our necks to the yoke of Christ being as well a ruinous course, as to reject it, that, which reason here puts us upon, is, not so much to consider, whether or no the arguments for the Christian religion be demonstrations, and will enable a man to answer directly all objections and scruples; (for there are divers courses, that prudence may enjoin a man to steer, whilst philosophy suggests speculative doubts about the grounds of such resolutions;) but whether it be more likely to be true, than not to be true, or rather, whether it be not more adviseable to perform the conditions it requires upon a probable expectation of obtaining the blessings it promises, than by refusing it to run a probable hazard of incurring such great and endless miseries, as it peremptorily threatens.

It will perhaps be said, that this is a hard case. But that is an allegation I am not here to consider; since it properly belongs to the doctrine about the providence of God, who being the only Author and absolute Lord of the creatures, who can receive neither laws nor benefits from them, that can oblige him to them; has a right to prescribe them what laws he thinks fit, that are not impossible for them to obey, and to punish their disobedience to such laws; and much more has a right to annex what conditions he pleases, to that inestimable felicity he holds forth; the proffer of it upon any terms being a free act of his mere goodness, and the value of it incomparably surpassing whatever we men can do or suffer to obtain it; especially considering, that, as he might enforce his commands, as sovereigns commonly do, by threatening penalties to the disobedient, without proposing rewards to the performers; so he has given men such probable arguments to ground their expectations on, that they will be self-condemned, if they reject the religion he proposes, and yet maintain it to be decent (if I may so speak) for him to crown their faith with unvaluable blessings. But, as I was saying, the direct and full answer to this allegation belongs not to this place, where it may suffice to say, that, whether the case be hard or no, yet this is the case. And therefore, though the proofs of the Christian religion did not amount (which yet I do not grant) to moral demonstrations, a man may act rationally in embracing that religion, if all things considered, it appear more likely to be true, than not to be true.

AND I shall by and by shew you, that this is not the only case, where prudence puts us upon making resolutions, notwithstanding contrary doubts.

I know the harshness of the case is by most men made to consist in this, that for a religion, whereof the truth supposed in its promises and threats is not demonstratively proved, we must resign up our pleasures, and sometimes undergo considerable hardships and losses, and consequently we must quit what is certain, for what is uncertain. I have in another paper had occasion to say something else to this objection, than what (to avoid repetition) shall make up my present answer, which consists of two parts.

THE first whereof is, that what we are to give up to become Christians, is not really so valuable in itself, as the objectors think, and that it is of scarce any value at all, if compared to the goods we may acquire by parting with them. For alas! what is it, that Christianity requires us to forego, but small petty enjoyments? which those, that have had the most of, have found them, and pronounced them unsatisfactory, whilst they possessed them, and which manifest experience shews to be no less transitory, than they have been declared empty, since a thousand accidents may take them from us, and death will infallibly, after a short time (which can be but a moment compared to eternity) take us from them. And if it be said, that these enjoyments, such as they are, are at least the only happiness, that we can make ourselves sure of; I must freely profess, that I think it therefore the more reasonable to part with them, if it be necessary,

upon the hopes, that Christian religion gives us. For (especially if a man behold those things, not only with a philosophical eye, that can look through them, but with a Christian eye, that can look beyond them,) if there can be no greater happiness, I do not think so poor a thing, as men call happiness, worth being greedily desired; and if there be such a transcendent happiness as Christianity holds forth, I am sure, that deserves to be the object of my ambition. So that either the meanness of worldly happiness will make me think it no great misery to want it, or the excellency of heavenly felicity will make me think it great wisdom to part with earthly for it.

AND now, in the second part of my answer, I must invite you to consider with me, that Christian religion requires not of us actions more imprudent, than divers others, that are generally looked upon as complying with the dictates of prudence, and some of them practised, by great politicians themselves, in the weighty affairs of state.

You know, what a common practice it is, in great storms at sea, for the merchants themselves to throw over-board their goods, and, perhaps too, their victuals, (as in *Paul's* case) though they be sure to lose what they cast away, and are not certain, either that this loss will save the ship, or that the ship may not be saved without it. The wisest, and even the worldliest men, whether princes or private persons, think themselves never more so, than when they toil, and lay out their care and time, and usually deny themselves many things, to provide advantageously for children, which they have but a woman's word for, and consequently a bare moral probability to assure them to be theirs.

IN the small pox many physicians are for bleeding, and others (as most of our English practitioners) are very much against it. Supposing then (which is no very rare case) that a person invaded by that disease be told by one of his physicians, that, unless nature be eased of part of her burthen by phlebotomy, she will never be able to overcome the disease; and on the contrary, the other assures him, that, if by exhausting the treasure of life, (the blood) he further weakens nature, which is but too weak already, the disease must needs overcome her: what can a prudent man do in this case, where he can take no resolution, against which probable arguments that are not directly and fully to be answered, may not be opposed, and where yet the suspension of his resolution may be as ruinous, as the venturing to take either of those he is invited to?

AND in the formerly mentioned case, a man, that has a spreading gangrene in his arm, if he consents, that it be cut off, which prudence often requires that he should do, he is certain to lose one of his usefulest limbs, and is not certain, but that he may save his life without that loss, nor that he shall save it by that loss.

AND to give you an instance or two of a more publick nature; how many examples does history afford us of famous generals and other great commanders, who have ventured their forces and their lives to seize upon places promised to be betrayed to them by those they had corrupted with money; though the ground, upon which they run this hazard, be the engagement of some, who, if they were not traytors, that could falsify their faith, would never have been bribed to make so criminal and ignominious an engagement? How often have the greatest politicians either resolved to enter into a war, or taken courses, that they foresee will end in a war, upon the informations they receive from those they have corrupted in other prince's councils; though, to believe such intelligencers, those, who venture so much upon their informations, must suppose them faithless and perfidious men?

IT were not difficult, to add other instances to the same purpose, by which, joined with what has been above discoursed, it may appear, that a man need not renounce or lay aside his reason to resolve to fulfil the conditions of the gospel, though the arguments for it were none of them demonstrative ones. For, so much as a probability of obtaining

obtaining by it such inestimable blessings, as it proposes, and little more than a bare probability of incurring, by rejecting it, such unspeakable miseries, as it threatens, may rationally induce a man to resolve upon fulfilling its reasonable conditions, and his prudence may very well be justified, if it do but appear, that (1.) It is more probable, that some religion should be true, than that so many well attested miracles alledged by the ancient Christians should be false; and that God, who is the author of the world, and of men, (for so much I think may be physically proved) should leave man, whom he has so fitted, and by benefits and internal laws obliged to worship him, without any express direction how to do it: and that (2.) If there be any true religion, the Christian is the most likely to be that, in regard not only of the excellency of its doctrine and promises, but of the prophecies and miracles, that bore witness to it, the records of which were made by honest plain men, who taught and practised the strictest virtue, and who knew their religion condemned lying, freely joined their doctrines and narratives with their blood: the truth of which was so manifest in the times, when they were said to be done, that the evidence seemed abundantly sufficient to convert whole nations, and among them many considerable and prudent persons, who had great opportunity, as well as concern, to examine the truth of them, and who were by their interest and education so indisposed to embrace Christianity, that, to make a sincere profession of it, they must necessarily relinquish both their former religion, and their former vices, and venturously expose for it not only their fortunes, but their lives.

If it be here objected, that it is very harsh, if not unreasonable, to exact, upon so great penalty as damnation, so firm an assent, as is requisite to faith, to such doctrines, as are either obscurely delivered, or have not their truth demonstratively made out: I answer, that whatever others may think, I don't believe, that there is any degree of faith absolutely necessary to salvation, that is not suitable to the evidence, that men may have of it, if they be not wanting to themselves through laziness, prejudices, vice, passion, interest, or some other culpable defect. For considering, that God is just, and gracious, and has been pleased to promulgate the gospel, that men, whom it supposes to act as such (that is, as rational creatures) should be brought to salvation by it; I see no just cause to think, that he intends to make any thing absolutely necessary to salvation, that they may not so far clearly understand as they are commanded distinctly and explicitly to believe it; and what is not so delivered, I should, for that very reason, unwillingly admit to be necessary to salvation: and you may here remember, that I formerly told you, I was far from thinking all the tenents either of the schools, or of particular churches, to be so much as Christian verities, and therefore am very unlike to allow them here to be fundamental and necessary ones; and I take it to be almost as great as common a mistake, that all the doctrines, that concern fundamental articles, must be fundamental too; as if, because the head is a noble part of the body, and essential to life, therefore all the hair, that grows upon it, must be thought such too. But then, as to the absolute firmness of assent, that is supposed to be exacted by Christianity to the articles it delivers, I am not sure, that it is so necessary in all cases to true and saving faith, as very many take it to be. For first, the scripture itself tells us, that some of the truths it reveals, are unfathomable mysteries, and some other points are *δυσνόητα*, hard to be understood; and it is unreasonable to suppose, that the highest firmness of assent is to be given to such articles, or to those parts of them, as their obscurity keeps us from having so much reason to think, that we clearly understand them, as we have to suppose we understand those, that are far more plainly revealed. And, secondly, to speak more generally, it is harsh to say, that the same degree of faith is necessary to all persons, since men's natural capacities and dispositions, and their education, and the opportunities they have had of being informed, do very much, yet per-

haps not culpably, dispose some more than others to be diffident, and apt to hesitate, and frame doubts. And the same arguments may appear evident enough to one man, to make it his duty to believe firmly what they persuade, which in another, naturally more sceptical, or better acquainted with the difficulties and objections urged by the opposite party, may leave some doubts and scruples excusable enough. And when either the doctrine itself is not clearly delivered, or the proofs of it, that a man could yet meet with, are not fully cogent; for that man, not to give such truths the same degree of assent, that demonstration may produce, is not, as many interpret it, an affront to the veracity of God, since he may be heartily disposed and ready to believe all, that shall appear to him to be revealed by God, and only doubts, whether the thing proposed be indeed revealed by him, or whether the diffident party rightly understands the sense of these words, wherein the revelation is contained; which is not to distrust God, but himself: and that in some cases, a degree of faith, not exempt from doubts, may, through God's goodness, be accepted, we may learn from hence, that the apostles themselves, who were so much in Christ's favour, made it their prayer to him, that he would increase their faith: and he, that begged, that if he could do any thing for his son, and cried out, "Lord, I believe, help thou my unbelief," was so far accepted by that merciful high priest, who is apt to be touched with the sense of our infirmities, that his request was granted, though it could not be so but by having a miracle done in his favour. The disciples distressed by a storm, and crying to their master, as thinking themselves upon the very point of perishing, were saved by him, at the same time, when he gave them the epithet, "of men of little faith:" and at another time, *Peter* walking upon the sea, though he had lost a degree of that faith, that made him first engage upon that adventure, and was reprov'd for it by Christ, was yet rescued from that sinking condition, which both he and his faith were in. And we are all told, in the gospel, of a faith, which, though no bigger than a grain of mustard-seed, may enable a man to remove mountains: and though this passage speaks not primarily of justifying faith, yet still it may serve to shew, that degrees of assent, far short of the greatest, may be so far accepted by God, as to be owned by miraculous exertions of his power. For the faith then, that is made a necessary condition under the gospel, as the genuine fruit and scope of it is obedience; so it is not indispensably such a faith, as excludes doubts but refusals. And though the assent be not so strong, as may be produced by a demonstration; yet it may be graciously accepted, if it be but strong enough to produce obedience. And accordingly, whereas *Paul*, in one place declares, "that in Christ Jesus
 "neither circumcision availeth any thing, nor uncircumcision, but faith operative
 "through love;" we may learn his meaning from a parallel place, where varying the words, and not the sense, of the latter part of the sentence, he says, "that in Christ
 "Jesus, neither circumcision availeth any thing, nor uncircumcision, but the keeping
 "of the commandments of God." I readily grant, that attainment of a higher degree of faith is always a blessing, and cannot be sufficiently prized, without being sincerely aimed at; but there are in some virtues and graces degrees, which though to reach be a great happiness, yet it is but the endeavouring after them, that is an indispensable duty. Likewise it is true, that the firmness of assent to divine verities does, in some regard, bring much honour to God; as it is said of the father of the faithful, (who in reference to the promise made him of *Isaac*, did not consider his own age, nor *Sarah's* long barrenness, so as to entertain any diffidence of what God had told him) that being mighty in faith, he gave glory to God: but it is true too, that in another respect a practical assent built upon a less undoubted evidence may have its preheminance; for when Christ now risen from the dead, had said to the distrustful *Didymus*, "*Thomas*, because thou has seen me, thou hast believed;" he immediately adds,

"But

“ But blessed (that is, peculiarly and preferably blessed) are those, that have not seen, “ and yet have believed.” And indeed he does not a little honour God (in that sense, wherein mortals may be said to honour him) who is so willing to obey and serve him, and so ambitious to be in an estate, where he may always do so, that upon what he yet discerns to be but a probability of the Christian religion’s being the most acceptable to God, he embraces it with all its difficulties, and dangers, and upon this score venturously resolves to submit, if need be, to a present and actual dereliction of all his sins and lusts, and perhaps his interest and his life too, upon a comparatively uncertain expectation of living with him hereafter.

The Conclusion of the F I R S T P A R T.

AND here I will put a period to my answer to your friend’s question in one of the two senses of it, and so to the first part of this discourse. Against all which perhaps your friend will object, that at this rate of arguing for the Christian religion, one may apologize for any opinion, and reconcile the most unreasonable ones to right reason. But it is not difficult for me to reply, that this objection is grounded either upon a mistake of the design of this letter, or upon the overlooking of what is supposed in it. For I do not pretend, that the considerations hitherto alledged should pass for demonstrations of the truth of Christianity, which is to be proved by the excellency of the doctrines it teaches, and that of the rewards it promises, (both which are worthy of God,) and by divers other arguments, especially the divine miracles, that attest it: but that, which I was here to do, was, not to lay down the grounds, why I received the Christian religion, but to return an answer, backed with reasons, to the question, that was proposed: “ whether I did not think, that a Christian, to continue “ such, must deny or lay aside his reason?” The sum of the answer is this, that the doctrines really proposed by the Christian religion, seeming to me to be by proper arguments sufficiently proved in their kind, so as that the proofs of it, whether they be demonstrative or no, are sufficient, (the nature of the things to be proved, considered) to justify a rational and prudent man’s embracing it; this religion, I say, seeming to me to have such positive proofs for it, I do not think, that the objections, that are said to be drawn from reason against it, do really prove the belief of it to be inconsistent with right reason, and do outweigh the argument alledgable in that religion’s behalf. To propose some of the general grounds of this answer of mine, was the design of the considerations hitherto discoursed of; which (as I hinted to you at the beginning) could be no other than general, unless you had mentioned to me some of your friend’s particular objections, which when he tells you, you will perhaps find, that I have already given you the grounds of answering them. And though to propose arguments to evince positively the truth of our religion, after the example of the excellent *Grotius*; and some other very learned writers, be not, as you see, either my talk or my design; yet if you attentively consider, what I write in that short discourse, wherein I manage but that seemingly popular argument for Christianity, that is drawn from the miracles, that are said to attest it, you will perchance be invited to think, that when all the other proofs of it are taken in, a man may, without renouncing or affronting his reason, be a Christian.

BUT to proceed to the more considerable part of what I presumed your friend will object, I answer, that the considerations I have alledged in the behalf of some mysteries of the Christian religion, will not be equally applicable to the most absurd or unreasonable opinions. For these considerations are offered as apologies for Christian doctrines, but upon two or all of these three suppositions. The first, that the truth of the main religion, of which such doctrines make a part, is so far positively proved by

by real and uncontrouled miracles, and other competent arguments, that nothing, but the manifest and irreconcilable repugnancy of it's doctrines to right reason, ought to hinder us from believing them. The second, that divers of the things, at which reasonable men are wont to take exception, are such, as reason itself may discern to be very difficult, or perhaps impossible for us to understand perfectly by our own natural light. And the third, that some things in Christianity, which many men think contrary to reason, are, at most, but contrary to it, as it is incompetently informed and assisted, but not when it is more fully instructed, and particularly when it is enlightened and assisted by divine revelation. And as I think these three suppositions are not justly applicable, (I say not, as the objection does, to the most absurd, or unreasonable opinions, but) to any other religion than the true, which is the Christian; so the last of these suppositions prompts me to take notice to you, that, though we ought to be exceeding wary, how we admit what pretends to be supernaturally revealed; yet if it be attended with sufficient evidence of its being so, we do very much wrong and prejudice ourselves, if, out of an unreasonable jealousy, or to acquire or maintain the repute of being wiser than others, we shut our eyes against the light it offers. For besides that a man may as well err, by rejecting, or ignoring the truth, as by mistaking a falshood for it; I consider, that those men, that have an instrument of knowledge, which other men either have not, or, (which is as bad) refuse to employ, have a very great advantage above others towards the acquiring of truth, and with far less parts than they, may discover divers things, which the others, with all their pride and industry, shall never attain to. As when *Galileo* alone among the modern astronomers was master of a telescope, it was easy for him to make noble discoveries in heaven of things, to which not only *Ptolomy*, *Alphonfus*, and *Tycho*, but even his masters, *Aristarchus Samius* and *Copernicus* themselves, never dreamed of, and which other astronomers cannot see but by making use of the same kind of instrument. And on this occasion let me carry the comparison, suggested by the telescope, a little further, and take notice, that if men having heard, that there were four planets moving about *Jupiter*, and that *Venus* is an opacous body, and sometimes horned like the moon, had resolved to examine these things by their naked eyes, as by the proper organs of sight, without employing the telescope, by which they might suspect, that *Galileo* might put some optical delusion upon them; they would perhaps have assembled in great multitudes to gaze at *Venus* and *Jupiter*, that (since *plus vident oculi quam oculus*) the number of eyes might make amends for their dimness. This attempt not succeeding, they would perhaps choose out some of the youngest and sharpest sighted men, that by their piercing eyes that may be discovered, which ordinary ones could not reach. And this expedient not succeeding neither, they would perhaps diet their star-gazers, and prescribe them the inward use of fennel, and eye-bright, and externally apply collyriums and eye-waters, and those to as little purpose as the rest. With such a pity, mixed with indignation, as *Galileo* would probably have looked on such vain and fruitless attempts with, may a judicious Christian, that upon a due examination admits the truth of the scriptures, look upon the presumptuous and vain endeavours of those men, who, by the goodness of their natural parts, or by the improvements of them, or by the number of those, that conspire in the same search, think, with the bare eye of reason to make as great discoveries of heavenly truths, as a person assisted by the revelations, contained in the scripture, can with great ease and satisfactoriness attain. To which let me add this further improvement of the comparison, that as a skilful astronomer will indeed, first severely examine, whether the telescope be an instrument fit to be trusted and not likely to impose upon him; but being once resolved of that, will confidently believe the discoveries it makes him, however contrary to the received theories of the celestial bodies,

bodies, and to what he himself believed before, and would still, if the telescope did not otherwise inform him, continue to believe; so a well qualified inquirer into religions, though he will be very wary, upon what terms he admits scripture, yet if he once be fully satisfied, that he ought to admit it, he will not scruple to receive upon its authority, whatever supernatural truths it clearly discloses to him; though perhaps, contrary to the opinions he formerly held, and which, if the scripture did not teach him otherwise, he would yet assent to. And as the galaxy, and other whitish parts of the sky, were by *Aristotle* and his followers, and many other philosophers, who looked on them only with their naked eyes, for many ages reputed to be but meteors; but to those, that look on them with an eye assisted by the telescope, they plainly appear true constellations made up of a multitude of bright, though little, stars; so there are theological doctrines, which to philosophers, and others, that look on them with the naked eye of natural reason, seem to be but light and fantastical things; which yet, when reason, assisted and heightened by revelation, comes to contemplate, it manifestly sees them to be true and celestial lights, which only their sublimity keeps concealed from our weak, (naked) eyes.

SOME PHYSICO-THEOLOGICAL
CONSIDERATIONS
ABOUT THE
POSSIBILITY of the RESURRECTION.

The PREFACE.

WHILEST the Considerations about Religion and Reason, (to which the following essay is annexed) were not yet come from the press, the learned publisher of them falling one day into discourse with me about the design they aimed at, and some of the points they treated of, and particularly the resurrection, our discourse occasioned my letting him know, that I had long since had thoughts, and perhaps imparted some of them to my friends, about such subjects; and that in particular about the resurrection I had yet by me a manuscript, wherein divers years ago I had endeavoured to shew, that the philosophical difficulties, urged against the possibility of the resurrection, were nothing near so insuperable, as they are by some pretended, and by others granted to be. Upon this notice, the curiosity he expressed to see this essay, engaged me quickly to bring it him; though my being ready to go from *London* made me do it without staying to look it over myself; much less, to add what since occurred to me about the things treated of in it. But notwithstanding its imperfections, and my unwillingness to let it go abroad; especially without some papers, that should have preceded it, the learned peruser would not be denied leave to send it, in my absence, unaltered to the press, and join it to the tract he expected thence; positively affirming, that I ought no longer to stifle a discourse, that he judged very seasonable, and thought likely to do good. In which conjecture, if he do not prove mistaken, I hope some more ingenious than religious men, seeing
what

what can be easily said by so incompetent a pen as mine, for one of the most opposed doctrines of Christianity, will hereby be made less forward to condemn all those for deserters of reason, that submit to revelation. And I shall hope too, on the other side, that some more religious, than, in this matter, well informed men, will be induced to think, that what they call the new philosophy may furnish us with some new weapons for the defence of our ancientest creed; and that corpuscularian principles may not only be admitted without Epicurean errors, but be employed against them.

Some Physico-Theological CONSIDERATIONS, &c.

THE question about which my thoughts are desired being this; “whether to believe the resurrection of the dead, which the Christian religion teaches, be not to believe an impossibility?” I shall, before I proceed any farther, crave leave to state the question somewhat more clearly and distinctly; that, being freed from ambiguities, you may the better know in what sense I understand it in my answer; in the returning whereof, your friend need not desire me to insist but upon my own thoughts, unless he could do me the favour to direct me to some author, which I have not yet seen, that has expressly treated, upon philosophical grounds, of the question he proposes.

FIRST then I take it for granted, that he does not mean, whether the resurrection is a thing knowable, or directly provable by the mere light of nature. For, if God had not, in the scripture, positively revealed his purpose of raising the dead, I confess, I should not have thought of any such thing; neither do I know, how to prove that it will be, but by flying, not only to the veracity, but the power of God; who having declared, that he will raise the dead, and being an almighty agent, I have reason to believe, that he will not fail to perform what he has foretold.

NOR do I (secondly) understand the question to be, whether the resurrection be possible to be effected by merely physical agents and means. For that it is not to be brought to pass according to the common course of nature, I presume; after the universal experience of many ages, which have afforded us no instances of it. And though perhaps in speculation it seems not absolutely repugnant to reason, that the scattered parts of a dead body might be rejoin'd, soon after the death of the man; yet I think you will easily grant it to be morally impossible, that this should happen to any one person, and much more, that it may, nay, that it will happen to all the persons of mankind at the world's end: so that when I treat of the possibility of the general resurrection, I take it for granted, that God has been pleased to promise and declare, that there shall be one, and that it shall be effected, not by, or according to the ordinary course of nature, but by his own power. On which occasion, I remember, that when our Saviour, treating of the resurrection, silenced the Sadducees, that denied it, he conjoins, as the causes of their error, the two things I have pointed at in this observation, and in the first, that preceded it: “You err, says he, not knowing the scriptures, nor the power of God.” And when an angel would assure the blessed virgin, that she should bear a child without the intervention of a man, (which was a case somewhat akin to ours, since it was a production of a human body out of a small portion of human substance in a supernatural way,) he concludes his speech by telling her, “That nothing shall prove impossible to God.”

IN the third place, I suppose, that the article of the resurrection, taught by the Christian religion, is not here meant by the proposer in such a latitude, as to comprize all,

all, that any particular church or sect of Christians, much less any private doctor or other writer, hath taught about the resurrection; but only what is plainly taught about it in the holy scriptures themselves. And therefore if besides what is there so delivered, the proposer hath met with any thing, that he judges to be impossible in it's own nature, he hath my free consent to deal with the authors and abettors of such unreasonable opinions, (which I declare myself to be not only unconcerned to defend, but sufficiently disposed to reject,) as rashnesses unfriendly to the growth of Christianity.

4. AND now, that I may yet further clear the way for the discourse, that is to follow, and obviate some objections and scruples, which I think it is better seasonably to prevent, than solemnly to answer; I shall desire your leave to lay down in this place a couple of considerations; of which I shall begin with this, that it is no such easy way, as at first it seems, to determine, what is absolutely necessary and but sufficient to make a portion of matter, considered at differing times or places, to be fit to be reputed the same body.

THAT the generality of men do in vulgar speech allow themselves a great latitude about this affair, will be easily granted by him, that observes the received forms of speaking. Thus *Rome* is said to be the same city, though it hath been so often taken and ruined by the barbarians and others, that perhaps scarce any of the first houses have been left standing, and at least very few remain in comparison of those, that have been demolished, and have had others, built in their stead. Thus an university is said to be the same, though some colleges fall to ruin, and new ones are built; and though once in an age all the persons, that composed it, decease, and are succeeded by others. Thus the *Thames* is said to be the same river, that it was in the time of our forefathers, though indeed the water, that now runs under *London Bridge*, is not the same, that ran there an hour ago, and is quite other than that, which will run there an hour hence. And so the flame of a candle is said to be the same for many hours together, though it indeed be every minute a new body, and the kindled particles, that compose it at any time assigned, are continually putting off the form of flame, and are repaired by a succession of like ones.

NOR is it by the vulgar only, that the notion of identity has been uneasy to be penetrated. For it seems, that even the ancient philosophers have been puzzled about it; witness their disputes, whether the ship of *Theseus* were the same after it had (like that of *Sir Francis Drake*) been so patched up from time to time to preserve it as a monument, that scarce any plank remained of the former ship, new timber having been substituted in the place of any part, that in length of time rotted. And even in metaphysics themselves, I think it no easy task to establish a true and adequate notion of identity, and clearly determine, what is the true principle of individuation. And at all this I do not much wonder; for almost every man, that thinks, conceives in his mind this or that quality or relation, or aggregate of qualities, to be that, which is essential to such a body, and proper to give it such a denomination; whereby it comes to pass, that, as one man chiefly respects this thing, and another that in a body, that bears such a name; so one man may easily look upon a body, as the same, because it retains what he chiefly considered in it, whilst another thinks it to be changed into a new body, because it has lost that, which he thought was the denominating quality or attribute. Thus philosophers and physicians disagree about water and ice, some taking the latter to be but the former disguised, because they are both of them cold and simple bodies, and the latter easily reducible to the former, by being freed from the excessive and adventitious degree of coldness; whilst others, looking upon fluidity as essential to water, think ice upon the score of its solidity to be a distinct species of bodies. And so Peripateticks and chemists often disagree about the ashes and calces of burnt bodies; the first referring them

them to earth, because of their permanency and fixedness, and divers of the Spagyrist, taking them to be bodies *sui generis*, because common ashes usually contain a caustick salt, whereas earth ought to be insipid: and the like may be said of some wood-ashes and lime-stone, and even coral, which, when well calcined and recent, have a biting taste, besides that some of them, that are insipid, may be reduced into metals, as may be easily enough tried in the calces of lead and copper.

THESE difficulties about the notion of identity I have therefore taken notice of, that we may not think it strange, that among the ancient Hebrews and Greeks, whose languages were so remote in several regards from ours, the familiar expressions employed about the sameness of a body should not be so precise as were requisite for their turn, who maintain the resurrection in the most rigid sense. And this leads me from the first of my two considerations to the second.

THAT, then, it is not repugnant or unconsonant to the holy scripture, to suppose, that a comparatively small quantity of the matter of a body, being increased either by assimilation or other convenient apposition of aptly disposed matter, may bear the name of the former body, I think I may reasonably gather from the three following expressions, I meet with in the Old and New Testament.

For first, St. Paul in the 15th chapter of his first epistle to the *Corinthians*, where he professedly treats of the resurrection, and answers this question; "But some men will say, how are the dead raised up? and with what body do they come?" ver 35: he more than once explains the matter by the similitude of sowing, and tells them, ver 37. "That which thou sowest, thou sowest not that body, that shall be: but bare grain, it may chance of wheat, or of some other grain. Adding, that God gives this seed a body as he thought fit, to each seed its own body, ver. 38." Now, if we consider the multitude of grains of corn, that may in a good soil grow out of one; insomuch, that our Saviour speaking, in the parable *de Agro Dominico*, of a whole field, tells us, that the grain may well bear a hundred for one; we cannot but think, that the portion of the matter of the seed, that is in each of the grains (not to reckon what may be contained in the roots, stalk, and chaff,) must be very small.

I will not now consider, whether this text justifies the supposition of a plastick power in some part of the matter of a deceased body; whereby, being divinely excited, it may be enabled to take to its self fresh matter, and so subdue and fashion it, as thence sufficiently to repair or augment itself; though the comparison several times employed by St. Paul seems to favour such an hypothesis. Nor will I examine, what may be argued from considering that leaven, though at first not differing from other dough, is by a light change of qualities, that it acquires by time, enable to work upon and ferment a great proportion of other dough. Nor yet will I here debate, what may be said in favour of this conjecture from those chemical experiments, by which *Kircherus*, a *Polonian* physician in *Quercetanus* and others, are affirmed to have, by a gentle heat, been able to re-produce, in well-closed vials, the perfect ideas of plants destroyed by the fire: I will not, I say, in this place enter upon a disquisition of any of these things, both because I want time to go thorough with it, and because, the resurrection, supposing the matter of fact, may give no small countenance to our cause; yet I do not either absolutely need it, or perhaps fully acquiesce in all the circumstances and inferences, that seem to belong to it. But one thing there is, that I must not leave unmentioned in this place; because I received it, soon after the trial was made, from two eminent persons of my acquaintance, men of great veracity, as well as judgment; whereof one made the experiment, and the other saw it made in his own garden, where the trier of the experiment (for he was so modest, that he would not confess himself to be the author of it,) took some ashes of a plant, just like our English red poppy; and

and having sowed these alkalifate ashes in my friend's garden, they did, sooner than was expected, produce certain plants larger and fairer than any of that kind, that had been seen in those parts. Which seems to argue, that, in the saline and earthy, *i. e.* the fixed particles of a vegetable, that has been dissipated and destroyed by the violence of the fire, there may remain a plastick power, inabling them to contrive disposed matter, so as to re-produce such a body, as was formerly destroyed. But to this plastick power, residing in any portion of the destroyed body itself, it will not perhaps be necessary to have recourse; since an external and omnipotent agent can, without it, perform all that I need contend for: as I think I might gather from that other expression of holy scripture, that I meet with in the second chapter of *Genesis*, where it is said, "That the Lord God caused a deep sleep to fall upon *Adam*, and he slept; and he took one of his ribs, and closed up the flesh instead thereof. And the rib, which the Lord God had taken from man, made he a woman, and brought her unto the man, ver. 21, 22." For, since it cannot be pretended, that either the whole, or any considerable portion of *Eve's* body was taken out of *Adam's*, which was deprived but of a rib; since it cannot be probably affirmed, that this rib had any spermatick faculty, both because the text assigns the formation of the woman to God, and because the seminal principles in animals require the commixture of male and female, the latter of which the text supposes not to have been then made; why may I not conclude, that, if it please God, by his immediate operation, to take a portion of the matter of a human body, and add to it a far greater quantity, either of newly created, or of pre-existent matter; the new body so framed may, congruously enough to scripture-expressions, be reputed to be made of the former body. And accordingly *Adam* (ver. 23.) gives the reason why, he called his wife *Isa*, which our translation renders woman; because she was taken out of *Isa*, which in our version is rendered man.

THE other text, that I consider, to my present purpose, is the mystical resurrection described in *Ezekiel's* vision, where all, that remain of the dead men, that were to rise up an army of living men, was a valley full of dry bones, which being by the divine Power approached to one another, and made to join together in a convenient manner, were afterwards by the supernatural apposition of either newly created, or extrinsically supplied matter, furnished with sinews, (by which I suppose is meant not only nerves, but vessels, tendons, ligaments, &c.) and flesh covered with skins; and last of all, a vivifying spirit was conveyed into them, that made them stand upon their feet alive, an exceeding great army. Whence I gather, that it is not unconsonant to the expressions of scripture, to say, that a portion of the matter of a dead body, being united with a far greater portion of matter furnished from without by God himself, and completed into a human body, may be reputed the same man, that was dead before. Which may appear, both by the tenor of the vision, and particularly from the expression set down in the tenth verse, where God, calling for the enlivening spirit, names the completed, but not yet revived bodies, *these slain*, as if he now counted them the same, that had formerly been killed.

Ezekiel
xxxvii.
Ver. 7, 8.
Ver. 9, 10.

THESE preliminary considerations being thus laid down, we may now proceed to examine more closely those difficulties, which are said to demonstrate the impossibility of the resurrection; the substance of which difficulties may be comprised in this objection.

WHEN a man is once really dead, divers of the parts of the body will, according to the course of nature, resolve themselves into multitudes of steams, that wander to and fro in the air; and the remaining parts, that are either liquid or soft, undergo so great a corruption and change, that it is not possible so many scattered parts should be again brought together, and re-united after the same manner wherein they existed in a human body, whilst it was yet alive. And much more impossible it is to effect this re-union,

if the body have been, as it often happens, devoured by wild beasts or fishes ; since in this case, though the scattered particles of the cadaver might be recovered as particles of matter, yet having already passed into the substance of other animals, they are quite transmuted, as being informed by the new form of the beast or fish that devoured them, and of which they now make a substantial part.

AND yet far more impossible will this redintegration be, if we put the case, that the dead body be devoured by Canibals ; for then the same flesh belonging successively to two differing persons, it is impossible that both should have it restored to them at once, or that any footsteps should remain of the relation it had to the first possessor.

IN answer to this (indeed weighty) objection, I have several things to offer.

AND first, I consider, that a human body is not as a statue of brass or marble, that may continue, as to sense, whole ages in a permanent state ; but is in a perpetual flux, or changing condition, since it grows in all its parts, and all its dimensions, from a corpusculum, no bigger than an insect, to the full stature of man ; which in many persons, that are tall and fat, may amount to a vast bulk, which could not happen but by a constant apposition and assimilation of new parts to the primitive ones of the little embryo ; and since men, as other animals, grow but to a certain pitch, and till a certain age, (unless perhaps it be the crocodile, which some affirm to grow always till death,) and therefore must discharge a great part of what they eat and drink by insensible transpiration, which *Sanctorius's* Statical Experiments, as well as mine, assure me to be scarce credibly great, as to men and some other animals, both hot and cold ; it will follow, that, in no very great compass of time, a great part of the substance of a human body must be changed : and yet it is considerable, that the bones are of a stable and lasting texture, as I found not only by some chemical trials, but by the skulls and bones of men, whom history records to have been killed an exceeding long time ago, of which note we may hereafter make use.

SECONDLY, I consider, that there is no determinate bulk or size, that is necessary to make a human body pass for the same, and that a very small portion of matter will sometimes serve the turn ; as an embryo, for instance, in the womb ; a new-born babe, a man at his full stature, and a decrepit man of perhaps an hundred years old, notwithstanding the vast difference of their sizes, are still reputed to be the same person ; as is evident, by the custom of crowning kings and emperors in the mother's belly, and by putting murderers, &c. to death in the old age, for crimes committed in their youth ; and if a very tall and unweildy fat man should, as it sometimes happens, be reduced by a consumption to a skeleton, as they speak, yet none would deny, that this wasted man were the same with him, that had once so enormously big a body.

I consider also, that a body may either consist of, or abound with such corpuscles, as may be variously associated with those of other bodies, and exceedingly disguised with those mixtures, and yet retain their own nature ; of this we have divers instances in metalline bodies : thus gold, for example, when dissolved in aqua regis, passes for a liquor, and when dexterously coagulated, it appears a salt or vitriol : by another operation, I have taken pleasure to make it part of the fuel of a flame : being dexterously conjoined to another mineral, it may be reduced to glass : being well precipitated with mercury, it makes a glorious transparent powder : being precipitated with spirit of urine, or oil of tartar *per deliquium*, it makes a fulminating calx, that goes off very easily, yet is far stronger than gun-powder : being precipitated with a certain other alkali, the fire turns it to a fixed and purple calx. And yet in spite of all these, and divers other disguises, the gold retains its nature ; as may be evinced by chemical operations, especially by reductions. Mercury also is a greater Proteus than gold, sometimes putting on the form of a vapour ; sometimes appearing in that of an almost insipid

spid water; sometimes assuming, in that condition, the form of a red powder; sometimes that of a white one, and of a yellow one, or of a chrystalline salt, of a malleable metal; of what not? And yet all these are various dresses of the same quicksilver, which a skilful artist may easily make it put off, and re-appear in its native shape.

AND though it be true, that instances of the permanence of corpuscles, that pass under successive disguises, may be much easier found among metals and minerals, than vegetables and animals; yet there are some to be met with among these: for, not to mention *Hippocrates* his affirmation about purging a child with the milk of an animal, that had taken *Eiaterium*, (if I mis remember not the drug,) not to mention this, I say; I remember, that when I once passed a spring in *Savoy*, I observed, that all the butter, that was made in some places, tasted so rank of a certain weed, that at that time of the year abounds there in the fields, that it made strangers much nauseate the butter, which otherwise was very good. If it be considered, how many, if I may so call them, elaborate alterations the rank corpuscles of this weed must have undergone in the various digestions of the cow's stomach, heart, breasts, &c. and that afterwards, two separations, at least, were superadded, the one of the cream from the rest of the milk, and the others of the unctuous parts of the cream from the serum or butter-milk; it will scarce be denied, but that vegetable corpuscles may, by association, pass through divers disguises, without losing their nature; especially considering, that the essential attributes of such corpuscles may remain undestroyed, though no sensible quality survive to make proof of it; as in our newly mentioned example the offensive taste did. And besides what we commonly observe on the sea-coast, of the fishy taste of those sea-birds, that feed only upon sea-fish, I have purposely enquired of an observing man, that lived upon a part of the Irish coast, where the custom is to fatten their hogs with a shell-fish, which that place very much abounds with, about the taste of their pork: to which he answered me, that the flesh had so strong and rank a taste of the fish, that strangers could not endure to eat it. There is a certain fruit in *America*, very well known to our English planters, which many of them call the prickly-pear, whose very red juice being eaten with the pulp of the fruit, whereof it is a part, doth so well make its way through the divers strainers and digestions of the body, that it makes the urine red enough to persuade those, that are unacquainted with this property, that they piss blood; as I have been several times assured by unsuspected eye-witnesses. But more odd is that, which is related by a learned man, that spent several years upon the Dutch and English plantations in the *Charibbe-Islands*, who speaking of a fruit, (which I remember I have seen, but had not the liberty to make trial of it,) called janipa, or junipa, growing in several of those islands, he tells us, among other things, that *au temps*, &c. which is, at the season, when this fruit falls from the tree, the hogs, that feed on it, have both their flesh and fat of a violent colour, as experience witnesseth, (which colour is the same, that the juice dies;) and the like happens to the flesh of parrots and other birds, that feed upon it. I shall by and by give you an instance of a vegetable substance, which, though torn in pieces by very corrosive liquors, and so disguised as to leave no suspicion of what it was, does thereby not only lose its nature, but is in an immediate capacity of re-appearing clothed even with the sensible qualities of it, as colour, taste, and smell.

HAVING thus shewn, that the particles of a body may retain their nature under various disguises, I now proceed to add, that they may be stripped of those disguises, or, to speak without a metaphor, be extricated from those compositions, wherein they are disguised, and that sometimes by such ways, as those, that are strangers to the nicer operations of nature, would never have thought upon, nor will not perhaps judge probable, when proposed. It is not unknown to expert chemists, that in despite of all
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the various shapes, which that Proteus, mercury, may be made to appear in, as of a cristalline sublimate, a red precipitate, a yellow turbith, a vapor, a clear water, a cinaber, &c. a skilful method of reduction will quickly free it from all, that made it impose upon our senses, and re-appear in the form of plain running mercury. And though vitrification be looked upon by chemists, as the ultimate action of the fire, and powerfulest way of making inseparable conjunctions of bodies; yet even out of glass of lead, for instance, (made of sand, and the ashes of a metal,) though the transmutation seems so great, that the dark and flexible metal is turned into a very transparent and brittle mass; yet even from this have we recovered opacous and malleable lead. And though there be several ways, besides precipitations, of divorcing substances, that seem very strictly, if not unseparably united; (which though I may, perhaps, have practised, it is not now convenient I should discourse of;) yet, by precipitation alone, if a man have the skill to choose proper precipitants, several separations may not only be made, but be easily and thoroughly made, that every one would not think of: for, it is not necessary, that in all precipitations, as is observed in most of the vulgar ones, the precipitant body should indeed make a separation of the dissolved body from the mass, or bulk of that liquor, or other adjunct, whereto it was before united, but should not be able to perform this without associating its own corpuscles with those of the body it should rescue, and so make in some sense a new and further composition. For, that some bodies may precipitate others, without uniting themselves with them, is easily proved by the experiment of refiners, separating silver from copper; for, the mixture being dissolved in aqua fortis, if the solution be afterwards diluted, by adding fifteen or twenty times as much common water, and you put into this liquor a copper-plate, you shall quickly see the silver begin to adhere to the plate, not in the form of a calx, as when gold is precipitated to make *aurum fulminans*, or tin-glass to make a fine white powder for a *Fucus*; but in the form of a shining metalline substance, that needs no farther reduction to be employed as good silver. And by a proper precipitant, I remember, I have also in a trice (perhaps in a minute or an hour) reduced a pretty quantity of well disguised mercury into running quicksilver. And if one can well appropriate the precipitants to the bodies they are to recover, very slight and unpromising agents may perform great matters in a short time; as you may guess by the experiment I lately promised you: which is this, that, if you take a piece of camphire, and let it lie a-while upon oil of vitriol, shaking them now and then, it will be so corroded by the oil, as totally to disappear therein, without retaining so much as its smell, or any manifest quality, whereby one may suspect there is camphire in that mixture; and yet, that a vegetable substance, thus swallowed up, and changed by one of the most fretting and destroying substances, that is yet known in the world, should not only retain the essential qualities of its nature, but be restorable to its obvious and sensible ones, in a minute, and that by so unpromising a medium as common water, you will readily grant, if you pour the dissolved camphire into a large proportion of that liquor, to whose upper parts it will immediately emerge white, brittle, strong-scented, and inflammable camphire, as before.

One main consideration I must add to the foregoing ones, namely, that body and body being but a parcel, and a parcel of universal matter mechanically different; either parcel may successively put on forms in a way of circulation, if I may so speak, till it return to the form, whence the reckoning was begun, having only its mechanical affections altered.

THAT all bodies agree in one common matter, the schools themselves teach, making what they call the *materia prima* to be the common basis of them all, and their specific differences to spring from their particular forms: and since the true notion of body consists

consists either alone in its extension, or in that, and impenetrability together, it will follow, that the differences, which make the varieties of bodies we see, must not proceed from the nature of matter, of which, as such, we have but one uniform conception; but from certain attributes; such as motion, size, position, &c. that we are wont to call mechanical affections. To this it will be congruous, that a determinate portion of matter being given, if we suppose, that an intelligent and otherwise duly qualified agent do watch this portion of matter in its whole progress, through the various forms it is made to put on, till it come to the end of its course, or series of changes; if I say, we suppose this, and withal, that this intelligent agent lay hold of this portion of matter clothed in its ultimate form, and extricating it from any other parcels of matter, wherewith it may be mingled, make it exchange its last mechanical affections for those, which it had, when the agent first began to watch it; in such case, I say, this portion of matter, how many changes and disguises soever it may have undergone in the meantime, will return to be what it was; and if it were before part of another body to be re-produced, it will become capable of having the same relation to it, that formerly it had.

To explain my meaning by a gross example; suppose a man cut a large globe, or sphere, of soft wax, in two equal parts or hemispheres, and of the one make cones, cylinders, rings, screws, &c. and kneading the other with dough, make an appearance of pie-crust, cakes, vermicelli, (as the Italians call paste, squeezed through a perforated plate into the form of little worms,) wafers, biscuits, &c. it is plain, that a man may by dissolution, and other ways, separate the wax from the dough or paste, and reduce it in a mould to the self-same hemisphere of wax it was before, and so he may destroy all, that made the other part of the wax pass for several bodies, as cones, or cylinders, or rings, &c. and may reduce it in a mould to one distinct semi-globe, fit to be re-conjoined to the other, and so to re-compose such a sphere of wax, as they constituted, before the bisection was made. And to give you an example to the same purpose, in a case, that seems much more difficult; if you look upon precipitate, carefully made *per se*, you would think, that art has made a body extremely different from the common mercury; this being consistent like a powder, very red in colour, and purgative, and for the most part vomitive in operation, though you give but four or five grains of it; and yet, if you but press this powder with a due heat, by putting the component particles into a new and fit motion, you may re-unite them together, so as to re-obtain, or re-produce the same running mercury you had, before the precipitate *per se* was made of it.

HERE I must beg your leave to recommend more fully to your thoughts that, which, soon after the beginning of this discourse, I did (purposely) but touch upon, and invite you to consider with me, that the Christian doctrine doth not ascribe the resurrection to nature, or any created agent, but to the peculiar and immediate operation of God, who has declared, that, before the very last judgment, he will raise the dead. Wherefore, when I lately mentioned some chemical ways of recovering bodies from their various disguises, I was far from any desire it should be imagined, that such ways were the only, or the best, that can possibly be employed to such an end. For, as the generality of men, without excepting philosophers themselves, would not have believed or thought, that, by easy chemical ways, bodies, that are reputed to have passed into a quite other nature, should be reduced or restored to their former condition; so, till chemistry, and other parts of true natural philosophy, be more thoroughly understood, and farther promoted, it is probable, that we can scarce now imagine, what expedients to re-produce bodies a further discovery of the mysteries of art and nature may lead us mortals to. And much less can our dim and narrow knowledge determine, what means,
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even physical ones, the most wise author of nature, and absolute governor of the world, is able to employ to bring the resurrection to pass, since it is a part of the imperfection of inferior natures to have but an imperfect apprehension of the powers of one, that is incomparably superior to them. And even among us, a child, though endowed with a reasonable soul, cannot conceive, how a geometrician can measure inaccessible heights and distances, and much less how a cosmographer can determine the whole compass of the earth and sea, or an astronomer investigate, how far it is from hence to the moon, and tell many years before, what day and hour, and to what degree, she will be eclipsed. And indeed in the *Indies*, not only children, but rational illiterate men, could not perceive, how it was possible for the Europeans to converse with one another by the help of a piece of paper, at an hundred miles distance, and in a moment produce thunder and lightening, and kill men a great way off, as they saw gunners and musketeers do, and much less foretell an eclipse of the moon, as *Columbus* did to his great advantage; which things made the Indians, even the chiefest of them, look upon the Spaniards, as persons of a more than human nature. Now among those, that have a true notion of a Deity, which is a Being both omnipotent and omniscient; that he can do all, and more than all, that is possible to be performed by any way of disposing of matter and motion, is a truth, that will be readily acknowledged, since he was able at first to produce the world, and contrive some part of the universal matter of it into the bodies of the first man and woman. And that his power extends to the re-union of a soul and body, that have been separated by death, we may learn from the experiments God has been pleased to give of it both in the Old Testament and the New, especially in the raising again to life *Lazarus* and Christ; of the latter of which particularly, we have proofs cogent enough to satisfy any unprejudiced person, that desires but competent arguments to convince him. And that the miraculous power of God will be, as well as his veracity is, engaged in raising up the dead, and may suffice, if it be so, we may not difficultly gather from that excellent admonition of our Saviour to the Sadducees, where he tells them, (as I elsewhere noted) that the two causes of their errors are, their not knowing the scriptures, wherein God hath declared, he will raise the dead; nor the power of God, by which he is able to effect it. But the engagement of God's omnipotence is also in that place clearly intimated by *St. Paul*, *Acts* xxvi. 8. where he asks king *Agrippa*, and his other auditors, why they should think it a thing not to be believed, (*ἀπίστω*;) that God should raise the dead. And the same truth is yet more fully expressed by the same apostle, where speaking of Christ returning in the glory and power of his father, to judge all mankind, after he has said, that this divine judge shall transform, or transfigure (*μετασχηματίζειν*) our vile bodies (speaking of his own, and those of other saints,) to subjoin the account on which this shall be done, he adds, "That it will be according to the powerful working, (*ἐνέργειαν*) whereby he is able even to subdue all things to himself, *Phil.* iii. 21."

AND now, it will be seasonable to apply, what has been delivered in the whole past discourse, to our present purpose.

SINCE then a human body is not so confined to a determinate bulk, but that the same soul, being united to a portion of duly organized matter, is said to constitute the same man, notwithstanding the vast differences of bigness, that there may be, at several times, between the portions of matter, whereto the human soul is united:

SINCE a considerable part of the human body consists of bones, which are bodies of a very determinate nature, and not apt to be destroyed by the operation, either of earth or fire:

SINCE, of the less stable, and especially the fluid parts of a human body, there is a far greater expence made by insensible transpiration, than even philosophers would imagine:

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SINCE the small particles of a resolved body may retain their own nature, under various alterations and disguises, of which it is possible they may be afterwards stripped :

SINCE, without making a human body cease to be the same, it may be repaired and augmented by the adaptation of congruously disposed matter to that, which pre-existed in it :

SINCE, I say, these things are so, why should it be impossible, that a most intelligent agent, whose omnipotency extends to all that is not truly contradictory to the nature of things, or to his own, should be able so to order and watch the particles of a human body, as, that partly of those, that remain in the bones, and partly of those, that copiously fly away by insensible transpiration, and partly of those, that are otherwise disposed of upon their resolution, a competent number may be preserved or retrieved? so, that stripping them of their disguises, or extricating them from other parts of matter, to which they may happen to be conjoined, he may re-unite them betwixt themselves, and, if need be, with particles of matter fit to be contexted with them, and thereby restore or reproduce a body; which, being united with the former soul, may, in a sense consonant to the expressions of scripture, recompose the same man, whose soul and body were formerly disjoined by death.

WHAT has been hitherto discoursed, supposes the doctrine of the resurrection to be taken in a more strict and literal sense, because I would shew, that, even according to that, the difficulties of answering what is mentioned against the possibility of it, are not insuperable; though I am not ignorant, that it would much facilitate the defence and explication of so abstruse a thing, if their opinion be admitted, that allow themselves a greater latitude, in expounding the article of the resurrection, as if the substance of it were, that, in regard the human soul is the form of man, so that whatever duly organized portion of matter it is united to, it therewith constitutes the same man, the import of the resurrection is fulfilled in this; that, after death there shall be another state, wherein the soul shall no longer persevere in its separate condition, or, as it were, widowhood, but shall be again united, not to an aetherial, or the like fluid matter, but to such a substance as may, with tolerable propriety of speech, notwithstanding its differences from our houses of clay, (as the scripture speaks) be called a human body. Job iv. 19.

THEY, that assent to what has been hitherto discoursed of the possibility of the resurrection of the same bodies, will, I presume, be much more easily induced to admit the possibility of the qualifications the Christian religion ascribes to the glorified bodies of the raised saints. For, supposing the truth of the history of the scriptures, we may observe, that the power of God has already extended itself to the performance of such things, as import as much as we need infer, sometimes by suspending the natural actings of bodies upon one another, and sometimes by endowing human and other bodies with preternatural qualities. And indeed lightness, or rather agility, indifferent to gravity and levity, incorruption, transparency and opacity, figure, colour, &c. being but mechanical affections of matter, it cannot be incredible, that the most free and powerful author of those laws of nature, according to which, all the phænomena of qualities are regulated, may (as he thinks fit) introduce, establish, or change them in any assigned portion of matter, and consequently in that, whereof a human body consists. Thus, though iron be a body above eight times heavier, bulk for bulk, than water, yet, in the case of *Elisha's* helve, its native gravity was rendered ineffectual, and it emerged from the bottom to the top of the water: and the gravitation of *St. Peter's* body was suspended, whilst his master commanded him, and by that command enabled him, to come to him walking on the sea. Thus the operation of the activest body in nature, flame, was suspended in *Nebuchadnezzar's* fiery furnace, whilst *Daniel's* three companions walked unharmed in those flames, that, in a trice, consumed

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WHAT has been hitherto discoursed, supposes the doctrine of the resurrection to be taken in a more strict and literal sense, because I would shew, that, even according to that, the difficulties of answering what is mentioned against the possibility of it, are not insuperable; though I am not ignorant, that it would much facilitate the defence and explication of so abstruse a thing, if their opinion be admitted, that allow themselves a greater latitude, in expounding the article of the resurrection, as if the substance of it were, that, in regard the human soul is the form of man, so that whatever duly organized portion of matter it is united to, it therewith constitutes the same man, the import of the resurrection is fulfilled in this; that, after death there shall be another state, wherein the soul shall no longer persevere in its separate condition, or, as it were, widowhood, but shall be again united, not to an aethereal, or the like fluid matter, but to such a substance as may, with tolerable propriety of speech, notwithstanding its differences from our houses of clay, (as the scripture speaks) be called a human body. Job iv. 19.

THEY, that assent to what has been hitherto discoursed of the possibility of the resurrection of the same bodies, will, I presume, be much more easily induced to admit the possibility of the qualifications the Christian religion ascribes to the glorified bodies of the raised saints. For, supposing the truth of the history of the scriptures, we may observe, that the power of God has already extended itself to the performance of such things, as import as much as we need infer, sometimes by suspending the natural actings of bodies upon one another, and sometimes by endowing human and other bodies with preternatural qualities. And indeed lightness, or rather agility, indifferent to gravity and levity, incorruption, transparency and opacity, figure, colour, &c. being but mechanical affections of matter, it cannot be incredible, that the most free and powerful author of those laws of nature, according to which, all the phænomena of qualities are regulated, may (as he thinks fit) introduce, establish, or change them in any assigned portion of matter, and consequently in that, whereof a human body consists. Thus, though iron be a body above eight times heavier, bulk for bulk, than water, yet, in the case of *Elisba's* helve, its native gravity was rendered ineffectual, and it emerged from the bottom to the top of the water: and the gravitation of *St. Peter's* body was suspended, whilst his master commanded him, and by that command enabled him, to come to him walking on the sea. Thus the operation of the activest body in nature, flame, was suspended in *Nebuchadnezzar's* fiery furnace, whilst *Daniel's* three companions walked unharmed in those flames, that, in a trice, consumed

sumed the kindlers of them. Thus did the Israelites manna, which was of so perishable a nature, that it would corrupt in little above a day, when gathered in any day of the week but that, which preceded the sabbath, keep good twice as long, and, when laid up before the ark for a memorial, would last whole ages uncorrupted. And to add a proof, that comes more directly home to our purpose, the body of our Saviour, after his resurrection, though it retained the very impressions, that the nails of the cross had made in his hands and feet, and the wound, that the spear had made in his side, and was still called in the scripture his body, as indeed it was, and more so, than, according to our past discourse, it is necessary, that every body should be, that is rejoined to the soul in the resurrection: and yet this glorified body had the same qualifications, that are promised to the saints in their state of glory; *St. Paul* informing us, "That our vile bodies shall be transformed into the likeness of his glorious, "body," which the history of the gospel assures us, was endowed with far nobler qualities than before its death. And whereas the apostle adds, as we formerly noted, that this great change of schematism, in the saints bodies, will be effected by the irresistible power of Christ, we shall not much scruple at the admission of such an effect from such an agent, if we consider, how much the bare, slight, mechanical alteration of the texture of a body, may change its sensible qualities for the better. For, without any visible additament, I have several times changed dark and opacous lead into finely coloured transparent and specifically lighter glass. And there is another instance, which, though because of its obviousness it is less heeded, is yet more considerable: for who will distrust, what advantageous changes such an agent as God can work, by changing the texture of a portion of matter, if he but observe, what happens merely upon the account of such a mechanical change in the lighting of a candle, that is newly blown out, by the applying another to the ascending smoke. For, in the twinkling of an eye, an opacous, dark, languid and stinking smoke loses all its stink, and is changed into a most active penetrant and shining body.

A CONJECTURE concerning the Bladders of Air, that are found in FISHES, communicated by *A. J.* and illustrated by an EXPERIMENT.

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REFLECTING on that question, whether liquids gravitate upon bodies immersed or not? I came to a resolution in my own thoughts, that they do gravitate; and one of the greatest instances, that did occur to me was, that a bubble of air, rising from the bottom, does dilate itself all the way to the top; which is caused by the lessening of the weight or pressure of the incumbent water, the nearer it is to the top. Upon consideration of that instance, the following conjecture presented itself to my thoughts; that fishes, by reason of the bladder of air, that is within them, can sustain or keep themselves in any depth of water. For the air in that bladder is like the bubble, more or less compressed, according to the depth the fish swims at, and takes up more or less space; and consequently the body of the fish, part of whose bulk this bladder is, is greater or less according to the several depths, and yet retains the same weight.

weight. The rule *de insidentibus humido* is, that a body, that is heavier than so much water, as is equal in quantity to the bulk of it, will sink; a body, that is lighter, will swim; a body of equal weight will rest in any part of the water.

Now by this rule, if the fish in the middle region of the water be of equal weight to the water, that is, commensurate to the bulk of it, the fish will rest there without any tendency upwards or downwards: and if the fish be deeper in the water, the bulk of the fish becoming less by the compression of the bladder, and yet retaining the same weight, it will sink and rest at the bottom: and on the other side, if the fish be higher than that middle region, the air dilating itself, and the bulk of the fish consequently encreasing, but not the weight, the fish will rise upwards, and rest at the top of the water.

PERHAPS the fish by some action can emit air out of this bladder, and afterwards out of its body, and also, when there is not enough, take in air and convey it to this bladder; and then it will not be wondered, that there should be always a fit proportion of air in the bodies of all fishes, to serve their use, according to the depth of water they are bred and live in: perhaps by some muscle the fish can contract this bladder beyond the pressure of the weight of water: perhaps the fish can by its sides, or some other defence, keep off the pressure of the water, and give the air leave to dilate itself. In these cases the fish will be helped in all intermediate distances, and may rise or sink from any region of the water without moving one fin.

It were worth observing, what fishes want bladders, and if the bladders of several fishes are not of different shapes or bigness, and how they are in sea-fishes, that live in great depths, and whether any amphibious creatures have them, or any thing analogous; as the lungs may be, or other cavities. By an inquiry into these, and other particulars, this conjecture may be either fortified or refuted.

[So far this conjecture: in reference to which, when it was propounded to the honourable *Robert Boyle*, he, reflecting upon the manner how a fish comes to rise or sink in water, soon bethought himself of an experiment probably to determine, whether a fish makes those motions by contracting or expanding himself? the experiment by him suggested was; to take a bolthead with a wide neck, and having filled it almost full with water, to put into it some live fish of a convenient size, that is, the biggest, that can be got in, as a roch, perch, or the like; and then to draw out the neck of the bolthead as slender as you can; and to fill that also with water: whereupon the fish lying at a certain depth in the water of the glass, if upon his sinking you perceive the water at the slender top does subside, you may infer, he contracts himself, and if, upon his rising, the water be also raised, you may conclude, he dilates himself.]

A New ESSAY INSTRUMENT, together with the USES thereof.

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June 21, 1675.

S E C T I O N I.

Shewing the occasion of making this new essay instrument, together with the hydrostatical principles it is founded on.

TO give you now a more explicate and particular account, than I had then time to do, of the instrument, which you saw tried at the Royal Society, I shall inform you, on what grounds I devised it, and then annex some observations about the fabrick and the uses of it.

You may remember, that many years ago I shewed you a little glass instrument, consisting of a bubble, furnished with a long and slender stem, which was to be put into several liquors, to compare and estimate their specifick gravities, and which I made use of to some purposes, for which it is not, that I know, as yet employed. But afterwards considering this little instrument somewhat more attentively, I thought the application of it might easily be, as it were, inverted, and that, whereas it was employed but to discover the differing gravities of several liquors, by its various degrees of immersion in them, it might be employed to discover the specifick gravities of several appended solids, by its being more or less depressed by them in the same liquor. For it is clearly deducible from the grounds of the hydrostaticks, that any solid body, heavier than water, looses in the water as much of the weight it had in the air, as water of equal bulk to the immersed solid would weigh in the air; and consequently, since gold is by far the most ponderous of metals, a piece of gold, and one of equal weight of copper, brass, or any other metal, being proposed, the gold must be less in bulk, than the copper or brass. And by this means, if both of them be weighed in the water, the gold must loose in that liquor less of its former weight than the brass or copper; because the baser metal, as well as the gold, grows lighter by the weight of a bulk of water equal to it; and the baser metal being the more voluminous, the correspondent water must weigh more than that, which is equal to the gold.

V. H. H. H.
Paradox.

THIS hydrostatical principle may be evidently proved from what has been demonstrated in a mathematical way, by the most subtile Archimedes *de insidentibus humido*, and his commentators; and those, that are either unacquainted with, or distrustful of such ratiocinations, may find the principle made out in a physical and experimental way in another paper. Whence I concluded, that I might safely infer, that the floating instrument abovementioned would be made to sink deeper by an ounce, for instance, of gold hanging at it under water, than by an ounce of brass or any other metal, which by reason of its greater bulk than gold, loosing more of its weight by the immersion, must needs retain less, and so have less power to depress the instrument it was fastened to. Which conclusion you will easily believe the event did upon trial exactly justify; and I presume you will as little doubt, that the conclusion will also hold (though the disparity be not so great and conspicuous) in reference to other metals, as lead and tin, that differ in specifick gravity.

To give at once an instance of the truth and use of this notion, I was induced to fit the instrument, that was grounded on it, for the examination of guineas, which are

by far the most usual gold-coins, that pass in *England*. And though the exactness and diligence of our ingenious friend Mr. *Slingsby* allows us to expect, that no injury, that care and skill can prevent, shall be done to that coin; yet because some goldsmiths and others retain fears of being deceived by the fraudulent and subtle artifices of false coiners, I thought it might not be amiss to furnish them with an easy and practical way of distinguishing a true guinea from a counterfeit. And though I hope I need not tell you, that I look not upon the instrument I shewed you at *Gresham-College*, as capable of examining gold and other metals with as much nicety, as by other methods one may hydrostatically do; yet this little trifle may on some occasions be preferable, since the instrument, which is not dear, being once fitted, there is no need to have either exact scales, or skill in hydrostaticks, or any knowledge of arithmetick, and yet the difference of a true guinea from a counterfeit will not only be sufficiently, but conspicuously made to appear, and the operation will be much sooner performed than in the other way, and very much sooner and cheaper than by the methods commonly employed by goldsmiths and refiners. For, in our way the coin is not defaced or injured by cutting, punching, &c. nor is there any need of touch-stones, or aqua-fortis, and yet the trial is so quickly made, that perhaps near twenty guineas may be examined, one by one, in about a quarter of an hour: I say, one by one, because, that if the instrument be designed and fitted for such a purpose, many guineas may be tried at once. But whether the goldsmiths will make use of this way, I leave them to determine; it being sufficient for me, to have gratified such virtuosi, especially the disciples of *Vulcan*, as have given occasion to expect this trifle will be acceptable unto them; and to add this instance to those I have elsewhere given by way of proof, that by the knowledge of causes men may employ exceedingly differing means to produce the same effects (as in our case, gold, that chemists and say-masters are fain to examine by the fire, we examine by water) and, that philosophical truths, and particularly hydrostatical ones, are not lightly to be despised, as airy and empty speculations, since they may be sometimes applied to practical uses, to which at first sight they seem to have no relation at all.

S E C T I O N II.

Describing the construction of this instrument.

I PROCEED now to the construction of the instrument itself, in which are to be considered the matter and the form.

THE matter may be glass, copper, silver, or almost any other solid body, that is, or may be made, fit to float in the water with a guinea hanging at it, and of a texture close enough to keep out the water. For, if any of that should, by soaking or other wise, get in, it may alter the gravity of the instrument, and render it deceitful.

My first trials were made with bubbles of glass, furnished with slender stems, hermetically sealed at the top; and these, when one can procure an artificer, that can blow them well, are both the gentlest and the cheapest, and for some of the uses, that may hereafter be mentioned, they are almost the only ones, that can be fitly employed. But besides that it is not easy to meet with artificers, that can give glass the right bigness and shape, those as all other instruments of glass, being very frail and subject to be broken; the safest way and more durable is, to make them of some metal, especially either copper or silver, (of which the former is far more cheap, and the other more gentle, but either will serve well;) in regard they are less heavy, and, being more stiff, will maintain their figure better than gold or lead. Copper and silver will also suffer themselves to be beaten into plates thin and yet strong enough, and are not so subject to rust, as iron and steel. But in some cases, especially in want of metal in
instruments,

instruments, we may make use of well seasoned wood, laid over with some china varnish, or some other, that is very close.

As to the form of the instrument, it consists of three parts; the ball or globulous part; the stem or pipe; and that, which holds the coin.

THE ball or round part consists of two thin concave plates of copper, or other metal, exactly sodered together in the middle; and at the distantest parts from the commissure there ought to be left two opposite holes, one in each plate, for the two other parts of the instrument. This middle part, though for brevity sake we name it the ball, should not be exactly round, but, for the conveniency of swimming, of an almost elliptical or oval form, or rather somewhat inclining to that of a very deep double convex glass; or it may be of any other shape, that shall be found fittest to make the instrument keep its erect posture steadily in the water. The bigness of it must be somewhat greater or less, as the plate is made thicker or thinner. But the general rule for its capacity is, that it should contain as much air, as may serve to keep the whole instrument, when furnished, if need be, with its ballast and clogged with a guinea, from sinking beneath the top of the stem, which stem is the next part to be taken notice of.

If the instrument be to have its ballast (if I may so call it) within its cavity, it will be convenient, if not necessary, that it should be hollow, like a pipe, exactly closed at the upper end; but where the ballast is to be placed without, the pipe should be made solid, as of a piece of wire, or a little cylinder of some lighter matter, that will not soak in water: but, whether it be hollow or no, it ought to be made very slender, that the different depressions of the instrument in the water may be the more notable. And for the same reason it ought not to be too short, especially if it be to be applied to other uses than the examining of guineas.

THE instrument, I most use merely for guineas, hath its ball about the bigness of a small hen-egg, or rather less, and the pipe between four and five inches long, being sodered on to the ball at the uppermost of the two holes abovementioned; at the undermost of which is inserted and sodered the undermost part of the instrument, which I call the screw, or the stirrup, because sometimes it is made of a piece of wire, that a little beneath the bottom of the ball is bent round, so as to stand horizontally, that the guinea being laid on it, it may be supported by it, as the foot is by a stirrup; and in this way a piece of coin is the most readily put on and taken off. But the more secure way is, instead of the bent wire, to employ a very short piece of brass with a broad slit in it, capable of receiving the edge of the guinea, which with one turn or two of a small and slight lateral screw may be kept fast in it, and readily, the operation being ended, taken out again.

If you desire to examine not only guineas, but greater gold coins and metalline mixtures, it would be convenient, that the undermost stem and the screw be made by itself, that it may be at pleasure thrust upon the stem and taken off again. For by this means, if the ball of the instrument be made large enough, you may have room to put on, as occasion shall require, one, two, or three flat and round pieces of copper, lead, &c. with each of them a hole in the middle, fitted to the size of the stem, so that they may be put on as near the lower part of the ball, as you think fit, and then the screw may be thrust on after them, not only to take hold of the coin or metalline mixture to be examined, but to support the plate, if need be; and by a variety of such plates, which may be taken off and put on at pleasure, the same instrument if (as I was saying) the ball be competently large, may be adjusted sometimes to a guinea, sometimes to a coin of gold or silver, or to a metalline mixture twice or thrice as heavy as a guinea in the air.

THE instrument being made of a convenient bigness and shape; to adjust it for the use of examining guineas, you must by the help of the stirrup or screw, hang, at the bottom of it, a piece of that coin, which you know to be genuine, and having carefully stopped the orifice of the stem, if it be a pipe, (that no water may get in at it,) immerse the instrument leisurely and perpendicularly into a vessel full of clean water, until it be depressed almost to the top of the stem, and then letting it alone, if being settled it continue in the same station and posture, your work is done, but if it sink quite under water, you must lighten it either with a file, or by scraping or grating off a little of the ballast-plate abovementioned; or, if you have put any weight into the cavity to poise it, by taking out some of that, until you have made it light enough: but if, when you leave the instrument to itself, it emerge, you must then add a little weight to it, either by putting into the stem, if it be hollow, some dust shot, filings of lead, or some other minute and heavy body, or else by putting on the short stem abovementioned, that comes out beneath the ball, a flat, round, and perforated piece of lead, of weight, sufficient to enable the guinea to depress the weight, as low as it is desired: which being done, a mark is to be made just at the place, where the surface of the water touches the stem, and then taking out your instrument, substitute in the place of your guinea a little round plate of brass, of the same weight, or a grain or two heavier, in the air; and putting the instrument into the water as before, suffer it to settle, and make another mark at the intersection of the stem and the horizontal surface of the water.

ABOUT this way of adjusting our instrument, the following particulars may be noted:

IF a screw be employed to sustain the guinea, the coin ought to be so placed, that one half, according to the estimate of the eye, may be on the right hand, and the other on the left hand of the screw; that the instrument being depressed may continue in an erected posture, and not swerve to an inclined.

THOUGH, when the stem is hollow, and the instrument too light, it may seem the better to add quicksilver than any other weight, because of its fluidness, and great specific gravity; yet, unless the instrument be of glass, it is not safe to employ mercury, because it is apt to dissolve the solder.

IF the marks be made of a white colour, they will be so much the more conspicuous: and these marks may be made, if the pipe be hollow, by making round impressions with a small file, and encompassing them with little circles of fine wire of silver, gold, &c. And, if the stem be solid, it may then be either quite perforated at the requisite places, and have the holes filled with chawed mastic, or some such white substance, that dissolves not in water, or else have little holes, that pierce not quite through, stuck into it; and these may likewise, be filled with the same substance, which, if further distinction be desired, may have some parts of it differinglly coloured, before they be employed.

IT will be requisite to employ in adjusting the instrument one of the heaviest guineas you can get, to depress the instrument as low as it is like to be by any piece of that coin, lest otherwise meeting with one considerably heavier than that you made use of, the instrument may be thereby made to sink to the very bottom of the water.

THE reason why it is above prescribed, that the instrument be immersed almost, not quite, to the apex of the stem, is, because I have found, that guineas are not all precisely of the same weight, nor all waters neither; and therefore it is safest, to leave a small part of the stem, as an eighth, or, in longer instruments, a quarter of an inch, extant above the water, that we may secure the instrument from being by a heavier guinea made quite to sink.

I foresee, it may be hence objected, that these contingencies may make our instrument useless: to which it is not difficult to answer, that, though some guineas weigh a grain or two more than others, it is not that will frustrate the use of our instrument, and less will the difference of our waters do it, since (as I have observed in another paper, where I mention some trials of this kind) having examined and compared together the specifick gravities of (common) pump-water, Thames-water, and rain-water, I found the difference far more inconsiderable, than one would have thought, and consequently unable to keep hydrostatical trials of metals from being accurate enough for practice, and more exact than those troublesome and chargeable ones, that are commonly relied on.

THESE answers to the recited objections will be made good by this, that it is not a doubtful or inconsiderable difference, that appears upon the differing depressions of the instrument, that are made by a true guinea, and by a piece of brass or of copper, of the same weight with it in the air. For, in the instrument lately described, though smaller than most, that I have employed, the distance betwixt the mark, to which the gold, and that, to which the other metal, though copper, depressed it, was, by measure, about an inch and three quarters; so, that it is not every small variation of circumstances, that can make it doubtful to him, that employs our instrument, whether a guinea be true or counterfeit.

BUT philosophical candor forbids me to conceal, that there may, (though it is like there very seldom will,) happen a case, wherein, though the principle, our instrument is framed on, will hold good, yet the practical application may be unsecure. For, if a falsifier of money have the skill, by washing or otherwise, to take off much of the quantity or substance of the guinea, without altering or impairing either the figure or the stamp, the piece of coin will not be able to depress our instrument to the usual mark, and may thereby make it be judged counterfeit, when it is indeed but too light.

BUT on this occasion it is to be considered, that neither the touch-stone, nor aquafortis, nor antimony, nor the cupel, can shew us, whether a piece of coin proposed have its just weight, but only, whether the metal be true gold; and therefore our instrument need not pretend to do more, than discover the genuineness of the metal: but whether the coin have the just weight the law requires, is to be judged by the balance; as each single piece is wont to be in most of the gold coins of *Europe*, and is in *England*, in reference to angels and twenty-shilling pieces, and all the other coins of broad gold, as they are now called. And yet it may be further considered, that our instrument does more than it need pretend to: for, without a pair of scales, it presently shews, that the proposed guinea, if it be not counterfeit, is otherwise abused; and though it does not clearly determine, whether that likewise proceed from the want of specifick gravity in the metal, or from the coins having been washed, or otherwise fraudulently lessened; yet it probably resolves the doubt, because, if the want of weight appear by the instrument to be very great, as it usually does, where the piece has been robbed of some of its substance, (especially if it be so much, as is reported, of some guineas, that of late are said to have been found wanting to the value of near four shillings;) it is a strong presumption, that it is rather washed, &c. than counterfeited. For men will scarce venture their lives to steal but three or four grains from a true guinea, and much less from a false one. And they, that counterfeit, are not wont to be so sparing as to make their coins too light. However, our instrument will in these cases be sure to prompt him, that uses it, to employ the balance, which will presently assist him to resolve his doubt. For, if the suspected coin have in the air its due weight, it will argue, that the greatest lightness of it in the water proceeds from the metal's not being true gold, or, at least, of its not being of the requisite fineness; and, if it want
much

much of its due weight in the air, it is very probable, for the reason above-intimated, that it is washed, &c. rather, than of another metal than gold; and however may be lawfully refused to be taken in payments, and perhaps afford a just ground of questioning him, that utters it. And if one would, for curiosity, be further satisfied, whether the metal be gold or no, one may add to the coin (as will be hereafter taught) as much sterling-gold, as will make it, in the air, of the weight of a guinea, and then examining it by the weight in the water, he will presently discover, whether it be gold or not.

THERE comes into my thoughts another possible way of counterfeiting guineas; but because it is very likely, that coiners will not light upon it, and it cannot be practised on any of the guineas already coined, the fear of teaching bad men a skill, that probably they will not otherwise acquire, makes me forbear to mention it, though the fraud may be quickly discovered, sometimes by the bare eye, and always by our instruments and the balance; whereof publick advertisements may be given, if there shall appear need of it.

AND now I have this to add about the construction of this instrument, that perhaps it would not be very difficult to propose a much more accurate and elaborate contrivance, if it were thought fit to propound any, that would require an extraordinary skill in the artificer to make it, and some considerable skill or dexterity in the person, that is to use it: but the slight construction, hitherto described, seemed to suit better with my principal aim, which was, to propose at present an instrument, as simple, cheap, and easy, to be employed and kept in order, as I could well examine guineas with; little doubting, but that the principle, upon which this is framed, being well understood and considered, will, if it be found useful, be further improved by new applications and more artificial contrivances.

Explications of the figures.

IN fig. 1. A B, the stem or pipe.

C E, the two parts of the ball soldered together.

B C D E, the ball itself.

F, the screw.

G, the stirrup, somewhat represented out of its place.

H, the mark to which a copper-plate, of equal weight in the air with the guinea, depresses the instrument.

I, the mark to which a true guinea sinks it.

FIG. 2. is the screw by itself, to be put upon, or taken from the (short) undermost stem of the instrument.

FIG. 3. the perforated plates of lead or other metal, to be put on as ballast upon the undermost stem.

FIG. 4. the undermost stem, with a perforated ballast-plate put upon it.

FIG. 5. the stirrup, that may be employed instead of a screw.

FIG. 6. A B C, the glass-instrument.

D D D, the coin hanging at the bottom of it, and supported by four horse-hairs, or slender strings of silk.

FIG. 7. the undermost stem of the glass-instrument, to which, being streight and solid, a screw is fastened on with horse-hair or otherwise.

FIG. 8. A B C D, the small glass-instrument for estimating the specific gravity of liquors, (of which an account may be expected in our next.)

E E, the quicksilver and water, that is employed as ballast to sink it in an erected posture.

SECTION III.

Representing the uses of this instrument, as relating to metals.

THREE is in the nature of the thing such a connection between the fabrick and use of our instrument, that I could not well describe it without plainly intimating the principal uses of it. Wherefore I shall here but summarily repeat those, that are delivered already, and make a more explicit mention of those few, that have been either omitted, or but lightly touched.

USE I.

THE first use, and that, which was mainly intended, is, easily and cheaply to discriminate true guineas from counterfeit, without defacing, or any ways injuring the coin. But of this use I have spoken largely enough already, and therefore shall advance to the next.

USE II.

ANY other kind of gold-coin, that is near about the weight of a guinea, may be examined by our instrument after the manner above delivered; but more easily, if it want of the weight of a guinea, than if it exceed it. For in case it be heavier, as is a twenty-shilling piece of broad gold, the ballast, whether internal or external, of the instrument must be taken off, that so heavy a coin may not quite sink it; whereas, if the coin proposed be lighter than a guinea, one may add as much gold (of the same alloy) beaten into thin plates, as, with the coin proposed, will make up in the air the weight of a guinea. For then this aggregate, being examined, as if it were a guinea, will discover in the water, whether the coin be right or counterfeit. I shall add, that if the piece, to be examined, be not much heavier than a guinea, it may be convenient to pass a very small perforated plate of copper or lead over the upper stem (or pipe,) so as to make it rest upon the ball before the instrument is adjusted. For, by this means, nothing need be altered beneath the ball; and such pieces of metal (of which several differing in weight may be easily provided) being thin and light, will not (as trial has shewn) make the instrument too heavy, though one of them be placed above the center of gravity, and may be very readily taken off, and (if need be) scraped or filed to lighten the instrument, when an extraordinarily heavy guinea, or a coin somewhat more weighty than a guinea, is to be examined.

BUT to return to what I was saying about adding a weight of gold to a piece of proposed coin; in order to this use it will be necessary, that the slit or aperture at the bottom of the instrument, which is to be shut and opened by the lateral screw, be made (as it easily may without inconvenience) wide enough to receive double the thickness of a guinea, that so different coins, as *English, French, Spanish, &c.* and the grain-weights, necessary to bring them to the weight required (in the air,) may be securely fastened to the instrument by the screw.

IF the ball be large, and the pipe well proportioned to it, coins, that do not much exceed the weight of a guinea, may be examined without much altering the weight of our instrument, provided it be at first adjusted so, as that a guinea will not depress it so far as not to leave a considerable part of the pipe above water, that the coin heavier than a guinea may not be able to draw it quite under water.

ACCORDING to the method above described, may half guineas be examined. For, if the instrument be good, it will shew a manifest difference, if instead of an entire guinea, you fasten in the screw a half guinea, that you know to be true, and that,

which is suspected to be counterfeit; adding a grain-weight or two of gold, in case the proposed coin needs it; I say, a grain-weight of gold, because, if it be of brass, of which the grain-weights, commonly used, are made, it will loose in water more than it should of the weight it had in the air; and therefore it will be useful to such, as intend to try several sorts of English coins, as angels, two and twenty shilling pieces, double guineas, &c. to have by them a numerous set of grains, (about whose shape, by the way, one need not be curious, that not being material) made of a thin plate of sterling gold.

U S E III.

If the instrument be skilfully fitted for such a purpose, it may be made to serve to examine some sorts of white money less heavy than half crowns. And because it may be useful to know in general, what coins may, and what may not, be examined by this or that particular instrument proposed, I shall here add a general way, that is not difficult for finding this out; namely, first by weighing the piece of gold or silver in the air, and afterwards in the water, and subtracting the latter from the former, to obtain the difference of the two weights: and next, by weighing also in the air and in water a piece of copper, or brass, if this be the likeliest to be employed in counterfeiting the coin, and observing likewise the difference between those weights. For, the lesser of these differences being subtracted from the greater, the remains will shew, how much the true piece of coin will outweigh the other in the water; and consequently if so many grains, as this residue amounts to, being added to the weight of the lighter metal, do make a sufficiently manifest depression of it below the mark it would stay at without that addition, one may probably conclude, that the difference between a true and counterfeit piece of coin proposed will be discoverable by the instrument.

THE cheapness of these slight instruments being considered, it may be expedient for goldsmiths and others, that have frequent occasions to examine various sorts of coin, to have a several instrument adjusted for each of them, to save themselves some pain and trouble. But if the ball be made large, and fitted with a stem slender and long enough, one may quickly by changing the ballast-plates, as occasion requires, fit the same instrument to examine coins of differing metals, and of very differing weights. For one of these, made of copper, serves me to examine both guineas and crown-pieces of silver, and half crowns too; and it may be easily made to serve also for divers foreign coins.

U S E IV.

IT is a great complaint of pewterers, that the tin they buy of the miners or merchants, is often adulterated with lead, as they find to their prejudice, when they have made vessels of it. And many others, that are buyers, complain much more of divers pewterers for putting too much lead into their pewter, because lead is by many times cheaper than tin. On these accounts, I shall add, to the other use of our instrument, something, that relates to tin and pewter. Though I must take notice, that some tin may perhaps be found a little heavier in specie than ordinary, although no fraud intervene; because I have observed some tin (as I elsewhere relate) to contain some, though but a very little, proportion of gold or silver. But this being no usual case, I shall proceed to say, that the pewterer may judge, whether the miner or merchant have deceived him; if, taking a piece of tin, that he knows to be pure, and is of a convenient weight, he observes, how much it depresses the pipe, and then makes the like observation with an equal piece of the tin suspected to have lead or some other metal in it. For if this depresses the instrument much lower than the other, it will justify the suspicion; since as gold, being the heaviest of metals, cannot be allayed by

any other, that will not depress our instrument less than gold can do; so tin, being the lightest of metals, cannot be mixed with any other, that will not sink it lower than unmixed tin, (still supposing the weights to be the same in the air.)

AND as for the buyers of pewter, it will be easy for them (if they think it worth while) to find by our instrument, if there be too much, or but enough of lead mixed with the tin in an assigned portion of pewter of convenient weight to be examined by it. For, having once observed, how much the instrument is depressed by a piece of two, three, or four drams, or even an ounce weight of pewter, which is known to be good, and to contain such a proportion of lead in reference to the tin, if you load the instrument with an equally heavy piece of any other mass of pewter propounded, if the instrument sink deeper, it will be a sign, that the former proportion of lead may be very probably argued to exceed in the mixture; I say, probably, because perhaps it is possible to embase pewter by mixing not only lead, but other mineral substances, whose specifick gravity is not well known: but yet I say very probably, because the addition of too much lead is the most gainful way of adulterating pewter. And the other things, that some employ, as regulus of antimony, tin-glass, copper, and speltar, are seldom used in great quantities; and if I thought it worth the while, I could facilitate the discovery even of these by adding, what I have observed of their differing specifick gravities, and some other things, that I think fitter to be here omitted than to have time and words spent upon them.

U S E V.

THE last use, I shall now mention of our instrument, in reference to metals, is, that it may assist us to estimate the quality of metalline mixtures, whether in coins or other masses, and to guess at the proportion of the ingredients, that compose them. For, since we have formerly seen, that the same instrument, employed to examine guineas, served also for crown-pieces of silver, that wanted of an ounce less than a twentieth part of that weight, it will be easily granted, that the same instrument, and more easily, that a larger one, may be so fitted, as to help goldsmiths, chemists, and others, that are not acquainted with hydrostaticks, to make such an estimate, as will not much deceive them, of the fineness of gold and its differing allays with silver, or some its other determinate metal.

IN order to this, the instrument may be fitted to sink to the tip of the pipe, with some determinate weight of the finest gold, as of 24 carats, as they call that, which is most pure and fine. But it will be convenient, that this metal in the air be just an ounce, or half an ounce, or some such determinate weight, that is commodiously divisible into many aliquot parts. Then you may make a mixture, that contains a known proportion of the metal wherewith you allay the gold; as if it hold 19 or 15 parts of gold, and one of silver; and, letting the instrument settle in the water, mark the place, where the surface of the water cuts the stem or pipe. And then putting in another mixture, wherein the silver has a new and greater proportion to the gold; as if the former be an eighteenth or a fourteenth part of the latter, you may observe, how much less than before this depresses the instrument, and so you may proceed with as many mixtures or degrees of allays, as you think fit, or can be distinguished conveniently on the stem; being always careful, that, whatever be the proportion of the two ingredients, the weight of the mass in the air be just the same with that of the pure gold, which we have lately supposed to be one ounce, or half an ounce.

By the same method may be examined the differing alloys of pure silver upon the admixture of such and such determinate proportions of copper, or any other metal, lighter in specie than silver; and by the same way, with a slight variation, it will not

be

be difficult to estimate, how much divers coins, whether of silver or gold, are more or less embased by the known ignobler metal, that is mixed in the piece proposed.

AND though this way of determining the alloys of metals, be not so exact, as is possible to be proposed by the help of hydrostaticks and calculation; yet it may be very useful to chemists, goldsmiths, refiners, and others, that are unacquainted with hydrostatical matters, to make without trouble or supputation estimates, that will not much deceive them, and perhaps will come nearer the truth, not only than the estimates wont to be made by the touchstone, but perhaps too than some of those, that divers make with trouble, and inconvenience, and charge. And indeed I was chiefly invited to communicate this trifle, and spend so many words about it, by the request of some ingenious disciples of *Vulcan*, who thought they perceived, that by this way they could oftentimes make better estimates of the success of their graduating, and some other operations upon metals, than otherwise they they should be able; this way greatly accommodating them by this particular advantage, that they may from time to time try the degrees of purity, and some other considerable alterations of their mixtures, without at all destroying or injuring them, though they have not yet attained the pitch they aim at and expect; whereas, if they happen to be too forward, as often they are, in examining the productions of their labours by the cupel or severe cementations, what they would try may be destroyed or spoiled in its way to a perfection, which otherwise, in their opinion, it might in due time be brought to.

PERHAPS it may not be amiss, on this occasion, to add, as an improvement of this fifth use of our instrument, that it may be employed to examine other mixtures besides allayed coins, and that if the instrument be adjusted to an ounce, for instance, of pure copper, it may help men to make an estimate of the alloy of tin, or the quantity of it, that is oftentimes added to copper, to make differing sorts of bell-metal, and of those metalline specula, whether plain or concave, that are called steel glasses, as also of soders consisting of certain proportions of silver and brass, or copper; in all which, and divers others, the discovery of the proportion of the ingredients may, on some occasions, be useful to tradesmen, as well as desirable by virtuosi. And though I have observed, that by mixture, tin and copper acquire a specifick gravity somewhat differing from what their ingredients promise; yet, since the instrument is to be fitted for such estimates, not by calculation, but by trials, the estimates may be made near enough to the truth.

NEW EXPERIMENTS

ABOUT THE

Weakened SPRING, and some unobserved Effects of
the AIR.

First published in the PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS, No. CXX. p. 467, for
December 27, 1675.

— **A**S for the not yet communicated trials, that I made in prosecuting my design of discovering or observing some latent qualities of the air, I will not deny you some of them, as imperfect as yet they are, but will venture to send them you, as my notes or my memory suggest them to me; not only, because
without

without being complicated they may be fit enough to countenance suspicions (for you know, that I do not call them so much as opinions,) but for a weightier inducement, to be told you at the end of this paper.

THE two chief things aimed at in the imperfect attempts I now send you, were to discover; first, whether, as some corrosions of bodies do in close vessels increase the spring of the air (as I long since noted them to do,) so some other corrosions may not, by a contrary, or some other way, weaken the spring of the air; and next, whether in some solutions and precipitations the air on the account of some unobserved quality may not be found to produce some phænomena not yet taken notice of.

In order to each of these inquiries, I shall mention a few trials, though without curiously forcing them, because sometimes in the same experiment both those attempts were jointly prosecuted.

You may remember, that in some of my formerly published trials I acquainted you with an odd phænomenon of the change of colour producible in solutions of copper by the operation of the air: I shall now add, what further phænomena my memory or notes supply me with, about the subject of that and the like experiments.

EXPERIMENT I.

WE took filings of crude copper, and put them into a chrystalline glass of a conical shape, into which we poured some strong spirit of salt, (that was fitted for our peculiar purpose) to the height of about a finger's breadth above the filings; and then closing the vessel with a glass-stopple exquisitely fitted to it, we suffered it to continue unmoved in a window for some days, until the liquor had both obtained a high and darkish brown colour by the solution of some of the copper, and lost that colour again, growing clear like common water, (which is itself a somewhat odd phænomenon;) and then taking out the stopple, (without shaking the liquor) and thereby giving access to the outward air, we perceived, (as we had conjectured) that the upper surface of the liquor did in a few minutes re-acquire a darkish brown colour, which penetrating deeper and deeper, at the end of about a quarter of an hour the whole body of the liquor appeared to be likewise tinged. The conical glass being again well stopped, the menstruum did again in very few days let fall, or otherwise loose its tincture; which, the stopple being taken out, it re-gained as before. Nor were these two the only trials I made with the like success for the main; but afterwards being desirous by a further trial to resolve a doubt I had, I kept the glass yet longer in the same place with the same filings and menstruum in it for (if I mis-remember not) a month or two together; but observed not, that the liquor would any more grow clear.

EXPERIMENT II.

HAVING taken such a glass, as is mentioned in the first experiment, wherein the liquor was grown clearer than is usual, and had probably been so a good while before (for the vessel, having been hid by others, which stood before it, had been for some weeks forgotten;) we took out the stopple, and left it open for about half an hour, but did not perceive the liquor to have acquired any colour so much as at the top. Whether this proceeded from the long debarring of commerce with the fresh air, or from some other cause, being unable to wait the event as long as would perhaps be requisite, I thought fit to try, whether the air had already had some operation upon the liquor, though it did not yet appear; and accordingly putting in the stopple, I left the vessel closed for two or three hours, and at my return to visit it, I perceived, that

that it had acquired a faint colour tending to a green; wherefore taking out the stopple again, I opened its commerce with the outward air, leaving the glass unstopped for 20 or 24 hours, but found, that in all that time it had not regained its wonted dark colour, but was only arrived at a green, deep enough, but not true, nor very transparent.

THIS observation being made in the same vessel, that had been formerly employed, suggested to us an enquiry, whether the advanced time of the year, which was the middle of *October*, might not have an interest in the slow and imperfect success of this trial.

EXPERIMENT III.

SOME strong spirit of salt having been kept upon filings of copper, until the solution was come to be of a dark brown colour, about three spoonfuls of it by guess was put into a receiver, that might hold eight or ten times as much: being kept in vacuo (if the time be rightly remembered) about half a year, it retained its colour, but the vessel being opened and the external air permitted a free access to it, the solution in about an hour was turned into a fine transparent green, though no precipitation of any muddy substance appeared by any sediment to be made.

EXPERIMENT IV.

IN one of that sort of conical glasses, that has been already more than once described, we had put upon some filings of copper, a convenient quantity of our spirit of salt; and though we observed, that for a great while it would not part with its deep and somewhat muddy tincture; yet we left it in the window for many weeks longer, and at length, towards the latter end of *December*, we found it to have lost its tincture, so much, that the liquor appeared like common water. Upon which observation, though the time of the year were unpromising, I thought fit to try, whether the air in that season would not have some, though perhaps but a slow operation on the saline spirit, and accordingly taking out the glass stopple to give free access to the outward air, we observed, that in some hours its operation on the liquor was scarce sensible, but within about 24 hours the menstruum had acquired not just its former colour, but a somewhat faint and moderately transparent green: so that this tinted menstruum, as it had been very slow in losing its colour, so it did but slowly and imperfectly re-acquire it.

“ I have not in the foregoing experiments made mention of any phaenomena of
“ them relating to the Spring of the included Air, because I do not remember, that
“ they were such, as invited me to draw any positive conclusion from them, and my
“ silence on this occasion may be the more allowable, because the way of further mak-
“ ing such observations may be sufficiently deduced from the ensuing trials; in reciting
“ of which I alter very little, and in some of them not at all, the expressions I find
“ them registered in, though more than once the phaenomena, that relate to the air’s
“ elastic power, be mingled in the same experiment with the mention of its operations
“ upon colours.

“ THE spring of the air and its variations, by the ways now known to many of the
“ curious, being things, that manifestly appear to have a notable interest in divers
“ phaenomena of nature, whose causes, if not themselves also, were unknown to
“ former philosophers; it seemed an attempt, though not very promising, yet worth
“ the making, to try, whether the spring of the air, which may divers ways, as by
“ heat, compression, &c. be increased, may not by some other way than cold and di-
“ latation

“ lation be weakened : and having often found menstruums, that corrode metals,
 “ so as to produce bubbles to invigorate the strength of the spring of the air included
 “ in the vessels, wherein the solution was made, I thought fit to try, whether in some
 “ metalline dissolutions, wherein I had observed, that few or no visible bubbles at all
 “ were produced, the spring of the neighbouring and included air would not be debi-
 “ litated ; and in order to this were made the following trials.”

EXPERIMENT V.

[WE took some filings of copper, and putting them together with a mercurial gage
 * in a conical glass fitted with an exactly ground-stopple of the same matter, (which
 was chrystalline) we poured on the filings, as much rectified spirit of fermented urine
 made *per se*, as sufficed to swim an inch or better above them ; then carefully stopping
 the glass, coming to look on it many hours after, we perceived, that the mercury in
 the sealed leg was considerably depressed, and gently drawing out the stopple to let in
 the outward air, we perceived that access to have a manifest effect upon the mercury.]

BUT this will be better understood by the more circumstantial experiment, that en-
 sues.

EXPERIMENT VI.

See the re-
 ference in
 the forego-
 ing experi-
 ment.

[WE took a crystal glass of an almost conical shape, and capable of containing be-
 tween five and six ounces of water, and furnished with a stopple of the same matter,
 that by grinding was exactly fitted to it. Into this we put a convenient quantity of
 clean filings of good copper, on which we poured as much strong spirit of fermented,
 or rather, putrified urine, as served to swim about an inch above the copper, and hav-
 ing let down a mercurial gage, so that it leaned upon the bottom and side of the glass,
 we closed it very well with a stopple, and set it in a quiet and well enlightened place,
 having taken good notice at what mark the quicksilver rested in the open leg of the
 gage. This done, we let the menstruum alone to work upon the filings ; which it did,
 as we foresaw, somewhat slowly and very calmly, without producing any noise or sen-
 sible bubbles, acquiring by degrees a very pleasant blue colour, and the glass being
 kept quiet in the same place for two or three days longer, the liquor, as I conjectured
 would happen, began to lose of the intenseness of its colour, which by degrees grew
 fainter and fainter, until at the end of three or four days the liquor was grown very
 pale, and left me little doubt but that, if I would have staid some days longer, it
 would have lost the remaining eye of blue, and have looked almost like common wa-
 ter. But being unwilling to tarry so long, I took out the stopple, that the air with-
 out the glass might have access to that within ; and leaving the vial in the same place
 and posture, my expectation was somewhat answered by finding, that within four or
 five minutes, if not less, the upper part of the liquor, that was contiguous to the air,
 had acquired a fine blue colour, which descending deeper and deeper, before the end
 of the tenth minute had diffused itself, but somewhat weakened, through the liquor,
 whose colour was suffered, to deepen for a while longer ; so that in less than a quarter
 of an hour from the first unstopping of the vial, the liquor was grown to be through-
 out of a rich ceruleous colour, which grew almost too opacous within a few minutes
 longer : when carefully closing the vial again with the same stopple as before, we set it
 aside in the same place, where, the included air being denied all commerce with the ex-
 ternal, the liquor began again, within two or three days, to lose of its colour, and, to
 be short, afforded me the opportunity of making a second experiment, much like the
 former. And the like success I had, for the main, in a trial or two made in another
 glass

* About such glasses, see Experiment XVII. in the continuation of our New Physico-Mechanical Experiments.

glass with another portion of the same spirit of urine, put upon the filings of copper; so that the experiment was, in all, made divers times, as well when I was not, as when I was alone: and particularly, once to be sure, that the diurnal air as such had not any great interest in the phænomenon, I made the trial successfully about nine a clock at night, in the presence of so well known a witness, as the learned secretary of the Royal-Society.

ONE circumstance I forgot to take notice of, which was, that in most of these experiments I forbore to shake the glass, lest it should be suspected, that the agitation of the liquor might have raised some little fine powder, that might have been supposed to have been precipitated out of the tincture, and, being thus mingled with the liquor again, restore it to its former colour; but in truth, I did not perceive any such powder to be precipitated. And though, to obviate the objection, I forbore to shake the vial; yet I justly supposed, that if, by the agitation of the liquor, more parts of it should be quickly exposed to the action of the air, the coloration would be hastened, which upon trial appeared to be true.

EXPERIMENT VII.

[EXPERIENCE has made me think it likely, that strong spirit of sal armoniac, made without quick-lime, would operate more nimbly and more powerfully on that metal than our spirit of urine had done; we took such a conical glass, as has been lately described, and covering the bottom of it with a convenient quantity of filings of good copper, we poured on them as much strong spirit of sal armoniac, as served to swim about a finger's breadth above them; and, having let down such a mercurial gage, as is formerly mentioned, so that it leaned upon the bottom and side of the glass, we closed it very well with a stopple, and set it in a quiet and well enlightened place, having taken good notice at what mark the quicksilver rested in the open leg of the gage: this done, we let the menstruum alone to work upon the filings, which it did, as we foresaw, somewhat slowly and very calmly, without producing any noise or sensible bubbles, acquiring by degrees a very pleasant blue colour, and afforded us also the phænomenon we chiefly looked after; which was, that repairing from time to time to the window to see what passed, we perceived, that for two or three days together the mercury in the sealed leg of the gage did, though very slowly, descend, until it appeared to be near a quarter of an inch lower than at first; and probably the depression might have been greater, if some indiscreet body or other had not, by tampering with the glass, disturbed the experiment; whose event yet seemed sufficiently to argue, that the spring of the air, contained in the cavity of the glass, and communicating with that in the open leg of the gage or syphon, was weakened in comparison of that in the closed leg, which by the hermetic seal on one side, and the quicksilver on the other side, was kept from such communication.

AND because I thought it might be suspected, that the phænomenon might be referable to some inequality in the pressure of the air, occasioned by the greater operation of the heat of the day on the more imprisoned air of the gage, than on that more immediately included in the cavity of the vial; I was careful to observe, whether the depression did not continue at differing times of the day, and found it to do so, as well at night, as at noon, though at this last named time, the sun shined hot upon the place and vessels too.

THIS experiment was made, in all, four or five times, though not always with equal, yet still with some success, the mercury in the sealed leg of the gage being sometimes more and sometimes less, but always manifestly depressed; which phænomenon was confirmed by the observation we more than once made of the sudden return of the

quicksilver to its former station, upon the unstopping of the glass, to give free admission to the outward air.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

CONSIDERING, whilst I was about these trials, that spirit of vinegar, though in working upon coral and some other bodies, it not only produces store of bubbles, but also, as I have elsewhere delivered *, a somewhat odd kind of elastical substance, yet being put upon minium it was wont, in my observation, to work calmly and without producing froth; I thought fit to make trial, whether this calm and silent solution of minium would be accompanied with a permanent change of the air's spring: the event I find thus set down:

[A pretty quantity of spirit of vinegar being put upon minium in a conical glass, furnished with a glass stopple and a mercurial gage, continued divers days without any sensible depression of the mercury in either leg, nor did any change appear in the gage, upon the removal of the stopple, though it was evident by the great sweetness acquired, that it had made a solution of a great portion of the minium.] But to return to our trials upon copper.

EXPERIMENT IX.

[We took some filings of copper, and in a vial capable of holding some two or three ounces of water, we poured on them strong spirit of sal armoniac, made without quicklime, till the liquor reached near an inch above them. This was done about the twentieth of *August*, on the *Friday* before noon, and the following *Monday*, presently after dinner, it had acquired a deep blue tincture, and lost again so much of it, that it was pale, almost like common water: then, to satisfy a virtuoso, I unstopped the vial, desiring him to place his eye level with the surface of the liquor, which, in a minute of an hour, or less, appeared, to his surprise and wonder, to have acquired a deep blue tincture, that reached downwards to the thickness of the back of a knife, the whole liquor becoming of the like colour in four or five minutes more, and the glass being presently stopped again, and left where it was before, appeared not at the end of nine days, to have lost its tincture; though now and then, within that time, it seemed manifestly paler than when the vial was stopped.]

“NONE of the former trials with spirit of sal armoniac having been made in an hermetically sealed glass, it will not be amiss both to diversify and to confirm our experiments, by setting down the success of one made in such a vessel.”

EXPERIMENT X.

[We took a round vial, holding about eight ounces of water, and having put into it filings of copper and a mercurial gage, we poured on the metal strong spirit of sal armoniac, till it reached to a good height in the vial, which then being hermetically sealed up, was set by in a south-window, where it quickly acquired a deep blue tincture: there

* To the better understanding of this, the ensuing trial may much conduce; and therefore is transcribed out of another paper, to which it properly belongs.

A mercurial gage having been put into a conical glass whose bottom was covered with beaten coral, some spirit of vinegar was poured in, and then the glass stopple, which was very well ground, closing the neck exactly, we observed, that upon the working of the menstruum on the coral, store of bubbles were for a good while produced, which successively broke in the cavity of the vessel, and their accession so constricted the air, that they compressed the air imprisoned in the closed leg of the gage three marks or divisions, which I guessed to amount to about the third part of the extent it had before: but some hours after the corrosion had ceased, the compression made by this newly generated air grew manifestly fainter, and the imprisoned gage air drove down the mercury again, till it was depressed within one division of its first station; and thereabouts, or little lower, continued five or six days; so that in this operation there seemed to have been a double compressive power exercised; the one transient, by the brisk agitation of vapours or exhalations, and the other durable, from the aerial and springy particles, either produced or extricated by the action of the spirit of vinegar upon the coral.

there it stood about twelve days, before that tincture, which decayed but slowly, did, little by little, grow so diluted, that the liquor was pale and almost like water: during this stay of the glass in the window, the mercury in the open leg appeared to be impelled up, and when after nine o'clock at night, (which time I chose to try, whether the nocturnal air, as nocturnal, would have any thing to do with the phænomenon,) the hermetic seal was broken off; immediately upon which there was produced a noise, and the mercury in the shorter and closed leg was briskly impelled up, by our guests, near three eights of an inch, and though the orifice, at which the air had access, was scarce wide enough to admit a middle-sized pea, yet, within a minute and half, the surface of the liquor being held between the eye and the candle, appeared to have acquired a very lovely and fair colour, which reached downwards a quarter of an inch; so that the vial seemed to contain two very differing liquors swimming on one another, and the coloration piercing deeper and deeper within five minutes in all, the whole liquor had attained a rich blue colour.]

“ WITH this experiment I shall conclude this paper: for though I made several other trials, with the same design, that I made the foregoing ones, as with spirit of nitre, and minium, spirit of vinegar and copper; yet a present want of time hinders me from troubling you with them, which I the rather forbear to do, because I fear, they would prove less satisfactory than those I have set down, which themselves must, to a less discerning eye than yours, appear very imperfect, notwithstanding that prolixity in reciting some of them, which I was obliged to by my not yet knowing, in such odd attempts, what circumstances might safely be omitted. But such as they are, I send them you, who, by your diffused correspondency, have great opportunity to get them made, if you think them worth it, by curious persons in several countries, various manners, and differing seasons of the year: and however the things I send you be but trifles, yet their novelty may, perhaps, excite the industry of others, and give rise to further enquiries.”

AN EXPERIMENTAL DISCOURSE

O F

QUICKSILVER growing hot with GOLD.

First published in the PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS, No. CXXII. p. 515, for February 21, 1675-6.

The Introduction of the Publisher.

THOUGH the following discourse was by the author of it made part of a short Examen of the supposed sympathy between gold and quicksilver, (which itself belongs to another treatise;) yet the worthiness of the subject, and the great curiosity, that is observed among many virtuosi, (not only chemists, but others,) about mercurial preparations and experiments, made me think I might do them an acceptable piece of service, if I could prevail with the author to sever them from the papers, whereto

he had annexed them, (but to which they seemed not absolutely necessary) though upon the conditions he judged requisite to insist on.

AND since I venture to impart before the time these things unto the curious, I hope and desire, they will be so equitable, as to indemnify me to the author, and not fruitlessly endeavour to put a person, that has already given so many proofs of his propensity to gratify ingenious men, upon making unseasonable answers to any verbal or epistolary questions about things, wherein some considerations, that he thinks are not to be dispensed with by him, do as yet injoin him silence.

Now, to gratify the curious among strangers, as well as those of our own nation, the publisher was not unwilling to give this discourse in Latin, as the author hath been pleased to impart it in English.

Follows the DISCOURSE itself.

Of mercury growing hot with gold.

1. — **B**UT that what I have hitherto said, may not be drawn to the disparagement or discouragement of those Spagyricists, that possess or aspire to the nobler arcana of gold and mercury, I must mind you to take notice, that what I have objected against the supposed sympathy of gold and quicksilver, is spoken only of common mercury; that being it, whose sympathy with gold is wont to be celebrated. And though perhaps, a good part of the things I have alledged will be found applicable even to true running mercuries; yet I would not be thought to deny, that there may be a quicksilver more subtle and penetrant than that which is common, and that those chemists, that ground the sympathy of gold and mercury upon the operations of a more philosophical mercury, may likewise argue for it more speciously, than vulgar mercury will enable them to do. And to let you see on this occasion, that I am not unkind to the chemists, I will annex part of a paper, written to a friend to give him my opinion about mercury's incallescence with gold.

2. — AND now I shall abruptly begin this section with the consideration of a problem much agitated among the curious, especially those, that pretend, whether truly or vainly, to have more than ordinary insight into chemistry: among whom I find it hotly disputed, whether or no there

De Mercurio cum auro incalescente.

— **V**ERUM enimverò, ne quae hactenus differui è torqueantur, ac si laudes animosque viris illis Spagyricis demere velimus, qui nobiliora auri & argenti vivi arcana possident ambiuntve, monendus es mihi, ut advertas, me quod contra suppositam auri & mercurii sympathiam objeci, de vulgari duntaxat mercurio dictum velle, cum ille sit, cujus cum auro sympathia celebrari sueverit. Et quamvis fortè magna à me dictorum pars, consultâ experienciâ, ad nativum etiam mercurium currentem extendi possit; non tamen censere lectorem velim, negare me, dari argentum vivum posse vulgari subtilius & penetrantius, istosque chymicos, qui auri & mercurii sympathiam niti volunt mercurii magis philosophici operationibus, contendere etiam pro ea multò speciosius posse, quàm si vulgaris duntaxat mercurius adhibeatur. Atque ut hac occasione testatum faciam, me viros chymiae additos neutiquam aversari; subjungam hîc scripti mei partem, ad amicum quendam idcirco exarati, ut meam ipsi de mercurii cum auro incalescentia opinionem depromerem.

— NUNC verò abruptè sectionem hanc ordiar problematis cujusdam discussione, quod diu multumque inter curiosos fuit agitatum, eos imprimis, qui, sive verè sive falsò obtinent, se intimiores, quàm vulgo concessum est, chymiae recessus adiisse: inter quos id calidè disceptari reperio, utrum ejusmodi de-

tur

there be any such thing, as a mercury, that will heat with gold, that is, which by being barely mingled with that metal reduced to fine parts, will, without the help of external heat, produce upon the commixture of those two bodies very sensible heat.

3. THE affirmative of this question is positively asserted by some writers and others, that pretend to the transmutation of metals: for, among these, I have met with some, that ascribe this virtue of incalcescence with gold to the mercuries extracted, as they suppose, from some complete metals, which are therefore in their phrase stiled *mercurii corporum*, or the mercuries of the metalline bodies.

4. BUT the negative part of the question is more generally maintained, being not only embraced by far the greatest number of philosophers and physicians, but asserted to by many of the more learned Spagyrist themselves, especially the modern, divers of whom have reckoned this sort of mercuries among the chimæras and *non-entia* of bragging chemists. And I have the less wondered to find many learned men so averse from believing this incalcescence of mercury and gold, because, having purposely enquired of several prying alchemists, that have spent much labour, and many trials, to find out things of this kind, and have, of late years, travelled into many parts of Europe, to pry into the secrets of other seekers of metalline transmutations, they have apart ingenuously confessed to me, that they never actually saw any incalcescent mercury, though they sometimes heard it boasted of by all alchemists, whose bold pretensions had the less weight with me in this matter, because I had long taken notice, how great a confidence, fraud, or ignorance (for I would not think all those cheats, that are mistaken,) can give to some of that sort of men, that I am speaking of. Inasmuch that one of them having imposed upon an honest chemist, well known, and much employed, with a pretended incalcescent mercury, they had the confidence to bring

tur mercurius, qui incalcescat cum auro, id est, qui, dum nudè metallo isti, ad minutas admodum partes redactò, commisceatur, citra externi caloris adminiculum, factà solummodò duorum illorum corporum cramate, sensibilem valdè calorem pariat.

Hujus quaestionis affirmativam mordicus tenent nonnulli authores, alique, qui metallorum transmutationem sibi vendicant; inter hos quippe nonnullos videre mihi licuit, qui hanc incalcescendi cum auro virtutem mercuriis adscribunt, ex perfectis quibusdam corporibus, ut autumant, elicitis; quos idcirco mercurios, corporum, sive mercurios corporum metallicorum, nuncupare solent.

At negativam tuentur multò plures, iique non modò philosophi & medici, sed & ex ipsis Spagyricis doctrinâ clariores, imprimis, ex neotericis & modernis, quorum non pauci hanc mercuriorum familiam chimæris & non-entibus grandiloquentium chemistarum accensent. Atque eò minùs mirabar, complures viros doctos adedè esse ab hoc mercurii cum auro incalcescentiae assensu alienos, quia, consultò quaesiti à me plures ex alchymistis sagacioribus, qui multum impenderant operae, plurimaeque experimenta peregerant ad hujus generis arcana depromenda, quique per aliquot annos novissimos varias Europæ partes permearent, ut aiorum, qui transmutationes metallicas vestigant, secreta rimarentur, illi, inquam, singuli seorsim à me rogati ingenue apud me fassi sunt, se revera nunquam incalcescentem ullum mercurium vidisse, licèt id quandoque jactatum ab alchymistis audivissent; quorum jactabundi obtentus eò minùs apud me in hoc negotio valebant, quòd à longo jam tempore notaveram, quantam fraus vel ignorantia (non enim omnes illos haberi impostores velim, qui hallucinantur) in nonnullis hujusmodi, de quibus loquor, viris fiduciam parere possint; quae sanè tanta erat, ut illi, cum eorum unus, bonae frugis chymistam, multis notum multisque operam suam locantem, supposito mercurio incalcescente fefellerat, eò fiducia abriperentur, ut apud memet se sisterent, de experimento illo me convinceretur. At, re, ut par erat, exploratà,

nullum

it me to convince me of the experiment ; but upon due trial, I found not any sensible degree of that great heat, that was promised. Which miscarriage was vainly pretended to be salved by I know not what unsatisfactory excuses.

5. BUT, notwithstanding all this, having, for the reasons I have long since expressed in other papers (and for some other considerations, that I have not judged fit to mention) looked upon mercury as a body, which is not necessarily so homogeneous, as it is supposed, the opinion I most liked of was that of a possibility of an incalcescent mercury. For, notwithstanding the vulgarly supposed simular nature of quicksilver, which I willingly confess to be great enough to be admirable, it was yet congruous to my principles, that a liquor, which in weight, colour, total volatility, &c. was answerable to all the essential properties for which a body is called mercury, might yet have an internal constitution of parts, that might make it in some unobserved things considerably differing from common mercury. And, among these differing qualites, I did not know but one might well be, that of growing hot with gold. And this opinion I judged the more reasonable, because, having devised two ways (unpractised, that I know of, by any chymist) the one, to discover, whether a clean and carefully distilled mercury might not be a compounded body, and have in it parts, that were not mercurial ; and the other, out of such a fine distilled mercury to separate parts, and that in no despicable number, that are plainly heterogeneous ; I found, upon trial, that both the methods I had thought on would succeed, which warranted me to think it possible, that a mercury very fine and clean, and even purged by sublimations and distillations, may, by art, have been made to assume and incorporate with it a multitude of heterogeneous corpuscles, not to be discovered, much less separated, (as those of tin, lead, &c. may be) but by a skilful artist.

nullum percepi sensibilem illius caloris gradum, quem promiserant.

VERUM enimverò, his omnibus nequicquam obstantibus, cum ex rationibus dudum in alio scripto à me expositis, aliisque de causis hic non memorandis, argentum vivum corpus reputem, quod non necessario tam sit homogeneum, ac passim habetur ; illa mihi opinio prae caeteris allubuit, quae mercurii incalcescentis possibilitatem adstruit. Etenim, non obstante vulgò suppositâ mercurii (ut sic dicam) similaritate, quàm adeò eximiam esse puto, ut parere admirationem possit, meis tamen principiis consonum erat, liquorem quendam, qui pondere, colore, totali volatilitate, &c. omnes referebat proprietates essentielles, quarum respectu corpus aliquod mercurii nomine venit, habere tamen posse internam ejusmodi partium diathesin, quae in nonnullis haëtenus non observatis insignem illi à mercurio vulgari discrepantiam conciliare queat : atque has inter qualitates differentes nesciebam, annon ea recenseretur meritò posset, quâ incalcescit cum auro commixtus. Atque hanc opinionem rationi eò magis consentaneam arbitrabar, quòd, excogitatâ à me duplici methodo (hactenus à chymicorum nullo, quòd sciam, in praxin versâ,) unâ quidem, ut manifestum redderem, essetne purus curatèque distillatus mercurius corpus compositum, partesque contineret non mercuriales ; alterâ verò, ex purificato ejusmodi & distillato mercurio partes separandi non paucas manifestò heterogeneas ; experiundo comperi, utramque illam methodum à me inventam successu gaudere : id quod auctoramentum mihi haud leve erat, ut possibile existimarem, mercurium valdè defaecatum, quin & per sublimationes & distillationes repurgatum, arte posse eò redigi, ut assummat secumque conflet heterogeneorum corpusculorum multitudinem, quae nonnisi à perito artis filio detegi, multò minus segregari queant (ut fieri de stanneis, plumbeis, &c. corpusculis potest.)

6. THIS, in the general, may suffice to make me suspend my judgment about the problem formerly proposed, and to engage me to make trials, whether some of these heterogeneous particles, that I found reducible with mercury into a lasting mercurial flux, might not so alter it, as to dispose it to heat with gold. But this was not sufficient to determine me to an assent; for to oblige me to admit incalcent mercuries, it ought not to suffice, that it is possible, or even probable, that there may be such, but there was necessary some positive proof, that there are such; and that also, through God's blessing, my trials afforded me about the year 1652.

7. SOME years after I was in possession of this mercury, I found in some of their books, that chemists call philosophers, some dark passages, whence I then guessed their knowledge of it, or of some other very like it; and in one of them I found, though not all in the very same place, an allegorical description of it, the greatest part of which was not very difficult for me to understand; but not finding there any notice taken of the property of this mercury to grow hot with gold, I was induced to suspect, that either they had not the knowledge of it, or judged it unfit to be spoken of. But you will, I suppose, expect from me rather narratives than conjectures. And, indeed, it is but reasonable, that, having but mentioned to you a phaenomenon, whose credibility is by many denied, I should take notice of some circumstances fit to bring credit to it. And I shall the less grudge the pains of setting down several particular phaenomena, because I presume you have not met with them, and because also it may gratify some of your chemical friends, who may have or discover some noble mercury, by helping them to examine it, and to try, whether it resembles ours.

8. THAT I might not then be imposed on by others, I several times made trial of our mercury, when I was all alone. For when no body was by me, nor probably dreamed of what I was doing, I took to

Hoc generatim suffecerit, ut meum de problemate supra proposito judicium suspendam, & ad experimenta sumenda properem, quibus palam reddatur, annon aliquae ex particulis illis heterogeneis, quas cum mercurio in durablem fluxum mercurialem reduci posse deprehendi, ita alterare eum possint, ut ad incalcentum cum auro ipsum disponant, At non erat hoc satis ad eliciendum à me assensum; ut enim ad mercurios incalcentes admittendum adducerer, sufficere non debebat, possibiles eos esse, vel etiam probabiles, sed reverà tales dari manifestâ probatione erat evincendum: & hoc ipsum quoque, favente Deo, experimenta mea, anno 1652. circiter, comprobarunt.

POST aliquot ab eo tempore annos, quo mercurium bujuscmodi jam possidebam, in quibusdam ex eorum, quos turba chymica philosophos nuncupat, libris obscura quaedam loca inveniebam, unde tunc eorum de ipso, vel alio aliquo perquam ei simili, cognitionem conjectabam; atque in ipsorum uno reperiebam (non tamen rem totam in uno planè eodemque loco) descriptionem ejus allegoricam, cujus pars maxima adeò difficilis intellectu mihi non erat: at cum nihil ibi notatum viderem de illa mercurii bujus proprietate, quâ calorem cum auro acquirit, in suspicionem incidi, eos vel cognitione illius fuisse destitutos, vel eam silentio premendam censuisse. At tu sine dubio facti potiùs narrationes, quàm conjecturas à me exspectas. Et sanè aequum omninò fuerit, ut, cum mentionem duntaxat fecerim phaenomeni, cujus à multis negatur credibilitas, circumstantias nonnullas annotem, quae fidem ei conciliare valeant. Atque cò minùs laborem detrectabo particularia aliquot phaenomena hîc tradendi, tum quòd ea tibi non occurrissè autem, tum quòd ea grata fore putem quibusdam amicis tuis chymicis, nobilem quendam vel jam possidentibus vel paraturis mercurium, ut scil. hoc qualicunque scripto nostro ad eum examinandum, & an referat nostrum, experiundum, juventur.

ITAQUE, ne mihi imponerent alii, pluries mercurium nostrum, quando solus eram, explorabam. Etenim quando nemo mihi aderat, neque quisquam per somnium quid agerem conjiceret, sumebam unam partem illius mercurii,

one part of the mercury, sometimes half the weight and sometimes an equal weight of refined gold reduced to a calx or subtle powder. This I put into the palm of my left hand, and putting the mercury upon it, stirred it and pressed it a little with the finger of my right hand, by which the two ingredients were easily mingled, and grew not only sensibly, but considerably hot, and that so nimbly, that the incallescence did sometimes come to its height in about a minute of an hour by a minute-clock. I found the experiment succeed, whether I took altogether, or but half as much gold as mercury; but the effect seemed to be much greater when they were employed in equal weight. And, to obviate a suspicion, which, though improbable, might possibly arise, as if the immediate contact of the ingredients and the skin produced a sense of heat, which was not due to the action of the metals upon one another; I had the curiosity to keep the mixture in a paper, and found not its interposition to hinder me from feeling the incallescence, though it much abated the degree of my sense of it.

9. I tried also the same mercury with refined silver reduced to a very fine powder; but I could not perceive any heat or warmth at all; though, I am apt to think, that if I had had a sufficient quantity of leaf-silver to have made the experiment with, I should, after sometime, have produced an incallescence, though much inferior to what the same quantity of mercury would produce with gold; but this only upon the by. I shall now add, that that to the end I might not be thought to impose upon myself, I did not make trial in my own hand, when it was in different tempers, as to heat and cold, but I did it in the hands of others, who were not a little surprised and pleased at the event. And this I did more than once or twice; by which means I had, and still have, divers witnesses of the truth of the experiment, whereof some are noted persons, and especially him, to whom I last shewed

ad auri, in calcem vel pollinem redacti, pondus quandoque dimidium, quandoque aequale. Hoc polline volae manus sinistrae immisso, & mercurio superinfuso, utrumque simul agitabam, premebamque nonnihil digito manus dextrae; quâ ratione duo haec ingredientia facillè commixta, non modò ad sensum sed insigniter incallescabant, idque adeò properè ut incallescencia interdum unius borae circiter minuto, indicante idipsum horologio minutis instructo, ad ἀκμὴν perveniret. Succedebat hoc experimentum, sive aequalem sumerem sive dimidiam auri quantitatem; effectus tamen multò videbatur insignior, quando aequali pondere adbibebantur. Atque, ut suspitioni, quae, licèt improbabilis, subnasci tamen posset, occurrerem, immediatum scil. ingredientium & cutis contactum producere posse sensum caloris, qui non debeatur metallorum in se invicem actioni, curiositate ducebar mixturam banc in charta servandi; quo facto, interpositionem ejus nequaquam impedire incallescenciae sensum comperiebam, quanquam, ex natura rei, intensiorem illius gradum remitteret.

PORRÒ mercurium eundem cum repurgato argento ad subtilem valdè pulverem redactò, exploravi; at nullum omnino calorem percipere potui; quanquam eò serar, ut existimem, si sufficiens argenti foliati quantitas, ad peragendum experimentum, mihi suppetiisset, me post aliquot temporis spatium incallescenciam suscitaturum fuisse, quamvis multò inferiorem eo, quem eadem mercurii quantitas cum auro produceret: at hoc nonnisi in transitu. Adjiciam nunc, me, ne mimet imposuisse censerer, non tantum rem banc explorasse in manu mea, quando variè erat pro caloris & frigoris ratione temperata, sed & in manibus aliorum, quos non parùm attonitos habebat, juvabatque eventus. Atque hoc ipsum pluries quàm semel bisve feci; unde mihi testes suppetunt experimenti veritatis assertores, probatae fidei viri, quorum unus erat eruditus Societatis Regiae secretarius, quem, exhibitis ei ingredientibus, rogabam, ut suismet manibus experimentum caperet;

it, which you will easily believe, when I tell you it is the learned secretary of the Royal Society; to whom having given the ingredients, I desired him to make the experiment in and with his own hands, in which it proved successful within somewhat less than a minute of an hour*.

10. AND that, which makes this incalcescence the more considerable is, that being willing to husband my mercury, a great part of which had been, as I guessed, stolen from me before I employed it, I made these trials but with a drachm at a time, which scarce amounts in quantity to the bigness of half a middle-sized bean; whereas, if I could have made the experiment with a spoonful or two of quicksilver, and a due proportion of gold, it is probable the heat would have been intense enough, not only to burn one's hand, but perchance to crack a glass vial; since I have sometimes had of this mercury so subtle, that when I employed but a drachm at a time, the heat made me willing to put it hastily out of my hand.

11. THESE things being matters of fact, I scruple not to deliver them; but I would much scruple to determine thence, whether those, that are *mercurii corporum*, and were made, as chemists presume, by extraction only from metals and minerals, will each of them grow hot with gold, as, if I much mistake not, I found antimonial mercury to do. And much less would I affirm, that every metalline mercury (though never so disposed to incalcescence) or even that of silver or gold itself, is the same with that, which the chrysopæan writers mean by their philosophic mercury, or is near so noble as this. Nay, I would not so much as affirm, that every mercury, obtained by extraction even from the perfect metals themselves, must needs be more noble and fit (as alchemists speak) for the philosophic work, than that, which may with skill and pains be at length obtained

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peret; in quibus & optatum successum minori quàm unius minuti spatio sortiebatur †.

ATQUE, quod incalcescentiam hanc insigniorem reddit, est, quòd, cùm parcè uti mercurio meo cuperem, quippe cujus magna pars (ut conjicio) surrepta mihi fuerat, priusquam eum adhiberem, experimenta singula nonnisi cum una drachma peragebam, quae vix fabae mediocris dimidia magnitudinem aequat, cùm si copia mihi fuisset capiendi experimentum cum cochleari uno alteròve mercurii pleno, supparique quantitate auri, probabile sit, calorem inde oriturum fuisse satis intensum, ut non modò ureret manum, sed forsan & in phiala vitrea rimas ageret; quandoquidem interdum hujus generis mercurium habui adeò subtilem, ut, adhibente me singulis vicibus nonnisi drachmam unam, calor me adegerit, ut properè è manibus mixturam deponerem.

HÆC, cùm sint res facti, tradere non dubito; at valdè ambigerem exinde determinare, num, qui appellantur mercurii corporum, paranturque, ut jaçant chymici, sola extractione ex metallis & fossilibus, eorum quilibet calorem acquirat cum auro, quemadmodum, ni multum fallor, mercurium antimonialia acquirere comperi. Multòque minus affirmarem, quemvis mercurium metallicum (quantumcumque ad incalcescentiam dispositum,) quin & mercurium argenti aurive ipsius eundem esse cum eo, quem scriptores chrysopæi per mercurium suum philosophicum intelligunt, vel praestantiâ suâ ad hunc accedere. Quin imò, ne quidem assererem, quemlibet mercurium, extractione etiam ab ipsis perfectis metallis impetratum, nobiliorem esse oportere, & (ut loquuntur alchymistae) ad philosophicam operatiorem magis idoneum, quàm illum, qui, peritiâ & industriâ comite, obtineri tandem potest à mercurio vulgari, à partibus suis

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* Since this was written, the noble and judicious president of the Royal Society, the lord viscount Brouncker, made the same experiment with some of the same mercury, in his own hand with good success.

† Ex quo tempore hoc literis fuit consignatum, illustrissimus & judicissimus Regiae Societatis praeses, Dom. Piccolmes Brouncker, idem experimentum suâ cum ejusdem mercurii portione manu cum successu peregit.

tained from common mercury skilfully freed from its recrementitious and heterogeneous parts, and richly impregnated with the subtle and active ones of congruous metals or minerals. These and the like points I should, as I was saying, much scruple at offering to determine in this place, where what I designed to deliver was historical, though I have not thought it impertinent to glance at the points lately mentioned, because those glances may intimate things conducive to the better understanding of what I have said, and have to say in this paper.

12. I doubt not but what I have related and hinted has given you a curiosity to know somewhat further of this mercury: and I confess, that if there be any truth in what some of the most approved Spagyrist have delivered about a solvent of gold, that seems of kin, and perhaps is not much nobler than one, that I had; it seems allowable to expect, that even ours should be of more than ordinary use, both in physick and alchemy. But the misfortune I had to have lost a considerable quantity of it, being afterwards increased by the almost sudden death of the only operator I trusted in the making of it; I was altogether discouraged from repeating such a troublesome preparation, especially being diverted by business, removes, sickness, and more pleasing studies. And though I have not forgot some not despicable trials, that I made with our mercury, yet since they are not necessary to the question, that occasioned this paper, I shall pass them over in silence, and only observe some few things I had almost forgot to tell you; namely, first, that whereas it is usual to take four, five, or six, nay eight or ten parts of common quicksilver, to make an amalgame with one of gold, even when both are heated by the fire; I found our mercury so congruous to that metal, that it would presently embody with no less than an equal weight of it, and produce a pretty hard amalgame or mixture, in which the mercury was so diffused, that the gold had quite lost its colour. Secondly, I shall

recrementitiis heterogeneisq purgato; subtilibusque & efficacibus metallorum mineraliumve congruorum partibus uberrime faeto: haec, inquam, & similia hoc loco affirmare admodum vereretur; cum hic nonnisi ea tradere instituerim, quae ad rei historiam faciunt; quanquam praeter rem non existimaverim, jamjam indigitatos rei hujus apices innuere, quod stricturae istae ea possint lectori ingerere, quae ad meliorem tum dictorum tum dicendorum intelligentiam conducere queant.

Non dubito, quin haecenus à me enarrata indigitataque curiositatem in te pepererint, aliquid amplius de hoc mercurio cognoscendi: & fateor, si quid veri subest ei, quod quidam ex probatissimis spagyricis de quodam auri dissolvente, quod affine videtur nostro, nec eo fortè multò est nobilius, tradiderunt; expectare fas fuerit, ipsissimum hoc nostrum in insignem, cum in medicina, tum in alchymia, usum cedere posse. Verùm cum infortunium illud, quo insigniori quantitate ejus sui privatus, stipatum fuerit subitâ morte operatoris unici, cui in eo parando penitus fidebam, mentem planè alienam ab iteranda tam molesta praeparatione sensi; maximè cum occupationes, migrationes, adversa valetudo, studiaque gratiora aliorsum me traherent; & licet experimenta quaedam non spernenda, cum mercurio nostro peracta, memoriâ in à non exciderint; cum tamen ad quaestionem illam, quae scriptum hoc peperit, non sint necessaria, silentio ea involvam, paucula duntaxat annotaturus, quae commemorare prope modum fuisset oblitus. Quorum primum est, quod, cum solenne sit capere mercurii vulgaris partes quatuor, 5 vel 6, imò 8 vel 10, ad amalgama faciendum cum una parte auri, etiam tum, quando utrumque incaluit igne; ego adeò congruum deprehenderim cum metallo illo mercurium nostrum, ut non minus quàm aequale illius pondus intimè statim pervaderet, satisque durum amalgama crasse produceret, in quo adeò diffusus erat mercurius, ut aurum colorem suum penitus amitteret. Secundum est, (quod haecenus observatum fuisse haud putem,) vim scil. hanc, aurum

add what, for aught I know, has not been yet observed, that this power of penetrating gold and growing hot with it, is so inherent, not to say radicated, in our mercury, that after it had been distilled from gold again and again, I found it to retain that property. And, lastly, whereas it may be suspected, that this faculty may be quickly lost, (as that of the prepared Bononian stone to receive light, has been complained of as not durable) I found by trial, that a single drachm of mercury, made after a certain manner, did, the third or fourth year after I had laid it by, grow so hot with gold, that I feared it would have burnt my hand.

THUS far the author to his friend: but when he sent me the paper, he accompanied it with the following lines;

13. I have little at present to say to you about the papers, which this sheet accompanies, save that one of the chief reasons, that makes me backward to have the foregoing observations communicated to the curious, is, that I fear, we may thereby procure divers queries and perhaps requests, (relating to this mercury) which I would by all means avoid, for divers reasons, and particularly for this, that a great weakness of that part disables me to write with my own hand, and I know, you will not think it fit I should, about such a subject, employ that of an amanuensis. And therefore I cannot consent, this paper should go out of your hands, unless you can think on some likely course to secure me from trouble, and from the unwelcome necessity of disobliging some, whilst I endeavour to gratify others. If this precaution be used, I may safely learn, by means of your diffused acquaintance, what those, that are skilful and judicious enough to deserve to be much considered in such an affair, will think of our mercury, and whether, in case they have an esteem of it approaching to that of divers eminent chemists (some of which importune me to impart it;) they judge the good, that the preparations of it (such as precipitats and turbiths of divers kinds, mercurius dul-

aurum penetrandi, cumque eo incalescendi, mordicus adeò inhaerere mercurio nostro, ne dicam ita in eo radicatam esse, ut postquam iterum atque iterum ab auro esset distillatus, proprietatis illius tenacem eum deprehenderim. Et denique, cum suspicio incessere lectorem possit, facultatem hanc citò deperdi, (ut de praeparato ad hauriendam lucem lapide Bononiensi queruntur authores) experiundo didici, unicum drachmam mercurii, certo modo parati, post tertium quartumve à quo seposuerum annum adeò cum auro incaluisse, ut ne adureret manum meam, timerem.

HACTENUS author noster ad amicum suum: sed cum mihi chartas illas mitteret, voluit eas sequenti mantissâ locupletare;

NON diu te morabor differendo de chartis hîc junctis: dicam solummodò, unam ex praecipuis rationibus, quae in vulgariis praegressis observationibus cunctabundum me faciunt, hanc esse, quòd vercor, nos hoc ipso variis circa mercurium hunc quaestionibus & fortè sollicitationibus ansam duros, quas omni studio praecavere velim, cum ob alias, tum hanc ob causam, quòd magna manuum mearum debilitas me impedit, quò minus meamet manu id consignare literis valeam, quod conscribi amanuensis ope à consultum haud judicaveris. Proindeque concedere haud possum, scriptum hoc è manibus tuis dimitti, nisi rationem suggeras probabilem, quâ securum me praestes à molestia, atque ab ingrata necessitate repulsam dandi nonnullis, dum aliis obsecundare studeo. Hac cautelâ si utaris, potero amplissimae tuae consuetudinis beneficio citra molestiam edoceri, quid ii, qui tantâ peritiâ tantoque judicio valent, ut in hoc negotio magni fieri mereantur, de mercurio nostro sentiant; adhuc utrum, si aejmationem de eo foveant illi supparem, quam praecellentium chymicorum complures (quorum nonnulli me urgent ad eum communicandum) prae se ferunt, verisimile censeant, utilitatem, quam praeparationes ipsius (cujus modi sunt praecipitata & turbiti diversorum generum, mercurius dulcis, cinnabaris ex antimonio & auro cum parata, &c.) afferre possint rei medicae,

cis, cinaber made of the sulphur of antimony, and with gold, &c.) may do in physick, is likely much to exceed the political inconveniencies, that may ensue, if it should prove to be of the best kind, and fall in ill hands. The knowledge of the opinions of the wise and skilful about this case will be requisite to assist me to take right measures in an affair of this nature. And, till I receive this information, I am obliged to silence.

14. ONLY, in the mean while, I shall, for the sake of the enquiries into the mercurial arcana, make bold to add a secret, which, I think, will to divers philalethists and other students of the chemical philosophers books seem a paradox, if not an untruth; namely, that a mercury, qualified to heat with gold, and perhaps with other powders, may be made by more ways than one or two; experience having assured me (whatever authorities or theories may be urged to the contrary) that such a mercury may be (I say not, easily or speedily, but successfully) prepared, not only by employing antimony and solid metals, as mars, but without any such metal at all, or so much as antimony itself.

15. HERE I purposed to conclude: but, because I am, as you know, very averse (which I declare myself to be on this occasion also) from making any promise to the publick, I think fit in this place to give you an advertisement, and obviate a scruple. I shall therefore admonish those inquisitive Spagyrist, that may be desirous to try, whether their purified mercury be incalcent, that they be not too hasty to conclude it is not so; nor to reject it, unless they have made the trial with gold duly prepared. For I have found, that my mercury did not grow hot with the smallest filings of gold I could make (though indeed within a few hours after it did, without the help of fire, imbody with it into a hard amalgama,) which argued, that the corpuscles of the metal were not yet small enough to be suddenly penetrated by the quicksilver: nor will every calx of gold serve our turn, as I have found by employing,

medicæ, longè superaturum esse incommoda illa politica, quæ nascitura forent, si fortè de præstantissima esset indole, atque in maleferi-tas manus incideret. Sapientum & peritorum hoc in casu opiniones cognoscere, necessarium mihi fuerit, ut recto tramite in istiusmodi negotio incedere mihi detur. Atque, donec edoctus id fuero, silentii sacra colere teneor.

INTERIM in eorum gratiam, qui arcana mercurialia scrutantur, subjungere ausim secretum aliquod, quod philalethis compluribus, aliisve, qui chymicorum philosophorum libris meditandis incumbunt, paradoxum, quin & falsum fortè videbitur: mercurium scil. ad incalcescendum cum auro aliisve pulveribus idoneum, modis uno binove pluribus parari posse; cum per experientiam certò mihi constet, (quicquid in contrarium obtendant auctoritates & theoriæ) talem mercurium posse, (non dicam facilè properè, sed cum successu) parari, non modò antimonium solidòque metalla, putà martem, &c. adhibendo, sed citra ullius omnino metalli, quin vel ipsius antimonii, usum.

Hic statueram finem huic sermoni imponere: at cum aegerrimè, ut nosti, tum aliàs, tum hac imprimis occasione, promissi fidem publico obstringam, visum est mihi hoc loco monitum aliquod suggerere, & scrupulo cuidam obviam ire. Prius quod attinet, curiosos illos Spagyricos, quos fortè tentandi cupido incefferit, sitne purgatus ipsorum mercurius incalcescendi qualitate instructus, monebo, ne nimis festinantur concludant ipsum eà prædicitum non esse, nève eum rejiciant, nisi experimentum fecerint cum auro ritè præparato. Comperi quippe, mercurium meum non incalcescere cum ramentis auri, omnium quas conficere poteram minimis, (quanquam reverà intra paucas exinde horas, sine ignis adminiculo, cum ipso in durum amalgama conflaretur;) quod argumento erat, metalli illius corpuscula necdum exigua satis fuisse, ut properè à mercurio penetrarentur: neque quævis auri calx rem nostram conficiet; ut comperi, dum perquam subtilem spongiosamque calcem, modo non vulgari

employing, without success, a very fine and spongy calx made after an uncommon way, the golden particles having, as it seemed, some extremely fine, though unobserved dust of the additament sticking to them, which hindered the adhesion of the mercurial ones. Now, the calx of gold, that I most used, as finding it still to do well, was that made by quartation*, as alchemists call it. But because it is not so easy, as even chemists, that have not tried, imagine, to make good calces of gold, and that in the way newly mentioned, there needs fusion of gold and of silver (for which many chemists want conveniencies,) and they are often imposed on by common refiners, who here usually sell in wires such silver for fine (which indeed it is comparatively,) as I have found not to be without mixture; I shall add, that by making an amalgama, the common way, with pure gold and vulgar mercury, and dissolving the mercury in good aqua-fortis, there will remain a powder, which, being well washed with fair water to dulcify it, and kept a while in a moderate fire to dry it thoroughly without melting it, will become a calx, which I have more than once used with our mercury with good success. It is true, both in this way and in that (by quartation) aqua-fortis, which is a corrosive liquor, is employed to bring the gold to powder, and therefore in a diffident mind some suspicion may arise, that the incalcescence may proceed only from the action of the acid particles of the menstruum, which yet adhering to the corpuscles of the gold works upon the quicksilver, as aqua-fortis is known to do: but, to omit those answers, that cannot be given in few words, after I have taken notice, that, if the effect depends not on our mercury (as prepared) but only on the calx, it appears not, why this should not grow hot with common mercury, as well as with ours; I shall need to add, for the removal of

gari paratam, citra successum adhibui, in qua, ut videtur, apprimè tenuis sensumque fugiens additamenti pulvis adhaerebat particulis aureis, & mercurialium adhaesionem praepediebat. Jam verò calx auri, quâ plerumque utebar successu ejus inductus, illa erat, quae quartationis† (ut vacant) beneficio paratur. At quia non adeò facile est, ut ipsi chymici, qui manum operi non admoverunt, sibi imaginantur, bonae notae calces auri parare, cumque in methodo jamjam memorata requiratur fusio auri & argenti (cujus perae gendae commoditate non pauci chymici destituuntur,) cum etiam crebrò à vulgaribus metallorum purgatoribus fallantur, qui hîc passim, filorum formâ, ejusmodi argentum pro puro venditant (quale, comparatè loquendo, reverâ est,) quod non esse mixturae experts deprehendi; adjiciam, quòd, dum communi more amalgama conficitur cum auro puro & mercurio vulgari, mercuriusque dissolvitur bonâ aquâ forti, remansurus sit pulvis, qui cum aqua pura, ad conciliandam ei, quam vocant, dulcedinem, probè elotus, & aliquandiu in temperato igne, ad eum penitus exiccandum citra fusionem, asservatus, talem calcem praebebit, quâ pluries cum mercurio nostro feliciter usus fui. Fateor equidem, tum in hac methodo, tum in illa, quae instituitur per quartationem, adhiberi aquam fortem, liquorem scil. corrosivum, ad aurum in pulverem redigendum, unde scrutanti genio suberiri suspicio poterit, incalcescentiam illam soli actioni acidarum particularum mensurui acceptam ferendam esse, quod haerens etiamnum auri corpusculis, in mercurium operetur, solenni aquae fortis more. Verùm, (ut eas responsiones sileam, quae paucis tradi non possunt,) postquam notavi, quòd, si effectus hic non dependet à mercurio nostro (ritò praeparato,) sed à sola calce, non pateat, quare haec non incalcescat aequè cum mercurio vulgari ac nostro; opus haud fuerit, aliud quicquam an scrupulum hunc eximendum, quàm obviam hoc experimentum, quod sequiter, quodque bis tertiò à me paratum fuit, adjicere: sumpsi,

* That is, by melting together one part of fine gold, and three or four parts of cupelled silver, and then putting the mass, wherein the metals are mixed, almost *per minima*, into purified aqua-fortis, which dissolving the silver only, leaves the gold in the form of a fine calx.

† Hoc est, per fusionem conflando unam partem auri puri, & tres quatuorve partes argenti cupellati, ut vocant, & tunc immittendo massam, in qua metalla miscentur quasi *per minima*, in purgatam aquam fortem, quae solum argentum dissolvens, aurum in forma calcis relinquit.

of this subtle scruple, no more than this plain experiment, (which I twice or thrice made,) namely, that taking, instead of a calx of gold, a competent number of leaves of gold, such as book-binders and the apothecaries use, this gold, that was without the help of salts reduced by beating to a sufficient thinness (insomuch that seventy odd leaves did not weigh a scruple,) I found (more than once) upon putting two or three times the weight of our mercury to them, that a smart heat was presently produced in my hand.

sumpsi, inquam, calcis auri loco, sufficientem numerum foliorum auri, qualibus utuntur bibliopecti & aurifabri; hoc aurum, quod citra salium opem tundendo redactum erat ad tenuitatem sufficientem (adeo ut ultra septuaginta folia vix unius scrupuli pondus aequarent) hoc, inquam, aurum comperi (unâ vice pluries,) cum binum trinumve mercurii nostri pondus ipsi commiscerem, insignem in manu mea calorem mox peperisse.

EXPERIMENTS, NOTES, &c. about the mechanical Origin or Production of divers particular QUALITIES: Among which is inserted, a Discourse of the Imperfection of the Chemist's Doctrine of QUALITIES; together with some Reflections upon the Hypothesis of ALKALI and ACIDUM.

The Publisher to the Reader.

TO keep the reader from being at all surprized at the date of the title-page, I must inform him, that a good part of the ensuing tracts were printed off, and in my custody the last year; and the rest had come out with them divers months ago, if the noble author had not been hindered from committing them to the press by the desire and hope of being able in a short time to send them abroad more numerous, and by his being hindered to do so, partly by remove, partly by the want of some papers, that were oddly lost or spoiled, and partly by the sickness of himself, and divers of his near relations. And some of these impediments do yet suppress what the author intended should have made a part of the book, which now he suffers to be published without them, though divers of his papers about some other particular qualities have been written so long ago, as to have lain for many years neglected among other of his old writings: which that he may have both leisure and health to review and fit for publication, is the ardent wish of the sincere lovers of real knowledge, who have reason to look on it as no mean proof of his constant kindness to experimental philosophy, that in these tracts he perseveres in his course of freely and candidly communicating his experiments and observations to the publick, notwithstanding the liberty, that hath been too boldly taken to mention them as their own by later writers; as particularly by the compiler of the treatise, entitled *Polygraphice*, who in two chapters hath allowed himself to present his reader with above fifty experiments, taken out of our author's book of colours, without owning any of them to him, or so much as naming him or his book in either of those chapters, nor, that I remember, in any of the others. Nor did I think this practice justified by the confession made in the preface, importing, that the compiler had taken the particulars he delivered from the writings of others. For this
general

general and perfunctory acknowledgement neither doth right to particular authors, nor, by naming them, enables the reader to know, whether the things delivered come from persons fit to be credited or not; and therefore, since it is but too likely, that such concealment of the names, if not usurpation of the labours of the benefactors to philosophy, will prove much more forbidding to many others to impart their experiments, than as yet they have to our generous author; it seems to be the interest of the commonwealth of learning openly to discountenance so discouraging a practice, and to shew, that they do not think it fit, that possessors of useful pieces of knowledge should be strongly tempted to envy them to the publick, to the end only that a few compilers should not be put upon so reasonable and easy a work, as by a few words or names to shew themselves just, if not grateful.

BUT not to keep the reader any longer from the perusal of these tracts themselves, I shall conclude with intimating only, that what our author saith in one of them concerning the insufficiency of the chemical hypothesis for explaining the effects of nature, is not at all intended by him to derogate from the sober professors of chemistry, or to discourage them from useful chemical operations; forasmuch as I had the satisfaction, some years since, to see in the author's hands a discourse of his about the Usefulness of Chemistry for the Advancement of Natural Philosophy; with which also it is hoped he will ere long gratify the publick.

ADVERTISEMENTS relating to the following TREATISE.

TO obviate some misapprehensions, that may arise concerning the ensuing notes about particular qualities, it may not be improper to add something in this place to what has been said in another paper * in reference to those notes, and consequently to premise to the particular experiments some few general advertisements about them.

AND I. we may consider, that there may be three differing ways of treating historically of particular qualities. For either one may in a full and methodical history prosecute the phænomena; or one may make a collection of various experiments and observations, whence may be gathered divers phænomena to illustrate several, but not all of the heads or parts of such an ample or methodical history; or, in the third place, one may in a more confined way content one's self to deliver such experiments and observations of the productions, or the destruction or change of this or that quality, as being duly reasoned on, may suffice to shew, wherein the nature of that quality doth consist, especially in opposition to those erroneous conceits, that have been entertained about it. Of the first of these three ways of treating of a quality I pretend not to have given any complete example; but you will find, that I have begun such histories in my specimens about fluidity and firmness, and in the experiments, observations, &c. that I have put together about cold. The second sort of historical writings I have given an instance of in my experiments about colours; but in these ensuing notes, the occasion I had to make them, having obliged me chiefly to have an eye to the disproof of the errors of the peripateticks and the chemists about them, I hope I shall not be thought to have fallen very short in my attempt, if I have (here and there) performed, what may be required in the third way of writing historically of a quality; my present design being chiefly to give an intelligent and historical account of the possible mechanical origination, not of the various phænomena of the particular qualities succinctly mentioned in these notes; though my secondary end being to become a benefactor to the history

* See Tracts about Cosmical Qualities, &c. to which is prefixed an Introduction to the History of Particular Qualities.

history of qualities by providing materials for myself or better architects, I have not scrupled to add to those, that tend more directly to discover the nature or essence of the quality treated of, and to derive it from mechanical principles, some others (which happened to come in my way) that acquaint us but with some of the less luciferous phænomena.

II. THAT you may not mistake what is driven at in many of the experiments and reasonings delivered or proposed in the ensuing notes about particular qualities, I must desire you to take notice with me, what it is, that I pretend to offer you some proofs of. For if I took upon me to demonstrate, that the qualities of bodies cannot proceed from (what the schools call) substantial forms, or from any other causes but mechanical, it might be reasonably enough expected, that my argument should directly exclude them all. But since, in my explications of qualities, I pretend only, that they may be explicated by mechanical principles, without enquiring, whether they are explicable by any other; that, which I need to prove, is, not that mechanical principles are the necessary and only things, whereby qualities may be explained, but that probably they will be found sufficient for their explication. And since these are confessedly more manifest and more intelligible, than substantial forms and other scholastic entities (if I may so call them) it is obvious, what the consequence will be of our not being obliged to have recourse to things, whose existence is very disputable, and their nature very obscure.

THERE are several ways, that may be employed, some on one occasion, and some on another, either more directly to reduce qualities (as well as divers other things in nature) to mechanical principles; or, by shewing the insufficiency of the Peripatetick and chymical theories of qualities, to recommend the Corpuscularian doctrine of them.

FOR further illustration of this point, I shall add on this occasion, that there are three distinct sorts of experiments (besides other proofs) that may be reasonably employed, (though they be not equally efficacious) when we treat of the origin of qualities. For some instances may be brought to shew, that the proposed quality may be mechanically introduced into a portion of matter, where it was not before. Other instances there may be to shew, that by the same means the quality may be notably varied as to degrees, or other not essential attributes. And by some instances also it may appear, that the quality is mechanically expelled from, or abolished in, a portion of matter, that was endowed with it before. Sometimes also by the same operation the former quality it destroyed, and a new one is produced. And each of these kinds of instances may be usefully employed in our notes about particular qualities. For as to the first of them, there will be scarce any difficulty. And as to the second, since the permanent degrees, as well as other attributes of qualities are said to flow from (and do indeed depend upon) the same principles, that the quality itself does; if, especially in bodies inanimate, a change barely mechanical does notably and permanently alter the degree or other considerable attribute; it will afford, though not a clear proof, yet a probable presumption, that the principles, whereon the quality itself depends; are mechanical. And lastly, if, by a bare mechanical change of the internal disposition and structure of a body, a permanent quality, confessed to flow from its substantial form, or inward principle, be abolished, and, perhaps, also immediately succeeded by a new quality mechanically producible; if, I say, this come to pass in a body inanimate, especially, if it be also, as to sense similar, such a phænomenon will not a little favour that hypothesis, which teaches, that these qualities depend upon certain contextures, and other mechanical affections of the small parts of the bodies, that are endowed with them, and consequently may be abolished when that necessary modification is destroyed. This is
thus

thus briefly premised to shew the pertinency of alledging differing kinds of experiments and phænomena, in favour of the corpuscular hypothesis about qualities.

WHAT has been thus laid down, may, I hope, facilitate and shorten most of the remaining work of this preamble, which is to shew, though but very briefly, that there may be several ways, not impertinently employable to recommend the corpuscularian doctrine of qualities.

FOR first, it may sometimes be shewn, that a substantial form cannot be pretended to be the necessary principle of this or that quality; as will, for instance, hereafter be made manifest in the asperity and smoothness of bodies, and in the magnetical virtue, residing in a piece of iron, that has been impregnated by a loadstone. It is true, that the force of such instances is indirect, and that they do not expressly prove the hypothesis, in whose favour they are alledged; but yet they may do it good service, by disproving the grounds and conclusions of the adversaries, and so (by removing prejudices) making way for the better entertainment of the truth.

SECONDLY, we may sometimes obtain the same, or the like quality, by artificial and sometimes even temporary compositions, which, being but factitious bodies, are by learned adversaries confessed, not to have substantial forms, and can indeed reasonably be presumed to have but resulting temperaments: as will be hereafter exemplified in the production of green by compounding blue and yellow, and in the electrical faculty of glass; and in the temporary whiteness produced by beating clear oil and fair water into an ointment, and by beating water into a froth, and, more permanently, in making coral white by flaving it with heat; and in divers other particulars, that will more properly be elsewhere mentioned.

THIRDLY then, in some cases the quality proposed may be either introduced, or varied, or destroyed, in an inanimate body, when no change appears to be made in the body, except what is mechanical, and what might be produced in it, supposing such a parcel of matter were artificially framed and constituted as the body is, though without any substantial form, or other such like internal principle. So when a piece of glass, or of clarified rosin, is, by being beaten to powder, deprived of its transparency, and made white, there appears no change to be made in the pulverized body, but a comminution of it into a multitude of corpuscles, that by their number, and the various situations of their surfaces are fitted copiously to reflect the sincere light several ways, or give some peculiar modification to its rays; and hinder that free passage of the beams of light, that is requisite to transparency.

FOURTHLY, as in the cases belonging to the foregoing number there appears not to intervene in the patient or subject of the change, any thing but a mechanical alteration of the mechanical structure or constitution; so in some other cases it appears not, that the agent, whether natural or factitious, operates on the patient, otherwise than mechanically, employing only such a way of acting, as may proceed from the mechanism of the matter, which itself consists of, and that of the body it acts upon. As when goldsmiths burnish a plate or vessel of silver, that having been lately boiled looked white before, though they deprive it of the greatest part of its colour, and give it a new power of reflecting the beams of light and visible objects, in the manner proper to specular bodies; yet all this is done by the intervention of a burnishing tool, which often is but a piece of steel or iron conveniently shaped; and all that this burnisher does, is but to depress the little prominencies of the silver, and reduce them, and the little cavities of it, to one physically level or plain superficies. And so when a hammer striking often on a nail, makes the head of it grow hot, the hammer is but a purely mechanical agent, and works by local motion. And when by striking a lump of glass, it breaks it into a multitude of small parts, that compose a white powder, it acts as

mechanically in the production of that whiteness, as it does in driving in a nail to the head. And so likewise, when the powdered glass, or colophony lately mentioned, is, by the fire, from a white and opacous body, reduced into a colourless (or a reddish) and transparent one, it appears not, that the fire, though a natural agent, need work otherwise than mechanically, by colliquating the incoherent grains of powder into one mass; wherein, the ranks of pores not being broken and interrupted as before, the incident beams of light are allowed every way a free passage through them.

FIFTHLY, the like phenomena to those of a quality to be explicated, or at least as difficult in the same kind, may be produced in bodies and cases, wherein it is plain we need not recur to substantial forms. Thus a varying colour, like that, which is admired in a pigeon's neck, may be produced in changeable taffety, by a particular way of ranging and connecting silk of several colours into one piece of stuff. Thus we have known opals casually imitated and almost excelled by glass, which luckily degenerated in the furnace. And somewhat the like changeable and very delightful colour I remember to have introduced into common glass, with silver, or with gold and mercury. So likewise merely by blowing fine crystal-glass, at the flame of a lamp, to a very extraordinary thinness, we have made it to exhibit, and that vividly, all the colours (as they speak) of the rainbow; and this power of pleasing by diversifying the light, the glass, if well preserved, may keep for a long time. Thus also by barely beating gold into such thin leaves, as artificers and apothecaries are wont to employ, it will be brought to exhibit a green colour, when you hold it against the light, whether of the day, or of a good candle; and this kind of greenness, as it is permanent in the foliated gold, so I have found by trial, that if the sun-beams, somewhat united by a burning-glass, be trajected through the expanded leaf, and cast upon a piece of white paper, they will appear there, as if they had been tinged in their passage. Nay, and sometimes a slight and almost momentary mechanical change will seem to over-rule nature, and introduce into a body the quite opposite quality to that she had given it: as when a piece of black horn is, only by being thinly scraped with the edge of a knife, or a piece of glass, reduced to permanently white shavings. And to these instances of colours, some emphatical, and some permanent, might be added divers belonging to other qualities, but that I ought not to anticipate what you will elsewhere meet with.

THERE is yet another way of arguing in favour of the Corpuscularian doctrine of qualities, which, though it do not afford direct proofs of its being the best hypothesis, yet it may much strengthen the arguments drawn from other topicks, and thereby serve to recommend the doctrine itself. For, the use of an hypothesis being to render an intelligible account of the causes of the effects, or phenomena proposed, without crossing the laws of nature, or other phenomena; the more numerous, and the more various the particles are, whereof some are explicable by the assigned hypothesis, and some are agreeable to it, or, at least, are not dissonant from it, the more valuable is the hypothesis, and the more likely to be true. For it is much more difficult, to find an hypothesis, that is not true, which will suit with many phenomena, especially, if they be of various kinds, than but with a few. And for this reason, I have set down among the instances belonging to particular qualities, some such experiments and observations, as we are now speaking of, since, although they be not direct proofs of the preferableness of our doctrine, yet they may serve for confirmation of it; though this be not the only, or perhaps the chief reason of their being mentioned. For, whatever they may be as argument, since they are matters of fact, I thought it not amiss to take this occasion of preserving them from being lost; since, whether or no they contribute much to the establishment of the mechanical doctrine about qualities, they will, at least, contribute to the natural history of them.

III. I shall not trouble the reader with a recital of those unlucky accidents, that have hindered the subjects of the following book from being more numerous; and I hope he will the more easily excuse their paucity, if he be advertised, that although the particular qualities, about which some experiments and notes, by way of specimens, are here presented, be not near half so many as were intended to be treated of; yet I was careful to choose them such as might comprehend in a small number a great variety; there being scarce one sort of qualities, of which there is not an instance given in this small book, since therein experiments and thoughts are delivered about heat and cold, which are the chief of the four first qualities; about tastes and odours, which are of those, that, being the immediate objects of sense, are wont to be called sensible qualities; about volatility and fixity, corrosiveness and corrosibility, which, as they are found in bodies purely natural, are referable to those qualities, that many physical writers call second qualities, and which yet, as they may be produced and destroyed by the chemists art, may be stiled chemical qualities, and the spagyric ways of introducing, or expelling them, may be referred to chemical operations, of which there is given a more ample specimen in the mechanical account of chemical precipitations. And lastly, some notes are added about magnetism and electricity, which are known to belong to the tribe of occult qualities.

IV. If a want of apt coherence, and exact method, be discovered in the following essays, it is hoped, that defect will be easily excused by those, that remember and consider, that these papers were originally little better than a kind of rhapsody of experiments, thoughts, and observations, occasionally thrown together by way of annotations upon some passages of a discourse, (about the differing parts and redintegration of nitre) wherein some things were pointed at, relating to the particular qualities, that are here more largely treated of. And though the particulars, that concern some of these qualities, were afterwards (to supply the place of those borrowed by other papers whilst these lay by me) increased in number; yet it was not to be expected, that their accession should as well correct the form as augment the matter of our annotations. And as for the two tracts, that are inserted among these essays about qualities; I mean, the discourse of the imperfection of the chemical doctrine of them, and the reflections on the hypothesis of acidum and alcali, the occasion of their being made parts of this book, is so far expressed in the tracts themselves, that I need not here trouble the reader with a particular account of it.

V. I do not undertake, that all the following accounts of particular qualities would prove to be the very true ones, nor every explication the best, that can be devised. For besides that the difficulty of the subject, and incompleatness of the history we yet have of qualities, may well deter a man, less diffident of his own abilities than I justly am, from assuming so much to himself, it is not absolutely necessary to my present design. For, mechanical explications of natural phænomena do give so much more satisfaction to ingenious minds, than those, that must employ substantial forms, sympathy, antipathy, &c. that the more judicious of the vulgar philosophers themselves prefer them before all others, when they can be had; (as is elsewhere shewn at large,) but then they look upon them either as confined to mechanical engines, or at least, but as reaching to very few of nature's phænomena; and, for that reason, unfit to be received as physical principles. To remove therefore this grand prejudice and objection, which seems to be the chief thing, that has kept off rational inquiries from closing with the mechanical philosophy, it may be very conducive, if not sufficient, to propose such mechanical accounts of particular qualities themselves, as are intelligible and possible, and are agreeable to the phænomena whereto they are applied. And to this it is no more necessary, that the account proposed should be the truest and best, that can possibly

possibly be given, than it is to the proving, that a clock is not acted by a vital principle, (as those Chineses thought, who took the first, that was brought them out of *Europe*, for an animal,) but acts as an engine, to do more than assign a mechanical structure made up of wheels, a spring, a hammer, and other mechanical pieces, that will regularly shew and strike the hour, whether this contrivance be, or be not, the very same with that of the particular clock proposed; which may indeed be made to move either with springs or weights, and may consist of a greater or lesser number of wheels, and those differinglly situated and connected; but for all this variety, it will still be but an engine. I intend not therefore by proposing the theories and conjectures ventured at in the following papers, to debar myself of the liberty either of altering them, or of substituting others in their places, in case a further progress in the history of qualities shall suggest better hypotheses or explications. And it was but agreeable to this intention of mine, that I should, as I have done, on divers occasions in the following notes, employ the word *or*, and express myself somewhat doubtingly, mentioning more than one cause of a phænomenon, or reason of an opinion, without dogmatically declaring for either; since my purpose in these notes was rather to shew, it was not necessary to betake ourselves to the scholastick or chemical doctrine about qualities, than to act the umpire between the differing hypotheses of the Corpuscularians; and, provided I kept myself within the bounds of mechanical philosophy, my design allowed me a great latitude in making explications of the phænomena I had occasion to take notice of.

Of the MECHANICAL ORIGIN

O F

H E A T A N D C O L D.

S E C T I O N I.

About the MECHANICAL PRODUCTION *of* COLD.

HEAT and cold being generally looked upon as the most active among qualities; from which many other qualities are deducible, and by which many of nature's phænomena, especially among the Peripateticks, are attempted to be explicated; I suppose it will be very proper to begin with instances of them to shew, that qualities may be mechanically produced or destroyed. A not useless paraphrase of which expression may be this, that a portion of matter may come to be endowed with a quality, which it had not before, or to be deprived of one, that it had, or sometimes to acquire, or lose a degree of that quality; though on the part of the matter (or, as some would speak, of the patient) there do not appear to intervene any more than a change of texture, or some other mechanical alteration; and though the agents (on their part) do not appear to act upon it otherwise, than after a mechanical manner, that is, by their bigness, shape, motion, and those other attributes, by virtue whereof mechanical powers and engines perform their operations; and this without having recourse to the Peripatetick substantial forms and elements, or the hypostatical principles of the chemists.

AND having here (as in a proper place) to avoid ambiguity, premised once for all this * summary declaration of the sense, agreeably whereunto I would have these terms understood in the following notes about the origin of particular qualities; I proceed now to set down some few examples of the mechanical production of cold and heat, beginning with those, that relate to the former, because, by reason of their paucity, they will be quickly dispatched. And I hope I shall not need to make an apology for mentioning no greater number; since I scarce remember to have met with any instances of this kind in any of the classick writers of natural philosophy.

E X P E R I M E N T I.

My first experiment is afforded me by the dissolution of sal armoniac, which I have somewhat wondered, that chemists having often occasion to purify that salt by the help of water, should not have, long since, and publicly, taken notice of. For, if you put into three or four times its weight of water, a pound, or but half a pound (or even less) of powdered sal armoniac, and stir it about to hasten the dissolution, there will be produced in the mixture a very intense degree of coldness, such as will not be only very sensible to his hand, that holds the glass whilst the dissolution is making, but will very manifestly discover itself by its operation upon a thermoscope. Nay, I have more than once, by wetting the outside of the glass, where the dissolution was making, and nimbly stirring the mixture, turned that externally adhering water into real ice, (that was scraped off with a knife) in less than a minute of an hour. And this thus generated cold continued considerably intense, whilst the action of dissolution lasted; but afterwards by degrees abated, and within a very few hours ceased. The particular phaenomena I have noted in the experiments, and the practical uses, that may be made of it, I reserve for another place†, the knowledge of them being not necessary in this, where what I have already related, may suffice for my present argument.

AND to shew, that not only a far more intense degree of cold may emerge in this mixture, than was to be found in either of the ingredients before they were mingled, but a considerable coldness may be begun to be produced between bodies, that were neither of them actually cold before they were put together, I will subjoin a transcript of what I find to this purpose among my *adversaria*.

E X P E R I M E N T II.

[I remember, that once I had a mind to try, whether the coldness produced upon the solution of beaten sal armoniac in water might not be more probably referred to some change of texture or motion resulting from the action of the liquor upon the salt, than to any infrigidation of the water made by the sudden dispersion of so many saline grains of powder, which, by reason of their solidity, may be suspected to be actually more cold than the water they are put into; I therefore provided a glass full of that liquor, and having brought it to such a temper, that its warmth made the spirit of wine in the sealed weather-glass, manifestly, though not nimbly, ascend; I took out the thermoscope, and laid it in powdered sal armoniac, warmed beforehand; so that the tinted liquor was made to ascend much nimblier by the salt than just before by the water; and having presently removed the instrument into that liquor again, and poured the somewhat warm sal armoniac into the same, I found, as I imagined, that within a space of time, which I guessed to be about half a minute or less, the spirit of wine began hastily to subside, and within a few minutes fell above a whole division and a quarter

* See more of this in the preamble.
Numb. 15. of the *Philosophical Transactions*.

† Divers of the phaenomena, &c. of this experiment were afterwards printed.

quarter below the mark at which it stood in the water, before that liquor or the salt were warmed. Nor did the spirit in a great while re-ascend to the height, which it had, when the water was cold.

THE same experiment, being at another time reiterated, was tried with the like success; which second may therefore serve for a confirmation of the first.]

EXPERIMENT III.

HAVING a mind likewise to shew some ingenious men, how much the production of heat and cold depends upon texture and other mechanical affections, I thought fit to make again a sal armoniac by a way I formerly published, that I might be sure to know what ingredients I employed, and shew their effects, as well before conjunction as after it. I took then spirit of salt, and spirit of fermented, or rather putrified urine; and having put a sealed weather-glass into an open vessel, where one of them was poured in, I put the other, by degrees, to it, and observed, that as, upon their mingling, they made a great noise with many bubbles, so, in this conflict, they lost their former coldness, and impelled up the spirit of wine in the sealed thermoscope: then slowly evaporating the superfluous moisture, I obtained a fine sort of sal armoniac, for the most part figured not unlike the other, when being dissolved and filtrated, it is warily coagulated. This new salt being gently dried, I put into a wide glass of water, wherein I had before placed a sealed weather-glass, that the included spirit might acquire the temper of the ambient liquor, and having stirred this salt in the water, though I took it then off the mantle-tree of a chimney, that had had fire in it divers hours before, it did, as I expected, make the tinted spirit hastily subside, and fall considerably low.

EXPERIMENT IV.

SINCE, if two bodies, upon their mixture, acquire a greater degree of cold than either of them had before, there is a production of this additional degree of that quality, it will be proper to add, on this occasion, the ensuing experiment.

WE took a competent quantity of acid spirit distilled from roch-allom, (that, though rectified, was but weak,) which, in the spirit of that salt, is not strange. Of this we put into a wide-mouthed glass (that was not great) more than was sufficient to cover the globulous part of a good sealed thermoscope, and then suffering the instrument to stay a pretty while in the liquor, that the spirit of wine might be cooled, as much as the ambient was, we put in, little by little, some volatile salt sublimed from sal armoniac and a fixed alcali, and notwithstanding the very numerous (but not great) bubbles, and the noise and froth that were produced, as is usual upon the re-action of acids and alcalies, the tinted spirit in the weather-glass, after having continued a good while at a stand, began a little to descend, and continued (though but very slowly) to do so, till the spirit of allom was glutted with the volatile salt; and this descent of the tinted liquor in the instrument being measured, appeared to be about an inch (for it manifestly exceeded seven eighths.) By comparing this experiment with the first part of the foregoing, we may gather, that when volatile and urinous salts or spirits (for the saline particles appear sometimes in a dry, and sometimes in a liquid form) tumultuate upon their being mixed with acids, neither the heat nor the cold, that ensues, is produced by a conflict with the acids precisely as it is acid, since we have seen, that an urinous spirit produced an actual heat with spirit of salt, and the distilled salt of sal armoniac, which is also urinous, with the acid spirit of roch-allom, produces not a true effervescence, but a manifest coldness: as the same salt also did in a trial of another sort, which was this.

E X P E-

EXPERIMENT V.

WE took one part of oil of vitriol, and shaking it into twelve parts of water we made a mixture, that at first was sensibly warm: then suffering this to cool, we put a sufficient quantity of it into a wide-mouthed glass, and then we put a good thermoscope hermetically sealed, above whose ball the compounded liquor reached a pretty way. After some time had been allowed, that the liquor in the thermometer might acquire the temper of the ambient; we put in, by degrees, as much volatile salt of sal armoniac, as would serve to satiate the acid spirits of the mixture: for, though these two made a notable conflict with tumult, noise, and froth, yet it was but a cold ebullition (if I may so stile it,) for the spirit in the thermoscope descended about an inch beneath the mark it rested at, when the seeming effervescence began.

EXPERIMENT VI.

It is known, that salt-petre being put into common water produces a sensible coldness in it, as it also does in many other liquors: But that the same salt put into a liquor of another constitution may have a quite differing effect, I have convinced some inquisitive persons, by mingling eight ounces of fine salt-petre, powdered, with six ounces of oil of vitriol: for by that commixture with a salt, that was not only actually, but, as to many other bodies, potentially cold, the oil of vitriol, that was sensibly cold before, quickly conceived a considerable degree of heat, whose effects also became visible in the copious fumes, that were emitted by the incalcent mixture.

EXPERIMENT VII.

THIS brings into my mind, that though gunpowder seems to be of so igneous a nature, that, when it is put upon a coal, it is turned presently into a flame capable of promoting the deflagration of the charcoal, and kindling divers bodies it meets with in its way; yet if some ounces of gunpowder, reduced to powder, be thrown into four or five times as much water, it will very manifestly impart a coldness to it, as experience made with, as well as without, a sealed thermoscope has assured me.

THIS and the foregoing experiment do readily suggest an enquiry into the nature of the coldness, which philosophers are wont to oppose to that, which immediately, and upon the first contact, affect the organs of sense, and which therefore they call actual or formal.

THE success of this experiment upon a second trial served to confirm it, which is the more strange, because I have found, that a small quantity of oil of vitriol, not beforehand mingled with water, would produce a notable heat in its conflict with a small portion of just such salt as I employed before (both the parcels having been, if I well remember, taken out of the same glass.) And this heat did, upon trial made with the former thermoscope, make the tinted spirit ascend much further than the lately recited experiment made it subside.

A Digression about POTENTIAL COLDNESS.

POTENTIAL coldness has been generally looked upon, and that partly perhaps upon the score of its very name, as so abstruse a quality, that it is not only rational, but necessary to derive it from the substantial forms of bodies. But, I confess, I see no necessity of believing it not to be referrible to mechanical principles. For, as to the chief instances of potential coldness, which are taken from the effects of some medicines

medicines and aliments in the bodies of men, it may be said, without improbability, that the produced refrigeration proceeds chiefly from this, that the potentially cold body is made up of corpuscles of such size, shape, &c. that, being resolved and disjoined by the menstruum of the stomach, or the fluids it may elsewhere meet with, they do so associate themselves with the small parts of the blood, and other liquors, as, by clogging them, or otherwise, to lessen their wonted agitation, and perhaps make them act in a peculiar way, as well as less briskly on the nervous and fibrous parts; and the perception of this imminution (and perhaps change) of motion in the organs of feeling, is that, which, being referred to the body, that produces it, we call it's potential coldness. Which quality appears by this account to be, as I was saying before, but a relative thing, and is wont to require the diffusion or dispersion of the small parts of the corpuscles of the agent, and their mingling themselves with the liquors, or the small parts of the body they are to refrigerate. And therefore, if it be granted, that, in agues, there is some morbidick matter, of a viscous or not easily dissippable texture, that is harboured in some part of the body, and requires such a time to be made fluid and resolvable, the cold fits of agues need not be so much admired as they usually are; since, though just before the fit the same parcel of matter, that is to produce it, were actually in the body, yet it was not, by reason of its clamminess, actually resolved into small parts, and mingled with those of the blood, and consequently could not make such a change in the motion of that liquor, as is felt in the cold fit of an ague; (for, of the further change, that occasions the hot fit, I am not here to speak.) And in some other diseases, a small quantity of matter, being resolved into minute parts, may be able to produce a great sense of coldness in some part of a body, which, by reason of the structure of that part, may be peculiarly disposed to be affected thereby; as I have known hypochondriac and hysterical women complain of great degrees of coldness, that would suddenly invade some particular part, chiefly of the head or back, and be for a good while troublesome there. And that, if a frigorific vapour, or matter, be exceeding subtile, an inconsiderable quantity of it being dispersed through the blood, may suffice to produce a notable refrigeration, I have learned by enquiry into the effects of some poisons; and it is not very material, whether the poison, generally speaking, be cold or hot, if it meet with a body disposed to have those affections, that pass for cold ones produced in it. For I have made a chemical liquor, that was penetrant and fiery enough to the taste, and had acquired a subtlety and briskness from distillation, with which I could, almost in a trice, giving it but in the quantity of about a drop, cast an animal into that, which appeared a sleep; and the like liquor, in a not much greater quantity, being, by I know not whose mistake, applied to the aching tooth of a very ingenious person, did presently, as he soon after told me, give him an universal refrigeration, and trembling, worse than the cold paroxysm of a quartane. And though scorpions do sometimes cause, by their sting, violent heats in the parts they hurt, yet sometimes also the quite contrary happens, and their poison proves, in a high degree, potentially cold; as may be learned from the two following observations, recorded by eminent physicians.

* Beniven.
cap. 56. Ab-
di. orum. a. u. d.
Schenb. 1 b.
7 de venen.
observ. 24.
Cent. 6.
observ.

* *Famulum babui* (saith Benivenius,) *qui à scorpione iētus, tam subito ac tam frigido sudore toto corpore persusus est, ut argentissimâ nive atque glacie sese opprimi quereretur. Verum cum argenti illi solam theriacam ex vino potentiore exhibuissem, illicò curatus est:* thus far he: to whose narrative I add this of *Amatus Lusitanus*.

VIR qui à scorpione in manus digito punctus fuit, multum dolebat, & refrigeratus totus contremebat, & per corpus dolores, cute totâ quasi acu punctâ, formicantes patiebatur, &c.

I cannot

I cannot now stay to enquire, whether there may not be in these great refrigerations, made by so small a quantity of poison, some small concretions or coagulations made of the minute particles of the blood into little clots, less agile and more unweildy than they were, when they moved separately: which may be illustrated by the little curdlings, that may be made of the parts of milk, by a very small proportion of runnet, or some acid liquor, and the little coagulations made of the spirit of wine by that of urine: nor will I now enquire, whether, besides the retardment of the motion of the blood, some poisons, and other analogous agents, may not give the motion of it a new modification, (as if some corpuscles, that usually are more whirled or brandished, be put into a more direct motion,) that may give it a peculiar kind of grating, or other action, upon the nervous and fibrous parts of the body. These, I say, and other suspicions, that have sometimes come into my thoughts, I must not stay to examine; but shall now rather offer to consideration, whether, since some parts of the human body are very differing from others in their structure and internal constitution; and since also some agents may abound in corpuscles of differing shapes, bulks, and motions, the same medicine may not, in reference to the same human body, be potentially cold, or potentially hot, according as it is applied; or perhaps may, upon one or both of the accounts newly mentioned, be cold, in reference to one part of the body, and hot, in reference to the other. And these effects need not be always ascribed to the mere and immediate action of the corpuscles of the medicine, but sometimes to the new quality they acquire in their passage, by associating themselves with the blood, or other fluids of the body, or to the expulsion of some calorific or frigorific corpuscles, or to the disposition they give the part on which they operate, to be more or less permeated and agitated than before, by some subtle æthereal matter, or other efficient of heat or cold. Some of these conjectures about the relative nature of potentially cold bodies may be either confirmed or illustrated by such instances as these; that spirit of wine, being inwardly taken, is potentially very hot; and yet, being outwardly applied to some burns, and some hot tumours, does notably abate the heat of the inflamed parts, though the same spirit, applied even outwardly to a tender eye, will cause a great and dolorous agitation in it. And camphire, which in the dose of less than a half, or perhaps a quarter of a scruple, has been observed to diffuse a heat through the body, is, with success, externally applied by physicians and surgeons in refrigerating medicines.

BUT I leave the further inquiry into the operations of medicines to physicians, who may possibly, by what has been said, be assisted to compose the differences between some famous writers about the temperament of some medicines, as mercury, camphire, &c. which some will have to be cold, and others maintain to be hot; and shall only offer by way of confirming in general, that potential coldness is only a relative quality, a few particulars; the first whereof is afforded by comparing together the sixth and the seventh experiment before going, (which have occasioned this digression about potential coldness;) since by them it seems probable, that the same thing may have it in reference to one body, and not to another, according to the disposition of the body it operates upon, or that operates upon it. And the fumes of lead have been observed sometimes (for I have not found the effect to succeed always) to arrest the fluidity of mercury, which change is supposed to be the effect of a potential coldness belonging to the chemist's Saturn in reference to fluid mercury, though it have not that operation on any other liquor, that we know of.

AND lastly, (for I would not be too prolix) though nitre and sal armoniac be both apart and jointly cold in reference to water, and though, however nitre be thoroughly melted in a crucible, it will not take fire of itself, yet if, whilst it is in fusion, you

should by degrees cast on it some powdered sal armoniac, it will take fire and flash vehemently, almost as if, sulphur had been injected.

BUT our excursion has, I fear, lasted too long, and therefore I shall presently re-enter into the way, and proceed to set down some trials about cold.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

IN the first experiment we observed, that upon the pouring of water upon sal armoniac there ensued an intense degree of cold; and we have elsewhere recited, that the like effect was produced by putting, instead of common water, oil of vitriol to sal armoniac: but now, to shew further, what influence motion and texture may have upon such trials, it may not be amiss to add the following experiment: to twelve ounces of sal armoniac we put, by degrees, an equal weight of water, and whilst the liquor was dissolving the salt, and by that action producing a great coldness, we warily poured in twelve ounces also of good oil of vitriol; of which new mixture the event was, that a notable degree of heat was quickly produced in the glass, wherein the ingredients were confounded, as unlikely as it seemed, that, whereas each of the two liquors is wont, with sal armoniac, to produce an intense cold, both of them acting on it together should produce the contrary quality. But the reason I had to expect the success I met with, was this, that it was probable the heat, arising from the mixture of the two liquors, would overpower the coldness produceable by the operation of either, or both of them upon the salt.

EXPERIMENT IX.

IN most of the experiments, that we have hitherto proposed, cold is wont to be regularly produced in a mechanical way; but I shall now add, that in some sort of trials I found, that the event was varied by unobserved circumstances; so that sometimes manifest coldness would be produced by mixing two bodies together, which at another time would upon their congress disclose a manifest heat, and sometimes again, though more rarely, would have but a very faint and remiss degree of either.

OF this sort of experiments, whose events I could not confidently undertake for, I found to be, the dissolution of salt of tartar in spirit of vinegar, and of some other salts, that were not acid, in the same menstruum, and even spirit of verdigrease (made *per se*) though a more potent menstruum than common spirit of vinegar would not constantly produce near such a heat at the beginning of its operation, as the greatness of the seeming effervescence, then excited, would make one expect, as may appear by the following observation transcribed *verbatim* out of one of my *Adversaria*.

[INTO eight ounces of spirit of verdigrease (into which we had put a while before a standard-thermoscope, to acquire the like temper with the liquor) we put in a wide-mouthed glass two ounces of salt of tartar, as fast as we durst for fear of making the matter boil over; and though there were a great commotion excited by the action and reaction of the ingredients, which was attended with a copious froth and a hissing noise; yet it was a pretty while, ere the glass was sensibly warm on the outside; but by that time the salt was all dissolved, the liquor in the thermoscope appeared to be impelled up about three inches and a half.

AND yet, if my memory do not much deceive me, I have found, that by mixing salt of tartar with another salt, the texture of the fixed alkali was so altered, that upon the affusion of spirit of verdigrease, (made without spirit of vinegar and spirit of wine) though there ensued a great conflict with noise and bubbles, yet, instead of an incalcescence, a considerable degree of coldness was produced.

E X P E

EXPERIMENT X.

It is very probable, that further trials will furnish us with more instances, to shew how the production of cold may, in some cases, be effected, varied, or hindered by mechanical circumstances, that are easily and usually overlooked. I remember, on this occasion, that though, in the experiment above recited, we observed, that oil of vitriol and water being first shaken together, the volatile salt of sal armoniac being afterwards put to them, produced a sensible coldness; yet I found, that if a little oil of vitriol, and of the volatile salt, were first put together, though soon after a considerable proportion of water were added, there would be produced, not a coldness, but a manifest degree of heat, which would impel up the liquor in the thermoscope to the height of some inches. And I remember too, that though salt of tartar will, as we shall see ere long, grow hot in the water, yet having distilled some salt of tartar and cinnabar in a strong fire, and put the whole *Caput mortuum* into distilled or rain water, it made indeed a hissing there, as if it had been quick-lime, but produced no heat, that I could by feeling perceive. I shall add, that not only, as we have seen already, some unheeded circumstances may promote or hinder the artificial production of cold by particular agents, but, which will seem more strange, some unobserved, and perhaps hardly observable, indisposition in the patient, may promote or hinder the effects of the grand and catholick efficient of cold, whatever those be. This suspicion I represent as a thing, that further experience may possibly countenance, because I have sometimes found, that the degree of the operation of cold has been much varied by latent circumstances, some bodies being more wrought upon, and others less, than was, upon very probable grounds, expected. And particularly I remember, that though oil of vitriol be one of the fieriest liquors, that is yet known, and does perform some of the operations of fire, itself, (as we shall elsewhere have occasion to shew) and will thaw ice sooner than spirit of wine, or any other liquor, as I have tried; yet having put about a pound or more, by our estimate, of choice rectified oil of vitriol, into a strong glass vial proportionable to it, we found, that, except a little, that was fluid at the top, it was all congealed or coagulated into a mass like ice, though the glass stood in a laboratory, where a fire was constantly kept not far from it, and where oil of vitriol very seldom, or never, has before, or since, been observed to congeal or coagulate so much as in part. And the oddness of our phænomenon was encreased by this circumstance, that the mass continued solid a good while after the weather was grown too mild to have such operations upon liquors far less indisposed to lose their fluidity by cold, than even common oil of vitriol is. On the other side I remember, that about two years ago, I exposed some oil of sweet almonds hermetically sealed up in a glass bubble, to observe what condensation an intense cold could make of it, (for though cold expands water, it condenses common oil;) but the next day I found, to my wonder, that not only the oil remained unfrozen by the sharp frost it had been exposed to, but that it had not its transparency troubled, though it is known, that oil will be brought to concrete, and turn opacous by a far less degree of cold than is requisite to freeze water; notwithstanding which, this liquor, which was lodged in a glass, so thin, that it was blown at the flame of a lamp, continued fluid and diaphanous in very frosty weather, so long till I lost the expectation of seeing it congealed or concreted. And this brings into my mind, that though camphire be, as I formerly noted, reckoned by many potentially cold, yet we kept some oil of it, of our making, wherein the whole body of the camphire remained, being only by some nitrous spirits reduced to the form of an oil; we kept it, I say, in such intense degrees of cold, that would have easily frozen water, without finding it to lose its transparency, or its fluidity.

AND here I shall put an end to the first section, (containing our notes about cold) the design of which may be not a little promoted by comparing with them the beginning of the ensuing section. For, if it be true, that (as we there shew) the nature of heat consists either only or chiefly in the local motion of the small parts of a body mechanically modified by certain conditions, of which the principal is the vehemency of the various agitations of those insensible parts; and if it be also true, as experience witnesses it to be, that, when the minute parts of a body are in, or arrive at such a state, that they are more slowly or faintly agitated than those of our fingers, or other organs of feeling, we judge them cold: these two things, laid together, seem plainly enough to argue, that a privation or negation of that local motion, that is requisite to constitute heat, may suffice for the denominating a body cold, as coldness is a quality of the object, (which, as it is perceived by the mind, is also an affection of the sentient:) and therefore an imminution of such a degree of former motion, as is necessary to make a body hot as to sense, and which is sufficient to the production of sensible coldness, may be mechanically made, since slowness, as well as swiftness, being a mode of local motion, is a mechanical thing. And though its effect, which is coldness, seem a privation or negation; yet the cause of it may be a positive agent acting mechanically, by clogging the agile calorific particles, or deadning their motion, or perverting their determination, or by some other intelligible way bringing them to a state of coldness, as to sense: I say, coldness as to sense; because as it is a tactile quality, in the popular acception of it, it is relative to our organs of feeling; as we see, that the same lukewarm water will appear hot and cold to the same man's hands, if, when both are plunged into it, one of them shall have been newly held to the fire, and the other be benumbed with frost. And indeed the custom of speaking has introduced an ambiguity into the word cold, which often occasions mistakes, not easily, without much attention, and sometimes circumlocution also, to be avoided; since usually by cold is meant that, which immediately affects the sensory of him, that pronounces a body cold, whereas sometimes it is taken in a more general notion for such a negation or imminution of motion, as though it operates not perceivably on our senses, does yet upon other bodies; and sometimes also it is taken (which is perhaps the more philosophical sense) for a perception, made in and by the mind, of the alteration produced in the corporeal organs by the operation of that, whatever it be, on whose account a body is found to be cold.

BUT the discussion of these points is here purposely omitted, as for other reasons, so principally, because they may be found expressly handled in a fitter place.

S E C T I O N II.

Of the MECHANICAL ORIGIN, or PRODUCTION of HEAT.

AFTER having dispatched the instances I had to offer of the production of cold, it remains, that I also propose some experiments of heat, which quality will appear the more likely to be mechanically producible, if we consider, the nature of it, which seems to consist mainly, if not only, in that mechanical affection of matter we call local motion mechanically modified, which modification, as far as I have observed, is made up of three conditions.

THE first of these is, that the agitation of the parts be vehement, by which degree of rapidness the motion proper to bodies, that are hot, distinguishes them from bodies, that are barely fluid. For these, as such, require not near so brisk an agitation, as is wont to be necessary to make bodies deserve the name of hot. Thus we see, that the particles

particles of water, in its natural (or usual) state, move so calmly, that we do not feel it at all warm, though it could not be a liquor, unless they were in a restless motion; but when water comes to be actually hot, the motion does manifestly and proportionably appear more vehement, since it does not only briskly strike our organs of feeling, but ordinarily produces store of very small bubbles, and will melt butter or coagulated oil cast upon it, and will afford vapours, that, by the agitation they suffer, will be made to ascend into the air. And if the degree of heat be such, as to make the water boil, then the agitation becomes much more manifest by the confused motions, and waves, and noise, and bubbles, that are excited, and by other obvious effects, and phænomena of the vehement and tumultuous motion, which is able to throw up visibly into the air great store of corpuscles, in the form of vapours or smoke. Thus, in a heated iron, the vehement agitation of the parts may be easily inferred, from the motion and hissing noise it imparts to drops of water, or spittle, that fall upon it. For it makes them hiss and boil, and quickly forces their particles to quit the form of a liquor, and fly into the air in the form of steams. And, lastly, fire, which is the hottest body we know, consists of parts so vehemently agitated, that they perpetually and swiftly fly abroad in swarms, and dissipate or shatter all the combustible bodies they meet with in their way; fire making so fierce a dissolution, and great a dispersion of its own fuel, that we may see whole piles of solid wood (weighing perhaps many hundred pounds) so dissipated, in very few hours, into flame and smoke, that, oftentimes, there will not be one pound of ashes remaining. And this is the first condition required to heat.

THE second is this, that the determinations be very various, some particles moving towards the right, some to the left hand, some directly upwards, some downwards, and some obliquely, &c. This variety of determinations appears to be in hot bodies, both by some of the instances newly mentioned, and especially that of flame, which is a body; and by the diffusion, that metals acquire, when they are melted, and by the operations of heat, that are exercised by hot bodies upon others, in what posture or situation soever the body to be heated be applied to them. As a thoroughly ignited coal will appear every way red, and will melt wax, and kindle brimstone, whether the body be applied to the upper or to the lower, or to any other part of the burning coal. And congruously to this notion, though air and water be moved never so vehemently, as in high winds and cataracts; yet we are not to expect, that they should be manifestly hot, because the vehemency belongs to the progressive motion, of the whole body; notwithstanding which, the parts it consists of may not be near so much quickened in their motions, made according to other determinations, as to become sensibly hot. And this consideration may keep it from seeming strange, that, in some cases, where the whole body, though rapidly moved, tends but one way, it is not by that swift motion perceived to be made hot.

NAY, though the agitation be very various, as well as vehement, there is yet a third condition required to make it calorific; namely, that the agitated particles, or at least the greatest number of them, be so minute, as to be singly insensible. For though a heap of sand, or dust itself, were vehemently and confusedly agitated by a whirl-wind, the bulk of the grains or corpuscles, would keep their agitation from being properly heat, though, by their numerous strokes upon a man's face, and the brisk commotion of the spirits: and other small particles, that may thence ensue, they may perchance occasion the production of that quality.

If some attention be employed, in considering the formerly proposed notion of the nature of heat, it may not be difficult to discern, that the mechanical production of it may be divers ways effected. For, excepting in some few anomalous cases, (wherein the regular course of things happens to be over-ruled,) by whatever ways the insensible

parts

parts of a body are put into a very confused and vehement agitation, by the same ways heat may be introduced into that body: agreeably to which doctrine, as there are several agents and operations, by which this calorific motion (if I may so call it) may be excited, so there may be several ways of mechanically producing heat, and many experiments may be reduced to almost each of them, chance itself having, in the laboratories of chemists, afforded divers phænomena, referable to any one or other of those heads. Many of the more familiar instances, applicable to our present purpose, have been long since collected by our justly-famous *Verulam*, in his short, but excellent paper *de forma calidi*, wherein (though I do not acquiesce in every thing I meet with there) he seems to have been, at least among the moderns, the person, that has first handled the doctrine of heat like an experimental philosopher. I shall therefore decline accumulating a multitude of instances of the production of heat, and I shall also forbear to insist on such known things, as the incalcescence, observable upon the pouring either of oil of vitriol upon salt of tartar, (in the making of tartarum vitriolatum) or of aqua fortis upon silver or quicksilver, (in the dissolution of these metals,) but shall rather chuse to mention some few instances not so notorious as the former, but not so unfit, by their variety, to exemplify several of the differing ways of exciting heat.

AND yet I shall not decline the mention of the most obvious and familiar instance of all, namely, the heat observed in quick-lime, upon the affusion of cold water, because, among learned men, and especially Peripateticks, I find causes to be assigned, that are either justly questionable, or manifestly erroneous. For, as to what is inculcated by the schools, about the incalcescence of a mixture of quick-lime and water, by virtue of a supposed Antiperistasis, or invigoration of the internal heat of the lime, by its being invironed by cold water, I have elsewhere shewn, that this is but an imaginary cause, by delivering, upon experiment, (which any man may easily make,) that if, instead of cold water, the liquor be poured on very hot, the ebullition of the lime will not be the less, but rather the greater: and oil of turpentine, which is a lighter, and is looked upon as a subtiler liquor than water, though it be poured quite cold on quick-lime will not, that I have observed, grow so much as sensibly hot with it.

AND now I have mentioned the incalcescence of lime, which, though an obvious phænomenon, has exercised the wits of divers philosophers and chemists, I will add two or three observations, in order to an enquiry, that may be some other time made into the genuine causes of it; which are not so easy to be found, as many learned men may, at first sight, imagine. The acute *Helmont* indeed, and his followers, have ingeniously enough attempted to derive the heat under consideration from the conflict of some alcalizate and acid salts, that are to be found in quick-lime, and are dissolved, and so set at liberty, to fight with one another by the water that flakes the lime. But, though we have some manifest marks of an alcalizate salt in lime, yet, that it contains also an acid salt, has not, that I remember, been proved; and if the emerging of heat be a sufficient reason to prove a latent acid salt in lime, I know not, why I may not infer, that the like salt lies concealed in other bodies, which the chemists take to be of the purest or merest sort of alcalies.

EXPERIMENT I.

FOR I have purposely tried, that by putting a pretty quantity of dry salt of tartar in the palm of my hand, and wetting it well in cold water, there has been a very sensible heat produced in the mixture; and when I have made the trial with a more considerable quantity of salt and water in a vial, the heat proved troublesomely intense, and continued to be at least sensible a good while after.

THIS

THIS experiment seems to favour the opinion, that the heat produced in lime, whilst it is quenching, proceeds from the empyreuma, as the chemists call it, or impression left by the violent fire, that was employed to reduce the stone to lime. But if by empyreuma be meant a bare impression made by the fire, it will be more requisite than easy, to declare intelligibly, in what that impression consists, and how it operates to produce such considerable effects. And if the effect be ascribed to swarms of atoms of fire, that remain adherent to the substance of the lime, and are set at liberty to fly away by the liquor, which seems to be argued by the slaking of lime without water, if it be for some time left in the air, whereby the atoms of fire get opportunity to fly away by little and little: if this, I say, be alledged, I will not deny, but there may be a sense, which I cannot explicate in few words, wherein the co-operation of a substantial effluvium, (for so I call it,) of the fire, may be admitted in giving an account of our phenomenon. But the cause formerly assigned, as it is crudely proposed, leaves in my mind some scruples. For it is not so easy to apprehend, that such light and minute bodies, as those of fire, are supposed, should be so long detained, as by this hypothesis they must be allowed to be, in quick-lime, kept in well-stopped vessels, from getting out of so lax and porous a body as lime, especially since we see not: great incalcescence or ebullition ensue upon the pouring of water upon minium, or *crocus Martis persæ*, though they have been calcined by violent and lasting fires, whose effluvia or emanations appear to adhere to them by the increase of weight, that lead, if not also *Mars*, does manifestly receive from the operation of the fire. To which I shall add, that, whereas one would think, that the igneous atoms should either fly away, or be extinguished by the supervening of water, I know, and elsewhere give account, of an

EXPERIMENT II.

IN which two liquors, whereof one was furnished me by nature, did by being several times separated and reconjoined without additament, at each congress produce a sensible heat.

EXPERIMENT III.

AND an instance of this kind, though not so odd, I purposely sought and found in salt of tartar, from which, after it had been once heated by the affusion of water, we abstracted or evaporated the liquor, without violence of fire, till the salt was again dry; and then putting on water a second time, the same salt grew hot again in the vial, and, if I misremember not, it produced this incalcescence the third time, if not the fourth; and might probably have done it oftner, if I had had occasion to prosecute the experiment. Which seems at least to argue, that the great violence of fire is not necessary to impress what passes for an empyreum upon all calcined bodies, that will heat with water.

AND on this occasion I shall venture to add, that I have sometimes doubted, whether the incalcescence may not much depend upon the particular disposition of the calcined body, which being deprived of its former moisture, and made more porous by the fire, doth by the help of those igneous effluvia, for the most part of a saline nature, that are dispersed through it, and adhere to it; acquire such a texture, that the water impelled by its own weight, and the pressure of the atmosphere, is able to get into a multitude of its pores at once, and suddenly dissolve the igneous and alcalizate salt it every where meets with there, and briskly disjoin the earthy and solid particles, that were blended with them; which being exceeding numerous, though each of them perhaps be very minute, and moves but a very little way, yet their multitude makes the
confused:

confused agitation of the whole aggregate of them, and of the particles of the water and salt vehement enough to produce a sensible heat; especially if we admit, that there is such a change made in the pores, as occasions a great increase of this agitation, by the ingress and action of some subtle ethereal matter, from which alone Monsieur *Des Cartes* ingeniously attempts to derive the incalcescence of lime and water, as well as that of metals dissolved in corrosive liquors; though as to the phænomena we have been considering, there seems at least to concur a peculiar disposition of body, wherein heat is to be produced to do one or both of these two things, namely, to retain good store of the igneous effluvia, and to be, by their adhesion or some other operation of the fire, reduced to such a texture of its component particles, as to be fit to have them easily penetrated, and briskly, as well as copiously, dissipated, by invading water. And this conjecture (for I propose it as no other) seems favoured by divers phænomena, some whereof I shall now annex. For here it may be observed, that both the dissolved salt of tartar lately mentioned, and the artificial liquor, that grows hot with the natural, re-acquires that disposition to incalcescence upon a bare constipation, or closer texture of the parts from the superfluous moisture they were drowned in before; the heat, that brought them to this texture, having been so gentle, that it is no way likely, that the igneous exhalations could themselves produce such a heat, or at least, that they should adhere in such numbers, as must be requisite to such an effect, unless the texture of the salt of tartar, or other body, did peculiarly dispose it to detain them; since

EXPERIMENT IV.

I have found by trial, that sal armoniac dissolved in water, though boiled up with a brisker fire to a dry salt, would, upon its being again dissolved in water, not produce any heat, but a very considerable degree of cold. I shall add, that though one would expect a great cognation between the particles of fire adhering to quick-lime, and those of high rectified spirit of wine, which is of so igneous a nature, as to be totally inflammable; yet I have not found, that the affusion of alkool of wine upon quick-lime would produce any sensible incalcescence, or any visible dissolution or dissipation of the lime, as common water would have done, though it seemed to be greedily enough soaked in by the lumps of lime. And I further tried, that, if on this lime so drenched I poured cold water, there ensued no manifest heat, nor did I so much as find the lump swelled, and thereby broken, till some hours after; which seems to argue, that the texture of the lime was such, as to admit the particles of the spirit of wine into some of its pores, which were either larger or more congruous, without admitting it into the most numerous ones, whereinto the liquor must be received, to be able suddenly to dissipate the corpuscles of lime into their minuter particles, into which (corpuscles) it seems, that the change, that the aqueous particles received by associating with the spirituous ones, made them far less fit to penetrate and move briskly there, than if they had entered alone.

I made also an experiment, that seems to favour our conjecture, by shewing, how much the disposition of lime to incalcescence may depend upon an idoneous texture, and the experiment, as I find it, registered in one of my memorials, is this.

EXPERIMENT V.

[UPON quick-lime we put in a retort as much moderately strong spirit of wine, as would drench it, and swim a pretty way above it; and then distilling with a gentle fire, we drew off some spirit of wine much stronger than that, which had been put on, and then the phlegm following it, the fire was encreased, which brought over a good deal of phlegmatick strengthless liquor; by which one would have thought, that the quick-lime

lime had been slacked; but when the remaining matter had been taken out of the retort, and suffered to cool, it appeared to have a fiery disposition, that it had not before. For, if any lump of it, as big as a nutmeg, or an almond, was cast into the water, it would hiss as if a coal of fire had been plunged into the liquor, which was soon thereby sensibly heated. Nay, having kept divers lumps of this prepared calx well covered from the air for divers weeks, to try, whether it would retain this property, I found, as I expected, that the calx operated after the same manner, if not more powerfully. For sometimes, especially when it was reduced to small pieces, it would upon its coming into the water make such a brisk noise, as might almost pass for a kind of explosion.]

THESE phænomena seem to argue, that the disposition, that lime has to grow hot with water, depends much on some peculiar texture, since the aqueous parts, that one would think capable of quenching all, or most of the atoms of fire, that are supposed to adhere to quick-lime, did not near so much weaken the disposition of it to incalcescence, as the accession of the spirituous corpuscles and their contexture, with those of the lime, encreased that igneous disposition. And that there might intervene such an association, seems to me the more probable, not only because much of the distilled liquor was as phlegmatick, as if it had been robbed of its more active parts, but because I have sometimes had spirit of wine come over with quick-lime not in unobserved steams, but white fumes. To which I shall add, that besides, that the taste, and perhaps odour of the spirit of wine, is often manifestly changed by a well-made distillation from quick-lime; I have sometimes found that liquor to give the lime a kind of alcalizate penetrancy, not to say fieriness of taste, that was very brisk and remarkable. But I will not undertake, that every experimenter, nor I myself, shall always make trials of this kind with the same success, that I had in those above recited, in regard, that I have found quick-limes to differ much, not only according to the degree of their calcination, and to their recentness, but also, and that especially, according to the differing natures of the stones and other bodies calcined. Which observation engages me the more to propose what hath been hitherto delivered about quick-lime, as only narratives and a conjecture; which I now perceive has detained us so long, that I am obliged to hasten to the remaining experiments, and to be the more succinct in delivering them.

E X P E R I M E N T VI.

AND it will be convenient to begin with an instance or two of the production of heat, wherein there appears not to intervene any thing in the part of the agent or patient, but local motion, and the natural effects of it. And as to this sort of experiments, a little attention and reflection may make some familiar phænomenon apposite to our present purpose. When, for example, a smith does hastily hammer a nail, or such like piece of iron, the hammered metal will grow exceeding hot, and yet there appears not any thing to make it so, save the forcible motion of the hammer, which impresses a vehement, and variously determined agitation of the small parts of the iron; which being a cold body before, by that superinduced commotion of its small parts, becomes in divers senses hot; first, in a more lax acceptation of the word in reference to some other bodies, in respect of whom it was cold before, and then sensibly hot; because this newly gained agitation, surpasses that of the parts of our fingers. And in this instance, it is not to be overlooked, that oftentimes neither the hammer, by which, nor the anvil, on which a cold piece of iron is forged, (for all iron does not require precedent ignition to make it obey the hammer) continue cold, after the operation is ended; which shews, that the heat acquired by the forged piece of iron was not communicated

municated by the hammer or anvil as heat, but produced in it by motion, which was great enough to put so small a body, as the piece of iron, into a strong and confused motion of its parts, without being able to have the like operation upon so much greater masses of metal, as the hammer and the anvil; though, if the percussions were often and nimbly renewed, and the hammer were but small, this also might be heated, (though not so soon, nor so much, as the iron;) by which one may also take notice, that it is not necessary, a body should be itself hot, to be calorifick. And now I speak of striking an iron with a hammer, I am put in mind of an observation, that seems to contradict, but does indeed confirm our theory: namely, that if a somewhat large nail be driven by a hammer into a plank, or piece of wood, it will receive divers strokes on the head before it grow hot; but when it is driven to the head, so that it can go no further, a few strokes will suffice to give it a considerable heat; for whilst, at every blow of the hammer, the nail enters further and further into the wood, the motion, that is produced, is chiefly progressive, and is of the whole nail tending one way; whereas, when that motion is stopped, then the impulse given by the stroke, being unable either to drive the nail further on, or destroy its intireness, must be spent in making a various vehement and intestine commotion of the parts among themselves, and in such an one we formerly observed the nature of heat to consist.

EXPERIMENT VII.

IN the foregoing experiment, the brisk agitation of the parts of a heated iron was made sensible to the touch. I shall now add one of the attempts, that I remember I made, to render it discoverable to the eye itself. In order to this, and that I might also shew, that not only a sensible, but an intense degree of heat, may be produced in a piece of cold iron by local motion, I caused a bar of that metal to be nimbly hammered by two or three lusty men, accustomed to manage that instrument; and these striking with as much force, and as little intermission, as they could, upon the iron, soon brought it to that degree of heat, that not only it was a great deal too hot to be safely touched, but probably would, according to my design, have kindled gun-powder, if that, which I was fain to make use of, had been of the best sort: for, to the wonder of the by-standers, the iron kindled the sulphur of many of the grains of the corns of powder, and made them turn blue, though I do not well remember, that it made any of them go off.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

BESIDES the effects of manifest and violent percussions, such as those we have been taking notice of to be made with a hammer, there are among phænomena obvious enough, some, that shew the producibleness of heat, even in cold iron, by causing an intestine commotion of its parts: for we find, that, if a piece of iron, of a convenient shape and bulk, be nimbly filed with a large rough file, a considerable degree of heat will be quickly excited in those parts of the iron where the file passes to and fro, the many prominent parts of the instrument giving a multitude of strokes or pushes to the parts of the iron, that happen to stand in their way, and thereby making them put the neighbouring parts into a brisk and confused motion, and so into a state of heat. Nor can it be well objected, that, upon this account, the file itself ought to grow as hot as the iron, which yet it will not do; since, to omit other answers, the whole body of the file being moved to and fro, the same parts, that touch the iron this moment, pass off the next; and, besides, have leisure to cool themselves, by communicating their newly received agitation to the air, before they are brought to grate again upon the iron, which, being supposed to be held immoveable, receives almost perpetual shakes in the same place.

WE find also, that attrition, if it be any thing vehement, is wont to produce heat in the solideſt bodies; as when the blade of a knife, being nimbly whetted, grows preſently hot. And if, having taken a braſs nail, and driven it as far as you can to the end of the ſtick, to keep it faſt, and gain a handle, you then ſtrongly rub the head to and fro againſt the floor, or a plank of wood, you may quickly find it to have acquired a heat intense enough to offend, if not burn one's fingers. And I remember, that going once, in exceeding hot weather, in a coach, which, for certain reaſons, we cauſed to be driven very faſt; the attrition of the nave of the wheel, againſt the axel-tree, was ſo vehement, as obliged us to light out of the coach, to ſeek for water to cool the overchafed parts, and ſtop the growing miſchief the exceſſive heat had begun to do.

THE vulgar experiment, of ſtriking fire with a flint and ſteel, ſufficiently declares, what a heat, in a trice, may be produced in cold bodies by percuffion, or collifion; the latter of which ſeems but mutual percuffion.

BUT inſtances of the ſame fort, with the reſt mentioned in the VI. experiment, being obvious enough, I ſhall forbear to multiply and inſiſt on them.

E X P E R I M E N T IX.

FOR the ſake of thoſe, that think the attrition of contiguous air is neceſſary to the production of manifeſt heat, I thought, among other things, of the following experiment, and made trial of it.

WE took ſome hard black pitch, and having, in a baſon, porringer, or ſome ſuch veſſel, placed it a convenient diſtance under water, we caſt on it, with a good burning-glaſs, the ſun-beams, in ſuch a manner, that, notwithſtanding the refraction, that they ſuffered in the paſſage through the interpoſed water, the focus fell upon the pitch; wherein it would produce ſometimes bubbles, ſometimes ſmoke, and quickly communicated a degree of heat capable to make pitch melt, if not alſo to boil.

E X P E R I M E N T X.

THOUGH the firſt and ſecond experiments of Section I. ſhew, that a conſiderable degree of cold is produced by the diſſolution of ſal armoniac in common water; yet, by an additament, though but ſingle, the texture of it may be ſo altered, that, inſtead of cold, a notable degree of heat will be produced, if it be diſſolved in that liquor. For the manifeſtation of which, we deviſed the following experiment.

WE took quick-lime, and ſlaked it in common cold water, that all the igneous, or other particles, to which its power of heating that liquor is aſcribed, might be extracted and imbibed, and ſo the calx freed from them; then, on the remaining powder, freſh water was often poured, that all adhering reliques of ſalt might be waſhed off. After this, the thus dulcified calx, being again well dried, was mingled with an equal weight of powdered ſal armoniac, and having, with a ſtrong fire, melted the maſs, the mixture was poured out; and, being afterwards beaten to powder, having given it a competent time to grow cold, we put two or three ounces of it into a wide-mouthed glaſs; and pouring water upon it, within about a minute of an hour, the mixture grew warm, and quickly attained ſo intense a heat, that I could not hold the glaſs in my hand. And though this heat did not long laſt at the ſame height, it continued to be very ſenſible for a conſiderable time after.

E X P E R I M E N T XI.

To confirm this experiment, by a notable variation, we took finely powdered ſal armoniac, and filings or ſcales of ſteel, and when they were very diligently mixed,

(for that circumstance ought to be observed,) we caused them to be gradually sublimed in a glass vessel, giving a smart fire towards the latter end. By this operation, so little of the mixture ascended, that, as we desired, far the greatest part of the sal armoniac staid at the bottom with the metal; then, taking out the caput mortuum, I gave it time thoroughly to cool, but in a glass well stopped, that it might not imbibe the moisture of the air, (as it is very apt to do.) And lastly, though the filings of steel, as well as the sal armoniac, were bodies actually cold, and so might be thought likely to increase, not check the coldness wont to be produced in water by that salt; yet, putting the mixture into common water, there ensued, as we expected, an intense degree of heat. And I remember, that, having sublimed the forementioned salt in distinct vessels, with the filings of steel, and with filings of copper, and, for curiosity-sake, kept one of the caput mortuums (for I cannot certainly call to mind which of the two it was) divers months, (if I mistake not, eight or nine,) we at length took it out of the vessel, wherein it had been kept carefully stopped; and, upon trial, were not deceived in having expected, that all that while the disposition to give cold water a notable degree of heat, was preserved in it.

EXPERIMENT XII.

IF experiments were made after the above recited manner with sal armoniac and other mineral bodies than iron and copper, it is not improbable, that some of the emerging phænomena would be found to confirm what has been said of the interest of texture, (and some few other mechanical affections) in the production of heat and cold. Which conjecture is somewhat favoured by the following trial. Three ounces of antimony, and an equal weight of sal armoniac being diligently powdered and mixed, were, by degrees of fire, sublimed in a glass vessel, by which operation we obtained three differing substances, which we caused to be separately powdered, when they were taken out of the subliming glass, lest the air or time should make any change in them; and having before put the ball of a good sealed weather-glass for a while into water, that the spirit of wine might be brought to the temper of the external liquor, we put on a convenient quantity of the powdered Caput mortuum, which amounted to two ounces, and seemed to be little other than antimony, which accordingly did scarce sensibly raise the spirit of wine in the thermoscope, though that were a tender one. Then laying aside that water, and putting the instrument into fresh, of the same temper, we put to it a very yellow sublimate, that ascended higher than the other parts, and seemed to consist of the more sulphureous flowers of the antimony, with a mixture of the more volatile parts of the sal armoniac. And this substance made the tinted spirit in the thermoscope descend very slowly about a quarter of an inch; but when the instrument was put into fresh water of the same temper, and we had put in some of the powder of the lower sort of sublimate, which was dark coloured, though both the antimony and sal armoniac, it consisted of, had been long exposed to the action of a subliming heat; yet the water was thereby speedily and notably cooled, insomuch, that the spirit of wine in the weather-glass hastily descended, and continued to sink, till, by our guess, it had fallen not much short of three inches. Of these phænomena the ætiology, as some moderns call the theory, which proposes the causes of things, is more easy to be found by a little consideration, than to be made out in few words.

WE made also an experiment like that above recited, by subliming three ounces a piece of minium and sal armoniac; in which trial we found, that though, in the Caput mortuum, the salt had notably wrought upon the calx of lead, and was in part associated with it, as appeared by the whiteness of the said Caput mortuum, by its sweetish
taste,

taste, and by the weight (which exceeded, four drachms, that of all the minium;) yet a convenient quantity of this powdered mixture being put into water, wherein the former weather-glass had been kept a while, the tincted spirit of wine was not manifestly either raised or depressed. And when, in another glass, we prosecuted the trial with the sal armoniac, that had been sublimed from the minium, it did indeed make the spirit of wine descend, but scarce a quarter so much as it had been made to fall by the lately mentioned sublimate of sal armoniac and antimony.

E X P E R I M E N T XIII.

It is known, that many learned men, besides several chemical writers, ascribe the incallescences, that are met with in the dissolution of metals, to a conflict arising from a certain antipathy or hostility, which they suppose between the acid salt of the one, and alcalizate salt, whether fixed or volatile, of the other. But since this doctrine supposes a hatred between inanimate bodies, in which it is hard to conceive, how there can be any true passions, and does not intelligibly declare, by what means their supposed hostility produces heat; it is not likely, that, for these and some other reasons, inquisitive naturalists will easily acquiesce in it. And on the other side it may be considered, whether it be not more probable, that heats, suddenly produced in mixtures, proceed either from a very quick and copious diffusion of the parts of one body through those of another, whereby both are confusedly tumbled and put into a calorific motion; or from this, that the parts of the dissolved body come to be every way, in great numbers, violently scattered; or from the fierce and confused shocks or jostlings of the corpuscles of the conflicting bodies, or masses, which may be supposed to have the motions of their parts differently modified according to their respective natures: or from this, that, by the plentiful ingress of corpuscles of the one into the almost commensurate parts of the other, the motion of some etherial matter, that was wont before swiftly to permeate the distinct bodies, comes to be checked and disturbed, and forced to either brandish or whirl about the parts in a confused manner, till it have settled itself a free passage through the new mixture, almost as the light does through divers troubled liquors and vitrified bodies, which, at length, it makes transparent. But, without here engaging in a solemn examination of the hypothesis of alkali and acidum, and without determining whether any one, or more, of the newly mentioned mechanical causes, or whether some other, that I have not yet named, is to be entitled to the effect; it will not be impertinent to propose divers instances of the production of heat by the operation of one agent, oil of vitriol, that it may be considered whether it be likely, that this single agent should, upon the score of antipathy, or that of its being an acid menstruum, be able to produce an intense heat in many bodies of so differing natures as are some of those, that we shall have occasion to name. And now I proceed to the experiments themselves.

TAKE some ounces of strong oil of vitriol, and shaking it with three or four times its weight of common water, though both the liquors were cold, when they were put together, yet their mixture will, in a trice, grow intensely hot, and continue considerably so for a good while. In this case it cannot probably be pretended by the chemists, that the heat arises from the conflict of the acid and alcalizate salts abounding in the two liquors, since the common water is supposed an elementary body devoid of all salts; and at least, being an insipid liquor, it will scarce be thought to have alkali enough to produce, by its re-action so intense a heat. That the heat emergent upon such a mixture may be very great, when the quantities of the mingled liquors are considerably so, may be easily concluded from one of my memorials, wherein I find, that no more than two ounces of oil of vitriol being poured (but not all at once) into four ounces only of distilled

distilled rain-water, made and kept it manifestly warm for a pretty deal above an hour, and during no small part of that time, kept it so hot, that it was troublesome to be handled.

EXPERIMENT XIV.

THE former experiment brings into my mind one, that I mention, without teaching it in the history of cold, and it appeared very surprizing to those, that knew not the ground of it. For having sometimes merrily proposed to heat cold liquors with ice, the undertaking seemed extravagant, if not impossible, but was easily performed by taking out of a basin of cold water, wherein divers fragments of ice were swimming, one or two pieces, that I perceived were well drenched with the liquor, and immersing them suddenly into a wide-mouthed glass, wherein strong oil of vitriol had been put; for this menstruum, presently mingling with the water, that adhered to the ice, produced in it a brisk heat, and that sometimes with a manifest smoke, which nimbly dissolved the contiguous parts of ice, and those the next, and so the whole ice being speedily reduced to water, and the corrosive menstruum being, by two or three shakes, well dispersed through it, and mingled with it, the whole mixture would grow, in a trice, so hot, that sometimes the vial, that contained it, was not to be endured in one's hand.

EXPERIMENT XV.

NOTWITHSTANDING the vast difference betwixt common water and high rectified spirit of wine, whereof men generally take the former for the most contrary body to fire, and whereof the chemists take the latter to be but a kind of liquid sulphur, since it may presently be all reduced into flame; yet, as I expected, I found, upon trial, that oil of vitriol, being mingled with pure spirit of wine, would as well grow hot, as with common water. Nor does this experiment always require great quantities of the liquors. For when I took but one ounce of strong oil of vitriol, though I put to it less than half an ounce of choice spirit of wine, yet those two being lightly shaken together, did, in a trice, conceive so brisk a heat, that they almost filled the vial with fumes, and made it so hot, that I had, unawares, like to have burned my hand with it before I could lay it aside.

I made the like trial with the same corrosive menstruum, and common aqua vitæ, bought at a strong-water-shop, by the mixture of which liquors heat was produced in the vial, that I could not well endure.

THE like success I had in an experiment, wherein oil of vitriol was mixed with common brandy; save that in this the heat produced seemed not so intense as in the former trial, which itself afforded not so fierce a heat, as that, which was made with rectified spirit of wine.

EXPERIMENT XVI.

THOSE chemists, who conceive, that all the incallescences of bodies, upon their being mixed, proceed from their antipathy or hostility; will not perhaps expect, that the parts of the same body, (either numerically, or in specie, as the schools phrase it,) should, and that without manifest conflict, grow very hot together. And yet having for trial's sake put two ounces of colcothar so strongly calcined, that it was burnt almost to blackness, into a retort, we poured upon it two ounces of strong oil of English vitriol, and found, that after about a minute of an hour they began to grow so hot, that I could not endure to hold my hand to the bottom of the vessel, to which the mixture gave a heat, that continued sensible on the outside for between twenty and thirty minutes.

E X P E R I M E N T XVII.

THOUGH I have not observed any liquor to equal oil of vitriol in the number of liquors, with which it will grow hot; yet I have not met with any liquor, wherewith it came to a greater incalcescence, than it frequently enough did with common oil of turpentine. For when we caused divers ounces of each to be well shaken together in a strong vessel, fastened, to prevent mischief, to the end of a pole or staff; the ebullition was great and fierce enough to be not undeservedly admired by the spectators. And this brings into my mind a pleasant adventure afforded by these liquors, of each of which, having for the production of heat and other purposes, caused a good bottle full to be put up with other things into a box, and sent down into the country, with a great charge, that care should be had of the glasses; the waggon, in which the box was carried, happened, by a great jolt, that had almost overturned it, to be so rudely shaken, that these glasses were both broken, and the liquors, mingling in the box, made such a noise and stink, and sent forth such quantities of smoke by the vents, which the fumes had opened to themselves, that the passengers with great out-cries and much haste threw themselves out of the waggon, for fear of being burnt in it.

THE trials we made with oil of turpentine, when strong spirit of nitre was substituted in the stead of oil of vitriol, belong not to this place.

E X P E R I M E N T XVIII.

BUT though petroleum, especially when rectified, be, as I have elsewhere noted, a most subtile liquor, and the lightest I have yet had occasion to try; yet to shew you, how much the incalcescence of liquors may depend upon their texture, I shall add, that having mixed by degrees one ounce of rectified petroleum, with an equal weight of strong oil of vitriol, the former liquor seemed to work upon the surface of this last named, almost like a menstruum, upon a metal, in numerous and small bubbles continually ascending for a while into the oleum petræ, which had its colour manifestly altered and deepened by the operation of the spirituous parts. But by all the action and reaction of these liquors, there was produced no such smoking and boiling, or intense heat, as if oil of turpentine had been employed instead of oil of vitriol; the change, which was produced, as to qualities, being but a kind of tepidness discoverable by the touch.

ALMOST the like success we had in the conjunction of petroleum and spirit of nitre; a more full account whereof may be elsewhere met with.

IN this, and the late trials, I did not care to make use of spirit of salt, because, at least, if it be but ordinarily strong, I found its operation on the liquors above-mentioned inconsiderable, (and sometimes perhaps scarce sensible) in comparison of those of oil of vitriol, and in some cases of dephlegmed spirit of nitre.

E X P E R I M E N T XIX.

EXPERIENCED chemists will easily believe, that it were not difficult to multiply instances of heat producible by oil of vitriol upon solid bodies, especially mineral ones. For it is known, that, in the usual preparation of vitriolum martis, there is a great effervescence excited upon the affusion of the oil of vitriol upon filings of steel, especially, if they be well drenched in common water. And it will scarce be doubted, but that, as oil of vitriol will (at least partly) dissolve a great many, both calcined and testaceous bodies, as I have tried with lime, oyster-shells, &c. so it will, during the dissolution, grow sensibly, if not intensely hot with them, as I found it to do, both
with

with those newly named, and others, as chalk, lapis calaminaris, &c. with the last of which, if the liquor be strong, it will heat exceedingly.

EXPERIMENT XX.

WHEREFORE I will rather take notice of its operation upon vegetable, as bodies, which corrosive menstrooms have scarce been thought fit to dissolve and grow hot with. To omit then cherries, and divers fruits abounding in watery juices, with which, perhaps on that very account, oil of vitriol will grow hot; I shall here take notice, that, for trial sake, having mixed a convenient quantity of that liquor with raisins of the sun beaten in a mortar, the raisins grew so hot, that, if I mis-remember not, the glass that contained it, had almost burnt my hand.

THESE kind of heats may be also produced by the mixture of oil of vitriol with divers other vegetable substances; but, as far as I have observed, scarce so eminently with any dry body, as with the crumbs of white bread, (or even of brown,) with a little of which we have sometimes produced a surprising degree of heat, with strong or well-dephlegmed oil of vitriol, which is to be supposed to have been employed in the foregoing experiments, and all others mentioned to be made by the help of that menstroom in our papers about qualities, unless it be in any particular case otherwise declared.

EXPERIMENT XXI.

It is as little observed, that corrosive menstrooms are able to work, as such, on the soft parts of dead animals, as on those of vegetables; and yet I have, more than once, produced a notable heat, by mixing oil of vitriol with minced flesh, whether roasted or raw.

EXPERIMENT XXII.

THOUGH common sea-salt does usually impart some degree, though not an intense one, of coldness unto common water, during the act of dissolution; yet some trials have informed me, that, if it were cast into a competent quantity of oil of vitriol, there would, for the most part, ensue an incalcescence, which yet did not appear to succeed so regularly, as in most of the foregoing experiments. But, that heat should be produced usually, though not perhaps constantly, by the above-named menstroom and salt, seems therefore worthy of our notice, because it is known to chemists, that common salt is one main ingredient of the few, that make up common factitious sal armoniac, that is wont to be sold in the shops. And I have been informed, that the excellent academians of *Florence* have observed, that oil of vitriol would not grow hot, but cold, by being put upon sal armoniac: something like which, I took notice of in rectified spirit of sulphur, made *per campanam*, but found the effect much more considerable, when, according to the ingenious Florentine experiment, I made the trial with oil of vitriol; which liquor, having already furnished us with as many phænomena for our present purpose, as could be well expected from one agent, I shall scarce, in this paper about heat, make any farther use of it, but proceed to some other experiments, wherein it does not intervene.

EXPERIMENT XXIII.

WE took a good lump of common sulphur, of a convenient shape, and, having rubbed or chafed it well, we found, as we expected, that, by this attrition, it grew sensibly warm; and, that there was an intestine agitation, which you know is local motion, made by this attrition, did appear not only by the newly mentioned heat,
whole

whose nature consists in motion, and by the antecedent pressure, which was fit to put the parts into a disorderly vibration, but also by the sulphureous steams, which it was easy to smell, by holding the sulphur to one's nose as soon as it had been rubbed. Which experiment, though it may seem trivial in itself, may be worth the consideration of those chemists, who would derive all the fire and heat we meet with in sublunary bodies from sulphur. For, in our case, a mass of sulphur, before its parts were put into a new and brisk motion, was sensibly cold; and as soon as its parts were put into a greater agitation than those of a man's fingers, it grew sensibly hot; which argues, that it was not by its bare presence, or any emanative action, (as the schools speak,) that the sulphur communicated any heat to my hand; and also, that, when it was briskly moved, it did impress that quality, was no more than another solid body, though incombustible as common glass, would have done, if its parts had been likewise put into an agitation surpassing that of my organs of feeling; so that, in our experiment, sulphur itself was beholden, for its actual heat, to local motion, produced by external agents in its parts.

EXPERIMENT XXIV.

WE thought it not amiss to try, whether, when sal armoniac, that much infrigidates water, and quick-lime, which is known to heat it, were by the fire exquisitely mingled, the mixture would impart to the liquor a moderate or an intense degree of either of those qualities. In prosecution of which enquiry, we took equal parts of sal armoniac and quick-lime, which we fluxed together, and putting an ounce, by guess, of the powdered mixture into a vial, with a convenient quantity of cold water, we found, that the colligated mass did, in about a minute, strike so great a heat through the glass upon my hand, that I was glad to remove it hastily, for fear of being scorched.

EXPERIMENT XXV.

WE have given several, and might have given many more, instances of the incalcescence of mixtures, wherein both the ingredients were liquors, or, at least, one of them was a fluid body. But sometimes heat may also be produced by the mixture of two powders; since it has been observed, in the preparation of the butter or oil of antimony, that, if a sufficient quantity of beaten sublimate be very well mingled with powdered antimony, the mixture, after it has, for a competent time (which varies much according to circumstances, as the weather, vessel, place, &c. wherein the experiment is made,) stood in the air, would sometimes grow manifestly hot, and now and then so intensely so, as to send forth copious and fetid fumes, almost as if it would take fire. There is another experiment, made by the help of antimony, and a pulverized body, wherein the mixture, after it had been for divers hours exposed to the air, visibly afforded us mineral fumes. And to these I could add more considerable, and perhaps scarce credible instances of bodies growing hot without liquors, if philanthropy did not forbid me. But, to return to our butter of antimony, it seems not unfit to be enquired, whether there do not unobservedly intervene an aqueous moisture, which (capable of relaxing the salts, and setting them a-work,) I therefore suspected might be attracted (as men commonly speak) from the air, since the mixture of the antimony and the sublimate is prescribed to be placed in cellars; and in such we find, that sublimate, or at least the saline part of it, is resolved *per deliquium*, (as they call it,) which is nothing but a solution made by the watery steams wandering in the air.

EXPERIMENT XXVI.

I have formerly delivered some instances of the incalcescence produced by water in bodies, that are readily dissolved in it, as salt of tartar and quick-lime. But one would not lightly expect, that mere water should produce an incalcescence in solid bodies, that are generally granted to be insoluble in it; and are not wont to be, at least without length of time, visibly wrought on by it; and yet trial has assured me, that a notable incalcescence may be produced by common water in flower or fine powder of sulphur, and filings of steel or iron. For when, in summer-time, I caused to be mingled a good quantity, (as half a pound, or rather a pound, of each of the ingredients,) and caused them to be thoroughly drenched with common water, in a convenient quantity whereof they were very well stirred up and down, and carefully mingled, the mixture would, in a short time, perhaps less than an hour, grow so hot, that the vessel, that contained it, could not be suffered in one's hand; and the heat was manifested to other senses than the touch, by the strong sulphureous stink, that invaded the nose, and the thick smoke, that ascended out of the mixture, especially, when it was stirred with a stick or spatule. Whether the success will be the same at all times of the year, I do not know, and somewhat doubt, since I remember not, that I had occasion to try it in other seasons, than in summer, or in autumn.

EXPERIMENT XXVII.

IN the instances, that chemistry is wont to afford us of the heat produced by the action of menstruums upon other bodies, there intervenes some liquor, properly so called, that wets the hands of those, that touch it; and there are divers of the more judicious chemists, that join with the generality of the naturalists in denying, that quicksilver, which is indeed a fluid body, but not a moist and wetting one, in reference to us, will produce heat by its immediate action on any other body, and particularly on Gold. But, though I was long inclinable to their opinion, yet I cannot now be of it, several trials having assured me, that a mercury, whether afforded by metals and minerals, or impregnated by them, may, by its preparation, be enabled to insinuate itself nimbly into the body of gold, whether calcined or crude, and become manifestly incalcescent with it in less than two or three minutes of an hour.

EXPERIMENT XXVIII.

SINCE we know, that some natural salts, and especially salt-petre, can produce a coldness in the water they are dissolved in, I thought it might not be impertinent to our enquiry into heat and cold, and might perhaps also contribute somewhat to the discovery of the structure of metals, and the salts, that corrode them, if solutions were made of some saliformed bodies, as chemists call them, that are made up of metal-line and saline parts, and do so abound with the latter, that the whole concretions are, on their account, dissoluble in common water.

OTHER experiments of this sort belonging less to this place than to another, I shall here only, for example-sake, take notice of one, that we made upon quicksilver, which is esteemed the coldest of metals. For having, by distilling from it four times its weight of oil of vitriol, reduced it to a powder, which, on the account of the adhering salts of the menstruum, that it detained, was white and glistering; we put this powder into a wide-mouthed glass of water, wherein a sealed weather-glass had been left, before it began manifestly to heat the water, as appeared by the quick and considerable ascent of the tinted spirit of wine, that continued to rise, upon putting in more of the magistery; which

which warm event is the more remarkable, because of the observation of *Helmont*, that the salt, adhering to the mercury, corroded in good quantity by oil of vitriol, if it be washed off, and coagulated, becomes a kind of alom.

THE event of the former trial deserves the more notice, because, having, after the same manner, and with the same weather-glass made an experiment of common water, and the powder of vitriolum martis, made with oil of vitriol and the filings of steel, the tinted spirit of wine was not at all impelled up as before, but rather, after a while, began to subside, and fell though very slowly, about a quarter of an inch. The like experiment being tried with powdered sublimate in common water, the liquor in the thermoscope was scarce at all sensibly either raised or depressed, which argued the alteration, as to heat or cold, to have been either none, or very inconsiderable.

HAVING given warning at the beginning of this section, that in it I aimed rather at offering various, than numerous experiments about the production of heat, I think, what has been already delivered may allow me to take leave of this subject, without mentioning divers instances, that I could easily add, but think it fitter at present to omit. For those afforded me by trials about antiperistasis belong to a paper on that subject. Those, that might be offered about potential heat in human bodies, would, perchance, be thought but unnecessary, after what has been said of potential coldness; from which an attentive considerer may easily gather what, according to our doctrine, is to be said of the contrary quality. And divers phænomena, which would have been of the most considerable, I could have mentioned of the production of heat, since in them that quality is the most exalted, I reserve for the title of combustibleness and incombustibility, having already suffered this collection (or rather chaos) of particulars about the production of heat, to swell to too great a bulk.

EXPERIMENTS and OBSERVATIONS

ABOUT THE

MECHANICAL PRODUCTION of TASTES.

TO make out the mechanical origin, or production of savors, as far as is necessary for my present purpose, it will be expedient to premise in general, that, according to our notion of tastes, they may depend upon the bigness, figure, and motion of the saporifick corpuscles, considered separately, and as the affections of single, and very minute particles of matter; or else in a state of conjunction, as two or more of these affections, and the particles they belong to, may be combined or associated, either among themselves, or with other particles, that were not saporous before. And as these coalitions, and other associations come to be diversified; so the tastes, resulting from them, will be altered or destroyed.

BUT, to handle these distinctly, and fully, were a task not only too difficult and long, but improper in this place, where I pretend to deliver not speculations, but matters of fact: in setting down whereof, nevertheless, to avoid too much confusion, I am content, where I can do it readily and conveniently, in some of my trials, to couch such references, as may best point at those heads, whence the mechanical explications may be derived, and consequently our doctrine confirmed.

By taste considered, as belonging to the object, (under which notion I here treat of it,) I mean, that quality, or whatever else it be, which enables a body, by its operation, to produce in us that sensation, which we feel, or perceive, when we say we taste.

THAT this something, whether you will call it a quality, or whatever else it be, that makes, or denominates an object saporous, or rather (if I may be allowed a barbarous term) saporifick, may so depend upon the shape, size, motion, and other mechanical affections of the small parts of the tasted body, and result from the association of two or more of them, not excluding their congruity, or incongruity to the organs of tasting, may be made probable by the following instances.

EXPERIMENT I.

To divide a body, almost insipid, into two bodies of very strong, and very differing tastes.

It is observed, that salt-petre refined, and by that purification freed from the sea-salt, that is wont to be mingled with it, does rather cool the tongue, than make any great saporifick impressions on it. And though I will not say, that it is, as some have thought, an insipid body; yet the bitterishness, which seems to be its proper taste, is but very faint and languid. And yet this almost insipid body, being distilled by the way of inflammation, (which I elsewhere teach,) or even by the help of an additament of such clay, as is itself a tasteless body, will afford a nitrous spirit, that is extremely sharp or corrosive upon the tongue, and will dissolve several metals themselves, and a fixed salt, that is likewise very strongly tasted, but of a taste altogether different from that of the spirit, that is extremely sharp or corrosive upon the tongue; and accordingly, this salt will dissolve divers compact bodies, that the other will not work on, and will precipitate divers metals, and other concretes, out of those solutions, that have been made of them by the spirit.

EXPERIMENT II.

Of two bodies, the one highly acid and corrosive, and the other alkalizate and fiery, to produce a body almost insipid.

THIS may be performed by the way I have elsewhere mentioned of composing salt-petre. For, if upon a liquor of fixed nitre, made *per deliquium*, you warily drop good spirit of nitre, till it be just enough to satiate the alkaly, (for if there be too much, or too little, the experiment may miscarry,) we may, by a gentle evaporation, and sometimes without it, and that in a few minutes, obtain crystals, which, being dried after they have been, if it be needful, freed from any adhering particles, (not of their own nature,) will have upon the tongue, neither a sharp nor an alkalizate taste, but that faint, and scarce sensible bitterness, that belongs to salt-petre, if it be pure salt-petre; for the impure may, perhaps, strongly relish of the common salt, that is usually contained in it.

THE like production of salt-petre we have sometimes made in far less time, and sometimes indeed in a trice, by substituting, instead of the fixed salt of nitre, the saline parts of good pot-ashes, carefully freed by solution and filtration from the earthy and feculent ones.

I have sometimes considered, whether the phænomena of these two experiments may not be explicated, by supposing them to arise from the new magnitudes and figures of the particles, which the fire, by breaking them, or forcibly rubbing them one against the other, or also against the corpuscles of the additament, may be presumed to give them; as if, for example, since we find the larger and best formed crystals of nitre to be of a prismatical shape with six sides, we should suppose the corpuscles of nitre to be

be little prisms, whose angles and ends are too obtuse or blunt to make vigorous and deep impressions on the tongue; and yet, if these little prisms be by a violent heat split, or otherwise broken, or forcibly made, as it were, to grind one another, they may come to have parts so much smaller than before, and endowed with such sharp sides, and angles, that, being dissolved and agitated by the spittle, that usually moistens the tongue, their smallness may give them great access to the pores of that organ, and the sharpness of their sides and points may fit them to stab and cut, and perhaps, scar the nervous and membranous parts of the organ of taste, and that variously, according to the grand diversities, as to shape and bulk of the saporifick particles themselves. And this being granted, it seemed further conceivable, that when the alkalizate and acid particles come to be put together in the fluid mixture, wherein they swam, many of them might, after a multitude of various jostlings and occurrences, meet with one another so luckily and opportunely, as to re-compose little prisms, or convene into other bodies, almost like those, that made up the crystals of nitre, before it was exposed to the fire. To illustrate which, we may conceive, that, though a prism of iron may be so shaped, that it will be wholly unfit to pierce the skin; yet it may be so cut by transverse planes reaching to the opposite bases or ends, as to afford wedges, which, by the sharpness of their edges, may be fit both to cleave wood, and cut the skin; and these wedges, being again put together, after a requisite manner, may re-compose a prism, whose extremes shall be too blunt to be fit for the former use. This may be also illustrated by the breaking of a dry stick, circularly cut off at the ends, which, though it is unapt, whilst entire, and of that bulk, to prick the hand; yet if it be violently broken, the ragged ends of it, and the splinters, may prove stiff, slender, and sharp enough to pierce and run into the hand: to which divers other such mechanical illustrations might be added. But, since I fear you think, as well as I, the main conjecture may not be worthy any farther prosecution, I shall not insist any longer on it. And because the historical part of these experiments was for the main delivered by me already in the essay about the analysis and redintegration of nitre, I shall now proceed to other trials.

EXPERIMENT III.

Of two bodies, the one extremely bitter, and the other exceeding salt, to make an insipid mixture.

To make this experiment, we must very warily pour upon crystals made of silver, dissolved in good aqua fortis or spirit of nitre, strong brine made of common salt and water. For the mixture of these two being dried, and afterwards brought to fusion in a crucible, and kept a competent while in that state, will afford a tough mass, the chemists call luna cornea, which you may lick divers times, and scarce judge it other than insipid; nor will it easily be brought to dissolve in much more piercing menstrua than our spittle, as I have elsewhere shewn.

EXPERIMENT IV.

Of two bodies, the one extremely sweet, and the other salter than the strongest brine, to make an insipid mixture.

THE doing of this requires some skill and much wariness in the experimenter, who, to perform it well, must take a strong solution of minium, made with an appropriated menstruum, as good spirit of vinegar, or else saccharum saturni itself, dissolved in a convenient vehicle; and then must have great care and caution to put to it, by degrees, a just proportion of strong spirit of sal armoniac, or the like urinous spirit, till the whole

whole be precipitated; and if the two former tastes are not sufficiently destroyed in the mixture, it may be dried and fluxed, as was above directed about luna cornea.

EXPERIMENT V.

Of an insipid body and a sour one, to make a substance more bitter than gall or aloes.

THIS is easily performed by dissolving in strong spirit of nitre or good aqua-fortis as much pure silver as the menstruum will take up; for this solution, being filtrated, has been often esteemed more bitter than so much gall or wormwood, or any other of those simples, that have been famous for that quality: and if the superfluous moisture be abstracted, you may by coagulation obtain crystals of luna, that have been judged more strongly bitter than the solution itself. And that the corpuscles of these crystals should leave a far more lasting taste of themselves, than the above-mentioned bitter bodies are wont to do, will not seem so marvellous, as I remember some, that tried, have complained; if we take notice, how deep the particles of these crystals may pierce into the spongy organs of taste, since, if one does but touch the pulp or nail of one's finger, (first a little wetted with spittle or otherwise,) with the powder of these crystals, they will so penetrate the skin or nail, and stick so fast there, that you cannot in a reasonable time wash the stain off of the skin, and much less off of the nail, but it will continue to appear many hours on the former, and many days on the other.

EXPERIMENT VI.

Of an insipid body and a highly corrosive one, to make a substance as sweet as sugar.

THIS is easily done, by putting upon good minium purified aqua-fortis or spirit of nitre, and letting them work upon one another in a gentle heat, till the liquor have dissolved its full proportion of the metal. For then, if the ingredients were good, and the operation rightly performed, the menstruum would have a sweetness like that of ordinary saccharum saturni. But it was not for nothing, that I intimated, the ingredients should be also pure and good in their kind; for, if the minium be adulterated, as often it is, or the spirit of nitre or aqua fortis be mingled, as it is usual before it be purged, with spirit of common salt, or other unfit ingredients, the operation may be successful, as I have more than once observed.

EXPERIMENT VII.

Of obtaining, without addition from the sweetest bodies, liquors corrosive enough to dissolve metals.

IF sugar be put into a sufficiently capacious retort, and warily distilled, (for otherwise it will be apt to break the vessel) it will afford, among other things, a copious red spirit, which, being slowly rectified, will lose its colour, and come over clear. The *caput mortuum* of the sugar, which I have more than once had of an odd contexture, may be found either almost or altogether insipid. And though the spirit will be of a very penetrant taste, yet it will be very far from any kind of sweetness; and though that liquor be thought to be homogeneous, and to be one of the principles of the analyzed sugar, yet (as I have elsewhere shewn) I found it to be a mixture of two spirits; with the one of which, besides bodies of a less close texture, I dissolved (even in the cold) crude copper, as was easy to be seen by the deep and lovely colour of the solution. And to these four spirits, afforded by sugar itself, we have restored a kind of saccharine sweetness, by compounding them with the particles of so insipid a body as minium; part of which they will in digestion dissolve. A like spirit to that distilled from sugar may be obtained from honey; but in regard of its aptness to swell exceedingly, chemists are not wont to distil it without sand, brick, or some other additament.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

To divide a body, bitter in the highest degree, into two substances, the one extremely sour, and the other perfectly insipid.

THIS is easily done by putting some fine crystals of *Luna* into a good retort, and then distilling them in a sand-furnace, capable of giving them so strong a fire, as to drive away all the spirits from the silver. For, this remaining behind, according to its metalline nature, will be insipid, and the spirits, that are driven away from it, will unite in the receiver into an acid and corrosive menstruum.

EXPERIMENT IX.

To produce variety of tastes in one insipid body, by associating it with divers menstrooms.

As this operation may, upon the account I elsewhere mention, be serviceable to investigate the figures & the particles of dissolved metals and other bodies; so it is very fit to manifest, what we would here have it shew, how much taste may be diversified by, and consequently depend upon texture; since a body, that has no taste, may, in conjunction with sapid bodies, give them strong tastes, all differing from one another, and each of them from that, which the saporous bodies had before. I could propose divers ways of bringing this to trial, there being several insipid bodies, which I have found this way diversifiable. But because I remember not, that I have met with any mineral, that is dissoluble by near so many saline menstrooms, as zink, I look on that, as the fertile subject to afford instances to our present purpose. For I have found, that it will be dissolved, not only by aqua-fortis, aqua-regis, oil of vitriol, spirit of nitre, spirit of salt, and other mineral menstrooms, but also by vegetable spirits, as distilled vinegar, and by animal ones too, as spirit of sal armoniac; though the one be acid, and the other urinous. And if the several solutions, which may be made of this mineral, by so many differing liquors; be compared, the number of their differing tastes will suffice to make good the title of the experiment.

EXPERIMENT X.

To produce variety of tastes with one menstruum, by associating it with insipid bodies.

THIS proposition a mathematician would go near to call the converse of the foregoing; and as it may serve, as well as that, to discover the structure of the minute parts of divers metalline and mineral bodies; so it may not only as well, but better than that, serve us to illustrate the corpuscularian doctrine of tastes; by shewing us, that a single, and, as far as chemistry teaches us, a simple body, endowed with a peculiar taste, may, by being compounded with others, each of them insipid of itself, produce a considerable number of differing tastes. There may be more instruments than one made use of in this trial; but of those, that are known, and we may easily obtain, the most proper are spirit of nitre, and good aqua-fortis: for that, with refined silver, will make a solution bitter as gall; with lead, it will be of a saccharine sweetness; with that part of tin, which it will keep dissolved, (for the greatest it is wont but to corrode and precipitate) it produces a taste very distant from both the former, but not odious; with copper, it affords an abominable taste; with mercury and iron, it affords other kinds of bad tastes. Nor are metals the only mineral bodies it will work upon; for, it will dissolve tin-glass, antimony, brass; to which I could add emery, zink, and other bodies, whereon I have tried it. All which together will make up no despicable number of differing tastes.

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EXPERIMENT XI.

Of two liquors, the one highly corrosive, and the other very pungent and not pleasant, to compose a body of a pleasant and aromatick taste.

THIS experiment, which I elsewhere mention to other purposes, does in some regards better suit our present design, than most of the foregoing; since here the corrosive menstruum is neither mortified by fixed nor urinous salts, supposed to be of a contrary nature to it; nor yet, as it were, tired out nor disarmed by corroding of metals or other solid bodies. The experiment being somewhat dangerous to make at first in great, it may suffice for our present turn, to make it in the less quantity, as follows.

TAKE one ounce of strong spirit of nitre, or of very good aqua fortis itself, and put to it by little and little, (which caution, if you neglect, you may soon repent it,) another ounce of such rectified spirit of wine, as, being kindled in a spoon, will flame all away: when these two liquors are well mixed, and grown cold again, you may, after some digestion, or, if haste require, without it, distil them totally over together, to unite them exquisitely into one liquor, in which, if the operation have been well performed, the corrosive particles of the salts will not only lose all their cutting acidity, wherewith they wounded the palate; but by their new composition with the vinous spirits, the liquor acquires a vinous taste, that is not only not acid or offensive, but very pleasing, as if it belonged to some new or unknown spice.

EXPERIMENT XII.

To imitate by art, and sometimes even in minerals, the peculiar tastes of natural bodies, and even vegetables.

THIS is not a fit place to declare, in what sense I do or do not admit of souls in vegetables, nor what I allow or deny to the seminal or plastick principle ascribed to plants: but perhaps it will not be erroneous to conceive, that, whatever be the agent in reference to those tastes, that are said to be specifick to this or that plant, that, on whose immediate account it is, or becomes of this or that nature, is a complication of mechanical affections, as shape, size, &c. in the particles of that matter, which is said to be endowed with such a specifick taste.

To illustrate this, I thought it expedient, to endeavour to imitate the taste of some natural bodies by artificial compositions or preparations, but found it not easy, beforehand, to be assured of the success of such trials: and therefore I shall content myself here to mention three or four instances, that, except the first, are rather observations than such experiments as we are speaking of.

I remember then, that, making some trials to alter the sensible qualities of smell, taste, &c. of oil of vitriol, and spirit of wine, I obtained from them, among other things, that suited with my design, a certain liquor, which, though at first pleasant, would, at a certain nick of time, make one, that had it in his mouth, think it had been imbued with garlick.

AND this brings into my mind, that a skilful person, famous for making good cyder, coming one day to advise with me, what he should do to heighten the taste of it, and make it keep the longer, complained to me, that having, among other trials, put into a good vessel full of juice of apples a certain proportion of mustard seed, with hopes it would make the cyder more spirituous and piquant, he found, to his wonder and loss, that, when he came to draw it, it stunk of garlick so rank, that every body rejected it.

I remember also, that, by fermenting a certain proportion (for that we found requisite) of *jemen dauci* with beer or ale, the liquor had a very pleasant relish of lemon-pills.

BUT that seems much more considerable, which I shall now add; that, with an insipid metal and a very corrosive menstruum, one may compound a taste, that I have several times observed to be so like a vegetable, that I presume it may deceive many. This may be done by dissolving gold, without any gross salt, in the mixture of aqua-fortis and the spirit of salt, or even in common aqua-regis, made by dissolving sal armoniac in aqua-fortis. For if the experiment be happily made, one may obtain either a solution or a salt, whose austere taste will very much resemble that of floes, or of unripe bullace. And this taste, with some little variety, I found in gold dissolved without any distilled liquor at all; and also, if I much forget not, in gold, that by a peculiar menstruum I had volatilized.

THE last instance I shall give of the imitation of tastes, I found to have been, for the main, known to some ingenious ladies. But to make the experiment succeed very well, a due proportion is the principal circumstance, which is wont to be neglected. I cannot readily call to mind that, which I found to succeed best; but the trial may be indifferently well made after such a manner as this:

TAKE a pint or a pound of *Malaga* or *Canary* sack, (for though French, and the like wines, may serve the turn, yet they are not so proper;) and put into it a drachm or two of good odoriferous orrice roots, cut into thin slices, and let them infuse in the liquor a convenient time, till you perceive, that they have given it a desired taste and smell; then keep the thus perfumed wine exactly stopped in a cool place: according to which way, I remember, that (when I hit on the right proportion of ingredients, and kept them a due time in infusion) I had many years ago a wine, which, being coloured with cochineal, or some such tinging ingredient, was taken for good raspberry-wine, not only by ordinary persons, but, among others, by a couple of eminent physicians, one of whom pretended to an extraordinary criticalness of palate on such occasions; both of them wondering, how at such an unlikely time of the year, as I chose to present them that liquor among others, I could have such excellent raspberry-wine: some of which (to add that by the by) I found to preserve the specifick taste two or three years after it was made.

A short EXCURSION about some CHANGES made of TASTES by MATURATION.

IT will not perhaps be thought impertinent but rather necessary, to add a word or two on this occasion for their sakes, that think the maturation of fruits, and the changes of tastes, by which it is usually known, must needs be the effect of the vegetable soul of the plant. For, after the fruit is gathered, and so, by being no longer a part of the tree, does, according to the most common opinion, cease to be a part of the living plant, as a hand or a foot cut off is no more reckoned among the limbs of the man it belonged to; yet it is very possible, that some fruits may receive maturation, after they have been severed from the plants, that bore them. For, not to mention, that apples, gathered somewhat before the time, by lying in heaps, do usually obtain a mellowness, which seems to be a kind or degree of maturation; or that medlars, gathered whilst they are hard and harsh, do become afterwards in process of time soft and better tasted; in which state, though some say they are rotten, yet others think that supposed rottenness is the proper maturity of that kind of fruit: not to mention these, I say, or the like instances, it is a famous assertion of several writers of the Indian affairs, that the fruit they call bananas: is usually gathered green, and hung up in bunches or clusters in the house, whereby they ripen by degrees, and have an advantageous change made both of their colour and of their taste. And this an ancient ac-

quaintance of mine, a literate and observing person, of whom I enquired about it, assured me, he had himself lately tried and found to be true in *America*. And indeed I see not, why a convenient degree of warmth, whether external from the sun and fire, or internal from some degree of fermentation or analogous intestine commotion, may not (whether the fruit be united to the plant or no) put the saporifick corpuscles into motion, and make them, by various and insensible transcurfions, rub against each other, and thereby make the little bodies more slender or thin, and less rigid, or cutting and harsh, than they were before, and by various motions bring the fruit they compose to a state, wherein it is more soft in point of consistence, and abound in corpuscles less harsh and more pliable, than they were before, and more congruous to the pores of the organ of taste; and, in a word, make such a change in the constitution of the fruit, as men are wont to express by the name of Maturity. And that such mechanical changes of texture may much alter the qualities, and among them the taste of a fruit, is obvious in bruised cherries and apples, which in the bruised parts soon come to look and taste otherwise than they did before. The possibility of this is also obvious by wardens, when slowly roasted in embers, with so gentle a fire, as not to burn off the paper they are wont to be wrapped in, to be kept clean from the ashes. And I have seen in the bordering country between *France* and *Savoy*, a sort of pears, (whose name I now remember not,) which being kept for some hours in a moderate heat, in a vessel exactly closed, with embers and ashes above and beneath them, will be reduced to a juicy substance of a lovely red colour, and very sweet and luscious to the taste. Many other sorts of fruit in other countries, if they were handled after the same way, or otherwise skilfully wrought on by a moderate heat, would admit as great alterations in point of taste. Neither is that sort of pear to be here omitted, which by mere compression, duly ordered, without external heat, will in a few minutes be brought to exchange it's former hardness and harshness for so yielding a contexture and pleasant a taste, as I could not but think very remarkable. And that even more solid and stubborn salts, than those of vegetables, may have the sharpness and piercingness of their tastes very much taken off by the bare internal action of one part upon the other, without the addition of any sweetening body, I have been induced to think by having found, upon trial, that, by the help of insipid water, we may, without any violence of fire, reduce sea-salt into a brine of so mild and peculiar (I had almost said) pleasant a taste, that one would scarce suspect what it had been, or believe, that so great a change of a mineral body could be effected by so slight an intestine commotion, as indeed produced it; especially, since the alteration of tastes was not the most considerable, that was produced by this operation.

As to liquors, that come from vegetables, the emerging of new savors upon the intestine commotion of the saporifick parts, as consequences of such commotions, is more obvious than is commonly considered in the juice of grapes, which, from a sweet and spiritless liquor, do by that internal motion, we call fermentation, acquire that pleasing pungency and briskness of taste, that belongs to wine, and afterwards degenerates into that acid and cutting taste, that is proper to vinegar; and all this, by a change of constitution made by the action of the parts themselves on one another, without the help of any external additament.

EXPERIMENTS and OBSERVATIONS

ABOUT THE

MECHANICAL PRODUCTION of ODOURS.

SINCE tastes and odours (perhaps by reason of the nearness of the organs they affect) are wont, by physical writers, to be treated of next to one another, I also shall imitate them in handling those two qualities, not only for the intimated reason, but because, what I have premised in general, and some other things, that I have said already under the title of tastes, being applicable to odours also, it will not be necessary, and therefore it would be tedious, to repeat them here.

EXPERIMENT I.

With two bodies, neither of them odorous, to produce immediately a strong urinous smell.

TAKE good quick-lime and sal armoniac, and rub or grind them well together, and holding your nose to the mixture, you will be saluted with an urinous smell produced by the particles of the volatile salt, untied by this operation, which will also invade your eyes, and make them to water.

EXPERIMENT II.

By the bare addition of common water, to produce immediately a very strong smell in a body, that had no such smell before.

THIS is one of the phænomena of an experiment made with camphire and oil of vitriol, which I have elsewhere mentioned to another purpose. For, if in that corrosive menstruum you dissolve a good proportion, but not too much, of the strongly scented gum, the odour of the camphire will be quite concealed in the mixture; but if you pour this mixture into a good quantity of fair water, the dissolved gum will immediately recover out of the menstruum, and smell as strong as before, if not (by reason of the warmth produced in the operation) more strongly.

EXPERIMENT III.

Of producing some odours, each of them quite differing from that of any of the ingredients.

HAVING taken two ounces, or parts of clear oil of turpentine, and mixed it with one ounce, or part, of oil of vitriol, (which must be done by degrees, for otherwise the vessel will be endangered,) the clear liquor, that came over, upon the distillation of the mixture in a sand-furnace, instead of the odour of turpentine, (for the oil of vitriol alone is wont to be inodorous,) smelt very strong of sulphur; insomuch, that once, when I shewed this experiment, approaching my nose very boldly and hastily to the receiver newly severed from the retort, the sulphureous stink proved so strong, that it had almost (to speak with the vulgar) taken away my breath. And to illustrate yet farther the possible emergency of such odours upon the mixture of ingredients, as neither of them was apart endowed with, we caused the substance, that remained behind in the retort (in the form of a thin extract) after one of the newly mentioned distillations to be farther pressed by a stronger fire, which forced most of it over, partly in the form of a thick oil, and partly in that of butter; both which we keep together in the same vial, because their odour is neither that of oil of turpentine, nor that of brimstone, but they smell exceedingly like the distilled oil of bees-wax.

EXPERIMENT IV.

About the production of some odours by local motion.

I shall not now examine, whether the local motion of an external agent may not, without materially concurring to the operation, produce, by agitating and shuffling the parts, odorous corpuscles: but that the celerity and other modifications of the local motion of the effluvia of bodies may not only serve to diversify their odours, but so far produce them, as to make them perceptible by the sense, which otherwise would not be so, may be gathered from some observations, which, being obvious, are not so proper for this place. Wherefore I shall rather take notice, that I know several bodies, that are not only inodorous when cold, but when considerably hot, and are fixed in the fire, and yet, by having their parts put into a peculiar kind of agitation, will presently grow plainly odorous. On this occasion I shall add, that, as there are some very hard woods, that acquire a strong smell by the motion they may be exposed to in a turner's lath, (as I have observed by trials particularly made with the hard and ponderous *lignum vitæ*,) so some afford, whilst the operation lasts, an unexpected odour. And having enquired about this matter of two eminent artists, (whom I often employ) concerning the odour of beechwood, whilst it is turning, they both agreed, that it would emit well-scented effluvia. And one of them affirmed to me farther, that, having bought a great block of that wood, to make divers pieces of workmanship with it, when he came to turn it, there would issue out not only a copious odour, but of such a peculiar fragrantcy, that one, that knew not whence it proceeded, would have concluded he was smelling roses.

EXPERIMENT V.

By mixing a good proportion of a very strongly scented body with an almost inodorous one, to deprive it speedily of all its smell.

TAKE salt of tartar, and drop upon it either spirit of nitre, or aqua fortis, not too much dephlegmed, till all the effervescence cease, and the liquor will no longer work upon the alkali. These, by a slow evaporation of the superfluous moisture, may be made to shoot into crystals, like those of nitre, which, after you have (if need be) by rubbing them with a dried cloth, freed them from loose adhering corpuscles, will emulate salt-petre, as in other qualities, so in its not being odorous; though, if you distil them, or burn them on kindled coals, their fumes will quickly make you sensible, that they abounded with the stinking spirits, that make aqua fortis so offensive to the smell.

EXPERIMENT VI.

By putting a very strongly stinking body to another of a not sweet smell, to produce a mixture of a pleasant and strongly aromatic odour.

WHAT is here proposed is performed at the same time, that the eleventh of the foregoing experiments of tastes is made. For the liquor thereby produced, if it be well prepared, has not only a spicy taste, but also a kind of aromatic and pleasant smell; and I have some now by me, that, though kept not over carefully, does, after some years, retain much of its former odour, though not so much as of its taste.

EXPERIMENT VII.

By digesting two bodies, neither of them well scented, to produce bodies of a very subtle and strongly fragrant odour.

WE took a pound (for instance) of Spanish wine, and put to it some ounces of oil of vitriol; then, keeping them for a reasonable time in digestion, we obtained, as
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we expected, a mixture odoriferous enough. But this trial you will find improved by that, which ensues.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

By the bare addition of a body almost inodorous, and not well scented, to give a pleasant and aromatic smell to spirit of wine.

THIS we have several times done, by the ways elsewhere related for another scope, the sum of which, as far as it needs be mentioned in this place, is this :

WE took good oil of blue vitriol (that was brought from *Dantzic*) though the very common will serve well, and having put to it, by degrees, an equal weight of spirit of wine totally inflammable, we digested them together, for two, three, or four weeks, (sometimes much longer, and then with better success;) from which, when we came to distil the mixture, we had a very fragrant spirit, which was sometimes so subtile, that, though distilled in a tall glass with a gentle heat, it would (in spite of our care to secure the closeness of the vessels at the junctures) pierce through, and fill the laboratory with a perfume, which, though men could not guess what body afforded it, yet they could not but wonder at it. Whence we may learn, both how much those spirituous and inflammable particles, the chemists call the vegetable sulphur of wine, may work on and enoble a mineral sulphur; (for, that such an one there is in oil of vitriol, I have elsewhere proved by experience;) and how much the new commixtions and contextures, made by digestion, may alter the odours of bodies, whether vegetable or mineral. That also another constitution of the same matter, without any manifest addition or recess of particles, may proceed to exhibit a very differing smell, will appear by the following trial.

EXPERIMENT IX.

To make the formentioned fragrant body, without addition or fire, degenerate into the rank smell of garlick.

To make out this, I need only relate, that I have more than once put the above mentioned fragrant liquor in stopped glasses, whereof the one, and not the other, stood in a warm place, till, in process of time, I found that odoriferous liquor so to degenerate in point of scent, that one would have thought it to have been strongly infected with garlick. And the like unpleasant smell I observed in a certain oil made of vegetable and mineral substances distilled together.

AND on this occasion I will add, (though not as an argument,) this observation, which though I shall not undertake it will always succeed, I think may not impertinently be set down in this place, partly because of the likeness of the odour produced, to that, which was the effect of the last named trial; and partly (or rather chiefly) because it may shew us, that a body, which itself is not only inodorous, but very fixed, may yet, in some cases, have a great stroke in the phænomena of odours; whether by being wrought on by, and sometimes mingled with, the parts of the odorous body, and thereby giving it a new modification, I shall not now stay to enquire.

WE took then good salt of tartar, and put to it, several times, its weight of the expressed juice of onions; we kept them in a light digestion for a day or two, and then unstopping the vial, we found the former smell of the onions quite degenerated into a rank smell of garlick, as was judged, even when fresh juice of garlick was procured to compare them. To vary this experiment, we made, with fixed salts, and some other strongly scented juices, trials, whose events it would perhaps be tedious here to relate.

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EXPERIMENT X.

With an inodorous body, and another not well scented, to produce a musky smell.

THIS we have sometimes done by casting into spirit (not oil) of vitriol a large proportion of small pearls unbroken. For the action of the acid menstruum upon these being moderated, partly by the weakness of the menstruum, and partly by the entireness of the pearls, the dissolution would sometimes last many hours. Holding, from time to time, my nose to the open orifice of the glass, it was easy to perceive a pleasant musky smell, which also others, to whom I mentioned it, took notice of, as well as I. And, if I misremember not, I took notice of the like smell, upon pearls not only dissolved in spirit of vinegar, but in another liquor, that had but a bad scent of its own. The foregoing experiment calls to my mind that, which follows.

EXPERIMENT XI.

With fixed metals, and bodies either inodorous or stinking, to produce strong and pleasant smells, like those of some vegetables and minerals.

THAT gold is too fixed a body to emit any odour, and that aqua regis has an odour, that is very strong and offensive, I think will be easily granted. But yet aurum fulminans being made (as it is known) by precipitating, with the inodorous oil of tartar, the solution made of the former in the latter, and this precipitate being to be farther proceeded with in order to another experiment; we fulminated it *per se* in a silver vessel like that, but better contrived, that is (if I misremember not) somewhere described by *Glauberus*. And among other phænomena of this operation, that belong not to this place, we observed with pleasure, that, when the fulmination was recently made, the steams, which were afforded by the metal, that had been fired, were endowed with a delightful smell, not unlike that of musk. From which experiment, and the foregoing, we may learn, that art, by lucky contextures, may imitate the odours that are presumed to be natural and specifick; and that mineral and vegetable substances may compound a smell, that is thought to be peculiar to animals.

See in the
paper of
tastes, expe-
riment xii.

AND as art sometimes imitates nature in the production of odours, as may be confirmed by what is above related concerning counterfeit raspberry wine, wherein those, that drank it, believed they did not only taste, but smell the raspberry; so sometimes nature seems to imitate herself, in giving like odours to bodies extremely differing. For, not yet to dismiss the smell of musk, there is a certain seed, which, for the affinity of its odour to that perfume, they call the musk-feed; and, indeed, having some of it presented me by a gentleman, that had newly brought it from the *West-Indies*, I found it, whilst it was fresh, to have a fragrancy suitable to the name, that was given it. There is also a sort of rats in *Muscovy*, whose skins, whereof I have seen several, have a smell, that has procured them the name of musk-rats. To which I know not whether we may not add the mention of a certain sort of ducks, which some call musk-ducks, because at a certain season of the year, if they be chafed by violent motion, they will, under the wing, emit a musky instead of a sweaty scent; which, upon trial, I perceived to be true. On the other side, I have known a certain wood, growing in the *Indies*, which, especially when the scent is excited by rubbing, stinks so rankly, and so like *Paracelsus's* zibetum occidentale, (stercus humanum) that one would swear it were held under his nose. And since I have been speaking of good scents, produced by unlikely means, I shall not pretermitt this observation, that, though generally the fire impresses a strong offensive smell, which chemists therefore call empyreumatical, upon the odorous bodies, that it works strongly on; yet the constitution of a body may be such, that the new contexture, that is made of its parts, even by the violence

of

of the fire, shall be fit to afford effluvia, rather agreeable to the organs of smelling, than any way offensive. For I remember, that, having, for a certain purpose, distilled saccharum Saturni in a retort with a strong fire, I then obtained, (for I dare not undertake for the like success to every experiment,) besides a piercing and empyreumatical liquor, that was driven over into the receiver, a good lump of a caput mortuum, of a grayish colour, which, notwithstanding the strong impression it had received from the fire, was so far from having any empyreumatical scent, that it had a pleasing one; and when it was broken, smelled almost like a fine cake new baked, and broken, whilst yet warm. And as the fire, notwithstanding the empyreuma it is wont to give to almost all the bodies it burns, may be reduced to confer a good smell on some of them, if they be fitted upon such a contexture of their parts, to emit steams of such a nature, (whatever were the efficient cause of such a contexture;) so we observe in the musk animal, that nature in that cat, or rather deer, (though it properly belong to neither kind,) produces musk by such a change, as is wont in other animals to produce a putrefactive stink. So that, provided a due constitution of parts be introduced into a portion of matter, it may, on that account, be endowed with noble and desirable scents, or other qualities, though that constitution were introduced by such unlikely means, as combustion and putrefaction themselves. In confirmation of which, I shall subjoin, in the ensuing account, a notable, though casual phænomenon, that occurred to a couple of virtuosi of my acquaintance.

AN eminent professor of mathematicks affirmed to me, that, chancing one day in the heat of summer, with another mathematician, (who, I remember, was present, when this was told,) to pass by a large dunghil, that was then in *Lincoln's-Inn Fields*, when they came to a certain distance from it, they were both of them surprised to meet with a very strong smell of musk, (occasioned, probably, by a certain degree or a peculiar kind of putrefaction,) which each was for a while shy of taking notice of, for fear his companion should have laughed at him for it; but, when they came much nearer the dunghil, that pleasing smell was succeeded by a stink proper to such a heap of excrements. This puts me in mind of adding, that, though the excrements of animals, and particularly their sweat, are usually foetid; yet, that it is not the nature of an excrement, but the constitutions, that usually belong to them, make them so, hath seemed probable to me, upon some observations. For, not to mention what is related of *Alexander* the Great, I knew a gentleman of a very happy temperature of body, whose sweat, upon a critical examination, wherein I made use also of a surprize, I found to be fragrant; which was confirmed also by some learned men of my acquaintance, and particularly a physician, that lay with him.

THOUGH civet usually passes for a perfume, and as such is wont to be bought at a great rate; yet it seems to be but a clammy excrement of the animal, that affords it, which is secreted into bags provided by nature to receive it. And I the rather mention civet, because it usually affords a phænomenon, that agrees very well with the mechanical doctrine concerning odours, though it do not demonstrate it. For, when I have had the curiosity to visit divers of those civet-cats, (as they call them) though they have heads liker foxes than cats; I observed, that a certain degree of laxity (if I may so stile it) of the odorous atmosphere was requisite to make the smell fragrant. For, when I was near the cages, where many of them were kept together, or any great vessel full of civet, the smell (probably by the plenty, and perhaps the over-brisk motion of the effluvia,) was rather rank and offensive, than agreeable; whereas, when I removed into the next room, or to some other convenient distance, the steams (being less crowded, and farther from their fountain,) presented themselves to my nostrils, under the notion of a perfume.

AND

AND, not to dismiss this our eleventh experiment, without touching once more upon musk, I shall add, that an ingenious lady, to whom I am nearly related, shewed me an odd monkey, that had been presented her as a rarity by the then admiral of *England*, and told me, among other things, that she had observed in it, that, being sick, he would seek for spiders as his proper remedies, for some of which he then seemed to be looking, and thereby gave her occasion to tell me this; which, when he had eaten, the alteration it made in him, would sometimes fill the room with a musky scent: but he had not the good luck to light on any, whilst my visit lasted.

EXPERIMENT XII.

To heighten good smells by composition.

It is well known to perfumers, and is easy to be observed, that amber-grease alone, though esteemed the best and richest perfume, that is yet known in the world, has but a very faint, and scarce a pleasant scent. And I remember, that I have seen some hundreds of ounces together, newly brought from the *East-Indies*; but if I had not been before acquainted with the smell of amber-grease alone, and had had only the vulgar conceit of it, that it is the best and strongest of perfumes, my nostrils would scarce have made me suspect those lumps to have been any thing a kin to amber-grease. But if a due proportion of musk, or even civet, be dexterously mixed with amber, the latent fragrantcy, though it be thereby somewhat compounded, will quickly be called forth, and exceedingly heightened. And indeed it is not, as it is commonly presumed, the plenty of the richest ingredients, as amber-grease and musk, but the just proportion and skilful mixture of them, that makes the noblest and most lasting perfume, of which I have had sufficient experience; so that with a far less quantity of musk and amber, than not only ordinary persons, but perfumers themselves are wont to employ, we have had several perfumes, that, for fragrantcy, were much preferred to those, where musk and amber-grease are so plentifully employed. The proportions and ways of mixture we best approved of, would be too long, and are not necessary to be here set down; but you will not much err in making use of such a proportion as this, viz. eight parts of amber-grease, two of musk, and one of civet: which quantities of ingredients, if they be skilfully and exactly mingled, you will not miss of a good composition, with which you may ennoble other materials, as benzoin, storax, sweet flowers, &c. fit to make pastils, ointments for leather, pomander, &c. And we may here add, that, upon the score of the new texture acquired by composition, some things, that are not fragrant themselves, may yet much heighten the fragrantcy of odoriferous bodies. And of liquid perfumes, I remember, it was the secret of some court ladies, noted for curiosity about perfumes, to mingle always a due proportion of wine-vinegar with the odoriferous ingredients. And, on this occasion, to shew the power of mixtures in improving odours, I shall add something about a liquor of mine, that has had the good fortune to be very favourably spoken of by persons of quality accustomed to choice perfumes. This liquor, though thought an elaborate preparation, as well for another reason, as to recommend it to some, whose critical palates can taste the very titles of things, I called it essence of musk, is indeed a very plain simple preparation, which I thus make.

I take an arbitrary quantity of choice musk, without finely powdering it, and pour upon it about a finger's breadth of pure spirit of wine; these, in a glass closely stopped, I set in a quiet place to digest, without the help of any furnace; and after some days, or a few weeks, (according as circumstances determined,) the spirit, which is somewhat odd, will, in the cold, have made a solution of the finest parts of the musk, and will be thereby much tinged, but not of a red colour. This liquor, being decanted, I keep

keep by itself as the richest of all; and pour a like quantity of spirit on the remaining musk, which usually will, in the cold, though more slowly, draw a tincture, but fainter than the former; which being poured off, the remaining musk may be employed for inferior uses. Now that, which made me mention this preparation as pertinent to our present subject, is this phænomenon of it; that the first essence, or rather tincture, being smelled to by itself, has but a faint, and not very pleasing odour of musk, so that every body would not discover, that there was musk in it; but if a single drop, or two drops at most, were mixed with a pint, or perhaps a quart of good sack, the whole body of the wine would presently acquire a considerably musky scent, and be so richly perfumed, as to taste and smell, as seemed strange enough to those, that knew the vast disproportion of the ingredients.

Of the IMPERFECTION

OF THE

CHEMIST'S DOCTRINE of QUALITIES.

C H A P. I.

SINCE a great part of those learned men, especially physicians, who have discerned the defects of the vulgar philosophy, but are not yet come to understand and relish the corpuscularian, have slid into the doctrine of the chemists; and since the spagyrist is wont to pretend to make out all the qualities of bodies, from the predominancy of some one of their three hypostatical principles, I suppose it may both keep my opinion from appearing too presumptuous, and (which is far more considerable) may make way for the fairer reception of the mechanical hypothesis about qualities, if I here intimate (though but briefly and in general) some of those defects, that I have observed in chemist's explications of qualities.

AND I might begin with taking notice of the obscurity of those principles, which is no small defect in notions, whose proper office it should be to conduce to the illustration of others. For, how can that facilitate the understanding of an obscure quality, or phænomenon, which is itself scarcely intelligible, or, at least, needs almost as much explanation, as the thing it is designed and pretended to explicate? Now a man need not be very conversant in the writings of chemists to observe, in how lax, indefinite, and almost arbitrary senses they employ the terms of salt, sulphur, and mercury; of which I could never find, that they were agreed upon any certain definitions, or settled notions; not only differing authors, but not unfrequently one and the same, and perhaps in the same book, employing them in very differing senses. But I will not give the chemists any rise to pretend, that the chief fault, that I find with their hypothesis, is but verbal; though that itself may not a little blemish any hypothesis, one of the first of whose requisites ought to be clearness; and therefore I shall now advance, and take notice of defects, that are manifestly of another kind.

AND, first, the doctrine, that all their theory is grounded on, seems to me inevident, and undemonstrated, not to say precarious. It is somewhat strange to me, that neither the spagyrist themselves, nor yet their adversaries, should have taken notice, that che-

mists have rather supposed than evinced, that the analysis of bodies by fire, or even, that at least some analysis, is the only instrument of investigating what ingredients mixed bodies are made up of, since, in divers cases, that may be discovered by composition, as well as by resolution; as it may appear, that vitriol consists of metalline parts, (whether martial or venereal, or both,) associated by coagulation with acid ones, one may, I say, discover this, as well by making true vitriol with spirit (improperly called oil) of sulphur, or that of salt, as by distilling or resolving vitriol by the fire.

BUT I will not here enlarge on this subject, nor yet will I trouble you with what I have largely discoursed in the Sceptical Chymist, to call in question the grounds on which chemists assert, that all mixed bodies are compounded of salt, sulphur, and mercury. For it may suffice me now to tell you, that, whatsoever they may be able to obtain from other bodies, it does not appear by experience, which is the grand, if not the only argument they rely on, that all mixed bodies, that have qualities, consist of their *tria prima*, since they have not been able, that we know, truly, and without new compositions, to resolve into those three, either gold, or silver, or crystal, or Venetian talck, or some other bodies, that I elsewhere name; and yet these bodies are endowed with divers qualities, as the two former with fusibleness and malleability, and all of them with weight and fixity; so that in these and the like bodies, whence chemists have not made it yet appear, that their salt, sulphur, and mercury, can be truly and adequately separated, it will scarce be other than precarious, to derive the malleableness, colour, and other qualities of such bodies from those principles.

UNDER this head I consider also, that a great part of the chemical doctrine of qualities is bottomed on, or supposes, besides their newly questioned analysis by fire, some other things, which as far as I know, have not yet been well proved, and I question whether they ever will be.

ONE of their main suppositions is, that this or that quality must have its *πρῶτον δεκτικόν*, as Sennertus, the learnedest champion of this opinion, calls it, or some particular material principle, to the participation of which, as of the primary native and genuine subject, all other bodies must owe it: but upon this point having purposely discoursed elsewhere, I shall now only observe, that, not to mention local motion and figure, I think it will be hard to shew, what is the *πρῶτον δεκτικόν* of gravity, volatility, heat, sonorousness, transparency, and opacity, which are qualities to be indifferently met with in bodies, whether simple or mixed.

AND whereas the spagyrist is wont to argue, that because this or that quality is not to be derived truly from this or that particular principle, as salt, for instance, and mercury; therefore it must needs be derivable from the third, as sulphur. This way of arguing involves a further supposition than that newly examined. For it implies, that every quality in a compounded body must arise from some one of the *tria prima*, whereas experience assures us, that bodies may, by composition, obtain qualities, that were not to be found in any of the separate ingredients. As we see in painting, that though blue and yellow be neither of them green, yet their mixture will be so. And though no single sound will make an octave or diapason; yet two sounds, whose proportion is double, will have an eighth. And tin and copper melted and mingled together in a due proportion, will make a bell metal far more sonorous than either of them was before. It is obvious enough for chemists themselves to observe, that, though lead be an insipid body, and spirit of vinegar a very sharp one, yet saccharum saturni, that is compounded out of these two, has a sweetness, that makes it not ill deserve its name.

BUT this ill-grounded supposition of the chemists, is extended farther in an usual topic of theirs, according to which they conclude, that I know not how many qualities, as well manifest as occult, must be explicated by their *tria prima*, because they are

not

not explicable by the four elements of the Peripateticks. To make which argumentation valid, it must be proved, (which I fear it will never be) that there are no other ways, by which those qualities may be explicated, but by a determinate number of material principles, whether four or three: besides that, till they have shewn that such qualities may be intelligibly explicated by their principles, the objection will lie as strong for the Aristotelians against them, as for them against the Aristotelians.

C H A P. II.

NEXT I consider, that there are divers qualities even in mixed bodies, wherein it does not appear, that the use of the chemical doctrine is necessary. As for instance, when pure gold is by heat only brought to fusion, and consequently to the state of fluidity, and upon the remission of that heat, grows a solid and consistent body again, what addition or expulsion, or change of any of the *tria prima*, does appear to be the cause of this change of consistence? which is easy to be accounted for according to the mechanical way, by the vehement agitation, that the fire makes of the minute parts of the gold to bring it to fusion; and the cohesion of those parts, by virtue of their gravity and fitness to adhere to one another, when that agitation ceases. When Venice glass is merely, by being beaten to powder, deprived of its transparency and turned into a body opacous and white, what need or use of the *tria prima* have we in the explication of this phenomenon? Or of that other, which occurs, when by barely melting down this white and opacous body it is deprived of its opacity and colour, and becomes diaphanous; and of this sort of instances you will meet with divers in the following notes about particular qualities; for which reason I shall forbear the mention of them here.

C H A P. III.

I OBSERVE too, that the spagyric doctrine of qualities is insufficient, and too narrow to reach to all the phenomena, or even to all the notable ones; that ought to be explicable by them. And this insufficiency I find to be twofold; for, first, there are divers qualities, of which chemists will not so much as attempt to give us explications, and of other particular qualities, the explications, such as they are, that they give us, are often very deficient and unsatisfactory; and do not sometimes so much as take notice of divers considerable phenomena, that belong to the qualities, whereof they pretend to give an account; of which you will meet with divers instances in the ensuing notes. And therefore I shall only (to declare my meaning the better) invite you to observe with me, that though gold be the body they affect to be most conversant with; yet it will be very hard to shew, how the specific weight of gold can be deduced from any, or all, of the three principles; since mercury itself, that is, of bodies known to us, the heaviest next to gold, is so much lighter than gold, that, whereas I have usually found mercury to be to an equal weight of water, somewhat, though little, less than fourteen to one, I find pure gold to be about nineteen times as heavy as so much water. Which will make it very difficult, not to say impossible for them to explain, how gold should barely, by participating of mercury, which is a body much lighter than itself, obtain that great specific gravity we find it to have; for the two other hypostatical principles, we know, are far lighter than mercury. And I think it would much puzzle the chemists, to give us any examples of a compounded body, that is specifically heavier than the heaviest of the ingredients, that it is made up of. And this is the first kind of insufficiency I was taking notice of in the chemical doctrine of qualities.

THE other is, that there are several bodies, which the most learned among themselves confess not to consist of their *tria prima*, and yet are endowed with qualities, which consequently are not in those subjects to be explicated by the *tria prima*, which are granted not to be found in them. Thus elementary water, though never so pure, (as distilled rain water,) has fluidity and coldness and humidity and transparency and volatility, without having any of the *tria prima*. And the purest earth, as ashes, carefully freed from the fixed salt, has gravity and consistence and dryness and colour and fixity, without owing them either to salt, sulphur, or mercury; not to mention, that there are celestial bodies, which do not appear, nor are wont to be pretended to consist of the *tria prima*, that yet are endowed with qualities. As the sun has light and, as many philosophers think, heat and colour; and the moon has a determinate consistence and figuration, (as appears by her mountains) and astronomers observe, that the higher planets, and even the fixed stars, appear to be differinglly coloured. But I shall not multiply instances of this kind, because what I have said may not only serve for my present purpose, but bring a great confirmation to what I lately said, when I noted, that the chemical principles were in many cases not necessary to explicate qualities: for since in earth, water, &c. such diffused qualities, as gravity, fixedness, colour, transparency and fluidity, must be acknowledged not to be derived from the *tria prima*; it is plain, that portions of matter may be endowed with such qualities by other causes and agents than salt, sulphur and mercury. And then why should we deny, that also in compounded bodies those qualities may be (sometimes at least) produced by the same or the like causes? as we see, that the reduction of a diaphanous solid to powder, produces whiteness, whether the comminution happens to rock-crystal or to Venice glass, or to ice: the first of which is acknowledged to be a natural and perfectly mixed body; the second a factitious, and not only mixed, but decomposed body; and the last, for aught appears, an elementary body, or at most very slightly and imperfectly mixed. And so by mingling air in small portions with a diaphanous liquor, as we do, when we beat such a liquor into foam, a whiteness is produced, as well in pure water, which is acknowledged to be a simple body, as in white wine, which is reckoned among perfectly mixed bodies.

C H A P. IV.

I FURTHER observe, that the chemist's explications do not reach deep and far enough. For first, most of them are not sufficiently distinct and full, so as to come home to the particular phænomena, not oftentimes so much as to all the grand ones, that belong to the history of the qualities they pretend to explicate. You will readily believe, that a chemist will not easily make out by his salt, sulphur and mercury, why a loadstone, capped with steel, may be made to take up a great deal more iron, sometimes more than eight or ten times as much, than if it be immediately applied to the iron: or why, if one end of the magnetic needle is disposed to be attracted by the north pole, for instance, of the loadstone, the other pole of the loadstone will not attract it, but drive it away: or why a bar or rod of iron, being heated red-hot, and cooled perpendicularly, will, with its lower end, drive away the flower-de-luce, or the north end of a mariner's needle, which the upper end of the same bar or rod will not repel, but draw to it. In short, of above threescore properties, or notable phænomena of magnetic bodies, that some writers have reckoned up, I do not remember, that any three have been by chemists so much as attempted to be solved by their three principles. And even in those qualities, in whose explications these principles may more probably, than elsewhere, pretend to have a place, the Spagyrist's accounts are wont to fall so short of being

being distinct and particular enough, that they use to leave divers considerable phænomena untouched, and do but very lamely or slightly explicate the more obvious or familiar. And I have so good an opinion of divers of the embracers of the Spagyric theory of qualities (among whom I have met with very learned and worthy men) that I think, that if a quality being proposed to them, they were at the same time presented with a good catalogue of the phænomena, that they may take, in the history of it, as it were with one view, they would plainly perceive, that there are more particulars to be accounted for, than at first they were aware of; and divers of them such, as may quite discourage considering men from taking upon them to explain them all by the *tria prima*, and oblige them to have recourse to more catholic and comprehensive principles. I know not, whether I may not add on this occasion, that, methinks, a chemist, who by the help of his *tria prima*, takes upon him to interpret that book of nature, of which the qualities of bodies make a great part, acts at but a little better rate than he, that seeing a great book written in a cypher, whereof he were acquainted but with three letters, should undertake to decypher the whole piece. For though it is like he would, in many words, find one of the letters of his short key, and in divers words two of them, and perhaps in some all three; yet, besides that in most of the words, wherein the known letter or letters may be met with, they may be so blended with other unknown letters, as to keep him from decyphering a good part of those very words, it is more than probable, that a great part of the book would consist of words wherein none of his three letters were to be found.

C H A P. V.

AND this is the first account, on which I observe, that the chemical theory of qualities does not reach far enough: but there is another branch of its deficiency. For even, when the explications seem to come home to the phænomena, they are not primary, and, if I may so speak, fontal enough. To make this appear, I shall at present employ but these two considerations. The first is, that those substances themselves, that chemists call their principles, are each of them endowed with several qualities. Thus salt is a consistent, not a fluid body; it has its weight, it is dissoluble in water, is either diaphanous or opacous, fixed or volatile, sapid or insipid; (I speak thus disjunctively, because chemists are not all agreed about these things; and it concerns not my argument, which of the disputable qualities be resolved upon.) And sulphur, according to them, is a body fusible, inflammable, &c. and, according to experience, is consistent, heavy, &c. So that it is by the help of more primary and general principles, that we must explicate some of those qualities, which being found in bodies, supposed to be perfectly similar or homogeneous, cannot be pretended to be derived in one of them from the other. And to say, that it is the nature of a principle to have this or that quality, as for instance, of sulphur to be fusible, and therefore we are not to exact a reason why it is so; though I could say much by way of answer, I shall now only observe, that this argument is grounded but upon a supposition, and will be of no force, if from the primary affections of bodies one may deduce any good mechanical explication of fusibility in the general, without necessarily supposing such a primogeneal sulphur, as the chemists fancy, or deriving it from thence in other bodies. And indeed, since not only salt petre, sea salt, vitriol and allom, but salt of tartar, and the volatile salt of urine, are all of them fusible; I do not well see, how chemists can derive the fusibleness even of salts obtained by their own analysis (such as salt of tartar and of urine) from the participation of the sulphureous ingredient; especially since, if such an attempt should be made, it would overthrow the hypothesis of three simple bodies,

dies, whereof they will have all mixed ones to be compounded; and still it would remain to be explicated, upon what account the principle, that is said to endow the other with such a quality, comes to be endowed therewith itself. For it is plain, that a mass of sulphur is not an atomical or adamantine body, but consists of a multitude of corpuscles of determinate figures, and connected after a determinate manner; so that it may be reasonably demanded, why such a convention of particles, rather than many another, that does not, constitutes a fusible body.

C H A P. VI.

AND this leads me to a further consideration, which makes me look upon the chemist's explications, as not deep and radical enough; and it is this, that, when they tell us, for instance, that the fusibleness of bodies proceeds from sulphur, in case they say true, they do but tell us what material ingredient it is, that being mingled with, and dispersed through the other parts of a body, makes it apt to melt: but this does not intelligibly declare, what it is, that makes a proportion of matter fusible, and how the sulphureous ingredient introduces that disposition into the rest of the mass, wherewith it is commixed or united. And yet it is such explications as these, that an inquisitive naturalist chiefly looks after, and which I therefore call philosophical. And to shew, that there may be more fontal explications, I shall only observe, that, not to wander from our present instance, sulphur itself is fusible. And therefore, as I lately intimated, fusibility, which is not the quality of one atome, or particle, but of an aggregate of particles, ought itself to be accounted for in that principle, before the fusibleness of all other bodies be derived from it. And it will in the following notes appear, that in sulphur itself, that quality may be probably deduced from the convention of corpuscles of determinate shapes and sizes, contexted, or connected, after a convenient manner. And if either nature, or art, or chance, should bring together particles endowed with the like mechanical affections, and associate them after the like manner, the resulting body would be fusible, though the component particles had never been parts of the chemist's primordial sulphur: and such particles so convening, might, perhaps, have made sulphur itself, though before there had been no such body in the world. And what I say to those chemists, that make the sulphureous ingredient the cause of fusibility, may easily, *mutatis mutandis*, be applied to their hypothesis, that rather ascribe that quality to the mercurial, or the saline principle, and consequently cannot give a rational account of the fusibility of sulphur. And therefore, though I readily allow, (as I shall have afterwards occasion to declare,) that sulphur, or another of the *tria prima*, may be met with, and even abound in several bodies endowed with the quality, that is attributed to their participation of that principle; yet, that this may be no certain sign, that the proposed quality must flow from that ingredient, you may perhaps be assisted to discern by this illustration, that if tin be duly mixed with copper or gold, or, as I have tried, with silver or iron, it will make them very brittle; and it is also an ingredient of divers other bodies, that are likewise brittle, as blue, green, white, and otherwise coloured amels, which are usually made of calcined tin, (which the tradesmen call putty) colliquated with the ingredients of crystal glass, and some small portion of mineral pigment. But though, in all the above-named brittle bodies, tin be a considerable ingredient; yet it were very unadvised to affirm, that brittleness, in general, proceeds from tin. For, provided the solid parts of consistent bodies touch one another but according to small portions of their surfaces, and be not implicated by their contexture, the metalline, or other composition, may be brittle, though there be no tin at all in it. And, in effect, the materials of glass, being brought

brought to fusion, will compose a brittle body, as well when there is no putty colliquated with them, as when there is. Calcined lead, by the action of the fire, may be melted into a brittle mass, and even into transparent glass, without the help of tin, or any other additament. And I need not add, that there are a multitude of other bodies, that cannot be pretended to owe their brittleness to any participation of tin, of which they have no need, if the matter they consist of, wants not the requisite mechanical dispositions.

AND here I shall venture to add, that the way employed by the chemists, as well as the Peripateticks, of accounting for things by the ingredients, whether elements, principles, or other bodies, that they suppose them to consist of, will often frustrate the naturalists expectation of events, which may frequently prove differing from what he promised himself, upon the consideration of the qualities of each ingredient. For the ensuing notes contain divers instances, wherein there emerges a new quality differing from, or even contrary to any, that is conspicuous in the ingredients; as two transparent bodies may make an opacous mixture, a yellow body and a blue, one, that is green; two malleable bodies, a brittle one; two actually cold bodies, a hot one; two fluid bodies, a consistent one, &c. And as this way of judging, by material principles, hinders the foreknowledge of events from being certain; so it much more hinders the assignation of causes from being satisfactory; so that, perhaps, some would not think it very rash to say, that those, who judge of all mixed bodies, as apothecaries do of medicines, barely by the qualities and proportions of the ingredients (such as, among the Aristotelians, are the four elements, and among the chemists the *tria prima*,) do, as if one should pretend to give an account of the phænomena and operations of clocks and watches, and their diversities by this, that some are made of brass wheels, some of iron, some have plain ungilt wheels, others of wheels overlaid with gold, some furnished with gutstrings, others with little chains, &c. and that therefore the qualities and predominancies of these metals, that make parts of the watch, ought to have ascribed to them, what indeed flows from their co-ordination and contrivance.

C H A P. VII.

THE last defect I observe in the chemical doctrine of qualities, is, that in many cases it agrees not well with the phænomena of nature, and that by one or both of these ways. First, there are divers changes of qualities, wherein one may well expect, that a chemical principle should have a great stroke, and yet it does not at all appear to have so. He, that considers, what great operations divers of the Hermeticks ascribe to this or that hypostatical principle, and how many qualities, according to them, must from it be derived, can scarce do other than expect, that a great change, as to those qualities, happening in a mixed body, should, at least, be accompanied with some notable action of, or alteration in the principle. And yet I have met with many instances, wherein qualities are produced, or abolished, or very much altered, without any manifest introduction, expulsion, or considerable change of the principle, whereon that quality is said to depend, or perhaps of either of the two others: as when a piece of fine silver, that having been nealed in the fire, and suffered to cool leisurely, is very flexible, is made stiff, and hard to bend, barely by a few strokes of a hammer. And a string of a lute acquires or loses a sympathy, as they call it, with another string of the same or another instrument, barely by being either stretched, so as to make an unison with it, or screwed up, or let down, beyond or beneath that degree of tension.

To multiply instances of this kind, would be to anticipate those, you will hereafter meet with in their due places. And therefore I shall pass on, from the first sort of phænomena,

phænomena, that favour not the chemical hypothesis about qualities, to the other, which consists of those, wherein either, that does not happen, which, according to their hypothesis, ought to happen, or the contrary happens to what, according to their hypothesis, may justly be expected. Of this you will meet with instances hereafter; I shall now trouble you but with one, the better to declare my meaning. It is not unknown to those chemists, that work much in silver and in copper, that the former will endure ignition, and become red-hot in the fire, before it will be brought to fusion; and the latter is yet far more difficult to be melted down than the other: yet if you separately dissolve those two metals in aqua fortis, and by evaporation reduce them to crystals, these will be brought to fusion in a very little time, and with a very moderate heat, without breaking the glasses that contain them. If you ask a vulgar chemist the cause of this facility of fusion, he will, probably, tell you, without scruple, that it is from the saline parts of the aqua fortis, which, being imbodyed in the metals, and of a very fusible nature, impart that easiness of fusion to the metals they are mixed with. According to which plausible explication one might well expect, that, if the saline corpuscles were exquisitely mingled with tin, they would make it far more fusible than of itself it is. And yet, as I have elsewhere noted, when I put tin into a convenient quantity of aqua fortis, the metal being corroded, subsided, as is usual, in the form of whites of eggs, which being well dried, the tin was so far from being grown more fusible by the addition of the saline particles of the menstruum, that, whereas it is known, that simple tin will melt long before it come to be red-hot, this prepared tin would endure, for a good while, not only a thorough ignition, but the blast of a double pair of bellows, (which we usually employed to melt silver and copper itself,) without being at all brought to fusion. And as for those Spagyrist, that admit, as most of them are granted to do, that all kinds of metals may be turned into gold, by a very small proportion of what they call the philosophers elixir, one may, I think, shew them, from their own concessions, that divers qualities may be changed, even in such constant bodies as metals, without the addition of any considerable proportion of the simple ingredients, to which they are wont to ascribe those qualities; provided the agent, (as an efficient, rather than as a material cause,) be able to make a great change in the mechanical affections of the parts whereof the metal it acts on is made up. Thus if we suppose a pound of silver, a pound of lead, and a pound of iron to be transmuted into gold, each by a grain of the powder of projection, this tinging powder, as a material cause, is inconsiderable, by reason of the smallness of its bulk, and as an efficient cause, it works differing, and even contrary effects, according to the disposition, wherein it finds the metal to be transmuted, and the changes it produces in the constituent texture of it. Thus it brings quicksilver to be fixed, which it was not before, and deprives it of the fluidity, which it had before; it brings silver to be indissolvable in aqua fortis, which readily dissolved it before, and dissoluble in aqua regis, which before would not touch it; and which is very considerable to our present purpose, whereas it makes iron much more fusible than *Mars*, it makes lead much less fusible than whilst it retained its pristine form, since *Saturn* melts ere it come to ignition, which gold requires to bring it to fusion. But this is proposed only as an argument *ad hominem*, till the truth of the transmutation of metals into gold, by way of projection, be sufficiently proved, and the circumstances, and phænomena of it, particularly declared.

I must not forget to take notice, that some learned modern chemists would be thought to explicate divers of the changes, that happen to bodies in point of odours, colours, &c. by saying, that, in such alterations, the sulphur, or other hypostatical principle, is intraverted or extraverted, or, as others speak, inverted. But I confess, to me these seem to be rather new terms, than real explications. For, to omit divers of the argu-

ments

ments mentioned in this present treatise, that may be applied to this way of solving the phænomena of qualities, one may justly object, that the supposed extraversion or intraversion of sulphur, can by no means reach to give an account of so great a variety of odours, colours, and other qualities, as may be found in the changed portions of matter we are speaking of. And, which is more, what they call by these and the like names, cannot be done without local motion transposing the particles of the matter, and consequently producing in it a change of texture, which is the very thing we would infer, and which being supposed, we may grant sulphur to be oftentimes actually present in the altered bodies, without allowing it to be always necessary to produce the alterations in them, since corpuscles, so conditioned and contexted, would perform such effects, whether sulphur, as such, did, or did not make up the subject matter of the change.

AND now I shall conclude, and partly recapitulate what has been delivered in this and the two foregoing chapters, with this summary consideration; that the chemist's salt, sulphur, and mercury themselves are not the first and most simple principles of bodies, but rather primary concretions of corpuscles, or particles more simple than they, as being endowed only with the first, or most radical, (if I may so speak) and most catholick affections of simple bodies, namely, bulk, shape, and motion, or rest; by the different conventions or coalitions of which minutest portions of matter, are made those differing concretions, that chemists name salt, sulphur, and mercury. And to this doctrine it will be consonant, that several effects of this or that spagyric principle need not be derived from salt, for instance, or sulphur as such, but may be explained by the help of some of those corpuscles, that I have lately called more simple and radical; and such explications being more simple and mechanical, may be thought, upon that score, more fundamental and satisfactory.

C H A P. VIII.

I KNOW it may be objected, in favour of the chemists, that as their hypostatical principles, salt, sulphur, and mercury, are but three, so the corpuscularian principles are but very few; and the chief of them bulk, size, and motion, are but three neither; so that it appears not, why the chemical principles should be more barren than the mechanical. To which allegation I answer, that, besides that these last named principles are more numerous, as taking in the posture, order, and situation, the rest, and, above all, the almost infinitely diversifiable contextures of the small parts, and the thence resulting structures of particular bodies, and fabrick of the world: besides this, I say, each of the three mechanical principles, specified in the objection, though but one in name, is equivalent to many in effect; as figure, for instance, comprehends not only triangles, squares rhomboides, trapeziums, and a multitude of polygons, whether ordinate or irregular; but, besides cubes, prisms, cones, spheres, cylinders, pyramids, and other solids of known denominations, a scarce numerable multitude of hooked, branched, eel-like, screw-like, and other irregular bodies; whereof, though these, and some others, have distinct appellations, yet the greatest part are nameless; so that it need be no wonder, that I should make the mechanical principles so much more fertile, that is, applicable to the production and explication of a far greater number of phænomena, than the chemical; which, whilst they are considered but as similar bodies, that are ingredients of mixed and compounded ones, are chiefly variable but by the greater or lesser quantity, that is employed by nature or art to make up the mixed body. And painters observe, that black and white, though mixed in differing proportions, will still make but lighter and darker greys. And if it be said, that these ingredients, by the texture resulting from their mixtures, may acquire qualities, that neither of them

had before; I shall answer, that to alledge this, is, in effect, to confess, that they must take in the mechanical principles (for to them belongs the texture or structure of bodies) to assist the chemical ones. And, on this occasion, to borrow an illustration from our unpublished dialogue of the requisites of a good hypothesis, I shall add, that a chemist, that should pretend, that because his three principles are as many as those of the Corpuscularians, they are as sufficient, as these, to give an account of the book of nature; methinks, I say, he would do like a man, that should pretend, that, with four and twenty words, he would make up a language, as well as others can with the four and twenty letters of the alphabet, because he had as many words already formed, as they had of bare letters; not considering, that, instead of the small number of variations, that can be made of his words by prepositions and terminations, the letters of the alphabet being variously combined, placed, and reiterated, can be easily made to compose not only his four and twenty words, with their variations, but as many others, as a whole language contains.

C H A P. IX.

NOTWITHSTANDING all, that I have been obliged to say to the disadvantage of the chemical principles, in reference to the explication of qualities, I would not be thought to grant, that the Peripateticks have reason to triumph, as if their four elements afforded a better theory of qualities. For, if I had, together with leisure enough to perform such a task, any obligation to undertake it, I presume, it would not be difficult to shew, that the Aristotelian doctrine, about particular qualities, is liable to some of the same objections with the chemical, and to some others no less considerable; and that, to derive all the phænomena their doctrine ought to solve, from substantial forms and real qualities elementary, is to impose on us a theory more barren and precarious, than that of the Spagyrist.

THAT, to derive the particular qualities of bodies from those substantial forms, whence the schools would have them to flow, is but an insufficient and unfit way of accounting for them, may appear by this, that substantial forms themselves are things, whose existence many learned philosophers deny, whose theory many of them think incomprehensible, and the most candid and judicious of the Peripateticks themselves confess it to be very abstruse; so that, from such doubtful and obscure principles, we can hardly expect clear explications of the nature and phænomena of qualities; not to urge, that the Aristotelian definitions, both of qualities in general, and of divers of the more familiar qualities in particular, as heat, cold, moisture, diaphaneity, &c. are far enough from being clear and well framed, as we elsewhere have occasion to shew.

ANOTHER thing, which makes the scholastic doctrine of qualities unsatisfactory, is, that it seldom so much as attempts to teach the manner, how the qualities themselves, and their effects or operations, are produced. Of this you may elsewhere find an instance given in the quality, that is wont to be first in the list, viz. that of heat; which, though it may intelligibly and probably be explicated by the corpuscular hypothesis, yet, in the Peripatetic account, that is given of it, is both too questionable and too superficial to give much content to a rational inquirer. And indeed to say, that a substantial form (as that of the fire) acts by a quality, (called heat) whose nature it is to produce such an effect, (as to soften wax, or harden clay,) seems to be no other in substance, than to say, that it produces such an effect by some power it has to produce it. But what that power is, and how it operates, is that, which, though we most desire to know, we are left to seek. But to prosecute the imperfections of the Peripatetic hypothesis, were to intrench upon another discourse, where they are more fully laid open.

And

And therefore I shall now but lightly glance upon a couple of imperfections, that more particularly relate to the doctrine of qualities.

AND first, I do not think it a convincing argument, that is wont to be employed by the Aristotelians for their elements, as well as by the chemists for their principles, that, because this or that quality, which they ascribe to an element or a principle, is found in this or that body, which they call mixed, therefore it must owe that quality to the participation of that principle or element. For, the same texture of parts, or other modification of matter, may produce the like quality in the more simple and the more compounded body, and they may both separately derive it from the same cause, and not one from the participation of the other. So water, and earth, and metals, and stones, &c. are heavy, upon the account of the common cause of gravity, and not because the rest partake of the earth; as may appear in elementary water, which is as simple a body as it, and yet is heavy: so water and oil, and exactly dephlegmed spirit of wine, and mercury, and also metals and glass of antimony, and minium or calcined lead, whilst these three are in fusion, are fluid, being made so by the variously determined motions of their minute parts, and other causes of fluidity, and not by the participation of water, since the arid calces of lead and antimony are not like to have retained, in the fire, so volatile a liquor as water, and since fluidity is a quality, that mercury enjoys in a more durable manner than water itself: for that metalline liquor, as also spirit of wine well rectified, will not be brought to freeze with the highest degree of cold of our sharpest winters, though a far less degree of cold would make water cease to be fluid, and turn it into ice.

To this I shall only add, in the second place, that it is not unpleasant to see, how arbitrarily the Peripateticks derive the qualities of bodies from their four elements, as if, to give an instance in the lately named quality, liquidity, you shew them exactly dephlegmed spirit of wine, and ask them, whence it has its great fluidness, they will tell you, from water, which yet is far less fluid than it; and this spirit of wine itself is much less so than the flame, into which the spirit of wine is easily resolvable. But if you ask, whence it becomes totally inflammable, they must tell you, from the fire; and yet the whole body, at least, as far as sense can discover, is fluid, and the whole body becomes flame, (and then is most fluid of all;) so that fire and water, as contrary as they make them, must both be, by vast odds, predominant in the same body. This spirit of wine also, being a liquor, whose least parts, that are sensible, are actually heavy, and compose a liquor, which is seven or eight hundred times as heavy as air of the same bulk, which yet experience shews not to be devoid of weight, must be supposed to abound with earthy particles; and yet this spirituous liquor may, in a trice, become flame, which they would have to be the lightest body in the world.

BUT, to enlarge on this subject, would be to forget, that the design of this tract engages me to deal not with the Peripatetic school, but the Spagyric. To which I shall therefore return, and give you this advertisement about it, that what I have hitherto objected, is meant against the more common and received doctrine about the material principles of bodies reputed mixed, as it is wont, by vulgar chemists, to be applied to the rendering an account of the qualities of substances corporeal; and therefore I pretend not, that the past objections should conclude against other chemical theories, than that, which I was concerned to question. And if adept philosophers. (supposing there be such) or any other more than ordinarily intelligent Spagyrics, shall propound any particular hypothesis, differing from those, that I have questioned, as their doctrine and reasons are not yet known to me; so I pretend not, that the past arguments should conclude against them, and am willing to think, that persons advantaged with such peculiar opportunities, to dive into the mysteries of nature, will be able to give us, if they

they shall please, a far better account of the qualities of bodies, than what is wont to be proposed by the generality of chemists.

Thus, dear *Pyrophilus*, I have laid before you some of the chief imperfections I have observed, in the vulgar chemists doctrine of qualities; and consequently I have given you some of the chief reasons, that hinder me from acquiescing in it. And as my objections are not taken from the scholastical subtleties, nor the doubtful speculations of the Peripateticks, or other adversaries of the Hermetick philosophy, but from the nature of things, and from chemical experiments themselves; so, I hope, if any of your spagyric friends have a mind to convince me, he will attempt to do it by the most proper way, which is, by actually giving us clear and particular explications, at least, of the grand phænomena of qualities; which, if he shall do, he will find me very ready to acquiesce in a truth, that comes ushered in, and endeared by so acceptable and useful a thing, as a philosophical theory of qualities.

R E F L E C T I O N S

U P O N T H E

H Y P O T H E S I S of A L C A L I and A C I D U M.

C H A P. I.

I PRESUME, it will not be difficult to discern, that much of what has been said about the imperfection of the vulgar chemical doctrine concerning qualities, may, with easy variations, be applied to some other hypotheses, that are of kin to that doctrine, and particularly to their theory, that would derive both the qualities of bodies, and the rest of the phænomena of nature from what they call acidum and alcali. For though these two differences may be met with in a great number and variety of bodies, and consequently the consideration of them may frequently enough be of good use, (especially to Spagyricists, and physicians, when they are conversant about the secondary and, if I may so call them, chemical causes and operations of divers mixed bodies;) yet I confess I cannot acquiesce in this hypothesis of alcali and acidum, in the latitude, wherein I find it urged and applied by the admirers of it, as if it could be usefully substituted in the place of matter and motion.

THE hypothesis being in a sort subordinate to that of the *tria prima*, in ascribing to two contrary saline principles, what vulgar chemists do to their salt, sulphur, and mercury; most of the objections we have made against the vulgar chemical doctrine, may, as I lately intimated, be applied, by a little variation, to this, and therefore I shall need but to touch upon the main things, that keep me from acquiescing in this hypothesis.

C H A P. II.

AND first, it seems precarious to affirm, that in all bodies, or even in all the sensible parts of mixeds, acid and alcalizate parts are found; there not having been, that I know, any experimental induction made of particulars any thing near numerous enough to make out so great an assertion, and in divers bodies, wherein experience is vouched

vouched for the inexistence of these principles, that inexistence is indeed proved, not by direct and clear experience, but upon a supposition, that such and such effects flow from the operations of the assumed principles.

SOME Spagyrist, when they see aqua-fortis dissolve filings of copper, conclude from thence, that the acid spirits of the menstruum meet in the metal with an alkali upon which they work; which is but an unsafe way of arguing, since good spirit of urine, which they take to be a volatile alkali, and which will make a great conflict with aqua-fortis, will, as I have elsewhere noted, dissolve filings of copper both readily enough and more genuinely than the acid liquor is wont to do. So, when they see the magistery of pearl or coral made by dropping oil of tartar into the solutions of those bodies made with spirit of vinegar, they ascribe the precipitation to the fixed alkali of the tartar, that mortifies the acidity of the spirit of vinegar; whereas the precipitation would no less ensue, if, instead of alcalizate oil of tartar, we employ that highly acid liquor which they call *oleum sulphuris per campanam*.

I think also it may be doubted, whether those, I reason with, are so certain as they suppose, that at least, when they can manifestly discover an acid, for instance, in a body, the operation of that body upon another, which they judge to abound with an alkali, must be the effect of a conflict between those two jarring principles, or, if I may so call them, duellists. For an acid body may do many things, not simply as an acid, but on the score of a texture or modification, which endows it with other qualities as well as acidity, whose being associated with those other qualities in some cases, may be but accidental to the effect to be produced; since by one or more of these other qualities the body may act in cases, where prejudice may make a chemist consider nothing but acidity. Thus when some chemists see an acid menstruum, as aqua-fortis, spirit of salt, oil of vitriol, &c. dissolve iron, they presently ascribe the effect to an acidity of the liquors, whereas well dephlegmed urinous spirits, which they hold to have a great antipathy to acids, will, as I have tried in some of them, readily enough dissolve crude iron even in the cold. And on the other side, mercury will not work on the filings of iron, though this be so open a metal, that even weak liquors will do it; and yet if one should urge, that quicksilver readily dissolves gold in amalgamation, he may expect to be told, according to their doctrine, that mercury has in it an occult acid, by which it performs the solution; whereas it seems much more probable, that mercury has corpuscles of such a shape and size, as fit them to insinuate themselves into the commensurate pores they meet with in gold, but make them unfit to enter readily the pores of iron, to which nature has not made them congruous; as on the other side the saline corpuscles of aqua-fortis will easily find admission into the pores of iron, but not into those of gold, to which they do not correspond as they do to the others. And when a knife, whose blade is touched with a load-stone, cuts bread and takes up filings of iron, it does neither of them upon the score of alkali and acidum, but the one upon the visible shape, and the stiffness of the blade, and the other upon the latent contrivance or change of texture produced by the operation of the loadstone in the particles, that compose the steel.

THIS may perhaps be farther illustrated by adding, that when blue vitriol, being beaten and finely searced, makes a white powder, that whiteness is a quality, which the powder has not, as being of a vitriolate nature; for rock-crystal or Venice-glass, being finely beaten, will have the same operation on the eye. But it proceeds from the transparency of the body and the minuteness, multitude, and confused situation of the corpuscles, that make up the powder. And therefore, if other bodies be brought by comminution into parts endowed with such mechanical affections, as we have named; these aggregates will act upon the organs of sight, as white bodies.

C H A P. III.

AND this leads me to another exception against the hypothesis of the duellists, which is, that the framers of it seem arbitrarily to have assigned provinces or offices to each of their two principles, as the chemists do to each of their *tria prima*, and the Peripateticks to each of their four elements. For it is not enough to say, that an acid, for instance, as such, performs these things, and an alcali so many others, that they divide the operations and phænomena of nature, or at least (as some, more cautious, are content to say) of mixed bodies between them; since assertions of such great moment ought not to be advanced or received without sufficient proof. And perhaps the very distribution of salts into acids and alcalies hath somewhat of arbitrary in it, since others may, without assuming much more, take the freedom to distribute them otherwise, there being not only several things, wherein acids and alcalies agree, but also several things, wherein salts of the same denomination widely differ. As for instance, some alcalies, according to those I reason with, are, like salt of tartar, fixed, and will endure the violence of the fire; others, like salt of urine or harts-horn, are exceedingly fugitive, and will be driven up with a scarce sensible degree of heat; some, as salt of tartar, will precipitate the solution of sublimate into an orange-tawny; others, as spirit of blood and harts-horn, precipitate such a solution into a milky substance. Oil of tartar will very slowly operate upon filings of copper, which spirit of urine and harts-horn will readily dissolve in the fire.

AND among acids themselves the difference is no less, if not much greater. Some of them will dissolve bodies, that others will not, as aqua-fortis will dissolve silver and mercury, but leave gold untouched; or as aqua-regis, though made without sal-armoniac, that dissolves gold readily, will dissolve mercury but scurvily, and silver not at all. And this may happen, when the menstruum, that will not dissolve the body, is reputed much stronger than that, which does; as dephlegmed spirit of vinegar will dissolve lead, reduced to minute parts in the cold; which is an effect, that chemists are not wont to expect from spirit of salt. Nay, which is more, one acid will precipitate what another has dissolved, and contrarily; as spirit of salt will precipitate silver out of spirit of nitre. And I found oil of vitriol to precipitate bodies of divers kinds, minerals and others, out of some acid menstrooms, particularly spirit of vinegar.

To this might be added the properties, peculiar to some particular acids, as that spirit of nitre or aqua-fortis will dissolve camphire into an oil, and coagulate common oil into a consistent and brittle substance like tallow; and, though it will both corrode silver, copper, lead, and mercury, and keep them dissolved, it will quickly let fall almost the whole body of tin, very soon after it has corroded as much as it can of it. By all which, and some other like instances, I am induced to question whether the acidum and alcali, we are speaking of, have the simplicity, that philosophy requires in principles; and shall be kept from wondering, if others shall think it as free for them to constitute other principles, as it is for the learned men I reason with, to pitch upon acidum and alkali.

AND some perhaps will be bold to say, that, since the former of those principles comprehend such a number of bodies, that are, many of them, very differing, and some of them directly contrary in their operations, it seems a slight and not philosophical account of their nature, to define an acid by its hostility to an alcali, which, they will say, is almost as if one should define a man, by saying, that he is an animal, that is at enmity with the serpent; or a lion, that he is a fourfooted beast, that flies from a crowing cock.

C H A P.

C H A P. IV.

BUT although one of the chiefest conditions, that philosophers may justly require in principles, is, that, being to explain other things, they should be very clear themselves; yet I do not much wonder, that the definitions given us of acidum and alcali should be but unaccurate and superficial, since I find not, that they have themselves any clear and determinate notion or sure marks, whereby to know them distinctly, without which chemists will scarce be able to form clear and settled notions of them. For to infer, as is usual, that, because a body dissolves another, which is dissoluble by this or that known acid, the solvent must also be acid; or to conclude, that, if a body precipitates a dissolved metal out of a confessedly acid menstruum, the precipitant must be an alcali; to argue thus, I say, it is unsecure; since, not to repeat what I said lately of copper, I found, that filings of spelter will be dissolved as well by some alcalies, (as spirit of sal armoniac) as by acids. And bodies may be precipitated out of acid menstrooms, both by other acids, and by liquors, where there appears not the least alcali: as I have found, that a solution of tin-glass, made in aqua-fortis, would be precipitated both by spirit of salt, and by common, or rain water. And as for the other grand way, that chemists employ, to distinguish acids and alcalies, namely by the heat, commotion, and bubbles, that are excited upon their being put together, that may be no such certain sign, as they presume, they having indeed a dependence upon particular contextures, and other mechanical affections, that chemists are not wont to take any notice of. For almost any thing, that is fitted variously and vehemently to agitate the minute parts of a body, will produce heat in it; and so, though water be neither an acid, nor an alcalizate liquor, yet it would quickly grow very hot, not only with the highly acid oil of vitriol, but (as I have more than once purposely tried and found) with the fiery alcalizate salt of tartar. And it is to be noted, that neither in the one, nor the other of these incalescent mixtures, there is produced any such visible or audible conflict, as, according to the doctrine of the chemists I reason with, one would expect. And as for the production of bubbles, especially if accompanied with a hissing noise, neither is that such a certain sign as chemists imagine: for the production of bubbles is not a necessary effect, or concomitant of heat excited by conflicts, but depends very much upon the peculiar disposition of bodies put together to extricate, produce, or intercept particles of air, (or steams, for the time equivalent to them;) and therefore as oil of vitriol, mixed in a due proportion with fair water, may be brought to make the water too hot to be held in one's hand, without exciting bubbles; so I have found, by trials purposely made, that alcalizate spirit of urine drawn from some kinds of quick-lime, being mixed with oil of vitriol moderately strong, would produce an intense heat, whilst it produced either no manifest bubbles at all, or scarce any, though the urinous spirit was strong, and in other trials operated like an alcali; and although also with spirit of urine, made *per se* the common way, the oil of vitriol will produce a great hissing, and a multitude of conspicuous bubbles. On the other side, I have sometimes, though not so constantly, found, that some acid spirits, especially that of verdigrease made *per se*, would, when poured upon salt of tartar, make a conflict with it, and produce a copious froth, though we observed it not to be accompanied with any manifest heat. And I elsewhere mention two bodies, upon whose putting together, numerous bubbles would, for a long time, and not without noise, be generated, and succeed one another, though I could perceive no heat at all to accompany this tumult.

As for the taste, which by many is made a great touchstone, whereby to know acids and alcalies, I consider, that there is a multitude of mixed bodies, wherein we can so
little

little discern by the taste, which of the principles is predominant, that this sense would not oblige one to suspect, much less to conclude, there were one grain of either of them to be found there; such bodies are diamonds and rubies, and most gems, besides many ignobler stones, and gold, and silver, and mercury, and I know not how many other bodies. On the other side, there are bodies, that abound with acid or alcalizate salts, which either have no taste, or a quite differing one from that of the chemical principle. As though Venice-glass be in great part composed of a fixed alcali; yet to the tongue it is insipid, and crystals of lute, and of lead, made with aqua-fortis, and containing great store of the acid particles of the menstruum, have nothing of acidity in the mouth, the latter having a saccharine sweetness, and the former an extreme bitterness. And even in vegetable substances, that have a manifest taste, it is not so easy to know by that, whether it be the acid, or the alcalizate principle, that is predominant in them; as in the essential oils of spices, and other vegetables. And in the gross empyreumatical oils of woods, and even in high rectified spirit of wine, which therefore some will have to be an alcalizate liquor, and others list it among acids, though I did not find it neither to be destroyed, or much altered, by being put upon coral, or salt of tartar, as would happen to an acid menstruum, nor yet by being digested with, and distilled from sea salt, as might be probably expected from an alcalizate one: and among those very bodies, which their tastes persuade chemists to reckon among acids, one may (according to what I formerly noted) observe so great a difference and variety of relishes, that, perhaps, without being too severe, I may say, that if I were to allow acids to be one principle, it should be only in some such metaphysical sense, as that wherein air is said to be one body, though it consist of the associated effluvia of a multitude of corpuscles of very differing natures, that agree in very little, save in their being minute enough to concur to the composition of a fluid aggregate, consisting of flying parts. But having dwelt longer than I intended on one objection, it is time, that I proceed to those that remain.

C H A P. V.

ANOTHER particular, I am unsatisfied with in the hypothesis of alcali and acidum, is, that it is in divers cases either needless or useless to explain the phenomena of qualities, there being several of these produced, destroyed, or altered, where there does not appear any accession, recess, or change of either of those two principles; as when fluid water by hard beating is turned into consistent froth, and when transparent red coral is, barely by being beaten and sifted finely, changed into a white and opacous powder; and as when a very flexible piece of fine silver being hammered is brought to have a brisk spring, and after a while will, instead of continuing malleable, crack or cleave under the hammer; and as when (to dispatch and omit other instances) a sufficiently thin leaf of gold, held between the light and the eye, appears green.

ANOTHER thing (of kin to the former,) that I like not in the doctrine of acidum and alcali, is, that though the patrons of it, whilst they would seem to constitute but two principles, are fain, as I lately intimated, to make I know not how many differing sorts of acids, besides some variety of alcalies; yet their principles are too few and narrow, to afford any satisfactory explication of the phenomena. For I fear, it will be very difficult for them to give a rational account of gravity, springiness, light, and emphatical colours, sounds, and some other qualities, that are wont to be called manifest; and much more of several, that are confessed to be occult, as electricity, and magnetism; in which last I see not, how the affirming, that there is in the magnet an acid and an alcali, and that these two are of contrary natures, will help to explain,

plain, how a load-stone does, as they speak, attract the same end of a poised needle, with one of its poles, which it will drive away with the other, and determine that needle, when freely placed, to point north and south, and enable it to communicate by its bare touch the same properties, and abundance of other strange ones, to another piece of steel. But I forbear to alledge particular examples referable to the several qualities above-mentioned, whether manifest or hidden, because that in great part is already done in our notes about particular qualities, in which it will appear, how little able the employing of alcali and acidum will be to afford us an account of many things. And though I enlarge not here on this objection, yet I take it to be of that importance, that, though there were no other, this were enough to shew, that the hypothesis, that is liable to it, is insufficient for the explication of qualities; and therefore it will not, I presume, be thought strange, that I add, that as for those, that would extend this narrow chemical doctrine to the whole object of natural philosophy, they must do more, than I expect they will be able before they can make me their proselyte, there being a multitude of phaenomena in nature (divers whereof I elsewhere take notice of in reference to the chemist's philosophy) in which what acidum and alkali have to do, I confess, I do not understand.

C H A P. VI.

THE last thing (which comprizes several others) that seems to me a defect in the doctrine of alcali and acidum, is, that divers, if not most of those very things, that are pretended to be explicated by them, are not satisfactorily explicated, some things being taken into the explications, that are either not fundamental enough, or not clearly intelligible, or are chargeable with both those imperfections.

AND first I am dissatisfied with the very fundamental notion of this doctrine, namely a supposed hostility between the tribe of acids and that of alkalies, accompanied, if you will have it so, with a friendship or sympathy with bodies belonging to the same tribe or family. For I look upon amity and enmity as affections of intelligent beings; and I have not yet found it explained by any, how those appetites can be placed in bodies inanimate and devoid of knowledge, or of so much as sense. And I elsewhere endeavour to shew, that what is called sympathy and antipathy between such bodies does, in great part, depend upon the actings of our own intellect, which supposing in every body an innate appetite to preserve itself both in a defensive and an offensive way, inclines us to conclude, that that body, which, though designlessly, destroys or impairs the state or texture of another body, has an enmity to it, though perhaps a slight mechanical change may make bodies, that seem extremely hostile, seem to agree very well and co-operate to the production of the same effects. As if the acid spirit of salt and the volatile alkali (as they will have it) that is commonly called spirit of urine be put together, they will, after a short, though fierce conflict, upon a new contexture unite together into a salt, little, if at all, differing from sal armoniac, in which the two reconciled principles will amicably join in cooling of water, dissolving some metalline bodies, and producing divers other effects. And so, if upon a strong solution of salt of pot-ashes, or of salt of tartar, good spirit of nitre be dropped in a due proportion, after the heat and tumult and ebullition are over, the acid and the alkalizate salts will convene into such a concretion as salt-petre, which is taken to be a natural body, either homogeneous, or at least consisting of parts, that agree very friendly together, and conspired to constitute the particular kind of salt, that chemists call nitre.

BUT the sympathy and antipathy, that is said to be betwixt inanimate bodies, I elsewhere more particularly consider; and therefore I shall now add in the second place,

that the explications made of phænomena, according to the doctrine of alkali and acidum, do not, in my apprehension, perform what may be justly expected from philosophical explications. It is said indeed, that the acidum working on the alkali, or this upon that, produces the effect proposed; but that is only to tell us, what is the agent, that operates, and not the manner of the operation, or the means and process, whereby it produces the effect proposed, and it is this modus, that inquisitive naturalists chiefly desire to learn. And if it be said, that it is by the mutual hostility of the principles, that the effect is produced, it may be answered, that besides that that hostility itself is not, as we have just now observed, a thing clear, if so much as intelligible; this is so general and indeterminate a way of explicating things, as can afford little or no satisfaction to a searching and cautious naturalist, that considers how very numerous and very various the phænomena of qualities are.

C H A P VII.

TO clear up and to countenance what I have been now saying, I shall only take notice of some few obvious phænomena of one of the most familiar operations wherein acidum and alkali are supposed to be the grand agents. It is known to the very boys of chemists, that aqua regis will dissolve gold, copper and mercury, and that with these metals, especially with the second, it will produce an intense degree of heat. If now the cause of this heat be demanded, it may be expected, that the patrons of the Duellists will answer, that it is from the action of the acid salts of the menstruum upon the alkali they meet with in the metals. But not to mention how many things are here presumed, not proved; nor that I know some acid menstrooms, and some much more evidently alkalizate bodies than these metals are, which yet do not upon their mixtures produce any sensible heat; not, I say, to mention these, it is easy to discern, that this answer names indeed two supposed efficient of heat, but does not explicate or declare how these agents produce that quality, which depends upon a certain vehement and various agitation of the singly insensible parts of bodies, whether the Duellists, or any other, though very differing causes, put them into a motion so modified. And therefore gold and copper, by bare concussion, may be brought to an intense degree of heat, without the accession of any acid parts to work upon them. But then further, when we are told, that aqua regis by its acidity working on the metalline alkali makes a dissolution of the metal; I am told indeed, what they think to be the agent in this change, but not at all satisfied how this agent effects it; for, copper being a very hard metal, and gold generally esteemed by chemists the closest and compactest body in nature, I would gladly know, by what power and way such weak, and probably either brittle or flexible bodies, as acid salts, are enabled with that force to disjoin such solid and closely coherent corpuscles, as make up the visible masses of copper and gold, nay, and scatter them with that violence, as, perhaps to toss up multitudes of them into the air. And since in the dissolution of these metals there is another phænomenon to be accounted for, as well as the forcing of the parts asunder, namely the sustentation of the metal in the menstruum, the chemists would have much informed me, if they had well explained, how their acidum and alkali is able to sustain and give fluidity to the corpuscles of the dissolved metal, which though it be but copper, is nine times as heavy as a bulk of water equal to it, and if it be gold, is nineteen times heavier than the liquor, that must keep it from sinking; and at least divers times heavier in specie than the salts, that are mingled with the aqueous parts, can make the menstruum composed of them both. Whereas trial has assured me, that, if a piece of wax, or any other such matter, be made by less than the hundredth part heavier than an equal bulk of water, it will, when

when thoroughly immerfed, fall to the bottom, and reft there. I might alfo ask a further queftion about thefe diffolutions, as why, whereas aqua regis diffolves mercury, without being much changed in colour by it, gold retains its own citrinity or yellownefs in the folvent, and the folution of copper is of a colour, which being greenifh-blew is quite differing from that of the metal, that affords it, as well as from that of the folvent? And I might recruit thefe with other queries not impertinent, but that thefe may fuffice (for a fample) on this occafion, and allow me to conclude this chapter, by representing one thing, which I would gladly recommend and inculcate to you, namely, that “ Thofe hypotheses do not a little hinder the progrefs of human knowledge, that “ introduce morals and politicks into the explications of corporeal nature, where all “ things are indeed tranfacted according to laws mechanical.”

C H A P. VIII.

I MIGHT eafily have been more copious in the inftances annexed to the foregoing animadverfions, but that, being defirous to be fhort as well as clear, I purpofely declined to make ufe of divers others, that feemed proper to be employed, and indeed might fafely enough have been fo, becaufe thofe I have mentioned and efpecially thofe (which make a great part of them) that are mechanical, are not liable to the fame exceptions, that I forefaw might be made to elude the force of the examples I paffed by. And though I think I could very well make thofe forefeen objections appear groundlefs or unfatisfactory; yet that could fcarce be done without engaging in controverfies, that would prove more tedious than I judged them neceffary.

AND yet, although what I have faid in this excursion be but a part of what I could fay, I would not be thought to have forgot what I intimated at the beginning of it. For though the reasons I alledged keep me from acquiefcing in the doctrine of alkali and acidum, as it is propofed under the notion of a philosophical hypothesis, fuch as the Cartefian or Epicurean, which are each of them alledged by their embracers to be mechanical, and of a very Catholick extent; yet I deny not, that the confideration of the Duellifts (or the two jarring principles of alkali and acidum) may be of good ufe to Spagyrifts and phyficians, as I elfewhere further declare. Nor do I pretend by the paff difcourfe, that queftions one doctrine of the chemifts, to beget a general contempt of their notions, and much lefs of their experiments. For the operations of chemistry may be mifapplied by the erroneous reasonings of the artifts, without ceafing to be themfelves things of great ufe, as being applicable, as well to the difcovery or confirmation of folid theories, as the production of new phænomena, and beneficial effects. And though I think, that many notions of *Paracelfus* and *Helmont*, and fome other eminent Spagyrifts, are unfolid, and not worthy the veneration, that their admirers cherish for them; yet divers of the experiments, which either are alledged to favour thefe notions, or on other accounts are to be met with among the followers of thefe men, deferve the curiofity, if not the efteem, of the induftrious inquirers into nature’s myfteries. And looking upon chemistry in grofs as a difcipline fubordinate to phyficks, even mechanical philofophers may juftly, in my opinion, think favourably of it, fince, whatever imperfections, or, if they please, extravagancies there may be in the principles and explications of *Paracelfus* or other leading artifts, thefe faults of the theoretical part may be fufficiently compensated by the utilities, that may be derived from the practical part. And this I am the rather induced to fay, becaufe the experiments, that chemistry furnifhes, may much affift a naturalift to rectify the erroneous theories, that oftentimes accompany them, and even thofe (miftakes) that are endeavoured to be evinced by them.

AND (to conclude) chemistry seems to deal with men, in reference to notions, as it does in reference to metals, assisting wary men to detect the errors, unto which it may have misled the unwary: for the same art, that has taught some to impose on others, (and perhaps themselves first) by blanching copper, imitating gold, &c. does also supply say-masters and refiners, with the means, by the cupel, cements, aqua fortis, &c. to examine, whether coins be true or false, and discover adulterate gold and silver to be counterfeit.

EXPERIMENTS and NOTES

ABOUT THE

Mechanical Origin and Production of VOLATILITY.

ADVERTISEMENTS about the EXPERIMENTS and NOTES relating to
CHEMICAL QUALITIES.

WHEN, after I had gone through the common operations of chemistry, I began to make some serious reflections on them, I thought it was pity, that instruments, that might prove so serviceable to the advancement of natural philosophy, should not be more studiously and skilfully made use of to so good a purpose. I saw indeed, that divers of the chemists had, by a diligent and laudable employment of their pains and industry, obtained divers productions, and lighted on several phenomena, considerable in their kind, and indeed more numerous, than, the narrowness and sterility of their principles considered, could well be expected. But I observed too, that the generality of those, that busy themselves about chemical operations; some, because they practise physick, and others, because they either much wanted, or greedily coveted money, aimed, in their trials, but at the preparation of good medicines for the human body, or to discover the ways of curing the diseases or imperfections of metals, without referring their trials to the advancement of natural philosophy in general; of which most of the alchemists seem to have been so incurious, that not only they did not institute experiments for that purpose, but overlooked and despised those undesigned ones, that occurred to them, whilst they were prosecuting a preparation of a medicine, or a transmutation of metals. The sense I had of this too general omission of the chemists, tempted me sometimes to try, whether I could do any thing towards the repairing of it by handling chemistry, not as a physician, or an alchemist, but as a meer naturalist, and so by applying chemical operations to philosophical purposes. And, in pursuance of these thoughts, I remember I drew up a scheme of what I ventured to call a *chemia philosophica*, not out of any affectation of a splendid title, but to intimate, that the chemical operations, there treated of, were not directed to the usual scopes of physicians, or transmuters of metals, but partly to illustrate, or confirm some philosophical theories by such operations; and partly to explicate those operations, by the help of such theories.

BUT before I had made any great progress in the pursuit of this design, the fatal pestilence, that raged in *London*, and in many other parts of *England*, in the years 1664 and 65, obliging me, among the rest, to make several removes, which put me

upon taking new measures, and engaging me in other employments of my time, made me so long neglect the papers I had drawn up, that, at last, I knew not where to find them, (though, I hope, they are not yet mislaid beyond recovery,) which I was the less troubled at, because the great difficulties, to be met with in such an undertaking, did not a little discourage me, such a task requiring, as well as deserving, a person better furnished, than I had reason to think myself, with abilities, leisure, chemical experiments, and conveniences, to try as many more, as should appear needful. But yet, to break the ice for any, that may hereafter think fit to set upon such a work, or, to shorten my own labour, if I should see cause to resume it myself, I was content to throw in, among my notes about other particular qualities, some experiments and observations about some of those, that I have elsewhere called chemical qualities, because it is chiefly by the operations of chemists, that men have been induced to take special notice of them. Of these notes I have assigned to some qualities more, and to some fewer, as either the nature or importance of the subject seemed to require, or my leisure and other circumstances would permit. And though I have not here handled the subjects they belonged to, as if I intended such a *chemia philosophica*; as I lately mentioned, because my design did not make it necessary, but did, perhaps, make it impertinent for me to do so; yet, in some of the larger notes, about volatility and fixedness, and especially about precipitation, I have given some little specimens of the theoretical part of a philosophical account of those qualities, or operations, that, I hope, will not be wholly useless. I know, it may be objected, that I should have employed, for instances, some more considerable experiments, if not arcana; but, though possibly I am not altogether unfurnished with such, yet, aiming rather to promote philosophy, than appear a possessor of elaborate processes, I declined several experiments, that required either more skill, or more time, or more expence, than could be well expected from most readers, and chose rather to employ such experiments, as may be more easily or cheaply tried; and, which is mainly to be considered, being more simple, are more clearly intelligible, and more fit to have notions and theories built upon them; especially considering, that the doctrine of qualities being itself conversant about some of the rudimental parts, if I may so call them, of natural philosophy, it seemed unfit to employ intricate experiments, and whose causes were liable to many disputes, to settle a theory of them. In short, my design being to hold a taper, not so much to chemists, as to the naturalists, it was fit I should be less solicitous to gratify the former, than to inform the latter.

EXPERIMENTS and NOTES, about the MECHANICAL ORIGIN and PRODUCTION of VOLATILITY.

C A H P. I.

AS far as I have yet observed, the qualifications or attributes, on whose account a portion of matter is found to be volatile, are chiefly four; whereof the three former most regard the single corpuscles, as such; and the last, the manner of their union in the aggregate or body they make up.

BUT before I enter upon particulars, give me leave to advertise you here, once for all, that, in the following notes about volatility and fixedness, when I speak of the corpuscles, or minute parts of a body, I do not mean strictly either the elementary parts, such as earth and water, or the hypostatical principles, such as salt, sulphur, or mercury; for these things come not here into consideration: but only such corpuscles, whether of a simple, compounded, or decomposed nature, as have the particles they consist

consist of so firmly united, that they will not be totally disjoined, or dissipated, by that degree of fire or heat, wherein the matter is said to be volatile, or to be fixed. But these combined particles will, in their aggregate, either ascend, or continue unraised *per modum unius*, (as they speak) or as one entire corpuscle. As in a corpuscle of sal armoniac, whether it be a natural or factitious thing, or whether it be perfectly similar, or compounded of differing parts, I look upon the entire corpuscle, as a volatile portion of matter; and so I do on a corpuscle of sulphur, though experience shews, when it is kindled, that it has great store of acid salt in it, but which is not extricated by bare sublimation: and so colcothar of vitriol falls under our consideration, as a fixed body, without enquiring what cupreous or other mineral, and not totally fixed parts, may be united with the earthly ones; since the fires, we expose it to, do not separate them.

AND this being premised in the general, I now proceed to some particulars. And first, to make a volatile body, the parts should be very small. For, *ceteris paribus*, those, that are so, are more easily put into motion by the action of the fire, and other agents, and consequently more apt to be elevated, when, by the determination of the movent, the situation of the neighbouring bodies, or other mechanical circumstances, the agitated corpuscles can continue their motion with less resistance upwards, than any other way, (as either downwards, or horizontally.) And if, as it is highly probable, that, which in light bodies, or at least, in most of them, is wont to pass for positive levity, be but a less degree of gravity, than that of those contiguous bodies, that raise them; it will happen, that, in very many cases, (for, I say, not in all,) the great proportion of the surface of a corpuscle to its bulk, (which is usually greater in the lesser particles,) by making it more apt to be wrought on, either by the air agitated by the fire, or by the effluvia of kindled fuel, or by the impulse of the shaken corpuscles of the body itself, will much facilitate the elevation of such a minute particle, by exposing a greater portion of it to the action of the agent, as it will oftentimes also facilitate the renewed sustentation of such a small body in the air, which resists more the descent of particles, whose surfaces are large, than of others of the same gravity and bulk: as a leaf of paper displayed will much longer hover in the air, than if it were reduced into a ball or pellet. That this minuteness of particles may dispose them to be carried upwards, by the impulse of other bodies, and that of the agitated air, is very obvious to be observed: as we see, that horses in a highway, though they be not able, with the strokes of their feet, to make stones, or gravel, or clods of earth fly up, yet they will easily raise clouds of dust, oftentimes mingled with the smaller grains of sand. And, where timber is sawing, the same wind, that will not, in the least, move the beams, and scarce at all move the chips, will easily carry up the saw-dust into the air. And we see in our chimneys, that the smoke readily ascends, whilst even small clods of soot, which is but an aggregate of the particles of smoke, fall headlong down.

C H A P. II.

THE next qualification requisite in the corpuscles of volatile bodies is, that they be not too solid or heavy. For if they be so, though their bulk be very small, yet, unless other circumstances do much compensate their weight, it will be very difficult to elevate them, because of the great disproportion of their specific gravity to that of the air, (which contributes to sustain and even raise many sorts of volatile parts) and to the strength of the igneous effluvia or other agents, that would carry them up. Thus we see, that filings of lead or iron, and even minium (which is the calx of lead) though the grains they consist of be very small, will not easily be blown up like common dust, or meal, or other powders made of less ponderous materials.

A third

A third qualification to be desired in the corpuscles, that should make up a volatile body, is, that they be conveniently shaped for motion. For if they be of branched, hooked, or other very irregular or inconvenient figures, they will be apt to be stopped and detained by other bodies, or intangled among themselves, and consequently very difficult to be carried upwards, in regard that, whilst they are thus fastened, either to one another, or to any stable body, each single corpuscle is not only to be considered, as having its own peculiar bulk, since its cohesion with the other corpuscle or body, that detains it, makes them fit to be looked upon *per modum unius*; that degree of heat, they are exposed to, being presumed incapable of disjoining them. And this may be one reason, why water, though it be specifically heavier than oil, yet is much more easily brought to exhale in the form of vapours than is oil, whose corpuscles by the lasting stains they leave on cloth, wood, wool, &c. (which water will but transiently moisten, not stain) seem to be of very intangling figures.

THE fourth and last qualification requisite in a volatile body is, that the parts do loosely adhere, or at least be united in such a manner, as does not much indispose them to be separated by the fire in the form of fumes or vapours.

For he, that considers the matter, will easily grant, that, if the contexture of the corpuscles, whereof a body consists, be intricate, or their cohesion strong, their mutual implication, or their adherence to each other, will make one part hinder another from flying separately away, and their conjunction will make them too heavy or unweildy to be elevated together, as intire, though compounded parts. Thus we see, that in spring, or the beginning of summer, a wind, though not faint, is unable to carry off the lightest leaves of trees, because they stick fast to the bows and twigs on which they grow, but in Autumn, when that adhesion ceases, and the leaves sit but loosely on, a wind no stronger than that they resisted before, will with ease blow them off, and perhaps carry them up a good way into the air. But here note, that it was not without some cause, that I added above, that in a fluid body, the parts should at least be united in such a manner, as does not much indispose them to be separated. For it is not impossible, that the parts of a body may, by the figures and smoothness of the surfaces, be sufficiently apt to be put into motion, and yet be indisposed to admit such a motion as would totally separate them and make them fly up into the air. As, if you take two pieces of very flat and well polished marble or glass, and lay them one upon the other, you easily make them slide along each other surfaces, but not easily pull up one of them, whilst the other continues its station. And when glass is in the state of fusion, the parts of it will easily slide along each other, as is usual in those of other fluids, and consequently change places, and yet the continuity of the whole is not intirely broken, but every corpuscle does somewhere touch some other corpuscle, and thereby maintain the cohesion, that indisposes it for that intire separation accompanied with a motion upwards, that we call avolation. And so, when saltpetre alone is in a crucible exposed to the fire, though a very moderate degree of it will suffice to bring the salt to a state of fusion, and consequently to put the corpuscles, that compose it, into a restless motion; yet a greater degree of heat, than is necessary to melt it, will not extricate so much as the spirits, and make them fly away.

C H A P. III.

THE foregoing doctrine of the volatility of bodies may be as well illustrated as applied, if we proceed to deduce from it the general ways of volatilization of bodies, or of introducing volatility into an assigned portion of matter. For these ways seem not inconveniently reducible to five, which I shall severally mention, though nature and

and art do usually employ two or more of them in conjunction. For which reason I would not, when I speak of one of these ways, be understood, as if, excluding the rest, I meant, that no other concurred with it.

THE first of the five ways or means of volatilizing a body is, to reduce it into minute parts, and, *caeteris paribus*, the more minute they are the better.

THAT the bringing a body into very minute parts may much conduce to the volatilizing of it, may be gathered from the vulgar practice of the chemists, who, when they would sublime or distil antimony, sal armoniac, sea-salt, nitre, &c. are wont to beat them to powders to facilitate their receiving a further comminution by the action of the fire. And here I observe, that in some bodies this comminution ought not to be made only at first, but to be continued afterwards. For chemists find by experience, though perhaps, without considering the reason of it, that sea-salt and nitre will very hardly afford their spirits in distillations, without they be mingled with powdered clay or bole, or some such other additament, which usually twice or thrice exceeds the weight of the salt itself: although these additaments, being themselves fixed, seem unlikely to promote the volatilization of the bodies mixed with them, yet by hindering the small grains of salt to melt together into one lump or mass, and consequently by keeping them in the state of comminution, they much conduce to the driving up of the spirits, or the finer parts of the salts by the operation of the fire.

BUT to prosecute a little what I was saying of the conduciveness of bringing a body into small parts to the volatilization of it, I shall add, that in some cases the comminution may be much promoted by employing physical, after mechanical, ways; and that, when the parts are brought to such a pitch of exiguity, they may be elevated much better than before. Thus, if you take filings of Mars, and mix them with sal armoniac, some few parts may be sublimed; but if, as I have done, you dissolve those filings in good spirit of salt, instead of oil of vitriol, and having coagulated the solution, you calcine the greenish crystals or *vitriolum martis*, that will be afforded, you may with ease, and in no long time, obtain a *crocus martis* of very fine parts; so that I remember, when we exquisitely mingled this very fixed powder with a convenient proportion of sal armoniac, and gradually pressed it with a competent fire, we were able to elevate at the first sublimation a considerable part of it; and adding a like, or somewhat inferior, proportion of fresh sal armoniac to the *caput mortuum*, we could raise so considerable a part of that also, and in it of the crocus, that we thought, if we had had conveniency to pursue the operation, we should, by not many repeated sublimations, have elevated the whole crocus, which (to hint that upon the by,) afforded a sublimate of so very astringent a taste, as may make the trial of it in stanching of blood, stopping of fluxes, and other cases, where potent astringency is desired, worthy of a physician's curiosity.

C H A P. IV.

THE second means to volatilize bodies is, to rub, grind, or otherwise reduce their corpuscles to be either smooth, or otherwise fitly shaped to clear themselves, or be disintangled from each other.

By reason of the minuteness of the corpuscles, which keeps them from being separately discernible by the eye, it is not to be expected, that immediate and ocular instances should be given on this occasion; but that such a change is to be admitted in the small parts of many bodies, brought to be volatile, seems highly probable from the account formerly given of the requisites or conditions of volatility, whose introduction into a portion of matter, will scarce be explicated without the intervention of such

such a change. To this second instrument of volatilization, in concurrence with the first, may probably be referred the following phænomena: in the two first of which there is employed no additional volatile ingredient; and in the fourth, a fixed body is disposed to volatility by the operation of a liquor, though this be carefully abstracted from it.

1. If urine freshly made be put to distil, the phlegm will first ascend, and the volatile salt will not rise till that be almost totally driven away, and then requires a not inconsiderable degree of fire to elevate it. But, if you putrify or digest urine, though in a well-closed glass vessel, for seven or eight weeks, that gentle warmth will make the small parts so rub against, or otherwise act upon, one another, that the finer ones of the salt, will perhaps, be made more slender and light, and however will be made to extricate themselves so far, as to become volatile, and, ascending in a very gentle heat, leave the greatest part of the phlegm behind them.

2. So, if must, or the sweet juice of grapes, be distilled, before it have been fermented, it is observed by chemists, and we have tried the like in artificial wine made of raisins, that the phlegm, but no ardent spirit, will ascend. But when this liquor is reduced to wine by fermentation, which is accompanied with a great and intestine commotion of the jostling parts, hitting and rubbing against one another, whereby some probably come to be broken, others to be variously ground and subtilized, the more subtile parts of the liquor being extricated, or some of the parts being, by these operations, brought to be subtile, they are qualified to be raised by a very gentle heat before the phlegm, and convene into that fugitive liquor, that chemists, for its activity, call spirit of wine. Nor is it only in the slighter instances afforded by animals and vegetables, that volatility may be effected by the means lately mentioned; for experience hath assured me, that it is possible, by an artificial and long digestion, wherein the parts have leisure for frequent jostlings and attritions, so to subtilize and dispose the corpuscles, even of common salt, for volatility, that we could make them ascend in a moderate fire of sand, without the help of bole, oil of vitriol, or any volatilizing additament; and, which is more considerable, the spirit would, in rising, precede the phlegm, and leave the greatest part thereof behind it.

THIS intestine commotion of parts, capable of producing volatility in the more disposed portions of a body, though it be much more easy to be found in liquors, or in moist and soft bodies, yet I have sometimes, though rarely, met with it in dry ones. And particularly I remember, that, some years ago, having, for trial-sake, taken mustard-seed, which is a body pregnant with subtile parts, and caused it to be distilled *per se* in a retort, I had, as I hoped, (without any more ado,) a great many grains of a clear and figured volatile salt at the very first distillation: which experiment having, for the greater security, made a second time with the like success, I mentioned it to some lovers of chemistry, as what, I justly supposed, they had not heard of. I leave it to farther enquiry, whether, in a body so full of spirits, as mustard-seed, the action or re-action of the parts among themselves, perhaps promoted by just degrees of fire, might not suffice to make in them a change equivalent in order to volatilization, and the yielding a volatile salt, to that, which we have observed fermentation and putrefaction to have made in the juice of grapes, urine, and some other bodies. How far the like success may be expected in other trials, I cannot tell; especially, not having by me any notes of the events of some attempts, which that enquiry put me upon: only, I remember in general, that, as some trials, I made with other seeds, and even with aromatic ones, did not afford me any volatile salt; so the success of other trials made me now and then think, that some subjects of the vegetable kingdom, whence we are wont to drive over acid spirits, but no dry salt, may be distilled with so luckily regulated

gulated a heat, as to afford something, though but little, of volatile salt; and, that perhaps more bodies would be found to do so, were they not too hastily or violently pressed by the fire, whereby such saline schematisms of the desired parts of the matter are (by being dissipated or confounded) destroyed or vitiated, as in a slow, dextrous, or fortunate way of management would come forth, not in a liquid, but a saline form. Of which observation, we may elsewhere mention some instances, and shall, before the close of this paper, name one, afforded us by crude tartar.

3. THOUGH silver be one of the fixedest bodies, that we know of, yet, that it is not impossible, but that, chiefly by a change of texture, it may strangely be disposed to volatility, I was induced to think, by what I remember once happened to me. A gentleman of my acquaintance, studious of chemical arcana, having lighted on a strange menstruum, which he affirmed, and I had some cause to believe, not to be corrosive, he abstracted it from several metals, (for the same liquor would serve again and again,) and brought me the remainders, with a desire, that I would endeavour to reduce those of lead and silver into the pristine metals again, which he had, in vain, attempted to do: whereupon, though I found the white calx of lead reducible, yet, when I came to the calx of silver, I was not able to bring it into a body; and having, at length, melted some lead in a gentle fire, to try whether I could make it swallow up the calx, in order to a farther operation, I was not a little surprized to find, that this mild heat made the calx of silver presently fly away, and sublime in the form of a *farina volatilis*, which whitened the neighbouring part of the chimney, as well as the upper part of the crucible.

4. FROM that, which chemists themselves tell us, I think we may draw a good argument *ad hominem*, to prove, that volatility depends much upon the texture, and other mechanical affections of a body. For divers of those Hermetick philosophers (as they are called) that write of the elixir, tell us, that when their philosophick mercury or grand solvent, being sealed up together with a third or fourth part of gold in a glass egg, is kept in convenient degrees of fire, the whole matter, and consequently the gold, will, by the mutual operation of the included substances, be so changed, that not only it will circulate up and down in the glass, but, in case the digestion or decoction should be broken off at a certain inconvenient time, the gold would be quite spoiled, being, by the past and untimely ended operation, made too volatile to be reducible again into gold: whereas, if the decoction be duly continued unto the end, not only the gold, but all the philosophical mercury or menstruum will be turned into a sulphur, or powder of a wonderfully fixed nature. I know, there are several Chrysopæans, that speak much otherwise of this operation, and tell us, that the gold employed about it must be philosophic gold: but I know too, that there are divers others, (and those too none of the least candid or rational,) that speak of it, as I have done; and that is sufficient to ground an argument on towards all those, that embrace their doctrine. And, in this case, it is considerable, that it is not by any superadded additament, that the most fixed body of gold is made volatile, but the same massy matter, consisting of gold and philosophic mercury, is, by the change of texture produced, or occasioned by the various degrees and operations of fire upon it, brought to be first volatile, and then extreamly fixed. And having said this, in reference to one tribe of the modern Spagyrist, to another of them, the *Helmontians*, I think, I can offer a good argument *ad hominem* from the testimony and experiments of the founder of their sect.

5. THE acute *Helmont*, among other prodigious powers, that he ascribes to the alkahest, affirms, that, by abstracting it frequently enough, it would so change all tangible bodies, and consequently stones and metals, that they might be distilled over into liquors
 equiponderant

equiponderant to the respective bodies, that afforded them, and having all the qualities of rain water; which if they have, I need not tell you, that they must be very volatile. And I see not how those, that admit the truth of this strange alkahestical operation, can well deny, that volatility depends upon the mechanical affections of matter, since it appears not, that the alkahest does, at least in our case, work upon bodies otherwise than mechanically. And it must be confessed, that the same material parts of a portion of a corporeal substance, which, when they were associated and contexted (whether by an archeus, seed, form, or what else you please,) after such a determinate manner, constituted a solid and fixed body, as a flint or a lump of gold; by having their texture dissolved, and (perhaps after being subtilized) by being freed from their former implications, or firm cohesions, may become the parts of a fluid body totally volatile.

C H A P. V.

THE fourth means of making a body volatile is, by associating the particles to be raised with such as are more volatile than themselves, and of a figure fit to be fastened to them, or are at least apt, by being added to them, to make up, with them, corpuscles more disposed than they to volatility. This being the grand instrument of volatilization, I shall spend somewhat the more time about it. But I shall first here a little explain the last clause, (that I may not be obliged to resume it elsewhere) by intimating, that it is not impossible, that the particles of an additament, though not more volatile than those of the body it is mixed with, and perhaps, though not volatile at all, will yet conduce to volatilize the body wherewith it is mingled. For the particles of the additament may be of such figures, and so associated with those of the body to be elevated, as in this to enlarge the former pores, or produce new ones, by intercepting little cavities (for they must not be great ones) between the particles of a body to be raised, and those of the additament. For, by these and other such ways of association, the corpuscles, resulting from the combination or coalition of two or more of these differing particles, may, without becoming too big and unweildy, become more conveniently shaped, or more light in proportion to their bulk, and so more easily buoyed up and sustained in the air, (as when the lid of a copper box being put on, makes the whole box emerge and swim in water, because of the intercepted cavity, though neither of the parts of the box would do so,) or otherwise more fitted for avolation than the particles themselves were, before their being joined to those of the additament.

By two things, chiefly, the corpuscles of the additament may contribute to the elevation of a body. For, first, the parts of the former may be much more disposed for avolation than is necessary to their own volatility. As when in the making of sal armoniac, the saline particles of urine and of soot, are more fugitive than they need be, to be themselves sublimed, and thereby are advantaged to carry up with them the more sluggish corpuscles, whereof sea salt consists. And next, they may be of figures so proper to fasten them well to the body to be elevated, that the more fugitive will not be driven away, or disjoined from the more fixed by such a degree of heat as is sufficient to raise them both together: to which effect the congruity, or figuration, is as well required, as the lightness or volatility of the particles of the additament. And therefore some of the fugitivest bodies, that we know, as spirit of wine, camphire, &c. will not volatilize many bodies, which will be elevated by far less fugitive additaments; because the corpuscles of spirit of wine stick not to those of the body they are mingled with, but, easily flying up themselves, leave those behind them, which they did rather barely touch, than firmly adhere to: whereas far less fugacious liquors, if they be endowed with figures, that fit them for a competently firm cohesion with the

body they are mingled with, will be able to volatilize it. Of which I shall now give you some instances in bodies, that are very ponderous, or very fixed, or both.

AND I shall begin with colcothar, though it being a vitriolate calx, made by a lasting and vehement fire, it is (consequently) capable of resisting such a one. This being exquisitely ground with an equal weight of sal armoniac, which is itself a salt, but moderately volatile, will be in good part sublimed into those yellow flowers, which we have elsewhere more particularly taught to prepare, under the name of *ens primum veneris*; in which, that many vitriolate corpuscles of the colcothar are really elevated, you may easily find, by putting a grain or two of that reddish substance into a strong infusion of galls, which will thereby immediately acquire an inky colour.

STEEL also, which, to deserve that name, must have endured extraordinary violence of the fire, and greater than is needful to obtain other metals from their mother earth; steel itself, I say, being reduced to filings, and diligently ground with about an equal weight of sal armoniac, will, if degrees of fire be skilfully administered, (for it is easy to err in that point,) without any previous calcination or reduction to a crocus, suffer so much of the metal to be carried up, as will give the sal armoniac a notable colour, and an ironish taste.

AND here it will be proper to observe, for the sake of practical chemists, that the quantity or proportion of the volatile additament is to be regarded; though not so much as its nature, yet more than it is wont to be: and divers bodies, that are thought either altogether unfit for sublimation, or, at least, incapable to have any considerable portion of them elevated, may be copiously enough sublimed, if a greater proportion of the additament, than we usually content ourselves with, be skilfully employed. And in the newly-mentioned instance of filings of steel, if, instead of an equal weight of sal armoniac, the treble weight be taken, and the operation be duly managed, a far greater quantity of the metal may be raised, especially if fresh sal armoniac be carefully ground with the caput mortuum. And sal armoniac may, perhaps, be compounded with such other bodies, heavier than itself, as may qualify it, when it is thus clogged, to elevate some congruous bodies better than it would of itself alone. And I shall venture to add this farther advertisement, that if, besides the plenty of the additament, there be a sufficient fitness of its particles to lay hold on those of the body to be wrought on, mineral bodies, and those ponderous enough, may be employed to volatilize other heavy bodies. And I am apt to think, that almost, if not more than almost, all metals themselves may by copious additaments and frequent cohobations be brought to pass through the neck of the retort in distillation; and perhaps, if you melt them not with equal parts, but with many parts of regulus of antimony, and then proceed as the hints now given will direct you, you will not find cause to despise what I have been saying.

You know what endeavours have been, and are still fruitlessly employed by chemists to elevate so fixed a body, as salt of tartar, by additaments. I shall not now speak much of the enterprize in general, designing chiefly to tell you on this occasion, that, whereas frequent experience shews, that sal armoniac being abstracted from salt of tartar, not only the salt of tartar is left at the bottom, but a good part of the sal armoniac is left behind with it: I suspected the cause might be, that sal armoniac, by the operation of the alkali of tartar, is reduced into sea-salt, and urinous or fuliginous salt, as it was at first composed of those differing ingredients; and that by this means the volatile salt being loosened or disintangled from the rest, and being of a very fugacious nature, flies easily away itself, without staying long enough to take up any other salt with it. And therefore, if this analysis of the sal armoniac could be prevented, it seemed not impossible to me, that some part of the salt of tartar, as well as of colcothar and steel, might be carried up by it: and accordingly having caused the ingredients to be exceedingly

ingly well dried, and both nimbly and carefully mixed, and speedily exposed to the fire, I have sometimes had a portion of salt of tartar carried up with the sal armoniac: but this happened so very rarely, that I suspected some peculiar fitness for this work in some parcels of sal armoniac, that are scarce but by the effect to be discerned from others. But however, what has happened to us may argue the possibility of the thing, and may serve to shew the volatilizing efficacy of sal armoniac; which is a compound, that I elsewhere recommend, and do it now again, as one of the usefulest productions of vulgar chemistry.

AND since I have mentioned the volatilization of salt of tartar, presuming your curiosity will make you desire my opinion about the possibility of it, I shall propose to you a distinction, that perhaps you do not expect, by saying, that I think there is a great deal of difference between the making a volatile salt of tartar, and the making salt of tartar volatile. For though this seem to be but a nicety, yet really it is none; and it is very possible, that a man may from tartar obtain a volatile salt, and yet be no wise able to volatilize that tartareous salt, that has been once by the incineration of the tartar brought to fixed alkali. I have in the Sceptical Chemist summarily delivered a way, by which both I, and some Spagyrist, that learned it of me, obtained from a mixture of antimony, nitre and crude tartar, a volatile salt, which in probability comes from the last named of those three bodies; but experience carefully made has assured me, that without any additament, by a distillation warily and very slowly made, (in-somuch that I have spent near a week in distilling one pound of matter) very clean tartar, or at least the crystals of tartar, may, in conveniently shaped vessels, be brought to afford a substance, that in rectification will ascend to the upper part of the vessel, in the form of a volatile salt, as if it were of urine or of hart's-horn; of which tartareous salt, I keep some by me: but this operation requires not only a dexterous, but a patient distiller.

BUT now as to the making a fixed alkali of tartar become volatile, I take it to be another, and have found it to be a far more difficult work; the common processes of performing it being wont to promise much more than they can make good; which I may justly say of some other, that private men have vaunted for great arcana, but upon trial have satisfied me so little, that I have divers times offered pretenders to make salt of tartar volatile, that without at all inquiring into their processes, I would lay good wagers, that they could do what they pretended; not only as divers philosophical Spagyrist require, without any visible additament, but by any additament whatever; provided I were allowed to bring the salt of tartar myself, and to examine the success, not by what may appear in the alembic and receiver, but by the weight of what would remain in the bottom. For I have convinced some of the more ingenuous artists, that the salt, that sublimed, was not indeed the alkali of tartar, but somewhat, that was by the operation produced, or rather extricated out of the additaments. But yet I would not be thought to affirm, that it is not possible to elevate the fixed salt of tartar. For sometimes I have been able to do it, even at the first distillation by an artificial additament perhaps more fixed than itself; but, though the operation was very grateful to me, as it shewed the possibility of the thing, yet the paucity of the salt sublimed and other circumstances, kept me from much valuing it upon any other account. And there are other ways, whereby experience has assured me, that salt of tartar may be raised. And if one of them were not so uncertain, that I can never promise before-hand, that it will at all succeed, and the other so laborious, difficult and costly, that few would attempt or be able to practise it, I should think them very valuable things; since by the former way most part of the salt of tartar was quickly brought over in the form of a liquor, whose piercing smell was scarce tolerable; and by the latter way some salt

of tartar of my own, being put into a retort, and urged but with such a fire as could be given in a portable sand-furnace, there remained not at the bottom near one half of the first weight, the additament having carried up the rest, partly in the form of a liquor, but chiefly in that of a white sublimate, which was neither ill-scented, nor in taste corrosive, or alkalizate, but very mild, and somewhat sweetish. And I do not much doubt, but that by other ways the fixed alkali of tartar may be elevated, especially if, before it be exposed to the last operation of the fire, it be dexterously freed from the most of those earthy and viscous parts, that I think may be justly suspected to clog and bind the truly saline ones.

BUT I have too long digressed, and therefore shall intimate only upon the by, that even the spurious sal tartari volatilized, that is made with spirit of vinegar, may, if it be well prepared, make amends for its empyreumatical smell and taste, and may, notwithstanding them, in divers cases be of no despicable use, both as a medicine, and a menstruum.

C H A P. VI.

BEFORE I draw towards a conclusion of these notes about volatility, perhaps it will not be amiss, to take notice of a phænomenon, which may much surprize, and sometimes disappoint those, that deal in sublimations, unless they be forewarned of it. For though it be taken for granted, and for the most part may justly be so, that by carefully mingling what is sublimed with what remains, and resubliming the mixture, a greater quantity of the body to be sublimed may be elevated the second time than was the first, and the third time than the second, and so onwards; yet I have not found this rule always to hold, but in some bodies, as particularly in some kinds of dulcified colcothar, the sal armoniac, would at the first sublimation carry up more of the fixed powder, than at the second or third. So that I was by several trials persuaded, when I found a very well and highly coloured powder elevated, to lay it by for use, and thereby save myself the labour of a prosecution, that would not only have proved useless, but prejudicial. And if I misremember not, by often repeated cohobations, if I may so call them, of sal armoniac upon crude or mineral antimony, though the sublimate, that was obtained by the first operation, was much of it variously, and in some places richly coloured; yet afterwards, the salt ascended from time to time paler and paler, leaving the antimony behind it. Which way of making some minerals more fixed and fusible I conceive may be of great use in some medicinal preparations, though I think it not fit to particularize them in this place: where my chief intent was, to mention the phænomenon itself, and invite you to consider, whether it may be ascribed to this, that by the reiterated action of the fire, and grinding together of the body to be raised, either the corpuscles of the sal armoniac, or those of the other body, may have those little hooked or equivalent particles, whereby they take hold of one another, broken or worn off; and whether the indisposedness of the colcotharine or antimonial parts to ascend, may not in some cases be promoted by their having, by frequent attritions, so smoothed their surfaces, that divers of them may closely adhere, like pieces of polished glass, and so make up clusters too unweildy to be so raised, as the single corpuscles they consist of, were. Which change may dispose them to be at once less volatile and more fusible. Which conjectures I mention to excite you to frame better, or at least to make amends for my omission of examining these, by trying whether the sal armoniac, grown white again, will be as fit as it was at first to carry up fresh bodies; and also by observing the weight of the unelevated part, and employing those other ways
of

of examen, which I should have done, if I had not then made sublimations for another end, than to clear up the doctrine of volatility.

AND here it may be profitable to some chemists, though not necessary to my subject, to intimate, that sublimations may be useful to make very fine comminutions of divers bodies. That those, that are elevated are reduced to a great fineness of parts, is obvious to be observed in many examples, whence it has been anciently, not absurdly, said, that sublimations are the chemists pestles, since (as in flowers of sulphur and antimony) they do really resolve the elevated bodies into exceeding fine flower, and much finer than pestles and mortars are wont to bring them to. But that, which I intend in this paragraph, is not a thing so obvious, since it is to observe, that sometimes even bodies so fixed, as not at all to ascend in sublimation, may yet be reduced by that operation into powders extremely fine. For exemplifying of which, I shall put you in mind, that though Spagyrics complain much of the difficulty of making a good calx of gold, and of the imperfection of the few ordinary processes prescribed to make it, (which would be more complained of, but that chemical physicians seldom attempt to prepare it,) yet we are informed by trial, that by exactly grinding a thick amalgam of gold and mercury with a competent weight, (at least equal to its own) of finely powdered sulphur, we may, by putting the mixture to sublime in a conveniently shaped glass, by degrees of fire obtain a cinaber, that will leave behind it a finer calx of gold, than will be had by some far more difficult processes.

BUT it is now time to draw towards a conclusion of our notes about volatility; which quality depends so much upon the contexture of the corpuscles, that are to be raised together, that even very ponderous bodies may serve for volatilizing additaments, if they be disposed to fasten themselves sufficiently to the bodies they are to carry up along with them. For, though lead be, save one, the heaviest solid we know of, and though quicksilver be the heaviest body in the world, except gold; yet trials have assured us, that quicksilver itself being united by amalgamation with a small proportion of lead, will, by a fire, that is none of the violentest, and in close vessels, be made to carry over with it some of the lead. As we clearly found by the increased weight of the quicksilver, that passed into the receiver; which, by the way, may make us cautious, how we conclude quicksilver to be pure, merely from its having been distilled over.

THERE remains but one body more heavy than those I come from naming, and that is gold; which, being also of a fixity so great, that it is indeed admirable, I do not wonder, that, not only the more wary naturalists, but the more severe among the chemists themselves, should think it incapable of being volatilized. But yet, if we consider, how very minute parts gold may be rationally supposed to consist of, and to be divisible into, methinks it should not seem impossible, that, if men could light on volatile salts endowed with figures fit to stick fast to the corpuscles of the gold, they would carry up with them bodies, whose solidity can scarce be more extraordinary, than their minuteness is: and in effect, we have made more than one menstruum, with which some particles of gold may be carried up. But when I employed that, which I recommended to you formerly, under the name of *menstruum peracutum*, (which consists mainly, and sometimes only of spirit of nitre, several times drawn from butter of antimony,) I was able, without a very violent fire, in a few hours, to elevate so much crude gold, as, in the neck of the retort, afforded me a considerable quantity of sublimate, which I have had red as blood, and whose consisting partly of gold, manifestly appeared by this, that I was able, with ease, to reduce that metal out of it.

IN reckoning up the instruments of volatilization, we must not quite leave out the mention of the air, which I have often observed to facilitate the elevation of some bodies,

dies, even in close vessels; wherein, though to fill them too full be judged, by many, a compendious practice, because the steams have a less way to ascend, yet experience has several times informed me, that, at least in some cases, they take wrong measures, and that (to pass by another cause of their disappointment) a large proportion of air, purposely left in the vessels, may more than compensate the greater space, that is to be ascended by the vapours or exhalations of the matter, that is to be distilled or sublimed. And if, in close vessels, the presence of the air may promote the ascension of bodies, it may well be expected, that the elevation of divers of them may be furthered, by being attempted in open vessels, to which the air has free access. And if we may give any credit to the probable relations of some chemists, the air does much contribute to the volatilization of some bodies, that are barely, though indeed for no short time, exposed to it. But the account, on which the air, by its bare presence, or peculiar operations, conduces to the volatilization of some bodies, is a thing very difficult to be determined, without having recourse to some notions about gravity and levity, and of the constitution of the corpuscles, that compose the air; which I take to be both very numerous, and no less various. And therefore I must not, in these occasional notes, launch out into such a subject, though, for fear I should be blamed for too much slighting my old acquaintance the air, I durst not quite omit the power it has to dispose some bodies to volatility.

A moderate attention may suffice, to make it be discerned, that, in what hath been hitherto delivered, I have, for the most part, considered the small portions of matter, to be elevated in volatilization, as entire corpuscles: and therefore it may be now pertinent, to intimate in a line or two, that there may be also cases, wherein a kind of volatilization, improperly so called, may be affected, by making use of such additaments, as break off, or otherwise divide the particles of the corpuscles to be elevated, and by adhering to, and so clogging one of the particles, to which it proves more congruous, enable the other, which is now brought to be more light, or disengaged, to ascend. This may be illustrated by what happens, when sal armoniac is well ground with lapis calaminaris, or with some fixed alkali, and then committed to distillation: for the sea-salt, that enters the composition of the sal armoniac, being detained by the stone or the alkali, there is a divorce made between the common salt and the urinous and fuliginous salts, that were incorporated with it, which being now disengaged from it, are easily elevated. I elsewhere mention, that I have observed, in man's urine, a kind of native sal armoniac, much less volatile than the fugitive, that is sublimed from man's blood, hartshorn, &c. and therefore supposing, that a separation of parts may be made by an alkali, as well in this salt, as in the common factitious sal armoniac, I put to fresh urine a convenient proportion (which was a plentiful one) of salt of pot-ashes, (that being then at hand,) and distilling the liquor, it yielded, according to expectation, a spirit more volatile than the phlegm, and of a very piercing taste; which way of obtaining a spirit without any violence of fire, and without either previously abstracting the phlegm, (as we are fain to do in fresh urine) or tediously waiting for the fermentation of stale urine, I taught some chemists, because of the usefulness of spirit of urine; which being obtained this innocent way, would probably be employed with much less suspicion of corrosiveness, than if in the operation I had made use of quicklime. Another illustration of what I was not long since saying, may be fetched from the experiment of making spirit of nitre, by mixing salt-petre with oil of vitriol, and distilling them together: for the oil does so divide or break the corpuscles of the nitre, that the now disposed particles of that salt, which amount to a great portion of the whole, will be made easily enough to ascend, even with a moderate fire of sand, and some-
times

times without any fire at all, in the form of spirits, exceeding unquiet, subtle, and apt to smoke away.

To which instances of this imperfect kind of volatilization more might be added, but that you may well think, I have detained you but too long already with indigested notes about one quality.

C H A P. VII.

THE last means of volatilizing bodies is, the operation of the fire or some other actual heat: but of this, which is obvious, it would be superfluous to discourse. Only this I shall intimate, that there may be bodies, which, in such degrees of fire, as are wont to be given in the vulgar operations of chemists, will not be elevated, which yet may be forced up by such violent and lasting fires, as are employed by the melters of ores, and founders of guns, and sometimes by glass-makers. And, on this consideration, I shall here observe to you, since I did not do it at my entrance on these notes, that chemists are wont to speak, and I have accordingly been led to treat of volatility and fixity, in a popular sense of those terms. For, if we would consider the matter more strictly, I presume we should find, that volatility and fixity are but relative qualities, which are to be estimated, especially the former of them, by the degree of fire, to which the body, whereto we ascribe one or other of those qualities, is exposed; and therefore it is much more difficult, than men are aware of, to determine accurately, when a body ought to be accounted volatile, and when not; since there is no determinate degree of heat agreed on, nor indeed easy to be devised, that may be as a standard, whereby to measure volatility and fixedness: and it is obvious, that a body, that remains fixed in one degree of fire, may be forced up by another. To which may be added, agreeably to what I lately began to observe, that a body may pass for absolutely fixed among the generality of chemists, and yet be unable to persevere in the fires of founders and glass-makers: which brings into my mind, that not having observed, that chemists have examined the fixity of other bodies, than metalline ones, by the cupel, I had the curiosity to put dry salt of tartar upon it, and found, as I expected, that, in no long time, it manifestly wasted in so vehement a heat, wherein also the air came freely at it, (though quick-lime, handled after the same way, lost not of its weight; and having well mixed one ounce of good salt of tartar with treble its weight of tobacco-pipe clay, we kept them but for two, or, at most, three hours, in a strong fire; yet, the crucible being purposely left uncovered, we found the salt of tartar so wasted, that the remaining mixture (which was not fluxed) afforded us not near a quarter of an ounce of salt. And indeed I scarce doubt, but that in strictness divers of those bodies, that pass for absolutely fixed, are but semi-fixed, or, at least, but comparatively and relatively fixed, that is, in reference to such degrees of fire, as they are wont to be exposed to in distillations, sublimations, &c. of chemists; not such as are given in the raging fires of founders and glass-makers. And perhaps, even the fires of glass-makers, and say-masters themselves, are not the most intense, that may possibly be made in a short time, provided there be but small portions of matter to be wrought on by them. And, in effect, I know very few bodies, besides gold, that will persevere totally fixed in the vehementest degrees of fire, that trials have made me acquainted with. And I elsewhere tell you, that, though tin, in our chemical reverberatories themselves, is wont to be reduced but into a calx, that is reputed very fixed; yet in those intense fires, that a virtuoso of my acquaintance uses in his tin-mines, there is not seldom found quantities of tin carried up to a notable height in the form of a whitish powder, which, being in good masses, forced off from the

places to which it had fastened itself, does, by a skilful reduction, yield many a pound weight of good malleable metal, which seemed to me to be rather more, than less, fine than ordinary tin.

P O S T S C R I P T.

Relating to page 296, and here annexed for their sakes, who have a mind to repeat the experiment there delivered, that so they may know the quantities employed in it.

WITH two parts of this crocus, we ground very well three parts of sal armoniac; and having sublimed them in a strong fire, we took off the high coloured sublimate, and put in either an equal weight, or a weight exceeding it by half, to the caput mortuum, we found, after the second sublimation, which was also high coloured, that, of an ounce of crocus, we had raised six drams, that is, three quarters of the whole weight.

E X P E R I M E N T A L N O T E S

O F T H E

Mechanical Origin or Production of F I X E D N E S S.

C H A P. I.

FIXITY being the opposite quality to volatility, what we have discoursed about the latter, will make the nature of the former more easily understood, and upon that account allow me to make somewhat the quicker dispatch of what I have to say of it.

THE qualifications, that conduce most to the fixity of a portion of matter, seem to be these.

FIRST, the grossness, or the bulk of the corpuscles it consists of. For, if these be too big, they will be too unweildy, and unapt to be carried up into the air by the action of such minute particles as those of the fire, and will also be unfit to be buoyed up by the weight of the air; as we see, that vapours, whilst they are such, are small enough to swim in the air, but can no longer be sustained by it, when they convene into drops of rain, or flakes of snow. But here it is to be observed, that, when I speak of the corpuscles, that a fixed body consists of, I mean not either its elementary or its hypostatical principles, as such, but only those very little masses or clusters of particles, of what kind soever they be, that stick so firmly to one another, as not to be divisible and dissipable by that degree of fire, in which the body is said to be fixed; so that each of those little concretions, though it may itself be made up of two, three, or more particles of a simpler nature, is considered here *per modum unius*, or as one entire corpuscle. And this is one qualification conducive to the fixedness of a body.

THE next is the ponderousness, or solidity of the corpuscles it is made up of. For if these be very solid, and (which solid and compact bodies usually are) of a considerable specifick gravity, they will be too heavy to be carried up by the effluvia or the action of the

the fire, and their ponderousness will make them as unweildy, and indisposed to be elevated by such agents, as the grossness of their bulk would make bigger corpuscles, but of a proportionably inferior specific weight. On which account, the calces of some metals and minerals, as gold, silver, &c. though, by the operation of solvents, or of the fire, or of both, reduced to powders exceedingly subtile, will resist such vehement fires, as will easily drive up bigger, but less heavy and compact corpuscles, than those calces consist of.

THE third qualification, that conduces to the fixity of a body, belongs to its integral parts, not barely as they are several parts of it, but as they are aggregated or contexted into one body. For, the qualification, I mean, is the ineptitude of the component corpuscles for avolation, by reason of their branchedness, irregular figures, crookedness, or other inconvenient shape, which entangles the particles among one another, and makes them difficult to be extracted; by which means, if one of them do ascend, others, wherewith it is complicated, must ascend with it; and, whatever be the account, on which divers particles stick firmly together, the aggregate will be too heavy or unweildy to be raised. Which I therefore take notice of, because that, though usually it is on the roughness and irregularity of corpuscles, that their cohesion depends; yet it sometimes happens, that the smoothness and flatness of their surfaces makes them so stick together, as to resist a total divulsion; as may be illustrated by what I have said of the cohesion of polished marbles, and the plates of glass, and by the fixity of glass itself in the fire.

FROM this account of the causes or requisites of fixity, may be deduced the following means of giving or adding fixation to a body, that was before either volatile, or less fixed. These means may be reduced to two general heads; first, the action of the fire, as the parts of the body, exposed to it are thereby made to operate variously on one another. And next, the association of the particles of a volatile body with those of some proper additament: which term [of proper] I rather employ than that, one would expect [of fixed;] because it will ere long appear, that, in certain cases, some volatile bodies may more conduce to the fixation of other volatile bodies, than some fixed ones do. But these two instruments of fixation being but general, I shall propose four or five more particular ones.

C H A P. II.

AND first, in some cases it may conduce to fixation, that, either by an additament, or by the operation of the fire, the parts of a body be brought to touch each other in large portions of their surfaces. For, that from such a contract, there will follow such a mutual cohesion, as will, at least, indispose the touching corpuscles to suffer a total divulsion, may appear probable from what we lately noted of the cohesion of pieces of marble and glass, and from some other phænomena belonging to the history of firmness, from which we may properly enough borrow some instances, at least, for illustration, in the doctrine of fixedness, in regard, that usually, though not always, the same things, that make a body firm, give it some degree of fixity, by keeping it from being dissipated by the wonted degrees of heat, and agitation it meets with in the air. But, to return to the contact we were speaking of, I think it not impossible, (though you may perhaps think it strange) that the bare operation of the fire may, in some cases, procure a cohesion among the particles, (and consequently make them more fixed) as well as in others disjoin them, and thereby make them more volatile. For, as in some bodies, the figures and sizes of the corpuscles may be such, that the action of the fire may rub or tear off the little beards or hooks, or other particles, that entangle them,

and by that means make it more easy for the corpuscles to be disengaged and fly upwards; so, in other bodies, the size and shape of the corpuscles may be such, that the agitation, caused by the fire, may rub them one against the other, so as by mutual attrition to grind, as it were, their surfaces, and make them so broad and smooth, if not also so flat, as that the contact of the corpuscles shall come to be made according to a large portion of their superficies, from whence will naturally follow a firm cohesion. Which I shall illustrate by what we may observe among those, that grind glasses for telescopes and microscopes. For, these artificers, by long rubbing a piece of glass against a metalline dish, or concave vessel, do, by this attrition, at length bring the two bodies to touch one another in so many parts of their congruous surfaces, that they will stick firmly to one another, so as sometimes to oblige the workman to use violence to disjoin them. And this instance (which is not the sole I could alledge) may suffice to shew, how a cohesion of corpuscles may be produced by the mutual adaptation of their congruous surfaces. And if two grosser corpuscles, or a greater number of smaller, be thus brought to stick together, you will easily believe, their aggregate will prove too heavy or unwieldy for avolation. And to shew, that the fire may effect a lævigation in the surfaces of some corpuscles, I have sometimes caused minium, and some other calces, that I judged convenient, to be melted for a competent time, in a vehement fire conveniently administred; whereby, according to expectation, that, which was before a dull and incoherent powder, was reduced into much grosser corpuscles, multitudes of whose grains appeared smooth, glittering, and almost specular, like those of fine litharge of gold; and the masses, that these grains composed, were usually solid enough, and of difficult fusion. And when we make glass of lead *per se*, (which I elsewhere teach you how to do) it is plain, that the particles of the lead are reduced to a great smoothness; since, wheresoever you break the glass, the surfaces, produced at the crack, will not be jagged, but smooth, and considerably specular. Nor do I think it impossible, that even, when the fire does not make any great attrition of the corpuscles of the body to be fixed, it may yet occasion their sticking together, because by long tumbling them up and down in various manners, it may at length, after multitudes of revolutions, and differing occurrences, bring those of their surfaces together, which, by reason of their breadth, smoothness, or congruity of figure, are fit for mutual cohesion; and when once they come to stick, there is no necessity, that the same causes, that were able to make them pass by one another, when their contact was but according to an inconsiderable part of their surfaces, should have the same effect now, when their contact is full; though perhaps, if the degree of fire were much encreased, a more vehement agitation would surmount this cohesion, and dissipate again these clusters of coalescent corpuscles.

THESE conjectures will, perhaps, appear less extravagant, if you consider what happens in the preparation of quicksilver precipitated *per se*. For there running mercury, being put into a conveniently shaped glass, is exposed to a moderate fire for a considerable time: (for I have sometimes found six or seven weeks to be too short a one.) In this degree of fire the parts are variously tumbled, and made many of them to ascend, till convening into drops on the sides of the glass, their weight carries them down again; but, at length, after many mutual occurrences, if not also attritions, some of the parts begin to stick together in the form of a red powder, and then more and more mercurial particles are fastened to it, till at length all, or by much the greater part of the mercury, is reduced into the like præcipitate, which, by this cohesion of the parts, being grown more fixed, will not, with the same degree of heat, be made to rise and circulate, as the mercury would before; and yet, as I elsewhere note, I have found, by trial, that, with a greater and competent degree of heat, this præcipitate

per

per se, would, without the help of any volatilizing additament, be easily reduced into running mercury again. Chemists and physicians, who agree in supposing this præcipitate to be made without any additament, will, perchance, scarce be able to give a more likely account of the consistency and degree of fixity, that is obtained in the mercury; in which, since no body is added to it, there appears not to be wrought any but a mechanical change. And though, I confess, I have not been without suspicions, that in philosophical strictness this præcipitate may not be made *per se*, but that some penetrating igneous particles, especially saline, may have associated themselves with the mercurial corpuscles; yet even upon this supposition it may be said, that these particles contribute to the effect, that is produced, but by facilitating or procuring, by their opportune interposition, the mutual cohesion of corpuscles, that would not otherwise stick to one another.

PERHAPS it will not be altogether impertinent to add on this occasion, that, as for the generality of chemists, as well others, as Helmontians, that assert the transmutation of all metals into gold by the philosopher's stone, methinks, they may grant it to be probable, that a new and fit contexture of the parts of a volatile body may, especially by procuring a full contact among them, very much contribute to make it highly fixed. For to omit what is related by less credible authors, it is averred, upon his own trial, by *Helmont*, who pretended not to the elixir, that a grain of the powder, that was given him, transmuted a pound (if I mis-remember not) of running mercury; where the proportion of the elixir to the mercury was so inconsiderable, that it cannot reasonably be supposed, that every corpuscle of the quicksilver, that before was volatile, was made extremely fixed, merely by its coalition with a particle of the powder, since, to make one grain suffice for this coalition, the parts it must be divided into must be scarce conceiveably minute, and therefore each single part not likely to be fixed itself, or at least more likely to be carried up by the vehemently agitated mercury, than to restrain that from avolation; whereas, if we suppose the elixir to have made such a commotion among the corpuscles of the mercury, as (having made them perhaps somewhat change their figure, and expelled some inconvenient particles,) to bring them to stick to one another, according to very great portions of their surfaces, and entangle one another, it will not be disagreeable to the mechanical doctrine of fixity, that the mercury should endure the fire as well as gold, on the score of its new texture, which, supposing the story true, appears to have been introduced, by the new colour, specific gravity, indissolubleness in aqua-fortis, and other qualities, wherein gold differs from mercury, especially malleableness, which, according to our notes about that quality usually requires, that the parts, from whose union it results, be either hooked, branched, or otherwise adapted and fitted to make them take fast hold of one another, or stick close to one another. And since, in the whole mass of the factitious gold, all, save one grain, must be materially the same body, which, before the projection was made, was quicksilver, we may see, how great a proportion of volatile matter may, by an inconsiderable quantity of fixing additament, acquire such a new disposition of its parts, as to become most fixed. And however, this instance will agree much better with the mechanical doctrine about fixity, than with that vulgar opinion of the chemists, (wherewith it will not at all comply,) that if, in a mixture, the volatile part do much exceed the fixed, it will carry up that, or at least, a good portion thereof, with it; and on the contrary. But though this rule holds in many cases, where there is no peculiar indisposition to the effect, that is aimed at; yet if the mechanical affections of the bodies be ill suited to such a purpose, our philosophical experiment manifestly proves, that the rule will not hold, since so great a multitude of grains of mercury, instead of

carrying

carrying up with them one grain of the elixir, are detained by it in the strongest fire! And thus much for the first way of fixing volatile bodies.

C H A P. III.

THE second way of producing fixity is by expelling, breaking, or otherwise disabling those volatile corpuscles, that are too indisposed to be fixed themselves, or are fitted to carry up with them such particles, as would not, without their help, ascend. That the expulsion of such parts is a proper means to make the aggregate of those, that remain more fixed, I presume you will not put me solicitously to prove; and we have a manifest instance of it in foot, where, though many active parts were by the violence of the fire and current of the air carried up together by the more volatile parts; yet, when foot is well distilled in a retort, a competent time being given for the extricating and avolation of the other parts, there will at the bottom remain a substance, that will not now fly away, as it formerly did. And here let me observe, that the recesses of the fugitive corpuscles may contribute to the fixation of a body, not barely because the remaining matter is freed from so many unfixed, if not also volatilizing parts; but, as it may often happen, that upon their recesses the pores or intervals, they left behind them, are filled up with more solid or heavy matter, and the body becomes, as more homogeneous, so more close and compact. And whereas I intimated, that, besides the expulsion of unfit corpuscles, they may be otherwise disabled from hindering the fixation of the mass they belong to, I did it, because it seems very possible, that in some cases they may, by the action of the fire, be so broken, as with their fragments to fill up the pores or intervals of the body they appertained to; or may make such coalitions with the particles of a convenient additament, as to be no impediment to fixity of the whole mass, though they remain in it. Which possibly you will think may well happen, when you shall have perused the instances annexed to the fourth way of fixing bodies.

THE third means of fixing, or lessening the volatility of bodies, is by preserving that rest among the parts, whose contrary is necessary to their volatilization. And this may be done by preventing or checking that heat, or other motion, which external agents strive to introduce into the parts of the proposed body. But this means tending rather to hinder the actual avolation of a portion of matter, or, at most, procure a temporary abatement of its volatility, than to give it a stable fixity, I shall not any longer insist on it.

THE fourth way of producing fixity in a body, is by putting to it such an appropriated additament, whether fixed or volatile, that the corpuscles of the body may be put among themselves, or with those of the additament, into a complicated state, or entangled contexture. This being the usual and principal way of producing fixity, we shall dwell somewhat the longer upon it, and give instances of several degrees of fixation. For, though they do not produce that quality in the strictest acceptation of the word, fixity; yet it is useful in our present enquiry, to take notice, by what means that volatility comes to be gradually abated, since that may facilitate our understanding, how the volatility of a body comes to be totally abated, and consequently the body to be fixed.

C H A P. IV.

AND first, we find, that a fixed additament, if its parts be conveniently shaped, may easily give a degree of fixity to a very volatile body. Thus spirit of nitre, that
will

will of itself easily enough fly away in the air, having its saline particles associated with those of fixed nitre, or salt of tartar, will with the alkali compose a salt of a nitrous nature, which will endure to be melted in a crucible, without being deprived even of its spirits. And I have found, that the spirits of nitre, that abound in aqua-fortis, being concoagulated, with the silver they corrode, though one would not expect, that such subtile corpuscles should stick fast to so compact and solid a body as silver; yet crystals produced by their coalition, being put into a retort, may be kept a pretty while in fusion, before the metal will let go the nitrous spirits. When we poured oil of vitriol upon the calx of vitriol, though many phlegmatick and other sulphureous particles were driven away by the excited heat; yet the saline parts, that combined with the fixed ones of the colcothar, stuck fast enough to them, not to be easily driven away. And if oil of vitriol be in a due proportion dropped upon salt of tartar, there results a *tartarum vitriolatum*, wherein the acid and alkalizate parts cohere so strongly, that it is not an ordinary degree of fire will be able to disjoin them. Inasmuch, that divers chemists have (though very erroneously) thought this compounded salt to be indestructible. But a less heavy liquor than the ponderous oil of vitriol may, by an alkali, be more strongly detained, than that oil itself; experience having assured me, that spirit of salt being dropped to satiety upon a fixed alkali, (I used either that of nitre or of tartar,) there would be made so strict an union, that, having, without additaments, distilled the resulting salt with a strong and lasting fire, it appeared not at all considerably to be wrought upon, and was not so much as melted.

BUT it is not the bare mixture or commision of volatile particles with fixed ones, (yea though the former be predominant in quantity,) that will suffice to elevate the latter. For, unless the figures of the latter be congruous and fitted to fasten to the other, the volatile parts will fly away in the heat, and leave the rest as fixed as before: as when sand or ashes are wetted or drenched with water, they quickly part with that water, without parting with any degree of their fixity. But on the other side, it is not always necessary, that the body, which is fitted to destroy, or much abate the volatility of another substance, should be itself fixed. For, if there be a skilful or lucky coaptation of the figures of the particles of both the bodies, these particles may take such hold of one another, as to compose corpuscles, that will neither by reason of their strict union be divided by heat; nor by reason of their resulting grossness be elevated even by a strong fire, or at least by such a degree of heat, as would have sufficed to raise more indisposed bodies than either of the separate ingredients of the mixture. This observation, if duly made out, does so much favour our doctrine about the mechanical origin of fixation, and may be of such use, not only to chemists, in some of their operations, but to philosophers, in assigning the causes of divers phaenomena of nature, that it may be worth while to exemplify it by some instances.

THE first whereof I shall take from an usual practice of the chemists themselves: which I the rather do, to let you see, that such known experiments are too often overlooked by them, that make them, but yet may hint or confirm theories to those, that reflect on them. The instance, I here speak of, is that, which is afforded by the vulgar preparation of bezoardicum minerale. For, though the rectified butter, or oil of antimony, and the spirit of nitre, that are put together to make this white præcipitate, are both of them distilled liquors; yet the copious powder, that results from their union, is, by that union of volatile parts, so far fixed, that, after they have edulcorated it with water, they prescribe the calcining of it in a crucible for five or six hours: which operation it could not bear, unless it had attained to a considerable fixation. This discourse supposes with the generality of chemists, that the addition of a due quantity of spirit of nitre is necessary to be employed in making the bezoardicum

cum minerale. But if it be a true observation, which is attributed to the learned *Gunterus Billichius*, (but which I had no furnace at hand to examine, when I heard of it,) if, I say, it be true, that a bezoardicum minerale may be obtained, without spirit of nitre, barely by a slow evaporation, made in a glass dish, of the more fugitive parts of the oil of antimony; this instance will not indeed be proper in this place, but yet will belong to the second of the foregoing ways of introducing fixity. I proceed now to alledge other particulars, in favour of the above-mentioned observation.

If you take strong spirit of salt, that, when the glass is unstopped, will smoke of itself in the cold air, and satiate it with the volatile spirit of urine, the superfluous moisture being abstracted, you will obtain by this preparation (which, you may remember, I long since communicated to you, and divers other virtuosi,) a compounded salt, scarce, if at all, distinguishable from sal armoniac, and which will not, as the salts it consists of will do, before their coalition, easily fly up of itself into the air, but will require a not despicable degree of fire to sublime it.

Of these semivolatile compositions of salt I have made, and elsewhere mentioned, others, which I shall not here repeat, but pass on to other instances, pertinent to our present design.

I lately mentioned, that the volatility of the spirits of nitre may be very much abated, by bringing them to coagulate into crystals, with particles of corroded silver; but I shall now add, that I guessed, and by trial found, that these nitrous spirits may be made much more fixed by the addition of the spirit of salt, which, if it be good, will of itself smoke in the air. For, having dissolved a convenient quantity of crystals of silver in distilled water, and precipitated them, not with a solution of salt, but the spirit of salt; the phlegm being abstracted, and some few of the looser saline particles; though the remaining mass were pressed with a violent fire, that kept the retort red-hot for a good while; yet the nitrous and saline spirits would by no means be driven away from the silver, but continued in fusion with it; and when the mass was taken out, these spirits did so abound in it, that it had no appearance of a metal, but looked rather like a thick piece of horn.

THE next instance I shall name is afforded us by that kind of turbith, which may be made by oil of vitriol, instead of the aqua-fortis employed in the common turpethum minerale. For, though oil of vitriol be a distilled liquor, and mercury a body volatile enough; yet, when we abstracted four or five parts of oil of vitriol from one of quicksilver, (especially if the operation were repeated,) and then washed off as much as we could of the saline particles of the oil of vitriol; yet those, that, remained adhering to the mercury made it far more fixed, than either of the liquors had been before, and enabled it even in a crucible, to endure such a degree of fire, before it could be driven away, as, I confess, I somewhat wondered at. The like turbith may be made with oil of sulphur *per campanam*. But this is nothing to what *Helmont* tells us of the operation of his alkahest, where he affirms, that that menstruum, which is volatile enough, being abstracted from running mercury, not only coagulates it, but leaves it fixed, so that it will endure the brunt of fires actuated by bellows, (*omnem folium ignem*.) If this be certain, it will not be a slender proof, that fixity may be mechanically produced; and however, the argument will be good in reference to the *Helmontian* Spagyrist. For if, as one would expect, there do remain some particles of the menstruum with those of the metal, it will not be denied, that two volatile substances may perfectly fix one another. And if, as *Helmont* seems to think, the menstruum be totally abstracted, this supposition will the more favour our doctrine about fixity; since, if there be no material additament left with the quicksilver, the fixation cannot so reasonably

ably be ascribed to any thing, as to some new mechanical modification, and particularly to some change of texture introduced into the mercury itself.

AND that you may think this the less improbable, I will now proceed to some instances, whereof the first shall be this; that, having put a mixture made of a certain proportion of two dry, as well as volatile bodies, (*viz.* sal armoniac, and flower or very fine powder of sulphur,) to half its weight of common running mercury, and elevated this mixture three or four times from it, (in a conveniently shaped, and not over-wide glass) the mercury, that lay in the bottom, in the form of a ponderous and somewhat purplish powder, was, by this operation, so fixed, that it long endured a strong fire, which at length was made so strong, that it melted the glass, and kept it melted, without being strong enough to force up the mercury: which, by some trials, not so proper to be here mentioned, seemed to have its salivating and emetick powers extraordinarily infringed, and sometimes quite suppressed. But this only upon the bye. In all the other instances, (wherewith I shall conclude these notes,) I shall employ one menstruum, oil of vitriol, and shew you the efficacy of it in fixing some parts of volatile bodies with some parts of itself; by which examples it may appear, that a volatile body may not only lessen the volatility of another body, as in the lately mentioned case of our spirituous sal armoniac; but that two substances, that apart were volatile, may compose a third, that will not only be less volatile, but considerably, if not altogether, fixed.

We mixed then, by degrees, about equal parts of oil of vitriol and oil of turpentine: and though each of them single, especially the latter, will ascend with a moderate fire in a sand-furnace; yet, after the distillation was ended, we had a considerable quantity, sometimes, if I mis-remember not, a fifth or sixth part, of a caput mortuum, black as a coal, and whereof a great part was of a scarce to be expected fixedness in the fire.

To give a higher proof of the disposition, that oil of vitriol has to let some of its parts grow fixed by combination with those of an exceeding volatile additament, I mixed this liquor with an equal or double weight of highly rectified spirit of wine, and not only after, but sometimes without, previous digestion, I found, that the fluid parts of the mixture being totally abstracted, there would remain a pretty quantity of a black substance so fixed, as to afford just cause of wonder.

AND because camphire is esteemed the most fugitive of consistent bodies, in regard that, being but laid in the free air, without any help of the fire, it will fly all away; I tried, what oil of vitriol, abstracted from camphire, would do; and found at the bottom of the retort a greater quantity, than one would expect, of a substance as black as pitch, and almost as far from the volatility, as from the colour of camphire, though it appeared not, that any of the gum had sublimed into the neck of the retort.

FROM all which instances it seems manifestly enough to follow, that in many cases there needs nothing to make associated particles, whether volatile or not, become fixed, but either to implicate or entangle them among themselves, or bring them to touch one another; according to large portions of their surfaces, or by both these ways conjointly, or by some others, to procure the firm cohæsion of so many particles, that the resulting corpuscles be too big or heavy to be, by the degree of fire, wherein they are said to be fixed, driven up into the air.

EXPERIMENTS and NOTES

ABOUT THE

MECHANICAL ORIGIN OF PRODUCTION

OF

CORROSIVENESS and CORROSIBILITY.

SECTION I.

About the MECHANICAL ORIGIN *of* CORROSIVENESS.

I DO not, in the following notes, treat of corrosiveness in their strict sense of the word, who ascribe this quality only to liquors, that are notably acid or sour, such as aqua-fortis, spirit of salt, vinegar, juice of lemons, &c. but, that I may not be obliged to overlook urinous, oleous, and divers other solvents, or to coin new names for their differing solutive powers, I presume to employ corrosiveness in a greater latitude, so as to make it almost equivalent to the solutive power of liquors, referring other menstruums to those, that are corrosive or fretting, (though not always as to the most proper, yet) as to the principal and best known species; which I the less scruple here to do, because I have * elsewhere more distinctly enumerated and sorted the solvents of bodies.

THE attributes, that seem the most proper to qualify a liquor to be corrosive, are all of them mechanical, being such as are these, that follow:

FIRST, that the menstruum consist of, or abound with corpuscles not too big to get in at the pores or commissures of the body to be dissolved; nor yet be so very minute, as to pass through them, as the beams of light do through glass; or to be unable, by reason of their great slenderness and flexibility, to disjoin the parts they invade.

SECONDLY, that these corpuscles be of a shape fitting them to insinuate themselves, more or less, into the pores or commissures above-mentioned, in order to the dissociating of the solid parts.

THIRDLY, that they have a competent degree of solidity to disjoin the particles of the body to be dissolved; which solidity of solvent corpuscles is somewhat distinct from their bulk, mentioned in the first qualification; as may appear, by comparing a stalk of wheat and a metalline wire of the same diameter, or a flexible wand of osier, of the bigness of one's little finger, with a rigid rod of iron of the same length and thickness.

FOURTHLY, that the corpuscles of the menstruum be agile and advantaged for motion, (such as is fit to disjoin the parts of the invaded body) either by their shape, or their minuteness, or their fitness to have their action befriended by adjuvant causes; such as may be (first) the pressure of the atmosphere, which may impel them into the pores of bodies not filled with a substance so resisting as common air: as we see, that water will, by the prevalent pressure of the ambient, whether air or water, be raised to the height of some inches in capillary glasses, and in the pores of sponges, whose consistent parts, being of easier cession than the sides of glass-pipes, those pores will be enlarged, and consequently those sides disjoined, as appears by the dilatation and swelling

* This refers to an essay of the author's about the usefulness of chemistry to, &c.

swelling of the sponge: and (secondly) the agitation, that the intruding corpuscles may be fitted to receive in those pores or commissures, by the transcurfion of some subtile aetherial matter; or by the numerous knocks and other pulses of the swimming or tumbling corpuscles of the menstruum itself, (which, being a fluid body, must have its small parts perpetually and variously moved) whereby the engaged corpuscles, like so many little wedges and leavers, may be enabled to wrench open, or force asunder the little parts between which they have insinuated themselves. But I shall not here prosecute this theory, (which, to be handled fully, would require a discourse apart) since these conjectures are proposed but to make it probable in the general, that the corrosiveness of bodies may be deduced from mechanical principles: but whether best from the newly proposed ones, or any other, need not be anxiously considered in these notes, where the things mainly intended and relied on are the experiments and phænomena themselves.

EXPERIMENT I.

It is obvious, that, though the recently expressed juice of grapes be sweet, whilst it retains the texture, that belongs to it, as it is new, (especially, if it be made of some sorts of grapes, that grow in hot regions;) yet, after fermentation, it will, in tract of time, as it were spontaneously, degenerate into vinegar. In which liquor, to a multitude of the more solid corpuscles of the must, their frequent and mutual attritions may be supposed to have given edges like those of the blades of swords or knives; and in which, perhaps, the confused agitation, that preceded, extricated, or, as it were, unsheathed some acid particles, that (derived from the sap of the vine, or, perchance, more originally from the juice of the earth,) were at first in the must, but lay concealed, and, as it were, sheathed among the other particles, wherewith they were associated, when they were pressed out of the grapes. Now this liquor, that by the fore-mentioned, or other like mechanical changes, is become vinegar, does so abound with corpuscles, which, on the account of their edges, or their otherwise sharp and penetrative shape, are acid and corrosive, that the better sort of it will, without any preparation, dissolve coral, crab's-eyes, and even some stones, lapis stellaris in particular, as also minium, or the calx of lead, and even crude copper, as we have often tried. And not only the distilled spirit of it will do those things more powerfully, and perform some other things, that mere vinegar cannot; but the saline particles, wont to remain after distillation, may, by being distilled and cohobated *per se*, or by being skilfully united with the foregoing spirit, be brought to a menstruum of no small efficacy in the dissolution, and other preparations of metalline bodies, too compact for the mere spirit itself to work upon.

FROM divers other sweet things also may vinegar be made; and even of honey, skilfully fermented with a small proportion of common water, may be made a vinegar stronger than many of the common wine-vinegars; as has been affirmed to me by a very candid physician, who had occasion to deal much in liquors.

EXPERIMENT II.

NOR only several dry woods, and other bodies, that most of them pass for insipid, but honey and sugar themselves afford by distillation acid spirits, that will dissolve coral, pearls, &c. and will also corrode some metals and metalline bodies themselves; as I have often found by trial. So that the violent operation of the fire, that destroys what they call the form of the distilled body, and works, as a mechanical agent, by agitating, breaking, dissipating, and under a new constitution re-assembling the parts, procures for the distiller an acid corrosive menstruum; which, whether it be brought to

pass by making the corpuscles rub one another into the figure of little sharp blades, or by splitting some solid parts into sharp or cutting corpuscles, or by unsheathing, as it were, some parts, that, during the former texture of the body, did not appear to be acid; or whether it be rather effected by some other mechanical way, may in due time be further considered.

E X P E R I M E N T III.

IT is observed by refiners, goldsmiths and chemists, that aqua-fortis and aqua-regia, which are corrosive menstrooms, dissolve metals, the former of them silver, and the latter gold, much more speedily and copiously, when an external heat gives their intestine motions a new degree of vehemency or velocity, which is but a mechanical thing; and yet this superadded measure of agitation is not only in the above-mentioned instances a powerfully assistant cause in the solutions made by the lately mentioned corrosive liquors, but is that, without which some menstrooms are not wont sensibly to corrode some bodies at all, as we have tried in keeping quicksilver in three or four times its weight of oil of vitriol; since in this menstruum I found not the mercury to be dissolved, or corroded, though I kept it a long time in the cold: whereas, when the oil of vitriol was excited by a convenient heat, (which was not faint) it corroded the mercury into a fine white calx or powder, which by the affusion of fair water, would be presently turned into a yellowish calx of the colour and nature of a turbith. I remember also, that having, for trial's sake, dissolved in a weak spirit of salt a fourth part of weight of fine crystals of nitre, we found, that it would not in the cold (at least during a good while, that we waited for its operation) dissolve leaf-gold; but when the menstruum was a little heated at the fire, the solution proceeded readily enough. And in some cases, though the external heat be but small, yet there may intervene a brisk heat, and much co-operate in the dissolution of a body; as for instance, of quicksilver in aqua-fortis. For it is no prodigy to find, that when a full proportion of that fluid metal has been taken, the solution, though at first altogether liquid, and 'as to sense uniform, comes to have, after a while, a good quantity of coagulated or crystallized matter at the bottom, of which the cause may be, that in the very act of corrosion there is excited an intense degree of heat, which conferring a new degree of agitation to the menstruum, makes it dissolve a good deal more, than afterwards, when the conflict is over, it is able to keep up.

E X P E R I M E N T IV.

WE have observed also, that agitation does in some cases so much promote the dissolutive power of saline bodies, that though they be not reduced to that subtilty of parts, to which a strong distillation brings them; yet they may in their grosser and cruder form have the power to work on metals; as I elsewhere shew, that by barely boiling some solutions of salts of a convenient structure, as nitre, sal armoniac, &c. with foliated gold, silver, &c. we have corroded these metals, and can dissolve some others. And by boiling crude copper (in filings) with sublimate and common water, we were able, in no long time, to make a solution of the metal.

E X P E R I M E N T V.

SOMETIMES also, so languid an agitation, as that, which seems but sufficient to keep a liquor in the state of fluidity, may suffice to give some dry bodies a corroding power, which they could not otherwise exercise; as in the way of writing one's name (or a motto) upon the blade of a knife with common sublimate: for, if having very thinly overlaid which side you please with bees-wax, you write with a bodkin, or some pointed

pointed thing upon it; the wax being thereby removed from the strokes made by the sharp body, it is easy to etch with sublimate; since you need but strew the powder of it upon the place bared of the wax, and wet it well with mere common water; for strong vinegar is not necessary. For, after a while, all the parts of the blade, that should not be fretted, being protected by the case or film of wax, the sublimate will corrode only where way has been made for it by the bodkin, and the letters will be more or less deeply engraven (or rather etched) according to the time the sublimate is suffered to lie on. And if you aim only at a legible impression, a few minutes of an hour (as four or five) may serve the turn.

EXPERIMENT VI.

THIS brings into my mind an observation I have sometimes had occasion to make, that I found more useful than common; and it is, that divers bodies, whether distilled or not distilled, that are not thought capable of dissolving other bodies, because in moderate degrees of heat they will not work on them, may yet, by intense degrees of heat, be brought to be fit solvents for them. To which purpose I remember, that having a distilled liquor, which was rather sweet to the taste, than either acid, lixivate, or urinous, though for that reason it seemed unfit to work on pearls, and accordingly did not dissolve them in a considerable time, wherein they were kept with it in a more than ordinarily warm digestion; yet the glass being for many hours (amounting perhaps to some days) kept in such an heat of sand as made the liquor boil, we had a dissolution of pearls, that uniting with the menstruum, made it a very valuable liquor. And though the solvents of crude gold, wont to be employed by chemists, are generally distilled liquors, that are acid, and in the lately mentioned solvent, made of crude salts and common water, acidity seemed to be the predominant quality (which makes the use of solutions made in aqua-regia, &c. suspected by many physicians and chemists;) yet fitly chosen alcalizate bodies themselves, as repugnant as they use to be to acids, without the help of any liquor, will be enabled, by a melting fire, in no long time, to penetrate and tear asunder the parts even of crude gold; so that it may afterwards be easily taken up in liquors, that are not acid, or even by water itself.

EXPERIMENT VII.

THE tract about salt-petre, that gave occasion to these annotations, may furnish us with an eminent instance of the production of solvents. For, though pure salt-petre itself, when dissolved in water, is not observed to be a menstruum for the solution of the metals hereafter to be named, or so much as of coral itself; yet when, by a convenient distillation, its parts are split, if I may so speak, and by attrition, or other mechanical ways of working on them, reduced to the shapes of acid and alcalizate salts, it then affords two sorts of menstrooms, of very differing natures, which, betwixt them, dissolve or corrode a great number and variety of bodies; as the spirit of nitre, without addition, is a solvent for most metals, as silver, mercury, copper, lead, &c. and also divers mineral bodies, as tin-glass, spelter, lapis calaminaris, &c. and the fixed salt of nitre operates upon sulphureous minerals, as common sulphur, antimony, and divers other bodies, of which I elsewhere make mention.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

By the former trials it has appeared, that the encrease of motion, in the more penetrating corpuscles of a liquor, contributes much to its solutive power; and I shall now add, that the shape and size, which are mechanical affections, and sometimes also the solidity of the same corpuscles does eminently concur to qualify a liquor to dissolve this

or that particular body. Of this, even some of the more familiar practices of chemists may supply us with instances. For there is no account so probable as may be given upon this supposition, why aqua-fortis, which will dissolve silver, without meddling with gold, should, by the addition of a fourth part of its weight of sal armoniac, be turned into aqua-regia, which, without meddling with silver, will dissolve gold. But there is no necessity of having recourse to so gross and compounded a body as sal-armoniac, to enable aqua-fortis to dissolve gold: for, the spirit of common salt alone, being mingled in a due proportion, will suffice for that purpose. Which (by the way) shews, that the volatile salt of urine and foot, that concur to the making up of sal armoniac, are not necessary to the dissolution of gold, for which a solvent may be made with aqua-fortis and crude sea-salt. I might add, that the mechanical affections of a menstruum, may have such an interest in its dissolutive power, that even mineral or metalline corpuscles may become useful ingredients of it, though, perhaps, it be a distilled liquor; as might be illustrated by the operations of some compounded solvents, such as is the oil of antimony made by repeated rectifications of what chemists call its butter, which, whatever some say to the contrary, does much abound in antimonial substance.

EXPERIMENT IX.

BUT I shall return to our aqua-regia, because the mention I had occasion to make of that solvent, brought into my mind what I devised, to make it probable, that a smaller change, than one would lightly imagine, of the bulk, shape, or solidity of the corpuscles of a menstruum, may make it fit to dissolve a body it would not work on before. And this I the rather attempted, because the warier sort of chemists themselves are very shy of the inward use or preparations made of gold by the help of aqua-fortis, because of the odious stink they find, and the venenosity they suspect in that corrosive menstruum: whereas spirit of salt we look upon as a much more innocent liquor, whereof, if it be but diluted with fair water, or any ordinary drink, a good dose may be safely given inwardly, though it have not wrought upon gold, or any other body, to take off its acrimony. But, whether or no this prove of any great use in physick, wherein, perhaps, if any quantity of gold be to be dissolved, a greater proportion of spirit of nitre would be needed; the success will not be unfit to be mentioned, in reference to what we were saying of solvents. For, whereas we find not, that our spirit of salt here, in *England*, will at all dissolve crude gold, we found, that by putting some leaf-gold into a convenient quantity of good spirit of salt, when we had dropped in spirit of nitre, (shaking the glass at each drop) till we perceived, that the mixture was just able, in a moderate heat, to dissolve the gold, we found, that we had been obliged to employ but after the rate of twelve drops of the latter liquor to an ounce of the former; so that, supposing each of these drops to weigh a grain, the fortieth part of spirit of nitre being added, served to turn the spirit of salt into a kind of aqua-regia. But to know the proportion otherwise than by guess, we weighed six other drops of the same spirit of salt, and found them to amount not fully to three grains and an half: whence it appeared, that we added but about a seventieth part of the nitrous spirit to that of salt.

THE experiments, that have been hitherto recited, relate chiefly to the production of corrosive menstrooms; and therefore I shall now add an account of a couple of trials, that I made manifestly to lessen, or quite to destroy corrosiveness in liquors very conspicuous for that quality.

EXPERI-

EXPERIMENT X.

WHEREAS one of the most corrosive menstruums, that is yet known, is oil of vitriol, which will fret in pieces both divers metals and minerals, and a great number and variety of animal and vegetable bodies; yet if you digest with it, for a while only, an equal weight of highly-rectified spirit of wine, and afterwards distil the mixture very warily, (for else the experiment may very easily miscarry,) you may obtain a pretty deal of liquor not corrosive at all, and the remaining substance will be reduced partly into a liquor, which, though acid, is not more so than one part of good oil of vitriol will make ten times as much common water, by being well mingled with it; and partly into a dry substance, that has scarce any taste at all, much less a corrosive one.

EXPERIMENT XI.

AND though good aqua-fortis be the most generally employed of corrosive menstruums, as being capable of dissolving or corroding, not only many minerals, as tin-glass, antimony, zink, &c. but all metals, except gold, (for, though it make not a permanent solution of crude tin, it quickly frets the parts asunder, and reduces it to an immalleable substance;) yet, to shew how much the power of corroding may be taken away, by changing the mechanical texture of a menstruum, even without seeming to destroy the fretting salts, I practised (and communicated to divers virtuosi) the following experiment, elsewhere mentioned to other purposes.

WE took equal parts of good aqua-fortis, and highly dephlegmed spirit of wine, and having mingled them warily, and by degrees, (without which caution the operation may prove dangerous) we united them by two or three distillations of the whole mixture; which afterwards we found not to have the least fretting taste, and to be so deprived of its corrosive nature, that it would not work upon silver, though by precipitation, or otherwise, reduced to very small parts; nay, it would scarce sensibly work, in a good while, on filings of copper, or upon other bodies, which mere vinegar, or, perhaps, rhenish wine, will corrode. Nay, I remember, that, with another spirit, (that was not urinous) and afterwards, with alkohol of wine, we shewed a more surprising specimen of the power of either destroying, or debilitating, the corrosiveness of a menstruum, and checking its operation. For, having caused a piece of copper plate to be put into one ounce of aqua-fortis, when this liquor was eagerly working upon the metal, I caused an ounce of the alkohol of wine, or the other spirit to be poured, (which it should warily be) upon the agitated mixture; whose effervescence, at the first instant, seemed to be much encreased, but presently after was checked, and the corrosiveness of the menstruum being speedily disabled or corrected, the remaining copper was left undissolved at the bottom.

NOR are these the only acid menstruums, that I have, many years since, been able to correct by such a way: for I applied it to others, as spirit of nitre, and even aqua-regis itself; but it has not an equal operation upon all, and least of all (as far as I can remember) upon spirit of salt; as, on the other side, strong spirit of nitre was the menstruum, upon which its effects were the most satisfactory.

MOST of the chemists pretend, that the solutions of bodies are performed by a certain cognation and sympathy between the menstruum and the body it is to work upon. And it is not to be denied, that, in divers instances, there is, as it were, a consanguinity between the menstruum and the body to be dissolved; as when sulphur is dissolved by oils, whether expressed or distilled: but yet, as the opinion is generally proposed, I cannot acquiesce in it, partly, because there are divers solutions and other phænomena, where

where it will not take place; and partly, because, even in those instances, wherein it is thought most applicable, the effect seems to depend upon mechanical principles.

EXPERIMENT XII.

AND first, it will be difficult to shew, what consanguinity there is between sal gem, and antimony, and iron, and zink, and bread, and camphire, and lapis calaminaris, and flesh of divers kinds, and oyster-shells, and hartshorn, and chalk, and quick-lime; some of which belong to the vegetable, some to the mineral, and some to the animal kingdom; and yet all of them, and divers others, as I have tried, may, even without the assistance of external heat, be dissolved or corroded by one single mineral menstruum, oil of vitriol. And, which is not to be neglected on this occasion, some of them may be bodies, supposed, by chemists, to have an antipathy to each other, in point of corrosion, or dissolution.

EXPERIMENT XIII.

I observe also, that a dissolution may be made of the same body by menstrooms, to which the chemists attribute (as I just now observed they did to some bodies) a mutual antipathy, and which therefore are not like to have a sympathy with the same third body; as I found by trial, that both aqua-fortis, and spirit of urine, upon whose mixture there ensues a conflict, with a great effervescence, will, each of them apart, readily dissolve crude zink, and so each of them will the filings of copper. Not to mention, that pure spirit of wine, and oil of vitriol, as great a difference as there is between them, in I know not how many respects, and as notable a heat as will ensue upon their commixture, will each of them dissolve camphire; to which may be added, other instances of the like nature. As for what is commonly said, that oils dissolve sulphur, and saline menstrooms metals, because (as they speak) *simile simili gaudet*; I answer, that, where there is any such similitude, it may be very probably ascribed, not so much with the chemists, that favour *Aristotle*, to the essential forms of the bodies, that are to work on each other; nor, with the mere chemists, to their salt, or sulphur, or mercury, as such; but to the congruity between the pores and figures of the menstruum, and the body dissolved by it, and to some other mechanical affections of them.

EXPERIMENT XIV.

FOR silver, for example, not only will be dissolved by nitre, which they reckon a salt, but be amalgamed with, and consequently dissolved by quicksilver, and also by the operation of brimstone, be easily incorporated with that mineral, which chemists are wont to account of so oleaginous a nature, and insoluble in aqua-fortis.

EXPERIMENT XV.

AND as for those dissolutions, that are made with oily and inflammable menstrooms, of common sulphur and other inflammable bodies, the dissolution does not make for them so clearly as they imagine. For, if such menstrooms operate, as is alledged, upon the account of their being, as well as the bodies they work upon, of a sulphureous nature, whence is it, that highly rectified spirit of wine, which, according to them, must be of a most sulphureous nature, since, being set on fire, it will flame all away, without leaving one drop behind it, will not (unless, perhaps, after a tedious while) dissolve even flowers of brimstone, which essential, as well as expressed oils, will easily take up; as spirit of wine itself also will do almost in a trice, if, (as we shall see anon) by the help of an alkali, the texture of the brimstone be altered, though the
only

only thing, that is added to the sulphur, being an incombustible substance, is nothing near of so sulphureous a nature, as the flowers, and need have no consanguinity upon the score of its origin with spirit of wine, as it is alledged, that salt of tartar has; since I have tried, that fixed nitre, employed instead of it, will do the same.

EXPERIMENT XVI.

THE mention of nitre brings into my mind, that the salt-petre, being wont to be looked upon, by chemists, as a very inflammable body, ought, according to them, to be of a very sulphureous nature; yet we find not, that it is in chemical oils, but in water, readily dissolved. And whereas chemists tells us, that the solutions of alkalies, such as salt of tartar, or of pot-ashes in common oils, proceed from the great cognition between them, I demand, whence it happens; that salt of tartar will, by boiling, be dissolved in the expressed oil of almonds, or of olives, and be reduced with it to a soapy body, and that yet, with the essential oil of juniper or anniseeds, &c. where what they call the sulphur is made pure and penetrant, being freed from the earthy, aqueous and feculent parts, which distillation discovers to be in the expressed oils, you may boil salt of tartar twenty times as long, without making any soap of them, or perhaps any sensible solution of the alkali. And chemists know how difficult it is, and how unsuccessfully it is wont to be attempted, to dissolve pure salt of tartar in pure spirit of wine, by digesting the not peculiarly prepared salt in the cognate menstruum. I will not urge, that, though the most conspicuous mark of sulphur be inflammability, and is in an eminent degree to be found in oil, as well as sulphur; yet an alkali and water, which are neither singly, nor united inflammable, will dissolve common sulphur.

EXPERIMENT XVII.

BUT, to make it probable against the chemists, (for I purpose it but as an argument *ad hominem*) that the solution of sulphur in expressed oils depends upon somewhat else besides the abundance of the second principle, in both the bodies; I will add to what I said before, an affirmation of divers chemical writers themselves, who reckon aqua-regis, which is plainly a saline menstruum, and dissolves copper, iron, coral, &c. like acid liquors, among the solvents of sulphur, and by that power, among other things, distinguish it from aqua-fortis. And, on the other side, if there be a congruity betwixt an expressed oil and another body, though it be such as, by its easy dissolubleness in acid salts, chemists should pronounce to be of a saline nature, an expressed oil will readily enough work upon it; as I have tried, by digesting even crude copper, in filings, with oil of sweet almonds, which took up so much of the metal, as to be deeply coloured thereby, as if it had been a corrosive liquor: nay, I shall add, that, even with milk, as mild a liquor as it is, I have found, by trial, that, without the help of fire, a kind of dissolution may, though not in few hours, be made of crude copper, as appeared by the greenish blue colour the filings acquired, when they had been well drenched in the liquor, and left for a certain time in the vessel, where the air had very free access to them.

EXPERIMENT XVIII.

BESIDES the argument *ad hominem*, newly drawn from aqua-regia, it may be proper enough to urge another of the same kind, upon the generality of the Helmontians and Paracelsians, who admit what the heads of their sects delivered concerning the operations of the alkahest. For whereas it is affirmed, that this irresistible menstruum will dissolve all tangible bodies here below, so as they may be reduced into insipid water; as, on the one side, it will be very hard to conceive, how a specified men-

struum, that is determined to be either acid, or lixivate, or urinous, &c. should be able to dissolve so great a variety of bodies of differing, and perhaps contrary natures, in some whereof acids, in others, lixivate salts, and in others, urinous are predominant; so, on the other side, if the alkahest be not a speciflicated menstruum, it will very much disavour the opinion of the chemists, that will have some bodies dissoluble only by acids as such, others by fixed alkalkies, and others again by volatile salts; since a menstruum, that is neither acid, lixivate, nor urinous, is able to dissolve bodies, in some of which one, and in others, another of those principles is predominant: so that, if a liquor be conveniently qualified, it is not necessary, that it should be either acid to dissolve pearl or coral, or alkalizate to dissolve sulphur. But upon what mechanical account an analyzing menstruum may operate, is not necessary to be here determined. And I elsewhere offer some thoughts of mine about it.

EXPERIMENT XIX.

If we duly reflect upon the known process, that chemists are wont to employ in making mercurius dulcis, we shall find it very favourable to our hypothesis. For though we have already shewn in the fifth experiment, and it is generally confessed, that common sublimate made of mercury is a highly corrosive body; yet, if it be well ground with near an equal weight of quicksilver, and be a few times sublimed, (to mix them the more exactly) it will become so mild, that it will not so much as taste sharp upon the tongue; so that chemists are wont to call it mercurius dulcis: and yet this dulcification seems to be performed in a mechanical way. For most part of the salts, that made the sublimate so corrosive, abide in the mercurius dulcis; but by being compounded with more quicksilver, they are diluted by it, and (which is more considerable) acquire a new texture, which renders them unfit to operate, as they did before, when the fretting salts were not joined with a sufficient quantity of the mercury to inhibit their corrosive activity. It may perhaps somewhat help us to conceive, how this change may be made, if we imagine, that a company of mere knife-blades be first fitted with hafts, which will in some regard lessen their wounding power by covering or casing them at that end, which is designed for the handle; (though their insertion into those hafts, turning them into knives, makes them otherwise the fitter to cut and pierce) and, that each of them be afterwards sheathed, (which is, as it were, a hafting of the blades too;) for then they become unfit to cut or stab, as before, though the blades be not destroyed: or else we may conceive these blades without hafts or sheaths to be tied up in bundles, or as it were in little faggots with pieces of wood, somewhat longer than themselves, opportunely placed between them. For neither in this new constitution would they be fit to cut and stab as before. And by conceiving the edge of more or fewer of the blades to be turned inwards, and those, that are not, to have more or less of their points and edges to be sheathed, or otherwise covered by interposed bodies, one may be helped to imagine, how the genuine effects of the blades may be variously lessened or diversified. But, whether these, or any other like changes of disposition be fancied, it may by mechanical illustrations become intelligible, how the corrosive salts of common sublimate may lose their efficacy when they are united with a sufficient quantity of quicksilver in mercurius dulcis: in which new state, the salts may indeed, in a chemical phrase, be said to be satiated; but this chemical phrase does not explicate, how this saturation takes away the corrosiveness from salts, that are still actually present in the sweet mercury. And by analogy to some such explication, as the above proposed, a possible account may be rendered, why fretting salts do either quite lose their sharpness, as alkalies, whilst they are imbodyed with sand in common glass; or lose much of their corrosive acidity, as oil of vitriol does, when with steel it composes vitriolum martis;

martis ; or else are transmuted or disguised by conjunction with some corroded bodies of a peculiar texture, as when *aqua-fortis* does with silver make an extremely bitter salt or vitriol, and with lead one, that is positively sweet, almost like common *saccharum saturni*.

EXPERIMENT XX.

To shew, how much the efficacy of a menstruum may depend even upon such seemingly slight mechanical circumstances, as one would not easily suspect any necessity of, I shall employ an experiment, which, though the unpractised may easily fail of making well, yet, when I tried it after the best manner, I did it with good success. I put then upon lead a good quantity of well rectified *aqua-fortis*, in which the metal, as I expected, continued undissolved; though, if the chemists say truly, that the dissolving power of the menstruum consists, only in the acid salts, that it abounds with, it seems naturally to follow, that the more abundance of them there is in a determinate quantity of the liquor, it should be the more powerfully able to dissolve metalline and mineral bodies. And in effect, we see, that, if corrosive menstrooms be not sufficiently dephlegmed, they will not work on divers of them. But, notwithstanding this plausible doctrine of the chemists, conjecturing, that the saline particles, that swam in our *aqua-fortis*, might be more thronged together, than was convenient for a body of such a texture of saline parts, and such intervals between them, I diluted the menstruum, by adding to it what I thought fit of fair water, and then found, that the desired congruity betwixt the agent and the patient emerged, and the liquor quickly began to fall upon the metal, and dissolve it. And if you would try an experiment to the same purpose, that needs much less circumspection to make it succeed, you may, instead of employing lead, reiterate what I elsewhere mention myself to have tried with silver, which would not dissolve in too strong *aqua-fortis*, but would be readily fallen upon by that liquor, when I had weakened it with common water.

AND this it may suffice to have said at present of the power or faculty, that is found in some bodies of corroding or dissolving others. Whereof I have not found among the Aristotelians, I have met with, so much as an offer at an intelligible account. And I the less expect the vulgar chemists will from their hypostatical principles afford us a satisfactory one, when, besides the particulars, that from the nature of the things, and *Helmont's* writings, have been lately alledged against their hypothesis, I consider, how slight accounts they are wont to give us even of the familiar phænomena of corrosive liquors. For if, for example, you ask a vulgar chemist, why *aqua-fortis* dissolves silver and copper, it is great odds but he will tell you, it is because of the abundance of fretting salt, that is in it, and has a cognation with the salts of the metal. And if you ask him, why spirit of salt dissolves copper, he will tell you it is for the same reason; and yet, if you put spirit of salt, though very strong, to *aqua-fortis*, this liquor will not dissolve silver, because upon the mixture the liquors acquire a new constitution as to the saline particles, by virtue of which the mixture will dissolve, instead of silver, gold. Whence we may argue against the chemists, that the inability of this compounded liquor to work on silver does not proceed from its being weakened by the spirit of salt; as well because, according to them, gold is far the more compact metal of the two, and requires a more potent menstruum to work upon it, as because this same compounded liquor will readily dissolve copper. And to the same purpose, with this experiment I should alledge divers others, if I thought this the fittest place, wherein I could propose them.

SECTION II.

About the MECHANICAL ORIGIN of CORROSIBILITY.

CORROSIBILITY being the quality, that answers corrosiveness. he, that has taken notice of the advertisement I formerly gave about my use of the term *corrosiveness, in these notes, may easily judge, in what sense I employ the name of the other quality; which, whether you will stile it opposite or conjugate, for want of a better word, I call corrosibility.

THIS corrosibility of bodies is, as well as their corrosiveness, a relative thing; as we see, that gold, for instance, will not be dissolved by aqua-fortis, but will by aqua-regis; whereas silver is not soluble by the latter of these menstrums, but is by the former. And this relative affection, on whose account a body comes to be corrodible by a menstruum, seems to consist chiefly in three things, which all of them depend upon mechanical principles.

OF these qualifications, the first is, that the body to be corroded be furnished with pores of such a bigness and figure, that the corpuscles of the solvent may enter them, and yet not be much agitated in them, without giving brisk knocks or shakes to the solid parts, that make up the walls, if I may so call them, of the pores. And it is for want of this condition, that glass is penetrated in a multitude of places, but not dissipated or dissolved by the incident beams of light, which permeate its pores without any considerable resistance; and though the pores and commissures of a body were less minute, and capable of letting in some grosser corpuscles, yet if these were, for want of solidity or rigidity, too flexible, or were of a figure incongruous to that of the pores they should enter, the dissolution would not ensue; as it happens, when pure spirit of wine is in the cold put upon salt of tartar, or when aqua-fortis is put upon powder of sulphur.

THE second qualification of a corrodible body is, that its consistent corpuscles be of such a bulk and solidity, as does not render them incapable of being disjoined by the action of the insinuating corpuscles of the menstruum. Agreeable to this, and the former observation, is the practice of chemists, who oftentimes, when they would have a body to be wrought on by a menstruum, otherwise too weak for it in its crude estate, dispose it to receive the action of the menstruum by previously opening it, (as they speak) that is, by enlarging the pores, making a comminution of the corpuscles, or weakening their cohesion. And we see, that divers bodies are brought by fit preparations to be resolvable in liquors, that would not work on them before. Thus, as was lately noted, lime stone by calcination becomes, in part, dissoluble in water; and some metalline calces will be so wrought on by solvents, as they would not be by the same agents, if the preparation of the metalline or other body had not given them a new disposition. Thus, though crude tartar, especially in lumps, is very slowly and difficultly dissoluble in cold water, yet when it is burnt, it may be presently dissolved in that liquor; and thus, though the filings and the calx of silver will not be at all dissolved by common water, or spirit of wine; yet if by the interposition of the saline particles of aqua-fortis, the lunar corpuscles be so disjoined, and suffer such a comminution as they do in crystals of lune, the metal thus prepared and brought with its saline additament into a new texture, will easily enough dissolve, not only in water, but, as I have tried, in well rectified spirit of wine. And the like solubility I have found in the crystals of lead, made with spirit of verdigrease, or good distilled vinegar, and in those of copper made with aqua-fortis.

THE

* See the beginning of the first Section.

THE last disposition to corrosibility consists in such a cohesion of the parts, whereof a body is made up, as is not too strict to be superable by the action of the menstruum. This condition, though of kin to the former, is yet somewhat differing from it, since a body may consist of parts, either bulky or solid, which yet may touch one another in such small portions of their surfaces, as to be much more easily dissociable than the minute or less solid parts of another body, whose contact is more full and close, and so their cohesion more strict.

By what has been said, it may seem probable, that, as I formerly intimated, the corrosibility of bodies is but a mechanical relation, resulting from the mechanical affections and contexture of its parts, as they intercept pores of such sizes and figures, as make them congruous to those of the corpuscles of the menstruum, that are to pierce between them, and disjoin them.

THAT the quality, that disposes the body it affects to be dissolved by corrosive and other menstrooms, does, as hath been declared, in many cases depend upon the mechanical texture and affections of the body in reference to the menstruum, that is to work upon it, may be made very probable, by what we are in due place to deliver concerning the pores of bodies and figures of corpuscles. But yet in compliance with the design of these notes, and agreeably to my custom on other subjects, I shall subjoin a few experiments on this occasion also.

EXPERIMENT I.

IF we put highly rectified spirit of wine upon crude sulphur, or even flowers of sulphur, the liquor will lie quietly thereon, especially in the cold, for many hours and days, without making any visible solution of it; and if such exactly dephlegmed spirit were put on very dry salt of tartar, the salt would lie in an undissolved powder at the bottom: and yet, if before any liquor be employed, the sulphur be gently melted, and then the alkali of tartar be by degrees put to it, and incorporated with it; as there will result a new texture discoverable to the eye by the new colour of the composition, so there will emerge a disposition that was not before in either of the ingredients, to be dissolved by spirit of wine; insomuch, that though the mixture be kept till it be quite cold, or long after too, provided it be carefully secured from the access of the air, the spirit of wine being put to it, and shaken with it, will, if you have gone to work aright, acquire a yellow tincture in a minute of an hour; and perhaps in less than half a quarter of an hour a red one, being richly impregnated with sulphureous particles discoverable by the smell, taste, and divers operations.

EXPERIMENT II.

[It is known to several chemists, that spirit of salt does not dissolve crude mercury in the cold; and I remember, I kept them for a considerable time in no contemptible heat without finding any solution following. But I suppose, many of them will be gratified by an experiment once mentioned to me by an ingenious German gentleman, namely, that if mercury be precipitated *per se*, that is, reduced to a red powder without additament, by the mere operation of the fire, the texture will be so changed, that the above-mentioned spirit will readily dissolve it; for I found it upon trial to do so; nay, sometimes so readily, that I scarce remember, that I ever saw any menstruum so nimbly dissolve any metalline body whatsoever.

EXPERIMENT III.

THE former experiment is the more remarkable, because, that though oil of vitriol will in a good heat corrode quicksilver, (as we have already related in the first section,) yet I remember I kept a precipitate *per se* for divers hours in a considerable degree of heat,

heat, without finding it to be dissolved or corroded by the menstruum. And yet having, for trial's sake, put another parcel of the same mercurial powder into some aqua-fortis, or spirit of nitre, there ensued a speedy dissolution even in the cold.

AND that this disposition to be dissolved by spirit of salt, that mercury acquires by being turned into precipitate *per se*, that is, by being calcined, is not merely the effect of the operation of the fire upon it, but of some change of texture produced by that operation; may be probably argued from hence, that, whereas spirit of salt is a very proper menstruum, as I have often tried, for the dissolving of iron or steel; yet, when that metal is reduced by the action of the fire (especially if a kind of vitrification, and an irroration with distilled vinegar have preceded) to crocus martis, though it be thereby brought to a very fine powder, yet I found not, that, as spirit of salt will readily, and with heat and noise, dissolve filings of mars, so it would have the same or any thing near such an operation upon the crocus; but rather, after a good while, it would leave in the bottom of the glass a considerable, if not the greatest part of it scarce, if at all, sensibly altered. And the menstruum seemed rather to have extracted a tincture; than made an ordinary solution; since the colour of it was a high yellow or reddish, whereas mars, dissolved in spirit of salt, affords a green solution. Whether by repeated operations with fresh menstruum further dissolutions might in time be made, I had not occasion to try, and it may suffice for our present purpose, that mars, by the operation of the fire, did evidently acquire, not, as mercury had done, a manifest facility, but on the contrary, a great indisposition to be dissolved by spirit of salt.

To second this experiment, we varied it, by employing, instead of spirit of salt, strong oil of vitriol, which being poured on a little crocus martis made *per se*, did not, as that menstruum is wont to do upon filings of crude mars, readily and manifestly fall upon the powder with froth and noise, but, on the contrary, rested for divers hours calmly upon it, without so much as producing with it any sensible warmth.

EXPERIMENT IV.

IT agrees very well with our doctrine about the dependance of the corrosibility of bodies upon their texture, that from divers bodies, whilst they are in conjunction with others, there result masses, and those homogeneous as to sense, that are easily dissoluble in liquors, in which a great part of the matter, if it were separated from the rest, would not be at all dissolved. Thus we see, that common vitriol is easily dissolved in mere water; whereas if it be skilfully calcined, it will yield sometimes near half its first weight of insipid colcothar, which not only is not soluble in water, but which neither aqua-fortis nor aqua-regis, though sometimes they will colour themselves upon it, are able, as far as I have tried, to make solutions of. We see likewise, that simple water will, being boiled for a competent time with hart's-horn, dissolve it and make a jelly of it: and yet, when we have taken hart's-horn thoroughly calcined to whiteness, not only we found, that common water was no longer a fit solvent for it, but we observed, that when we put oil of vitriol itself upon it, a good part of the white powder was even by that corrosive menstruum left undissolved.

EXPERIMENT V.

IN the fifteenth of the foregoing experiments I refer to a way of making the flower or powder of common sulphur become easily dissoluble, which otherwise it is far from being, in highly rectified spirit of wine. Wherefore I shall now add, that it is quickly performed by gently melting the sulphur, and incorporating with it by degrees an equal or a greater weight of finely powdered salt of tartar, or of fixed nitre. For if the mixture be put warm into a mortar, that is so too; and as soon as it reduced to powder,

der, but put into a glass, and well shaken with pure spirit of wine, it will, (as perhaps I may have elsewhere observed) in a few minutes acquire a yellow colour, which afterwards will grow deeper, and manifest itself by the smell and effects to be a real solution of sulphur; and yet this solubleness in spirit of wine seems procured by the change of texture, resulting from the commixtion of mere salt of tartar, which chemists know, to their trouble, to be itself a body almost as difficult as sulphur to be dissolved in phlegmless spirit of wine, unless the constitution of it be first altered by some convenient additament. Which last words I add, because, though spirit of verdigrease be a menstruum, that uses to come off in distillation much more intirely than other acid menstrooms from the bodies it has dissolved; yet it will serve well for an additament to open (as the chemists speak) the body of the salt of tartar. For this purpose I employ spirit of verdigrease, not made first with spirit of vinegar, and then of wine, after the long and laborious way prescribed by *Basilus* and *Zwelfer*, but easily and expeditiously by a simple distillation of crude verdigrease of the better sort. For when you have with this liquor (being, if there be need, once rectified) dissolved as much good salt of tartar, as it will take up in the cold, if you draw off the menstruum *ad siccitatem*, the remaining dry salt will be manifestly altered in texture even to the eye, and will readily enough, in high rectified spirit of wine, afford a solution, which I have found considerable in order to divers uses, that concern not our present discourse.

EXPERIMENT VI.

To the consideration of the followers of *Helmont* I shall recommend an experiment of that famous chemist's which seems to suit exceeding well with the doctrine proposed in this section. For he tells us, that, if by a subtle menstruum, to which he ascribes that power, quicksilver be divested (or deprived) of its external sulphur, as he terms it, all the rest of the fluid metal, which he wittily enough stiles the kernel of mercury, will be no longer corrosible by it. So that upon this supposition, though common quicksilver be observed to be so obnoxious to aqua-fortis, that the same quantity of that liquor will dissolve more of it, than of any other metal; yet, if by the deprivation of some portion of it the latent texture of the metal be altered, though not (that I remember) the visible appearance of it; the body, that was before so easily dissolved by aqua-fortis, ceases to be at all dissoluble by it.

EXPERIMENT VII.

As for those chemists of differing sects, that agree in giving credit to the strange things, that are affirmed of the operations of the alkahest, we may in favour of our doctrine urge them with what is delivered by *Helmont*, where he asserts, that all solid bodies, as stones, minerals, and metals themselves, by having this liquor duly abstracted or distilled off from them, may be changed into salt, equiponderant to the respective bodies whereon the menstruum was put. So, that supposing the alkahest to be totally abstracted, (as it seems very probable to be, since the weight of the body, whence it was drawn off, is not altered;) what other change, than of texture, can be reasonably imagined to have been made in the transmuted bodies? and yet divers of them, as flints, rubies, sapphires, gold, silver, &c. that were insoluble before, some of them in any known menstrooms, and others in any but corrosive liquors, come to be capable of being dissolved in common water.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

It is a remarkable phaenomenon, that suits very well with our opinion about the interest of mechanical principles in the corrosive power of menstrooms, and the corrosibility

sibility of bodies, that we produced by the following experiment: this we purposely made to shew, after how differing manners the same body may be dissolved by two menstruums, whose minute parts are very differinglly constituted and agitated. For whereas it is known, that if we put large grains of sea-salt into common water, they will be dissolved therein, calmly and silently, without any appearance of conflict; if we put such grains of salt into good oil of vitriol, that liquor will fall furiously upon them, and produce for a good while a hissing noise with fumes, and a great store of bubbles, as if a potent menstruum were corroding some stubborn metal or mineral. And this experiment I the rather mention, because it may be of use to us on divers other occasions. For else it is not the only, though it be the remarkablest, that I made to the same purpose.

E X P E R I M E N T IX.

FOR, whereas aqua-fortis, or aqua-regis, being poured upon filings of copper, will work upon them with much noise and ebullition, I have tried, that spirit of sal armoniac or urine, being put upon the like filings, and left there without stopping the glass, will quickly begin to work on them, and quietly dissolve them almost as water dissolves sugar. To which may be added, that even with oil of turpentine I have, though but slowly, dissolved crude copper; and the experiment seemed to favour our conjecture the more, because having tried it several times, it appeared, that common unrectified oil would perform the solution much quicker than that, which was purified and subtilized by rectification; which though more subtle and penetrant, yet was, it seems, on that account less fit to dissolve the metal, than the grosser oil, whose particles might be more solid, or more advantageously shaped, or on some other mechanical account better qualified for the purpose.

E X P E R I M E N T X.

TAKE good silver, and, having dissolved it in aqua-fortis, precipitate it with a sufficient quantity of good spirit of salt; then having washed the calx, which will be very white, with common water, and dried it well, melt it with a moderate fire into a fusible mass, which will be very much of the nature of what chemists call cornu lunæ, and which they make by precipitating dissolved silver with a bare solution of common salt made in common water. And whereas both spirit of salt and silver, dissolved in aqua-fortis, will each of them apart readily dissolve in simple water, our luna cornea not only will not do so, but is so indisposed to dissolution, that I remember I have kept it in digestion, some in aqua-fortis, and some in aqua-regia, and that for a good while, and in no very faint degree of heat, without being able to dissolve it like a metal, the menstruums having indeed tinged themselves upon it, but left the composition undissolved at the bottom.

WITH this instance (of which sort more might be afforded by chemical precipitations) I shall conclude what I designed to offer at present about the corrosibility of bodies, as it may be considered in a more general way. For as to the disposition, that particular bodies have of being dissolved in, or of resisting determinate liquors, it were much easier for me to enlarge upon that subject, than it was to provide the instances above recited. And these are not so few, but that it is hoped they may suffice to make it probable, that in the relation betwixt a solvent and a body it is to work upon, that, which depends upon the mechanical affections of one or both, is much to be considered, and has a great interest in the operations of one of the bodies upon the other.

Of the MECHANICAL CAUSES

O F

CHEMICAL PRECIPITATION.

A D V E R T I S E M E N T.

THOUGH I shall not deny, that, in grammatical strictness, precipitation should be reckoned among chemical operations, not qualities; yet I did not much scruple to insert the following discourse among the notes about particular qualities, because many, if not most of the phænomena, mentioned in the ensuing essay, may be considered as depending, some of them, upon a power, that certain bodies have to cause precipitation, and some upon such a disposition, to be struck down by others, as may, if men please, be called precipitability. And so these differing affections may, with (at least) tolerable congruity, be referred to those, that we have elsewhere stiled chemical qualities.

BUT though, I hope, I may, in these few lines, have said enough concerning the name given to these attributes, yet, perhaps, it will be found in time, that the things themselves may deserve a larger discourse, than my little leisure would allow them. For, that is not a causeless intimation of the importance of the subject, wherewith I conclude the following tract; since, besides that, many more instances might have been particularly referred to the heads treated of in the ensuing essay, there are improper kinds of precipitation, (besides those mentioned in the former part of the discourse) to which one may not incongruously refer divers of the phænomena of nature, as well in the greater as in the lesser world, whereof either no causes at all, or but improper ones, are wont to be given. And, besides the simple spirits and salts usually employed by chemists, there are many compounded and decomposed bodies, not only factitious, but natural, (and some such, as one would scarce suspect) that may, in congruous subjects, produce such precipitations, as I speak of. And the phænomena and consequents of such operations may, in divers cases, prove conducive both to the discovery of physical causes, and the production of useful effects; though the particularizing of such phænomena do rather belong to a history of precipitations, than to such a discourse as that, which follows, wherein I proposed not so much to deliver the latent mysteries, as to investigate the mechanical causes of precipitation.

Of the MECHANICAL CAUSES of CHEMICAL PRECIPITATION.

C A H P. I.

BY precipitation is here meant, such an agitation or motion of a heterogeneous liquor, as in no long time makes the parts of it subside, and that usually in the form of a powder, or other consistent body.

As, on many occasions, chemists call the substance, that is made to fall to the bottom of the liquor, the precipitate; so, for brevity-sake, we shall call the body, that is put into the liquor to procure that subsiding, the precipitant; as also that, which is to be struck down, the precipitable substance or matter, and the liquor wherein it swims before the separation, the menstruum or solvent.

WHEN a hasty fall of a heterogeneous body is procured by a precipitant, the operation is called precipitation, in the proper or strict sense: but when the separation is made without any such addition, or the substance, separated from the fluid part of the liquor, instead of subsiding emerges, then the word is used in a more comprehensive, but less proper acceptation.

As for the causes of precipitation, the very name itself, in its chemical sense, having been scarce heard of it in the peripatetick schools, it is not to be expected, that they should have given us an account of the reasons of the thing. And it is like, that those few Aristotelians, that have, by their converse with the laboratories or writings of chemists, taken notice of this operation, would, according to their custom on such occasions, have recourse for the explication of it to some secret sympathy or antipathy between the bodies, whose action and re-action intervenes in this operation.

BUT if this be the way proposed of accounting for it, I shall quickly have occasion to say somewhat to it, in considering the ways proposed by the chemists, who were wont to refer precipitation, either, as is most usual, to a sympathy betwixt the precipitating body and the menstruum, which makes the solvent run to the embraces of the precipitant, and so let fall the particles of the body sustained before; or (with others) to a great antipathy, or contrariety between the acid salt of the menstruum and the fixed salt of the oil, or solution of calcined tartar, which is the most general and usual precipitant they employ.

BUT I see not, how either of these causes will either reach to all the phænomena, that have been exhibited, or give a true account even of some of those, to which it seems applicable. For first, in precipitations, wherein what they call a sympathy between the liquors, is supposed to produce the effect, this admired sympathy does not (in my apprehension) evince such a mysterious occult quality, as is presumed, but rather consists in a greater congruity, as to bigness, shape, motion, and pores of the minute parts between the menstruum and the precipitant, than between the same solvent and the body it kept before dissolved. And though this sympathy, rightly explained, may be allowed to have an interest in some such precipitations, as let fall the dissolved body in its pristine nature and form, and only reduced into minute powder; yet I find not, that, in the generality of precipitations, this doctrine will hold; for in some, that we have made of gold and silver in proper menstrua, after the subsiding matter had been well washed and dried, several precipitates of gold made, some with oil of tartar, which abounds with a fixed salt, and is the usual precipitant, and some with an urinous spirit, which works by virtue of a salt highly fugitive, or volatile, I found the powder to exceed the weight of the gold and silver I had put to dissolve; and the eye itself sufficiently discovers such precipitates not to be mere metalline powders, but compositions, whose consisting, not (as hath been by somebody suspected) of the combined salts alone, but of the metalline parts also, may be strongly concluded, not only from the ponderousness of divers of them, in reference to their bulk, but also manifestly from the reduction of true malleable metals from several of them.

C H A P. II.

THE other chemical way of explicating precipitations may, in a right sense, be made use of by a naturalist on some particular occasions. But I think it much too narrow and defective, as it is in a general way proposed, to be fit to be acquiesced in. For first it is plain, that it is not only salt of tartar, and other fixed alkalies, that precipitate most bodies, that are dissolved in acid menstrua; as in making of aurum fulminans, oil of tartar precipitates the gold out of aqua-regis: but acid liquors themselves

selves do, on many occasions, no less powerfully precipitate metals and other bodies out of one another. Thus, spirit of salt (as I have often tried) precipitates silver out of aqua-fortis: the corrosive spirit of nitre copiously precipitates that white powder, whereof they make bezoardicum minerale: spirit or oil of sulphur, made by a glass bell, precipitates corals, pearls, &c. dissolved in spirit of vinegar, as is known to many chemists, who now use this oleum sulphuris per campanam, to make the magistery of pearls, &c. for which vulgar chemists employ oleum tartari per deliquium.

I have sometimes made a menstruum, wherein, though there were both acid and alkalizate salts, yet I did not find, that either acid spirits, or oil of tartar, or even spirit of urine, would precipitate the dissolved substances.

AND I have observed, both that salts of a contrary nature will precipitate bodies out of the same menstruum, as not only salt of tartar, but sea-salt, being dissolved, will precipitate each other, and, each of them apart, will precipitate silver out of aqua-fortis; and that even, where there is a confessed contrariety betwixt two liquors, it may be so ordered, that neither of them shall precipitate what is dissolved by the other; of which I shall have occasion to give, ere long, a remarkable instance.

BUT it will best appear, that the above-mentioned theories of the Peripateticks and chemists are at least insufficient to solve the phaenomena (many of which were probably not known to most of them, and perhaps not weighed by any,) if we proceed to observe the mechanical ways, by which precipitations may be accounted for; whereof I shall, at present, propose some number, and say somewhat of each of them apart; not that I think all of them to be equally important and comprehensive, or that I absolutely deny, that any one of them may be reduced to some of the other; but that I think, it may better elucidate the subject, to treat of them severally, when I shall have premised, that I would not thence infer, that though, for the most part, nature does principally effect precipitations by one or other of these ways, yet, in divers cases, she may not employ two, or more of them, about performing the operation.

To precipitate the corpuscles of a metal out of a menstruum, wherein, being once thoroughly dissolved, it would, of itself, continue in that state, the two general ways, that the nature of the thing seems to suggest to him, that considers it, are, either to add to the weight or bulk of the dissolved corpuscles, and thereby render them unfit to accompany the particles of the menstruum in their motions; or to weaken the sustaining power of the menstruum, and thereby disable it to keep the metalline particles swimming any longer: which falling of the deserted parts of the metal, or other body, does oftentimes the more easily ensue, because in many cases, when the sustaining particles of the menstruum come to be too much weakened, that proves an occasion to the metalline corpuscles, disturbed in the former motion, that kept them separate, to make occurrences and coalitions among themselves, and their fall becomes the effect, though not equally so, of both ways of precipitation; as on the other side, there are several occasions on which the same precipitant, that brings the swimming particles of the metal to stick to one another, does likewise, by mortifying or disabling the saline spirits, or other parts of the solvent, weaken the sustaining power of that liquor.

C H A P. III.

TO descend now to the distinct considerations about these two ways: the first of the most general causes of precipitation is such a cohesion procured by the precipitant in the solution, as makes the compounded corpuscles, or at least the associated particles of the dissolved body, too heavy to be sustained, or too bulky to be kept in a state of fluidity by the liquor.

THAT in many precipitations there is made a coalition betwixt the small parts of the precipitant, and those of the dissolved metal, or other body and frequently also, with the saline spirits of the menstruum, may be easily shewn, by the weight of the precipitate, which, though carefully washed and dried, often surpasses, and sometimes very considerably, that of your crude metal, that was dissolved; of which we lately gave an instance in aurum fulminans, and precipitated silver; and we may yet give a more conspicuous one, in that, which chemists call luna cornea: for, if having dissolved silver in good aqua-fortis, you precipitate it with the solution of sea-salt in fair water, and from the very white precipitate wash the loose adhering salts, the remaining powder, being dried and slowly melted, will look much less like a metalline body, than like a piece of horn, whence also it takes its name; so considerable is the additament of the saline to the metalline particles.

AND that part of such additaments is retained, may not only be found by weighing, but, in divers cases, may be argued from what is obvious to the eye: as if you dissolve mercury in aqua fortis, and into the philtred solution drop spirit of salt, or salt water, or an urinous spirit, as of sal armoniac, you will have a very white precipitate; but if, instead of any of these, you drop in deliquated salt of tartar, your precipitate will be of a brick, or orange colour. From which experiment, and some others, I would gladly take a rise to persuade chemists and physicians, that it is not so indifferent, as those seem to think, who look on precipitation but as a kind of comminution, by what means the precipitation is performed. For, by reason of the strict adhesion of divers saline particles of the precipitant and the solvent, the precipitated body, notwithstanding all the wonted ablutions, may have its qualities much diversified by those of the particles of the liquors, when these are fitted to stick very fast to it. Which last words I add, because, though that sometimes happens, yet it does not always, there being a greater difference, than every body takes notice of, between precipitations; as you will be induced to think, if you precipitate the solution of silver with copper, with spirit of sal armoniac, with salt water, with oil of tartar, with quicksilver, with crude tartar, and with zink. And in the lately proposed example, you will think it probable, that it is not all one, whether to dissolved mercury or silver, you employ the subtile distilled spirits of salt, or the gross body, whether in a dry form, or barely dissolved in common water. And thus much of the conduciveness of weight to the striking down the corpuscles of a dissolved body.

THAT also the bulk of a body may very much contribute to make it sink or swim in a liquor, appears by obvious instances. Thus salt or sugar, being put into water, either in lumps or even in powder, that is but gross, falls at first to the bottom, and lies there, notwithstanding the air, that may be intercepted between its parts, or externally adhere to it. But when, by the insinuating action of the water, it is dissolved into minute particles, these are carried up and down with those of the liquor, and subside not. The like happens, when a piece of silver is cast into aqua-fortis, and in many other cases.

ON the other side I have several times observed, that some bodies, that had long swam in a menstruum, whilst their minute parts were kept from convening in it, did afterwards, by the coalition of many of those particles into bodies of a visible bulk, coagulate and subside, (though sometimes, to hinder the evaporation of the menstruum, the vessels were kept stopped.) Of this I elsewhere mention divers examples; and particularly in urinous and animal spirits, well dephlegmed, I have found, that after all had, for a considerable time, continued in the form of a perfect liquor, and as to sense homogeneous, store of solid corpuscles, convening together, settled at the bottom of the glasses in the form of saline crystals. Having also long kept a very red solution of sulphur

sulphur first unlocked, (as they speak) made with highly rectified spirit of urine, I observed, that at length the sulphureous particles, making little concretions between themselves, totally subsided, and left the liquor almost devoid of tincture. By which you may see, that it was not impertinent to mention (as I lately did) among the subordinate causes of precipitation, the associating of the particles of a dissolved body with one another. Of which I elsewhere give a notable example in the shining powder, that I obtained from gold dissolved in a peculiar menstruum, without any precipitant, by the coalition of the metalline particles, to which a tract of time gave opportunity to meet and adhere in a convenient manner.

If in what the chemists call *præcipitate per se*, the mercury be indeed brought to lose its fluidity, and become a powder without being compounded with any additional body, (which doubt I elsewhere state and discourse of,) it will afford us a notable instance to prove, that the coalitions of particles into clusters of the self-same matter will render them unfit for the motion requisite to fluidity. For, in this odd precipitation by fire, wherein the same menstruum is both the liquor and the precipitate, being not all made at once, the corpuscles, that first disclose themselves by their redness, are rejected by those of the mercury, that yet remains fluid, as unable to accompany them in the motions, that belong to mercury as such.

C H A P. IV.

BEFORE I dismiss that way of precipitating, that depends upon the unwieldiness, which the precipitant gives to the body it is to strike down, it may not be impertinent, especially in reference to the foregoing part of this paper, to consider, that perhaps, in divers cases, the corpuscles of a dissolved body may be made unfit to be any longer sustained in the menstruum, though the precipitant adds very little to their bulk, or at least, much more to their specific weight than to it. For I have elsewhere shewn, that in divers solutions made of bodies by acid menstrooms, there are either generated or extricated many small aerial particles; and it will be easily granted, that these may be small enough to be detained in the pores of the liquor, and be invisible there, if we consider, what a multitude of aerial and formerly imperceptible bubbles is afforded by common water in our pneumatical receivers, when the incumbent air, that before pressed the liquor, is pumped out. And if the corpuscles of the dissolved body have any little cavities or pores fit to lodge aerial particles, or have asperous surfaces, between whose prominent parts the generated air may conveniently lie; in such cases, I say, these invisible bubbles may be looked upon, as making with the solid corpuscles they adhered to, little aggregates much lighter in specie than the corpuscles themselves would be; and consequently if the precipitant consist of particles of such a size and shape as are fit to expel these little bubbles, and lodge themselves in the cavities possessed by them before, there will be produced new aggregates composed of the corpuscles of the dissolved body and the particles of the precipitant; which aggregates, though they do take up very little, or perhaps not at all more room (taking that word in a popular sense) than those, whereof the aerial bubbles made a part, will yet be specifically heavier than the former aggregates were, and may thereby overcome the sustaining power of the menstruum.

One thing more may be fit to be taken notice of before we pass on further, namely, that it is upon the score of the specifick gravity of a body, and not barely upon the action of the precipitant, that an aggregate, or a convention, of particles, does rather fall to the bottom than rise to the top. For, though the agents, that procured the coalition, make the cluster of particles become of a bulk too unwieldy to continue in the liquor

as parts of it; yet if each of them be lighter in specie than an equal bulk of the menstruum, or if they so convene, as to intercept a sufficient number of little bubbles or aerial corpuscles between them, and so become lighter than as much of the menstruum, as they take up the room of, they will not be precipitated but emerge; as may be seen in the preparation of those magisteries of vegetables, I elsewhere mention; where some deeply coloured plants being made to tinge plentifully the lixivium they are boiled in, are afterwards by the addition of alum made to curdle, as it were, into coloured concretions, which being (totally or in part) too big to swim, as they did before they convened, and too light in comparison of the menstruum to subside, emerge to the top, and float there. An easier and neater example to the same purpose, I remember I shewed by dissolving camphire in highly rectified spirit of wine, till the solution was very strong. For though the camphire, when put in lumps into the spirit, sunk to the bottom of it; yet, when good store of water, (a liquor somewhat heavier in specie than camphire,) was poured upon the solution, the camphire quickly concreted and returned to its own nature, and within a while emerged to the top of the mingled liquors and floated there. These particulars I was willing to mention here, that I might give an instance or two of those precipitations, that I formerly spake of as improperly so called. And here I must not decline taking notice of a phænomenon, that sometimes occurs in precipitations, and at first sight may seem contrary to our doctrine about them. For now and then it happens, that after some drops of the precipitant have begun a precipitation at the top or bottom of the solvent, one shakes the vessel, that the precipitant may be the sooner diffused through the other liquor, but then they are quickly surprized to find, that instead of hastening the compleat precipitation, the matter already precipitated disappears, and the solvent returns to be clear, or, as to sense, as uniform, as it was before the precipitant was put into it. But this phænomenon does not at all cross our theory. For, when this happens, though that part of the solvent, to which the precipitant reaches, is disabled for reasons mentioned in this discourse to support the dissolved body, yet this quantity of the precipitant is but small in proportion to the whole bulk of the solvent. And therefore, when the agitation of the vessel disperses the clusters of loosely concreted particles through the whole liquor, (which is seldom so exactly proportioned to the body it was to work on, as to be but just strong enough to dissolve it) that greater part of the liquor, to which before the shaking of the vessel the precipitant did not reach, may well be looked upon as a fresh menstruum, which is able to mortify or overpower the small quantity of the precipitant, that is mingled with it, and so to destroy its late operation on the body dissolved, by which means the solution returns, as to sense, to its former state. Which may be illustrated by a not unpleasant experiment, I remember, I have long since made by precipitating a brick-coloured powder out of a strong solution of sublimate made in fair water. For this subsiding matter, being laid to dry in the philter, by which it was separated from the water, would retain a deep, but somewhat dirty colour; and if then, putting it into the bottom of a wine glass, I poured upon it, either clear oil of vitriol, or some other strong acid menstruum, the alcalizate particles being disabled and swallowed up by some of the acid ones of the menstruum, the other acid ones would so readily dissolve the residue of the powder, that in a trice the colour of it would disappear, and the whole mixture be reduced into a clear liquor, without any sediment at the bottom.

Thus much may suffice at present about the first general way of precipitating bodies out of the liquors they swim in.

C H A P. V.

THE other of the two principal ways, by which precipitations may be effected, is the disabling the solvent to sustain the dissolved body.

THERE may be many instances, wherein this second way of effecting precipitations may be associated by nature with the first way formerly proposed; but notwithstanding the cases, wherein nature may (as I formerly noted) employ both the ways therein, yet in most cases they sufficiently differ, in regard that in the former way the subsiding of the dissolved body is chiefly, if not only, caused by the additional weight, as well as action of the external precipitant; whereas, in most of the instances of the later way, the effect is produced either without salt of tartar, or any such precipitant, or by some other quality of the precipitant more than by its weight, or at least besides the weight it adds: though I forget not, that I lately gave an example of a shining powder of gold, that fell to the bottom of a menstruum without the help of an external precipitant: but that was done so slowly, that it may be disputed, whether it were a true precipitation; and I alledged it not as such, but to shew, that the increased bulk of particles may make them unfit to swim in menstrooms, wherein they swam, whilst they were more minute. And the like answer may be accommodated to the precipitate *per se* newly mentioned.

THIS premised, I proceed now to observe, that the general way, I last proposed, contains in it several subordinate ways, that are more particular; of which I shall now mention the chief, that occur to me, and, though but briefly, illustrate each of them by examples. And first a precipitation may be made, if the saline or other dissolving particles of the menstruum are mortified or rendered unfit for their former function, by particles of a precipitant, that are of a contrary nature.

THUS gold and some other minerals, being dissolved in aqua-regis, will be precipitated with spirit of urine and other such liquors abounding with volatile and salinofulphureous corpuscles, upon whose account it is, that they act; whence these salts themselves, though cast into a menstruum in a dry form, will serve to make the like precipitations. And I the rather on this occasion mention urinous spirits than salt of tartar, because those volatile particles add much less of weight to the little concretions, which compose the precipitated powder.

UPON instances of this kind, many of the modern chemists have built that antipathy betwixt the salts of the solvent and those of the menstruum, to which they ascribe almost all precipitations. But against this I have represented something already, and shall partly now, and partly in the sequel of this discourse, add some farther reasons of my not being satisfied with this doctrine. For besides, that it is insufficient to reach many of the phaenomena of precipitation (as will ere long be shown) and besides that it is not easy to make out, that there is any real antipathy betwixt inanimate bodies; I consider, first, that some of those menstrooms, to which this antipathy is attributed, do, after a short commotion (whereby they are disposed to make convenient occurrences and coalitions) amicably unite into concretions participating of both the ingredients; as I have somewhere shewn by an example purposely devised to make this out; to do which I dropped a clear solution of fixed nitre, instead of the usual one of common salt, upon a solution of silver, in aqua-fortis: for the saline particles of the solvent and those of the precipitant, will, as I have elsewhere recited, for the most part friendly unite into such crystals of nitre for the main, as they were obtained from: and though this notion of the chemists, if well explained, be applicable to far more instances than the proposers of it seemed to have thought on, and may be made good use of

of in practice; yet I take it to be such as is not true universally, and, where it is true, ought to be explicated according to mechanical principles. For if the particles of the menstruum and those of the precipitant be so framed, that upon the action of the one upon the other, there will be produced corpuscles too big and unwieldy to continue in the state of fluidity, there will ensue a precipitation: but if the constitution of the corpuscles of the precipitating and of the dissolved body be such, that the precipitant also itself is fit to be a menstruum to dissolve that body in; then, though there be an union of the salt of the precipitant and the metal (or other solutum) and perhaps of the solvent too, yet a precipitation will not necessarily follow, though the saline particles of the two liquors seemed, by the heat and ebullition excited between them upon their meeting, to exercise a great and mutual antipathy. To satisfy some ingenious men about this particular, I dissolved zink or speltar in a certain urinous spirit; (for there are more than one, that may serve the turn;) and then put to it a convenient quantity of a proper acid spirit; but though there would be a manifest conflict thereby occasioned betwixt the two liquors, yet the speltar remained dissolved in the mixture. And I remember, that for the same purpose I devised another experiment, which is somewhat more easy and more clear. I dissolved copper calcined *per se*, or even crude, in strong spirit of salt; (for unless it be such, it will not be so proper,) and having put to it by degrees a good quantity of spirit of sal armoniac, or fermented urine, though there would be a great commotion with hissing and bubbles produced, the copper would not be precipitated, because this urinous spirit will, as well as the salt, (and much more readily) dissolve the same metal, and it would be kept dissolved notwithstanding their operation on one another; the intervening of which, and their action upon the metalline corpuscles, may be gathered from hence, that the green solution, made with spirit of salt alone, will, by the supervening urinous spirits, be changed either into a blueish green, or, if the proportion of this spirit be very great, into a rich blue almost like ultramarine. And from these two experiments we may probably argue, that when the precipitation of a metal, &c. ensues, it is not barely on the account of the supposed antipathy betwixt the salts, but because the causes of that seeming antipathy do likewise, upon a mechanical account, dispose the corpuscles of the confounded liquors so to cohere, as to be too unwieldy for the fluid part.

C H A P. VI.

ANOTHER way, whereby the dissolving particles of a menstruum may be rendered unfit to sustain the dissolved body, is to present them another, that they can more easily work on.

A notable experiment of this you have in the common practice of refiners, who, to recover the silver out of lace, and other such mixtures wherein it abounds, use to dissolve it in aqua fortis, and then in the solution leave copper plates for a whole night (or many hours.) But if you have a mind to see the experiment, without waiting so long, you may employ the way, whereby I have often quickly dispatched it. As soon then as I have dissolved a convenient quantity, which needs not be a great one, of silver in cleansed aqua-fortis, I add twenty or twenty-five times as much of either distilled water, or rain water; (for though common water will sometimes do well, yet it seldom does so well;) and then into the clear solution, I hang by a string a clean piece of copper, which will be presently covered with little shining plates almost like scales of fish, which one may easily shake off, and make room for more. And this may illustrate what we formerly mentioned about the subsiding of metalline corpuscles, when they convene in liquors, wherein, whilst they were dispersed in very minute parts, they
swam

swam freely. For, in this operation, the little scales of silver seemed to be purely metalline, and there is no saline precipitant, as salt of tartar or of urine, employed to make them subside. Upon the same ground, gold and silver, dissolved in their proper menstruums, may be precipitated with running mercury; and if a solution of blue vitriol (such as the Roman, East-Indian, or other of the like colours) be made in water, a clean plate of steel or iron being immersed in it, will presently be over-laid with a very thin case of copper, which, after a while, will grow thicker; but does not adhere to the iron so loosely as to be shaken off, as the precipitated silver newly mentioned may be from the copper-plates whereto it adheres. And that, in these operations, the saline particles may really quit the dissolved body, and work upon the precipitant, may appear by the lately mentioned practice of refiners, where the aqua-fortis, that forsakes the particles of the silver, falls a working upon the copper-plates employed about the precipitation, and dissolves so much of them, as to acquire the greenish blue colour of a good solution of that metal. And the copper we can easily again, without salts, obtain by precipitation out of that liquor with iron, and that too, remaining dissolved in its place, we can precipitate with the tasteless powder of another mineral.

BESIDES these two ways of weakening the menstruum, namely, by mortifying its saline particles, or seducing them to work on other bodies, and to forsake those they first dissolved, there are some other ways of weakening the menstruum.

A third way of effecting this, is by lessening or disturbing the agitation of the solvent. And indeed, since we find by experience, that some liquors, when they are heated, will either dissolve some bodies they would not dissolve at all when they were cold, or dissolve them more powerfully or copiously when hot than cold; it is not unreasonable to suppose, that what considerably lessens that agitation of the parts of the menstruum, that is necessary to the keeping the dissolved body in the state of fluidity, should occasion the falling of it again to the bottom. In slow operations, I could give divers examples of the precipitating power of cold; there being divers solutions, and particularly that of ambergrease, that I had kept fluid all the summer, which in the winter would subside. And the like may be sometimes observed in far less time in the solutions of brimstone, made in certain oleaginous menstruums; and I have now and then had some solutions, and particularly one of benzoin, made in spirit of wine, that would surprize me with the turbidness (which begins the state of precipitation) it would acquire upon a sudden change of the weather towards cold, though it were not in the winter season.

ANOTHER way of weakening the menstruum, and so causing the precipitation of a body dissolved in it, is the diluting or lessening the tenacity of it, whether that tenacity proceed from viscolity, or the competent number and constipation of the parts.

Of this we have an instance in the magisteries (as many chemists are pleased to call them) of jalap, benzoin, and of divers others resinous and gummous bodies dissolved in spirit of wine. For, by the affusion of common water, the menstruum, being too much diluted, is not able to keep those particles in the state of fluidity, but must suffer them to subside, (as they usually do, in the form of white powder) or, (as it may happen sometimes,) make some parts emerge. Examples also of this kind are afforded us by the common preparations of mercurius vitæ. For, though in oil of antimony, made by the rectification of the butter, the saline particles are so numerous, and keep so close to one another, that they are able to sustain the antimonial corpuscles they carried over with them in distillation, and keep them together with themselves in the form of a liquor; yet, when by the copious affusion of the water, those sustaining particles are separated, and removed to a distance from each other, the antimonial corpuscles, and the mercurial, (if any such there were) being of a ponderous nature, will easily subside

into that emetic powder, which (when well washed) the chemists, flatteringly enough, call *mercurius vitæ*.

BUT here I must interpose an advertisement, which will help to shew us, how much precipitations depend upon the mechanical contextures of bodies. For, though not only in the newly recited examples, but in divers others, the affusion of water, by diluting the salts, and weakening the menstruum, makes the metal, or other dissolved body, fall precipitately to the bottom; yet if the saline particles of the solvent, and those of the body, be fitted for so strict an union, that the corpuscles resulting from their coalitions, will not so easily be separated by the particles of water, as suffer themselves to be carried up and down with them, whether because of the minuteness of these compounded corpuscles, or because of some congruity betwixt them and those of the water; they will not be precipitated out of the weakened solution, but still continue a part of it; as I have tried partly with some solution of silver and gold, made in acid menstrooms, but much more satisfactorily in solutions of copper, made in the urinous spirit of sal armoniac. For, though that blue solution were diluted with many thousand times as much distilled water, as the dissolved metal weighed, yet its swimming corpuscles did, by their colour, manifestly appear to be dispersed through the whole liquor.

C H A P VII.

BUT, to prosecute our former discourse, which we broke off after the mention of *mercurius vitæ*, it will now be seasonable to add, that we have made divers other precipitations, by the bare affusion of water, out of solutions, and sometimes out of distilled liquors; which, for brevity-sake, I here omit, that I may hasten to the last way I shall now stay to mention.

ANOTHER way then, whereby precipitations of bodies may be produced by debilitating the menstruum they swim in, is by lessening the proportion of the solvent to the solutum, without any evaporation of the liquor. These last words I add, because that, when there is an obstruction, or any other expulsion of the menstruum by heat, if it be total, it is called *exsiccation*, as when dry salt of tartar is obtained from the filtrated *lixivium* of the calcined tartar; and though the evaporation be not total, yet the effects of it are not wont to be reckoned amongst precipitations. And although the way I am about to propose, if it be attentively considered, has much affinity with the foregoing, and the phænomena may, perhaps, in some sort, be reduced to them; yet the instances, that I shall name, having not, that I know, been thought of by others, and being such as every one would not deduce from what I have been mentioning, I shall add a word of the inducements I had to make the trials, as well as of the success of them.

CONSIDERING then, that water will not dissolve salts indefinitely, but when it has received its due proportion, it will then dissolve no more; but, if they be put into it, let them fall to the ground, and continue undissolved; and that if, when water is satiated, any of the liquor be evaporated, or otherwise wasted, it will, in proportion, let fall the salt it had already taken up; I conclude, that, if I could mingle with water any liquor, with which its particles would more readily associate than with those of salt, the depriving the solution of so many of its aqueous particles, would be equivalent to the evaporation of as much water, or thereabouts, as they, by being united, could compose. Wherefore, making a *lixivium* of distilled water, or clean rain water, and of salt of tartar, so strong, that if a grain more were cast in it, it would lie undissolved at the bottom; I put a quantity of this fiery *lixivium* into a slender cylindrical vessel, till it had therein reached such a height, as I thought fit; then taking as much as I thought sufficient of strong spirit of wine, that would burn every drop away, that so

it might have no phlegm nor water of its own, I poured this upon the saline solution; and shaking the liquors pretty well together, to bring them to mix as well as I could, I laid the tube in a quiet place, and afterwards found, as I expected, that there was a pretty quantity of white salt of tartar fallen to the bottom of the vessel, which salt had been merely forsaken by the aqueous particles, that sustained it before, but forsook it to pass into the spirit of wine, wherewith they were more disposed to associate themselves; which I concluded, because having, before I poured on this last named liquor, made a mark on the glass, to shew how far the lixivium reached, I found, (what I looked for) that, after the precipitation, the lixivium, that remained yet strong enough to continue unmixed with the incumbent spirit, had its surface, not where the mark shewed it had been before, but a considerable distance beneath it, the spirit of wine having gained in extent what it lost in strength, by receiving so many aqueous particles into it. I chose to make this trial, rather with a lixivium of salt of tartar, than with oil of tartar per deliquium, because, in this last named liquor, the aqueous and saline particles are more closely combined, and therefore more difficult to be separated, than I thought they would be in a lixivium hastily made, though very strong. And though, by much agitation, I have sometimes obtained some salt of tartar from the above-mentioned oil; yet the experiment succeeded nothing near so well with that liquor, as with a lixivium.

I made also the like trial with exceedingly dephlegmed spirit of wine, and as strong a brine as I could make of common salt dissolved, without heat, in common water; and I thereby obtained no despicable proportion of finely figured salt, that was let fall to the bottom. But this experiment, to be successful, requires greater care in him, that makes it, than the former needs.

To confirm, and somewhat to vary this way of precipitation, I shall add, that having made a clear solution of choice gum Arabic in common water, and poured upon it a little high rectified spirit of wine; on this occasion there was also made, and that in a trice, a copious precipitation of a light and purely white substance, not unpleasant to behold. And, for further confirmation, I dissolved a full proportion of myrrh in fair water, and into the filtrated solution, which was transparent, but of a high brown colour, I dropped a large proportion (which circumstance is not to be omitted) of carefully dephlegmed spirit of wine, which, according to expectation, made a copious precipitate of the gum. And these instances I the rather set down in this place, because they seem to shew, that simple water is a real menstruum, which may have its dissolving and sustaining virtue weakened by the accession of liquors, that are not doubted to be much stronger than it.

By specifying the hitherto mentioned ways, whereby precipitations may be mechanically performed and accounted for, I would by no means be thought to deny, that there may be some omitted here, which either others, that shall consider the matter with more attention, or I myself, if I shall have leisure to do it, may think on. For I propose these but as the chief, that occur to my present thoughts; and I forbear to add more instances to exemplify them, because I would not injure some of my other papers, that have a greater right to those instances. Only this I shall note in general, that the doctrine and history of precipitations, if well delivered, will be a thing of more extent and moment, than seems hitherto to have been imagined; since not only several of the changes in the blood, and other liquors and juices of the human body, may thereby be the better understood; and they prevented, or their ill consequences remedied; but in the practical part of mineralogy, divers useful things may probably be performed by the assistance of such a doctrine and history. To keep which conjecture from seeming extravagant, I shall only here intimate, that it is not alone in bodies,

dies, that are naturally or permanently liquid, but in those solid and ponderous bodies, that are for a short time made so by the violence of the fire, that many of the things suggested by this doctrine may have place. For whilst divers of those bodies are in fusion, they may be treated as liquors; and metals, and perhaps other heterogeneous bodies, may be obtained from them by fit, though dry precipitants, as in some other writings I partly did, and may elsewhere yet further declare.

EXPERIMENTS and NOTES

ABOUT THE

MECHANICAL PRODUCTION of MAGNETISM.

ADVERTISEMENT concerning the following NOTES about OCCULT QUALITIES.

THE following paper (about magnetism and electricity) would appear with less disadvantage, if the author's willingness and promise, that this tome should be furnished with notes about some occult qualities, as well as about divers sorts of those, that are presumed to be manifest, did not prevail with him to let the ensuing notes appear, without those about the pores of bodies and figures of corpuscles, that should have preceded them; and some others, that should have accompanied them. But the author chose rather to venture these papers abroad in the condition, such as it is, they now appear in, than make those already printed about manifest quantities stay longer for accessions, which some troublesome accidents will not suffer him to hasten to the press; and without which, he now fears this tome may swell to a more than competent bulk.

EXPERIMENTS and NOTES about the Mechanical Production of MAGNETICAL QUALITIES.

THOUGH the virtues of the load-stone be none of the least famous of occult qualities, and are perhaps the most justly admired; yet I shall venture to offer something to make it probable, that some, even of these, may be introduced into bodies by the production of mechanical changes in them.

To make way for what I am to deliver to this purpose, it will be expedient to remove that general and settled prejudice, that has kept men from so much as thinking of any mechanical account of magnetisms, which is a belief, that these qualities do immediately flow from the substantial form of the loadstone, whose abstruse nature is disproportionate to our understandings.

EXPERIMENT I.

BUT for my part, I confess, I see no necessity of admitting this supposition; for I see, that a piece of steel fitly shaped and well excited will, like a loadstone, have its determinate poles, and with them point at the north and south; it will draw other pieces of iron and steel to it, and, which is more, communicate to them the same kind, though not degree, of attractive and directive virtue it had itself, and will possess these faculties,

faculties, not as light and transient impressions, but as such settled and durable powers, that it may retain them for many years, if the loadstone, to which it has been duly applied, were vigorous enough; of which sort I remember I have seen one (and made some trials with it) that yielded an income to the owner, who received money from navigators and others, for suffering them to touch their needles, swords, knives, &c. at his excellent magnet. Now, in a piece of steel or iron thus excited, it is plain, that the magnetic operations may be regularly performed for whole years by a body, to which the form of a loadstone does not belong, since, as it had its own form before, so it retains the same still, continuing as malleable, fusible, &c. as an ordinary piece of the same metal unexcited: so that, if there be introduced a fit disposition into the internal parts of the metal by the action of the loadstone, the metal, continuing of the same species it was before, will need nothing, save the continuance of that acquired disposition to be capable of performing magnetical operations; and if this disposition or internal constitution of the excited iron be destroyed, though the form of the metal be not at all injured, yet the former power of attraction shall be abolished, as appears,

E X P E R I M E N T II.

WHEN an excited iron is made red hot in the fire, and suffered to cool again.

AND here give me leave to take notice of what I have elsewhere related to another purpose, namely,

E X P E R I M E N T III.

THAT a loadstone may, as I have more than once tried, be easily deprived by ignition of its power of sensibly attracting martial bodies, and yet be scarce, if at all, visibly changed, but continue a true loadstone in other capacities, which, according to the vulgar philosophy ought to depend upon its substantial form, and the loadstone thus spoiled may, notwithstanding this form, have its poles altered at pleasure like a piece of iron; as I have elsewhere particularly declared.

AND I will confirm what I have been saying with an experiment, that you do not perhaps expect; namely, that though it be generally taken for granted (without being contradicted, that I know of, by any man) that, in a sound loadstone, that has never been injured by the fire, not only the attractive power, but the particular virtue, that it has to point constantly, when left to itself, with one of its determinate extremes to one determinate pole, flows immediately from the substantial, or at least essential form; yet this form remaining undestroyed by fire, the poles may be changed, and that with ease and speed. For among my notes about magnetical experiments, whence I borrow some passages of this paper, I find the following account.

E X P E R I M E N T IV.

To shew, that the virtue, that a loadstone hath by this determinate pole or extreme to attract, for example, the south-end of a poised needle, and with the opposite extreme or pole the north-end of the same needle, I made, among other trials, the following experiment.

TAKING a very small fragment of a loadstone, I found, agreeably to my conjecture, that by applying sometimes one pole, sometimes the other, to that pole of (a small, but) a very vigorous loadstone, that was fit for my purpose, I could at pleasure, in a few minutes, change the poles of the little fragment, as I tried by its operations upon a needle freely poised; though by applying a fragment a pretty deal bigger, (for in itself it appeared very small,) I was not able, in far more hours than I employed minutes before, to make any sensible change of the poles.

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THIS short memorial being added to the preceding part of this discourse, will, I hope, satisfy you, that how unanimously so ever men have deduced all magnetick operations from the form of the loadstone, yet some internal change of pores, or some other mechanical alterations, or inward disposition, either of the excited iron, or of the loadstone itself, may suffice to make a body capable or incapable of exercising some determinate magnetical operations; which may invite you to cast a more unprejudiced eye upon those few particulars, I shall now subjoin, to make it probable, that even magnetical qualities may be mechanically produced or altered.

EXPERIMENT V.

I have often observed in the shops of artificers, as smiths, turners of metals, &c. that, when hardened and well tempered tools are well heated by attrition, if, whilst they are thus warmed, you apply them to filings or chips, as they call them, or thin fragments of steel or iron, they will take them up, as if the instruments were touched with a loadstone: but as they will not do so, unless they be thus excited by rubbing till they be warmed, by which means a greater commotion is made in the inner parts of the steel, so neither would they retain so vigorous a magnetism, as to support the little fragments of steel, that stuck to them after they were grown cold again. Which may be confirmed by what, if I much mis-remember not, I shewed some acquaintances of yours:

EXPERIMENT VI.

WHICH was, that, by barely rubbing a conveniently shaped piece of steel against the floor, till it had gained a sufficient heat, it would, whilst it continued so, discover a manifest, though but faint attractive power, which vanished together with the adventitious heat.

EXPERIMENT VII.

WE elsewhere observe, which perhaps you also may have done, that the iron bars of windows, by having stood very long in an erected posture, may, at length, grow magnetical, so that, if you apply the north point of a poised and excited needle to the bottom of the bar, it will drive it away, and attract the southern; and if you raise the magnetic needle to the upper part of the bar, and apply it as before, this will draw the northern extreme, which the other end of the bar expelled; probably because, as it is elsewhere declared, the bar is in tract of time, by the continual action of the magnetical effluvia of the terraqueous globe, turned into a kind of magnet, whose lower end becomes the north pole of it, and the other the southern. Therefore, according to the magnetical laws, the former must expel the northern extreme of the needle, and the latter draw it.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

I HAVE found indeed, and I question not but other observers may have done so too, that if a bar of iron, that has not stood long in an erected posture, be but held perpendicular, the forementioned experiment will succeed (probably upon such an account as that I lately intimated:) but then this virtue, displayed by the extremes of the bar of iron, will not be at all permanent, but so transient, that if the bar be but inverted and held again upright, that end, which just before was the uppermost, and drew the north end of the needle, will now, being lowermost, drive it away, which, as was lately observed, will not happen to a bar, which has been some years, or other competent time, kept in the same position. So that, since length of time is requisite to make the verticity of a bar of iron so durable and constant, that the same extreme will have the same virtues in reference to the magnetical needle, whether you make it
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the upper end or the lower end of the bar, it seems not improbable to me, that by length of time the whole magnetick virtue of this iron may be encreased, and consequently some degree of attraction acquired.

AND by this consideration I shall endeavour to explicate that strange thing, that is reported by some moderns to have happened in *Italy*, where a bar of iron is affirmed to have been converted into a loadstone, whereof a piece was kept, among other rarities, in the curious *Aldrovandus's Musæum Metallicum*. For considering the greatness of its specific gravity, the malleableness and other properties, wherein iron differs from loadstone, I cannot easily believe, that by such a way, as is mentioned, a metal should be turned into a stone. And therefore, having consulted the book itself, whence this relation was borrowed, I found the story imperfectly enough delivered; the chiefest and clearest thing in it being, that at the top of the church of *Arimini* a great iron bar, that was placed there to support a cross of an hundred pound weight, was at length turned into a loadstone. But whether the reality of this transmutation was examined, and how it appeared, that the fragment of the loadstone presented to *Aldrovandus* was taken from that bar of iron, I am not fully satisfied by that narrative. Therefore, when I remember the great resemblance I have sometimes seen in colour, besides other manifest qualities, betwixt some loadstones and some coarse or almost rusty iron, I am tempted to conjecture, that those that observed this iron bar, when broken, to have acquired a strong magnetical virtue, which they dreamed not, that tract of time might communicate to it, might easily be persuaded, by this virtue and the resemblance of colour, that the iron was turned into loadstone: especially they being prepossessed with that Aristotelian maxim, whence our author would explain this strange phænomenon, that *inter symbolum habentia facilis est transmutatio*.

BUT leaving this as a bare conjecture, we may take notice, that what virtue an oblong piece of iron may need a long tract of time to acquire, by the help only of its position, may be imparted to it in a very short time, by the intervention of such a nimble agent as the fire.

EXPERIMENT IX.

As may be often, though not always, observed in tongs, and such like iron utensils, that, having been ignited, have been set to cool, leaning against some wall or other prop, that kept them in an erected posture, which makes it probable, that the great commotion of the parts, made by the vehement heat of the fire, disposed the iron, whilst it was yet soft, and had its pores more lax, and parts more pliable, disposed it, I say, to receive much quicker impressions from the magnetical effluvia of the earth, than it would have done, if it had still been cold.

EXPERIMENT X.

AND it is very observable to our present purpose, what differing effects are produced by the operation of the fire, upon two magnetic bodies, according to their respective constitutions. For, by keeping a loadstone red-hot, though you cool it afterwards in a perpendicular posture, you may deprive it of its former power of manifestly attracting: but a bar of iron being ignited, and set to cool perpendicularly, does thereby acquire a manifest verticity. Of which differing events I must not now stay to enquire, whether or no the true reason be, that the peculiar texture, or internal constitution, that makes a loadstone somewhat more than an ordinary ore of iron, (which metal, as far as I have tried, is the usual ingredient of loadstones) being spoiled by the violence of the fire, this rude agent leaves it in the condition of common iron, or, perhaps, of ignited iron-ore: whereas the fire does soften the iron itself, (which is a metal, not

an ore) agitating its parts, and making them the more flexible, and by relaxing its pores, disposes it to be easily and plentifully pervaded by the magnetical steams of the earth, from which it may not improbably be thought to receive the verticity it acquires; and this the rather, because, as I have often tried, and elsewhere mentioned,

EXPERIMENT XI.

IF an oblong loadstone, once spoiled by the fire, be thoroughly ignited and cooled, either perpendicularly, or lying horizontally north and south, it will, as well as a piece of iron handled after the same manner, be made to acquire new poles, or change the old ones, as the skilful experimenter pleases. But whatever be the true cause of the disparity of the fire's operation upon a sound loadstone and a bar of iron, the effect seems to strengthen our conjecture, that magnetical operations may much depend upon mechanical principles. And I hope you will find further probability added to it, by some phænomena recited in another paper, to which I once committed some promiscuous experiments and observations magnetical.

EXPERIMENT XII.

IF I may be allowed to borrow an experiment from a little tract *, that yet lies by me, and has been seen but by two or three friends, it may be added to the instances already given about the production of magnetism. For in that experiment I have shewn, how having brought a good piece of a certain kind of English oker, which yet, perhaps, was no fitter than other, to a convenient shape, though, till it was altered by the fire, it discovered no magnetical quality; yet, after it had been kept red-hot in the fire, and was suffered to cool in a convenient posture, it was enabled to exercise magnetical operations upon a poised needle.

EXPERIMENT XIII.

As for the abolition of the magnetical virtue in a body endowed with it, it may be made without destroying the substantial, or the essential form of the body, and without sensibly adding, diminishing, or altering any thing, in reference to the salt, sulphur, and mercury, which chemists presume iron and steel, as well as other mixed bodies, to be composed of. For it has been sometimes observed, that the bare continuance of a loadstone itself, in a contrary position to that, which, when freely placed, it seems to effect, has either corrupted, or sensibly lessened the virtue of it. What I formerly observed to this purpose, I elsewhere relate, and since that, having a loadstone, whose vigour was looked upon, by skilful persons, as very extraordinary, and which, whilst it was in an artificer's hand, was therefore held at a high rate, I was careful, being by some occasions called out of *London*, to lock it up, with some other rarities, in a cabinet, whereof I took the key along with me, and still kept it in my own pocket. But my stay abroad proving much longer than I expected, when, being returned to *London*, I had occasion to make use of this loadstone for an experiment, I found it indeed where I left it, but so exceedingly decayed, as to its attractive power, which I had formerly examined by weight, by having lain almost a year in an inconvenient posture, that if it had not been for the circumstances newly related, I should have concluded, that some body had purposely got it out in my absence, and spoiled it by help of the fire, the virtue being so much impaired, that I cared little to employ it any more about considerable experiments.

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* Relating to the magnetism of the earth.

EXPERIMENT XIV.

AND this corruption of the magnetical virtue, which may, in tract of time, be made in a loadstone itself, may, in a trice, be made by the help of that stone in an excited needle. For, it is observed by magnetical writers, and my own trials, purposely made, have assured me of it, that a well-poised needle, being, by the touch of a good loadstone, excited and brought to turn one of its ends to the north, and the other to the south, it may, by a contrary touch of the same loadstone, be deprived of the faculty it had of directing its determinate extremes to determinate poles. Nay, by another touch (or the same, and even without immediate contact, if the magnet be vigorous enough) the needle may presently have its direction so changed, that the end, which formerly pointed to the north pole, shall now regard the south, and the other end shall, instead of the southern, respect the northern pole.

EXPERIMENT XV.

AND to make it the more probable, that the change of the magnetism, communicated to iron, may be produced, at least, in good part, by mechanical operations, procuring some change of texture in the iron; I shall subjoin a notable experiment of the ingenious Dr. *Power*, which, when I heard of, I tried as well as I could; and though, perhaps for want of conveniency, I could not make it fully answer what it promised, yet the success of the trial was considerable enough to make it pertinent in this place, and to induce me to think, it might yet better succeed with him, whose experiment, as far as it concerns my present purpose, imports, that if a puncheon, as smiths call it, or a rod of iron, be, by being ignited and suffered to cool north and south, and hammered at the ends, very manifestly endowed with magnetical virtue, this virtue will, in a trice be destroyed, by two or three smart blows of a strong hammer, upon the middle of the oblong piece of iron.

BUT magnetism is so fertile a subject, that, if I had now the leisure and conveniency to range among magnetical writers, I should scarce doubt of finding, among their many experiments and observations, divers, that might be added to those above delivered, as being easily applicable to my present argument. And I hope you will find farther probability added to what has been said, to shew, "that magnetical operations may much depend upon mechanical principles," by some phænomena recited in another paper, to which I once committed some promiscuous experiments and observations magnetical.

EXPERIMENTS and NOTES

ABOUT THE

Mechanical Origin or Production of ELECTRICITY.

THAT it is not necessary to believe electrical attraction (which, you know, is generally listed among occult qualities) to be the effect of a naked and solitary quality, flowing immediately from a substantial form; but that it may rather be the effect of a material effluvium, issuing from, and returning to the electrical body

(and perhaps in some cases assisted in its operation by the external air) seems agreeable to divers things, that may be observed in such bodies and their manner of acting.

THERE are differing hypotheses (and all of them mechanical, proposed by the moderns) to solve the phænomena of electrical attraction. Of these opinions the first is, that of the learned Jesuit *Cabæus*, who, though a Peripatetick and commentator on *Aristotle*, thinks the drawing of light bodies by jet, amber, &c. may be accounted for, by supposing, that the steams, that issue, or, if I may so speak, fall out of amber, when heated by rubbing, discuss and expel the neighbouring air; which after it has been driven off a little way, makes as it were a small whirlwind, because of the resistance it finds from the remoter air, which has not been wrought on by the electrical steams; and that these, shrinking back swiftly enough to the amber, do in their returns bring along with them such light bodies, as they meet with in their way. On occasion of which hypothesis I shall offer it to be considered, whether by the gravity of the atmospherical air, surmounting the specifick gravity of the little and rarified atmosphere, made about the amber by its emissions, and comprising the light body fastened on by them, the attraction may not in divers cases be either caused or promoted.

ANOTHER hypothesis is that proposed by that ingenious gentleman, Sir *Kenelm Digby*, and embraced by the very learned Dr. *Browne*, (who seems to make our *Gilbert* himself to have been of it) and divers other sagacious men. And, according to this hypothesis, the amber, or other electrick, being chafed or heated, is made to emit certain rays or files of unctuous steams, which, when they come to be a little cooled by the external air, are somewhat condensed, and having lost of their former agitation, shrink back to the body, whence they sallied out, and carry with them those light bodies, that their further ends happen to adhere to, at the time of their retraction: as when a drop of oil or syrup hangs from the end of a small stick, if that be dextrously and cautiously struck, the viscous substance will, by that impulse, be stretched out, and presently retreating, will bring along with it the dust or other light bodies, that chanced to stick to the remoter parts of it.

AND this way of explaining electrical attractions is employed also by the learned *Gassendus*, who adds to it, that these electrical rays, if they may be so called, being emitted several ways, and consequently crossing one another, get into the pores of the straw, or other light body to be attracted, and by means of their decussation, take the faster hold of it, and have the greater force to carry it along with them, when they shrink back to the amber, whence they were emitted.

A third hypothesis there is, which was devised by the acute *Cartesius*, who dislikes the explications of others, chiefly because he thinks them not applicable to glass, which he supposes unfit to send forth effluvia, and which is yet an electrical body; and therefore attempts to account for electrical attractions by the intervention of certain particles, shaped almost like small pieces of ribband, which he supposes to be formed of this subtile matter harboured in the pores or crevices of glass. But this hypothesis, though ingenious in itself, yet depending upon the knowledge of divers of his peculiar principles, I cannot intelligibly propose it in few words, and therefore shall refer you to himself for an account of it: which I the less scruple to do, because though it be not unworthy of the wonted acuteness of the author, yet he seems himself to doubt, whether it will reach all electrical bodies; and it seems to me, that the reason, why he rejects the way of explicating attraction by the emission of the finer parts of the attractant (to which hypothesis, if it be rightly proposed, I confess myself very inclinable) is grounded upon a mistake, which, though a philosopher may, for want of experience in that particular, without disparagement fall into, is nevertheless a mistake. For whereas our excellent author says, that electrical effluvia, such as are supposed to be emitted

emitted by amber, wax, &c. cannot be imagined to proceed from glass, I grant the supposition to be plausible, but cannot allow it to be true. For as solid a body as glass is, yet if you but dexterously rub for two or three minutes a couple of pieces of glass against one another, you will find, that glass is not only capable of emitting effluvia, but such ones, as to be odorous, and sometimes to be rankly stinking.

BUT it is not necessary, that in this paper, where I pretend not to write discourses but notes, I should consider all, that has been, or I think may be, said for and against each of the above-mentioned hypotheses; since they all agree in what is sufficient for my present purpose, namely, that electrical attractions are not the effects of a mere quality, but of a substantial emanation from the attracting body; and it is plain, that they all endeavour to solve the phenomena in a mechanical way, without recurring to substantial forms, and inexplicable qualities, or so much as taking notice of the hypothetical principles of the chemists. Wherefore it may suffice in this place, that I mention some phenomena, that in general make it probable, that amber, &c. draws such light bodies, as pieces of straw, hair, and the like, by virtue of some mechanical affections either of the attracting, or of the attracted bodies, or of both the one and the other.

1. THE first and most general observation is, that electrical bodies draw not, unless they be warmed; which rule, though I have now and then found to admit of an exception, (whereof I elsewhere offer an account,) yet as to the generality of common electricks, it holds well enough to give much countenance to our doctrine, which teaches the effects of electrical bodies to be performed by corporeal emanations. For it is known, that heat, by agitating the parts of a fit body, solicits it as it were to send forth its effluvia, as is obvious in odoriferous gums and perfumes, which, being heated, send forth their fragrant steams, both further and more copiously, than otherwise they would.

2. NEXT, it has been observed, that amber, &c. warmed by the fire, does not attract so vigorously, as if it acquire an equal degree of heat by being chafed or rubbed: so that the modification of motion in the internal parts, and in the emanations of the amber, may, as well as the degree of it, contribute to the attraction. And my particular observations incline me to add, that the effect may oftentimes be much promoted, by employing both these ways successively; as I thought I manifestly found, when I first warmed the amber at the fire, and presently after chafed it a little upon a piece of cloth. For then a very few rubbings seemed to excite it more than many more would otherwise have done: as if the heat of the fire had put the parts into a general, but confused agitation; to which it was easy for the subsequent attrition (or reciprocation of pressure) to give a convenient modification in a body, whose texture disposed it to become vigorously electrical.

3. ANOTHER observation, that is made about these bodies, is, that they require tension as well as attrition; and though I doubt whether the rule be infallible, yet I deny not, but that weaker electricks require to be as well wiped as chafed; and even good ones will have their operation promoted by the same means. And this is very agreeable to our doctrine, since tension, besides that it is, as I have sometimes manifestly known it, a kind or degree of attrition, frees the surface from those adherences, that might choak the pores of the amber, or at least hinder the emanation of the steams to be so free and copious, as otherwise they would be.

4. IT is likewise observed, that whereas the magnetical steams are so subtle, that they penetrate and perform their operation through all kind of mediums hitherto known to us; electrical steams are like those of some odoriferous bodies, easily checked in their progress, since it is affirmed by learned writers, who say they speak

upon particular trial, that the interposition of the finest linnen, or sarsnet, is sufficient to hinder all the operation of excited amber upon a straw or feather placed never so little beyond it.

5. IT has been also observed, that the effects of electrical attraction are weakened, if the air be thick and cloudy; and especially if the south wind blows; and that electricks display their virtue more faintly by night than by day, and more vigorously in clear weather, and when the winds are northerly. All which the learned *Kircherus* asserts himself to have found true by experience; insomuch, that those bodies, that are but faintly drawn, when the weather is clear, will not, when it is thick and cloudy, be at all moved.

6. WE have also observed, that divers concretes, that are notably electrical, do abound in an effluvia matter, (if I may so call it) which is capable of being manifestly evaporated by heat and rubbing. Thus we see, that most resinous gums, that draw light bodies, do also, being moderately solicited by heat, (whether this be excited by the fire, or by attrition or contusion) emit steams. And in pieces of sulphur conveniently shaped, I found, upon due attrition, a sulphureous stink. And that piece of amber, which I most employ, being somewhat large, and very well polished, will, being rubbed upon a piece of woollen cloth, emit steams, which the nostrils themselves may perceive; and they sometimes seem to me not unlike those, that I took notice of, when I kept in my mouth a drop or two of the diluted tincture (or solution of the finer parts) of amber made with spirit of wine, or of sal armoniac.

7. IT agrees very well with what has been said of the corporeal emanations of amber, that its attractive power will continue some time after it has been once excited. For the attrition having caused an intestine commotion in the parts of the concrete, the heat or warmth, that is thereby excited, ought not to cease, as soon as ever the rubbing is over, but to continue capable of emitting effluvia for some time afterwards, which will be longer or shorter, according to the goodness of the electric, and the degree of the antecedent commotion: which, joined together, may sometimes make the effect considerable, insomuch that in a warm day, about noon, I did, with a certain body, not much, if at all, bigger than a pea, but very vigorously attractive, move to and fro a steel needle, freely poised, about three minutes (or the twentieth part of an hour) after I had left off rubbing the attrahent.

8. THAT it may not seem impossible, that electrical effluvia should be able to insinuate themselves into the pores of many other bodies, I shall add, that I found them subtil enough to attract not only spirit of wine, but that fluid aggregate of corpuscles we call smoke. For having well lighted a wax taper, which I preferred to a common candle, to avoid the stink of the snuff, I blew out the flame; and, when the smoke ascended in a slender stream, held, at a convenient distance from it, an excited piece of amber, or a chafed diamond, which would manifestly make the ascending smoke deviate from its former line, and turn aside, to beat, as it were, against the electric, which, if it were vigorous, would act at a considerable distance, and seemed to smoke for a pretty while together.

9. THAT it is not in any peculiar sympathy between an electric and a body, whereon it operates, that electrical attraction depends, seems the more probable, because amber, for instance, does not attract only one determinate sort of bodies, as the loadstone does iron, and those bodies, wherein it abounds; but, as far as I have yet tried, it draws indifferently all bodies whatsoever, being placed within a due distance from it, (as my choicest piece of amber draws not only sand and mineral powders, but filings of steel and copper, and beaten gold itself) provided they be minute or light enough, except, perhaps, it be fire: I employ the word perhaps, because I am not yet so clear in this point.

For having applied a strong electric, at a convenient distance, to small fragments of ignited matter, they were readily enough attracted, and shined, whilst they were sticking to the body, that had drawn them. But, when I looked attentively upon them, I found the shining sparks to be, as it were, cloathed with light ashes, which, in spite of my diligence, had been already formed about the attracted corpuscles, upon the expiring of a good part of the fire; so that it remained somewhat doubtful to me, whether the ignited corpuscles, whilst they were totally such, were attracted; or whether the immediate objects of the attraction were not the new formed ashes, which carried up with them those yet unextinguished parts of fire, that chanced to be lodged in them. But, as for flame, our countryman *Gilbert* delivers, as his experiment, that an electric, though duly excited and applied, will not move the flame of the slenderest candle; which some will think not so easy to be well tried with common electricks, as amber, hard wax, sulphur, and the like unctuous concretes, that very easily take fire: therefore I chose to make my trial, with a rough diamond, extraordinarily attractive, which I could, without injuring it, hold, as near as I pleased, to the flame of a candle, or taper; and though I was not satisfied, that it did either attract the flame, as it visibly did the smoke, or manifestly agitate it; yet, granting, that *Gilbert's* assertion will constantly hold true, and so, that flame is to be excepted from the general rule, yet this exception may well comport with the hypothesis hitherto countenanced, since it may be said, as it is, if I mistake not, by *Kircherus*, that the heat of the flame dissipates the effluvia, by whose means the attraction should be performed. To which I shall add, that possibly the celerity of the motion of the flame upwards may render it very difficult, for the electrical emanations to divert the flame from its course.

10. We have found by experiment, that a vigorous and well excited piece of amber will draw, not only the powder of amber, but less minute fragments of it. And as, in many cases, one contrary directs to another, so this trial suggested a further, which, in case of good success, would probably argue, that, in electrical attraction, not only effluvia are emitted by the electrical body, but these effluvia fasten upon the body to be drawn, and that in such a way, that the intervening viscous strings, which may be supposed to be made up of those cohering effluvia, are, when their agitation ceases, contracted or made to shrink inwards, towards both ends, almost as a highly stretched lute-string does, when it is permitted to retreat into shorter Dimensions. But the conjecture itself was much more easy to be made, than the experiment requisite to examine it. For we found it no easy matter to suspend an electric, great and vigorous enough, in such a manner, that it might, whilst suspended, be excited, and be so nicely poised, that so faint a force as that, wherewith it attracts light bodies, should be able to procure a local motion to the whole body itself. But after some fruitless attempts with other electricks, I had recourse to the very vigorous piece of polished amber, formerly mentioned; and when we had, with the help of a little wax, suspended it by a silken thread, we chafed very well one of the blunt edges of it upon a kind of large pin-cushion, covered with a coarse and black woollen stuff, and then brought the electric, as soon as we could, to settle, notwithstanding its hanging freely at the bottom of the string. This course of rubbing on the edge of the amber we pitched upon for more than one reason; for if we had chafed the flat side, the amber could not have approached the body it had been rubbed on, without making a change of place in the whole electric; and, which is worse, without making it move (contrary to the nature of heavy bodies) somewhat upwards; whereas the amber having, by reason of its suspension, its parts counterpoised by one another, to make the excited edge approach to another body, that edge needed not all ascend, but only be moved horizontally, to which way of moving the gravity of the electric (which the string kept from moving downwards)

downwards) could be but little or no hinderance. And, agreeably to this, we found, that if, as soon as the suspended and well rubbed electric was brought to settle freely, we applied to the chafed edge, but without touching it, the lately mentioned cushion, which, by reason of its rough superficies and porosity, was fit for the electrical effluvia to fasten upon, the edge would manifestly be drawn aside by the cushion steadily held, and if this were slowly removed, would follow it a good way; and when this body no longer detained it, would return to the posture, wherein it had settled before. And this power of approaching the cushion, by virtue of the operation of its own steams, was so durable in our vigorous piece of amber, that, by once chafing it, I was able to make it follow the cushion no less than ten or eleven times. Whether from such experiments one may argue, that it is but, as it were, by accident, that amber attracts another body, and not this the amber; and whether these ought to make us question, if electricks may, with so much propriety, as has been hitherto generally supposed, be said to attract, are doubts, that my design does not here oblige me to examine.

SOME other phænomena might be added of the same tendency with those already mentioned, (as the advantage, that electrical bodies usually get by having well polished, or, at least, smooth surfaces;) but the title of this paper promising some experiments about the production of electricity, I must not omit to recite, how I have been sometimes able to produce or destroy this quality in certain bodies, by means of alterations, that appeared not to be other than mechanical.

EXPERIMENT I.

AND first, having, with a very mild heat, slowly evaporated about a fourth part of good turpentine, I found, that the remaining body would not, when cold, continue a liquor, but hardened into a transparent gum almost like amber, which, as I looked for, proved electrical.

EXPERIMENT II.

SECONLY, by mixing two such liquid bodies, as petroleum and strong spirit of nitre, in a certain proportion, and then distilling them till there remained a dry mass, I obtained a brittle substance as black as jet; and whose superficies (where it was contiguous to the retort) was glossy, like that mineral, when polished; and, as I expected, I found it also to resemble jet, in being endowed with an electrical faculty.

EXPERIMENT III.

THIRDLY, having burnt antimony to ashes, and of those ashes, without any addition, made a transparent glass, I found, that, when rubbed, as electrical bodies ought to be to excite them, it answered my expectation, by manifesting a not inconsiderable electricity. And this is the worthier of notice, because, that as a vitrum antimonii, that is said to be purer than ordinary, may be made of regulus of the same mineral, in whose preparation you know a great part of the antimonial sulphur is separated, and left among the scoræ; so glass of antimony, made without additament, may easily, as experience has informed us, be in part reduced to a regulus, (a body not reckoned amongst electrical ones.) And that you may not think, that it is only some peculiar and fixed part of the antimony, that is capable of vitrification, let me assure you, that, even with the other part, that is wont to fly away, (namely, the flowers) an antimonial glass may, without an addition of other ingredients, be made.

EXPERIMENT IV.

FOURTHLY, the mention of a vitrified body brings into my mind, that I more than once made some glass of lead *per se*, (which I found no very easy work) that also was
not

not wholly destitute of an electrical virtue, though it had but a very languid one. And it is not here to be overlooked, that this glass might easily be brought to afford again malleable lead, which was never reckoned, that I know of, among electrical bodies.

EXPERIMENT V.

FIFTHLY, having taken some amber, and warily distilled it, not with sand or powdered brick, or some such additament, as chemists are wont to use, for fear it should boil over, or break their vessels; but by itself, that I might have an unmixed *caput mortuum*: having made this distillation, I say, and continued it, till it had afforded a good proportion of phlegm, spirit, volatile salt, and oil, the retort was warily broken, and the remaining matter was taken out in a lump, which, though it had quite lost its colour, being burned quite black, and though it were grown strangely brittle, in comparison of amber, so that they, who believe the virtue of attracting light bodies to flow from the substantial form of amber, would not expect it in a body so changed and deprived of its noblest parts; yet this *caput mortuum* was so far from having lost its electrical faculty, that it seemed to attract more vigorously than amber itself is wont to do, before it be committed to distillation.

AND from the foregoing instances afforded us by the glass of antimony, we may learn, that when the form of a body seems to be destroyed by a fiery analysis, that dissipates the parts of it, the remaining substance may yet be endowed with electricity, as the *caput mortuum* of amber may acquire it; as in the case of the glass of antimony made of the calx and of the flowers. And from the second example above-mentioned, and from common glass, which is electrical, we may also learn, that bodies, that are neither of them apart observed to be endowed with electricity, may have that virtue result in the compounded substance, that they constitute, though it be but a factitious body.

To the foregoing experiments, whose success is wont to be uniform enough, I shall add the recital of a surprising phenomenon, which, though not constant, may help to make it probable, that electrical attractions need not be supposed still to proceed from the substantial, or even from the essential form of the attractent, but may be the effects of unheeded, and, as it were, fortuitous causes. And, however, I dare not suppress so strange an observation, and therefore shall relate that, which I had the luck to make of an odd sort of electrical attraction (as it seemed,) not taken notice of (that I know of) by any either naturalist or other writer, and it is this.

EXPERIMENT VI.

THAT false locks, as they call them, of some hair, being by curling or otherwise brought to a certain degree of dryness, or of stiffness, will be attracted by the flesh of some persons, or seem to apply themselves to it, as hair is wont to do to amber or jet excited by rubbing. Of this I had a proof in such locks worn by two very fair ladies, that you know. For at some times I observed, that they could not keep their locks from flying to their cheeks, and (though neither of them made any use, or had any need of painting) from sticking there. When one of these beauties first shewed me this experiment, I turned it into a complemental raillery, as suspecting there might be some trick in it, though I after saw the same thing happen to the others locks too. But as she is no ordinary virtuosa, she very ingeniously removed my suspicions, and, as I requested, gave me leave to satisfy myself further, by desiring her to hold her warm hand at a convenient distance from one of those locks taken off and held in the air. For as soon as she did this, the lower end of the lock, which was free, applied itself presently to her hand: which seemed the more strange, because so great a multi-
tude

tude of hair would not have been easily attracted by an ordinary electrical body, that had not been considerably large, or extraordinarily vigorous. This repeated observation put me upon enquiring among some other young ladies, whether they had observed any such like thing; but I found little satisfaction to my question, except from one of them eminent for being ingenious, who told me, that sometimes she had met with these troublesome locks; but that all she could tell me of the circumstances, which I would have been informed about, was, that they seemed to her to fly most to her cheeks, when they had been put into a somewhat stiff curl, and when the weather was frosty*.

You will probably be the less disposed to believe, that electrical attractions must proceed from the substantial forms of the attractants, or from the predominancy of this or that chemical principle in them, if I acquaint you with some odd trials, wherein the attraction of light bodies seemed to depend upon very small circumstances. And though forbearing at present, to offer you my thoughts about the cause of these surprising phænomena, I propose it only as a problem to yourself, and your curious friends, yet the main circumstances seeming to be of a mechanical nature, the recital of my trials will not be impertinent to the design and subject of this paper.

EXPERIMENT VII.

I took then a large and vigorous piece of amber, conveniently shaped for my purpose, and a downy feather, such as grows upon the bodies, not wings or tails of a somewhat large chicken: then having moderately excited the electrick, I held the amber so near it, that the neighbouring part of the feather was drawn by it, and stuck fast to it; but the remoter parts continued in their former posture. This done, I applied my fore-finger to these erected downy feathers, and immediately, as I expected, they left their preceding posture, and applied themselves to it, as if it had been an electrical body. And whether I offered to them my nail, or the pulpy part of my finger, or held my finger towards the right hand or the left, or directly over, these downy feathers, that were near the little quill, did nimbly, and, for aught appeared, equally turn themselves towards it. And to shew, that the steams, that issued out of so warm a body as my finger, were not necessary to attract, as men speak, the above-mentioned feathers, instead of my finger, I applied to them, after the same manner, a little cylindrical instrument of silver, to which they bowed and fastened themselves, as they had done to my finger, though the tip of this instrument were presented to them in several postures. The like success I had with the end of an iron key, and the like also with a cold piece of polished black marble; and sometimes the feathers did so readily and strongly fasten themselves to these extraneous and unexcited bodies, that I have been able, though not easily, to make one of them draw the feather from the amber itself.

BUT

* Some years after the making the experiments about the production of electricity, having a desire to try, whether in the attractions made by amber, the motions excited by the air had a considerable interest, or whether the effect were not due rather to the emission and retraction of effluvia, which being of a viscous nature may consist of particles either branched or hooked, or otherwise fit for some kind of cohesion, and capable of being stretched, and of shrinking again, as leather thongs are: to examine this, I say, I thought the fittest way, if it were practicable, would be, to try, whether amber would draw a light body in a glass whence the air was pumped out. And though the trial of this seemed very difficult to make, and we were somewhat discouraged by our first attempt, wherein the weight of the ambient air broke our receiver, which chanced to prove too weak, when the internal air had been with extraordinary diligence pumped out; yet having a vigorous piece of amber, which I had caused to be purposely turned and polished for electrical experiments, I afterwards repeated the trial, and found, that in warm weather, it would retain a manifest power of attracting for several minutes (for it stirred a poised needle after above one quarter of an hour) after we had done rubbing it. Upon which encouragement we suspended it, being first well chafed, in a glass receiver, that was not great, just over a light body; and making haste with our air pump to exhaust the glass, when the air was withdrawn, we did by a contrivance let down the suspended amber, till it came very near the straw or feather, and perceived, as we expected, that in some trials, upon the least contact it would lift it up; and in others, (for we repeated the experiment,) the amber would raise it without touching it, that is, would attract it.

BUT it is diligently to be observed, that this unusual attraction happened only, whilst the electrical operation of the excited amber continued strong enough to sustain the feathers. For afterwards, neither the approach of my finger, nor that of the other bodies, would make the downy feathers change their posture. Yet, as soon as ever the amber was by light attrition excited again, the feather would be disposed to apply itself again to the abovementioned bodies.

AND lest there should be any peculiarity in that particular feather, I made the trials, with others, (provided they were not long enough to exceed the sphere of activity of the amber) and found the experiment to answer my expectation.

I made the experiment also at differing times, and with some months, if not rather years, of interval, but with the like success.

AND lest you should think these phænomena proceed from some peculiarity in the piece of amber I employed, I shall add, that I found uniformity enough in the success, when, in the place of amber, I substituted another electrick, and particularly a smooth mass of melted brimstone.

THESE are the phænomena I thought fit to mention, at present, of this unusual way of drawing light bodies, and with this experiment I should conclude my notes about electricity, but that, I think, it will not be amiss, before I take leave of this subject, to give this advertisement, that the event of electrical experiments is not always so certain as that of many others, being sometimes much varied by seemingly slight circumstances, and now and then by some, that are altogether over-looked. This observation may receive credit from some of the particulars above recited (especially concerning the interest of the weather, &c. in electrical phænomena.) But now I shall add, that, not only there may happen some variations in the success of trials made with electrical bodies, but that it is not so certain as many think, whether some particular bodies be or be not electrical. For the inquisitive *Kircherus* reckons crystal among those gems, to whom nature has denied the attractive power we are speaking of; and yet I remember not, that among all the trials I have made with natural crystal, I have found any, that was destitute of the power he refuses them. Also a late most learned writer reciting the electricks, reckoned up by our industrious countryman *Gilbert*, and increasing their number by some observed by himself, (to which I shall now add, besides white sapphires, and white English amethysts, the almost diaphanous spar of lead ore) denies electricity to a couple of transparent gems, the cornelian and the emerald. And I do the less wonder he should do so to the former, because I have myself, in vain, tried to make any attraction with a piece of cornelian so large and fair, that it was kept for a rarity; and yet with divers other fine cornelians I have been able to attract some light bodies very manifestly, if not briskly; and I usually wear a cornelian ring, that is richly enough endowed with electricity. But as for emeralds, as I thought it strange, that nature should have denied them a quality she has granted to so many other diaphanous gems, and even to crystal, so I thought the assertion deserved an examen, upon which I concluded, that, at least, it does not universally and constantly hold true. I had, indeed, seen in a ring a stone of price and great lustre, which, though green, I found to be, (as I guessed it would prove) vigorously enough electrical. But this experiment, though seemingly conclusive, I did not look upon as a fair trial, because the stone was not a true emerald, but, which is rare, a green sapphire. And I learned by enquiry of the skillful jeweller, that cut it, that it was so far from having the softness of an emerald, that he found it harder than blue sapphires themselves, which yet are gems of great hardness, and by some reputed second to none, but diamonds. Without therefore concluding any thing from this experiment, save that, if the assertion I was to examine were true, the want of an electrical faculty might be thought a concomitant rather of the peculiar texture

of the emerald than of its green colour, I proceeded to make trial with three or four emeralds, whose being true was not doubted, and found them all somewhat, though not equally, endowed with electricity, which I found to be yet more considerable in an emerald of my own, whose colour was so excellent, that by skilful persons it was looked on as a rarity. And though, by this success of my enquiry, I perceived I could not, as else I have done, shew the curious a new way of judging of true and false emeralds, yet the like may be, though not always certain, yet oftentimes of use, in the estimating whether diamonds be true or counterfeit, especially if, being set in rings, the surest way of trying them cannot conveniently be employed. For whereas glass, though it have some electricity, seems, as far as I have observed, to have but a faint one, there are often found diamonds that have a very vigorous one. And I do not remember I met with any electrick of the same bulk, that was more vigorous than a rough diamond I have, which is the same, that I formerly mentioned to have moved a needle above three minutes after I had ceased to chafe it. And this brings into my mind, that it has been observed, that diamonds draw better whilst rough, than they do after they are cut and polished; which seeming to contradict what has been observed by others, and by us also, that amber, for instance, attracts more vigorously, if the surface be made very smooth than otherwise, it induces me to conjecture, that, if this observation about diamonds be true, as some of my trials have now and then inclined me to think it, and if it do not in some cases considerably depend upon the loss of the (electrical) substance of the stone, by its being cut and ground, the reason may possibly be, that the great rapidness, with which the wheels, that serve to cut and polish diamonds must be moved, does excite a great degree of heat, (which the senses may easily discover) in the stone, and by that and the strong concussion it makes of its parts, may force it to spend its effluvia, if I may so call it, so plentifully, that the stone may be impoverished, and perhaps also, on the account of some little change in its texture, be rendered less disposed to emit those effluvia, that are instruments of electrical attraction. But as I willingly leave the matter of fact to further trial, so I do the cause of it, in case it prove true, to further enquiry.

New EXPERIMENTS about the superficial Figures of FLUIDS, especially of Liquors contiguous to other Liquors.

First printed in the PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS, N^o. cxxxi. p. 775.

S I R,

IN compliance with your curiosity, I herewith send you my rude notes about the superficial figures of contiguous liquors, which belonging to a paper (concerning the pores and figures of bodies,) whereof they made the last part, and being themselves very indigested, I should by no means venture to expose them even to a less critical eye than yours, if I did not hope, that, though a more discerning reader will sooner discover their imperfections, yet he may be more inclined than an ordinary one would be to think them not useless trifles; since, if these trials and hints, as mean as they are, be prosecuted by naturalists, that have mathematical heads, perhaps they may conduce more to the physical theory of the grand system of the world, than at first one would suspect. And that I may leave you and your ingenious friends the greater opportunity

portunity and freedom to exercise their sagacity on these phænomena, I have purposely forbore to engage in speculative discourses upon them, contenting myself to have faithfully recited matter of fact, and thereby to have sprung game for those, that have more leisure and ability to fly at it.

———WHAT has been said about the pores of liquors may be somewhat illustrated or confirmed, if I subjoin to it some of the trials I have made about the surfaces of fluids contiguous to other fluids. For this being, for ought I know, a neglected subject, and the little, that has been taken notice of about it, consisting of a few slight and casual observations, that seem to have been rather presented to us, not to say obtruded upon us, than designedly made by us; I many years ago thought, it might be worth while to spend some hours upon Experiments of this sort: which I was especially induced to do, because I think, one may probably enough suppose, that in the tract of the universe, that is yet known to us, there is not the hundredth, perhaps not the thousandth, part, that is formed into solid bodies, such as the earth, the moon, and the other planets; and consequently all the rest is made up of celestial fluids and the atmospheres of solid globes, which, for ought we know, though not manifestly differing in transparency, may be determined by distinct surfaces. So that, to observe and consider the effects of the congruity and incongruity, that liquors, or such fluid bodies, as directly or otherwise fall under sensible observation, have, when they are contiguous to one another, or to the surfaces of solid bodies, may not only improve what is yet known about the ascension of liquors in small pipes, but may perchance serve to illustrate the formation of those great masses of matter, of which the divine architect has framed the mundane globes, and some other considerable parts of the universe; especially if we admit the Cartesian hypothesis, *That the sun, and all the fixt stars are fluid bodies.*

THE cause, why water in narrow pipes ascends above the level of the surrounding water, having been already enquired into by some ingenious men, and particularly by Mr. Hooke, I shall not now discourse of that subject, nor so much as mention what I have tried about it; but shall rather take notice, that, because I suspected, that the concave figure, which may be observed in the surface of water included in slender pipes, may, at least in great part, depend upon its relation to the contiguous fluid, which, in ordinary cases, is the air; I thought fit to try, whether this concave figure would not be altered by substituting another liquor in the room of the air: and accordingly having procured a strongly *Alcalizate Menstruum* (I used that made of fixt nitre, dissolved by the moisture of a cellar) into a pipe of glass, sealed at one end, and not full a quarter of an inch in bore; that the cavity, which in a greater breadth would seem less deep, might be the more conspicuous; we gently poured on it some highly dephlegmed spirit of wine, which we knew would not mix with it, but swim above it; and presently, as we had guessed, we found the figure of the surface of the lower liquor changed, and the cavity quite destroyed; the surface that seemed, as it were, common to the two contiguous liquors, appearing flat or horizontal. And such a level superficies we had, by putting those two liquors together in a much wider glass. Exp. I.

WE found also, that by employing oil of turpentine instead of spirit of wine, the liquor did almost totally lose its cavity. Exp. II.

BUT if, instead of deliquated tartar, we put common water into the pipe, we found this liquor to retain its concave surface, though we put to it some oil of turpentine and left it to rest upon the water a good while.

IN regard that, when oil and water are put together, the oil, that has been employed to produce the phænomena, wont to be afforded by their contact, has usually been common oil, as that of olives, which is lighter than water; I thought it expedient to try what figures would be afforded by the surface of water and also by that of air, when

when those fluids should become contiguous to an oil, heavier than water: of which fort chymistry had afforded me more than one or two besides the essential oils of cloves and cinnamon. Having therefore provided some pure oil of the gum of *Guajacum*, and poured a little of it into a slender pipe, we found the upper superficies of it to be concave; almost, if not altogether, like that, which water would have had in the same pipe. But when I put a little water upon this oil, it presently changed the figure of its surface, which became visibly, though not very much, protuberant or convex.

Exp. iv. AND in regard this oil, though heavier than water, is not so heavy as deliquated salt of Tartar, I thought fit to try, whether the phænomenon would not be differing upon the contact of those two liquors; and accordingly having put some oil of Tartar into the slender pipe, and put some drops of the oil of *Guajacum* to it, we found, that this liquor did not manifestly alter the concave figure of the surface of the liquor Alkali, as the oil of turpentine had done: and having, for curiosity sake, warily poured a little water upon the oil of *Guajacum*, I found, as I had reason to suspect, that the upper superficies of it changed presently from a concave figure to a convex, so that this oil in the midst of the other two liquors appeared like a little red cylinder, which, instead of having circular bases, was protuberant at both ends, but more at that which touched the oil of Tartar.

Exp. vi. To vary a little the experiment, I put some essential oil (as chymists call it) of cloves into a new slender pipe, and having observed it to be somewhat concave at the top, where it was contiguous to the air, we caused a little common water (perhaps a quarter of a spoonful or less) to be put to it, and found, as we expected, the surface of this oil also to become tumid. And in regard this liquor, as well as the forementioned oil of *Guajacum*, though it were so heavy as to sink in water, would not do so in deliquated salt of Tartar, we did, into another slender pipe, put first some of this last named liquor, then some of the aromatic oil, and lastly, a little common water; by which means we found, that the little cylinder of oil did, like that of the oil of *Guajacum*, appear convex at both ends; but was unlike it in one circumstance, that the oil of cloves appeared more convex at the upper end, where it was contiguous to the water, than at the lower, that leaned upon the surface of the oil of Tartar.

Exp. vii. HAVING made these trials, to alter, by another contiguous fluid than the air, the concave superficies of water and some aqueous liquors, I proceeded to try, whether a change would not likewise be made on the convex figure of the surface of quicksilver included in the like slender glasses; and accordingly, having taken one that was much longer, but of the like bore with the former (for to make the trials more uniform, I had caused a long pipe to be by the flame of a lamp unequally divided into several short ones) we put into it a small quantity of quicksilver; and having taken notice how the upper superficies swelled in the middle above the level of the parts, where it touched the glass, we poured some water upon it, and found a manifest and considerable depression of the surface, though the protuberance were not quite suppressed.

Exp. viii. THIS phænomenon having been for greater security several times repeated, I thought fit to try, what variation would be made, by the greater or lesser height of the water incumbent on the mercury. And sometimes it seemed, that, when the aqueous cylinder was much longer, the depression of the mercurial surface was somewhat greater. But this did not so constantly happen: but we often observed, that, though a very little water sufficed by its contact to make, in the judgment of the eye, a manifest abatement of the protuberance of the quicksilver, yet it had not the same effect on that ponderous fluid, that it had, when, being increased almost as high as the length of the pipe would permit, a greater weight of it was incumbent on the mercury. For then I manifestly perceived and shewed to others, that the surface of the quicksilver being depressed almost

most to a level in those parts of it, that were near the inside of the glass, there was about the middle of the surface an elevation of mercurial matter, that appeared to be rather more than a half globe, and was to the height of its full semidiameter, raised above the rest of the mercurial surface; and in that state it continued as long as I thought fit to let it do so. And lest this trial should impose upon me, I caused it to be more than once repeated; and, the better to confirm it, I afterwards caused the incumbent water to be little by little sucked up, and found, as I expected, that when the incumbent water began to be too much shortened, the little teat or segment of sphere, lately mentioned, began to be somewhat flattened, and subsided more and more as the water was further taken off.

BECAUSE the common atmospherical air we breath is a fluid body abounding with Exp. ix. grosser particles, and is by divers philosophers probably supposed to be much more dense and heavy than the æthereal substance, that makes the other part of the atmosphere; I thought fit to try for their sakes, whether or no the superficial figure of liquors would be altered by having the contiguous air withdrawn from about them, and so being left to be touched by the purer æther without it; and accordingly having conveyed into one of our pneumatical receivers a couple of such slender pipes as have been already described, one of them furnished with common water, and the other with quicksilver, we caused the common air to be diligently pumped out, without observing any sensible change in the concave figure of the water: but as for the quicksilver, I knew not what to conclude about it. For having repeated the trial twice or thrice, the mercury sometimes seemed manifestly to swell or be more protuberant upon the exhaustion of the receiver, than when it was put in, especially when its figure was attentively viewed, and the external air, that was pumped out but slowly, was suffered to re-enter with all convenient celerity. But that which yet kept me doubtful was, that I observed, that upon the diligent withdrawing of the air's pressure on the quicksilver, there disclosed themselves in it some little bubbles, which I feared we had not been able to free it altogether from, and which might be suspected to have some interest in the phenomenon; which though I was at that time hindered by some occasions from prosecuting further, yet I think it may be well worth the while, because, if any sensible change do certainly appear to be made in the superficial figure of the mercury, it may teach us somewhat relating to the constitution of the æther, which seems to make up far the greater part of the universe known to us: and I should not in that case think it impossible, that by exposing many and differing liquors to its contact *in vacuo Boyleano* (as it is called) some discovery may be made of differing substances, whereof one may suspect the æther itself not to be incapable. But to leave suspicions, that probably will be thought chimerical, I shall only add, which I forgot before, that we conveyed into our receiver a clear chymical oil that was heavier than water, and whilst it was contiguous to it, had not a concave but a convex surface; and having placed the pipe furnished with both liquors in the pneumatical receiver, we pumped out the air without finding that the oil sensibly altered its protuberant surface, as neither did the water lose the concave figure of its upper surface.

WHEN clouds are condensed into rain, and lower aggregates of vapors into dew, it is supposed to be obvious, that the drops of those meteors do, in their passage through the air, (which to them is a heterogeneous fluid) acquire a round figure: and when we shake oil into water, the portions of the former fluid, during the little time they remain distinct (for they quickly reunite into masses) are found to be globular. But these phenomena are too few and too transient to afford any considerable observation of the figures of fluid bodies, especially if they be quiescent, and every way encompassed by other fluids. Wherefore I thought fit to try what I could do with chymical liquors
unapt

unapt for mingling, to produce phænomena, that may last long enough to allow us to observe them attentively, and in some cases to vary them.

Exp. x.

For this purpose, I first took fixt niter, (or, which is analogous to it, salt of Tartar) resolved *per deliquium* into a transparent liquor; and having filled a clear vial half full with this, I poured on it a convenient quantity of vinous spirit exactly rectified, that there might be no phlegm to occasion an union between the two liquors, which ought, as ours did, to retain distinct surfaces, and speedily regain them though the glais were well shaken. Then having found by a trial formerly mentioned, that common oil of turpentine, if employed in a competent quantity, will not totally (and much less will readily) dissolve in spirit of wine, and also having observed (what may seem somewhat strange) that if this spirit of wine be exquisitely dephlegmed, the oil, though a chymical one, will not swim on it, but sink in it; I warily let fall some drops of the oil into the spirit, and had the pleasure to see, as I expected, that they fell towards the bottom of the glais, till their descent was stopt by the horizontal (for it was not concave) surface of the Alcalizat liquor of fixt niter. And because my design was chiefly to observe the superficial figure of a fluid encompassed by other fluids without touching any solid body, I shall here take notice of the chief phænomena, that were produced of that kind, without staying to enquire into the causes or the consequences of them.

1. If the oily drops were but small, they seemed to the eye exactly enough spherical. For the oil differing but very little in specific gravity from the spirit of wine, the drops did but just touch the surface of the subjacent Alkali; and the same drops being but small, their own weight was not great enough visibly to depress them, and hinder that roundness, which the pressure of the ambient spirit, or their own viscosity endeavoured to give them.

2. If an aggregate of drops were considerably bigger than those newly mentioned, as if it had about a third part of an inch in diameter, it would then manifestly lean upon the Alcalizat liquor as upon a floor, and appear somewhat elliptical, (for some little part of the bottom was a plain;) the weight of the upper parts depressing the drops, and making the horizontal diameter somewhat longer than the transverse.

3. If a yet greater portion of oil were let fall upon the heavy liquor, it would for a pretty while appear in the form of a somewhat imperfect hemisphere, or some other large section of a sphere, the lower part being cut off, (as if a globe were divided by a plain) by the horizontal surface of the deliquated salt.

4. But if the quantity of oil were not too great, it was pretty to observe, that, though at first putting in, it did perhaps spread itself over the subjacent liquor, and lie as it were flat upon it; yet by little and little, (for it was but slowly) it would by the action of the ambient, concurring with its own tenacity, be crowded together into a figure of a lesser surface, and consequently less hindering the motions of the vinous liquor. For by the action of this spirit, the oil would by degrees be raised above the surface of the fluid niter, and be reduced to the figure, either of half a globe, or of a greater segment of a globe, or even of an imperfect ellipsis, according as the bulk or weight of the oil made it more or less apt to resist the action of the ambient spirit, to whose effect, as I lately intimated, the natural viscosity of the oil might (more or less) co-operate, as also might the weight of the spirit of wine, which in great part disabled the endeavour of the oil's gravity to make its figure less convex.

5. THOUGH these globules or portions of oil did oftentimes readily mingle, when they touched one another, yet divers times also we observed, that having warily approached them, we were able (as if some odd subtle matter, that the eye could not discern, interposed, to keep them unconfounded,) to make them touch without mingling;

ling; infomuch, that we have with pleasure made them so far bear against one anothers surfaces, as manifestly to press them inwards, though being parted they would presently resume their former figure: which circumstance suggested to me suspicions, that I cannot now stay to name. But in case any of these oily portions came by a more pressing contact to be united, they would then alter the figures they had whilst separate, and take another, suitable to the bulk of the aggregate.

6. WHEN a large portion of oil rested upon the saline liquors, if then the ambient spirit were moderately and warily agitated, it was not unpleasant to observe the various figurations, which the convex and protuberant part of the mutilated globe would be put into by these shakes, without any visible solution of continuity, or considerable motion of the whole body, which would very quickly recover its former figure. Though, if the agitation were too strong, some portions would be quite broken off, and presently turned into little globes.

I TRIED to produce another phænomenon, that would not have been unpleasant, ^{Exp. xi.} by putting together in a somewhat large vessel, with other liquors, two oils, (whereof one, if I mistake not, was from turpentine,) which first, by reason of the oleaginous nature, wherein they agreed, might exactly mingle and make a compounded liquor; and then, by reason of their being one heavier, and the other lighter *in specie* than water, might by this liquor be again separated, and include betwixt them the liquor, that had divided them. But I found, that the oils being once united would not be easily parted, but, according to the prevalency of the lighter or heavier ingredient, in the mixture, the compounded oil, would almost totally either emerge to the top of the water, or lie beneath the bottom of it; I say, almost totally, because some parts of the oil, which was not perhaps all uniformly mixt, did not keep in a body with the rest; but either was separated from the mass in the form of globules, or else, sticking to the side of the glass, had the other part of its superficies, which was contiguous to the water, very variously figured, according as the bulk and degree of gravity of the adhering oil and other circumstances happened to determine. And it is chiefly upon the account of this various and odd figuration of our mixture, that I here make mention of this trial; which though it proved not successful to me, yet perhaps may succeed in the hands of another, that shall make it with more leisure and diligence, than I could afford it.

THESE are some of the phænomena I observed in oil of turpentine, when it was environed only with fluids; but, if it were permitted to be contiguous to the inside of the glass, and so to fasten part of its surface to a solid, the greater part of the surface, which remained exposed to one or both of the contiguous liquors, would, partly by their action, and partly by the gravity of the oil itself, be put into figures so various, and sometimes so extravagant, that it was much more pleasant to behold them, than it would be easy to describe them; which therefore I shall not here attempt to do.

WHEREAS I intimated in the preamble to these notes, that confining fluids may have ^{Exp. xii.} distinct surfaces, without having, at least in many positions, retractions differing enough, or reflections strong enough, to make the plain, that distinguishes them, obvious to the eye; I shall here observe, that when the oil of Tartar, or nitrous Alkali, that I employed, happened to be very clear and colourless, I have more than once made highly rectified spirit of wine float upon it so, that in most positions the vial seemed to have in it but one uniform liquor; the plain, that divided the two fluids, being unapt to be discerned, but in a position, wherein the rays of light passing thence to the eye fell very obliquely on it; and indeed, when there was no little dust or other feculency swimming upon the surface of the oil of Tartar, I had sometimes much ado to convince ordinary spectators, that the vial, in two distinct regions of it, contained two unfociable liquors.

Exp. xiii.

ON this occasion, I shall add an experiment, which, though it does not so directly belong to our subject, as to make its omission a fault, is not yet perhaps so impertinent as to be unwelcome.

WE took a deliquated Alkali, made of niter and tartar, and deeply tinged with cochineel; and, that the liquors might not only be heterogeneous, but as differing in gravity and density as we could make them, we poured on it a peculiar kind of oil lighter than spirit of wine, and holding the plain where the two liquors were contiguous in a convenient position, in respect of the light and the eye, I observed it to make a strangely vivid reflection of the incident beams of light: so that this physical surface, which was flat, looked almost, for it was not so specular, like that of quicksilver; and when I kept it till night, and considered it by the light of a candle, the bright figure of the flame was strongly reflected almost as from a close specular body; which tempted me to suspect, that there might be something else than the bare smoothness of the surface of the Alcalizat liquor to produce so brisk a reflection; and the rather, because I did not observe, that the remains of the same tinged Alkali, which I kept in another glass, nor a portion of the same oil, which I had also by me in a separate vial did either of them afford so vivid a reflection from its surface; though I did the less wonder at this, because of the great disposition to reflect light, which I had formerly the curiosity to observe in the forementioned oil, when I joined it with other liquors. But, whether this strongly reflecting power, taken notice of in our late recited experiment, proceeded from some mixture, as it were, or confusion of singly unperceived particles in the physical superficies or plain, where the two liquors confine; or, whether some such *materia subtilis*, or æthereal fluid, as *Cartesius* and some of the antients maintained, insinuated itself between our two liquors, and made the determining surface more specular; or whether the phænomenon be rather due to some other cause, I shall not now stay to make inquiry. But to help towards it, I shall add on this occasion, that looking on this liquor, as a body, which, though it have all the necessary qualities of an oil, does, in regard of its origin, and some properties I have found in it, differ from common chymical oils; I was invited the more to observe its phænomena in reference to reflection; and I found, among other things, (not pertinent to this place,) *First*, that the confining plain, often mentioned between the tinged Alkali and this liquor, did not appear red itself, nor communicate that colour to the image of the flame of a candle reflected from it. *Secondly*, that when I warily shook the vial, which contained the two liquors, the uppermost would be reduced into a seeming froth, consisting of a great number of imperfectly globular bodies, which after a while would make a kind of a rude physical plain; which, though neither very horizontal nor sensibly smooth, would, at its upper superficies, send back the incident light with more briskness than one would expect. And when the seeming froth consisted of smaller particles, these, when they were of a certain size, and conveniently placed, in reference to the flame of a candle and the eye, would, (as more than one trial informed me,) reflect the incident light so many ways, and so visibly, that they seemed, for multitude and splendor, like little sparkling corpuscles of polished silver; or almost like those glistening ones, that appear, when a clean plate of copper is first immersed into a much allayed solution of good silver, made in *aqua-fortis*.

AND to these phænomena I shall add a third, which is, that, though pure spirit of wine be so thin a liquor, and our oil is nevertheless so light as to swim upon it; yet I found the confining surface very strongly reflexive. But of this liquor more perhaps may be said in another place.

AND it may, in the mean while, not be impertinent here to intimate to you, that I found, that some other essential oils (as chymists call those, that are distilled with wa-
ter.

ter in limbecks) and particularly an unsophisticated oil of limons, did, with our tinged Alkali, afford most of the same phænomena; but not so brisk a reflection: I say, most, chiefly because with spirit of wine these subtile oils, as I formerly noted, will readily be confounded; though our anomalous oil be unfociable with it.

A Continuation of the EXPERIMENTS published in the next foregoing Tract, about FLUIDS, contiguous to other FLUIDS.

First printed in the PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS, N^o. cxxxii. p. 799.

IN the winter time, and at other times also when the air is cold enough, the figure, acquired by the surface of an oil contiguous to the water on one side, and the air on the other, may be preserved from varying, and so may be at leisure observed by the direction afforded by the following experiment, which I devised for this purpose.

IN cold weather we took essential oil of anniseeds, whose property it is to coagulate in such weather; and having in a gentle warmth brought it to be fluid, we poured it into a slender vial more than half filled with common water, that had been also a little warmed, that the oil might not be too hastily reduced to its former state. This oil being lighter than so much water, and being poured on in a convenient quantity, had its upper surface somewhat concave, as that of the water was; but the lower surface, surrounded by the water, was very convex, appearing almost (for it was not perfectly) of the figure of a great portion of a sphere. This being done, the vial was stopt, and suffered to rest for some time in a cold place, by which means the water continuing fluid as before, the oil of anniseeds was, as I expected, found coagulated in a form approaching to that it had whilst in a fluid state; I say, approaching, because it was not easy to discern the exact figure in the vial I was fain to make use of: and I suspected, that the oil grown consistent was become less convex than before; but the two surfaces of it gave it some resemblance in point of shape, but not of transparency, to a concavo convex glass; but yet much thicker in the middle, than is usual in glasses of the like breadth, employed for dioptrical purposes. And indeed (to give here this Advertisement once for all) I would not have you understand in too strict a sense what my intended brevity, and some other motives, make me deliver in naming the figures of fluids. For I confess, that if I were to write for a rigid geometrician, especially if he were nice and critical in the doctrine of conic sections, I should think myself obliged on some occasions to a greater curiosity in naming the figures of fluids, than you will meet with in this paper. But since I write but notes, and design to give you rather experimental hints, than geometrical determinations; I presume, that when you are once cautioned by a plain advertisement, it may suffice for me to refer the fluids, I describe, to such of the more known figures as they seem to be the least remote from, without troubling you or myself with named figures, or with spheroids, conoids, paraboloids, and other hard words; which I the rather abstain from, not only because the particulars, wherein my fluids resembled them and differed from them, could not be intelligibly declared without many words; but because I observed the figures themselves of

the fluids to vary, and sometimes considerably too, according to contingent circumstances. And for this reason also I will not persuade you to expect, that the event of every trial, you shall make of these experiments, will be precisely the same with the event of mine. For by reason of those contingent circumstances, I dare only speak historically of these experiments; and, without pretending that they shall always uniformly succeed, content myself to relate *bona fide*, what trials have been made, and what happened to me thereupon, not despairing, that this variation itself of events according to circumstances may be instructive.

Exp. xv.

BUT to return to our lately mentioned oil of anniseeds, it was worth observing, how great a difference there was between the dull reflection it made when it was coagulated, and the fine reflection it had made whilst it was a liquor. The latter of which reflections brought into my mind, how vivid the reflective power of some fluids is in comparison of that of the generality of solid bodies, of which there is scarce any, if there be any at all, that is observed to have a stronger reflection than clean quicksilver; and yet (to add that upon the by) I have sometimes found, that this itself may be increased by the addition of a liquor. For having observed, as I elsewhere note, that quicksilver, and rectified *Oleum Petræ* are, the former of them the heaviest, and the latter the lightest of all the visible fluids, that are yet known to us, or at least to me; and having also observed the latter of them to be considerably reflective, I had the curiosity to try among other things, that related to them, the following experiment. Some (distilled) quicksilver being put into a small vial, and held in such a posture, that the incident light was strongly remitted to my eye, I slowly put to it some petroleum, that being well rectified was very clear; and observed, that, as this liquor covered the quicksilver, there was at the imaginary plain, where they both confined, a brisker reflection than the quicksilver alone had given before. Whether this increase of reflective power proceeded from any thing produced upon the confines of the two bodies, or from some ethereal fluid that slipped in there, I have above declined, and shall now forbear, to examine: but on this occasion it will not be amiss to take notice, that either the surface of the air itself, as thin and yielding a fluid as it is, or the surface of a solid, contiguous to included air, or some interposed subtile matter, may reflect the incident beams of light more strongly than most men would expect. To this purpose I remember, that a curious person having one day brought me a couple of rarities, which he told me were two pieces of a solid, but transparent, body, that he had casually found, in one of which there was a pearl, large, round, and orient, and in the other a less perfect one; and having desired my opinion, whether they were considerable enough to be presented to the king; I, after I had sufficiently viewed them in differing positions, and especially against the light, asked him, whether he were sure the included bodies were pearls. To which when he answered, that his eyes permitted him not to doubt of it, especially because he knew of no other gems nor stones, that had so strong and fine a reflection; I replied, that I thought they might be only bubbles of air, casually intercepted in the viscous matter of the containing bodies (which I supposed, upon good grounds, to have been once somewhat fluid, before it came to be hard; adding, that his majesty, who was critical in these matters, might probably have the curiosity, I had, to have the worst of them broken, to be satisfied what kind of bodies the included were. Hereupon, to content me, one of them was opened; and that which had appeared a pearl was found to be but a cavity, that contained no grosser substance than air. And I have by me a well shaped piece of glass of a good thickness, with an aerial bubble in the middle, which by some qualities, particularly its pear-like shape and vivid reflection, not ill resembles a fair, though not orient, pearl. But in such like observations, the position

position of the eye, and that wherein the body receives the beams of light, may be very considerable. For I have by me a small stone (with which I have puzzled the skilful jeweller of a great prince to determine what kind of gem it is) that being laid flat upon ones hand, or a piece of paper, and looked on directly downwards, looks almost like a piece of common glass, and is transparent: but if the eye be so placed, that the incident beams of light, by whose reflection it is seen, fall with a convenient degree of obliquity upon the stone, it makes an exceeding pretty shew, sometimes appearing like a fine opal, and sometimes not very unlike an orient pearl. Exp. xvi.

It may not be altogether impertinent, and at least, for the novelty of the way of trial, it will not probably be displeasing, if I here mention an attempt to try, whether, when the rays of light rebound from bubbles invironed with an uniform solid body (which case is somewhat differing from that of bubbles looked upon in an exhausted receiver) the reflection be only, or almost only, from the grosser particles of the air, and not also from some subtile matter harboured, as well as they, in the same cavities? But to bring this question to trial seemed difficult enough, because it is so, to include very rarified air in a consistent body, diaphanous enough to let its reflection be easily observed. To compass this, I thought upon the following expedient. We made, according to the easy direction * elsewhere given (for other purposes) a competent quantity of a resinous or gummous substance, that looked like high coloured amber, but was easy to melt. * In the
nature of
a glass, at
least, by This we put into a deep round glass with a wide mouth, and held it by the fire-side in a moderate warmth, till it was brought into a fluid state; then we transferred it into one of our pneumatical receivers, where we presumed, that this temporary liquor would, as well as liquors that are constantly such, disclose aerial bubbles, when the pressure of the air was withdrawn from it; and accordingly having caused the air to be pumped out by degrees, we found, that store of bubbles appeared at the top of the liquor, and made there a copious froth, many of them being, by reason of the viscosity of the fluid, very large; and divers of them, because of the nature and texture of it and the thinness of the films, being adorned with the colours of the rainbow, whose vividness made them pleasant to behold, and suggested to us some optical considerations. But notwithstanding this froth, I caused the pumping to be continued, that those bubbles, that had most of common air in them, and which therefore are wont to rise first, might get to the top, and the subsequent bubbles might meet with more resistance from the liquor still tending to grow cold, and so might be the more expanded, and yet kept from emerging by the concretion of the resinous substance; and answerably to this we found, that, when this substance had resumed its consistent form, there were intercepted, between the upper and the lower surfaces of it, some bubbles, that were not small, which yet had a considerable reflection, notwithstanding the small quantity of the grosser particles of the air, that may be supposed to be contained in bubbles so very much expanded (perhaps so, as to exceed some hundreds of times their former dimensions) I might add, that by letting the outward air into the receiver, the air in divers of the formerly mentioned large bubbles, at the top of the glass, was too much rarified to keep them from being broken by the pressure of the returning air. But I am sensible, that, in what I have said of the reflective power of the air, I have already too far digressed, and therefore I shall step into the way again, and proceed to other observations.

WATER being so considerable a body here below, I thought, it would be worth while, to endeavour to observe its surface, when contiguous to other fluids than air. Exp. xvii. and, if it were possible, when surrounded by them. For though it is not to be granted, that the falling drops of rain are spherical, yet their descent is so swift, both by reason of their gravity in respect of the air, and the height from whence they fall, that

I fear men have rather supposed than observed that their figure is spherical; which will be the more questionable, if it be true, which is vulgarly thought, that hail is but rain frozen in its passage through the air. For it is evident, that the grains of hail are frequently of other figures than truly orbicular. But because there may another possible account be given of this irregular figuration of hail, I shall not insist on this phenomenon, but proceed to what I tried about the surface of water; of which I found it the more difficult to make observations, because that liquor will readily mingle both with spirit of wine and with oil of tartar, and with other liquors, that are analagous to either of these.

Exp. xviii. THE surface of water may have differing figures, according as it is totally encompassed with heterogeneous fluids, or, as it is only in some places contiguous to one or more of them. In the former case we found it not so easy to make an observation, both because, that, as I lately noted, we know not of any two liquors (setting mercury aside) that will not mingle either with one another, or with water. And because also our oil of guajacum itself, though heavier than water, would not be serviceable on this occasion, in regard of its being of so deep a red, that the figure of the water inclosed in it could not be discerned through it; wherefore I made use of chymical oil of cloves, as being somewhat, and but a little, heavier in specie than water, so that some drops or smaller portions of this last named liquor would be almost quite invironed with the other: we cautiously therefore conveyed into some oil of cloves, whose surface the vessel permitted to be large enough, some portions of common water of differing bignesses, taking care, as far as we could, that they might not touch one another; by which means the oil being transparent, and yet somewhat coloured, it was easy to observe, that the smaller portions of water were so near totally invironed with the oil, that they were reduced into almost perfect globes; those portions, that were somewhat bigger (as about twice the bigness of a pea) would be of a figure somewhat approaching to that of an ellipsis (for it was not the same) and those portions, that were yet somewhat larger, though they seemed to be sunk almost totally beneath the oil, yet they held to it by a small portion of themselves, whose surface was easily enough distinguishable from that of the oil. These large portions of immersed water, being almost wholly invironed with the other liquor, were by it reduced into a round figure, which was ordinarily somewhat elliptical, but more depressed in the middle than that figure requires. But all this is to be understood of those portions of water, that touched only the oil and the air; for those, that touched one another without mingling, and much more those that adhered more or less to the sides of the glass, had their surfaces too differinglly and irregularly figured to be here attempted to be described.

Exp. xix. As for the superficial figure of water, contiguous, both above and beneath, to other fluids, and laterally to some solid body, it is not so easy to be sure, which of the contiguous liquors is of most force to determine the figuration of their common superficies or commissure. But however I shall relate, that, having into a slender pipe of that sort that has been described before, put a little oil of cloves, and upon this some oil of turpentine, that so the water might both above and beneath be touched by heterogeneous liquors, I observed not the oil of cloves to be very manifestly tumid at the top, nor the lower surface of the oil of turpentine (for the upper was concave) to be very convex; for somewhat convex it was, downwards. And from this it will be easy to conclude the figure of the cylindrical portion of water intercepted between these two oils.

THAT agent or force, whatever it be, that keeps liquors fluid, does likewise, whilst they are so, keep their surfaces exceeding smooth, when they are contiguous to the air and other fluids. But because I thought it doubtful, whether even those liquors, that are

are (as men usually speak) naturally fluid, I mean, such as are not made so by fusion, produced in them by the action of the fire, would retain smooth surfaces, when they have lost their fluidity, and have their parts no longer inflected and agitated, so as to enable them, by the help of gravity, viscosity, or both, to levigate (if I may so speak) or polish each others surfaces, as it may be guessed in their fluid state they did; I thought it not amiss, in order to the clearing of the doubt, to make some trials with contiguous liquors, whereof one would continue fluid when the other had lost its fluidity.

I took then oil of anniseeds, thawed by a gentle warmth, and common water, and having put them together in a conveniently shaped glass; they were suffered to stand in a cold place till the oil was coagulated; which done, it was parted from the water, and by the roughness of its superficies manifested, as I expected, that, when its parts were no longer agitated and kept easily displaceable by the subtle permeating matter, or whatever other agent or cause it were, to which it owed its fluidity, then the contiguous water grew unable to inflect, or otherwise place them after the manner requisite to constitute a smooth surface. And what happened to that part of the oil's surface, that was touched by the water, happened also to that, which was contiguous to the air; save that the asperity of the last named surface was differing from the other, which, whether it were an accidental to constant phenomenon, further trial must determine. But I have often observed, that the upper surface of oil of anniseeds, when this liquor comes to be coagulated by the cold air, was far enough from being smooth, being variously asperated by many flaky particles, some of which lay with their broad, and others with their edged parts upwards. Exp. xx.

AN inequality and ruggedness of superficies I have also observed in water, when, having covered it with chymical oil of Juniper, and exposed it in very cold weather, though the oil continued fluid, yet the water, being frozen, had no longer a smooth superficies, as whilst in its liquid state it was contiguous to the oil. And the like inequality, or rather a greater, we observed in the surface of water frozen, which had chymical oil of turpentine swimming over it; yet a no less, if not a much greater, roughness may be oftentimes observed in the surfaces of divers liquors that abound with water, when those liquors being frozen, their surfaces have an immediate contact with the air. This I, among others, (elsewhere) observed; and I shall here add, that having purposely caused a strong and blood-red decoction of the foot of wood to be exposed in a large glass in a very cold night, I was more pleased than surprized, to find in the morning a cake of ice, that was curiously figured, being full of large flakes shaped almost like the broad blades of daggers, but nearly fringed at the edges. But that which I chiefly mention these figures for, is, that they seem to be as it were imboss, being both to the eye and the touch raised above the horizontal plain or level of the other ice. Exp. xxi.

AND here I must not omit to take notice, that whereas in the recited experiments the rugged surface was produced at the confines of two heterogeneous and unfociable liquors, I have sometimes observed the like phenomenon in one and the same liquor; and particularly, not long since looking in frosty weather on a vial, where I had long kept oil of vitriol, I perceived, that the cold had reduced far the greatest part of the Menstruum into a consistent mass, whose upper surface was very rugged and oddly figured, though it lay covered all over with a pretty deal of high coloured liquor, that was not frozen or coagulated, nor seemed disposed to be so, at least in that degree of cold. Exp. xxii.

THIS brings into my mind, that not only bodies, which in their natural state (as it is wont to be called) are fluid; but also such, as, by the violence of the fire, are made Exp. xxiii.
to

to flow, may be conformable to some naturally fluid bodies in their superficial figures. This may be observed in the best sort of what the chemists call *Regulus Martis stellatus*, where the figure of a star, or a figure somewhat like that of the decoction of foot lately mentioned, will frequently appear imboss upon the upper superficies of the Regulus; and such a raised figure I think I can yet shew you, on a mass of Regulus made of Antimony without Mars. But if, to those two bodies, copper be also skilfully added, the superficies will be oftentimes adorned with new figures according to circumstances; though the most usual I took notice of was that of a net, that seemed to cover the surface of the compounded Regulus. But this is not so constant, but that I have by me a mass of a conical figure, consisting of two very contiguous, but easily separable, parts, whereof the lowermost, which abounds more in metal, hath its upper surface covered with round protuberances, in shape and bigness not unlike to small pease cut in two; and these are so really imboss and elevated above the rest of the superficies, that the other part of the cone, which is of a more scorious nature, has, in its lower surface, which exactly fits the upper of the Regulus, cavities, for number, shape, and bigness, answering to the protuberances lately mentioned; which argues, that the Regulus cooled first with that inequality of surface we have described, and that the lighter and more recrementitious substance, continuing longer fluid, had thereby opportunity to accommodate itself to the superficial figure of the Regulus, on which it first leaned, and was afterwards coagulated.

A short Memorial of some OBSERVATIONS made upon
an ARTIFICIAL SUBSTANCE, that shines without any pre-
cedent Illustration.

First printed in *Hook's Leet. Cutler.* N^o. xi. p. 57, *Septemb.* 1677.

ON Saturday the fifteenth of this month I was after supper visited by Mr. Kraft, a famous German chymist, who was pleased to come and shew me a strange rarity he hath newly brought into *England*, to the sight whereof he allowed me to invite several members of the Royal Society, he being desirous, because the matter he employs is very costly and of difficult preparation, to be a good husband of it, and by shewing it to several curious persons at once, to exempt himself from the need of shewing it often. The company being met, the artist took out of a pretty large box he had brought with him divers glass vessels, and laid them in order on the table. The largest of them was a sphere of glass, which I guessed to be four or five inches in diameter, being hollow and intire, save that in one place there was a little hole, at that time stoppt with sealing wax, whereat to pour in the liquor, which seemed to me to be about two spoonfuls or somewhat more, and to look like muddy water made a little reddish with brick-dust or some other powder of that colour: he also took out of his box three or four little pipes of glass sealed, or otherwise stoppt at both ends, being each of them somewhat bigger than a swan's quill, and about five or six inches long, and having at one end a small fragment or two of that matter, that was to shine in the dark.

He likewise laid upon the table three or four vials of several sizes, but none of them judged capable to hold above very few ounces of water: in each of which vials there
was

was some liquor or other, that was neither transparent nor well coloured, which liquors I confess upon his making no particular mention of what they were to do, I was not curious to compare together, either as to quantity or as to colour. Besides all these substances, which were fluid, he had in a small crystalline button bottle a little lump of matter, of which he seemed to make much more account than of all the liquors, and which he took out for a few moments to let us look upon it; whereby I saw, that it was a consistent body, that appeared of a whitish colour, and seemed not to exceed a couple of ordinary pease, or the kernel of a hazel nut in bigness. Some other things it is possible Mr. *Kraft* took out of his box, but neither I or (for ought I know) others of the company took notice of them, partly because of his haste, and partly because the confused curiosity of many spectators in a narrow compass kept me from being able to observe things as particularly and deliberately as I would gladly have done, and as the occasion deserved. Which advertisement may, I fear, be but too applicable to a great part of the following narrative.

THE fore-mentioned glasses being laid in order upon the table, the windows were closed with wooden-shuts, and the candles were removed into another room by that we were in: being left in the dark we were entertained with the ensuing phenomena.

I. THOUGH I noted above, that the hollow sphere of glass had in it but about two spoonfuls (or three at most) of matter, yet the whole sphere was illuminated by it, so that it seemed to be not unlike a cannon bullet taken red hot out of the fire, except that the light of our sphere looked somewhat more pale and faint. But when I took the liberty to hold this glass in my hand, and shake it a little, the contained liquor appeared to shine more vividly, and sometimes as it were to flash.

II. I took one of the little pipes of glass formerly mentioned into my hand, and observed, that though the shining matter had been lodged but at one end, yet the whole glass was enlightened, so that it appeared a luminous cylinder, whose light yet I did not judge to be always uniform, nor did it last like that, which was included in the vials.

III. In the largest of the vials next the spherical already mentioned, the liquor that lay in the bottom being shaken, I observed a kind of smoke to ascend, and almost to fill the cavity of the vial; and near the same time there manifestly appeared as it were a flash of lightning, that was considerably diffused, and pleasingly surprized me.

IV. AFTER this I took up that small crystalline vial, that I lately called (by a name familiar in our glass-shops) a button bottle, wherein was contained the dry substance, which the artist chiefly valued, as that, which had continued luminous about these two years; and having held that vial long in my hand, in the same position in reference to my eye, and looked attentively at it, I had the opportunity to observe (what I think none of the company did) that not only this stuff did, in proportion to its bulk, shine more vividly than the fluid substances, but that (which was the phenomenon I chiefly attended) though I could perceive no smoke or fumes ascend from the luminous matter, yet I could plainly perceive by a new and brisker light, that appeared from time to time in a certain place near the top of the glass, that there must be some kind of flashy motion in the matter that lay at the bottom, which was the cause of these little coruscations, if I may so call them.

V. THE artist having taken a very little of his consistent matter, and broken it into parts so minute, that I judged the fragments to be between twenty and thirty, he scattered them without any order about the carpet, where it was very delightful to see how vividly they shined; and that which made the spectacle more taking, especially to me, was this, that not only in the darkness, that environed them, they seemed like fixed stars of the sixth or least magnitude, but twinkled also like them, discovering such a

scintillation

scintillation as that whereby we distinguish the fixt stars from most of the planets. And these twinkling sparks without doing any harm (that we took notice of) to the Turkey carpet they lay on, continued to shine for a good while, some of them remaining yet vivid enough, till the candles being brought in again made them disappear.

VI. Mr. *Kraft* also calling for a sheet of paper, and taking some of his stuff upon the tip of his finger, writ in large characters two or three words, whereof one being *DOMINI*, was made up of capital letters, which being large enough to reach from one side of the page to the other, and being (at least as I guessed) invigorated by the free contact of the external air, shone so briskly, and looked so oddly, that the sight was extremely pleasing, having in it a mixture of strangeness, beauty, and frightfulness, wherein yet the last of those qualities was far from being predominant. And this phænomenon did in more senses than one afford us the most of light, since not only the characters shone very vividly upon the white paper, but approaching it to my eyes and nostrils, I could discern, that there ascended from them a fume, and could smell that fume to be strong enough, and (as it seemed to me) to participate of the odour of sulphur and of that of onions. And before I past from the mention of these resplendent characters, I must not forget, that either by their light, or that of the globe, or both by the one and the other a man might discern those of his fingers, that were nearest the shining stuff, and that this being held to the face though without touching it, some of the conspicuous parts, especially the nose, were discoverable.

VII. AFTER we had seen with pleasure, and not without some wonder, the foregoing particulars, the artist desired me to give him my hand, which when I had done, he rubbed partly upon the back of it, and partly on my cuff, some of his luminous matter, which as if it had been assisted by the warmth of my hand shone very vividly, and though I took not notice of any thing upon my skin, that was either unctuous or rough, yet I oftentimes tried in vain by rubbing it with my other hand to take it off, or manifestly diminish its splendor, and when I divers times blowed upon some of the smaller parts of it, though they seemed at the instant that my breath beat upon it, to be blown out, yet the tenacious parts were not really extinguished, but presently after recovered their former splendor. And all this while this light, that was so permanent, was yet so mild and innocent, that in that part of my hand, where it was largely enough spread, I felt no sensible heat produced by it.

By that time these things were done it was grown late, which made Mr. *Kraft*, who had a great way to go home, take leave of the company, after he had received our deserved thanks for the new and instructive phænomena, wherewith he had so delightfully entertained us.

BECAUSE Mr. *Kraft* had twice attempted to fire heated gun powder with his phosphorus, but without success; probably because the powder was not very good (as by some circumstances I conjectured) and because it was not sufficiently heated, before the matter that should set it on fire was put upon it he promised me he would come another time to repair that unsuccessfulness: and accordingly, on the two and twentieth of September in the afternoon I received a visit from Mr. *Kraft*, who told me, he came to make good his promise of letting me see, that his shining matter was able to kindle heated gunpowder; and because no strangers were present, I had the fairer opportunity to view it, which I was able to do better by day-light, than I had done by its own light; for when he had taken it with a new pen out of the liquor, with which he kept it covered to preserve it, I perceived it to be somewhat less than the nail of one of my fingers, and not much thicker than a shilling; and I observed, that when it had lain a little while upon a piece of clean paper, and discharged itself from its superfluous moisture, it began to emit whitish fumes, which seemed to be very ponderous, since for the most

most part they did not ascend but surrounding the matter, whence they issued, by their stagnation made as it were a little pond or small atmosphere about it; so that lest it should waste too fast, he was obliged, as soon as he had cut off a little corner less than half a pin's head, to put the stuff nimbly back into the vial, out of which he had taken it; where I observed it for a very short time to send up exhalations into the liquor that covered it, and quickly after, as it were, quenched it. This done the artist divided the little corner he had cut off into two parts, one of which he spread as far as it would reach upon a piece of white paper, which he presently after held at a distance over a chafing-dish of burning coals, by whose heat being excited, it presently flashed and burnt away; and I having perceived, that there was another part of the paper, which though not heeded by him, had been lightly besmeared by the same matter, I held it over the coals, but at a considerable distance from them, and yet this little matter nimbly took fire and burnt a hole in the paper. And to satisfy myself, that the heat did but excite the luminous matter, and that it was this itself that lighted the paper, I held the rest of the same piece of paper far nearer the fire, and kept it there a pretty while without finding it at all scorched or discoloured. Lastly, the other part of the divided fragment of the hitherto mentioned matter, Mr. *Kraft* put upon the tip of a quill, and having at a distance from the fire, very well dried and warmed some gun-powder upon another piece of paper, he laid that paper upon the ground, and then holding his quill upon it, as if it had been a match, within half a minute (by my guess) that powder took fire and blew up.

It will not perhaps be impertinent to add, that on occasion of the operation I observed the air to have on the shining substance when freely exposed to it, I took a rise to tell Mr. *Kraft*, that I presumed it might be worth while to try, whether his phosphorus did shine by virtue of a kind of real or (if I may so call it) living flame, which like almost all other flames required the presence and concurrence of the air to maintain it; or whether it were of such a kind of nature, as the phosphorus of the learned *Baldwinus*, which I suspected to shine not like a flame or a truly kindled substance; but like a red hot iron, or an ignited piece of glass, wherein the shining parts are not repaired by fuel, as in other burning bodies, but are put by the action of the fire into so vehement an agitation, as whilst it lasts suffices to make the body appear luminous. This conjecture Mr. *Kraft* seemed much to approve of, when I told him, that the way I proposed to examine his *nefiluca* by, was to put a little of it into our pneumatic engine, and pump out the air, whose absence, if it were of the nature of other flames, would probably extinguish, or very much impair its light; but yet since he offered not to have the trial made, probably because he had but very little of his shining substance left, I thought it not civil to press him. But to countenance what I said of the nature of Baldwinus's Phosphorus, I shall recite an experiment, that I purposely made, to examine whether the presence of the air were necessary to the shining of this phosphorus, as I had long since found it to that of some pieces of shining wood.

We exposed for a competent time to the beams of a vigorous light a portion of matter of about the breadth of the palm of ones hand, which we had prepared to be made luminous by them. And then causing the candles to be removed (for we chose to make trial by night) we nimbly conveyed the matter into a receiver, that was kept in readiness for it, presuming (as the event shewed we might) that by using diligence the light would last as long as the experiment would need to do: making haste therefore to pump out the air, we heedfully watched, whether the withdrawing of it would, contrary to my conjecture, notably diminish the light of the shining matter. And after we had thus withdrawn the air gradually, we tried, whether by letting it return hastily it would produce a more sensible change in the matter (which had been purposely put in without any

thing to cover it, that it might be the more exposed to the air's action.) But neither upon the gradual recess of the air, nor yet upon its rushing in, when it was permitted to return, could we certainly observe any manifest alteration in the luminousness of the phosphorus, other than that slow decrement, that might well be imputed to the time, during which the experiment was making. It being well known, that this luminous substance requires no long time to make it decay, and by degrees to lose all its light; so that though once there seemed to one or two of the bystanders, upon the return of the air, to be some recovery of part of the lost splendor, yet after repeated experiments it was concluded, that the presence of the air was not at all necessary to the shining of our matter; and it was judged most probable, that the absence or presence of the air, had no manifest operation on it. I might add to this, that perhaps the presence of the air is rather hurtful than advantageous to this sort of lights, for since having had a large phosphorus, that was much esteemed, and, whilst I kept it, exactly protected from the air did very well; a part of the glass that covered it, having by mischance been somewhat cracked, though none of the splinters appeared displaced, yet it seems some of the corpuscles of the air made a shift to insinuate themselves at these chinks (as narrow as they were) and in not many days made the matter cease to be capable of being made luminous as before. I cannot stay to enquire, whether this unfitness or indisposition may be imputed to the bare moisture of the air, or to some other substance or quality, that alone, or in conjunction with the moisture, may spoil that peculiar texture, or constitution, that fits the matter of the phosphorus, assisted by the impressions of external light to become luminous. This, I say, I cannot stay to examine, though, that this phosphorus is of a nice and tender constitution, and easily alterable, I was induced to think, by finding, that the want of circumstances, seemingly slight enough, would keep it from being made; and I guess, that a convention of circumstances did more contribute to the production, than any peculiar and incommunicable nature of the matter: because having had the curiosity to make some trial upon so obvious a material as quicklime, though the success did not answer my designs, yet, neither was it so bad, but that some luminous quality was produced in the lime by the action of the fire, and a saline liquor; and I scarce question, but other materials will be found capable of being made luminous by the same or the like operation, that is employed by Baldwinus, when that learned man shall think fit to communicate his way to the public. But to return to what I was saying, that the contact of the air might be rather hurtful than advantageous to the phosphorus, I shall only add here, as matter of fact (for my conjectures about light belong to my yet unpolished notes, of the origin of qualities) that whereas the contact of the air, though it were not free, did in a few days destroy the luminousness of a good phosphorus, yet having included another in a receiver, whence we afterwards pump out the air, this matter, though inferior to the other in vividness, was so little spoiled by lying open in our vacuum, that at the end of not only some weeks, but some months, I found, that the beams of a candle passing to it through the receiver, would notwithstanding the vacuum it yet continues in, suffice to re-excite in it a manifest light.



An Historical Account of a DEGRADATION of GOLD, made by an ANTI-ELIXIR: A strange Chemical Narrative.

The PUBLISHER to the READER.

HAVING been allowed the liberty of perusing the following paper at my own lodging, I found myself strongly tempted, by the strangeness of the things mentioned in it, to venture to release it: the knowledge I had of the author's inclination to gratify the virtuosi, forbidding me to despair of his pardon, if the same disposition prevailed with me, to make the curious partakers with me of so surprising a piece of philosophical news. And, though it sufficiently appeared, that the ensuing conference was but a continuation of a larger discourse; yet considering, that this part consists chiefly, not to say only, of a narrative, which (if I may so speak) stands upon its own legs, without any need of depending upon any thing that was delivered before, I thought it was no great venture, nor incongruity, to let it come abroad by itself. And, I the less scrupled to make this publication, because I found, that the honourable Mr. Boyle confesses himself to be fully satisfied of the truth of so much of the matter of fact, as delivers the phænomena of the trial: the truth whereof was further confirmed to me, by the testimony, and particular account, which that most learned and experienced physician, who was assistant to *Pyrophilus* in making the experiment, and with whom I have the honour to be acquainted (being now in *London*) gave me with his own mouth, of all the circumstances of the trial. And, where the truth of this shall be once granted, there is little cause to doubt, that the novelty of the thing will sufficiently indear the relation; especially to those, who are studious of the higher arcana in the Hermetic philosophy. For most of the phænomena here mentioned will probably seem wholly new, not only to vulgar chemists, but also to the greater part of the more knowing spagyrist, and natural philosophers themselves; none of the orthodox authors, as far as I can remember, having taken notice of such an anti-elixir. And, though *Pyrophilus's* scrupulosity (which makes him very unwilling to speak the utmost of a thing) allows it to be a deterioration into an imperfect metal only; yet, to tell the truth, I think it was more imbas'd than so; for the part left of it, (and kept for some farther discoveries) which I once got a sight of, looked more like a mineral or marchasite, than like any imperfect metal: and therefore this degradation is not the same, but much greater than that, which *Lullius* doth intimate in some places. These considerations make me presume it will easily be granted, that the effects of his anti-philosopher's stone, as I think it may not unfitly be called, will not only seem very strange to Hermetic, as well as other philosophers, but may prove very instructive to speculative wits; especially if *Pyrophilus* shall please to acquaint them with that more odd phænomenon, which he mentions darkly in the close of his discourse.

An Historical Account of the DEGRADATION of GOLD.

AFTER the whole company had, as it were by common consent, continued silent for some time, which others spent in reflections upon the preceding conference, and *Pyrophilus* in consideration of what he was about to deliver; this virtuoso at length stood up, and addressing himself to the rest: "I hope, gentlemen, says he, that what has been already discoursed, has inclined, if not persuaded you to think, that the exaltation, or change of other metals into gold, is not a thing absolutely impossible; and,

“ and, though I confess, I cannot remove all your doubts and objections, or my own;
 “ by being able to affirm to you, that I have with my own hands made a projection,
 “ (as chymists are wont to call the sudden transmutation made by a small quantity of
 “ their admirable elixir) yet I can confirm much of what hath been argued for the possi-
 “ bility of such a sudden change of a metalline body, by a way, which, I presume,
 “ will surprize you: for, to make it more credible, that other metals are capable of
 “ being graduated, or exalted into gold, by way of projection, I will relate to you,
 “ that by the like way gold has been degraded, or imbased.”

THE novelty of this preamble having much surpris'd the auditory, at length *Simpli-*
cius, with a disdainful smile, told *Pyrophilus*: “ That the company would have much
 “ thanked him, if he could have assured them, that he had seen another metal exalted
 “ into gold; but that to find a way of spoiling gold, was not only an useless discovery,
 “ but a prejudicial practice.”

Pyrophilus was going to make some return to this animadversion, when he was prevent-
 ed by *Aristander*; who, turning himself to *Simplicius*, told him, with a countenance
 and tone, that argued some displeasure: “ If *Pyrophilus* had been discoursing to a com-
 “ pany of goldsmiths, or merchants, your severe reflection, upon what he said, would
 “ have been proper: but, you might well have forbore it, if you had considered, as I
 “ suppose he did, that he was speaking to an assembly of philosophers and virtuosi, who
 “ are wont to estimate experiments, not as they enrich mens purses, but their brains;
 “ and think knowledge, especially of uncommon things, very desirable, even when it
 “ is not accompanied with any other thing than the light that still attends it, and increases
 “ it. It hath been thought an useful secret, by a kind of retrogradation to turn tin
 “ and lead into brittle bodies, like the ores of those metals. And if I thought it pro-
 “ per, I could shew, that such a change might be of use in the investigation of the
 “ nature of those metals, besides the practical use, that I know may be made of it.
 “ To find the nature of wine, we are assisted, not only by the methods of obtaining
 “ from it a spirit, but by the ways of readily turning it into vinegar; the knowledge
 “ of which ways hath not been despised by chemists or physicians, and hath at *Paris*,
 “ and divers other places, set up a profitable trade. It is well known, that divers
 “ eminent spagyristes have reckoned, amongst their highest arcana, the ways, by which
 “ they pretended, (and I fear did but pretend) to extract the mercury of gold, and
 “ consequently destroy that metal; and it were not hard to shew, by particular in-
 “ stances, that all the experiments, wherein bodies are in some respects deteriorated,
 “ are not without distinction to be rejected or despised; since in some of them, the light
 “ they may afford may more than countervail the degradation of a small quantity of
 “ matter, though it be gold itself. And indeed, (continues he) if we will consider
 “ things as philosophers, and look upon them as nature hath made them, not as opinion
 “ hath disguised them; the prerogatives and usefulness of gold, in comparison of other
 “ metals, is nothing near so great as alchymists and usurers imagine. For, as it is
 “ true, that gold is more ponderous, and more fixed, and perhaps more difficult to be
 “ spoiled, than iron; yet the qualities (whereof the first makes it burthensome, and
 “ the two others serve chiefly but to distinguish the true from counterfeit) are so balanced
 “ by the hardness, stiffness, springiness, and other useful qualities of iron; that if those
 “ two metals I speak of (gold and iron) were equally plentiful in the world, it is scarce
 “ to be doubted, but that men would prefer the more useful before the more splendid,
 “ considering how much worse it were for mankind to want hatchets, and knives and
 “ swords, than coin and plate. Wherefore, (concludes he) I think *Pyrophilus* ought
 “ to be both desired and encouraged to go on with his intended discourse, since whether
 “ gold be or be not the best of metals; an assurance, that it may be degraded, may
 “ prove

“ prove a novelty very instructive, and perhaps more so than the transmutation of a
 “ baser metal into a nobler. For I remember it hath long passed for a maxim among
 “ chemical philosophers, that *facilius est aurum construere quam destruere*: And whatever
 “ becomes of that, it is certain, that gold being the closest, the constantest, and the
 “ least destructible of metals, to be able to work a notable and almost essential change
 “ in such a body, (though, by deteriorating it) is more than to work a like change,
 “ (though in popular estimation for the better) in any metal less indisposed to admit
 “ alterations, especially in such an one as *Pyrophilus* intimates, by telling us, that it
 “ was made by way of projection, and consequently by a very small proportion of
 “ active matter; whereas the destructions, that vulgar chemists pretend to make of
 “ gold, are wont to be attempted to be made by considerable proportions of corrosive
 “ menstruums, or other fretting bodies; and even these experience shews to be usually
 “ too weak to ruin, though sometimes they may much disguise the most stable texture
 “ of gold. *Cuncta adeo miris illic complexibus hærent.*”

Pyrophilus perceiving by several signs, that he needed not add any thing of apolo-
 getical to what *Aristander* had already said for him, resumed his discourse, by saying,
 “ I was going, gentlemen, when *Simplicius* diverted me, to tell you, that looking up-
 “ on the vulgar objections, that have been wont to be framed against the possibility of
 “ metalline transmutations, from the authority and prejudices of *Aristotle*, and the
 “ school-philosophers, as arguments, that in such an assembly as this need not now be
 “ solemnly discussed; I consider, that the difficulties, that really deserve to be called
 “ so, and are of weight even with mechanical philosophers, and judicious naturalists,
 “ are principally these. First, That the great change, that must be wrought by
 “ the elixir, (if there be such an agent) is effected upon bodies of so stable and al-
 “ most immutable a nature as metals. Next, That this great change is said to be
 “ brought to pass in a very short time. And thirdly, (which is yet more strange)
 “ that this great and sudden alteration is said to be effected by a very small, and per-
 “ haps inconsiderable, proportion of the transmuting powder. To which three grand
 “ difficulties, I shall add another, that to me appears, and perhaps will seem to di-
 “ vers of the new philosophers, worthy to be looked upon as a fourth; namely, the
 “ notable change, that must by a real transmutation be made in the specifick gravity
 “ of the matter wrought upon: which difficulty I therefore think not unworthy to
 “ be added to the rest, because upon several trials of my own and other men, I have
 “ found no known quality of gold, (as its colour, malleableness, fixity, or the like)
 “ so difficult, if not so impossible, to be introduced into any other metalline matter,
 “ as the great specifick gravity, that is peculiar to gold. So that, gentlemen, (con-
 “ cludes *Pyrophilus*, if it can be made appear, that art has produced an anti-elixir,
 “ (if I may so call it) or agent, that is able in a very short time, to work a very not-
 “ able, though deteriorating, change upon a metal; in proportion to which its quan-
 “ tity is very inconsiderable; I see not why it should be thought impossible, that are
 “ may also make a true elixir, or powder capable of speedily transmuting a great pro-
 “ portion of a baser metal into silver or gold: especially if it be considered, that those,
 “ that treat of these arcana, confess, that it is not every matter, which may be justly
 “ called the philosopher’s stone, that is able to transmute other metals in vast quanti-
 “ ties; since several of these writers, (and even *Lully* himself) make differing orders
 “ or degrees of the elixir, and acknowledge, that a medicine or tincture of the first or
 “ lowest order will not transmute about ten times its weight of an inferior metal.

Pyrophilus having at this part of his discourse made a short pause to take breath,
Cratippus took occasion from his silence to say to him, “ I presume, *Pyrophilus*, I
 “ shall be disavowed by very few of these gentlemen, if I tell you, that the company
 “ is

“ is impatient to hear the narrative of your experiment; and that if it do so much
 “ as probably make out the particulars you have been mentioning, you will in like-
 “ lihood persuade most of them, and will certainly oblige them all. I shall there-
 “ fore on their behalf, as well as my own, sollicit you to hasten to the historical part
 “ of a discourse, that is so like to gratify our curiosity ”

THE company having by their unanimous silence, testified their approbation of what *Cratippus* had said; and appearing more than ordinary attentive;

As I was one day abroad, saith *Pyrophilus*, to return visits to my friends, I was by a happy providence (for it was beside my first intention) directed to make one to an ingenious foreigner, with whom a few, that I had received from him, had given me some little acquaintance.

WHILST this gentleman and I were discoursing together of several matters, there came into visit him a stranger, whom I had but once seen before; and though that were in a promiscuous company yet he addressed himself to me in a way, that quickly satisfied me of the greatness of his civility; which he soon after also did of that of his curiosity. For the virtuoso, in whose lodgings we met, having (to gratify me) put him upon the discourse of his voyages; the curious stranger entertained us an hour or two with pertinent and judicious answers to the questions I asked him about places so remote, or so much within land, that I had not met with any of our English navigators or travellers, that had penetrated so far as to visit them. And because I found by his discourse, that I was like to enjoy such good company but a very little while, (since he told me, that he came the other day into *England* but to dispatch a business, which he had already done as far as he could do it, after which he was with speed to return, as (to my trouble) he did to his patron that lent him) I made the more haste to propose such questions to him, as I most desired to be satisfied about; and among other things, enquiring whether in the eastern parts he had traversed, he had met with any chemists; he answered me, that he had; and that though they were fewer, and more reserved than ours, yet he did not find them at all less skillful. And on this occasion, before he left the town to go aboard the ship he was to overtake, he in a very obliging way put into my hands, at parting, a little piece of paper, folded up; which he said contained all that he had left of a rarity he had received from an eastern virtuoso, and which he intimated would give me occasion both to remember him, and to exercise my thoughts in uncommon speculations.

THE great delight I took in conversing with a person, that had travelled so far, and could give me so good an account of what he had seen, made me so much resent the being so soon deprived of it, that though I judged such a virtuoso would not, as a great token of kindness, have presented me a riddle, yet the present did but very imperfectly console me for the loss of so pleasing and instructive a conversation.

NEVERTHELESS, that I might comply with the curiosity he himself had excited in me, and know how much I was his debtor, I resolved to see what it was he had given me, and try whether I could make it do what I thought he intimated, by the help of those few hints rather than directions how to use it, which the parting haste he was in (or perhaps some other reason best known to himself) confined him to give me. But in regard that I could not but think the experiment would one way or other prove extraordinary, I thought fit to take a witness or two and an assistant in the trying of it; and for that purpose made choice of an experienced doctor of physick, very well versed in the separating and copelling of metals.

THOUGH the company, says *Heliodorus*, be so confident of your sincerity and wariness, that they would give credit even to unlikely experiments, upon your single testimony; yet we cannot but approve your discretion in taking an assistant and a witness,
 because

because in nice and uncommon experiments we can scarce use too much circumspection, especially when we have not the means of reiterating the trial: for in such new, as well as difficult cases, it is easy, even for a clear-sighted experimenter to over-look some important circumstance, that a far less skilful by-stander may take notice of.

As I have ever judged, saith *Pyrophilus*, that cautiousness is a very requisite qualification for him, that would satisfactorily make curious experiments; so I thought fit to imploy a more than ordinary measure of it, in making a trial, whose event I imagined might prove odd enough. And therefore having several times observed, that some men are prepossessed, by having a particular expectation raised in them, and are inclined to think, that they do see that happen, which they think they should see happen; I resolved to obviate this pre-judication as much as innocently I could, and (without telling him any thing but the truth, to which philosophy, as well as religion, obliges us to be strictly loyal) I told him but thus much of the truth, that I expected, that a small proportion of a powder presented me by a foreign virtuoso would give a brittleness to the most flexible and malleable of metals, gold itself. Which chance I perceived he judged so considerable and unlikely to be affected, that he was greedy of seeing it severely tried,

HAVING thus prepared him not to look for all that I myself expected, I cautiously opened the paper I lately mentioned, but was both surprized and troubled (as he also was) to find in it so very little powder, that instead of two differing trials, that I designed to make with it, there seemed very small hope left, that it would serve for one (and that but an imperfect one neither). For there was so very little powder, that we could scarce see the colour of it (save that, as far as I could judge, it was of a darkish red) and we thought it not only dangerous, but useless to attempt to weigh it, in regard we might easily lose it by putting it into, and out of the balance; and the weights we had were not small enough for so despicable a quantity of matter; which in words I estimated at an eighth part of a grain; but my assistant (whose conjecture I confess my thoughts inclined to prefer) would allow it to be at the most but a tenth part of a grain. Wherefore seeing the utmost we could reasonably hope to do with so very little powder, was to make one trial with it, we weighed out in differing balances two drams of gold, that had been formerly English coin, and that I caused by one, that I usually imploy, to be cupelled with a sufficient quantity of lead, and quartered, as they speak, with refined silver, and purged aqua-fortis, to be sure of the goodness of the gold. These two drams I put into a new crucible, first carefully nealed, and having brought them to fusion by the mere action of the fire, without the help of borax, or any other additament (which course, though somewhat more laborious than the most usual, we took to obviate scruples) I put into the well-melted metal with my own hand the little parcel of powder lately mentioned, and continuing the vessel in the fire for about a quarter of an hour, that the powder might have time to diffuse itself every way into the metal, we poured out the well-melted gold into another crucible that I had brought with me, and that had been gradually heated before to prevent cracking. But though from the first fusion of the metal to the pouring out, it had turned in the crucible like ordinary gold, save that once my assistant told me, he saw that for two or three moments it looked almost like an opale; yet I was somewhat surprized to find, when the matter was grown cold, that though it appeared upon the balance, that we had not lost any thing of the weight we put in, yet, instead of fine gold, we had a lump of metal of a dirty colour, as it were overcast with a thin coat, almost like half vitrified litharge; and somewhat to increase the wonder, we perceived, that there stuck to one side of the crucible a little globule of metal, that looked not at all yellowish, but like coarse silver, and the bottom of the crucible was overlaid with a vitrified substance, whereof one

part was of a transparent yellow, and the other of a deep brown, inclining to red; and in this vitrified substance I could plainly perceive sticking at least five or six little globules, that looked more like impure silver than pure gold. In short, this stuff looked so little like refined, or so much as ordinary, gold, that though my friend did much more than I marvel at this change, yet I confess I was surprized at it myself. For though in some particulars it answered what I looked for, yet in others, it was very differing from that, which the donor of the powder had, as I thought, given me ground to expect. Whether the cause of my disappointment were, that (as I formerly intimated) this virtuoso's haste or design made him leave me in the dark; or whether it were, that finding myself in want of sufficient directions, I happily pitched upon such a proportion of materials and way of operating, as were proper to make a new discovery, which the excellent giver of the powder had not designed, or perhaps thought of.

I SHALL not at all wonder, saith *Cratippus*, either at your friend's amazement, or at your surprize, if your further trials did in any measure confirm what the superficial change, that appeared in your metal, could not but incline you to conjecture.

You will best judge of that (replies *Pyrophilus*) by the account I was going to give you of what we did with our odd metal. And first, having rubbed it upon a good touchstone, whereon we had likewise rubbed a piece of coined gold, we manifestly found, that the mark left upon the stone by our mass, between the marks of the two other metals, was notoriously more like the touch of the silver than that of the gold. Next, having knocked our little lump with a hammer, it was (according to my prediction) found brittle, and flew into several pieces. Thirdly (which is more) even the insides of those pieces looked of a base dirty colour, like that of brass or worse, for the fragments had a far greater resemblance to bell-metal, than either to gold or to silver. To which we added this fourth, and more considerable examen; that having carefully weighed out one dram of our stuff (reserving the rest for trials to be suggested by second thought) and put it upon an excellent new and well-nealed coppel, with about half a dozen times its weight of lead, we found, somewhat to our wonder, that though it turned very well like good gold, yet it continued in the fire above an hour and an half (which was twice as long as we expected) and yet almost to the very last the fumes copiously ascended, which sufficiently argued the operation to have been well carried on; and when at last it was quite ended, we found the coppel very smooth and intire, but tinged with a fine purplish red (which did somewhat surprize us;) and besides, the refined gold, there lay upon the cavity of the coppel some dark-coloured recrements, which we concluded to have proceeded from the deteriorated metal, not from the lead. But when we came to put our gold again into the balance, we found it to weigh only about fifty three grains, and consequently to have lost seven; which yet we found to be fully made up by that little quantity of recrements, that I have lately mentioned, whose weight and fixity, compared with their unpromising colour, did not a little puzzle us, especially because we had not enough either of them, or of leisure, to examine their nature. To all which circumstances I shall subjoin this, that to prevent any scruples, that might arise touching the gold we employed, I caused a dram and a half, that had been purposely reserved out of the same portion with that, which had been debased; I caused this (I say) to be in my assistant's presence melted by itself, and found it (as I doubted not but I should do) fine and well coloured gold.

I hope you will pardon my curiosity, saith *Aristander* to the gentleman that spoke last, if I ask, why you take no notice of the effect of aqua-fortis upon your imbas'd metal? Your question, replies *Pyrophilus*, I confess to be very reasonable, and I am somewhat troubled, that I cannot answer it but by telling you, that we had not at hand
any

any aqua-fortis we durst rely on; which yet I was the less troubled at, because heretofore some trials purposely made had informed me, that in some metalline mixtures the gold, if it were much predominant in quantity, may protect another metal, (for instance silver,) from being dissolved by that menstruum, though not from being at all invaded by it.

THERE yet remained, saith *Heliodorus*, one examen more of your odd metal, which would have satisfied me, at least as much as any of the rest, of its having been notably imbas'd: for if it were altered in its specific gravity, that quality I have always observed (as I lately perceived you also have done) to stick so close to gold, that it could not by an additament so inconsiderable in point of bulk, be considerably altered without a notable and almost essential change in the texture of the metal.

To this pertinent discourse, *Pyrophilus*, with the respect due to a person, that so worthily sustained the dignity he had of presiding in that choice company, made this return: I owe you, sir, my humble thanks for calling upon me to give you an account I might have forgotten, and which is yet of so important a thing, that none of the other phenomena of our experiment seemed to me to deserve so much notice. Wherefore I shall now inform you, that having provided myself of all the requisites to make hydrostatical trials (to which perhaps I am not altogether a stranger) I carefully weighed in water the ill-looking mass (before it was divided for the coppelling of the above-mentioned dram) and found, to the great confirmation of my former wonder and conjectures, that instead of weighing about nineteen times as much as a bulk of water equal to it, its proportion to that liquor was but that of fifteen and about two thirds to one: so that its specific gravity was less by about one-third than it would if it had been pure gold.

At the recital of this notable circumstance, superadded to the rest, the generality of the company, and the president too, by looking and smiling upon one another, expressed themselves to be as well delighted as surprized; and after the murmuring, occasioned by the various whispers that passed amongst them, was a little over, *Heliodorus* addressed himself to *Pyrophilus*, and told him; I need not, and therefore shall not, stay for an express order from the company to give you their hearty thanks: for as the obliging stranger did very much gratify you by the present of his wonderful powder, so you have not a little gratified us by so candid and particular a narrative of the effects of it; and I hope (continues he) that if you have not yet otherwise disposed of that part of your deteriorated gold that you did not coppel, you will sometime or other favour us with a sight of it.

I join in this request, said *Cratippus*, as soon as he perceived the president had done speaking; and to facilitate the grant of it, I shall not scruple to tell *Pyrophilus*, he may be confident, that the degradation of his gold will not depreciate it amongst us: since if it be allowable for opinion to stamp such a value upon old coins and medals, that in the judgment of good antiquaries, a rusty piece of brass or copper, with a half defaced image or inscription on it, is to be higher valued than as big a piece of well-stamped gold; I see not, why it should not be lawful for philosophers to prize such a lump of depraved gold as yours before the finest gold the chymists or mint-masters are wont to afford us. And though I freely grant, that some old copper medals are of good use in history, to keep alive by their inscriptions the memory of the taking of a town, or the winning of a battle; though these be but things, that almost every day are some where or other done, yet I think *Pyrophilus's* imbas'd metal is much to be preferred, as not only preserving the memory, but being an effect of such a victory of art over nature, and the conquering of such generally believed insuperable difficulties, as no story that I know of gives us an example of.

As soon as ever *Cratippus* had made a pause, *Pyrophilus*, to prevent complimentary discourse, did in a few words tell the president, that his part had been but that of a relator of matter of fact; and that therefore he could deserve but little thanks and no praise at all; though a good measure of both of them were due to the obliging virtuoso, that had given him the powder; and in that, the opportunity of complying with his duty, and his inclination, to serve that learned company.

THESE gentlemen, saith *Aristander*, are not persons, among whom modesty is either restrained from expressing itself, or construed according to the letter; and therefore whatever you have been pleased to say, the company cannot but think itself much obliged to you; and I know the obligation would be much increased, if you would favour us with your reflections upon the extraordinary experiment you have been pleased to relate to us.

IF, replies *Pyrophilus*, I had had wherewithal to repeat the experiment, and vary it according to the hints afforded me by the first trial, I should be less unfit to comply with *Aristander's* motion: but the phænomena are too new and too difficult for me to attempt to unriddle them by the help of so slender an information as a person so little sagacious as I could get by a single trial; and though I will not deny, that I have had some roving thoughts about this puzzling subject, yet I hope I shall be easily pardoned, if I decline to present crude and immature thoughts to a company, that so well deserve the most ripe ones, and can so skilfully discover those that are not so.

I confess, saith *Heliodorus*, that I think *Pyrophilus's* wariness deserves, not only to be allowed, but imitated; and therefore by my consent the further discourse of so abstruse a subject shall be deferred, till we shall have had time to consider seriously of phænomena, that will be sure to employ our most speculative thoughts, and I fear to pose them too: only we must not forget, that *Pyrophilus* himself ought to be not barely allowed, but invited to draw, before we rise, what corollaries he thinks fit to propose from what he hath already delivered.

THE inference, said *Pyrophilus*, I meant to make, will not detain you long; having for the main been already intimated in what you may remember I told you I designed in the mention I was about to make of the now recited experiment. For without launching into difficult speculations, or making use of disputable hypotheses, it seems evident enough from the matter of fact faithfully laid before you, that an operation very near, if not altogether as strange as that, which is called projection, and in the difficultest points much of the same nature with it, may safely be admitted. For our experiment plainly shews, that gold, though confessedly the most homogeneous, and the least mutable of metals, may be in a very short time (perhaps not amounting to many minutes) exceedingly changed, both as to malleableness, colour, homogeneity, and (which is more) specific gravity; and all this by so very inconsiderable a portion of injected powder, that since the gold that was wrought on weighed two of our English drams, and consequently an hundred and twenty grains, an easy computation will assure us, that the medicine did thus powerfully act, according to my estimate (which was the modestest) upon near a thousand times (for it was above nine hundred and fifty) its weight of gold, and according to my assistant's estimate did (as they speak) go near upon twelve hundred; so that if it were fit to apply to this anti-elixir (as I formerly ventured to call it) what is said of the true elixir by divers of the chymical philosophers, who will have their virtue of their stone increased in such a proportion, as that at first it will transmute but ten times its weight, after the next rotation an hundred times, and after the next to that a thousand; our powder may in their language be stiled a medicine of the third order.

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THE computation, saith *Aristander*, is very obvious, but the change of so great a portion of metal is so wonderful and unexampled that I hope we shall among other things learn from it this lesson, that we ought not to be so forward, as many men otherwise of great parts are wont to be, in prescribing narrow limits to the power of nature and art, and in condemning and deriding all those that pretend to, or believe, uncommon things in chymistry, as either cheats or credulous. And therefore I hope, that though (at least in my opinion) it be very allowable to call fables, fables, and to detect and expose the impostures or deceits of ignorant or vain-glorious pretenders to chymical mysteries; yet we shall not, by too hasty and general censures of the sober and diligent indicators of the arcana of chymistry, blemish (as much as in us lies) that excellent art itself, and thereby disoblige the genuine sons of it, and divert those, that are indeed possessors of noble secrets, from vouchsafing to gratify our curiosity, as we see that one of them did *Pyrophilus's*, with the sight at least of some of their highly instructive rarities.

I WHOLLY approve, saith *Ileliodorus* rising from his seat, the discreet and seasonable motion made by *Aristander*.

AND I presume, subjoins *Pyrophilus*, that it will not be the less liked, if I add, that I will allow the company to believe, that as extraordinary, as I perceive most of you think the phænomena of the lately recited experiment; yet I have not (because I must not do it) as yet acquainted you with the strangest effect of our admirable powder.

The AERIAL NOCTILUCA: Or, some NEW PHÆNOMENA, and a Process of a factitious self-shining Substance.

AN ADVERTISEMENT of the PUBLISHER to the READER.

THE honourable author of the following papers, thinking it probable, that the processes delivered in them, having hitherto been published by no man, will, as well for that reason, as for the nobleness of the subject, prove not unwelcome to the curious, in divers countries, where English is not understood: he was very willing, for their sakes, that this tract should be turned into Latin. And now, to prevent the needless pains of any, that may have a mind to make such a version, without having the opportunity to consult the author, upon any doubt of his meaning, I think fit to give notice, that the translation is, by the author's consent, made already, and, God permitting, will quickly appear in public. Perhaps it will not be improper to add, that the reason, why the following English tract is printed in octavo (as they speak) is, that it may be conveniently bound up, either with the notes, already published in the same form about divers particular qualities, or with those other notes, that yet remain to be published about other qualities; to whose number light and inflammability may be referred. The ensuing discourse having been written to a virtuoso living in the country, who has been for many years absent from London, it was thought fit in the beginning of these papers to give him some informations about phosphorus's, and their several kinds in general; but it was not thought fit to publish at the beginning of the letter any thing of compliment; since in that, neither the main subject, nor the reader, was concerned.

To my very learned FRIEND Dr. J. B.

S I R,

TO gratify your curiosity about phosphoruses, as much as I can without indiscretion at present do, I must, in the first place, take notice to you, that though phosphoruses may well be distinguished into two sorts; those that may be stiled natural, as glow-worms, some sorts of rotten wood and fishes, and a few others; and those that are properly artificial: yet waving, at present, further mention of the former sort of bodies, that without manifest heat shine in the dark (which absence of sensible heat distinguishes phosphoruses from common fire and flame;) I shall now confine my discourse to the latter sort, and tell you, that as far as I have hitherto observed, those factitious shining bodies, that do or may pass under the name of phosphoruses, may be reduced to two principal kinds, one of which may be subdivided into two or three, so that in all they will amount to three or four.

THE first of these consists of such bodies, as shine only by the help of external illumination, or (if you please) such bodies, as being exposed to the beams of the sun, or those of a vigorous flame, will retain a lucidness, and continue to shine some time in the dark. Of this kind is the Bolonian stone, skilfully prepared; and of this sort also is the Phosphorus Hermeticus of Balduinus, of whose phænomena, but not the way of making it, the author has given the learned world an account. This phosphorus was therefore very welcome to divers of the curious, because the Bolonian stone was for some years before grown very rare, even in its own country, *Italy*, which scarceness, an ingenious traveller, than lately come out of those parts, told me he imputed to the death of the person, that used to prepare the stone at *Bologna*, without having left a sufficient account of his way of making it lucid. And the phosphorus of Balduinus, which, or the like, may be made (as I have tried) both of chalk, and another substance, seemed to me, when the preparation succeeded best, to catch the external light (if I may so speak) far more readily than the Bolonian stone: for I remember I have had one, that being freshly made, would within about half a minute of an hour be manifestly excited, and as it were kindled; so that being presently removed into a dark place, it would retain a very sensible light, for so many times as long as it had been exposed to the beams of the external light; and this (if I much mis-remember not) was even when that external light was but the flame of a candle.

BUT, on the other side, whereas I have more than once or twice observed, with trouble, that these phosphoruses could very hardly be preserved for any long time (which I was apt to impute to the action of insinuating air) so that some of them in not many months, and others even in a few weeks (or perhaps days) would appear cracked, and lose their virtue of being excited by the beams of light; the Bolonian stone, skilfully prepared, would retain its virtue for a much longer time: for I remember (whatever learned men have delivered to the contrary) I had a small piece of it, which, though I kept it negligently enough in an ordinary little wooden box, retained its virtue for several years after I had it, which was not till a great while after it was first prepared. What I have further observed concerning the Phosphorus Hermeticus, I have not now the leisure to acquaint you with.

BUT besides this first kind of phosphoruses that to be able to shine, must have their faculty excited by the beams of the sun, or those of some other actually shining body: there is another sort, which needs not be previously illustrated by any external lucid, and yet continues to shine far longer than the Bolonian stone, or the phosphorus of Balduinus. This by some learned men has been called, to discriminate it from the former, a noctiluca; which, though in strictness I cannot think it as proper a name as could

be wished, since the other phosphorus will shine in the night as well as the day, if it be excited with the flame of a culinary fire, or of a large candle; yet since the name has been received by several, and since it is not easy in our language to express the thing clearly in one word, I shall (though for brevity, as much as distinction-sake) admit the use of this name, yet without forbearing sometimes to substitute for it that of a self-shining substance, which is more expressive of its nature. Of this substance Mr. *Daniel Kraft*, a German Chymist, shewed his majesty two sorts or degrees. To the first of which I took the liberty to give the name of consistent (or gummous) noctiluca, not in that sense, wherein the word is opposed to soft, for this substance was at least as yielding as bees-wax in summer; but as the consistent is employed as equivalent to firm, and opposed to liquid and fluid. By reason also of its somewhat viscous texture, not very unlike that of gum of cherries, and some others newly taken from the tree, it may be called the gummous noctiluca: and, I am informed, on the score of its uninterrupted action, it is called by some in *Germany*, the constant noctiluca; which title it does not ill deserve, since this phosphorus is much the noblest we have yet seen. For though there were not much of it, and though it were kept by itself in a little vial, well stopped, it would, without being externally excited, incessantly shine, as he affirmed, both day and night. Yet the light it afforded seemed but little, if at all, more vivid, than I have sometimes observed in the liquor of glow-worms, and some other phosphoruses of nature's producing: nor had the possessor enough of this substance to invite his consent to any trial to improve it, the quantity he had at *London* scarce exceeding in bulk the kernel of an almond.

BESIDES this gummous noctiluca, Mr. *Kraft* had a liquid one, that, perhaps, was made only by dissolution of the former in water, or some convenient liquor; but the lucidness of this was not permanent like that of the other, as I have noted in another paper; but within no very long time, especially when it was divided into smaller portions, and left exposed to the air, would expire or vanish.

BUT besides the gummous and the liquid noctiluca hitherto mentioned, I know not whether we may not add a third kind, that we ourselves lately prepared, which seems to be of a somewhat differing nature, both from the consistent, and the liquid noctiluca newly described, at least as far as I observed their phænomena. For this of ours would not shine of itself, like the constant noctiluca, nor yet in that manner, that the liquid noctiluca did; but the bare contact of the air, without any external illustration or heat, would immediately produce a light (which might easily be made to last a good while in a well stopped vessel;) and, which is considerable, the substance, that shined, was not the body of the liquor included in the vial, but an exhalation or effluvium mingled with the admitted air: for both which reasons, I gave in the name Aerial Noctiluca.

THESE are the several phosphoruses, that I have yet had opportunity to see; but, for ought I know, their variety may extend somewhat further, because I have heard of a paper printed in *Germany* by an ingenious man, whose name (if I mistake not) is *Liljeblætz*, wherein particular mention is made, in an historical way, of the German Noctiluca: but this paper I cannot yet procure, and therefore you would do well to consult it, if you can get it; and I am not averse from thinking, that future industry may discover some new kinds or variations of self-shining substances, that will deserve new names, and among them, perhaps, that of solid Noctilucas.

HAVING said thus much of the several sorts of artificial phosphoruses, I shall be very brief in speaking of their inventors, whereof I have but an imperfect information. For though I find it generally agreed, that the Phosphorus Hermeticus was first found and published to the world by the learned and ingenious *Baldanus*, a German lawyer;

yet as to the gummous and liquid noctilucas, I find the first invention is by some ascribed to the above mentioned Mr. *Kraft*, (though I remember not, that when he was here, he plainly asserted it to himself;) by others, attributed to an antient chymist, dwelling at *Hamburg*, whose name (if I mistake not) is Mr. *Branc*, and by others again, with great confidence, asserted to a famous German chymist in the court of *Saxony*, called *Kunckelius*. But to which of these so noble an invention, as that of the two German noctilucas, is justly due, I neither am qualified nor desirous to judge; and therefore, without prejudicing any man's right, I will proceed to that, which, I presume, is the chief thing you would know of me, namely, *An account of the occasion and steps of my own attempt to make a Noctiluca*. Concerning this I shall give you the following narrative, wherein, though my urgent avocations will not (I fear) permit me to be other than immethodical, yet I shall not decline to mention some circumstances, that I know may be omitted, because they will not, perhaps, be found so barely historical, but that they may prove of some use to a less sagacity than yours, in an enquiry into a subject, wherein I cannot yet plainly tell you all you could wish to know, and which is both new and abstruse, as well as noble.

AFTER the experienced chymist Mr. *Daniel Kraft* had, in a visit that he purposely made me, shewn me and some of my friends, both his liquid and consistent phosphorus, being by the phænomena I then observed, (and whereof the curious have since had publick notice*,) made certain, that there is really such a factitious body to be made, as would shine in the dark, without having been before illustrated by any lucid substance, and without being hot as to sense: after this, I say, I took into consideration, by what ways it might be most probable, to produce, by art, such a shining substance. To seek for which I was both inclined, and hopeful to be somewhat assisted, because I had lying by me, among my yet unpublished notes of the mechanical origin of divers qualities, a collection of some observations and thoughts concerning light. And I was also the more encouraged to attempt somewhat this way, because having, at Mr. *Kraft's* desire, imparted to him somewhat, that I discovered about uncommon mercuries, (which I had then communicated but to one person in the world) he, in requital, confest to me at parting, that at least the principal matter of his phosphoruses was somewhat that belonged to the body of man. This intimation, though but very general, was therefore very welcome to me, because, though I have often thought it probable, that a shining substance may, by spagyric art, be obtained from more kinds of bodies than one: yet designing in the first place, to try, if I could hit upon such a phosphorus as I saw was preparable, the advertisement saved me (for some time) the labour of ranging among various bodies, and directed me to exercise my industry in a narrower compass. But there being divers parts of the human body, that have been taken to task by chymists, and, perhaps, by me as carefully, as by some others, my choice might have been distracted between the blood, the solid excrements, the bones, the urine, and the hair, of the human body; if various former trials and speculations upon more than one of those subjects had not directed me to pitch upon that, which was fittest to be chosen, and of which, as I had formerly set down divers experiments and observations, so I had made provision of a quantity of it, and so far prepared it, that it wanted but little of being fit for my present purpose. But before I had made any great progress in my design, I was by divers removes, indispositions of body, law-suits, and other avocations, so distracted, or at least diverted, that I laid aside the prosecution of the phosphorus for a long time. And when afterwards I resumed it, though I wrought upon the right matter, yet I was diverted from the right way,

* This clause refers to one of the *Philosophical Collections* published by the ingenious Mr. *Hook*, who hath therein inserted 347th 621st in the paper he received from Mr. *Boyle*.

way, by a process that I received from beyond sea, as a great arcanum, that would certainly produce the noctiluca aspired to; for partly upon this account, but more, because I saw that the chief ingredient in this process was that, which I, with reason, took to be the best matter, I was induced to pursue the prescribed method for some months, but without success; the true matter being, as I concluded, too much either altered or clogged by the additional ingredients, that were designed to improve it; besides, that the degree of fire, though a circumstance of the greatest moment, was overlooked, or not rightly prescribed. However, adhering to the first choice I had made of a fit matter, I did not desist to work upon it by the ways I judged the most hopeful, when a learned and ingenious stranger, (*A. G. M. D.* countryman, if I mistake not, to Mr. *Kraft*) who had newly made an excursion into *England*, to see the country, having, in a visit he was pleased to make me, occasionally discoursed, among other things, about the German noctiluca, whereof he soon perceived I knew the true matter, and had wrought much upon it; he said something about the degree of fire, that made me afterwards think, when I reflected on it, that that was the only thing I wanted to succeed in my endeavours. And there was the more reason to think so, because for want of a due management of the fire, we had divers times failed of making the phosphorus of *Balduinus*, not only after we had more than once wrought upon the right matter, but after we had actually made the phosphorus. Wherefore when he left *London*, having yet some quantity of the matter in such readiness, that it needed but the fire to let me see, what I ought to think of the hint the ingenious traveller had given me, I caused the trial to be renewed, which, proving unsuccessful, diminished much of my stock of prepared matter, but it did not so discourage me, as to hinder me from reiterating the attempt (without much varying it) with a good part of what remained. And though at this time also all the care and diligence, that could be employed, did not hinder an unlucky miscarriage, that kept the trial from being fully satisfactory; yet being confident upon the nature of the thing, I would not believe the skilful laborant, when he told me with trouble, that what I expected, was not at all produced: but going myself to the laboratory, I quickly found, that by the help of the air, or some agitation of what had passed into the receiver, I could, in a dark place (though it was then day) perceive some glimmerings of light, which, you will easily believe, I was not ill pleased to see. And now you have the history of my pursuit of the liquid phosphorus, that has made some noise among the curious: but I freely confess, that the success, though welcome, was not so full as I aimed at, for I obtained no such consistent phosphorus as that, whereof Mr. *Kraft* shewed me, as I formerly told you, a small parcel. But as I was willing to think, that this defect may be imputed to the cracking of the retort, before the operation was quite finished, so I hope another distillation in a more luckily chosen vessel may make me amends for the newly mentioned miscarriage, and thereby enable me to discover other, and perhaps nobler phænomena of our shining substance, than hitherto I have been able to observe. Especially considering, that the same misfortune, that I hope was the principal cause of my missing the noblest thing I aimed at, the constant noctiluca, left me so little even of liquid matter, fit for my purpose, that I have not dared, for fear of wasting it, to try several things with it, that I presume may be of good use in an enquiry into the nature of this light, and perhaps also of light in general. And because I fear by what I have observed, that, though the vessel had not cracked, yet the matter distilled would have afforded but a small proportion of lucid substance, I am the more unwilling to fall upon this troublesome work again, till, besides other requisites, I be provided of a competent quantity of a matter, which I fear contains but very little of the desired substance. However, I have endeavoured to make that use of our experiment, such as it was, that though the nocti-

luca it produced, be not perhaps so lucid as that of Mr. *Kraft's* yet it may prove as luciferous as his hath hitherto been, since (as you will see hereafter) I have found a substance, that needs the air, and nothing but the air to kindle it, and that in a moment.

IN this narrative I have been the more particular, that it may shew you, (what I hope may make you amends for the length of it) that an inquisitive man should not always be deterred by the difficulties, or even disappointments he may meet with, in prosecuting a noble experiment, as long as he judges himself to proceed upon good and rational grounds.

THE uses, that may be made of noctilucas, especially of the consistent, are not, in probability, all of them to be easily foreseen and declared; especially by me, who have not yet had time and ability to make those improvements of self-shining substances, that, by the assistance of the father of lights, I hope will, in process of time, be attained. If the lucid virtue of the constant noctiluca could be (as I see not, why it may not be) considerably invigorated, it may prevent a great deal of danger, to which men of war, and other ships are exposed, by the necessity men often have to come into the gun-room with common flames or fire, to take out powder, which has occasioned the blowing up of many a brave ship. Our light may, perhaps, be of use to those, that dive in deep waters; and also may very safely and conveniently be let down into the sea, to what depth one pleases, and kept there a long time, to draw together the fishes, that are wont to resort to the light of a fire or candle; as in divers parts of *Scotland* and *Ireland* is well known to the fishermen, who get much profit by this resort. The same self-shining substance, which in our aerial noctiluca affords a light, that, as faint as it yet is, was able, when I waked in the night, to shew me distinctly enough the bigness and shape of some joints of my fingers, and to discover itself in the shape of a capital letter of the alphabet, that was cut out of a piece of blacked paper pasted upon the vial; this light, I say, may probably, (at least when somewhat invigorated) suffice to shew the hour of the night when one wakes, (with eyes unaccustomed to light) if it be placed, instead of a lamp or candle, behind an index, where the figures employed to mark the hours are cut out. It may also serve to make a guide knowable at a good distance off, in spite of tempestuous winds and great showers, and this in the darkest night. Divers ludicrous experiments, very pleasant and surprizing, may be made with the noctiluca, by him that has enough of it. But these trifles, though very pretty in their kind, I purposely pass over: as also an use, that may be of great, but I fear of mischievous, consequences; reserving what I have further to say of the usefulness of these self-shining substances, till time shall give me more information and leisure. In the mean while I shall only intimate, that probably the utilities, that so subtle and noble a substance may be brought to afford in medicine, may be more considerable than any of its other particular uses; and that though our noctiluca had none of these, yet it may be highly valuable, if it shall (as in all likelihood it will) be found conducive to discover the nature of so noble a subject, as light, whose encomiums would require more time than I can allow this writing. And perhaps they will seem needless, when I shall have observed, that light was the first corporeal thing the great creator of the universe was pleased to make; and that (as our excellent *Bacon* has well noted, to another purpose) he was pleased to allot the whole first day to the creation of light alone, without associating with it in that honour any other corporeal thing.

THESE things being premised, I shall proceed to what I chiefly intended in this paper, viz. the mention of the observations themselves; as soon as, to facilitate the understanding of them, I shall have advertised you, that though I fear it will always be difficult to get out without loss the self-shining substance raised by distillation, yet in our experiment, because the vessels would not hold out intire to the last, we had more difficulty,

culty, than even we expected, to get out the luciferous matter, and were fain to save, as much as we could of it, by small parcels, in distinct vials. Whereof that, which was first employed, though it was judged to have received the vigorousst portion of the shining liquor; yet for a reason I elsewhere intimated, (and because it was not at hand, when I had first the opportunity to use it) I thought fit to make my trials with the noctiluca, I had saved in the second vial; setting aside some more faint and aqueous liquor, that was afterwards saved in a third vial; and a thicker stuff, that remained upon the paper, when some of the liquor had been put into it to be filtrated. Which paper was kept in a fourth glass, which, though (that it might admit the paper and adhering luciferous stuff) it was wide-mouthed, yet was it kept carefully stopt. Of the phænomena I observed in the second of these four glasses, I shall, God permitting, at this time, give you a short account; designing, if my haste will give me leave, to add some particulars, that I may afterwards observe in those portions of our noctiluca, that were received in the three other glasses.

OBSERVATIONS made by Mr. Boyle about the AERIAL NOCTILUCA contained in his Second Vial.

Note, That this vial was capable of holding, by our gueſs, about two ounces of water, but there was not in it above one ſmall ſpoonful of our liquor.

OBSERVATION I.

THE liquor, that afforded the aerial noctiluca, (for which reason, and for brevity, I often call it the shining liquor) by day-light was not near diaphanous, and appeared muddy, and of a greyish colour, somewhat like common water, rendered opacous, by having a quantity of wood-ashes mingled with it.

OBSERVATION II.

WHEN no light appeared in the glass, we observed all the cavity of the vial, that reached from the liquor to the neck, to be transparent, as if there were nothing in the glass, save a spoonful of dirty water at the bottom.

OBSERVATION III.

BUT when the liquor was made to shine vividly, then all the cavity of the glass, untaken up by the liquor, appeared in an external light to be full of fumes. And this seeming smoke, being, in the vial that contained it, removed into a dark place, appeared lucid, and sometimes looked like a flame, that seemed to be reverberated, and to be made, as it were, to circulate by the close stopped neck and the sides of the vial. And the appearance of whitish fumes, when the glass was looked upon in an external light, was so usual a concomitant of its fitness to shine in the dark, that by looking upon the vial by day-light, I could readily tell, by the presence or absence of the whitish mist above-mentioned, whether the matter would, in a dark place, appear luminous or not.

OBSERVATION IV.

WHEN this liquor had been kept for a competent time (as an hour or two, and sometimes much less) in some dark and quiet place, or even in my pocket; if in a

darkened room my eyes were cast toward the place, where the vial was held, I could not perceive it to afford any light at all. And though I shook the liquor strongly enough, to give it at least a moderate agitation, yet I could not discern, that this motion alone was able to bring the included liquor, or the vapours it may be supposed to have sent up, to be manifestly lucid.

OBSERVATION V.

BUT as soon as I unstopt the vial in the dark, there began to appear, as I expected, a light or flame in the cavity of it. I call it light or flame, because I dare not yet speak dogmatically of it; though it agrees with flame in divers particulars, and though also I am not sure, that all flames must agree in all points with common flames, experience having taught me the contrary; and particularly, that some flames will burn, and be propagated in close-stopt vessels. I shall therefore on this account, and for brevity's sake, allow the aggregate of our shining fumes the name of flame, (which *Aristotle* himself somewhere styles *fumus accensus*) but without positively asserting, that it deserves it, unless further phænomena shall be found to intitle it thereunto. But whatever be the nature and subject of this light, the light itself appeared to have, in great part, a dependance on the fresh air, as I judged probable by the following phænomena.

OBSERVATION VI.

First, I never observed the light to disclose itself first, either in the liquor, or upon the surface of it; but still the shining began at the upper part, which was first touched by the outward air, and made a progress, quick indeed, but not so instantaneous, as that the eye could not follow it, from the top to the bottom of the vial.

OBSERVATION VII.

Secondly, the contact of the air seemed necessary to the propagation as well as production of this flame or light: for if, having shaken the vial, that the liquor might either wet the stopple, or communicate something to it, I warily bended the cork this way and that way, so that only a few particles of the outward air could insinuate themselves between the stopple and the neck of the glass; there would appear on the sides, and perhaps beneath the cork, little flames, as it were; which yet, though very vivid, were not able to propagate themselves downwards: whereas, when the cork was quite removed, and access was thereby allowed to a greater quantity of air, the flame or light (as was lately noted) presently diffused itself through the whole cavity of the vial, and reached as low as the surface of the liquor.

OBSERVATION VIII.

Thirdly, Though oftentimes the light seemed more vivid near the surface of the liquor, than elsewhere; (whether because the lucid matter was there more dense, I now examine not) yet when by stopping the vial again, presently after I had opened it, I endeavoured to destroy the flame or light; I generally observed, that when it was ready to vanish, (which in that case it usually did in no long time) it began to disappear first in the bottom of the vial, and seemed to shrink, as it were, more and more upwards, till it expired at the neck of the vial, (where it was nearest to the air.)

OBSERVATION IX.

Fourthly, But on the other side, when I kept it unstopt for some time, as for two or three minutes of an hour, though I afterwards stopt the vial very close, the air, that had more leisure than ordinary to insinuate itself, would so cherish the flame, that the light

light would continue sometimes an hour or two, and lasted once or twice no less than three hours.

O B S E R V A T I O N X.

Fifthly and lastly, It seemed, that some elastical particles of the included air, or some substance, that concurred to the maintenance of the flame, was wasted, or depraved and weakned, by being pent up in the vial with the emanations of the liquor; since, when the vial had been kept stopt a competent time, and its cavity appeared transparent in the outward light, if I cautiously took out the stopple, the external air seemed manifestly to rush in, as if the springyness of the internal had been notably debilitated by the operation of the flame upon the matter, with which it was kept imprisoned.

SOME of these phænomena easily brought into my mind some of those of an odd experiment, that I formerly imparted to the curious. In which experiment I observed (among other things) that the spirit of urine, impregnated with copper, after the manner there prescribed, would continue limpid and colourless, as long as the vial, that contained it, was kept close stopt. But when once the air came to touch the surface of it, it would (sometimes in less than a minute of an hour) be so affected thereby, that in a very short time (for it was often within some minutes) the liquor would become of a transparent sky-colour; and afterwards, the vial being well stopt, and kept in a quiet place, would by degrees grow diaphanous, and the air included with it was wont to have its spring weakned. And as the change of colour was first produced at the surface, where the liquor and air touched one another, and was afterwards thence propagated downwards; so when this cœruleous colour began to disappear, the liquor manifestly became limpid first at and near the bottom, that is, the part, which is remotest from the superior air.

BUT to return to our noctiluca, the five phænomena last recited, and some others, seem to favour the conjecture or suspicion I lately proposed, *about the interest of the air in our unburning flame*. And to examine that suspicion, I thought it less proper to make the foregoing trials with a more vigorous noctiluca, than in a substance, wherein, as in that we have hitherto employed, the disposition to be kindled, or excited to shine, was but faint; so that being, as long as it remained, unexcited, opacous and dark, the absolute, or almost absolute, necessity of the concurrence of air to the actual shining (that constantly ensued upon its contact) of the disposed matter, seemed manifest enough.

A N O C C A S I O N A L D I G R E S S I O N .

BUT to what this concurrence or efficacy of the air ought to be ascribed, is a problem, that seemed to me so difficult, that my thoughts were put upon several conjectures for so much as a tolerable solution of it; for a taste of which, I shall venture to offer to you one or two of those, that least displease me.

I thought it not improbable, that the admitted air, either by some subtil salt that it contained, or upon some such account, excited in the fumes, it mingled with, a kind of fermentation, or (if you please) a commotion, by which means the matter acquired so brisk an agitation, as to propagate the motion to the eye, and there make an impression, the sense whereof we call light: though it seemed also not unlikely, that some of the particles of the supervening air may so associate themselves with those congruous ones, they met with in the cavity of the vial, that, by that coalition, corpuscles were produced, fitted to be, by the subtil æthereal matter, that abounds in the pores of the air, so pervaded and briskly agitated, as to produce light. And it was

not new to me, that the air should associate itself with invisible exhalations, and concur with them to make new concretions; since I have several times prepared a volatile sulphureous liquor, red as a ruby, which, when the vial has been kept close for some time, suffers the empty cavity of the vessel to be transparent; but upon the unstopping it, and giving access to the outward air, it appears presently full of white fumes, more opacous than a mist. And something like this, though in an inferior degree, may be observed, when we unstop glasses, that are but partly full of spirit of salt, or *aqua fortis*, provided those liquors be rectified as much, and no more, than is fit. For the contact of the air will presently make the former manifestly afford white fumes, and the latter sometimes red ones, and sometimes otherwise coloured. But if I durst mention, what my love to mankind has obliged me to conceal, even from my nearest friends, I could give an instance of a strange power of the air to excite a vehement motion in fitly disposed matter, though it be of a consistence far more unlikely to be thus agitated, than the fluid substances of our phosphorus: since I experimentally know a body, dry, and solid enough to be pulverable, that barely by the contact of the common air, will, even when it is actually cold, in very few minutes have its parts brought to such a degree of agitation, that its heat is little less intense than that of some actually ignited bodies, and may, if I please, by the further action of the air, be brought to afford some light also.

BUT against this conjecture *about the cause of the air's concurrence to the shining of our noctiluca*, there came into my mind, among other things, a strong objection, that may be drawn from the constant noctiluca formerly mentioned to have been shewn by Mr. Kraft, in which the lucidness was constant, though the vial, that contained it, was kept stoppt. In answer to this, I thought it might be said, that the particles of the lucid substance, being in great numbers crowded together into a little room, these concentrated particles may be supposed to have been brought to such a state, that they needed not the renewed assistance of the outward air, to continue shining; either because their intestine motions were brisk enough to discuss the minute parts of the matter, wherewith they were associated, and so from time to time to generate, or extricate, and supply themselves with as many small aerial particles, as were necessary to keep the mass they belonged to, luminous. Which conjecture may be illustrated by observing, that though our common culinary flames are presently extinguished, unless they be cherished with fresh air, yet I elsewhere recite an experiment of a composition, which is so fitted to generate as much air as it needs, that I have several times found, that it may be kindled, and made to flame away, even *in vacuo Boyleano*, (as they call that made by our air-pump.)

OTHER things may be alledged both for and against the proposed conjecture, about the account, on which the air concurs to the light of our liquid noctiluca; but, I hope, it will not be impertinent to add, that perhaps the concurrence of the air may be considerable to both the phosphoruses, the fluid and the consistent, but the external air be necessary only to the former: because in the latter, the luciferous particles may have acquired such a texture, as that of rotten wood, or rather of whittings, or the liquor of glow worms, taken out after they are dead. For in that state (whatever others have written) I have kept that juice luminous for very many hours, (not to say some days;) and it is conceivable enough, that in the consistent noctiluca, by reason of the great numerousness and extreme minuteness of the parts, and the unctuousness or viscosity, or, in a word, tenacity of them, the mass they make up is much less dissipable than that, wherein the shining virtue of rotten wood, or the juice of dead glow-worms resides. This conjecture may be confirmed, by observing, as a thing very analogous to our phænomena, that I have found some lights in putrid bodies to be so faint, that they

they would, like that of our fluid noctiluca, (but far more quickly) disappear, when they were totally deprived of air, as I several times found in parcels of rotten wood. And on the contrary, others had so vigorous or tenacious a light or flame, that, like the splendor of the constant noctiluca, it would continue (though perhaps not in its full lustre) when the outward air was, in our pneumattick engine, diligently drawn off from it. And on this occasion I call to mind another experiment, which seems yet more analogous, than any hitherto alledged, to our present production of flame or light. For having purposely kept certain fish in a glass, freed from air, till I concluded it had lain longer than was necessary to bring it to that degree of putrefaction, which was wont to make such fish, at that time of the year, to shine, I could not perceive in the cavity of the glass the least glimpse of light: and presently after I had let in the outward air, it did (according to my expectation) as it were, kindle a flame, in the proximately disposed matter, or at least produce in it a manifest light. And it may much conduce to shew, that the lately mentioned difference of shining bodies may be but gradual, if I here observe, that I found by trial, that in bodies of the self same kind, as for instance glow-worms, or the same species of rotten fishes; if the light were but faint, the withdrawing of the air would, after a while, make it quite disappear; and the re-admission of the air would presently make it re-appear, as it happens in our aerial noctiluca. But in those individuals, wherein the luciferous matter was more copious and vigorous, and probably more tenacious, the absence of the external air did somewhat lessen or impair, but not quite destroy the light; and so possibly it might happen in Mr. *Kraft's* consistent noctiluca: For though it shone without the renewed accession of external air, yet, that it would have been more brisk and active, if it had been assisted by such air, I was induced to think, because (if I much misremember not) when once, to gratify my curiosity, he took it out of the vial he usually kept it in, it did manifestly smoke and waste by the action of the air, and produced considerable effects of actual heat; for this being done in the day-time, in a room we could not darken, it could not indeed be expected, that we should discern any augmentation of light; but yet that there was one, may probably be argued from the newly mentioned things, that used to be its concomitants.

SUCH observations and reflections incline me to think, that, to speak in a general way, the light of our noctilucas depends upon a peculiar and very brisk agitation of some minute particles of the shining matter, in point of bulk, shape, and contexture, peculiarly fitted to impel the contiguous æther to the bottom of our eyes; and made me think it not improbable, that the contact of fresh external air might contribute to this peculiar kind of agitation in the gumous noctiluca, as an helpful thing, and in the aerial noctiluca, as an almost necessary concurrent. But whether the air concurs to this effect, as it does itself excite a brisk commotion in the fumid matter it invades, or whether the air, or some fine substance contained in it, operates on this occasion as a kind of vital spirit, such as is found necessary, not only to common flame, but to that which is supposed to keep animals alive; or whether the corpuscles of the admitted air so combine with those, that exhale from the grosser liquor, as to become fit to be vehemently agitated by some æthereal pervading substance; whether or no, I say, the agency of the air in our phænomena be to be referred to one or more of the newly mentioned things, or to some other cause of a peculiar and very brisk agitation, which, to speak in general, seems to have the main stroke in the production of light, is left to further inquiry.

BUT I forget, that my intention was to set down observations, not hypotheses. And indeed the historical part of what I had to say of phosphoruses, is far more useful and certain, than the conjectures I can yet make upon it. Because, though I am content

to let them pass, in regard they may afford you some hints of further speculations; yet the true solution of the problem, that has occasioned this excursion, may depend so much upon further experiments and observations, that though it is not impossible, that future phænomena may favour the proposed conjectures, yet, it is not very unlikely, that I shall hereafter see cause to change them for some hypotheses, exceedingly different from them. To return therefore now to our historical observations.

OBSERVATION XI.

ALTHOUGH, in the moderately shaken vial, when the light was quite vanished, I could not make the liquor begin to shine; yet when by unstopping it a little, the flame was kindled in the cavity of the glass, then, by shaking it again, though it were done more faintly than before, the light seemed to be manifestly increased by this agitation.

OBSERVATION XII.

IF I took a little of our liquor, when it was in its dark state, and laid it upon my hand, or on the stopple of the vial, it would oftentimes lie there without disclosing any glimpse of light; but if I rubbed it with my finger, or some other fit body, it would then not only shine, but shine more vividly, than at best it used to do in the vial, when the neck of it was stoppt; and this vivid light, whilst I continued to rub the matter it resided in, seemed from time to time to flame and flash, and did not only invade the nostrils with a strong and offensive smell, but visibly sent up store of smoke, as if it had been some common culinary flame; and when, upon my ceasing to rub the extravasated liquor, it ceased to shine for a pretty while, yet when I returned to rub it again, it would again appear luminous: but by little and little the lucid virtue decayed, till it was to no purpose to rub any more.

OBSERVATION XIII.

THE light of our liquor, when excited seemed for degree much like that, that I observed in some species of rotten wood, that were not of the most vivid sort; and when surrounded with bodies of black colour, the reflection of its light from them was little or none. But very white bodies, that were held contiguous to it, were manifestly illustrated by it, especially, if the eye, having been long kept in the dark (whereby the pupil uses to be much opened, and consequently capable of admitting more numerous beams) was made more susceptible of the fainter impressions of light. Insomuch, that, when having placed the vial by me when I went to bed, and was awake sometime before break of day, I enclosed both the glass and my head between the sheets, the light seemed to me to be very considerable, and to enlighten the compass of a foot or more in diameter, and probably would have diffused itself further, if it had not been bounded by the sheets, whose whiteness made the reflection of the light from them appear very prettily. And by the help of this light, I could easily perceive my fingers, and a ring I wore upon one of them, though I could not distinguish the colours of a reddish diamond, and a couple of emeralds, that were set in it.

OBSERVATION XIV.

IN reference to the light within, the included flame in our vial was opacous; for both at some other times, and even when I made the last recited observation, I could not at all perceive my finger, when the shining substance was interposed betwixt it and my eye. But in reference to external light, the flame or shining matter was diaphanous; for even in a very faint light, by which, I think, I could scarce have read an ordinary print, if I held our luminous vial between the window and my eye, I could very plainly see

see my finger on the further side of the glass, though, if my eye were placed between that and the light, the transparency would appear somewhat lessened, because the cavity seemed, as was formerly noted, filled with a kind of whitish mist. And the like transparency and whitish fumes, observable in the same luminous steams or flame, when the vial was looked, on, against, and from, the light, I found, if, instead of the daylight, I employed the light of the candle.

O B S E R V A T I O N XV.

HAVING the opportunity of a convenient place, and a fair day, I set the vial about noon in a window, opened towards the south, and left it there exposed to the sun-beams for a considerable time, to try, whether they would, upon the account of their agitation, or some imaginable affinity of nature, kindle or excite the luciferous liquor, or its effluvia. But I could not perceive, that the sun beams had such an operation, which I chiefly concluded from my not being able to perceive any whitish or mistlike fumes in the cavity of the glass; for I durst not rely upon my not perceiving any light in the darkest corner of the room, because I suspected, that might proceed from my eyes having been accustomed to the great light of the then fair day, which made it less susceptible of impressions from a faint light.

O B S E R V A T I O N XVI.

ACID and alcalisate spirits being reckoned by chymists amongst the most subtle and operative substances, obtainable from mixt bodies by distillation, I thought it very well worth while to try by taste, whether our shining liquor did notably abound with particles of either of those kinds. I did not find, that the liquor I put upon my tongue was in the least acid; nor that it was sensibly alcalisate, as divers modern chymists call such volatile salts and spirits, as are afforded by harts-horn, blood, and such like subjects of the animal kingdom: but it seemed to me to have an odd empyreumatical taste, almost like that of the spirit of crude tartar; its smell being also like that of some empyreumatical oil, compounded with a stink, somewhat like that of stale urine. I likewise, for further trial, let fall upon a piece of white paper some drops of blue syrup of violets, to which I put a little of our liquor, stirring them together with the tip of my finger; but the mixture was not thereby turned green, which it would have been by a quarter so much of spirits of harts-horn, of blood, or of some other spirit, abounding with salt of an urinous nature, or (as some love to speak) with a volatile alkali. Some other trials I made, though but with very small quantities of our liquor, (because I had but very little of it to spare;) and these trials did, no more than the former, evince the liquor to belong manifestly to the tribe of acids, or that of alcalies; though perhaps this may not be the case of all the portions of liquor, whether more dense, or more aqueous and dilute, that may be obtained by several degrees of fire, and some other varying circumstances, from the matter, that affords noctilucas.

O B S E R V A T I O N XVII.

SOMETIMES, when for curiosity's sake I shook the vial, so that the whole body, even to the bottom, of the liquor, was spread all over the inside of the glass, I could observe with pleasure, that in many places divers little grains or corpuscles, belonging to the opacous matter, that concurred to compose the liquor, stuck here and there to the inside of the vial; and that these, being of a consistent, not fluid nature, and therefore probably more dense than the thinner parts of the phosphorus, did shine very prettily and distinctly, and looked almost like extremely little stars, or rather radiant sparks of fire, whose light was brisk enough to be distinctly notable, notwithstanding that
of

of the flame, that was contiguous to them, and filled the cavity of the vial. And these shining corpuscles usually continued their peculiar vividness, as long as I thought fit to look on them. Which great vigour of theirs, together with their duration, gave me hopes, that the further prosecution of what had been brought thus far may afford us some, not altogether despicable, quantity of the consistent noctiluca, which, by reason of its density, tenacity, or other peculiar disposition of parts, may shine like the constant noctiluca of Mr. Kraft formerly mentioned.

OBSERVATION XVIII.

* See 4-
brev. 05-
ferv. xii.

BEING desirous to try, not so much what the air and agitation would do, towards the kindling or exciting (not the imprisoned exhalation, but) the liquor itself of our noctiluca, (that having been partly done already *) as what water would do to quench it; I thought fit to make the experiment, when time and many trials had much impaired its vigour. And accordingly having, in a dark place, unstopt the vial, and wetted the tip of my finger with the included liquor, I could not perceive, that then (as when it was freshly made) it gave any sensible light. Wherefore, having rubbed the moistened finger against my other hand somewhat briskly, for a few moments, both the rubbed part of my hand and my finger appeared adorned, each of them, with a flame; and though upon my dipping my finger in water (that stood by ready for the purpose) the flame was, as it were, extinguished, since the light presently vanished; yet, having taken out my wet finger again, and rubbed, without having previously dried it upon the other hand, as I had done before, the light, as I expected it would, did quickly re-appear.

BESIDES the foregoing phænomena of our luciferous matter, that occurred more regularly, there was one, that happened unexpected, and may perchance, (for till I have further observed, I dare not speak it confidently) prove referable to the paper elsewhere published, *about some latent qualities of the air*.

OBSERVATION XIX.

THE phænomenon was this: having one night opened the vial so often mentioned, to shew the production of light to a virtuoso, I quickly stopt it again, and put it in my pocket, till I went to sleep; and then laying it by me in the bed (as I often did) when the candles were carried out of the room, I perceived the light, whose lasting, I did not expect, should exceed one hour, to continue still vivid enough; and then shaking it a little, before I composed myself to sleep, I laid it by, till I waked in the morning, and then looking upon it again, it appeared to my eyes (that then for several hours had been unaccustomed to the light) to shine more vigorously, than it had done at first. And from the time I opened it over night, till the last time I had occasion to look upon it the next morning, it had continued shining for twelve hours; to which, whether the extraordinary warmth, that was observed that particular night had contributed any thing, I dare not determine, but shall rather add, that though this phænomenon happened very rarely, yet this was not the only time that I observed it: for once more it occurred to me, and that time the light continued about fifteen hours, that I took notice of, and how much longer it might have lasted, I was hindered from observing. But this circumstance seemed considerable, that the long duration of our unburning flame happened after the rest of the trials and observations had been made; when by them the vigour of the luciferous matter might reasonably be expected to have been very much impaired.

OBSER-

O B S E R V A T I O N XX.

WHEN I had set down the last mentioned phænomenon, I thought I had concluded the observations, peculiarly belonging to the aerial noctiluca, contained in our second vial, and hitherto treated of. But now I find myself, by philosophical sincerity, obliged to add another phænomenon, which did somewhat trouble, as well as surprize me, and it was this. After the foregoing observations had been made with our second vial, one night, that I came to open it, to shew one of my best friends the production of light, I found (little to my content) that none at all appeared, though I shook the contained liquor, and kept the vial a pretty while unstopt; so that, if he had not known me well, he might have entertained sinister thoughts of me, till having taken out some drops of the liquor, and rubbed it upon my hand, it afforded so vivid a light or flame, as satisfied him of the possibility of a true noctiluca. And since that time, I have not found the vial to afford any light, barely upon its being unstopt; so that either (in spite of my care) somebody's unskilful curiosity has, unknown to me, spoiled the liquor; or, (which is more likely) so little a quantity, as I had at first, by the many and various trials I made with it, is dispirited and become, as it were, effœte; which it was lucky it did not do, till the forecited observations had been made with it. But, as in one of those, it had been conjectured, that one of the chief accounts, on which the air itself may concur to the shining of our noctiluca, is, as it excited a certain kind of brisk motion in the parts of it, I thought fit to try, whether, though I had found the bare shaking of the vial to be ineffectual, yet an actual heat, whereby the parts must be more vehemently and variously agitated, might not enable the air to do, what otherwise it could not perform; I therefore held our vial near the fire, till it grew considerably warm, and then by shaking it a little, and unstopping it in a dark place, I perceived the exhalations, that possessed the cavity of the vial, to shine, as formerly; but their light was so momentary, that it scarce sooner appeared, than vanished; and though afterwards it sometimes appeared, it was not vivid, nor lasted a minute of an hour, nor perhaps half so long; though it seemed, that when fresh air was then allowed access to it, its duration was thereby somewhat lengthned. But how long our matter will retain a disposition to be excited, even by these means, to shine, experience alone can determine.

Additional O B S E R V A T I O N S about the A E R I A L N O C T I L U C A .

YOU may remember, Sir, that, to clear the way to the twenty foregoing observations, I formerly told you, that we received the luciferous matter, obtained by our distillation, in several small glasses, as we were able to save it. The parcel, that was received in the second vial, afforded us the phænomena hitherto recited; and now it will be fit to add to those such as more lately occurred, upon our considering the portions of luciferous matter, preserved in the other glasses, and some also of the like lucid substance, prepared another way. And though these observations be not so numerous, as the former, and be, a few of them, near of kin to some of the others; yet I shall not scruple here to subjoin them, both because most of them are new, and those, that are not, will serve to confirm and elucidate some of the foregoing observations. Besides that, it is not easy to know, what phænomena may, and what cannot, be useful, to

frame or verify an hypothesis of a subject new and singular, about which we have not as yet (that I know of) any good hypotheses settled.

A small portion of liquor, (not much exceeding a spoonful) that was the first, and was judged the best, I saved, being put into a long, and somewhat slender cylindrical vial, made of white or chrystalline glass, afforded us the ensuing phænomena.

OBSERVATION I.

Soon after the muddy liquor (for such it appeared to the eye) was poured into the vial, it was so vigorously luminous, (probably, in great part, from the contact and insinuation of so much air, as it met with in its transfusion,) that not only it shone vividly, but continued to shine ten hours, that I took notice of, before my occasions made me desist from observing it.

THIS experiment minds me of an objection, which I should have proposed and answered at the beginning of the foregoing paper, if I had then remembered to do it. For, whereas it may by some be thought improper for me to call our luciferous matter a self-shining substance, in regard that it is not lucid, without the concurrence or help of the air: I answer, that I do (and justly may) employ the word self-shining, to signify, that the light our matter affords, is not a light borrowed from any external lucid, as is done by the Bolonian stone, and the *phosphorus Balduini*, but proceeds, as it were, from an inward principle of light. And men scruple not, upon such an account, to reckon the flame of a candle, and a glowing coal, to be self-shining bodies, though neither of these will be kindled, or continue to shine, without the assistance of renewed air, no not for a few minutes: whereas, the newly recited phænomenon of our noctiluca shews, that our prepared matter being for a very short time, (perhaps but few minutes) impregnated by the air, it will continue to shine many hours in a well stopped glass, that hinders it from being relieved by any supply of fresh air.

OBSERVATION II.

WHEN I set down the fifth, and some other of the foregoing observations, I was not at leisure to discourse the reasons, that induced me to try for an aerial noctiluca; and now also to save time, I shall forbear launching into speculations upon that subject, and only tell you historically, that, presuming the matter, that would shine in our cylindrical glass, would not be so much the liquor itself, as an aggregate of such effluvioms of it, as, affected and excited by the air, would become lucid; I thought fit to take particular notice, how the air would work upon the exhalations of this more vigorous liquor. And accordingly, having heedfully opened the vial, though I very soon after stopped it again, I observed a great commotion to be made in the cavity of the glass, unpossessed by the liquor: for the now lucid exhalations seemed to have a nimble and almost circular motion along the sides of the glass, and to make, as it were, a little whirlwind, that impetuously carried it round; and this renewed rotation was not only manifest, but lasted much longer than one would have expected: so great a commotion did the air seem to have produced in the effluvioms of the liquor, and perhaps in the neighbouring parts of the liquor itself. Upon the ceasing of this unusual motion, the light did not cease, but persevered, though I had not occasion to observe how long it would have lasted.

OBSERVATION III.

I WILL not determine, whether the vertiginous motion, mentioned in the newly recited observation, was in part produced by what happened in the ensuing phænomenon, which was, that having heedfully taken out the stopple of our vial in a dark place, ^{after}

after it had for a long time ceased from shining, I observed the external air to rush into the cavity of the glass with noise, and so swiftly, as did, I confess, surprize me: as if the preceding flame, though not sensibly hot, had, after the manner of culinary flames, considerably weakned the spring of the included air, and so disabled it to resist the whole pressure of the external air, when, by the removal of the stopple, it was exposed thereunto. But I will not, as I was saying, determine, whether the irruption of the air may not have contributed to the circular motion of the lucid steams mentioned in the foregoing observation; because, though the affirmative seems a probable cause, yet I was kept from concluding it a necessary or only cause of the turbinous motion, by my having sometimes, when no such irruption of the air had in a long time preceded, observed rotations of lucid matter in the cavity of the vial: which motion therefore seemed to proceed from some other cause, though (to add that by the by) this cause, whatever it was, produced but such a rotation, as was less general, less nimble, and less lasting.

O B S E R V A T I O N IV.

I FORGOT to tell you in its due place, (which was before the precedent observations) that, whilst our liquor was yet fresh and vigorous, I dipt my finger in it, and moistened with it several places of my hands, and those of some ladies, that were desirous to be present at the spectacle. Which done, we observed, that the places that were touched, especially if they were a little rubbed, shone very vividly, as if actual flames, but not of a blue colour, like that of common sulphur, or of spirit of wine, were burning on them. And these flames were not at all uniform in their manner of burning, for they often seemed to tremble much, and sometimes, as it were, to blaze out with sudden flashes, that were not lasting, (which put me in mind of some of the *faculae solares*.) And though it might seem strange, that so small a quantity of matter, that stuck to this or that part of the hand, should afford so durable a flame; yet if that part itself were rubbed against the same person's other hand, or the skin or linnen of a by-stander, the part new touched would shine, as the other continued to do. And though these flames were remarkable for their vividness, yet they continued for a good while to afford the company a very pleasing spectacle; and (which was remarkable) notwithstanding the darkness of the room, it was manifest, that they emitted great store of whitish smoke, which, or some other effluvia from the same matter, imbued the neighbouring air with a rank and offensive smell. The colour of these seeming flames was not like the phosphorus of Balduinus, when it is very well prepared, and has been exposed to a vigorous light, red, almost like a well kindled charcoal; but yellow, like that of the middle part of the flame of a candle.

AND notwithstanding the blazes and smoke, that accompanied these flames, we could not perceive in them any sensible heat (that is, any confused agitation of parts, exceeding that of the parts of our organs of touch) nor did they at all singe the fine linnen of the ladies, whereon some of them seemed to burn; so that if we admit, with many learned moderns, a *flamma vitalis* in the heart, this unburning and innoxious flame may supply us with a far better specimen or illustration thereof, than the flame of spirit of wine, that is still commonly employed, for an example; though I have many years ago endeavoured to rectify the error, by proving experimentally, that the flame of spirit of wine is hot and devouring, inso much that I have melted glass and gold itself with it.

O B S E R V A T I O N V.

WHEN, with my finger dipt in the forementioned liquor, I drew short lines upon linnen, there was left a shining track upon that part, over which my finger had newly passed;

passed; so that it is not to be denied, that one may write lucid characters upon white paper; and yet, when, having found our liquor too thick, or too faintly lucid, to be employed, like ink in an ordinary pen, I thought fit to try whether I could draw lucid letters with a (middle-sized) pencil, instead of a pen, and had, for that purpose, dipt it in our liquor; I was somewhat surprized to find, that the characters I had newly drawn, did not at all shine in the dark: but suspecting, that the pencil might have retained, among the hairs it consisted of, the more tenacious and vigorous parts of the matter it had imbibed, and had left only the more aqueous and strengthless parts upon the paper, I took the pencil in one hand, and with the other compressed and wreathed a little brushy part of it, to excite the matter, that probably was lodged there. By which means, that part of the pencil was brought to look as if it were all of a light fire, and seemed to burn like a small wax taper; but with a more blazing and pleasant flame, which sometimes shooting downwards, and playing about the hairs, that composed that part of the pencil, brought into my mind those verses of *Virgil*.

*Ecce levis summo de vertice visus Juli
Fundere lumen apex, taetumque innoxia molli
Lambere flamma comas, &c. Æneid.*

BUT this delightful flame lasted not very long in its first vigour, but decayed by degrees, till no more light at all was seen; after which, nevertheless, the flame would of itself break out, as if it came from the internal parts of the pencil, and would shine a pretty while, and then seem quite to expire; after which, our light would on a sudden disclose itself again, and, when it had continued a while in a tremulous motion, die again in all appearance. And it is to be noted, that though this artificial *Ignis Lambens*, if I may so call it, did not, that I perceived, burn, or singe the slender hairs, among which it seemed to flame, yet, as often as it appeared, it did manifestly emit, perhaps as much, if not more smoke, than another burning taper of that bigness would have done. And this vicissitude of extinction and re-appearance of light, lasted, till I was weary of observing it; and then, having again with my fingers compressed, and somewhat strongly twisted the hairs of the pencil, I made them, as formerly, afford a considerable light, which I thought was, whilst I was in the very act of wreathing the hairs, accompanied with a very sensible, but momentary heat.

OBSERVATION VI.

BUT notwithstanding the newly recited heat, it was in vain that I tried, by compressing the pencil first, and then rubbing it upon gunpowder, well dried, and somewhat heated, to fire the powder. This I failed to do likewise, when I made the trial with circumstances somewhat more likely to make it succeed. Which I the less wondered at, because I remember Mr. *Kraft*, when he kindled gunpowder in my lodging, was fain to make use of his consistent and constant noctiluca; and besides, to have the gunpowder prepared, by being made so hot, that it was almost ready to take fire of itself. Which circumstance, I confess, I was glad of, as I also was of my own disappointments, and some also of his, because it gave me occasion to think, that this, otherwise innocent, fire would not easily be perverted to the prejudice of mankind, which, I have suppressed more dangerous inventions than this, to avoid contributing to.

BUT upon this occasion I must not pretermitt what happened to my laborant, when the distillation of our luciferous matter had been freshly made; namely, that, having taken up some of the thicker substance with a knife to put it into a vial, and having

found,

found, that some of it afterwards stuck to the blade, he, being in some haste to wipe off the adhering matter, did with his apron take strong hold of the blade on both sides, and then with his right hand drawing out the blade nimbly, so that it was strongly compressed in its passage between the thumb and fingers of his left hand, he was much surprized to feel a smart heat; and presently looking upon that part of the apron, where it had been produced, perceived, that it had in it two holes of some bigness, which he concluded must have been produced there by burning, both because of the intense heat he had felt before, and because it was a new apron; which when I had called for, and heedfully inspected, I did, with him, impute those holes to the action of the fire. Whence I judged it very probable, that the thicker and almost unguentous part (if so I may call it) of our luciferous matter had a great disposition or propensity to admit a very brisk agitation, since by an almost momentary, and not very vehement motion, it was put into an agitation, that made it capable of burning new callicoe (for of that the apron was made.)

O B S E R V A T I O N VII.

SINCE I usually set down the nocturnal observations about our noctiluca from time to time, as I make them, whilst they are fresh in my memory; and also have sent away to a friend many of the precedent, before I wrote (or made) the subsequent; you will not, I hope, think it strange, either, that, not having most of my materials at once together before me, I have not methodized them; or, that having been able to make but gradual discoveries of the subject I inquire into, the things, I write of it, should now and then chance to be coincident, and my expressions about it should sometimes not be altogether uniform, but the latter parts should agree more or less with the former, as new or varying phænomena happened to require.

UPON this account, I shall not scruple to subjoin, what has since occurred to me about the phænomenon, formerly mentioned in the sixteenth observation; where I told you, that I could not then clearly find, either an acid or an alcalifate salt to be predominant in the luciferous matter, I then made use of. But, having since employed some of the water, that was taken out of a receiver, after it had there been somewhat impregnated with that matter, I thought fit to try, whether this water, wherein probably the saline particles of our subject might be more copiously dissolved, or more active, would not discover itself to contain somewhat of volatile alcali. And to satisfy myself of this, I dropt a little of the liquor upon some syrup of violets, that I had put upon a piece of clean paper, and found I was not mistaken, in thinking it would change the colour of the syrup from blue to green; which yet it did more faintly, than the volatile alcalies, (as they call them) even when they are phlegmatic, are wont to do. This liquor likewise, as I remember, made some conflict with spirit of salt, when I first put them together, as I inferred from the commotion of the mixture, and the bubbles thereby produced. Nor were these the only ways, by which I was induced to think, that a volatile alcali, not an acid salt or spirit, was the predominant, if not the only salt, contained in the faintly impregnated liquor.

O B S E R V A T I O N VIII.

BEFORE I had set down many of the observations contained in the first paper, I was desirous to try, what would happen to our luciferous matter in such a vacuum, or, if you please, in such highly rarified air, as is wont to be produced by our air-pump. But, in regard a glass was to be opened in the exhausted receiver, which is difficult work to do, I was fain, for want of conveniences, to desist from my endeavours, and prosecute some other experiments, (most of them already recited) till at length being furnished,

thought

though not with accurate, yet with tolerable means of making a trial, and thinking an imperfect one, better than none at all, I took a vial, that had some luciferous matter in it, though but such, as was not apt to shine long at a time; and this vial being well stopt, I kept till the flame or light within it expired; then, having placed the vial in a receiver on our pneumatic engine, we pumped out the air, and then (not without some difficulty) pulled out the cork in a dark place, whereupon there presently appeared some light in the cavity of the vial, which I the less wondered at, because we found by certain signs, that by reason of some disadvantageous circumstances, we could not so well pump out the air, and hinder the ingress of new, as not to leave, (though but very little, yet) enough to excite a flame, that by former experience we found to need but an inconsiderable quantity of fresh air: but we observed, that by the commotion of the air, occasioned by the pumping, the flame would be, as it were, ventilated, and blown up, or made to shine more vividly.

OBSERVATION IX.

BUT, not being satisfied by the foregoing experiment, I thought fit to vary it, after the following manner. There was taken a pretty large piece of paper, which, being well moistned, and partly besmeared with our luciferous matter, was thrust into a somewhat wide-mouthed glass, which, being put unstopt into a receiver fastened to our pneumatic pump, and with it kept in a dark place, did there shine, as I expected it would, by reason of the contact of the air yet contained in the receiver. Presently after this, the pump was set at work, and we observed, as formerly, that the commotion made of the air about the vial did manifestly enough increase the light for a while; and that the light seemed to be lessened, during the pauses intercepted between these commotions, both by reason of the rest, as of the absence of the air. And I likewise took notice, that the flame, that seemed to pass from one part of the wrinkled paper to the other, did sometimes appear to have, as it were, a palpitation, and to afford a very unequal light; and though, when the external air was let in through the pump into the exhausted receiver, the flame seemed to be quenched, yet I judge that to be only a temporary effect of the waterish vapours, that the air had taken along with it in its way through the pump; and therefore I caused the receiver to be taken off the engine, and then, the spectators were quickly of my opinion, observing, that upon the free contact of the fresh outward air, which was not like that last mentioned, depraved by moist vapours, the matter adhering to the paper was quickly seen to shine again, and that more vividly, than it had done in the receiver. But because I suspected, that this vessel could not at that time, for want of some conveniences, be so well exhausted, as on other occasions it has often been, though, by the phænomena hitherto recited, it seemed to the spectators, that the flame was manifestly befriended, and the light increased by the air, yet, I think, the experiment deserves to be repeated, when I shall be able to do it with more exactness.

OBSERVATION X.

BESIDES the liquors, that afforded us the foregoing experiments, we saved a little, (though but very little) of a substance, that was not liquid, but yet almost as soft as mud. This we obtained, by pouring some of our liquor, taken out of the vessels, when the distillation was ended, into a glass funnel, lined with cap paper, to try whether it would filter. But finding, that that, which passed thorough, was too thin and aqueous, the filter was hastily, and (for that reason) not very orderly wrapt up, and put into a glass, not capacious, but yet of a moderate wideness at the mouth; that, both

both the filter might be easily thrust in, and the glass might be exactly enough stoppt with a strong cork.

AFTER other experiments (formerly recited) had been made, I took this glass, and carried it into a dark place; and though I could not perceive the least glimpse of light, yet presuming, that it contained some of the true matter of the aerial phosporus, or noctiluca, and consequently exhalations, that, having been hindered by the stopple to flie away, might be kindled or excited by the appulse of the air; I opened the glass, and saw (as I expected) an immediate apparition of light. Which light did disclose itself, sometimes upon a lesser, and sometimes upon a much greater part of the very uneven surface of the included paper, and seemed to pais for a great while (as long as I thought fit to stay to observe it) from one part of the filter, and one side of the glass, to another: I say, seemed, because perhaps the phænomenon was produced by a train of eruptions of flames newly excited in several places, rather than a bare propagation of the same. But whatever it was, the motion (which was pleasant enough to behold) was so odd and irregular, that it did not ill resemble the motion of fire kindled by sparks, struck into a good quantity of tinder. And this virtue of shining, upon the ingress of the air, lasted many days in the above-mentioned paper.

O B S E R V A T I O N XI.

BUT there was another filter, that afforded us a pleasing variation of this phænomenon; the matter wrapt up in the inside of this paper, being somewhat more copious, or better conditioned, than that, which adhered to the other lately spoken of. We took then this paper, and having unfolded it, and kept it displayed in a dark place, we had the pleasure to see a considerable number of flames, of differing sizes and figures, disclose themselves at the same time; and though most of them were vivid, yet few of them continued long in the self same place, but they seemed frequently to change their situations among themselves, as well as their figures, and extent; or else new flames did incessantly break forth in new places, according as the exhalations, that did copiously and irregularly mingle with the contiguous air, did in several places happen to be in part, as it were, kindled by it; I say, in part, because, from the flames themselves, as well as the unshining parts of the filter, there did manifestly ascend good store of smoke, visibly by the light afforded by the shining matter: and these flames did not keep a constant renour in their way of blazing, but had their tremblings and emanations, and these being usually accompanied with changes of figure, and eruptions of light in several places at the same time, it was a very pleasant sight to see the whole area or surface of the displayed filter look as the sky sometimes does, especially in hot countries, when the eye may perceive flashes of lightning break forth in several places at once: but our coruscations, being as well more numerous, as innocent, made the filter appear almost as variegated as marble paper; but with this advantage, that, besides that the appearance was almost perpetually changing, the yellow parts were not only coloured, but lucid, and afforded those, that looked on them with me, a delightful spectacle, that lasted as long as we thought fit to gaze at it.

O B S E R V A T I O N XII.

HAVING strongly suspected, that the agitation, duly modified, of a disposed matter, was at least one of the chief agents in the production of light; I was not discouraged, by finding that shaking of the vial, or making the contained liquor more than lukewarm, would not produce any apparition of light: I was not, I say, thereby discouraged from trying, whether a more intense heat, which would communicate a brisk
and.

and various motion to a multitude of the corpuscles of the luciferous matter, dispersed through the liquor, would not do, what a fainter agitation was not able to perform.

I THOUGHT also, it deserved to be tried, whether a considerable variation of phænomena would not be consequent to our changing the figure and capacity of the glass; especially, if all immediate commerce between the cavity of the vessel, and the outward air, were carefully prevented.

In order to both these trials, I took some spoonfuls of aqueous liquor, impregnated with some of the more soluble portion of the luciferous matter; which liquor, when it was settled, was transparent, as having but an inconsiderable quantity (which could not easily be separated from it) of that muddy substance, formerly more than once mentioned. And this clear liquor, which, (perhaps because of the absence of that thicker substance) was, as it ought to be for my purpose, so faintly impregnated, that it would not, with shaking, or a mild heat, afford any light, was put into a round bolt glass, whose globous part was capable of holding three or four times as much, and whose stem (or pipe) was proportionable in wideness to it, and above a foot in length. Having carefully stoppt this vessel with a cork and sealing-wax, it was in the night-time set in such a posture, that, by the intervention of sand, it might be heated without breaking, (as otherwise it would have been in danger of doing,) and when the ball was made so hot, that I could not well endure it in my naked hand, I speedily removed the vessel into a dark place, and having shaken the liquor, I perceived a light to break forth in the ball, which presently diffused itself thorough the whole cavity of it, but as quickly disappeared. And some time after, especially upon shaking the glass, the light would break forth again, and soon after vanish; and these fulgurations or flashings of light continued for a while to appear now and then; but were unequal, both as to their extent, vividness, and duration; and when the liquor grew cold, they ceased quite.

OBSERVATION XIII.

BUT whilst it was yet considerably hot, I thought fit to try, whether by breaking the liquor by a strong concussion, some lucid substance would not be made to pass out of the globous into the cylindrical part, and so vary the phænomena. And to this purpose, having violently shaken the liquor at several times, with pauses interposed, I perceived some considerable portions of the lucid matter to ascend into the pipe; and particularly once I had the pleasure to see a portion of shining substance, about the bigness of a filbert, or small almond, mount directly upwards like a flame, but not very swiftly, from the globous part of the glass, all along the pipe, till it reached the upper part of it. And at other times, such flames ascended into the pipe, but not so high; whence many would have confidently inferred a positive levity in flame; which yet I forbear to conclude, because I once (at least) observed, one of these portions of shining matter to descend from the higher to the lower part of the stem, still retaining its lucidness all the way.

I CANNOT now stay to debate, whether the phænomena, appearing in this glass, may illustrate, or facilitate the explication of what happens in the production and motions of some of those meteors, that are called fiery; such as the *Ignis Lambens*, falling stars, frequent lightnings without thunder, in hot summer-nights, and that wandering flame, called *Ignis Fatuus*: And whether or no, it may be said, that when such bodies are generated, there happens to be a convention of particles so associated, that they mutually agitate each other, or are fitted to be agitated by a pervading æthereal substance, and put into a motion, like that, which in the lately mentioned portions of our shining matter, was able to produce light?

OBSER-

O B S E R V A T I O N XIV.

BUT, instead of pursuing this enquiry, I shall relate to you a phænomenon, that to me, as well as those I shewed it to, was not a little delightful. For having, by a concussion, fit for that purpose, as it were spread the liquor at once all over the inside of the globe, and of part of the stem, it was pleasant to behold, how the luciferous matter, dividing itself variously in its passage downwards, adorned the whole cavity of the glass with a company of small lucid bodies, that both shined and twinkled, like so many little stars, adorning the celestial globe; and the pleasantness of the spectacle was increased, by their having manifest motions, as well as true light. The slowness of their descent, in lines, many of them very oblique, made this pleasant sight last the longer; and having more than once reiterated the experiment, (though not still with equal success,) it afforded me some varied phænomena; which I shall now forbear to mention, both because I want time to write, and am weary of writing, as I fear you may be of reading. And therefore I shall here conclude your trouble and my own, as soon as I shall have added the two following particulars.

O B S E R V A T I O N XV.

THE first whereof is this, that having in such a bolt-glass, as has been lately described, given purposely and heedfully a certain kind of strong shake to the included liquor, when it was at a due degree of heat, (which was not intense) I observed, that on one side of the globous part of the glass, and above the body of the liquor, there was generated, as it were, a great spark of lucid matter, about the bigness of a pin's head; and yet hence, (as I expected) there quickly was a flame or light diffused through the capacity of the globe, where it soon after vanished. From which phænomena, and some others of affinity to it, whether it may be argued, that this was a true flame, which from a very small beginning, was increased by propagation, and kindled the disposed exhalations, that it found dispersed throughout the cavity of the glass; or, that the motion of all light is not necessarily instantaneous, since the progress of it, even in so small a space as our glass comprized, was discernable, I have not now the leisure to debate, but must hasten to the last of the two promised particulars, which is,

O B S E R V A T I O N XVI.

THAT, (not here to mention, how I have preserved a distilled luciferous matter, both with and without additaments in a consistent form) to try how long I could preserve our liquor, in a capacity to exhibit such pleasing phænomena, without giving it new air from time to time, but only by keeping in the spirituous parts; I caused the stem to be hermetically sealed; presuming, that, notwithstanding this, I could, by a certain cautious way of holding the vessel, safely bring the included liquor to an heat, sufficiently intense, to afford us the phænomena of light. In which supposition I was not mistaken, since the last recited phænomenon, besides some others, was made in this hermetically sealed vessel, in which the contained liquor does, as I this night tried, continue fit for that purpose.

Of the Way of preparing the AERIAL NOCTILUCA.

THE several phænomena of our aerial phosphorus or noctiluca, wherewith you have hitherto been entertained, have, I doubt not, raised in you a pressing curiosity to know, of what matter this self-shining substance was made, and how that matter was prepared, to be capable of affording it.

THOUGH two or three years are now past, since I caused to be made, more than once, in my furnaces, a phosphorus, not unlike that of the learned *Balduinus*, (I speak thus cautiously, because I am not sure, what particular matter he employs, and I have brought more than one sort of mineral bodies, to shine;) yet I forbore to divulge what I knew, because (as I declared to some curious men, that pressed me to do it,) I was willing to leave him the liberty of publishing his invention. But finding he has not yet thought fit to impart it to the world, there appeared the less cause to expect, that the secret of the noctiluca, which is a much more valuable thing, would be suddenly made public: and therefore, without long waiting any man's leisure, I resolved to impart to the curious, (and particularly, sir, to yourself,) the knowledge of the matter I wrought upon, and some directions how to manage it. And in pursuit of that resolution, I am willing to gratify the virtuosi with that very process (for substance) which I set down for my own remembrance, after I had the first time actually made the aerial noctiluca; and which I afterwards deposited, sealed up, in the hands of the very ingenious secretary of the Royal Society, in the presence of divers members of that illustrious company. And though, since that time, some other trials have enabled me to observe some circumstances, pertinent to that purpose; yet I thought fit to leave it as it was, that others finding themselves, in some sort, obliged to employ their own industry, their trials may, as mine have done, produce an instructive diversification of effects, in an attempt, where experience invites me to think, that various degrees of fire and other circumstances, (and perhaps casualties too) may diversify the phænomena, and thereby both enrich the yet wanted and designed history of light, and assist the speculative, to accommodate a good hypothesis to them. Reserving then for another time my latter remarks upon the observations and process, delivered in this paper, I shall now only give you a few short advertisements about it.

FIRST, I will not positively affirm, that the matter, I employed, is the very same, that was made use of, by the ingenious German chymists in their noctiluca; for some inquisitive men have very lately told me, that the Germans mingle two or more distillable materials; whereas I employed but one matter, capable of distillation.

SECONDLY, though all the twenty foregoing observations, and most of the ten additional ones annexed to them, were made with that substance, which I guess to be at least the chief, that is employed by the Germans, (which was done for a particular reason, not needful to be here expressed,) yet I first thought, and upon my very first trial, found, that it is possible to make a noctiluca of a dry and pulverable substance, that, for ought I can guess, was never employed by Mr. *Kraft*, or those he had his secret from. And besides this second sort of phosphoruses, we made a third, that was obtained from a body, that never had been either a part, or an excrement, of a human body, nor was mingled with any thing, that had been so. But though I found these self-shining substances somewhat differing from those made of the liquor, hereafter to be named; yet, I cannot stay at present to say any thing more of them, being content to have intimated, that self-shining phosphoruses have been actually obtained from more single subjects, than one.

THIRDLY, to name the matter, though never so explicitly, would not, in my opinion, have sufficed to inform those, that would work upon it. For chymists themselves would, in all probability, work, (as hitherto, on other occasions, they have wrought) upon the volatile and saline, which they presume to be the only spirituous and noble parts of the concrete, throwing away the rest as useless and abominable. And on this occasion, let me add, that I was rather induced to set down this process, that we may both observe and thankfully acknowledge the wisdom and bounty of the great author of nature, who, for our encouragement to study even his meanest works, has been pleased, in a body, that is commonly thought one of the despicablest of the universe, to lodge so glorious and excellent a thing, as a self-shining substance.

FOURTHLY, and I scarce doubt, but this, though it will be admired now, will be much more prized hereafter, when it shall be brought to greater perfection; and when men shall have discovered more of its uses, which probably will be great in physic, and, perhaps I might add, to some purposes, that few chymists themselves do yet dream of.

FIFTHLY, one thing remains, that, to save ingenious men some labour and charge, I think fit to give early notice of; namely, that having, for trial sake, employed the liquor, hereafter to be named, without previous fermentation or putrefaction; though it was proceeded with after the same manner with that, whereby we obtained our noctiluca; and though it afforded a substance, for colour and consistence, not unlike our luciferous matter; yet I could not find, that that substance would at all shine. And indeed, there are so many circumstances, whose mistake may make the experiment miscarry, (as I have found to my trouble, even since the phosphorus, whose phenomena are first set down, was made,) that, though I were not now in haste, I should be content to take time to learn better from experience, how to instruct others, before I venture to do it circumstantially; and he, that shall, at the first attempt, succeed in preparing this liquor, shall be thought by me, either a very skilful, or a lucky operator.

SIXTHLY and lastly, that it may appear, as well by the very different preparations, as by the differing phenomena of the phosphorus hermeticus, and of the aerial noctiluca, that there is a great disparity between those lucid bodies, I shall here briefly add the way we employed to make either the phosphorus Balduini, or some other like it, (for I am not certain, what is the very way of that learned man) as it was practised in my furnaces; which, in short, is this.

A dissolution being made of fine white chalk in good spirit of nitre, or clean aqua fortis, it is to be filtrated thorough cap-paper, and the clear solution is to be evaporated, till there remain a dry substance: with this white calx, you are to overlay the inside of some vessel, made of good earth, that will endure the fire, and that of a round figure, which is more convenient, than that of ordinary crucibles; and to the matter contained in this vessel, you are to give for about half an hour or an hour, (according to the largeness of it, and other circumstances) a due degree of fire, which it is not easy to hit, and which ordinarily requires a conveniently shaped vessel, whereby the flame or heat may be reverberated, till you perceive the matter to have acquired a disposition, to retain the light; and then the earthen vessel, which usually ought to be somewhat shallow, and not to exceed many inches in diameter, is to have a cover of fine glass or crystal carefully cemented on to it, to preserve it from its great enemy, the air.

WHAT we have observed, in prosecuting this preparation, is not so proper to be delivered at this time, when my haste, as well as some other things, make it more fit, that we should forthwith return to our aerial noctiluca, of which, after the foregoing things have been premised, it is time, that now there should follow the process.

The P R O C E S S.

THERE was taken a considerable quantity of human urine, (because the liquor yields but a small proportion of luciferous matter,) that had been, (a good part of it at least) for a competent while, digested or putrified, before it was used. This liquor was distilled with a moderate heat, till the spirituous parts were drawn off; after which, the superfluous moisture also was abstracted, (or evaporated away) till the remaining substance was brought to the consistence of a somewhat thick syrup, or a thin extract. This was well incorporated with about thrice its weight of fine white sand, and the mixture was put into a strong retort; to which was joined a large receiver, in good part filled with water. Then, the two vessels being carefully luted together, a naked fire was gradually administered for five or six hours, that all, that was either phlegmatic, or otherwise volatile, might come over first. When this was done, the fire was increased, and at length, for five or six hours made, (N. B. which it should be in this operation) as strong and intense, as the furnace (which was not bad) was capable of giving. By this means, there came over good store of white fumes, almost like those, that appear in the distillation of oil of vitriol; and when those fumes were past, and the receiver grew clear, they were after a while succeeded by another sort, that seemed in the receiver to give a faint bluish light, almost like that of little burning matches dipt in sulphur. And last of all, the fire being very vehement, there passed over another substance, that was judged more ponderous than the former, because (N. B.) much of it fell through the water to the bottom of the receiver: whence being taken out, (and partly even whilst it staid there) it appeared by several effects, and other phænomena, to be (as we expected) of a luciferous nature.

THE ways I employed to make a self shining substance, out of other matters than that expressed in this process, I must, for certain reasons, forbear to acquaint you with, at this time.

I might, from the foregoing process, take occasion to enquire, whether the matter, wherein the shining faculty chiefly resides, do not consist, not (as one would expect) of the volatile and spirituous parts of our animal liquor, but of its (not absolutely, but) more fixt salt, and ponderous foetid oil, associated in a peculiar manner and proportion. And from thence I might take a rise, to propose my conjectures of the cause of the lucidness of our luciferous matter; and also, both to add somewhat to what, (two or three years ago) I wrote about the despised sapa of urine, in reference to some uncommon menstruums; and to make enquiry into other things relating to the nature of light and flame, especially as found in our noctiluca: these things, I say, I might hence take occasion to propose my thoughts of; but want of time, together with hopes of further discoveries, make me willing to defer the doing it, till I shall have more leisure to frame conjectures, and perhaps more phænomena to ground them upon. In the mean while, that, I may no further lengthen a letter too prolix already, by apologies for myself, or compliments to you; I shall at present only beg the favour of your candid animadversions upon what I have written, and of those singular observations I hear you have made, about the light of stinking fishes; both which, you need not doubt, will be as welcome, as, I doubt not, they will prove instructive to,

S I R,

Your most affectionate,
and most humble servant,

R. B.

A N E W

A NEW LAMP, contrived by the Honourable *Robert Boyle*, Esq;

First printed in *Hooke's Philos. Collect.* N^o. ii. p. 33. An. 1680.

A B C D is a vessel of latton well fodered every where. B C, E F, are two bottoms fodered to that vessel. F G is a pipe fodered to the bottoms aforesaid, and whose aperture is in the great cavity F A. H is a hole in the pipe F G, opening between the two bottoms B C, E F. I is another hole, to which is fodered a pipe I G bended upwards at G. P P is a little vessel fit to receive the wick of the lamp. L M is a slender pipe open at both ends, and fodered to the cover A D in L, and to the bottom E F in M; so that by that pipe the external air may communicate between the two bottoms, without penetrating into the cavity A F. N is a short pipe fodered to a hole in the cover A D, so that thereby one may pour oil into the cavity A F; and stop it afterwards very close with cork.

FOR the filling up this engine, you must stop the aperture G of the pipe I G with a long pin fitted for that purpose, and the upper end of the pipe L M must be stopped too: then pour in your oil by the aperture N; which done, this same aperture N is to be shut up exactly, and both the others to be opened, viz. G and L. Then it will come to pass, that the oil through the pipe I G will run and fill the vessel P, until its superficies be in the same level with the hole H and no more, as might be easily demonstrated.

Now it is easy to see, that this lamp is free from all the inconveniences the lamp of *Cardan* is subject to; for,

1. THE air doth not get into it by starts, or gluts, as it doth in *Cardan's* lamp; but when the oil in P P being wasted by the flame, comes to have its superficies lower than the hole H; the oil from the cavity A F runs into P P gently, because its place, left in the cavity A F, is easily supplied by the external air, which thorough the pipe L M and the hole H gets up into the said cavity A F.

2. WHEN the air contained in the cavity A F comes to be rarified by some heat, it drives out much oil, and so is able to choak *Cardan's* lamp; but in this, the oil being so driven out, gets into the space between the two bottoms, as well as into the vessel P P: now the said space between the two bottoms, by reason of its largeness, receiving twenty or thirty times more oil than the vessel P P, it follows, that the superficies of the oil therein riseth twenty or thirty times less, than if all the oil had been driven into the said vessel. Therefore, when we fill the lamp, we must take care, that the pipe L may be well shut, so that the air between the two bottoms, finding no issue, may keep the oil from filling that space, which by that means, when the hole L is open, will be fit to receive the oil driven by the rarefaction of the air in the cavity A F.

3. THE oil being always kept almost at the same distance from the flame, the wick will not be quickly consumed.

4. YOU have the conveniency to put new oil into the lamp, without moving or extinguishing the flame; for you need but shut up G and L, and pour the oil through N, as hath been said in the beginning.

ALTHOUGH this lamp cannot serve for all the uses, that may be expected from the many contrivances published in the year 1677, by Mr. *Hooke*, yet it may be looked upon as useful too, because it is easy to be made good and cheap without incumbrance, and so may do very well for ordinary use.

A DISCOURSE of THINGS above REASON. Inquiring whether a PHILOSOPHER should admit there are any such. To which are annexed by the Publisher (for Affinity of the Subjects) some Advices about judging of THINGS, said to transcend REASON.

An ADVERTISEMENT.

THE latter of the two following dialogues is but a part of a discourse, consisting of some conferences, whereof that was neither the first nor the last. This it was thought fit the reader should have notice of, that he may the more easily guess upon what account it is, that some clauses in the first page, (and perhaps a few other passages elsewhere,) contain somewhat, that appears not altogether the same it would have done, if there had been no need to make any alteration at all in that page. But because, though there was a connection between that dialogue and the rest of the papers, from which it is dismembered, yet its dependency upon the others is not so very great, but that the publisher thought the divulging of it might be useful and seasonable; and therefore finding, that want of leisure, and much diffidence, made the author unwilling to revise, and part with the other papers, that accompanied this, which now comes forth; he prevailed with him to suffer that dialogue to take its fortune, which the publisher hopes may be such, as may encourage the author to communicate what he has further meditated upon such subjects.

A DISCOURSE of THINGS above REASON.

The speakers are, *Sophronius*, *Eugenius*, *Pyrocles*, and *Timotheus*.

Eugen. THE seriousness you yet retain in your looks, and the posture we found you in at our entrance, makes me fear these two gentlemen and I are unseasonable intruders, that are so unhappy as to disturb your meditations.

Sophron. INSTEAD of doing that, you will much promote them, if you please to accompany me in them: for the subject, that busied my thoughts, is both so abstruse and so important, that it needs more than one to consider it, and deserves, that he should be a far better considerer than I, who therefore must think myself far less fit for that task than you.

Eugen. I will punish the flattery of these last words, by declining to make any return to it.

Pyroc. AND I, gentlemen, to prevent the loss of time and words between you, shall, without farther ceremony, ask *Sophronius*, what his thoughts were employed about when we came in.

Sophron. I was then musing upon a subject, that was newly proposed to me by our common friend *Arnobius*, who would needs have my opinion, whether, and if at all, how far, we may employ our reasonings about things that are above our reason, as Christians grant some mysteries of their religion to be.

Eugen. IF, by things above reason, be meant only those, that are undiscoverable by reason without revelation; I should not hesitate to say, that there may be divers things of that kind: for the free decrees of God, and his determinations concerning the government of the world, and the future state of mankind (to name now no others) are things,

things, which no human reason can pry into, but must owe the fundamental discovery it makes of them to the revelation of him, whose purposes they are.

BUT if, by things above reason, be meant such, as though delivered in words free from such darkness and ambiguity, are not to be conceived, and comprehended by our rational faculty, I shall freely confess, that I scarce know what to say upon so unusual and sublime a subject.

Pyroc. FOR my part, gentlemen, I think it were very requisite to be sure in the first place, that the subject of our discourses is not chimerical, but that we can really know, that there are things we cannot comprehend, though they be proposed to us in expressions no less clear than such, as would suffice to make other things intelligible to us.

Sopbron. YOUR cautiousness, *Pyrocles*, must not be rejected by me, who when, before you came in, I was putting my thoughts into some order, judged it unfit to consider, either how one might know what things were to be looked on as above reason; how far we may discourse on them; or whether or no any supernaturally revealed propositions, such as divines call articles of faith, ought to be reckoned among them, till I should have first seriously enquired, whether in general we ought to admit any such objects of our contemplation, as these, and the like questions suppose.

Eugen. I hope then, that this being the first you proposed to enquire into, we may, without too much boldness, desire to know what came into your mind about it.

Sopbron. IF I had brought my considerations to an issue upon that subject, I should, with less reluctancy, acquaint you with them; but since I have yet made but an imperfect progress in my enquiry, instead of delivering any positive opinion upon so abstruse a subject, I shall only tell you, that, as far as I could yet discern, it seemed to me, that among the objects our reason may contemplate, there are some, whose nature we cannot comprehend; others, whose attributes or actions are such, as that we cannot understand how they should belong to the subject, or else that we cannot conceive how they should consist with some acknowledged truth.

Eugen. So that, if I apprehend you right, you do not only admit some things to be above reason, but make no less than three sorts of them.

Sopbron. IF you will needs have two of them to be coincident, I shall not much contend; but, I think, the number you have named may, without any great inconvenience, be admitted: for by things above reason, I here understand (not false or absurd ones, but) such, as though the intellect sees sufficient cause (whether on the score of experience, authentic testimony, or mathematical demonstration) to assent to; yet it finds itself reduced, when it is conversant about them, to be so with a notable and peculiar disadvantage: and this disadvantage does usually proceed, either from the nature of the thing proposed, which is such, that we cannot sufficiently comprehend it; or from our not being able to conceive the manner of its existing and operating; or from this, that it involves some notion or proposition, that we see not how to reconcile with some other thing, that we are persuaded to be a truth. The first of these three sorts of things may, for brevity and distinction sake, be called incomprehensible, the second inexplicable, and the third unfociable. But for fear lest the shortness I have used in my expressions may have kept them from being so clear, I shall somewhat more explicitly reckon up the three sorts of things, that seem to me above reason.

THE first consists of those, whose nature is not distinctly and adequately comprehensible by us: to which sort perhaps we may refer all those intellectual beings (if it be granted that there are such) as are by nature of a higher order than human souls. To which sort some of the angels (at least of the good ones) may probably belong; but more than probably we may refer to this head the divine author of nature and of our souls, Almighty God, whose perfections are so boundless, and his nature so very singular,

lar, that it is no less weakness than presumption to imagine, that such finite beings as our souls can frame full and adequate ideas of them. We may indeed know by the consideration of his works, and particularly those parts of them that we ourselves are, both that he is, and in a great measure what he is not; but to understand thoroughly what he is, is a task too great for any but his own infinite intellect: and therefore, I think, we may truly call this immense object, in the newly declared sense, *supra-intellectual*.

Eugen. I suppose I may now ask, what is the second sort of things above reason?

Sopbron. It consists of such, as though we cannot deny that they are, yet we cannot clearly and satisfactorily conceive, how they can be such as we acknowledge they are. As how matter can be infinitely, (or which is all one, in our present discourse, indefinitely) divisible; and how there should be such an incommensurableness betwixt the side and diagonal of a square, that no measure, how small soever, can adequately measure both the one and the other.

THAT matter is endlessly divisible, is not only the assertion of *Aristotle* and the schools, but generally embraced by those rigid reasoners, geometricians themselves; and may be farther confirmed by the other instance of the side and diagonal of a square, whose incommensurableness is believed upon no less firm a proof, than a demonstration of *Euclid*, and was so known a truth among the ancients, that *Plato* is said to have pronounced him rather a beast than a man, that was a stranger to it. And yet if continued quantity be not divisible without stop, how can we conceive but that there may be found some determinate part of the side of a square, which being often enough repeated, would exactly measure the diagonal too. But though mathematical demonstrations assure us, that these things are so, yet those, that have strained their brains, have not been able clearly to conceive how it should be possible, that a line (for instance) of not a quarter of an inch long should be still divisible into lesser and lesser portions; without ever coming to an end of those sub-divisions; or how among the innumerable differing partitions into aliquot parts, that may be made of the side of a square, not one of those parts can be found exactly to measure so short a line as the diagonal may be.

Eugen. THERE is yet behind, *Sopbronius*, the third sort of those things, which, according to you, surpass our reason.

Sophr. I SHALL name that too, *Eugenius*, as soon as I have premised, that some of the reasons, that moved me to refer some instances to this head, do not so peculiarly belong to those instances, but that they may be applicable to others; which it was thought convenient to refer to the second or first of the foregoing heads: and this being once intimated, I shall proceed to tell you, that the third sort of things, that seem to surpass our reason, consists of those, to which the rules and axioms and notions, whereby we judge of the truth and falsehood of ordinary, or other things, seem not to agree.

THIS third sort being such as are incumbered with difficulties or objections, that cannot directly and satisfactorily be removed by them, that acquiesce in the received rules of subordinate sciences, and do reason but at the common rate, such objects of contemplation as this third sort consists of, having something belonging to them, that seems not reconcilable with some very manifest, or at least acknowledged truths.

THIS it may here suffice to make out by a couple of instances, the one of a moral, the other of a mathematical nature. And first, that man has a free will, in reference at least to civil matters, is the general confession of mankind: all the laws, that forbid and punish murder, adultery, theft, and other crimes, being founded on a supposition, that men have a power to forbear committing them; and the sense men have of their being possesst of this power over their own actions is great enough to make malefactors
acknowledge

acknowledge their punishments to be just, being no less condemned by their own consciences, than by their judges.

AND yet (some Socinians, and some few others excepted) the generality of mankind, whether Christians, Jews, Mahometans, or Heathens, ascribe to God an infallible prescience of human actions, which is supposed by the belief of prophecies, and the recourse to oracles, by one or other of which two ways the embracers of the several religions newly mentioned have endeavoured and expected to receive the informations of future things, and such as depend upon the actings of men. But how a certain foreknowledge can be had of contingent things, and such as depend upon the free will of man, is that, which many great wits, that have solicitously tried, have found themselves unable clearly to comprehend; nor is it much to be admired, that they should be puzzled to conceive, how an infinitely perfect being should want prescience, or that their will should want that liberty, whereof they feel in themselves the almost perpetual exercise.

THE other instance I promised you, *Eugenius*, is afforded me by geometricians: for these (you know) teach the divisibility of quantity *in infinitum*, or without stop, to be mathematically demonstrable. Give me leave then to propose to you a strait line of three foot long divided into two parts, the one double to the other. I suppose then, that according to their doctrine a line of two foot is divisible into infinite parts, or it is not: if you say it is not, you contradict the demonstrations of the geometricians; if you say that it is, then you must confess, either that the line of one foot is divisible into as many parts as the line of two foot, though the one be but half the other, or else that the infinite parts, into which the line of one foot is granted to be divisible, is exceeded in number by the parts, into which the line of two foot is divisible, and consequently that the line of two foot has a multitude of parts greater than infinite. Which reasonings may let us see, that we may be reduced either to reject inferences legitimately drawn from manifest or granted truths, or to admit conclusions, that appear absurd; if we will have all the common rules, whereby we judge of other things, to be applicable to infinities.

AND now, gentlemen, having acquainted you with what sorts of things seem to be above reason, I must, to prevent mistakes, desire you to take along with you this advertisement; that though the nobleness and difficulty of so uncultivated a subject inclined me to offer something towards the elucidating of it, by sorting those things into three kinds; yet I shall not, and need not in this conference, insist on them severally, or lay any stress on this partition. For though I have above intimated, that a proposition may speak of somewhat that is supra-intellectual; or else contain somewhat, which we cannot conceive how it may be true; or lastly teach us somewhat for a truth, that we cannot reconcile with some other thing, that we are convinced is true; yet if but any one of these have true instances belonging to it, that may suffice for my main purpose in this place, where I need only shew in general, that there may be things, that surpass our reason, at least so far, that they are not to be judged of by the same measures and rules, by which men are wont to judge of ordinary things; for which reason I shall often give them one common name, calling them privileged things.

Eugen. METHINKS that to manifest the imperfections of our reason, in reference to what you call privileged things, you need not have recourse to the unfathomable abysses of the divine nature, since for aught I know *Pyrocles*, as well as I, may be non-plus'd by an instance, that came into my mind *de compositione continui*.

Timoth. SINCE *Sophronius* has not thought fit to give us any of the arguments of the contending parties, I shall be glad to know what difficulty occurred to you.

Eugen. SUPPOSE a great circle divided into its three hundred and sixty degrees; and suppose, that as great a number as you please, or can conceive, of strait lines, be drawn from the several designable parts of some one of these degrees to the centre; it is manifest, that the degrees being equal, as many lines may be drawn from any, and so from every one of the others, as from that degree, which was pitched upon.

THEN suppose a circular arch, equal to the assumed degree, to be further bent into the circumference of a little circle, having the same centre with a great one, it follows from the nature of a circle, and has been geometrically demonstrated, that the semi-diameters of a circle, how many soever they be, can no where touch one another but in the centre. Whence it is evident, that all the lines, that are drawn from the circumference to the centre of the greater circle, must pass by differing points of the circumference of the smaller, (for else they would touch one another before they arrive at the centre) and consequently, that as many lines soever, as can even mentally be drawn from the several points of the circumference of the great circle to the common centre of both circles, must all pass through different points of the little circle, and thereby divide it into as many parts (proportionably smaller) as the greater circle is divided into: so that here the circumference of the lesser circle presents us with a curve line, which was not possibly divisible into more parts than an arch of one degree, or the three hundred and sixtieth part of the circumference of the greater circle, and yet, without being lengthned, becomes divisible into as many parts as the whole circumference of the same greater circle. And though we should suppose the circumference of the internal circles not to exceed one inch, and that of the exterior circle to exceed the circumference of the terrestrial globe, or even of the firmament itself, yet still the demonstration would hold, and all the lines drawn from this vast circle would find distinct points in the lesser, to pass through to their common centre.

Timoth. THOUGH I will not pretend to confirm what *Sophronius* has been proving, by adding arguments *a priori*; yet I shall venture to say, that I think it very agreeable both to the nature of God and to that of man, that what he has endeavoured to prove true should be so; for we men mistake and flatter human nature too much, when we think our faculties of understanding so unlimited, both in point of capacity and of extent, and so free and unprepossest, as many philosophers seem to suppose. For, whatever our self-love may incline us to imagine, we are really but created and finite beings (and that probably of none of the highest orders of intellectual creatures;) and we come into the world but such, as it pleased the almighty and most free author of our nature to make us. And from this dependency and limitedness of our natures, it follows not only, that we may be (for I now dispute not whether we are) born with certain congenit notions and impressions and appetites or tendencies of mind; but also that the means or measures, which are furnished us to employ in the searching or judging of truth, are but such as are proportionable to God's designs in creating us, and therefore may probably be supposed not to be capable of reaching to all kinds, or if you please of truths, many of which may be unnecessary for us to know here, and some may be reserved, partly to make us sensible of the imperfections of our natures, and partly to make us aspire to that condition, wherein our faculties shall be much enlarged and heightned. It seems not therefore unreasonable to think, both that God has made our faculties so limited, that in our present mortal condition there should be some objects beyond the comprehension of our intellects; that is, that some of his creatures should not be able perfectly to understand some others, and yet that he has given us light enough to perceive, that we cannot attain to a clear and full knowledge of them.

Pyroc. I THINK, *Sophronius*, that I now understand what you mean by things above reason, or as you (not unfitly) stiled them, priviledged things: but I presume you need not be told, that to explain the sense of a proposition, and to make out the truth of it, (unless in common notions, or things evident by their own light) are always two things, and oftentimes two very distant ones.

Sophr. I NEED not scruple, *Pyrocles*, to grant the truth of what you say, but I must not so easily admit your application of it; for among the examples I have been proposing, there are some at least, that do not only declare what I mean by things above reason, but are instances, and consequently may be proofs, that such things there are. And to those I could have added others, if I had thought it unlikely, that in the progress of our conference, there may be occasions offered of mentioning them more opportunely.

Pyroc. I HAVE long thought, that the wit of man was able to lay a fine varnish upon any thing, that it would recommend; but I have not till now found reason set a-work to degrade itself, as if it were a noble exercise of its power to establish its own impotency. And indeed it is strange to me, how you would have our reason comprehend and reach things, that you yourself confess to be above reason, which is, methinks, as if we were told, that we may see things with our eyes, that are invisible.

Sophr. I do not think that it is to degrade the understanding, to refuse to idolize it; and it is not an injury to reason, to think it a limited faculty, but an injury to the author of it, to think man's understanding infinite like his. And if what I proposed be well grounded, I assign reason its most noble and genuine exercise, which is to close with discovered truths, in whose embraces the perfection of the intellect too much consists, to suffer that perfective action to be justly disparaging to it: and a sincere understanding is to give, or refuse its assent to propositions, according as they are or are not true, not according as we could or could not wish they were so; and methinks it were somewhat strange, that impartiality should be made a disparagement in a judge. But, *Pyrocles*, leaving the reflection, with which you ushered in your objection, I shall now consider the argument itself, which being the weightiest, that can be framed against the opinion you oppose, I shall beg leave to offer some considerations, wherein I shall endeavour to answer it, both by proving my opinion by experience, and by shewing that experience not to be disagreeable to reason.

Pyroc. I SHALL very willingly listen to what you have to say on such a subject.

Sophr. I SHALL then in the first place alledge the experience of many persons, and divers of them great wits, who have perplexed themselves to reconcile, I say, not the grace of God, but even his prescience to the liberty of man's will, even in bare moral actions: and I have found partly by their writings, and by discourse with some of them, that the most towering and subtle sort of speculators, metaphysicians, and mathematicians, perchance after much racking of their brains, confess themselves quite baffled by the unconquerable difficulties they met with, not only in such abstruse subjects as the nature of God, or of the human soul, but in the nature of what belongs in common to the most obvious bodies in the world, and even to the last portions of them. You will easily guess, that I have my eye on that famous controversy, whether or no a continued quantity (which every body, as having length, breadth, depth, must be allowed to have) be made up of indivisibles. Of the perplexing difficulties of this controversy I might give you divers confessions, or complaints made by a sort of men too much accustomed to bold assertions and subtle arguments, to be much disposed to make acknowledgments of that kind: but I shall content myself with the testimony, which one of the more famous modern schoolmen gives both of himself and other learned men, and which, if I well remember, he thus expresses. *Aggrecatur cer-*

Ovid.
centr. 17.
Phyf.

tinui compositionem, cæcusque non superata difficultas omnium doctorum male ingenia vexavit, neque ullus fuit, qui illam non pene insuperabilem agnoscat. Hanc plerique terminorum obscuritate, illorumque replicatis & implicatis distinctionibus, & subdistinctionibus obtenebrant, ne apertè capiantur desperantes rem posse alio modo tractari, neque rationis lucem sustinere, sed necessario confusionis tenebris oblegendam, ne argumentorum evidentiam detegatur.

AND though he had not been thus candid in his confession, yet what he says might be easily concluded by him, that shall duly weigh, with how great, though not equal force of arguments, each of the contending parties imputes to the opinion it opposes great and intolerable absurdities, as contained in it, or legitimately deducible from it.

Eugen. I HAVE not the vanity to think, that the weakness of my reason ought to make another diffident of the strength of his: but as to myself, what *Sophronius* has been saying cannot but be confirmed by several trials, wherein having exerted the small abilities I had, to clear up to myself some of the difficulties about infinites, I perceived, to my trouble, that my speculations satisfied me of nothing so much, as the disproportionateness of those abstruse subjects to my reason. But *Sophronius*, may it not be well objected, that though the instances you have given have not been hitherto cleared by the light of reason; yet it is probable they may be so hereafter, considering how great progress is, from time to time, made in the discoveries of nature, in this learned age of ours?

Sophr. IN answer to this question, *Eugenius*, give me leave to tell you first, that you allow my past discourse to hold good, for aught yet appears to the contrary: whence it will follow, that your objection is grounded upon a hope, or at most a conjecture, about which I need not therefore trouble myself, till some new discoveries about the things in question engage me to a new consideration of them. But in the mean while, give me leave to represent to you in the second place, that though I am very willing to believe, as well as I both desire and hope it, that this inquisitive age we live in will produce discoveries, that will explicate divers of the more hidden mysteries of nature, yet I expect, that these discoveries will chiefly concern those things, which either we are ignorant of for want of a competent history of nature, or we mistake by reason of erroneous prepossessions, or for want of freedom and attention in our speculations. But I have not the like expectations as to all metaphysical difficulties, (if I may so call them,) wherein neither matters of fact, nor the hypotheses of subordinate parts of learning, are wont much to avail. But however it be as to other abstruse objects, I am very apt to think, that there are some things relating to that infinite and most monadical being (if I may so speak) that we call God, which will still remain incomprehensible even to philosophical understandings. And I can scarce allow myself to hope to see those obstacles surmounted, that proceed not from any personal infirmity, or evitable faults, but from the limited nature of the intellect. And to these two considerations, *Eugenius*, I shall, in answer to your question, add this also; that as mens inquisitiveness may hereafter extricate some of those grand difficulties, that have hitherto perplexed philosophers, so it may possibly lead them to discover new difficulties, more capable than the first of baffling human understandings. For even among the things, wherewith we are already conversant, there are divers, which we think we know, only because we never, with due attention, tried, whether we can frame such ideas of them, as are clear and worthy for a rational seeker and lover of truth to acquiesce in. This the great intricacy, that considering men find, in the notions commonly received of space, time, motion, &c. and the difficulties of framing perspicuous and satisfactory apprehensions even of such obvious things, may render highly probable. We see also, that

that the angle of contact, the doctrine of *asymptotes*, and that of furd numbers and incommensurable lines, all which trouble not common accomptants and surveyors, (who, though they deal so much in numbers and lines, seldom take notice of any of them perplex the greatest mathematicians, and some of them so much, that they can rather demonstrate, that such affections belong to them, than they can conceive how they can do so. All which may render it probable, that mens growing curiosity is not more likely to find the solutions of some difficulties, than to take notice of other things, that may prove more insuperable than they.

Tim. THIS conjecture of yours, *Sophronius*, is not a little favoured by the *rota Aristotelica*; for though the motion of a cart-wheel is so obvious, and seems so plain a thing, that the carman himself never looks upon it with wonder; yet after *Aristotle* had taken notice of the difficulty, that occurred about it, this trivial phænomenon has perplexed divers great wits, not only schoolmen, but mathematicians, and continues yet to do so; there being some circumstances in the progressive motion and rotation of the circumference of a wheel, and its nave, or of two points assigned, the one in the former, and the other in the latter, that have appeared too subtle, and even to modern writers, so hard to be conceived and reconciled to some plain and granted truths, that some of them have given over the solution of the attending difficulties as desperate; which perchance, *Pyrocles*, would not think strange, if I had time to insist on the intricacies, that are to be met with in a speculation, that seems so easy as to be despicable.

Sophr. YOUR instance, *Timotheus*, must be acknowledged a very pregnant one, if you are certain, that a better account cannot be given of the *rota Aristotelica*, than is wont to be in the schools, by those peripateticks, that either frankly confess the difficulties to be insoluble, or less ingenuously pretend to give solutions of them, that suppose things not to be proved, or perhaps so much as understood (as rarefaction and condensation strictly so called,) or lose the question and perhaps themselves, by running up the dispute into that most obscure and perplexing controversy *de compositio e continui*.

Eugen. I AM content to forbear pressing any further at present an objection, much of whose force depends on future contingents; and I shall the rather dismiss the proof drawn from experience, that I may the sooner put you in mind of your having promised us another argument to the same purpose, by manifesting the opinion to be agreeable to reason.

Sophr. I UNDERSTAND your pleasure, *Eugenius*, and shall endeavour to comply with it; but the difficulty and intricateness of the subject of our discourse obliges me to do it by steps; and for fear we should want time for more necessary things, I will not now say to examine, whether all the things, that hitherto have appeared above reason, be impenetrable to us, because of an essential disability of our own understandings, proceeding from the imperfection and limitedness of their nature; or only because of some other impediment, such as may be especially the condition of the soul in this life, or the infirmities resulting from its state of union with a gross and mortal body.

FORBEARING then to discourse how this came into my mind, and what thoughts I had upon it, I shall proceed in my considerations; and to clear the way for those that are to follow, I shall in the first place observe to you, that whatever be thought of the faculty *in abstracto*, yet reason operates according to certain notions or ideas, and certain axioms and propositions, by which, as by prototypes or models, and rules and measure, it conceives things, and makes estimates and judgments of them. And indeed we may say, that such a thing is consonant to reason, or repugnant to it, we use to say, that it is either immediately or mediately deducible from, or at least consistent with, or contradictory to one or other of those standard notions or rules.

AND

AND this being premised, I consider in the next place, that if these rules and notions be such, as are abstracted only from finite things, or are congruous but to them; they may prove useless or deceitful to us, when we go about to stretch them beyond their measure, and apply them to the infinite God, or to things, that involve an infiniteness either in multitude, magnitude, or littleness.

To illustrate and confirm this notion, give me leave to represent in the third place, that, in my opinion, all the things, that we naturally do know or can know, may be divided into these two sorts; the one such as we may know without a medium; and the other such as we cannot attain to, but by intervention of a medium, or by a discursive act. To the first belong such notions as are supposed to be connate, or, if you please, innate, such as that two contradictories cannot be both together true; the whole is greater than any part of it; every (entire) number is either even or odd, &c. and also those other truths, that are assented to upon their own account without needing any medium to prove them; because that as soon as, by perspicuous terms, or fit examples, they are clearly proposed to the understanding, they discover themselves to be true so manifestly by their own light, that they need not be assisted by any intervening proposition, to make the intellect acquiesce in them; of which kind are some of *Euclid's* axioms, as that, if to equal things equal things be added, the totals will be equal; and that two right lines cannot include a space. To the second sort of things knowable by us belong all, that we acquire the knowledge of by ratiocinations, wherein by the help of intervening propositions or mediums we deduce one thing from another, or conclude affirmatively or negatively one thing of another. This being supposed, and we being conscious to ourselves, if it were but upon the score of our own infirmities and imperfections, that we are not authors of our own nature; for aught we know, it may be true, and all the experience we have hitherto had leads us to think it is true, that the measures suggested to us either by sensations, the results of sensible observation, or the other instruments of knowledge, are such as fully reach but to finite things or beings, and therefore are not safely applicable to others. And divers of those very principles, that we think very general, may be (if I may so speak) but gradual notions of truth, and but limited and respective, not absolute and universal.

AND here give me leave, as a farther consideration, to take notice to you, that though perfect syllogisms be counted the best and most regular forms, that our ratiocinations can assume; yet even the laws of these are grounded on the doctrine of proportions: for even between things equal there may be a proportion, (namely that of equality;) upon which ground I suppose it is, that mathematical demonstrations have been publickly proposed of the grand syllogistical rules. And in consequence of this, I shall add, that geometers will tell you, that there is no proportion betwixt a finite line and an infinite, because the former can never be so often taken, as to exceed the latter, which, according to *Euclid's* definition of proportion, it should be capable to do. Of which premises the use I would make is to persuade you, that since the understanding operates but by the notions and truths it is furnished with, and these are its instruments, by proportion to which it takes measures, and makes judgment of other things; these instruments may be too disproportionate to some objects to be securely employed to determine divers particulars about them: so the eye being an instrument, which the understanding employs to estimate distances, we cannot by that safely take the breadth of the ocean, because our sight cannot reach far enough to discover, how far so vast an object extends itself. And not only the common instruments of surveyors, that would serve to measure the height of an house or a steeple, or even a mountain, cannot enable them to take the distance of the moon; but, when astronomers do, by supposition, take a chain, that reaches to the centre of the earth, (and therefore is by the moderns judged to be above four thousand miles long;) even then I say, though by help
of

Rationem habere inter se quantitates dicuntur quæ possunt multiplicatæ sese mutuo superare.
Definit. v.
Elem. V.
Euclidis.

of this and the parallaxes, they may tolerably well measure the distance of some of the nearer planets, especially the moon; yet with all their great industry, they cannot by the same way (or perhaps any other yet known) with any thing tolerable accurateness, measure the distance of the fixed stars; the semi-diameter of the earth bearing no sensible proportion to that of so vast a sphere as the firmament, whose distance makes the parallaxes vanish, it being as to sense all one, whether, at so great a remove, a star be observed from the centre, or from the surface of the earth.

Eugen. In a matter so abstruse, a little illustration by examples may be very proper and welcome.

Sopbron. It is scarce possible to find very apposite examples, to illustrate things of a kind so abstruse and heteroclite, as those may well be supposed, that do surpass our reason.

BUT yet some assistance may be borrowed from what we may observe in that other faculty of the mind, which is most of kin to the intellect, I mean the imagination; for when, for instance, I think of a triangle or a square, I find in my fancy an intuitive idea (if I may so call it) of those figures; that is a picture clear and distinct, as if a figure of three sides, or four equal sides and angles, were placed before my eyes.

BUT if I would fancy a myriagon, or a figure consisting of ten thousand equal sides, my imagination is overpowered with so great a multitude of them, and frames but a confused idea of a polygon with a very great many sides: for if (to speak suitably to what the excellent *Des Cartes* has well observed in the like case) a man should endeavour to frame ideas of a myriagon or a chiliagon, they would be both so confused, that his imagination would not be able clearly to discriminate them, though the one has ten times as many sides as the other. So if you would imagine an atom, of which perhaps ten thousand would scarce make up the bulk of one of the light particles of dust, that seem to play in the sun-beams, when they are shot into a darkened place; so extraordinary a littleness, not having fallen under any of our senses, cannot truly be represented in our imagination. So when we speak of God's primity (if I may so call it,) omnipotence, and some other of his infinite attributes and perfections, we have some conceptions of the things we speak of, but may very well discern them to be but inadequate ones: and though divers propositions relating to things above reason seem clear enough to ordinary wits; yet he, that shall with a competent measure of attention, curiosity, and skill, consider and examine them, shall find, that either their parts are inconsistent with one another, or they involve contradictions to some acknowledged or manifest truths, or they are veiled over with darkness, and incumbered with difficulties, from whence we are not able to rescue them. Thus when the side and diagonal of a square are proposed, we have clear and distinct ideas of each of them apart; and when they are compared, we may have a conception of their incommensurableness. But yet this negative notion, if it be thoroughly considered, and far enough pursued, clearly contains that of a strait line's being divisible *in infinitum*; and that divisibility is incumbered with so many difficulties, and is so hard to be reconciled to some confessed dictates of reason, that (as we have seen already) philosophers and geometers, that are convinced of the truth, are to this day labouring to extricate themselves out of those perplexing intricacies.

I WILL not trouble you with the puzzling, if not insuperable difficulties, that incumber the doctrine of eternity, as it is wont to be proposed in the schools of divines and philosophers, lest you should alledge, that these difficulties spring rather from the bold assumptions and groundless subtleties of the schoolmen, than from the nature of the thing itself: but I will propose somewhat, that cannot be denied, which is, that some substance or other, whether, as I believe, God, or as the Peripateticks say, the world, or as the Epicureans contend, matter, never had a beginning, that is, has been.

been for ever. But when we speak of an eternity *à parte ante* (as they call it,) we do not speak of a thing, whereof we have no conception at all, as will appear to a considering person; and yet this general notion we have is such, that when we come attentively to examine it by the same ways, by which we judge of almost all other things, the intellect is non-plus'd: for we must conceive, that the time effluxed since *Adam* (or any other man as remote from us as he is said to have been) began to live, bears no more proportion to the duration of God, or of matter, than to those few minutes I have employed about mentioning this instance. Nay, if we would be Aristotelians, the same thing may be said as to those men, that lived many thousand millions of years before the time we reckon that *Adam* began to live in: for each of these times being finite, and measurable by a determinate number of years, bear no proportion to that infinite number of years (or somewhat that is equivalent) which must be allowed to a duration, that never had a beginning. And as there are some things, whose nature and consequences pose our faculties, so there are others, whereof though we have a notion, yet the *modus operandi* is beyond our comprehension; I do not mean only the true and certain *modus operandi*, but even an intelligible one. As, though divers learned men, especially Cartesians, and that upon a philosophical account, assert, that God created the world; yet how a substance could be made out of nothing (as they, and the generality of Christians confessedly hold) I fear we cannot conceive. And though all philosophers, very few excepted, believe God to be the maker of the world (out of pre-existent matter;) yet how he could make it but by locally moving the parts of the matter it was to consist of, and how an incorporeal substance can move a body, which it may pass through without resistance, is that, which I fear will be found hardly explicable: for if it be said, that the soul, being an immaterial substance, can nevertheless move the limbs of the human body rightly disposed, I shall answer, that it does not appear, that the rational soul doth give any motion to the parts of the body, but only guide or regulate that, which she finds in them already.

Timoth. MAY it not then be rationally said, that by making observations of such things, that are the proper objects of our faculties, and by making legitimate deductions from such observations, and from our other knowledges whether innate or acquired, we may come to be certain, that some things are, and so have general and dark ideas of them, when at the same time we are at a loss to conceive how they can be such, or how they can operate and perform what they do, supposing the truth and sufficiency of some other things we are convinced of? To be short, negative apprehensions we may have of some priviledged things; and positive, but indistinct, apprehensions we may have of others; and that is enough to make us in some sort understand ourselves, and one another, when we speak of them; though yet when we sufficiently consider what we say, we may find, that our words are not accompanied with clear, distinct, and symmetrical conceptions of those abstruse and perplexing things we speak of. And since, as hath been already shewn, we find by experience, that we are unable sufficiently to comprehend things, that by clear and legitimate consequences may be evinced to be, why should not this cogently argue, that some of our conceptions may be of things, to which somewhat belongs, that transcends our reason, and surpasses our comprehension? And if I would play the logician with *Pyrocles*, I would tell him, that his objection destroys his opinion: for since he talks to us of what is incomprehensible, that term must or must not be attended with some suitable idea: if it be not, let him consider, whether, in his own phrase, he speaks sense and not like a parrot; but if it be, let him then confess, that one may have some kind of idea of a thing incomprehensible. But, *Pyrocles*, whether or no you think I prevaricate in this, you will not, I hope, suspect me of doing it, in adding, that when natural theology had taught men, (as well

well philosophers as others,) to believe God to be an infinitely perfect being, we ought not to say, that they had no idea of such a being, because they had not a clear and adequate one. And since *Aristotle* discourses *ex professo* and proluxly enough *de infinito*, and cites the antienter philosophers for having done so before him; and since (besides his commentators and followers) *Democritus*, *Epicurus*, followed by *Gassendus* and other late philosophers, maintain, either that the world is boundless, or that space (real or imaginary) is not finite in extent, or that the world consists of atoms infinite in number; I hope you will not put such an affront upon all these great persons, as to think they said they knew not what, when they discoursed *de infinito*, as they must have done, if they spake without ideas of the things they spake of, though it may be justly supposed, that the subject being infinite, the ideas they framed of it could not be comprehensive and accurate.

Eugen. So that according to you, *Sophronius*, it may be said, that by reason we do not properly perceive things above reason, but only perceive, that they are above reason, there being a dark and peculiar kind of impression made upon the understanding, while it sets itself to contemplate such confounding objects; by which peculiarity of impression, as by a distinct and unwonted kind of internal sensation, the understanding is brought to distinguish this sort of things, namely, transcendent or privileged ones, from others, and discern them to be disproportionate to the powers, with which it uses throughly to penetrate subjects, that are not impervious to it. As when the eye looks into a deep sea, though it may pierce a little way into it, yet when it would look deeper, it discovers nothing but somewhat which is dark and indistinct, which affects the sensory so differingly from what other more genuine objects are wont to do, that by it we easily discern, that our sight fails us in the way before it arrives at the bottom, and consequently that there may be many things concealed there, that our sight is unable to reach.

Timoth. I GUESS, gentlemen, by the silence you seem to conspire in, after so long a debate, that you have now said as much as at present you think fit to say for and against this proposition, that there are things above our reason.

Sophr. I SHALL not, for my part, cross your observations, *Timothæus*, but instead of adding any new proofs, shall only desire you to look back upon those I have presented you already, and to let me remind you, that of the two arguments, by which I attempted to shew, that there are some things above reason, the first and chiefest was suggested by experience, and the other, which was drawn from the nature of things and of man, was brought, as it were, *ex abundanti*, to illustrate and confirm the former, and give occasion to some hints about privileged subjects. And therefore though I hope what has been discoursed by these gentlemen and me, may be able to persuade *Pyrocles*, that the acknowledgment, that some things are above reason, may fairly comply with the dictates of it; yet whatever he thinks of the cogency of our discourse, the truth or the main conclusion may be sufficiently evinced by our first argument drawn from experience: for if we really find, that there are things, which our reason cannot comprehend, then whether the account these gentlemen and I have given, why our faculties are insufficient for these things, be good or not; yet still some true account or other there must be of that insufficiency. And as we should very thankfully receive from *Pyrocles* any better account than what we have propounded, so if he cannot assign any better, I hope he will join with us in looking upon this as very agreeable to our hypothesis: since hereby some things must appear to us so sublime and abstruse, that not only we find we are not able to comprehend them, but that we are unable to discern so much upon what account it is, that they cannot be comprehended by us.

Eugen. I AM not averse, *Sophronius*, from your paradox about gradual notions; and I am the more inclined to think, that some of the axioms and rules, that are reputed to be very general, are not to be indifferently extended to all subjects and cases whatsoever; when I consider the differing apprehensions, that the mind may frame of the same object, as well according to the vigour, or (if I may so call it) rank of the understanding, as according to the differing information it is furnished with. For if one should propose to a child, for instance, of four or five years old the demonstration of the one hundred and seventeenth proposition of *Euclid's* tenth book, wherein he proves the side and diagonal of a square to be incommensurable; though possibly he may be able to read the words, that express the theorem, and though he have eyes to see the scheme employed for the demonstration, yet if you should spend a whole year about it, you would never be able to make him understand it, because it is quite above the reach of a child's capacity. And if one should stay till he be grown a man, yet supposing him to have never learned geometry, though he may easily know what you mean by two incommensurable lines, yet all the reason he has attained to in his virile age would but indispose him to attain to that demonstration; for all the experience he may have had of lines will but have suggested to him as a manifest and general truth, that of any two strait lines we may, by measuring, find how many feet, inches, or other determinate measure, the one exceeds the other. And though one, that has been orderly instructed in all that long train of propositions, that in *Euclid's* elements precede the one hundred and seventeenth of the tenth book, will be also able to arrive at an evidence of this truth, that those two lines are incommensurable; yet (as *Sophronius* formerly noted) how it should be possible, that two short lines being proposed, whereof each by itself is easily measurable among those innumerable multitudes of parts, into which each of them may be mentally divided, there should not be any one capable of exactly measuring both, is that, which even a geometrician, that knows it is true, is not well able to conceive. But, gentlemen, that you may not accuse my digression, I shall urge these comparisons no further, my scope in mentioning them being to observe to you, that for aught we know to the contrary, such a difference of intellectual abilities, as is but gradual in children and men, may be essential in differing ranks of intellectual beings. And so it may be, that some of those axioms, that we think general, may, when we apply them to things, whereof they are not the true and proper measures, lead us into error, though perhaps intellects of an higher order may unriddle those difficulties, that confound us men; which conjecture I should confirm by some things, that would be readily granted me by Christians, if I thought it proper to play the divine in a discourse purely philosophical.

Pyrocl. You, gentlemen, have taken the liberty to make long discourses; and I shall not much blame you for it, because it is a thing as more easily, so more speedily done, to propose difficulties than to solve them: yet methinks amongst you all, you have left one part of my objection unanswered, not to say untouched.

Sophr. I SUPPOSE, *Pyrocles*, you mean what you said about discerning invisible things with the eye: but I purposely forbore to take notice of that, because I foresaw it might be more seasonably done, after some other points had been cleared. Wherefore give me leave now to represent to you, as a corollary from the foregoing discourses, that nothing hinders, but that we may reasonably suppose, that the great and free author of human nature, God, so framed the nature of man, as to have furnished his intellectual faculty with a light, whereby it cannot only make estimates of the power of a multitude of other things, but also judge of its own nature and power, and discern some at least of the limits, beyond which it cannot safely exercise its act of particularly and peremptorily judging and defining. And now that God, who (as I said) is a most
free

free agent, may have given the mind of man such a limited nature, accompanied with such a measure of light, you will not, I presume, deny: but the question is, you will tell me, whether he hath done so? But I hope what has been formerly discoursed by these gentlemen and me has put that almost quite out of question. However, I shall now invite you to observe with me, that the rational soul does not only pass judgments about things without her, but about herself, and what passes within her: she searches out and contemplates her own spirituality and union with the body. The intellect judges, wherein its own nature consists, and whether or no itself be a distinct faculty from the will. And to come yet closer to the point, be pleased to consider, that logic and metaphysics are the works of the human intellect, which, by framing those disciplines, manifests, that it does not only judge of ratiocinations, but of the very principles and laws of reasoning, and teaches what things are necessary to the obtaining of an evidence and certainty, and what kind of mediums they are, from whence you must not expect any demonstrative arguments concerning such or such a subject. To these things it is agreeable, that if we will compare the bodily eye with the understanding, which is the eye of the mind, we must allow this difference, that the intellect is as well a looking-glass as a sensory, since it does not only see other things, but itself too, and can discern its own blemishes or bad conformation, or whatever other infirmities it labours under. Upon which consideration, we may justify the boldness of our excellent *Verulam*, who, when he sets forth the four sorts of idols (as he calls them,) that mislead the studiers of philosophy, makes one of them to be *Idola Tribus*, by which he means those notions, that, though radicated in the very nature of mankind, are yet apt to mislead us: which may confirm what I was saying before, that the soul, when duly excited, is furnished with a light, that may enable her to judge even of divers of those original notions, by which she is wont to judge of other things. To be short, the soul upon trial may find by an inward sense, that some things surpass her forces, as a blind man, that were set to lift up a rock, would quickly find it too unweildy to be managed by him; and the utmost exercise of his strength would but convince him of the insufficiency of it to surmount so great a weight or resistance; so that we do not pretend, that the eye of the mind should see invisibles, but only that it shall discern the limits of that sphere of activity, within which nature hath bounded it, and consequently that some objects are disproportionate to it. And I remember, that *Aristotle* himself says, that the eye sees both light and darkness; which expression, though somewhat odd, may be defended by saying, that though since darkness is a privation, not a being, it cannot properly be the object of sight, yet it may be perceived by means of the eye, by the very differing affection, which that organ relents, when it is impressed on by luminous or enlightned objects, and when it is made useless to us by darkness.

Timoth. WHAT you have said, *Sophronius*, has in great part prevented one thing, that might be said to strengthen *Pyrocles*'s objection; namely, that whereas when we see with our bodily eyes, there is besides the outward organ an internal and rational faculty, that perceives by the help of the eye that, which is not directly the object of sight; in the eye of the mind, the intellect, there is but one faculty to perceive and judge: for, according to your notion, it may be well answered, that the intellect being capable by its proper light to judge of itself and its own acts as well as of other things, there is no need of two principles, the one to perceive and the other to judge, since one is sufficient for both those purposes.

Pyrocl. WHEN I have time to reflect on all that I have heard alledged amongst you, gentlemen, I shall consider how far your arguments ought to obtain my assent: but in the mean while I must tell you, that they will scarce have all the success I presume you

desire, unless you add somewhat to free me from what yet sticks with me of a scruple; that is much of the nature of that, which I formerly proposed, being this; how we can justify our presuming to discourse at all of things transcending reason? For I cannot understand, how a man, that admits your opinions, can intelligibly speak (and to speak otherwise misbecomes a rational creature) of what is infinite, or any thing that surpasses our reason; since, when we discourse of such things, either our words are, or are not accompanied with clear and distinct ideas or conceptions of the things we speak of: if they be not, what do we other than speak nonsense, or (as hath been already said) like parrots entertain our hearers with words, that we ourselves do not understand? and if they be, then we do in effect comprehend those things, which yet you would have me think to be, on some account or other, incomprehensible.

Sophr. I ACKNOWLEDGE this difficulty, *Pyrocles*, to be a great one; but yet I think it not so great, as that it ought to interdict us all discoursing of things above reason: and this would perhaps appear probable enough, if, as your objection borrows much of what you have formerly alledged, so I may be allowed, as well to repeat some things as propose others, in making answer to it.

Timoth. I FOR my part shall not only give you my consent to do so, but make it my request, that you would do it; for when I look back upon our conference, methinks I plainly perceive, that partly the objections of *Pyrocles*, and partly some (I fear impertinent) interpositions of mine, have kept your discourse from being so methodical as otherwise you would have made it; and therefore to be reminded of some of the chief points of your doctrine, as well as to connect them with those you shall judge fit to strengthen or illustrate them, may much conduce to make us both understand it more clearly, and remember it better.

Eugen. I am much of your mind, *Timotheus*; but though my interpositions have been far more frequent and much less pertinent than yours, yet I am not troubled, that the method of our conference has been so much disturbed; because I think such a free way of discoursing, wherein emergent thoughts, if they be considerable, are permitted to appear as they arise in the mind, is more useful than a nice method in a debate about an uncultivated and highly important subject, in which I think we should aim at first rather to inquire than to resolve, and to procure as many hints and considerations as we can, in order to our fuller information against our next meeting, without suppressing any that is true or useful, only because it agrees not so well with a regular method, as it does with the design of our conference.

Sopbron. WITHOUT reflecting upon either of those gentlemen, that have been pleased to accuse themselves, I shall readily comply with the motion made by *Timotheus*, and after having proposed some distinctions, make application of them.

AND the better to clear this matter in reference to *Pyrocles's* objection, I shall first take the liberty to make some distinctions of the notions or conceptions of the mind, and for brevity sake give names to those I have now occasion to employ. I consider then, that whether the conceptions or ideas we have of things be simple or compounded, they may be distinguished into such as are particular or distinct, and such as are only general, dark, and confused, or indistinct. So when a navigator to unknown countries first gets a sight of land, though he may be satisfied that it is land, yet he has but a very dark and confused picture of it made in his eye, and cannot descry, whether or no the shore be rocky, or what creeks or harbours (if any) it have in it; much less whether the coast be well inhabited, and if it be, what kind of buildings it has; all which he may plainly and distinctly see upon his going ashore. And this mention of the sea puts me in mind to point at another distinction, which is, that of some things we have an adequate, of others but an inadequate conception; as if we suppose the navigator, I was
speaking

speaking of, should look towards the main sea, though he might see a good way distinctly, yet at length it would appear so darkly and confusedly to him, that at the verge of the sensible horizon, his sight would make him judge, that the sea and sky come together; and yet he would conclude, that the utmost part of the sea he could descry, was but a part of the ocean, which may, for aught he knows, reach to a vast extent beyond the visible horizon.

To our confused, and often also to our inadequate conceptions, belong many of those, that may be called negative, which we are wont to employ, when we speak of privations or negations, as blindness, ignorance, death, &c. We have a positive idea of things, that are square and round, and black and white, and in short of other things, whose shapes and colours make them the objects of our sight: but when we say, for instance, that a spirit or an atom is invisible, those words are attended with a negative conception, which is commonly but dark and confused, because it is indefinite, and removes or lays aside those marks, by which we are wont clearly to perceive and distinguish visible substances. And when we say, that such a thing is impossible, we have some kind of conception of what we speak of, but it is a very obscure and indistinct one at best, exhibiting only a general and very confused representation of some ways, whereby one might think the thing likely to be effected, if it were at all performable, accompanied with a perception of the insufficiency of those ways. There is yet another difference in the notions we have of things, which though not wont to be observed, is too important to be here pretermitted, and it is this; that of some things we have a knowledge, that, for want of a fitter term, may be called primary or direct; and of some other things the knowledge we have is acquired but by inferring it from some more known or clearer truth, and so may be called inferred or illative knowledge. As when a geometrician defines to me an hyperbola, I quickly gain a clear and distinct idea of it; but when he proves to me, that this hyperbola may have such a relation to a strait line, which he calls asymptote; that this line being continued still comes nearer or nearer to the prolonged side of the hyperbole, and yet how far soever both be drawn, it will never come to touch it; his subtle demonstrations present me with an inferred and illative truth, at which we arrived not but by the help of a train of ratiocinations, and on which if we exercise our imagination, we shall find this factitious truth, if we may so call it, accompanied but with a very dim and confused idea. To the foregoing distinctions give me leave to add but this one more, which belongs chiefly to the notions we have of true or false propositions; namely, that of our conceptions of things, some are symmetrical (if I may so call them) or every way consistent, by which I mean those that have these two qualifications, the one, that all the parts are consistent among themselves, and the other, that the entire idea is consistent with all other truths; and some are chimerical or asymmetrical, by which I understand those, that are either self-destroying by the contrariety of the parts themselves they are made up of, as if one should talk of a triangular square, or a sun-shiny night; or being extravagant, lead to some manifest absurdity, that may be legitimately inferred from them, or into inextricable difficulties, or involve a real repugnancy to some acknowledged truth, or rule of reason.

To what I have hitherto said I must add these two observations: the first, that the mind of man is so framed, that when she is duly instructed and is not wanting to herself, she can perceive a want of light in herself for some purposes, or of clearness and completeness in the best ideas she is able to frame of some things, and on this account can so far take notice of the extent and imperfection of her own faculties, as to discern, that some objects are disproportionate to her; as when we attentively consider the dimensions of space, or (if the Cartesians judge aright, that body is nothing but extended substance)

substance) those of the universe, we may by trial perceive, that we cannot conceive them so great, but that they may be yet greater, or, if you please, may exceed the bounds, how remote soever, which our former conception presumed to assign them; which may be illustrated by what happens to the eye, when it looks upon the main sea, since we easily grow sensible, that how far soever we can discover it, yet our sight falls far short of the extent of that vast object. And it is by the sense, which the mind has of her own limitedness and imperfection on certain occasions, that I think we may estimate what things ought not, and what ought to be looked upon as things above reason; for by that term, I would not have you think I mean such things, as our rational faculty cannot at all reach to, or has not any kind of perception of, for of such things we cannot in particular either speak or think like men; but my meaning is this, that whereas the rational soul is conscious to her own acts, and feels, that she knows divers sorts of things truly and clearly, and thereby justly concludes them to be within the compass of her faculties; when she contemplates some few things, that seem to be of another order, she is convinced, that however she strain her power, she has no such ideas or perception of them, as she has or may have of those objects, that are not disproportionate to her faculties: and this is my first observation.

THE other thing that I was to observe about the nature of the mind is, that it is so constituted, that its faculty of drawing consequences from known truths is of greater extent than its power of framing clear and distinct ideas of things; so that by subtle or successive inferences, it may attain to a clear conviction, that some things are, of whose nature and properties (or at least of some of them) it can frame no clear and satisfactory conceptions. And that men should be better able to infer propositions about divers things, than to penetrate their nature, needs the less be wondered at, both because it is oftentimes sufficient for our uses to know that such things are, though that knowledge be not accompanied with a clear and distinct idea; and because oftentimes the rules (such as, whatever is produced must have a cause; and, from truth nothing rightly follows but truth) are clear and easy, that enable the mind to infer conclusions about things, whose nature is very dark and abstruse.

Eugen. I know, *Sophronius*, that you have not laid down these preliminary distinctions and remarks, without designing to make use of them, which the little time, that now remains to manage our conference in, calls upon to proceed to do.

Sophron. I was just going to say, *Eugenius*, that, after what I have premised, I hope it may be seasonable to apply the newly delivered notions to the three sorts of things, that I formerly represented as being in some sense above reason. For I consider, that there are some objects of so immense and peculiar a nature, that (if I may so speak) by an easy view of the mind, that is without any subtle and laborious disquisition, the soul discerns, and, as it were, feels the object to be disproportionate to her powers: and accordingly if she thinks fit to try, she quickly finds herself unable to frame conceptions of them fit to be acquiesced in; and this sort of objects I do upon that account call inconceivable, or (on some occasions) supra-intellectual.

BUT when by attentively considering the attributes and operations of things, we sometimes find, that a thing hath some property belonging to it, or doth perform somewhat, which by reflecting on the beings and ways of working that we know already, we cannot discern to be reducible to them or derivable from them, we then conclude this property or this operation to be inexplicable; that is, such, as that it cannot so much as in a general way be intelligibly accounted for; and this makes the second sort of our things above reason. But this is not all, for the rational soul, that is already furnished with innate, or at least primitive ideas and rules of true and false, when she comes to examine certain things, and make successive inferences about them, she finds (sometimes to her

wonder

wonder as well as trouble) that she cannot avoid admitting some consequences as true and good, which she is not able to reconcile to some other manifest truth or acknowledged proposition. And whereas other truths are so harmonious, that there is no disagreement between any two of them, the heteroclite truths I speak of appear not symmetrical with the rest of the body of truths, and we see not how we can at once embrace these and the rest, without admitting that grand absurdity, which subverts the very foundation of our reasonings, that contradictories may both be true. As in the controversy about the endless divisibility of a strait line, since it is manifest, that a line of three foot, for instance, is thrice as long as a line of one foot, so that the shorter line is but the third part of the longer, it would follow, that a part of a line may contain as many parts as a whole, since each of them is divisible into infinite parts; which seems repugnant to common sense, and to contradict one of those common notions in *Euclid*, whereupon geometry itself is built. Upon which account I have ventured to call this third sort of things above reason asymmetrical or unfociable, of which eminent instances are afforded us by those controversies (such as that of the *compositio continui*) wherein which side soever of the question you take, you will be unable directly and truly to answer the objections, that may be urged to shew, that you contradict some primitive or some other acknowledged truth.

THESE, *Eugenius*, are some of the considerations, by which I have been induced to distinguish the things, that to me seem to overmatch our reason, into three kinds. For of those things I have stiled unconceivable, our ideas are but such, as a moderate attention suffices to make the mind sensible, that she wants either light or extent enough to have a clear and full comprehension of them: and those things, that I have called inexplicable, are those, which we cannot perceive to depend upon the ideas we are furnished with, and to resemble in their manner of working any of the agents, whose nature we are acquainted with: and lastly, those things, which I have named unfociable, are such as have notions belonging to them, or have conclusions deducible from them, that are (for aught we can discern) either incongruous to our primitive ideas, or, when they are driven home, inconsistent with the manifest rules we are furnished with, to judge of true and false.

Eugen I presume, *Sophronius*, that by sorting things above reason into three kinds, you do not intend to deny, but that it is possible one object may in differing regards be referred to more than one of these sorts.

Sophron. You apprehend me very right, *Eugenius*, and the truth of what you say may sufficiently appear in that noblest of objects, God.

Timoth. We owe so much to God, the most perfect of beings, not only for other blessings, but for those very intellects, that enable us to contemplate him, that I shall be very glad to learn any thing, that may increase my wonder and veneration for an object, to whom I can never pay enough of either.

Sophron. You speak like yourself, *Timotheus*, and I wish I were as able, as I ought to be willing, to satisfy your desire: but since we are now discoursing like philosophers, not divines, I shall proceed to speak of that gloriouslest of objects, but as his nature or some of his attributes afford me instances to the purpose, for which I presumed to mention him. When God therefore made the world out of nothing, or (if *Pyrocles* will not admit the creation) when he discerns the secretest thoughts and intentions of the mind, when he unites an immaterial spirit to a human body, and maintains, perhaps for very many years, that unparalleled union with all the wonderful conditions he has annexed to it; when, I say, he doth these and many other things, that I must not now stay to mention, he supplies us with instances of things that are inexplicable: for such operations are not reducible to any of the ways of working known to us; since our own

minds can but modify themselves by divers manners of thinking; and as for things without us, all that one body can do to another by acting on it, is to communicate local motion to it, and thereby produce in it the natural consequences of such motion; in all which there is no action like any of those I just now ascribed to God. And if we consider, that the prescience of those future events, that we call contingent, being a perfection, is not to be denied to God, who is by all acknowledged the perfectest of beings; and that yet the greatest wits, that have laboured to reconcile this infallible precognition with the liberty of man's will, have been reduced to maintain something or other, that thwarts some acknowledged truth or dictate of reason: if we duly consider this, I say, it will afford us an instance of truths, whose consistency and whose symmetry with the body of other truths our reason cannot discern, and which therefore ought to be referred to that sort of things above reason, that I call unsociable. And now I come to the third sort of these things, which is that I formerly mentioned, first under the name of incomprehensible or supra-intellectual; which title, whether or no it belongs to any other object, (which I will not now enquire) doth certainly belong to God, whose nature, comprehending all perfections in their utmost possible degrees, is not like to be comprehensible by our minds, who altogether want divers of those perfections, and have but moderate measures, (not to call them shadows) of the rest. We are indeed born with, or at least have a power and divers occasions to frame an idea of a being infinitely perfect, and by this idea we may sufficiently discriminate the original of it, God, from all other objects whatsoever. But then, when we come to consider attentively and minutely, what is contained in the notion of omnipotence, omniscience, eternity, and those other divine attributes, that are all united in that great confluence and abyss of perfections, God; we may be sure to find, that our faculties are exceedingly surmounted by the vastness and gloriousness of that unlimited and unparallel'd object; about which, as we can discover that it exists, and that it possesses all the perfection we can conceive, so we may at the same time discern, that it must have degrees of perfection, which, because of the inferiority of our nature, we are not able to conceive.

AND yet this discovery of God's incomprehensibleness may be made without subtle disquisitions, and without trains, of consequences, though not without due attention, by a direct view of the mind (if I may so term it,) who finds herself upon trial as unable fully to measure the divine perfections as the dimensions of space, which we can conceive to be greater and greater, without ever being able to determine any extent, beyond whose limits they cannot reach.

Pyroc. I SUSPECTED, *Sophronius*, by the tenour of your discourse, that the last questions these gentlemen asked you diverted you from saying somewhat more than you did by way of application of your preceding discourse.

Sophr. I WAS then indeed about to make, as I now shall, this use of what I had been saying; that I readily acknowledge, that it is an arrogance to talk of infinite or of privileged things with the same confidence, or to pretend to do it with the same clearness, wherewith knowing men may speak of things unquestionably within the compass of our intellect; but that this need not hinder us from speaking rationally of privileged things themselves. For all the notions, that are allowable, are not of the same sort or order; and if none were to be admitted, but those that enable us to comprehend the object, that is, which give us a clear and distinct knowledge of all that it contains or that belongs to it, I must confess, that we have no good notion of privileged things in particular: but then I must add, that I fear we have few or none even of many things, that we think ourselves very knowing in. And when we speak of things as being above reason, though we have no clear, distinct, and adequate notion of them, yet we may have

have a general confused and inadequate notion of them, which may suffice to make us discriminate their respective objects from all else, and from one another; as may be observed in several ideas, that are negatively framed, such as those we have of invisible, incomprehensible, and in others, which I formerly called inferred; because they accompany the remote inferences, whereby one truth is concluded from another: as when geometers infer from some propositions in *Euclid*, that any straight line may be divided farther and farther without stop. For of this, and some other propositions about privileged things, we are not quite destitute of allowable notions; as may appear by some of the admirably ingenious speculations of mathematicians about the affections of surd numbers, and about incommensurable magnitudes; about some of which we have no such clear and symmetrical conceptions, as we have of many other things, that are of a nearer and more intelligible order. And on this occasion I shall not scruple to acknowledge, that partly by my own experience, and partly by the confessions of others, and by their unsuccessful attempts, I am induced to think, that God, who is a most free agent, having been pleased to make intelligent beings, may perhaps have made them of differing ranks or orders, whereof men may not be of the principal; and that whether there be such orders or no, he hath at least made us men of a limited nature (in general) and of a bounded capacity. Congruously to this I think also, that he hath furnished man either with certain innate ideas or models and principles, or with a faculty or power and disposition easily to frame them, as it meets with occasions (which readily occur) to excite them: but because that (as I lately noted) God intended the mind of man but of a limited capacity, his understanding is so constituted, that the inbred or easily acquired ideas and primitive axioms, wherewith it is furnished, and by relation or analogy whereunto it judges of all other notions and propositions, do not extend to all knowable objects whatsoever, but reach only to such, as have a sufficient affinity, or bear some proportion to those primary ideas and rules of truth, which are sufficient, if duly improved, to help us to the attainment, though not of the perfect knowledge of truths of the highest orders, yet to the competent knowledge of as much truth, as God thought fit to allow our minds in their present (and perchance lapsed) condition, or state of union with their mortal bodies.

Eugen. YOUR opinion, *Sophronius*, if I apprehend it aright, contains two very differing assertions; one, that it is allowable to contemplate, and even to discourse of things above reason, since we may have some conceptions of them, though they be but very dim and imperfect: and the other, that we ought not to look upon, or speak of such objects, as things that we comprehend, or have even such a measure of knowledge of, as we have of things that are not privileged. For of these we are not to speak but with a peculiar wariness, and modest diffidence.

Sophr. You have expressed my thoughts, *Eugenius*, since I intend not to injoin silence, or dissuade curiosity, but yet forbid presumption, in reference to privileged things.

Timoth. AND truly, *Sophronius*, I see no reason to repine at the limits, which your late discourse hath, in imitation of the author of nature himself, assigned to human knowledge. For the number of privileged things is altogether inconsiderable, in comparison of the multitude of other things, to which our knowledge may be improved to reach, and which it far more concerns us to know well, than it doth to resolve puzzling questions about things incomprehensible; there being within the compass of those truths enough to employ and reward our curiosity, without straining and tiring our reason about objects that transcend it. And yet even about these some disquisitions may be allowed us; for an object, that on the account of some of its properties may be a privileged one, may have divers other things belonging to it, that do

not surpass our reason, and whose knowledge may therefore be attained, by the due employment of it.

Thus we usefully study the nature of bodies, which make up the object of the excellent science of natural philosophy; though the true notion of body in general be a thing so difficult to frame, that the best of our modern philosophers can by no means agree about it. Which I do not wonder at; because if we pursue the notion of a body to the uttermost, it will lead us to the perplexing controversy *de compositione continui*, and there you will not deny, but that the understanding will be left in the dark. Thus surveyors, carpenters, architects, and many others, know divers affections of the square figure, that are of great use to them in their respective employments, though that property of the square, that its side and diagonal are incommensurable, be unknown to most of them; and if they were told of it, and would prosecute the speculation, would involve them in exceeding great, and probably insuperable, difficulties.

Sophr. To confirm what you have been telling us, *Timotheus*, I shall venture to add, that even about priviledged things, our inquiries, if modestly and discreetly managed, may not only be allowable, but sometimes profitable. For even of such subjects a studious search may bring us to know more than we did, though not so much as we would, nor enough to be acquiesced in. So that such enquiries may probably teach us to know the objects better, and ourselves better too; by giving us such a sensible discovery of the insufficiency of our understandings to comprehend all sorts of things, as may be very useful, though not pleasing, and may richly recompence us for the pains, that ended in so instructive a disappointment. And let me add to the pertinent instances, that have been mentioned, the noblest that can be given; I mean the contemplation of God himself. For he hath so ordered all things, that it is scarce possible for us to be destitute of an idea of him, which will at least represent him as an existent being, and more perfect than any other being; and yet when we come with sufficient application of mind to pry into the wonderful attributes of this most singular and adorable being, we are, as was lately observed, sure to find ourselves unable to comprehend so unbounded an object. Which yet ought not to discourage us from so noble a study, since we are allowed the great contentment and honour to make further and further discoveries of the excellentest of objects, by that very immensity of his perfections, that makes it impossible for us to reach to the bounds of his excellency, or rather to discover, that it has any bounds at all.

BUT, gentlemen, I perceive I have been so transported by the mention of this vast and divine subject, in whose contemplation it is so easy and so pleasant to lose ones self, that I have forgot the notice *Eugenius* gave me a pretty while since, that the time allotted for our present conference was then near expiring. And therefore I shall leave you to pick out of the excursions, to which your interpositions tempted (not to say obliged) me, the applications, that I intended to make more methodically, of the distinctions I laid down. And I am the less troubled to be hindred from proposing to you my thoughts about the way of distinguishing priviledged things from others, because we have a domestick monitor, or a kind of an internal criterium, always at hand to help us. For I think it may well be said, that the wise author of nature has endued the understanding with such a quick, though internal, sensation, (if I may so call it,) that when due attention is not wanting, it can feelingly discern between other objects, and those that are disproportionate to its ability. As even in beasts, the eye is so framed (according to the institution of nature,) that if it be obverted to the bright noon-day-sun, there needs no monitor, but the operation of the same sun, to make it wink, (and perhaps water,) and thereby discover itself to be dazled and overpowered by the disproportionate object.

Pyroc. I CONFESS your discourses, gentlemen, have made an unexpected impression upon me; but whether that will amount to a conviction, will scarce appear till our next conference. Only thus much I shall tell you now, that it would much facilitate our agreement in opinion, if you did not contend for altogether so much; but would be pleased to leave it undetermined, whether man's intellectual faculty itself is incapable, by the help of any degree of light, to discover and know those things, which you call above reason: and would content yourselves to say, that there are some things belonging to these subjects, which we must confess we have less clear and distinct notions of, than we have even of the difficultest of those things, that are acknowledged not to surpass our reason: and that if we will take upon us, to determine positively and particularly about these transcendent things, we must employ ways of reasoning congruous to their peculiar natures.

Sophr. I SHALL readily consent not to expect your final resolution, before our next meeting, having no cause to fear, that time will be unfriendly to her daughter truth.

Timoth. AND in the mean while *Pyrocles*, I am glad to find, by the last part of what you just now said, that you seem to be no longer indisposed to admit some things, that (at least in our present state) do some way or other surpass our reason. For I think, that instead of exalting that faculty, we injure and defraud it, if we do not freely allow it as much enjoyment of truth as we are able to procure it: and consequently if geometry, or revelation, or experience, assure us of divers things, of which we can know but that they are, and what they do, not, what they are, and how they act, we must neither refuse, nor neglect the study of such truths, any more than we would refuse to look into any other objects than those that we can look through; and therefore to enrich the intellect as much as we are able, we must entertain, not only those truths, that we can comprehend, but those also, how sublime soever, that we can have any certain, though but a very imperfect knowledge of, especially since those remote and abstruse subjects may be as much more noble as more dark than others, and thereby render an imperfect discovery of them more desirable, than a far clearer one of inferior things.

ADVICES in judging of THINGS said to transcend REASON.

The speakers *Arnobius*, *Eugenius*, *Pyrocles*, and *Timotheus*.

Arnob. I WAS very glad, gentlemen, to learn this morning of *Sophronius* some things; whence it was easy to conclude, that by the discourse you had with him last night, he has made it allowable for me to demand, and rational for you to grant, nay to proffer me a dispensation of the task you imposed on me at our last meeting. For though he spoke with the modesty that became him of your conference, and gave me but a hasty and imperfect account of what passed between you; yet I think I may presume, that by his discourse, *Pyrocles* himself was at least inclined, and you two, gentlemen, fully persuaded to admit, that there are things above reason; which was the main point, about which you expected, at our last congress, that I should entertain you, at our then next, or now present meeting.

Eugen. I deny not, that *Sophronius's* considerations were prevalent on *Timotheus* and me, and have, I hope, made a good impression on *Pyrocles* himself; but that ought not to hinder us from coming, as we now do, to claim your promise of entertaining us about things above reason. And if you will needs be dispensed with from repeating those considerations, that *Sophronius* has employed already, (though I doubt not, but by repeating them, you would both strengthen and advance them;) we will not be rigid exactors of our right: but yet we must not remit your task, though we are content to change it. For I question not but these gentlemen will consent with me, to discharge you of your promise of discoursing of the arguments, that may infer some things to be above reason, if you will please to afford us your thoughts, about the ways of avoiding to be imposed on by ourselves or others, when such sublime subjects are treated or discoursed of.

Arnob. THOUGH in the recital of your conference, *Sophronius* did but touch on several subjects, whereon it would be proper for me to insist, in the discourse you seem to expect from me; yet I am apt to fear, that he has so prevented me in what I should say, that he has left little or nothing for me to do, but to make repetitions of what you have heard already much better expressed: which will be an employment far enough from being grateful, either to you or me.

Eugen. Your modesty, sir, is not like to defeat our curiosity; and that you may not think yourself hardly used, or condemned to bear repetition, be pleased to take notice, both that what we desire as a favour, we might claim as a compensation, and that the things we expect from you now, are not arguments to make out, that there are things above reason, but that you would afford us some "rules and directions, how to regulate the ratiocinations we make, and estimate those we meet with, about such transcendent subjects."

Arnob. I hope, *Eugenius*, you do not in earnest think me so vain as to pretend to frame a logic about things above logic; or magisterially to deliver rules about things, that are as anomalous, as they are either remote or abstruse. Besides that all you have said does not exempt me from a fear, that by reason of *Sophronius's* omitting divers points of his discourse, and my imperfect remembrance of those he transiently and summarily mentioned, he has anticipated much of what were otherwise proper for me to say. But yet because it is possible, that his thoughts and mine may have led us to have made some reflections, that are not at all the same; and that even when others happen to be coincident, it may be not altogether useless, that I should endeavour to enlarge some things, that he has but hinted, and illustrate or vindicate some others, that will not be prejudiced by being cleared, or confirmed; and above all this, because I would shew you, that I am willing to comply with you somewhat to the hazard of my discretion, I shall not refuse to offer you some, not rules, but advices; provided you freely interrupt me, when I begin to trouble you with the repetition of any thing, that you have, though I have not, heard before; and provided too, that you look not on these advices so much as directions to find the truth, in such abstruse matters, as cautions that may chance to assist you to avoid some errors and mistakes.

Eugen. We are not so scrupulous, but that we shall upon your own terms gladly receive your thoughts, whatever names you please to give them.

Arnob. I shall then, without further preamble, comply with your commands, and propose as my

FIRST A D V I C E.

That about privileged subjects themselves, we do not admit any (affirmative) assertion, without such proofs, to evince it, as are sufficient in their kind.

I hope gentlemen, that *Sophronius* has so far declared to you, what is to be meant by privileged things, that though it be a new term, yet I need not solicitously explain it; and may think it sufficient to intimate in few words, that they are things of a very heteroclite and abstruse nature, and have belonging to them such peculiar affections and attributes, as require, that in judging and reasoning of them, we should employ notions and rules congruous to their particular condition; some of them superadded to, and others perhaps differing from those, that men generally and safely enough make use of about common and familiar things, that are of a nature less impervious to our understandings. And if the shortness of this summary description should leave it less clear than I hope you find it, I foresee there will divers occasions of illustrating it, by instances and other ways, occur in the sequel of our discourse: in order to which I shall, after this short and necessary digression, return to the lately given first advice; and tell you, that it is grounded upon this consideration, that it is not reasonable to give assent to any thing as a truth, but upon a sufficient reason of that assent. And though we may well grant in the general, that a thing, which surpasses our reason, may have belonging to it some affection, that is also above reason; yet we are not in particular to believe, that this or that affection doth belong to it, without particular and competent proof. For since about a privileged thing, as well as about any other, propositions may be framed, and often are so, that are contrary to one another; to assent to both were to be sure to believe one falsity, if not two. And if we will assent but to one, we must either judge at adventures, or allow ourselves to examine the mediums of probation, employed on both sides, and thereupon judge, why one of the propositions is to be assented to, and the other rejected.

Pyrocl. I AM glad, *Arnobius*, that you allow yourself and us this manly freedom, without which our understandings were liable to be imposed on in matters of the highest concernment: for there scarce ever did, or I fear ever will, want some men, who either out of ignorance and passive delusion, or out of self-confidence, or out of design, take upon them, with great boldness, to affirm what they please about privileged subjects; and when they are opposed in their extravagancies by ratiocinations they cannot answer, they urge, that these things being above reason, are not to be judged of by it. But of such men as these I usually demand, whether their own assent to the things they would have us believe, be grounded upon some rational argument, or not? If they say, it is not, they are fools to believe it themselves; and I should add to the number of fools, if after this acknowledgment I should believe them: but if they say they do, I desire them to produce their argument; for since it is framed by a human understanding, the force of it may be also comprehended and judged of by a human understanding: and it is to no purpose to say, that the subject surpasses human reason; for if it do so indeed, it will surpass theirs as well as mine, and so leave us upon even terms. And let the thing assented to be what it will, the assent itself ought to be founded upon a sufficient reason, and consequently upon one, that is intelligible to the human intellect, that is wrought on by it.

Eugen. I WILLINGLY allow, that there is a great difference between the being able and obliged to know the nature or cause of a thing, and the being able to give an intelligible account of the motives, that induce our assent to it; and without such motives, the assent may by chance be given to what is a truth, but that will not hinder it from being an irrational assent.

Timoth. I WAS not ill pleased, *Arnobius*, with the caution you employed in the close of your advice, where, by saying, that the positive proofs you require to evince an assertion about a privileged thing, must be sufficient in their kind, you plainly intimate, that you do not exact rigid demonstrations of such assertions. And indeed it were not reasonable you should; for since it is manifest, that there are many truths, such as historical and political ones, that, by the nature of the things, are not capable of mathematical or metaphysical demonstrations, and yet, being really truths, have a just title to our assent; it must be acknowledged, that a rational assent may be founded upon proofs, that reach not to rigid demonstrations, it being sufficient, that they are strong enough to deserve a wise man's acquiescence in them. And therefore if any things can be made out to be revealed by God, concerning his own nature, or actions, or decrees, we ought firmly to believe them, because that, of some of those things, as his prescience, mercy, &c. we can have no better proofs; and of others, as what he did before our world was made, and what he will do with us after we are dead, we can have no other considerable proofs at all. And the objection made by *Pyrocles* against the assenting to audacious propositions framed by imposing men, will not reach our case: for there is no reason to think, that because an object surpasses an human understanding, it must therefore surpass the divine intellect itself. And even in things, that are transacted in the mind of man himself, I may learn from another, that is not my superior, what I can by no means attain to know, unless he be pleased to discover it to me; as that he was at such a time thinking of the creation of the world, or resolving how to dispose of his son, and what recompence he designs to give a servant, that he has not yet entertained.

Pyrocl. ABOUT things of such a kind as you now mention, *Timotheus*, I shall not dissent from you; because these are things, that though not discoverable by our reason till we be informed of them, are yet clearly knowable by our reason, when we are informed of them. But that there should be things, which though perspicuously proposed, should not be comprehensible by our understanding, is such an affront to that noble faculty, that I confess it has much indisposed me to grant (what I am yet unwilling peremptorily to deny,) that there are, as *Sophronius* would have us think, not only some privileged things, but more than one kind of them; which if we do admit, it will place such narrow limits to our understandings, that we must despair of the desirable knowledge of all, namely that, which is conversant about the noblest and sublimest objects.

Eugen. LEAVING to *Sophronius* the management of a point he has studied, and which I have not now time solemnly to argue; I shall only tell you in general, that I see no necessity, that intelligibility to a human understanding should be necessary to the truth or existence of a thing, any more than that visibility to a human eye should be necessary to the existence of an atom, or of a corpuscle of air, or of effluvia of a loadstone, or the fragrant exhalations of ambergrease, and musk from a perfumed glove. I might here observe, that even by the same sense, some creatures may discern things, that may not be perceptible to others: as no attention or application of the organ (or the nose) will enable a man to perceive the effluvia expiring from the stale footsteps of a hunted and unseen hare or deer, though hounds, and especially blood-hounds, will have a vivid perception of such odours, and by their help trace and pursue the flying and unseen beast. This, I say, may be observed in favour of my present argument; but it will perhaps be a more proper illustration to represent, that the natural incapacity of a child's intellect, to understand the abstruse affections of parabolas, hyperbolas, and the incommensurable lines of a square, hinders not those figures from being contained in *rerum naturâ*, or their affections from being true and demonstrable. And
though

though we do admit some priviledged things in the sense above declared, yet, (to say somewhat to obviate *Pyrocles's* fear) there is no necessity, that we should be interdicted all knowledge of those sublime objects, in which there are many things, whereof, or of their consequences, we must confess ourselves ignorant. Thus elder geometricians knew very well what a rectangular triangle was, when they conceived it to be a figure consisting of three strait lines, two of which comprize a right angle; though probably, for a great while, they did not know so much as all its chief properties or affections: since, for aught appears, before *Pythagoras*, (who offered a hecatomb to the muses in gratitude for their discovery) it was not known, that the square of the hypotenuse is equal to the squares of both the other sides; and much more likely it is, that they were not able to solve those difficulties (that continue to perplex even our age) which attend that endless divisibility of lines, that is inferrible from that equality of the two squares to the single square.

AND besides the inscrutable perfections of God, some of his works are such, that, notwithstanding the compleat knowledge of them surpasses our forces, yet there remain so many things, as well worthy to be known, as possible to be attained by us, that they will allow exercise enough to the wits of all the philosophers in the world. And besides that, as I have been saying, even about these priviledged subjects themselves, divers considerable things may be discovered, if they were altogether impenetrable by our understandings, yet their number is so small, that they would leave a large scope for human knowledge to diffuse and improve itself. For it is not every thing, that is hard to be understood, or contrary to the common rules of probability, that has a right to pass for a priviledged thing; for so the paradoxes about surd quantities, of isoperimetral figures, duplicate and triplicate proportion, and divers, other surprising doctrines, that are capable of mathematical demonstrations, would be priviledged things. Nor are all those worthy of this title, that are by many proposed and embraced as philosophical mysteries; for, such are the Peripatetics substantial forms, which really are not priviledged things, but scholastic chimeras. But though I shall not presume positively to set down the discriminating bounds and signs of priviledged things, yet most, if not all, of them being such, as are either primary in their kind, as God himself, and the things, whose nature flows immediately from him; or else things, that if thoroughly inspected, do necessarily involve the consideration of some kind of *infinitum*; or else are such, that, though in some main questions about them one side must be taken, both sides are encumbered with absurdities: those, I say, being all (or some of them) the usual marks, that belong to priviledged things, you will easily grant, that their number is not near so great as their abstruseness; and that therefore *Pyrocles* and his philosophical friends need not fear to want employment for their curiosity. And for farther answer to his objection, I shall add, that we must regulate our belief by our perceptions, not our wishes; and must not conclude, that because it were desirable for us, that all things were penetrable to our human understandings, there is really nothing that is not so: and we can no more conclude, that we are as knowing as angels, because we wish we were so, than that we are as immortal as they, because we would never die. But as for those few things, that have belonging to them properties so extraordinary, as to make it probable, even at the first sight, that their nature must be very abstruse, and difficult to be fully discovered by us; I hope *Pyrocles* will allow, that things of so heterogeneous a nature may challenge an exemption from some of the rules employed about common things; and that really such rules as I mean, and some also of the vulgar notions, cannot always be safely extended to such subjects, I forbear to shew in this place; only because I would not too long at once interrupt *Arnobius*, and I expect to have a good opportunity to speak again of this subject, before our conference be ended.

Timoth. You may then, I presume, *Arnobius*, as soon as you please, favour us with your second advice.

Arnob. I shall readily obey you, *Timotheus*, by proposing it thus:

The second ADVICE, or RULE.

That we be not hasty to frame negatives about priviledged things, or to reject propositions or explications concerning them; at least, as if they were absurd or impossible.

It is easy to observe in the speculation of natural things themselves, how unsafe it is not only to affirm, but in divers cases also reject opinions, before men have any thing near a competent historical information of what belongs to the subject they take upon them peremptorily to judge of. And therefore it must in reason be thought much more unwary, to be forward to resolve upon negative propositions, about things, which we ourselves acknowledge to be above the reach of human reason, which since they are, it will become us at least to forbear a rude insulting way of rejecting the opinion of learned men, that dissent from us about such things; since the sublimity of the subject should make mistakes about them the more easy to be pardoned, because they are difficult to be avoided; and our own sharing in the disability of penetrating such abstruse things should keep us from being over-confident, that we also may not be mistaken, and incline us to tolerate other mens opinions about matters, wherein we ourselves have but opinion, not science.

Pyrocl. But have not you formerly advised us not to suffer ourselves to be imposed upon by proofless assertions, even about priviledged things?

Arnob. I did so, and do so still: but there is a great deal of difference between believing a proofless affirmation about things, which the affirmer does not know to be true, and framing negative conclusions against opinions, which, for aught we yet clearly know, may be true; and therefore my present advice is very consistent with my former: for here I counsel only, either a suspension of judgment when there appears no proof on either side sufficient to sway the intellect; or such a wary and unprejudiced assent to opinions, that are but faintly probable, that the mind may be ready to receive, without either obstinacy or surprize, any better argument, that shall conclude the contrary of the opinion we favoured before.

Eugen. But methinks it is hard to avoid the framing of conjectures, even about those sublime subjects, concerning which we can frame but conjectures, and those often very slight ones.

Arnob. I CONFESS an absolute suspension of judgment is a very uneasy thing, nor do I strictly require you should entertain no conjectures; but only that we should consider, that we may be easily mistaken in them, and by further information see cause to lay them down, and perhaps exchange them for contrary ones. My thoughts of this matter may be perchance somewhat illustrated, by supposing, that we four were walking in a highway, and discovered, as far off as our eyes could reach, some erected and moving body of human stature; though we should, by its shape and walking, safely enough conclude, that it were no other animal than a man, yet what manner of man he were, as old, or young, handsome, or ugly, we should not be able to discern, and consequently, could have no sufficient ground to determine. And as if I should affirm him to be a young man or handsome, you may justly censure me of rashness; so if, because I cannot prove my conjecture, you should resolutely deny, that he is a young man or handsome, I should think you guilty, though not of an equal, yet of a censurable unwariness, because, for aught you know to the contrary, he may be what I guessed him to be. And though we are naturally so uneasy under fluctuation of mind,

that

that for my part I confess (and it may be you may be subject to the same infirmity) I should scarce forbear resembling in my thoughts the man we speak of to some body or other that I knew; yet I should justly think that conjecture to be very fallible, and both expect, that when I should come to have a nearer and clearer view of him, I might see cause to dismiss my first idea for that, which this new and better prospect would afford me, though it were quite differing from that I had formerly entertained, and should represent him, that my forward thought perhaps resembles to a young man of my acquaintance with black curled hair, and a ruddy complexion, to be pale and wrinkled, with grey hair curled like a pound of candles. The application, I suppose, I may spare.

BUT gentlemen, I would not be understood in the preceding discourse, as if I were against all framing of negative propositions about priviledged things; my design being but to dissuade from hasty ones: for sometimes it is much more easy and safe to deny things, than to affirm them to belong to a subject that surpasses our reason. And the observation may be of use, especially in two cases; one, when the negative we assert is grounded not upon axioms taken from the usual course of nature, or upon propositions dubious, or remote from the first principles of knowledge, but upon either catholic and metaphysical axioms, or else upon truths manifestly flowing from some clear, though inadequate, notion we have of the nature of the things we treat of. The other case is, when we have a clear and sufficient proof by revelation, or otherwise, of the positive attributes of the things we contemplate; for then we may safely deny of that subject any other thing, that is really inconsistent with that positive attribute. Upon which account it is, that though we do not fully comprehend what God is, yet knowing by the clear light of nature (and if we be Christians) believing it upon the account of revelation, that he is a being intelligent and infinitely perfect, we may safely deny against *Epicurus*, *Vorstius*, and Mr. *Hobbes*, that he is a corporeal substance, as also that he is mortal, or corruptible.

Pyrocl. I SHALL not trouble you, *Arnobius*, to enlarge upon your last advice, but willingly receive the favour of your next.

Arnob. WHICH shall be this:

The third ADVICE, or RULE.

That a matter of fact, or other truth, about priviledged things, being proved by arguments competent in their kind, we ought not to deny it merely because we cannot explain, or perhaps so much as conceive, the modus of it.

It is no very difficult task to justify this advice; but I may do it the better, if you give me leave to frame and premise a distinction, for want of which I have observed a want of clearness in several discourses, where the term *modus* has been employed: for sometimes we would deny so much as a possibility, that one thing can belong to, or be truly said of another; as when we say, we understand not how one creature can create another; or how there can be a line, that is neither straight nor crooked; or a finite (whole) number, that is neither even nor odd. But most commonly we mean, by our not understanding the *modus* of a thing, that we do not clearly and distinctly conceive, after what manner the property or other attribute of a subject belongs to it, or performs its operations. The first kind of *modus* may, for distinction sake, be called a possible *modus*; and the other, an actual *modus*. Now in both the foregoing acceptions of the term *modus*, we may find instances fit for our present purpose. For we cannot imagine, how a short line, or other finite quantity can be endlessly divisible, or (on the contrary) how infinite parts should make but a finite total: and yet geometry constrains

us to admit, that it is so. But though there be but few instances of this kind, yet of the other sort of our nescience of the modus of things, there may be found more instances than we could wish there were; for even in natural and corporeal things, the eager disputes of the acuteſt philosophers, and the ingenious confessions of the moſt judicious and moderate, ſufficiently manifeſt, that as yet we know not the manner of operating, whereby ſeveral bodies perform what we well know they bring to paſs. And not to enter into thoſe nice and tedious diſputes of the cauſe of the coheſion of the parts of matter in the ſmalleſt, moſt principal, and moſt primary bodies, perhaps without going out of ourſelves, the way, whereby the rational ſoul can exerciſe any power over the human body, and the way, whereby the underſtanding and the will act upon one another, have not yet been intelligibly explained by any. And the like I may ſay of the phænomena of the memory, eſpecially in thoſe, in whom that faculty is eminent. For it is a thing much more fit to be admired, than eaſy to be conceived, how in ſo narrow a compaſs, as part of a human brain, there ſhould be ſo many thouſand diſtinct cells, or impreſſions, as are requiſite to harbour the characters or ſignatures of many languages, each of them conſiſting of many thouſand differing words, beſides the images or models of ſo many thouſand faces, ſchemes, buildings, and other ſenſible objects, and the ideas of ſo many thouſand notions and thoughts, and the diſtinct footſteps of almoſt innumerable multitudes of other things: and how all theſe ſhall, in ſo narrow a compaſs, have ſuch deep and laſting impreſſions made for them, and be oftentimes lodged ſo exactly in the order, wherein they were at firſt committed to the memory, (and that perhaps many years before) that upon a ſudden command of the will, or a ſlight casual hint, a whole ſet of words, things, and circumſtances, will in a trice, as it were, ſtart up and preſent themſelves even in the very ſeries, order, and manner, that ſo long before belonged to them. And I doubt not, but that beſides thoſe abſtruſe things about the modus, of which the more candid philoſophers have confeſſed their ignorance, that there would many others have been taken notice of, if we did but as ſeriously and impartially enquire into the nature of all the things we are pleaſed to think we know. And when I reflect on the yet depending diſputes, between philoſophers and mathematicians, about the nature of place and local motion, which are things ſo obvious and familiar to us, I ſhould, though I had no other inducements, be inclined to think, that we ſhould find difficulties enough in many other ſubjects, wherein we do not now take notice of any, if we particularly ſtudied their nature; and that our acquieſcence in what we have learned about many things proceeds not from our knowledge of their nature, but from our having exerciſed leſs curioſity and attention in conſidering it.

AND if in things corporeal, that are the familiar objects of our ſenſes, we are often reduced to confeſs our ignorance of the modes of their exiſting or operating, I hope it will not be denied, that to a being wholly unapproachable by our ſenſes, natural theology may be allowed to aſcribe ſome things, whoſe modus is not attainable by our underſtanding: as the divine preſcience of future contingents, which as it were impious to deny, as to the truth of the thing, ſo I fear it is impoſſible to explicate, as to the modus of it.

Eugen. If it were at this time proper for me to meddle with things of that kind, I ſhould not much ſcruple to ſay in favour of the Chriſtian religion, that divers tenets, granted both by Chriſtians, Jews, and Heathens, as parts of natural theology, to me ſeem as difficult to be conceived, as divers of thoſe myſteries, that for their unintelligibility are fiercely oppoſed in revealed theology. I will not take upon me to judge of others; but, for my part, I confeſs, I do not much better underſtand, how an intellect, and a will, and affections, are diſtinctly exiſtent in God, in ſuch ſort as they
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are wont to be attributed to him, than how in him there can be a Trinity, stated, not as some schoolmen explicate, or rather darken it, but as the gospel delivers it. I can as little explain by any thing in nature, how God, who is an immaterial substance, can move matter, as how he can create it: nor would it at all satisfy me to tell me, that a rational soul moves a human body; for I do not allow, that it gives any motion to the body, but only guides that, which other agents have put the parts of it into. And though it did produce motion in the body, my scruple would yet remain; for the Cartesians themselves confess, that the power the soul has of so much as determining the motion of the body belongs to it, not upon any physical account, but by the particular appointment and immediate power of God, who would have that power one of the conditions or properties of the union of the soul and body. So that to me, who desire to have it explained, how an immaterial substance can move matter, and consequently, how God can do it, it will be no satisfaction to say, that the rational soul can move the body it is joined to, since that power is referred merely to God's appointment: and the question is, how God himself can be conceived to move matter.

Arnob. I know not, whether upon the same grounds, which I do not disallow, I may not add, that whereas by many it is looked upon as an inconceivable thing, that God should see mens thoughts, to me it appears as little intelligible, how he can know their outward actions: for since we have no way of discerning the particular motions of mens bodies, but by some of our senses, especially our sight; and since those sensations themselves necessarily require organs duly constituted, that is, made up of divers parts, framed and joined after such a determinate manner, I see not how we can explain the perception of visible objects without an eye, or so much as any corporeal organ, or substance; especially since it is, and that very justly, asserted, that the deity is not united to any portion of matter, as the human soul. And to these instances others to the same purpose might be added, but that I think it fitter to mind you, that of those already mentioned amongst us there are some, that I presume you will judge referable to that, which I lately called a possible *modus*; since, it seems, *toto genere*, as they speak, inexplicable, how the attribute exists in the subject, and after what manner the cause can produce the effect ascribed to it.

Timoth. I know you too well, gentlemen, to suspect, you mean by this, to deny to God either the power of moving matter, or that of perceiving all its motions.

Arnob. You may well take that for granted; and you may remember, that to prevent mistakes, I was careful, in proposing my advice, to except those things, for which there is some positive proof competent in its kind.

Pyrocl. ONE may then, without surprising you, ask what kind of proofs those may be?

Arnob. A FULL answer to that question would take up too much of that little time, that is allowed us, before it grow dark, to go thorough the advices, that yet remain unspoken of. But yet to comply with you, as far as my haste will permit, I shall name two or three kinds of positive proofs, that may be employed on such occasions as we speak of. And first, if there be an effect, that we discern must proceed from such a cause, or agent, we may conclude, that such a cause there is, though we do not particularly conceive, how, or by what operation it is able to produce the acknowledged effect. Thus, though a man, otherwise of a good judgment, being wholly a stranger to the mathematics, cannot conceive how a skilful astronomer can many years beforehand foretell eclipses to a day and hour, and perhaps to a few minutes; yet when the success does, as it often happens, verify such predictions, he will be satisfied, that the maker of them had the skill to foreknow the things foretold in them. And so the generality of learned men among us, who are not so much acquainted with that part

of navigation, which some moderns have by a Greek name called *Limen-Euretica*, or the art of steering to harbours, cannot well conceive, how a ship, that is, for instance, in the vast Atlantick ocean above a thousand miles from any shore, should be so directed, as to arrive just at a little harbour not cannon shot over, which perhaps neither the pilot, nor any other in the ship ever saw. And yet as little as we can distinctly conceive, how such an art of finding ports can be framed, we scruple not to allow there is such an one, because navigators to the *East* and *West-Indies* could not without the guidance of such an art find the remotest ports they are bound for.

A SECOND sort there is of positive proofs, consisting of those consequences, that are clearly and legitimately inferred from any manifest acknowledged, or already demonstrated truth. To this sort belong divers mathematical propositions and corollaries, which though being nakedly proposed they seem incredible to the generality of learned men, and sometimes to mathematicians themselves, are yet fully assented to, because they clearly follow from either manifested or demonstrated truths. Thus many cannot conceive, how it is possible there may be a million, for instance, of circles, (or as many more as you please) whose circumferences shall each of them come nearer and nearer to one another, and to a strait line assigned, and yet none of them either touch, much less cut, either any other circle, or that line, but in one and the same point. And yet this is one of the odd propositions, that geometers have rightly deduced as corollaries from the sixteenth of *Euclid's* third element. And though we cannot clearly conceive, how two lines, that at their remotest ends are but little distant from each other, should perpetually incline towards each other without ever concurring; yet geometricians, that is, the rigidest reasoners that we know of, have been compelled to admit this in the *Linea Conchoides* of *Nicomedes*, to name no more. But though, (not to touch the same strings too often) I thought fit to mention these instances, yet whether you judge them sufficient or no, you will allow that, which may be taken from the endless divisibility of a line: for though, if I mis-remember not, *Sophronius* told me, he took notice to you, how unable we are to have satisfactory apprehension, how a short line as well as a long can be divided into more and more parts, without any stop; yet geometricians generally admit this, because it may be clearly deduced from some geometrical truths, and particularly from the incommensurableness of the side and diagonal of a square. And if you will allow me to have once more recourse to divine prescience, I may add another acknowledged instance, by representing, that philosophers have admitted that, because they judged it clearly to follow from the infinite perfections of God; though, how he can foresee contingency, the most judicious and modest of them did not pretend their reason was able to conceive.

Timoth. To these two kinds of positive proofs mentioned by *Arnobius*, I doubt not but he will give me leave to add divine revelations, if competently attested ones can be produced; and therefore I will not, by going about to evince this, spend any of the time he reserves for the remaining rules, to which he may, for me, advance as soon as he thinks fit.

Arnob. I ACCEPT the liberty you offer me, *Timotheus*, to proceed to my next advice; which is this.

The fourth ADVICE, or RULE.

That when we treat of priviledged subjects, we are not bound always to think every thing false, that seems to thwart some received dictate of reason.

As great a paradox as this may at first blush, appear, yet it will need little more to make it out, than the application of some things, already delivered on occasion of the two foregoing advices, of which this is indeed little more than a corollary. For it being evident,

evident, that as a great part of the dictates of reason are negative, so negative propositions do usually spring from the repugnancy we judge that some things have to some positive dictate of reason; if those positive dictates contain but gradual and limited truths, (to borrow *Sophronius's* terms) and come to be unduly extended to privileged subjects, it may very possibly happen, that a thing may be really true, that yet must appear false, if it be judged of by its congruity to one of those limited and but respective dictates of reason. It is also clear, that not only in philosophy, but natural (as well as revealed) theology, the usual ground, on which we reject many things, is, that we judge them unintelligible. And I censure not the practice in general, but I think it may easily mislead us, when it is extended to things, that we may discern to transcend our reason, as, for aught yet appears, some of the moduses, even of things corporeal, are found to do. And we think we have made complete enumerations of the several ways of inexistence of an attribute in a subject, or of the operation of one thing upon another, when indeed we have overlooked one or other, and perhaps that, which we have thus pretermitted, may be the true one; though it may be also, that no attention and diligence of ours could, in some cases, have served our turn, the modus inquired after being not conceivable to us, though it may be to a higher than a human intellect.

Pyroc. THE school-philosophers for many ages, in the catalogues they made of the ways of a body's working upon another at a distance, did not think of the true ways, by which odours and sounds are communicated to us; and therefore had recourse to certain unintelligible things, which they were pleased to call *species intentionales*. Whereas those modern naturalists, that philosophize freely, acknowledge, that odours are communicated by effluvia, exhaling from the odorous body, and fitted to affect our nostrils; and sounds are transmitted to the ear by the undulating motion, which the air is put into by the impulse of the vibrating, or otherwise agitated parts of the sonorous body.

Timoth. METHINKS we need not go out of ourselves to find instances of both the parts of what *Arnobius* was last saying, if we admit, as I question not but we rationally may, this tenet of the generality of philosophers, both ancient and modern, that the reasonable soul is an immaterial substance: for then, whereas men think they have sufficiently enumerated the ways of determining the motion of a body, by saying, that the determination must be made, either in the line, wherein the impellent, that put it into motion, made it move, or in the line, wherein it was determined to move by the situation of the resisting body, that it met with in its way; the motions of the animal spirits, if not also some other internal parts of the body, may, the body being duly disposed, be determined by the human will; which is a way quite differing from the other. And how this attribute, I mean the power of determining the motion of a body, without any power to impart motion to that body, should belong to an immaterial creature, which has no corporeal parts to resist the free passage of a body, and thereby change the line of its motion, is not yet, nor perhaps ever will be in this life, clearly conceived by us men; though there is no doubt, but that he, who endowed the soul with this attribute or power, perfectly understands, both how it exists in the soul, and how the soul, by exerting it, operates on the body.

Pyroc. BUT can any thing seem more unreasonable, than to embrace opinions, that contradict the rules of reason? which practice, if it be once allowed, why should we trouble ourselves to investigate what is congruous or incongruous to reason, since the making a discovery, that an opinion is repugnant to it, will not assure us of that opinion's being false?

Arnob. A PERSON less knowing and equitable than *Pyrocles* would have spared this double objection, if he had remembered what hath been formerly said, applicable to
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our present purpose, and what kind of things there are, that we are discoursing of. But to remind him a little of them, I shall desire him to consider with me, that I no way disallow the rejecting of opinions, that are found contrary to those rules of reason, at the framing of which the things opined about were duly taken into consideration: but in cases not thought on when such rules were devised, we are not always bound to submit to be judged by them; and to maintain an opinion unconformable to such a rule, may be not to oppose a genuine and absolute dictate of reason, but to rectify one, that is erroneously thought so, by shewing, that the rule is expressed in more catholick and indefinite terms than it ought to have been. And of two opinions, you will not deny, that that is the most rational, that is most agreeable to those rules of reason, that are framed upon the fullest information.

Eugen. It is not difficult to gather from what you have said, *Arnobius*, that in the rule you proposed to us, very few of the cases, that occur in ordinary discourse, or even in that of philosophers, will be at all concerned. And in these few cases wherein you intend the rule should take place, you are careful to obviate inconveniences by a double caution. The first, that you suppose, that the opinion, that claims an exemption from the common rules, is not an arbitrary or precarious tenet, but sufficiently made out by proper arguments. And the second, by declaring, that it is not to contradict right reason, but bad reasoners, to give limitation to rules, that have been too hastily framed and conceived in too general terms, by men, who either were not competently informed of the variety of particulars, when they took upon them to make analyses and enumerations; or else presumed to infer, that a thing was not, because they did not understand the modus of its existence or operation.

Arnob. You take my sense right, *Eugenius*, and I have often thought, that the causes of the great clamor, that is made against some men, for not obsequiously submitting to what some others call the rules of reason, are, that men do not sufficiently understand the nature of things, and themselves, but entertain too narrow conceptions of the former, and too high an opinion of the latter.

Pyroc. THE dictates of reason being the surest, if not the only safe rules, that nature have given us to frame our discourses and ratiocinations by, I confess I am, though not fully resolved, yet very unwilling to allow any conclusion, that is not conformable to them; or to admit, that any thing should be so highly privileged as to be exempted from the jurisdiction of reason, whose genuine declarations they are.

Eugen. THIS objection, *Pyrocles*, seems to me to be grounded rather upon an ambiguity of terms, than the true nature of things. For reason is oftentimes taken for a set of notions and propositions, employed and acquiesced in by this, or that, sort of reasoners, that are wont to have names given them, from this or that particular discipline, as astronomy, chymistry, opticks, &c. of whose received doctrines they are supposed to be entirely maintainers. But it is also with, at least, as much propriety used to signify the rational faculty itself, furnished with the light, that accompanies it, when it is rightly disposed and informed. In the first of these two senses it seems but reasonable to allow, that some things ought to have the privilege to be exempted from being judged by some of the same rules, that are employed to judge of other things by; for some of these rules were framed upon a slight consideration of common and familiar things, either by the vulgar, or by men, that for want of skill, or application of mind, did not critically consider the distinct natures of things, and yet presumed to settle rules, that other mens inadvertence, or laziness, has made them receive for certain dictates of reason: whereas other natures should have been then considered, as well as those; and by reason of their not having been so, the rules, I speak of, are not always proper and safe when they are applied to these overlooked natures. Thus

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successive beings, as time and local motion, do, in some cases, require to be estimated by other measures than substances, whether material, or incorporeal. And so also the more nice metaphysicians, especially among the moderns, have thought themselves obliged to discourse of modes, relations, privations, extrinsecal denominations, &c. in a very differing way from that which belongs to bodies and spirits; though the unskilful (even among otherwise learned men) have been wont, and still are apt, to confound all these subjects, by applying to them indiscriminately the same rules, or, as they think them, dictates of reason.

BUT, besides what may be said of these long unregarded, or undistinguished natures, there are other entities, that are more generally and familiarly taken notice of, wherein I may think one may find instances more applicable to my present purpose. For I observe, that though all other actual beings are compounded (to speak in the language of the schools) of essence and existence; yet, according to the notion of metaphysicians, as well as divines, it must be acknowledged, that the simplicity of the Divine Nature is such, as to exclude from God even this kind of composition. And indeed the notion we have of a being infinitely perfect, imports, that, though in no other being, yet in this those two are inseparable; for actual existence, being a perfection, must needs belong to the nature of a being infinitely perfect. The generality of philosophers, after *Aristotle*, conceive place to be the immoveable and immediately contiguous concave surface of the ambient body, so that it is a kind of vessel, that every way contains the body lodged in it; but with this difference, that a vessel is a kind of moveable place, as when a bottle of wine is carried from the cellar to the table; but place is an immoveable vessel, or a vessel considered as immoveable. Now, supposing with *Aristotle*, and the generality of philosophers, the plenitude of the world, it may be truly said, that all plants, animals, minerals, stars, and other bodies, are each of them in such an Aristotelian place as has been described; whence it has been usually said by philosophers, that what is in no place (I hope they meant it only of bodies) is not at all: yet it appears not, how the outermost heaven, whether that be the firmament, or no, I need not here inquire, can be properly said to be in a place, since these philosophers asserting the world to be finite, must grant there is no ambient body without it to contain it. And I shall add, on this occasion, that if the outermost heaven should be impelled, by the irresistible power of God, in a straight line, this way, or that way, there should ensue a motion without change of place, for the outermost heaven was in none before, and does not, by its progression, come to be contained by a new ambient body. And, in this case, even according to those modern favourers of *Aristotle*, that approve *Des Cartes's* definition of local motion, (which indeed is far more intelligible than *Aristotle's*) the world may be said to move without changing of place; for it does not pass from the neighbourhood of some bodies to that of others, since comprising all bodies, and yet being bounded, there is no body for it to leave behind, nor any beyond it for it to approach to. And though the Cartesians in their hypothesis of the indefiniteness of the world, do partly avoid the force of what I have been saying; yet, besides what may be rationally urged to shew, that if the world be not more than indefinite, it must be really finite, I consider, that the Cartesians, though upon grounds of their own, must allow what I was observing; namely, that though every particular body in the universe is naturally capable of local motion, yet the universe itself is not; and though every particular body in the world have some determinate figure, yet the world itself, being indefinite, has not so.

WHEREAS *Aristotle*, and the philosophers, that have lived since his time, have generally admitted the division established by him of all entities, into substance, and accident, and accommodated their rules to one of them, or both; the learned *Gassendus*,
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and his followers, have introduced a third sort of things, as not being either substances, or accidents; and these, if you will admit, you will, I presume, admit too, that they may be privileged from their rules calculated for other natures. Of this kind of things the Gassendists make place or space to be; for they will not allow it to be a substance, because it is neither body, nor spirit, but only somewhat, that has a capacity to receive or contain bodies, and would subsist, though God should annihilate all the substances he has created. And for the same reason it is not to be called an accident, since that necessarily requires a substance to reside in (according to that received axiom) *accidentis esse, est inesse*; whereas in case of the annihilation of the world itself, and consequently all substances that compose it, their place or space would still remain, and be capable of admitting a new world of the same extent, if God should be pleased to create it: whence *Gassendus* wittily infers, that bodies are rather accidental in respect of place, than space in respect of bodies. But without staying to examine this paradox, I shall venture to say in general, that he who shall, with an heedful and unprejudiced eye, survey the several hypotheses, or systems, maintained by the different sects of philosophers, may find, that though the instances will not be all of them the same, there is none of these systems, in which one may not observe something or other, to which every one of the rules, that reach to the other subjects treated of in that philosophy, cannot safely be applied. And indeed the mind of man being naturally far more desirous to know much, than to take the pains requisite to examine, whether he does so or not, is very prone to think, that any small number of things, that it has not distinctly considered, must be of the same nature and condition with the rest, that he judges to be of the same kind. For by thus attaining to the knowledge of things, by way of inference, the mind gratifies, at once, both its vanity, and its laziness; looking upon these conclusions, as marks of the excellency of its rational faculty, whilst they rather proceed from a want of the due exercise of it.

Pyroc. But if the received dictates of reason be not always safe grounds to proceed upon in our discourse, I would gladly know, by what rules we shall judge of those rules, and discover them to be erroneous in case they be so; and by what measures we shall estimate truth and falshood, in those things, wherein the use of those rules must be laid aside.

Arnob. Your double objection, *Pyrocles*, I confess to be weighty enough to deserve a considerate answer; and to give you the sum of mine, in few words, I shall tell you, that, in my opinion, since there is no progress in *infinitum* in the criteria of truth, and that our faculties are the best instruments, that God has given us to discover and to examine it by; I think a clear light, or evidence of perception, shining in the understanding, affords us the greatest assurance we can have (I mean in a natural way) of the truth of the judgments we pass upon things, whether they be other things, or the vulgar rules of reasoning, or subjects, that claim a privilege from those rules.

AND here give me leave to consider, that it is not by induction, but by evidence, that we know, that *ex vero nil nisi verum sequitur*. By which it appears, that the innate light of the rational faculty is more primary, than the very rules of reasoning, since, by that light, we judge even of the lately mentioned axiom, which is itself the grand principle of ratiocinations made by inference.

Eugen. This matter may be, perchance, somewhat illustrated, by observing, that as the understanding is wont to be looked upon as the eye of the mind, so there is this analogy between them, that there are some things, that the eye may discern (and does judge of) organically, if I may so speak, that is, by the help of instruments: as when it judges of a line to be straight, by the application of a ruler to it, or to be perpendicular, by the help of a plumb-line, or a circle to be perfect, by the help of a pair
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of compasses. But there are other things, which the eye does perceive (and judge of) immediately and by intuition, and without the help of organs or instruments; as when, by the bare evidence of the perception, it knows, that this colour is red, and that other blue, and that snow is white, not black, and a charcoal black, not white; and such a picture is very like, or another unlike to the face it was drawn to represent. For thus there are some things, that the intellect usually judges of in a kind of organical way, that is, by the help of certain rules, or hypotheses, such as are a great part of the theorems and conclusions in philosophy and divinity. But there are others, which it knows, without the help of these rules, more immediately, and, as it were, intuitively, by evidence of perception; by which way we know many prime notions and *effata*, or axioms metaphysical, &c. as, that contradictory propositions cannot both be true; that from truth nothing but truth can legitimately be deduced; that two things, that are each of them equal to a third thing, are equal to one another; that a whole number is either even or odd. And it is also upon this evidence of perception, that we receive with an undoubted assent many primitive ideas and notions, such as those of extended substance or body, divisibility, or local motion, a straight line, a circle, a right angle, and many other things, that it would be here superfluous to mention.

Arnob. I think the internal light, that the Author of Nature has set up in man's intellect, qualifies him, if he makes a right use of it, not only to apply the instruments of knowledge, but also to frame and to examine them. For, by the help of this light, the understanding is enabled to look about, and both to consider apart, and compare together, the natures of all kinds of things, without being necessitated to employ in its speculations the rules or dictates of any particular science or discipline, being sufficiently assisted by its own light, and those general axioms and notions, that are of a catholic nature, and perpetual truth, and so of a higher order, than the dictates or rules of any particular or subordinate science or art. And by these means the understanding may perceive the imperfection and falsity of such rules or theorems, as those men, that look no higher, nor no further than their own particular science or art, embrace for certain and unquestionable. Thus when philosophers observed, that they could frame a clear notion of a thing, without considering, whether it were actually in being or not; or, even when they suppose, that it is not actually in being, as we can frame a clear conception of a rose in winter, when there are none to be found growing, and have a clear notion of a myriagon, though it is very like there is no such figure really existent in the world: they have generally concluded, that the essence of things is differing and separable from their existence. And yet, when we consider that God is a being infinitely perfect, and that actual existence being a perfection, must belong to him, we may, by the same light of reason, that dictated essence and existence to be two separable things in all other beings, discern, that they must be inseparable in God; and consequently that the fore-mentioned rule, though more general than almost any other, is not absolutely universal, but must be limited by the light of reason. And thus also philosophers considering, that not only all sorts of bodies, but the immaterial souls of men, (and angels themselves, supposing such beings) are all endowed with quantities, which are accidents, have included it in the very notion of a substance, to be the subject of accidents, or, as the schoolmen speak, *substare accidentibus*; and accordingly *substantia* is wont to be derived à *substando*: but the intranced intellect finding in itself a notion of an absolutely perfect, and therefore existent being; and considering, that to be the subject of accidents is not a thing agreeable to the highest perfection possible, it concludes, that in God there are no accidents. And this conclusion has been embraced as a part, not only of Christian, but of natural theology, and maintained by divers philosophers themselves, upon metaphysical and other merely rational grounds. In short, the native light of the mind may enable a man, that will make a free and industrious use of it, both to

pass a right judgment of the extent of those very dictates, that are commonly taken for rules of reason, and to frame others on purpose for privileged things, so far forth as they are so. But I fear, gentlemen, the fourth advice I have ventured to offer you, has, by its tediousness, made you justly impatient of being detained by it so long; and therefore I shall advance to the fifth, which imports,

The fifth ADVICE, or RULE.

That where privileged things are concerned, we are not always bound to reject every thing, as false, that we know not how to reconcile with some thing, that is true.

Pyrocl. You may call this an advice, but I doubt others will stile it a paradox, and possibly think it one of the greatest, that ever was broached.

Arnob. YET perhaps you will find by and by, that it may be in great part made good by what has been already discoursed, and by you admitted. I think it will not be doubted, but that there are, or may be conceived straight lines, whereof one is a hundred or a thousand times longer than another. It is also generally granted, that a longer line consists of, or may afford, more parts than a shorter; for a line equal to the shorter being taken out of the longer, and consequently just as divisible as it is, there will remain of the longer line another line, perhaps many times exceeding the shorter line. And lastly, it is generally acknowledged, that no number can be greater than infinite; since if the lesser number were capable of accession (as it must be, if it fall short of another number) it would need that accession (or a greater) to make it infinite, which yet it is supposed to be already.

Pyrocl. I see not yet, to what all this may tend.

Arnob. You will quickly perceive it, when I shall have desired you to reconcile these propositions with the demonstrations of geometers of the endless divisibility of all straight lines; whence they deduce, that though they be very unequal among themselves, yet the shortest of them contains, or may afford, infinite parts.

Pyrocl. BUT is there any thing more clear to human understanding, or more supposed in almost all our ratiocinations, than that two truths cannot be contradictory to each other?

Arnob. THOUGH I am far from affirming, that one truth can really contradict another truth; yet I think that, which is but a gradual or limited truth, may in some few cases not be reconcileable by us to an absolute and universal truth. For, I think we may (with *Sophronius*) distinguish those propositions we call true, into axioms metaphysical, or universal, that hold in all cases without reservation; and axioms collected or emergent; by which I mean such as result from comparing together many particulars, that agree in something, that is common to them all. And some of these, though they be so general, that in the usual subjects of our ratiocinations they admit of no exceptions, yet may not be absolutely and unlimitedly true; of which I know not whether I formerly gave you an instance, even in that axiom, which (almost) all merely natural philosophers have supposed and built on, that *ex nihilo nihil fit*, which, though at least one of the highest of gradual or collected truths, may yet be not universally true, since, for aught we know, God, that is acknowledged to be a being, that is infinitely perfect, may have, and may have exercised, the power of creating. And in such case as this, not to be able to reconcile a truth, concerning a privileged thing, with a proposition that generally passes for true, (and in other cases is so indeed) will not presently oblige us to reject either proposition as false, but sometimes, without destroying either, only to give one of them a due limitation, and restrain it to those sorts of things, on which it was at first grounded, and to which it was, because of man's ignorance, or inconsiderateness, that it was not at first confined. And if the miracles vouchsafed either for the Christian, or for any other religion, be any of them granted to

to be true; (as almost all mankind agrees in believing in general, that there have been true miracles;) it cannot well be denied, but that physical propositions are but limited, and such as I called collected truths, being gathered from the settled phenomena of nature, and are liable to this limitation or exception, that they are true, where the irresistible power of God, or some other supernatural agent, is not interposed to alter the course of nature.

Pyrocl. But do you think there are no inconsistent propositions, that you would call truths, wherein you cannot shew, that one of them is but a gradual or emergent truth?

Arnob. It is one thing to enquire, whether men have yet discerned, or I am able to make out, that one of the propositions you speak of is but a limited truth; and another, to enquire, whether, speaking absolutely and universally, it may to any intellect appear to be no more than such. For first I consider, that the reason, why we judge things to be repugnant, being, that the notions or ideas we have of them seem to us inconsistent; if either of these notions be wrong framed, or be judged of by an unfit rule, we may think those propositions to be contradictory that really are not so; as, if you heedfully mark it, you shall find, that those, that are wont to employ their imaginations about things, that are the proper objects of the intellect, are apt to pronounce things to be unconceivable, only because they find them unimaginable; as if the fancy and the intellect were faculties of the same extent: upon which account some have so grossly erred, as to deny all immaterial substances, and chose rather so far to degrade the deity itself, as to impute to it a corporeal nature, than to allow any thing to have a being, that is not comprehensible by their imagination, which themselves acknowledge to be but a corporeal faculty. But besides this mistake of things repugnant, which arises from the mis-application or mis-management of our discerning faculties; I consider in the next place, that there may be another, that proceeds from the imperfection and limitedness of our understanding, which being unable to judge of privileged things at the same rate that it does of other objects, may sometimes be unable to discover that reconcileableness, that a more illuminated and penetrating faculty may discern. This may be illustrated by what usually happens at sea, (for there mens prospect is the most free) when looking towards the main, the sky and the waters seem to meet at the edge of the (sensible) horizon, though indeed they are as far distant as heaven is from earth; and on the other side, if you skilfully mix together the dry and fine powder of orpiment and that of indico, you will produce a green colour, as is known to painters, and the eye takes notice but of an uniform mixture, in which it sees neither blue nor yellow: but if (as experience shews) you look on this mixture with a very good microscope, the emergent colour will disappear, and you will plainly see, instead of it, blue and yellow grains of the powders distinct from one another. Which instances may serve to shew the imbecility of our visive faculty; and the latter of them may teach us, that a thing may appear one and differing, as it is looked upon by a more or less discerning sight. But an instance more home to our present purpose may be afforded by yellow diamonds, which, because of their colour, not only other men, but the generality of goldsmiths (in whose error I have sometimes shared) take to be counterfeit gems, or at best but right topazes; whereas very skilful lapidaries will by sure signs discover and acknowledge them to be true diamonds, notwithstanding their seeming difference from unquestioned ones, and account them to be of the same nature with that noblest kind of jewels. Whence we may learn, that a more skilful judge may discern an agreement in things, that almost all other men think they see manifestly to be of distant natures.

Eugen. GIVE me leave, gentlemen, to say on this occasion, that I have several times observed, that men judge some things to be irreconcilable, not only when they are both of them represented to the understanding in the form of propositions; but when one of them is but a notion, or a current definition. For divers of these notions do

contain in them a proposition, or are equivalent to it; as when a circle is defined to be a figure contained in a line, all whose parts are equally distant from the middlemost point or center, this definition contains an affirmation of the essential property of a circle, and by the generality of geometricians is therefore discriminated from that conic section, which they call an ellipsis, though that be also a figure terminated by one curve line.

* See his
treatise de
Sectibus
Conicis.

AND because you are versed in mathematicks, I shall on this occasion shew you by a geometrical instance, that if a man have not genuine and adequate notions of the things he judges of, he may confidently, and even upon very probable grounds, judge things to be inconsistent, that in reality are not so. For if an ordinary cultivator of mathematical disciplines should hear one man say, that such a figure is an ellipsis, and another affirm it to be a circle, he would think their assertions to be inconsistent, having his mind prepossessed with an ellipsis being a conical section, whose properties must therefore (he supposes) be very differing from those of a circle; whereas such wary geometricians as the learned Dr. *Wallis* * will tell him, that the vulgar notions of conic sections are not adequate to the figures producible by them: for when a right cone is cut quite through by an inclining plane, the figure produced by the section agrees well with the received notion of an ellipsis, in which the diameters are of unequal length; yet if the plane cut the cone parallel to the basis, that conic section will be a true circle, having all its diameters equal.

It is indeed an uncommon and unheeded account, but such an one, upon which I have observed not only logicians, but philosophers themselves, to err about judging things reconcileable or inconsistent; that if a man be not sufficiently acquainted with the nature of any of the two things under consideration, (and much more if he be ignorant of, or mistaken about both) he may think there is a contradiction between things, wherein a superior, or more piercing intellect, may discern a consistency: for taking it for granted, that he knows one thing to be a truth, if some other thing be affirmed to be so, which he has not understanding or skill enough to see how to reconcile to it; it is no wonder, that how well soever this may be evinced, he should as little know how to admit, as how to reject it. This may be partly illustrated, and partly proved by instances, drawn from the mathematicks themselves: for a novice in arithmetic, for example, finding that, according to his rules, there is not one mean proportional number between 4 and 32, will scarce be able to reconcile that proposition to this other, that there are two mean proportionals between the mentioned numbers; for he may with great appearance of reason ask, how, if there be not so much as one mean proportional, there can be two? Whereas those, that are acquainted with the nature of ranks or series of numbers proceeding in geometrical proportion, will easily discern, that between those two recited, both the number 8, and the number 16, are mean proportionals.

Timoth. THOUGH I disallow not your instance, *Eugenius*, yet I shall be willing to hear one or two others of a less abstracted nature.

Eugen. To obey you, *Timotheus*, I shall add, that if an old school philosopher, or a mathematician, not acquainted with the latter discoveries made by telescopes, should hear one man say, that the moon is the most enlightned, when she appears full to us; and another affirm, that she is more enlightned at the new moon than at the full, he would readily conclude, upon the supposition (which he makes no doubt of) that the moon receives all her light immediately from the sun, that the affirmation of the latter (astronomer) cannot be true; which yet he would not conclude, if he knew (what is discovered by telescopes) that the moon is as well enlightned by the earth, as the earth by the moon; whereas at the full she receives but those beams, that come to her directly from the sun, at the change she receives both them in that part of her body that is

enlightned

obverted to him, and those other beams of his, that are reflected from the terrestrial globe to that part of the moon that is nearest to us.

AND to the foregoing instance I shall add one more, that seems apposite enough to *Arnobius's* purpose, and it is, that before *Pythagoras*, not only the vulgar of the Greeks, but their philosophers and mathematicians too, observing oftentimes, that a bright star preceded the rising sun, and that frequently also (on other days) after sun-set, another star appeared, that was none of the fixed ones; they confidently concluded from the so distant times of apparition, that the sun was attended by two differing stars, to which accordingly they gave two differing names: but *Pythagoras*, who was a far better astronomer (as may be guessed, among other things, by his maintaining in those early times the motion of the earth about the sun) undertook to disabuse them, and effected it. Now if one, that had observed *Venus* only in the mornings, should have affirmed, that besides the six known planets, there was but a seventh (namely the phosphorus) which preceded the rising sun; and another, (that had taken notice of her only in the evenings) should assert, that besides the same six known ones, the only seventh was that called *Hesperus*, which sometimes appeared after his setting; a by-stander would presently have concluded, that their assertions were not reconcilable, either to one another, or to the truth, which (in his judgment) was, that there must be no less than eight visible planets: and yet *Pythagoras*, who had more skill, and more piercing wit, did, (as was lately noted) discern and teach, that these two phenomena were produced by one and the same planet *Venus*, determined by its peculiar motion (about the sun) to shew itself near our horizon, sometimes before he ascends it, and sometimes after he had left it. Such instances as these, though offered but as illustrations, may persuade us from being too forward to reject every proposition, that we see not how to reconcile to what we take for a truth; provided the distrusted proposition be such, as we would acquiesce in, if we could reconcile it to that supposed truth.

Timoth. FROM this discourse, *Eugenius*, and that of *Arnobius*, which preceded it, I think one may gather, that, according to you two, when two propositions are laid down, whereof one is made evident to us by experience, or by reason, acting within its own jurisdiction or compass; and the other is sufficiently proved by being mathematically demonstrated, or duly attested by divine revelation, we ought not to reject either of these propositions, as no truth, merely because we do not yet know how to reconcile them: but we should rather think, that the collected proposition is but a gradual, or limited truth; or else we should consider, that we knowing but so imperfectly as we do the particular natures of privileged subjects, for aught we know, a superior intellect may be able to discern a friendly agreement between what is delivered about that subject, and the affirmation that seems repugnant to it, though we are not quick sighted enough to perceive this agreement. And this, how strange soever you may think it, *Pyrocles*, may not only be countenanced by such things as *Eugenius* lately had, but both you yourself, and almost all mankind do *de facto* seem to practise it, in the case of the divine prescience of man's free actions.

Eugen. WHAT you contend for, gentlemen, may perhaps be thought the more receivable, if one should argue: First, either the propositions said to be repugnant are both really true, or they are not; if it be answered, that they are not, the difficulty is at an end: for there is none at all to conceive a true proposition should contradict a false one. But, secondly, if both the propositions be supposed to be true, it must be affirmed, either that they are reconcilable, or that they are not; if it be said they are not, then *Pyrocles's* objection is out of doors; for it cannot then be reasonable to say, that the two propositions, though inconsistent with one another, must necessarily be one

or

or other of them inconsistent with the truth. But this I presume he will by no means assert, and consequently must say, that the propositions are reconcileable. Upon which answer I shall demand, how that can be, unless a superior intellect, such as unquestionably the divine is, can discover an agreement between propositions, wherein we cannot discern it? For our not being able to discern it is, you know, professedly supposed in the case we discourse of.

Pyrocl. But, *Arnobius*, will not this doctrine make us very liable to have falsities imposed on us, at the pleasure of bold and dictating men?

Arnob. Nor, if it be limited to the subjects, wherein alone I would have it admitted: for if neither of the things treated of be a privileged one, but both in the jurisdiction of ordinary reason, I do not only consent, but (in my first advice) require, that the propositions framed about them be estimated according to the common dictates of reason. And even in cases, where one of the propositions is about a privileged thing, I do not at all think fit, that it should be received in spite of its being repugnant to the gradual truth delivered in the other, unless it can by some other argument, sufficient in its kind, be proved to be true; and in that case, that what I plead for ought to be admitted, is employed by the suffrage of almost all mankind in that case, which was just now pertinently mentioned by *Timotheus*: for though men know not how to reconcile the liberty of man's will with the infallible knowledge, that God has of those actions that flow from it, yet they have unanimously judged it reasonable to believe both free-will and prescience; the former, because they felt it in themselves; and the latter, partly because the fore knowledge of things being manifestly a perfection, ought not to be denied to God, whom they looked upon as a being supremely perfect; and partly because some actions and events, that they all judged to flow from mens free will, were, as the generality of men believed, foretold by prophetic oracles. But except in such cases as I have been naming, I am altogether of *Pyrocles's* mind, that since we have scarce any way of discovering a falsity, but by its being repugnant to somewhat that is true; to deny, that in cases within the jurisdiction of ordinary reason, the repugnancy of a proposition to any manifest truth ought to sway our judgments, were to deprive us of the usefulest *criterion* to discriminate between falshood and truth.

Timoth. For my part, who believe with many philosophers, as well Heathen as Christian, that human souls owe their origin to God, and with almost all philosophers, (for I know what the *Stoicks* held) that as he is the supreme being, so he is a most free agent, I see not why, as he has given to corporeal beings divers qualities, very differing in their degrees of nobleness; so he might not give to the intelligent productions of his power and will various degrees of intellectual capacities, as well as a limitedness of nature. And as it will not follow, that because we can see with our eyes very small objects, and imagine such as are yet much smaller, either the eye or the imagination can ever reach to so small an object as an atom; so it will not follow, that because we are able to frame conceptions of immaterial beings, we must therefore be able to understand the nature of God, and the harmony of all his monadical attributes. A little boy may have a clear notion of three, four, five, or other smaller numbers, and yet may be unable to frame good conceptions of triangular and other polygon numbers, (as some call them,) and much more of the abstruse affections of surd numbers, and the roots of the higher algebraical powers. To discern particular truths is one thing, and to be able to discover the intercourse and harmony between all truths, is another thing, and a far more difficult one; as a traveller may upon the English shore know, that he sees the ocean, and upon the coast of *Africk* be made to do the like, and at the *East-Indies* also he may know, that he sees the ocean; and yet not know how those so distant seas

seas communicate with each other, though that may be manifest enough to a cosmographer.

Arnob. WHAT you say brings into my mind, that I have sometimes thought God and men enjoy truth as differinglly as they do time. For we men, as we enjoy time but by parcels, and always leave far the greatest part of it unreached to by us; so we know but some particular truths, and are always ignorant of far more than we attain to. Whereas God, as his eternity reaches to all the portions of time (or measured durations) so his omniscience gives him at one view a prospect of the whole extent of truth: (as if a man could see the whole river of *Nilus* with its turnings and windings, from its hidden springs to its entrance into the sea.) Upon which account he sees all particular truths, not only distinct, but in their system, and so sees a connexion between those, that to us seemed the most distant ones.

Arnob. THERE remains now, gentlemen, but one part more of your penance to be undergone; for it is high time I should hasten to the relief of a patience I have so long distressed; and therefore I shall give it but one exercise more, and conclude your trouble with some reflections on this last advice.

The sixth ADVICE, or RULE.

That in priviledged things we ought not alwys to condemn that opinion, which is liable to ill consequences, and incumbred with great inconveniencies, provided the positive proofs of it be sufficient in their kind.

THAT this advice may be the more easily admitted, I shall separately suggest three things, which I desire may be afterwards considered all together.

FIRST, that clear positive proofs, proportionate to the nature of things, are genuine and proper motives to induce the understanding to assent to a proposition as true; so that it is not always necessary to the evidence and firmness of an assent, that the intellect takes notice of the consequences, that may be drawn from it, or the difficulties, wherewith it may be incumbred. This is plain in those assents, which of all others, at least that are meerly natural, are by knowing men thought to be the most undoubted and the best grounded; I mean the assents, that are given to the truth of geometrical demonstrations: and yet, *Euclid*, for instance, in all his elements of geometry, in some of which surprising paradoxes are delivered, (as in the sixteenth proposition of the third book, and the 117th of the tenth book, to name no more) contents himself to demonstrate his assertions in a mathematical way, and does not, that I remember, answer or take notice of any one objection: and the geometers of our days think they may safely receive his propositions upon the demonstrations annexed to them, without knowing or troubling themselves about the subtleties employed by the sceptic *Sextus Empiricus*, or others of that sect, in their writings against the mathematicians, and all assertors of assured knowledge.

THE second thing I would offer to your consideration, is, that the former part of our discourse has manifested, that there are some things, which our human and imperfect understandings either cannot, or at least do not, perfectly comprehend; and that, nevertheless, men have not refrained from presuming to dogmatize, and frame notions and rules about such things, as if they understood them very well. Whence it must needs come to pass, that if they were mistaken (as in things so abstruse it is very like they often were) those, that judge by the rules they laid down, must conceive the propositions opposite to their mistakes to be liable to very great, if not insuperable difficulties and objections.

AND

AND this second consideration, in conjunction with the first, will make way for the third, as a natural production of them; which is, that, as we need not wonder, that priviledged things, which are wont to be so sublime as to have been out of the view of those that framed the rules, whereby we judge of other things, should be thought liable to great objections by them, who judge of all things only by those rules; so we should not require or expect more evidence of a truth relating to such things, than that there are for it such sufficient positive reasons, as, notwithstanding objections and inconveniencies, make it, upon the whole matter, worthy to be embraced.

Pyrocl. But can that be worthy to be assented to, which is liable to objections and inconveniencies, which the maintainers confess they know not how to avoid? Does not, your *Euclid* himself, in some of his demonstrations, employ that way of reasoning, which some of his Latin Interpreters call *deductio ad absurdum*?

Arnob. *EUCLID* indeed, (as well as other mathematicians) besides that more satisfactory way of direct probation, which perhaps he might have oftner employed than he did, has sometimes, where he thought it needful, made use of the *Επαγωγή* you speak of. But in these cases he never goes out of the discipline he treats of, and confining himself to arguments drawn from quantity, he urges nothing as absurd, but what is undeniably repugnant to some truth he had already demonstrated, or to those clear and undisputed definitions, axioms, or postulata, which he supposes to have been already granted by those he would convince. But though he thus argues, to prove, that his readers cannot contradict him without contradicting themselves; yet we find not, that he was at all solicitous to clear those difficulties, that so quick-sighted a man could not but know some of his theorems to be attended with: but contents himself to demonstrate the incommensurableness of the side and diagonal of a square, without troubling himself to take notice of the difficulties, that attend the endless divisibility of a line, which would follow from what he demonstrated. But, *Pyrocles*, to look back to the first part of your objection, though what you say will hold in ordinary cases; yet such peculiar ones, as we are speaking of, deserve a particular consideration. About some priviledged things there are, and about some others there may be contradictory opinions (taking that term in a strict sense) maintained. Now as both of these cannot be true, so one of them must be so: as, though it be hotly disputed, whether quantity be endlessly divisible, yet certainly either it must, or must not be divisible without end: and, as was formerly observed, which side soever you take, the inconveniencies will be exceeding great, and perhaps there will lie objections scarce to be directly answered. And since one of the two opposite opinions must be true, it will not always be necessary, that an opinion must be false, which is incumbered with great difficulties, or liable to puzzling objections. And therefore if the positive proofs on one side be clear and cogent, though there be perplexing difficulties objected by the other, the truth ought not for their sake to be rejected; because such difficulties proceeding usually either from notions, that men presume to frame about things above their reaches, or from rules, that were not made for such points as are in dispute, the objections are not to be judged so well founded, as is that acknowledged principle in reasoning, that from truth nothing but truth can be legitimately inferred.

Eugen. I confess I have always thought it reasonable in such cases, to compare, as well the positive proofs of one opinion with those of the other, as those objections that are urged on either side; and there make my estimate upon the whole matter, though with a peculiar regard to that opinion, that has a great advantage in point of positive arguments; because, as *Arnobius* observed, those are the proper inducements to the assent of the intellect: and then the objections may well enough be suspected to proceed from the abstruse nature of priviledged things, and the over-great narrowness of the

the rules, that men are wont to judge of all things by: for we may have a sufficiently clear proof, that a thing is, whilst we have no satisfactory conception of its manner of existing or operating; our illative knowledge, if you will allow me so to speak, being clearer, and extending further, than our intuitive or apprehensive knowledge.

Arnob. BUT even about things, that we cannot sufficiently understand, we may in some cases exercise our reason in answering objections, that are thought not to be at all answerable, because they are not directly so. For we may sometimes shew, by framing in another case a like argument, which the adversary must confess does not conclude well, that neither does the argument, that contains his objection, conclude aright.

THIS I could exemplify (though that may seem no easy task) but that I fear I should want time to propose examples, whose being very paradoxical would make them need much proof: which you who, I fear, are quite tired already, would want patience to hear. Wherefore I shall rather recommend to you one observation, which I take to be of no small moment and use, when we contemplate things of the nature of those we have been discoursing of; and it is this, that we must not expect to be able, as to privileged things, and the propositions that may be framed about them, to resolve all difficulties, and answer all objections; since we can never directly answer those, which require for their solution a perfect comprehension of what is infinite: as a man cannot well answer the objections, that may be made against the *Antipodes*, the doctrine of eclipses, that of the different phases of the moon, and of the long days and nights of some months apiece near the poles, (not now to name that more abstruse part of astronomy, the theory of the planets) unless he understand the nature of the sphere, and some other principles of cosmography. So that where privileged things are concerned, clear and positive arguments ought to be of great weight in favour of the opinion they conclude for; even when on the contrary side, we may discourse ourselves into such difficulties, as may perplex, and perchance pose our limited understandings.

Eugen. THIS is a point of such abstruse speculation, that if when we remember ourselves to be but men, it shall be thought fit to adventure upon launching out into it, it will be necessary to adjourn the prosecution, till we shall have more time before us than we are masters of now, that the hour is so late, that it is high time we should, after our deserved thanks to him, release *Arnobius*, by wishing him a good night.

New EXPERIMENTS and OBSERVATIONS made upon the Icy NOCTILUCA.

To which is added

A CHYMICAL PARADOX, grounded upon NEW EXPERIMENTS, making it probable, that CHYMICAL PRINCIPLES are transmutable; so that out of one of them others may be produced.

An ADVERTISEMENT of the PUBLISHER to the READER.

THOSE, who have published some former tracts of this honourable author's, have made their complaints, that his writings have not met with the same candor and ingenuity from all writers: for though some have very civilly mentioned his name in those experiments, observations, and phænomena, which they have

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borrowed from his writings; yet others have vindicated that to themselves, which was none of their own; for having lighted their candle at his torch, and raised some superstructures upon those foundations he had laid, they have made no mention of him at all; in which matter the sincerity of philosophers is not a little required.

It is known, that Mr. Boyle was the first inventor of that pneumatic engine, or air-pump, called from him, *Machina Boyleana*; the figure and many of the uses whereof he hath described in his tract, entituled, *New physico-mechanical experiments concerning the spring and weight of the air*, (and in the continuation of it;) which book, being translated into *Latin*, and dispersed into foreign parts, hath given occasion to transmarine virtuosi to make essays (not altogether unsuccessful) concerning the fabricating of the like engines; though none of their tracts upon that subject have equalled the original. In like manner, it is highly probable, that his dissertations concerning phosphoruses, and his free distribution of several parcels of that luminous substance, have excited others to descant upon the same subject.

BUT that it may justly appear, that the honourable author shines only by his own light, and hath not any thing muturitious in the following treatise, the reader is to be advertised, that this tract had much earlier come abroad, if, after I had received the whole, even to the last sheet, in 1681, that so the English edition, and my Latin version thereof (wherewith the noble author was willing to gratify the curious in foreign parts) might be carried on together, I had not been by long sickness, and divers unfavourable circumstances, obliged to retain it some months in my hands.

WHICH I am the more troubled at, because I find, that my necessitated delay hath given opportunity to the publication of some experiments about noctilucas. But the virtuosi, who have the honour to be acquainted with the noble author of this book, and have seen the last summer and autumn divers of the chief experiments made, which are mentioned therein, will easily believe, that the author needed not to borrow any thing from those specimens, which have been lately published by an ingenious man about noctilucas; which, beside that they contain but few phænomena, or trials coincident with his, were so far from affording him any information, that (to be sure to be no borrower) he never would to this day read any one of them, or hear them read. And it appears, by the close of the aerial noctiluca, presented in print to the Royal Society, towards the end of the year 1680, that he then knew, and had practised, several other ways of making noctilucas, than that, which he then, and before any other man, imparted to the world.

THE usefulness of the ensuing discoveries and reflexions will be best judged of by discerning readers, who therefore need not to be previously informed thereof by me.

The P R E F A C E.

S I R,

THE very kind reception you were pleased to give those papers about the aerial noctiluca, that I addressed to you about the beginning of the last winter, does not only invite me, but in a manner oblige me to impart to you some trials, that I made, after I had sent you the others, about the same kind of phosphorus; to which you may now be pleased to annex them, by way of continuation or appendix. But that being true, which is noted by *Lucretius*, where he prettily says, that—*res ec-cedunt lumina rebus*, you will not think it strange, that if this observation holds in other things, it should particularly take place in luminous things themselves. And therefore, without any further preamble, I shall tell you, that, whilst my occasions permitted me to stay in *London*, I was willing to try, whether I could carry on some-
what

what further that, which had already been not unsuccessfully begun. And accordingly I caused to be prepared and distilled four or five several materials, which I thought the curious, especially those addicted to chymistry, would wish to have had trials made upon, and would perhaps blame me, if I had omitted to employ. But those materials not answering what was desired, we made choice of another or two, which I forbear to name, for certain reasons, and particularly for this, because they are to be found but in very few places, and perhaps would not have served my turn, if I had not luckily procured them in a season, whose dryness continued almost to a wonder.

From these materials sometimes, and sometimes also from the dried residue of urine, we obtained now and then some of the aerial noctiluca, such as that you have hitherto received accounts of; but more frequently a nobler sort of phosphorus, about which I now proceed to impart to you some observations, as I did, without any curious method or ornament, set them down from time to time, as I happened to make or remember them. And, to facilitate the pardon I beg of you, for having omitted some experiments, that perhaps you will wish I had made, I must acquaint you, that being by some necessary occasions enforced to leave *London* for a much longer time than I have done for several years last past, I have been obliged to make most of the following trials in a small village, where I yet am, and where, being unaccommodated with furnaces, instruments, and other chymical conveniences, for making and varying experiments, you receive an account, not of all the trials I would have made, (some of the chief of my catalogue remaining still unattempted) but of all those I could make in my present circumstances. However, such as they are, I think not fit to delay any longer the acquainting you with them; and therefore have ordered them to be gathered into one small collection of memoirs, to which paper I have given the title of *the glacial or icy noctiluca*, not only to distinguish it from the aerial one, whereof you have already had an account; but for another reason, that you will quickly meet with in the little tract itself, from whose perusal I must not now any longer detain you.

An APPENDIX to the AERIAL NOCTILUCA.

SECTION. I.

THE shining matter, contained in our best phials, being wasted in experiments, and partly given away, I thought fit to try, whether by the help of heat and other motion, our want might not be somewhat supplied, till more noctilucous matter could be prepared.

EXPERIMENT I.

In pursuit of this design, I took an old phial, that had been long laid aside as useless, because the matter had been poured out of it into a clearer and smaller glass; and having held that side of this phial, to which I perceived some feculent matter stuck, near the fire, till it had conceived a considerable degree of warmth, I removed it into a dark place, and as I expected, found it to shine, and that vividly enough, whilst it retained a competent degree of heat; and when it cooled too much, the light ceased with the agitation, that as a cause or a condition accompanied it. But if afterwards the phial were again held to the fire as before, the shining power would be excited, and the splendor would continue a pretty while. But after some days or weeks (for I remember not which,) this disposition to be made luminous by external heat was utterly lost.

E X P E R I M E N T II.

HAVING also taken notice of a little feculent stuff, that stuck to the inside of the glass, that had contained some of our noctilucal matter, I imagined, that though it would not shine in the dark by the contact of the air, to which it had been too long accustomed; yet when once that dispirited or disanimated superficies, (if I may so call it,) that had lain exposed to the air, was removed, the more internal part of the matter might not be destitute of a shining power. I carefully scraped off the outermost surface, and rubbing a little of the rest with my finger upon my hand, I found it to shine well enough. And though the matter, being once more left exposed to the air, did lose in its superficial parts the virtue of shining in the dark; yet those parts being taken off, the remaining matter (being rubbed) did not appear destitute of a luminous quality; so that it seemed, that though the air did, after a while, mortify, as it were, and spoil the superficial parts, that were exposed to its immediate contact, yet this vitiated surface served for a kind of cover or fence to the matter, that lay beneath it, and kept it from evaporating or spending those spirituous or subtile parts, on whose account it was capable of becoming luminous.

E X P E R I M E N T III.

AND as I had observed on other occasions, that liquors abounding in tenacious parts, though the liquors did not appear opacous or feculent, would leave sticking to the insides of the glasses, that contained them, somewhat, that though generally not perceived, because not very manifest, was by some other ways, that I had tried, discoverable: having, as I was saying, observed this, in some other cases, I suspected, that even in a phial, that had formerly contained some of our shining substance, though it seemed to have been well emptied, and to have no gross feculency adhering to it, there might stick somewhat, which, though unobserved by the naked eye, might be made visible to the naked eye by heat or motion. In pursuance of this conjecture, I took this glass; and having crackt it into fragments, that it might be put into the neck of a phial of a convenient shape and size; and having well stoppt the vessel, and removed it into a dark place, we there shook it, and had the pleasure to see, not only that light was readily produced by the motion excited in the jostling of the parts one against another, but that, by reason of the various position of the fragments of glass, some looking upwards, some downwards, some to the right hand, and some to the left, the light seemed to be vibrated every way with a very delightful vividness. This production of a kind of blazing light was often repeated with these broken pieces of glass, and if the phial were heated, the effect seemed more quick and considerable; and (if I mis-remember not,) by only warming the phial, without shaking it, a light would be produced.

E X P E R I M E N T IV.

AFTERWARDS having beaten some of the glass into such small pieces as were capable of passing through the neck of a glass-egg with a flat bottom, that it might stand upright of itself, we hermetically sealed up the neck, to try whether, by this hindring the included matter from exhaling or transpiring, we could keep the beaten glass always fit to exhibit the phænomenon: but we found not the event answer our desires; for after no long time, we could no more produce any light in our sealed vessel, though an unlucky accident happening in one of our last trials, keeps me from being fully satisfied of the unpracticableness of the thing designed.

E X P E.

E X P E R I M E N T V.

IN the printed tract of the aerial noctiluca, there is mention made of some liquor, that was hermetically sealed up in a bolt-glass, that was not great, to try, whether by this way we could for any long time preserve the shining faculty of that liquor, wherein it was already exceeding faint, and not to be excited but by a considerable degree of heat, and a vehement agitation of the vessel itself. This sealed glass having been left in the corner of a window, for what was judged a competent time, we yesternight approached the vessel by degrees to the fire, and shaking it from time to time, till the included liquor, had acquired a considerable degree of heat; then removing it to a dark place, and shaking the vessel somewhat strongly, we perceived, that the disposition the liquor had to shine was very much impaired, but not quite abolished. For there would from time to time, upon the rude agitation it was put into, appear little portions of matter, that looked prettily, and shone very vividly, like sparks of fire; and some of these appeared in the spherical part of the glass, and some in the neck; some of them seemed as it were fixed to their first station, and others moved upwards and downwards, and most of them continued some time to shine a pretty while before they disappeared; and when they vanished, few of them did so by degrees, but each luminous speck, when it had lasted out its time, lost its whole light at once.

S E C T I O N II.

THE new liquid phosphorus, I lately mentioned to have been made since the publishing the aerial noctiluca, was poured into a large phial, that might certain (by our guess) ten or twelve times as much as was put into it; so that the shining matter, having by so much air included with it, might thereby be assisted to diversify at least some of the phænomena afforded by former noctilucas.

O B S E R V A T I O N I.

AND accordingly I observed in the first place, that though the shining steams filled the whole cavity of the large glass, that was untaken up by the liquor and the residue, and this lighter flame continued much longer at once, than any we have hitherto mentioned, for it continued vivid several days and nights together, without ever unstopping the phial to give it fresh air. And, if I mis-remember not, I observed it to do so for about a week, before my occasions hindered me from observing it any longer.

O B S E R V A T I O N II.

I sometimes took notice with pleasure, that some exhalations or vapours, that appeared considerably luminous, seemed to roll to and fro, like little clouds or aggregates of smoke, in the cavity of the vessel, though it seemed difficult to determine, what should give them, and maintain in them, such a motion.

O B S E R V A T I O N III.

The bigness of the glass being considerable, it happened, that sometimes when I went into the darkened place where I kept it, so much luminous matter would make a surprising show; but though its extent were far greater, yet its intensity did not much exceed that of the light afforded by the noctilucas of the first sort, as, for distinction's sake, those may be called, that are mentioned in the printed account. Only this I often took notice of, that, in case I shook the matter gently, the light would appear much more vivid, and, as it were, would flash in and about the surface of the liquor where

where it was contiguous to the air, than it did elsewhere. And this splendor was such, that if it had been lasting, I thought it would have made our phosphorus useful for considerable purposes.

OBSERVATION IV.

WHEN after having so many days kept this glass stopt, at last it would not longer shine of itself, we supposed it to be reduced to the condition of a phosphorus of the first sort; and accordingly found, that upon the removal of the stoppel, and ingress of fresh air, the cavity would in a moment be filled with fumes, that looked white in an enlightened place, but luminous in a dark one, and (probably by reason of the quantity of the air contained in so capacious a glass) the light usually continued much longer than it was wont to do in noctilucas of the first sort.

OBSERVATION V.

BEING desirous to try, whether this more vigorous matter, if it were kept so exactly stopped, that none of the luminous vapours could exhale, would not last very long, I put near two spoonfuls of the liquor, with some of the sediment, into a bolt glass (with a flat bottom, that it might stand without leaning) capable of containing in all near twice as much: this glass being hermetically sealed, the included liquor continued to shine, without any external help either of air or heat, for about six days and nights, but then it gave over shining, nor would be made luminous again by moderate shaking.

OBSERVATION VI.

AFTER having poured out some more of the liquor and sediment, that had been kept in the great phial, formerly mentioned, into a smaller phial, to make a present of it to a virtuoso, the remaining matter, having now a greater proportion of air included with it, was very apt to be put into a luminous agitation, if I may so call it, and would emit exhalations, that would not only fill the cavity of the glass, but manifestly move to and fro in it after a somewhat odd manner. And being one night willing to give a lady, and some other company, the divertisement of a new phænomenon, after having opened the phial, and then having stopt it again, I shook it, and turned it in such a way, that much the greatest part of liquor having been before poured out, the residue was, as it were, spread over the inside of the glass, to which its particles stuck, because there wanted liquor enough to wash them down: by which means, those little portions of the sediment being not covered, as they were wont to be with water, but exposed to the immediate contact of the air, shone much more vividly than the luminous exhalations were wont to do; and the light being tremulous and twinkling, as well as brisk, they seemed to emulate so many little stars in a cloudless but dark night, and continued this scintillation longer than one would have expected, to the no small delight of the beholders, for whose sake the experiment we several times repeated with success.

New PHÆNOMENA exhibited by an Icy NOCTILUCA;
or, SOLID SELF-SHINING SUBSTANCE.

SECTION III.

IN the address of the foregoing appendix to the aerial noctiluca, I intimated the reason, why I did not think fit to give you a more particular account of the materials I employed in prosecuting my design, of making better qualified noctilucas. And therefore

therefore I shall not for the present trouble you with the mention of proceedings, that for want of some things, seldom procurable, you would not, where you live, be able to imitate; but shall save you and myself the trouble of a further preamble.

HAVING then by processes, not unlike that I annexed to the close of the aerial noctiluca, obtained a self-shining substance of a consistent form; I proceed to give you some account of what I have observed about it, and tried with it, which will take up the less time to do, because many things belonging to it in common with the shining liquor, with which I have already entertained you, those will be the fewer, that belong peculiarly to the self-shining matter, endowed with a consistent form.

ABOUT which it may be proper to take notice of some affections, that seem more immediately to belong to the substance itself, than most of the things do, that are to follow.

Some qualities of the noctiluca itself.

1. And first, though it usually came over in distillation in the form of divers little grains or fragments, differing for the most part from one another, both in bigness (some being of the size of grains of corn, and others of pease, or large cherry-stones) and also as to their shapes, which most commonly were irregular, as concretions are wont to be, that are casually produced; yet when the distillation was carried on profperously, we obtained the desired matter in greater lumps, sometimes as large as small beans, and sometimes at least three or four times as large, but not proportionably thick.

2. THESE lumps, whether small or great, were colourless, and usually, when they were held against the light, transparent; so that divers bodies, placed beyond them at a convenient distance, might be plainly seen through them. And some of the bigger appeared so like such fragments of ice, as being thin, are oftentimes very clear, and almost quite destitute of manifest bubbles, that, because of this great resemblance, and for distinction sake, I thought it not amiss to call our consistent self-shining substance, the icy or glacial noctiluca (and for variety phosphorus;) which name I chose to give it, rather than that of chrystalline, because this epithet is not unfrequently given to every diaphanous liquor, as well as to transparent solids. But when I said, that our noctiluca was transparent and colourless, I meant it only in reference to what usually appeared. For whether it were any real difference in the texture or constitution of the body itself, or the effect of some casual junctures of circumstances, I am not sure; but this occurred to us, that sometimes, especially by candle-light, some lesser fragments appeared not diaphanous, nor always either colourless, nor of the same colour. For sometimes the matter looked reddish, sometimes of a faint, but pleasing blue, and sometimes too of a colour to which I cannot easily assign a known name.

3. OUR icy noctiluca or phosphorus, is manifestly heavier in specie than common water, in which being put, it readily sinks to the bottom, and quietly lies there.

4. THE ice-like body, though consistent, is not hard, being far less so, than common ice; but yet it is not so soft, but that it is brittle, and will more easily be broken in pieces by the pressure of ones fingers, than receive shapes from them; and yet by him, that goes somewhat warily to work, it may be spread upon a solid body, almost like the unmelted tallow of a candle.

5. THE consistent phosphorus is fusible enough. For though in the air it will not be brought to melt, without some difficulty and waste, yet by the help of hot liquors, and even of water itself, it may with a little care and dexterity be brought to melt, which is an observation of good use; because by means of fusion, several fragments (if the matter be pure enough) may be brought to run into one lump, and in that condition
may

may both be the better preserved, and become fit to be applied to some considerable uses, which cannot so well, if at all, be made of lesser, though numerous fragments.

6. THIS glacial noctiluca is, as to sense, cold, but of a texture, that disposes it to be easily agitated, and by agitation become incandescent, as will appear hereafter. When this solid noctiluca is held in the free air, though perhaps its superficies be wet, it affords a very vivid light, usually surpassing that of the aerial noctiluca; and this light seems to proceed from, if not also to reside in, the body itself.

7. WHEN our icy phosphorus is taken out of its receptacle, and exposed to the immediate contact of the free air, it usually emits a wonderful deal of smoke, discernable by the light of the body it ascends from; and this plentiful emission of effluvia usually lasts as long as the phosphorus is kept in the air.

8. BUT it is pleasant to observe, and deserves to be considered, that as soon as it is plunged in water, so as to be quite covered with that liquor, it ceases not only to smoke as before, but to shine, as if a thoroughly kindled coal were suddenly quenched in water. And if it were not for this, our noctiluca would effluvia so fast, that it would be quickly wasted; whereas the water, fencing it from the contact of the air, keeps it from spending itself as formerly, and yet does really make but a seeming and temporary extinction of this anomalous fire. For as soon as it is again taken out of the water (though it have lain there perhaps a great while) it falls to shine again, even whilst it is yet dropping wet.

9. AND I have sometimes had the pleasure to observe, that when I had so large a piece of noctiluca, that I could conveniently hold one half of it under the surface of the water, and the other half above it, whilst the immersed part afforded no light, the extant part shone vividly.

HAVING thus mentioned most of the qualities, that belong to the noctiluca itself, I shall now proceed to the phenomena my trials on it, or with it, afforded me, without confining myself to any solicitous order, since my circumstances permitted me not to keep one in making those trials. But before I descend to other particulars, it will not, I think, be amiss to take notice of a few, that, having more affinity than others with the last mentioned quality of our phosphorus, seem proper to be annexed to what has been delivered of it.

OBSERVATIONS about the WATER wherein the NOCTILUCA was kept.

SECTION IV.

BECAUSE I guessed, that the water, whereing the noctiluca had been long kept covered, to fence it from the air, though it did not manifestly dissolve the mals, yet might be impregnated at least with the more saline, and, on that account, resolvable parts of it, I thought fit to make a few trials upon this liquor.

EXPERIMENT I.

AND first, I found, that it had a strong and penetrant taste, that seemed near of kin to that of sea-salt, but was more piercing, as if brine were mingled with spirit of salt, and it relished also somewhat of vitriol.

EXPERI-

EXPERIMENT II.

BEING put into a small concave vessel of refined silver upon lighted coals and ashes, it evaporated but very slowly, and would not be brought to shoot into crystals, nor yet to afford a dry salt, but coagulated into a substance, sometimes like a jelly, and sometimes, as to consistence, like whites of eggs; which substance was easily melted by heat.

EXPERIMENT III.

WHEN this substance was kept a while on a hotter fire, it only boiled at first, but soon after began, as I guessed it would, to make a crackling noise; wherein this was remarkable and pretty, that the explosions were accompanied with flashes of fire and light, which, if they were small, were generally very blue, like the flames of sulphur, but more vivid, and sometimes also more blue; but the greater cracks, whose noise was considerable, were wont to appear of a yellow colour and very luminous. And these phenomena did not only appear, whilst the matter was boiling over the fire, but a pretty while after the vessel was taken off and held in the air.

EXPERIMENT IV.

IF before the coagulated matter were too far wasted by the heat, it were suffered to cool a little, it appeared to have acquired a consistence like melted rosin, or rather stiff bird-lime, for it would draw out into threads of, perhaps, a foot or more in length; and having held one of these threads to the flame of a candle, it did not take fire, but melted into little globules, as capillary threads of glass are in like circumstances wont to do. And having made some of them stick to the wick of a candle towards the bottom of the flame, they coloured the lower part of the flame quite round with a very fine blue, which lasted much longer than one would have expected.

EXPERIMENT V.

THIS glutinous substance had, by the action of the fire, acquired an odd kind of strong smell, almost like that of garlick, and being left all night in the air, attracted to it (to use the vulgar phrase) the moisture of it exceeding fast, being dissolved in a good part into a liquor almost as strong as spirit of salt.

EXPERIMENT VI.

PUTTING this substance again over the fire, as before, it appeared to be more fixt than one would have looked for; for though there were not so much as a spoonful of it, yet it continued boiling for a great while, and afforded a multitude of shining explosions, whereof some made a considerable noise, and gave notable flashes of light, which seemed to be made by condensed and agitated fumes, suppressed by the somewhat hardened surface of the matter, and kindled in their eruption into the air, into which some parts of these fumes, that were not kindled, escaped in the form of a smoke, whose smell was very strong and rank, but of a peculiar kind. To which I shall add, what seemed strange, that though oftentimes two, and sometimes more flashes appeared at once, yet so small a quantity of matter continued to afford them for almost an hour together, and probably would have done it longer, but that the late time of the night obliged me to go to bed, before the experiment was finished.

What LIQUORS would, or would not, dissolve the ICY NOCTILUCA.

S E C T I O N V.

AMONG other ways of investigating the nature of our icy phosphorus, I thought fit to try, whether or no it would be dissolved in some liquors of differing kinds, hoping, that if it would be so, in any of them, it might somewhat assist us to guess at its texture.

E X P E R I M E N T I.

WE found then by trial, that common water would not, in the cold, dissolve it, though the liquor was thereby impregnated; as when *crocus metellorum*, or glass of antimony, being infused in wine or water, the menstruum will be impregnated by its emetic particles, and yet the bulk, shape and colour of the crocus, or the glass, will not thereby be visibly diminished or altered.

E X P E R I M E N T II.

AFTERWARDS we put a grain, or two, of our lucid matter into a little urinous spirit of sal armoniac, but it seemed not to make any conflict with it, nor manifestly to work upon it, though, to give the liquor time to make a solution, we left them together for several days. But, as soon as we had poured aside the spirit, it appeared, that it had not, by any contrariety, destroyed the power of the noctiluca, which began readily to shine as formerly, and yet might be immediately suppressed again, by suffering the liquor to cover it as before; but when we had, by keeping the phial, for some time, in a moderate heat, impregnated the liquor with it, this liquor, being then dropt into water, had a like effect with that mentioned in the experiment of impregnated spirit of wine.

E X P E R I M E N T III.

SEEING a volatile and urinous salt would not work sensibly upon our phosphorus, we thought fit to try, what corrosive liquors would do; and accordingly, we put a grain or two of our splendid matter into a very small phial, wherein was a little oil of vitriol, that menstruum appearing, in many cases, more corrosive than other vulgar acids: but neither did this menstruum dissolve our icy noctiluca in the cold, and therefore putting it in some heat, we found, that though it did not manifestly dissolve the shining matter, yet the warmed oil made it melt, and appear, at least for the time, a fluid body; in which this seemed to be remarkable, that this so fugitive a substance, should be ponderous enough to lye at the bottom of oil of vitriol, which is one of the heaviest fluids we yet know, except quicksilver, which many will not allow to be a liquor. What we did with this melted noctiluca, was not unpleasant to see, and will, God permitting, be hereafter mentioned.

E X P E R I M E N T IV.

AFTERWARDS we put a small fragment of our icy phosphorus into aqua fortis; and though we kept it in that menstruum two or three days, and set the phial, that contained them, for many hours, in a warm place, (the chimney corner) yet we found the matter so little altered, as to its visible appearance, that we doubted, whether the liquor had dissolved any sensible quantity of it.

HAVING tried saline menstrooms upon our icy phosphorus, I thought fit to try oils, and also spirit of wine, that is reckoned by chymists to be of great affinity with them.

E X P E R I-

EXPERIMENT V.

WHEREUPON I put a little of our noctiluca into some oil of turpentine, which not dissolving it in the cold, the small phial, that contained it, was left all night in the chimney, upon warm ashes. But though, the next day, none of the phosphorus appeared any longer in the glass, yet we could not perceive, by two or three differing trials, that the oil was much altered by it, and particularly I observed, that though the glass were unstopt, and kept so for a while, yet the ingress of the air did not produce any sensible light, nor did we perceive the upper part of the glass to be full of white fumes, as is usual in divers other liquors impregnated with our noctiluca, when they are unstopt.

SECTION VI.

IT has rendered the experiments, made with the aerial noctiluca, much less acceptable, than otherwise they would have been, to the delicate sort of spectators, especially to ladies, that the light they produced was accompanied with a very unpleasant smell, that issued out of the phial, whenever it was unstopped to let in the air. But, by the help of our icy noctiluca, I found a way to prevent this ungrateful concomitant of our artificial light. But, not being discouraged by the bad success of the forementioned experiment, I hoped an aromatical oil might do, what subtil oils had not done.

EXPERIMENT I.

AND therefore having, in a very small phial, put about a grain of noctilucal matter, and covered it with as much pure essential oil of cinnamon, as would swim less than a finger's breadth above it, we carefully stopt our little phial, and having warily held the bottom of it against a fire, till the phosphorus began to melt, I suffered it to cool; and then unstopping it in a dark place, had the pleasure to see produced a vanishing indeed, but a vivid light. So that by this means, I could afterwards shew the production of light to the nearest persons of quality, not only without offending their noses, whilst their eyes were gratified, but with adding to the pleasure of a delightful apparition that of a fragrant smell. But because oil of cloves is more easy to be had good than the oil of cinnamon, and is also much cheaper, I tried the experiment more fully with that, and therefore shall proceed to give you (for an example of aromatic oils) the phenomena of it.

EXPERIMENT II.

WE put some of our luminous ice into a little pure oil of cloves, such as the chymists call essential, but found, after a considerable time, (no less than some days) that at least a good part of the matter was undissolved, but yet the liquor was richly impregnated by it, as we found by a pretty phaenomenon that it afforded us. For the little phial, it was kept in, being opened in a dark place, there immediately ensued a kind of flash of light, far more vivid, its small bulk considered, than any liquor had afforded us before. But the brightness of this apparition was, it seems, too great to be lasting; for this flame like substance, usually expired in less than a minute of an hour, sometimes perhaps in half that time. And there were two other circumstances particular enough in this phaenomenon; one, that sometimes, especially if a candle were in the room, the shining fluid would appear of a pleasant, and somewhat surprizing blueish colour; and the other, that the light would cease, whilst yet there remained in the upper part of the glass, pretty store of whitish fumes, such as we have formerly often observed in the aerial noctiluca, to be the usual causes, or concomitant of light, as if, in our

present case, the shining substance prey'd on, or resided in, only the finer and more delicate particles of the whitish exhalations.

EXPERIMENT III.

INSTEAD of the oil of cloves, we substituted some chymical oil of mace, into which we put a competent quantity of the glacial phosphorus: but though we warmed the bottom of the phial, at least as much as we judged necessary, yet, upon the unstopping of it, there appeared no sign of light, though the trial was made much more than once or twice, and sometimes with favourable circumstances: which event was the less expected, because the oil, made use of, was presented me as very pure, by the same traveller, who gave me that of cloves newly mentioned; and because also the warmed phosphorus was so well conditioned, that as soon as ever the oil was removed, it shone with a somewhat extraordinary vividness.

EXPERIMENT IV.

WE made also a trial or two with distilled and fragrant oil of aniseeds, to see, if that being an essential oil, as chymists speak, and being looked upon, by many, as a kind of aromatic oil, it would better dissolve the noctiluca, or be impregnated by its luciferous parts; but we found, that it neither dissolved the matter, nor, upon the unstopping of the phial, that contained it, did it afford any light, or so much as whitish fumes, which seemed somewhat strange, because the oil was very subtile, and, by its aptness to coagulate of itself, shewed, that it was genuine, and not as chymical oils, that are venal, too frequently (if not most commonly) are, sophisticated.

IF these two last recited experiments prove constant, they will argue, that not every fragrant, no, nor every aromatical oil, properly so called, has the like operation upon our noctilucal matter, as the oil of cloves and cinnamon have.

IF I had had, or could have procured, other essential oils, on whose genuineness I could have depended, I had tried their effects upon our phosphorus.

EXPERIMENT V.

BUT, having no more oils fit for my turn, I next tried, whether I could dissolve our shining matter in ardent spirits, which are thought, by chemists, to be of near consanguinity with distilled oils; (not now to enquire, whether they do not consist of the finer parts of the highly rarified oil of bodies, united with a great proportion of their phlegm) and, having accordingly, put some of our icy phosphorus into the spirit of wine, though the menstruum did, some hundreds of times, exceed the body it was to work upon, yet after divers days, wherein it stood in a window, exposed to the sun beams, in the hottest part of the summer, it appeared undissolved, at the bottom of the liquor, and scarce sensibly diminished. But of the operation of spirit of wine upon the noctilucal matter, further trials will require, that more be said hereafter.

Of a Way of suddenly producing LIGHT in common Water, by the Help of another, not luminous Liquor.

SECTION VII.

I COME now to recite to you a phænomenon, which, I presume, may not displease you. I had a hint of it from a casual observation made by my industrious laborant. For having, to encourage him, allowed him, for his own use, some fragments of our icy

icy noctiluca, he mingled a portion of this shining substance with a spirituous medicinal liquor, that he had prepared, by extracting several drugs with it; and having afterwards, upon some occasion or other, diluted it with water, it afforded him a phænomenon, at which being surprized, he came to acquaint me with it, bringing me withal some of the liquor. But I thinking, that the phænomenon did not depend upon the peculiar nature of the liquor, whose being very compounded and high coloured, made me judge it not fit for luciferous experiments, but proceeded from the vinous spirits, wherein that liquor abounded, I thought fit to make the experiment with a liquor, as colourless and simple as I could; the effects of such liquors being more easy to be discerned, and judged of, and reasoned upon. And accordingly we weighed out, in a tender balance, one grain of our glacial phosphorus, wiped dry, and broken in four or five pieces, for the easier dissolution. And to these, in a crystalline phial, we put a convenient quantity of highly rectified vinous spirit, and stopping the phial close, we suffered the things contained in it to remain for many hours, sometimes (and indeed for the most part) in the cold, and sometimes in the warm sun, but perceived not, that near a total dissolution was made of the noctilucal matter by the liquor, in which it lay, even one of the lesser fragments appearing, as well as the others, undissolved in the bottom of it. However, since a body, consisting of such subtle parts, may communicate many of them to a contiguous liquor, without any diminution of its bulk, observable by the eye, I thought fit to try what effects this body had upon the vinous spirit.

O B S E R V A T I O N I.

AND first, I observed, that it did not manifestly discolour the liquor, but left it transparent and limpid, as before; save that there appeared some very small earthy corpuscles, like dust, at the bottom of the liquor, when being a little shaken, (to raise them) it was attentively viewed.

O B S E R V A T I O N II.

WE did not observe, that, upon the unstopping of the phial, and the restored commerce between the inward and outward air, there appeared any flame or luminous exhalations, as is usual upon opening phials, that contain the liquid aerial noctiluca.

O B S E R V A T I O N III.

BUT the phænomenon I chiefly intended to relate was this, that, having in a dark night, dropt a little of this impregnated spirit into a small china cup, with common water in it, though the spirit, neither in the phial, nor in its passage through the air, disclosed any degree of luminousness, yet, as soon as ever the drops came to touch the liquor, they would be, as it were, kindled by the cold water, and afford little flashes of light, which was more vivid than the noctiluca itself, affording a splendor, that made not only the brims of the cup, but divers of the neighbouring objects manifestly visible, not to say conspicuous. But these coruscations had the property of other lightning, to vanish almost as soon as they appeared, nor would the water that produced them, by being agitated, shine; but others might immediately be produced, by letting fresh drops fall into the same water, upon whose surface they seemed to diffuse themselves, and would sometimes leave, for a little while, a faintly luminous, as it were, film or membrane.

O B S E R V A T I O N IV.

AND that it might not be thought, that this accension (if I may so call it) was produced, or occasioned, by any antiperistasis, which the school-men, and the generality,

EXPERIMENTS *discovering a strange* SUBTILTY of

even of philosophers, are pleased to fancy (whose opinion I have, in a particular discourse, examined) I thought fit to try, whether our phænomenon would not be produced with hot water, as well as with cold; and accordingly I found, that the impregnated spirit of wine produced rather a greater than a lesser light, in hot water, than it had done in cold.

ONE of my designs, I had in making this experiment, being to examine a conjecture I had made about the great diffusedness of the noctilucal matter, the subtilty of whose particles made me think they were not to be judged absent, where-ever they were not numerous, or agitated enough, to be of themselves visible: this, I say, being in my thoughts, I judged it not fit to put our splendid icy matter into the spirit of wine, at adventures. Wherefore, having in a very good balance weighed out one grain of our noctiluca, (first wiped dry) we put to it, at several times, that it might the better dissolve, about two thousand grains of spirit of wine, that would burn all away; and yet, which may seem strange, this small quantity of noctilucal matter did so impregnate all the liquor put upon it, that though nothing of luminous did appear in the menstruum, nor in any exhalations rising from it, though the phial were unstopped, or the liquor poured out of it into the air; yet, as soon as ever it was dropt into common water, there would be produced a vivid apparition of light, such as has been a little above described.

It seemed not very improbable, that these sudden and vanishing flashes might, at least in great part, proceed from the quick disengagement and extrusion of the noctilucal particles, made by the water, which, diluting the vinous spirit, disabled them from retaining with them the luciferous corpuscles. As if into one ounce of high rectified spirit of wine, you put half a dram or a dram of camphire, the liquor will dissolve it, without being thereby manifestly altered, as to colour or transparency; but if you drop this solution into common water, the vinous spirits will immediately diffuse themselves into the liquor, and let go the corpuscles of the camphire, which will float like a white powder upon the surface of the water. To this conjecture is agreeable, what, upon trial, we observed with our impregnated spirit of wine, namely, that being dropt into other, well deflegmed spirit of wine, we saw no light produced; but when it was dropt into an urinous spirit of sal armoniac, which seems to consist of the volatile salt dissolved in the phlegm or aqueous liquor, the noctilucal corpuscles by this watery part were freed from the vinous spirits, almost as much as they would have been by common water, and did accordingly shine with much briskness.

EXPERIMENTS discovering a strange Subtilty of
Parts in the GLACIAL NOCTILUCA.

SECTION VIII.

BUT what has been above recited, is not all that I thought fit to try with the shining matter, that I told you we dissolved in spirit of wine; for after having, as I lately recited, brought one grain to impregnate between four and five ounces of alcohol, as the chymists call the high rectified spirit of wine, which did at least two thousand times exceed the weight of the noctilucal matter, I presumed, that this very parcel of spirit of wine, wherein the shining matter was already diffused and scattered into so many thousand corpuscles, as sufficed to impregnate all the liquor, would yet communicate

communicate to a good quantity of water particles enough to make it shine, when agitated: wherefore when we had weighed out in a very trusty balance one dram of our impregnated spirit of wine, we mixed it with, and shook it in as much fair water as we thought fit, (but not all at once) that is, till we had to our dram of spirit of wine put above fifty times its weight of water; and that alcohol itself weighing at least two thousand times as much as the noctilucal matter, that impregnated it, it follows, (though it may seem strange it should be true,) that the single grain of icy noctiluca was able to diffuse itself through, and impregnate full a hundred thousand grains of liquor, so as (when duly ordered) to make it luminous. For having presently after the last water was put into the glass, stopt the vessel close with a good cork, and shaken it a little in a dark place, the whole phial appeared to be full of light, which though it were not more than ordinary intense, yet, by reason of the bulk of the liquor, made a glorious shew, and discovered divers of the neighbouring objects. And after we had done shaking that phial, not only the upper part, which was filled with exhalations and vapours, shined like those other liquid phosphoruses formerly mentioned, but what was not observed in them, the water itself had a luminousness, though of an inferior degree, of its whole mass; which yet will not keep me from thinking of some expedient, that may satisfy those, who may suspect, as I did, that some of this light proceeded from the exhalations, that shined through that diaphanous water, though this did not seem the only, nor perhaps the chief cause of its appearing luminous, since when the glass was shaken, the whole mass of the liquor appeared to shine, so that we could plainly see through the sides of the vessel the conical figure of its bottom.

AFTER this, I prosecuted the experiment a good way further, increasing the proportion of the water to fresh impregnated spirit; and I found (what perhaps you will think strange) that one part of the noctiluca, being first dissolved in alcohol of wine, and afterwards briskly shaken into a convenient quantity of water, rendered luminous as much liquor as upon calculation amounted to four hundred thousand times its weight. And this did not seem to proceed from the irradiation of the luminous corpuscles or exhalations, shining in the empty space at the top of the glass; because the phial was so near filled with liquor, that there was but little room left for vapours; and because also the vapours, that did play in that space, shined but very faintly, and when the glass was at rest much less than a minute of an hour, the light would reach but a little way downwards in the water, and yet was there so dim, as to be scarce discernable. Whereas in our experiment, not only the agitated liquor appeared luminous throughout, but the light was brisk enough, insomuch that the conical figure of the bottom of the glass was clearly visible by help of it.

BUT lest some should think, that if this experiment had been further and further prosecuted, the luminousness would have still extended to greater and greater quantities of water, I shall add, that when I increased the proportion of this liquor to the noctilucal matter, to be dispersed through it, by putting in near three or four ounces of water more than I guessed would be convenient, the luminous matter seemed to be, as it were drowned or lost in so much liquor; for though we gave it much more agitation, than had in the former experiments been needful to produce light, yet no luminousness at all appeared in the mixture. Wherefore, taking some fresh spirit, and shaking it into such a quantity of water as I thought it might serve to impregnate, I found by supputation, that the luminous mass of liquor, thereby produced, amounted to no less, but a pretty deal more, than five hundred thousand times the weight of the noctilucal matter dispersed through it, which is a visible expansion, very much greater, than, I think, has been hitherto observed in any corporeal substance dissolved in a visible liquor, since
it

it four times exceeds that expansion of cochineal, which I many years since imparted to the ingenious, and which several of them have in their writings, been pleased to take notice of, as a prodigious thing; one part of the cochineal, ordered as I there mention, having in that experiment produced a discernable colour in an hundred twenty-five thousand parts of water. To what has been said I shall add these three circumstances, which may increase the strangeness of the experiment.

1. THE first is, that I here only delivered the manifest impregnation of the water itself, which is a gross and tangible liquor, by the dispersed particles of the noctilucal matter, but have made no estimate of the incomparably greater expansion of the light, that, from the matter included in the phial, illuminated the ambient air, to a considerable distance from it, though, by reason the darkened room was not great, I was disabled to make an estimate, how far the enlightened sphere of air might have extended.

2. THE second is, that this experiment was not favourably made, but rather invidiously, since we purposely weighed out somewhat less of the lucid matter, and now and then more of the water, than the precise quantities that calculation supposes, that I might be sure the experiment was made severely enough.

3. AND lastly, upon search I found, that the grain of icy phosphorus, that was first put into the spirit of wine, we made use of all this while, was not, though after so long a time, totally dissolved; a small fragment, amounting to about an eighth part, if not more, remaining at the bottom of the phial; upon which having poured some fresh alcohol of wine, and kept it a while in a little heat, to further the dissolution, I found that liquor did, as I thought it would, grow very luminous, when dropt into common water; so that it seemed probable, that if the whole grain of icy phosphorus had been dissolved at first in the spirit of wine, it would have impregnated above six hundred thousand times its weight of water, sufficient to make it shine.

S E C T I O N. IX.

I COME now to another way, by which I thought the great subtilty of parts in our noctilucal matter might appear with good advantage, and possibly you will think by the success, that I missed not of what I expected from the intended trial.

E X P E R I M E N T I.

WE carefully weighed out a small lump of our shining matter, amounting to three grains, and having purposely broken it into divers lesser fragments, perhaps six or seven at least, we laid them upon a flat bottomed glass, that was broader at the top than the bottom, and shallow too, (not being near an inch deep) that the matter might be more fully exposed to the free air. This glass we placed in a south window, laying it very shelving, that the liquor to be produced by its resolution in the moist air might presently run down, and not hinder the free evaporation of the remaining matter. In which posture of the glass, we had also another aim, to be hereafter mentioned. The vessel being thus placed, about ten of the clock at night, all the fragments of the noctiluca shined briskly, and so continued to do, till most of them were resolved into other substances, and the biggest of them continued to shine, till they were reduced to such a smallness, that they would scarce have been seen, had not their own light made them visible. But the main thing, that I am to take notice of in this experiment, (and which perhaps will somewhat surprize you,) is, that so little quantity of noctilucal matter continued to emit visible fumes for a good many more than an hundred and fifty hours, and this with circumstances, that made the thing more strange.

1. As first, that this smoke was not only visible but manifest, and that as well in the night (as I often observed from time to time) as in the day.

2. SECONDLY, that the several parcels of matter did each emit these fumes all at once, as if it were from so many little chimneys.

3. THIRDLY, that this smoke was so copious, and withal so tenacious, that it would easily retain the form of smoke at a considerable distance from the bodies that emitted it; so that, as I walked to and fro in the room, a careless look towards the glass would often discover it to me, and sometimes it would manifestly appear at a distance, that I estimated to be near a foot from the matter that afforded it.

I shall now add, to another purpose, the following circumstances; namely,

1. FIRST, that the motion of the smoke was swift enough, considering that it had no channel or chimney to assist it. It was not always, nor for the most part, directly upwards, but sometimes horizontal, sometimes downwards, sometimes towards the right hand, and sometimes towards the left, as if the motion of the fumes had been determined by the situation of those parts of the noctilucal fragment, by which they were emitted, and as it were discharged. I use this last expression, because taking pleasure to watch attentively the circumstances of our delightful experiment, I thought, I many times observed a kind of palpitation or æstuation in the little shining fragments, which I gathered from the apparent great inequality I perceived in the plenty of the smoke, that was emitted at several times, all of them perhaps within the compass of a minute or two. But on this I forbear to discourse, till I shall have made further observations; and therefore I shall proceed to take notice of one circumstance more in our experiment; which is,

2. SECONDLY, that even in the latter part of it, after the shining matter had been so long exposed to the air, it emitted a smell strong enough; which seemed to be caused by odorous exhalations, distinct from the visible fumes.

S E C T I O N. X.

AND now it is time, that I give you some account of the reason, (that I but pointed at before,) why I chose such a glass, and kept it in a shelving posture: this I did, that I might not lose, but preserve the liquor, which I knew would fall from the saline part of the shining matter, which liquor I thought fit to examine, in order to discover certain things; particularly, whether the limpid water, as it appeared to be, that was, as it were, the cadaver, or, to employ chymical terms, the deliquated *Caput Mortuum* of the shining substance did not yet contain something, as well luminous as saline.

E X P E R I M E N T I.

To satisfy myself about this, I caused this liquor to be put into a small concave vessel of carefully refined silver, (that other salts than nitre and allum might not corrode it) which I had purposely provided for the quick evaporation and crystallization of smaller quantities of matter. Our liquor, being in this vessel put upon some small coals, and ashes, did not evaporate near so easily, as one would have thought, but turned into an unctuous substance of a dark reddish colour: wherefore we placed the vessel upon quick coals, that by their brisk heat they might make the liquor boil, and free it from superfluous moisture. By this means, after a while, it reduced to a substance, that afforded us a pretty phænomena, not unlike to that elsewhere mentioned, where we spoke of the infusion or solution of the solid phosphorus in common water. For the boiling liquor crackled like a handful of bay-salt cast into the fire; and whilst these

cracklings continued, (which they did much longer than one would have expected) they imitated little volleys of shot, not only in the great number of the noises they made, but in the little flashes that accompanied them; which flashes, when the fire was somewhat increased, were so many, and followed one another so fast, that they appeared to make up a continued flame, not unpleasant to behold.

EXPERIMENT II.

AFTER the foregoing experiment, I had a mind to be able to make some estimate, how far the breaking of the shining matter into fragments, and the conditions of the vessel, contributed to the quick consumption of it. To this purpose, we took a lump of three grains, carefully weighed out, and put it into a small glass funnel, whose upper end was wide and capacious enough, in reference to the lower part, which was exceeding slender, that the noctiluca might have air both above and (oftentimes) below, and yet the matter might not slide down, till it were so wasted as to be less than a small pin's head. A vessel of this shape I chose to make use of, that I might catch the liquor, that would be afforded by the deliquation of our icy phosphorus; for which purpose, the slender pipe of this funnel was put into the orifice of a small cylindrical phial, and there kept in a quiet place, which was a south window, from whence every night, after I was in bed, I caused it to be brought into my chamber, to see if it continued to shine. By which trials I found, that it remained luminous, and was not yet so wasted, to fall quite through the funnel in the phial, at somewhat beyond the end of the fifteenth day; so that it continued to shine three hundred and sixty hours.

THE very limpid liquor, that was brought into the phial by this experiment, was unhappily lost before I could make any trials with it, but not before I had done the chief thing I aimed at, in saving of it, which was to know its weight to be by and by mentioned.

WHAT has been hitherto related may justly enough make a man reflect, with some wonder, upon the strange minuteness and multitude of parts, that are crowded together in our noctilucal matter; if we consider what a multitude of luminous beams of visible smoke, of odorable, though unseen, effluvioms so small a quantity of it, as three grains, which are but the twentieth part of a drachm, could incessantly afford for two or three hundred hours; leaving, after all this, behind it above three times its weight, (for so we found it to be) of a liquor, which itself was not a cadaverous one, or, what it looked like, common water, but (as may be argued from what was lately recited of the same kind of liquor) might have been impregnated with very many saline parts, and not a few capable of shining briskly.

OBSERVATIONS about the INFLAMMABILITY of the NOCTILUCA itself.

SECTION XI.

OBSERVATION I.

I TOOK a little of the consistent noctiluca, and having broken it, and, as its brittleness would permit, spread it here and there, upon a piece of folded paper, I lighted that paper at the flame of a candle, and observed, that when the flame reached this or that little fragment of the shining matter, it would take fire, and burn away in a flash-

a flashing and very sputtering manner, accompanied with noise, almost as grains of salt-petre are wont to do, when they are put upon a live coal.

OBSERVATION II.

I observed also, that if I put pieces of paper, on which I had placed some of these grains of noctilucal matter, upon some embers covered with ashes, before the paper itself took fire, the shining matter would communicate its flame to the contiguous paper.

EXPERIMENT I.

WE took a fragment of our shining matter, not amounting to a grain: this we put into half a spoonful or less of high rectified spirit of wine, and kindling that liquor with the flame of a candle, the spirit burned away, as is usual, in a flame partly yellow, (and especially at the outside) but chiefly blue. But though the heat of the silver spoon, wherein the trial was made, did quickly (as might well be expected) melt the noctilucal matter, and gave it a globular form, yet it continued at the bottom without manifestly mixing with the vinous spirits, or considerably altering the colour of their flame: but when the spirit of wine was all consumed, without leaving any jot of phlegm behind it, the last drops coming, when they were actually kindled, to touch the shining matter, presently set it a fire, but its flame was very differing from that of the vinous spirits. For besides somewhat, that was odd in its figure, its colour was not at all blue, or bluish, but of an intense yellow, and burned so fiercely, and with so vivid a light, as was somewhat surprising to behold, and continued to burn a pretty while, considering the paucity of the combustible matter. And whilst it burned it emitted good store of smoke, that seemed to be darted up to a considerable height. The matter did not burn all away at first, but left a kind of *Caput Mortuum*, which lay in the form of a little cake, partly of a deep yellow, and partly of a fine red. This matter being more bulky in proportion to that, that was consumed, than I thought it likely that so little of the phosphorus should contain of incombustible matter; I proceeded to burn it, as elsewhere will be related after another manner, till there remained but some very few light feces, that seemed to be of the same nature with those, that are to be mentioned in the next experiment.

EXPERIMENT II.

WE took a small fragment, not amounting to a grain of the noctilucal matter, and putting it into a silver spoon, we cast upon it the sun beams concentrated by our smallest (dioptrical) burning glass: by these it was presently set on fire, and afforded, together with a great deal of smoke, a flame exceeding yellow, and so very fierce and bright, that it was conspicuous, though the window being purposely set open, the beams of the sun, then in the meridian, were suffered to beat full upon it, and a brisk wind did also blow upon it without extinguishing it. At the bottom of the spoon, the expiring flame left a round and broad *Caput Mortuum*, consisting of divers circles, like those of a sardonix, whereof the largest was white, another yellow, and the third red, all the three colours being pleasant and vivi^d enough. Some part of this *Caput Mortuum*, being again brought to be freely touched by the air, appeared combustible, and the rest being left, in the spoon, that the air might work upon it, did for the most part soon resolve itself *per deliquium* into a liquor, almost as sharp as spirit of salt, the rest being a light black feculency, of which, because there was so very little of it, we could make no examen.

EXPERIMENT III.

BEING desirous to try, whether the noctilucal matter would, by bare pressure or motion, be brought to burn, I thought not fit to depend upon such other experiments, as are here related, wherein it appears able to set fire on divers bodies, belonging to the vegetable kingdom, or are otherwise easily inflammable: wherefore we put two grains of our dried noctilucal matter into a glass mortar (furnished with a glass pestle) whose coldness and thickness were able to keep it from being put into any sensible heat by the operation, that was to be performed in it, and consequently from communicating any heat of its own to the noctilucal matter. This was pretty briskly rubbed in the mortar, with the glass pestle; but though it was thereby brought to shine much more vividly than before, yet it did not take fire; which I was apt to impute to the great coldness of the glass, which much opposed the incalcescence of the phosphorus; but after a while longer it took fire, and began to burn away in an actual flame, with much smoke: but this did not last so long, as might have been expected, which short duration might proceed from the vessel, that continued sensibly cold, and perhaps also from the narrowness and depth of it, which somewhat hindered the free access of the air; for some matter, that was taken out on the pestle, seemed to burn better, than that which remained in the mortar, which being extinguished, was once more kindled by trituration, but soon expiring again, could not by the same means be rekindled, but only was brought to shine briskly.

EXPERIMENTS about burning other BODIES with the NOCTILUCA.

SECTION. XII.

I Formerly intimated, that our consistent noctiluca, notwithstanding the appearance it had of ice, and its actual coldness to the touch, was much disposed to have its parts easily put into motion, and might by that means be brought to be sensibly hot. And I think it time now to proceed to make this good by particular instances.

1. AND first, if our phosphorus be for any time pressed hard between ones fingers, or against a board, or some such hard and not very cold body, it will oftentimes be felt actually and very sensibly hot, and sometimes the degree of heat will be so vehement as to scorch the skin, as my venturous laborant found several times, to his no small pain, his fingers being almost covered with blisters raised on them, by handling our shining matter with too bold a curiosity: and he complained to me, that, though according to the usual fate of chymists, he had been often burned on other occasions, yet he found blisters, excited by the phosphorus, more painful than others; and he is not the only person, that has complained to me of their finding the burning made with this matter to be more tedious and difficult to be cured, than ordinary ones. But, as our noctiluca was not always made of the same matter, nor with care equally successful, so I observed its proneness to incalcescence, and the degrees of heat, to which it would be brought by motion, to be differing enough; upon which account, I did not find, that some portions of it would produce those higher effects of heat, that some others did, besides that these higher effects did gradually differ among themselves.

2. AGREEABLY to this, after having in vain tried to fire paper by pressing and rubbing some of our phosphorus upon it with the blade of a knife, I took a piece of fine paper,

paper, and having dried and warmed it at the fire, I put a little of our noctiluca in a fold of it, and rubbing the paper between my hands, though by that attrition there were produced a sensible, and even considerable heat, yet it did not reach to what I desired; but continuing a little while to rub the paper to and fro, it did on a sudden take fire, and blazed out, so that it would have burned my hand, if this had not been kept from receiving much harm (for all it did not escape) by a thin glove, that was thereby scorched, and in part shrivelled up. After the same manner, to make the experiment the more certain, I fired another piece of paper, but then desisted, that I might not unnecessarily waste a substance, wherewith I was but meanly stored.

3. If the firing of gun powder could be performed with our phosphorus, without the assistance of circumstances, whose difficult concurrence will keep it from being more than an instructive curiosity; the fear, that it might be applied to uses mischievous to men, would keep me silent of the power our phosphorus may be brought to have of kindling gun-powder, when it is befriended with favourable circumstances. To try therefore, whether our phosphorus, which appeared not inferior to that of Mr. *Craft's* would (as his did sometimes, though not easily) fire gun-powder, we took a little of our shining matter, and having a little wiped it, to dry it, we put it upon some dry gun-powder, and with a knife pressed it, and in some sort rubbed it upon the black grains, but found, that though a heat were produced, and sometimes such as would make some of the corns of powder have a bluish flame, yet the mixture would not go off: so that the laborant, to whom I left the care of reiterating the experiment in my presence, presuming it would not succeed, scrupled not to hold his head over it, that he might the better see what change was made in the mixture; but then upon a sudden the powder took fire, and the flame shooting up, caught hold of his hair, which made a blaze, that proving innocent enough, became more diverting than the smell of the smoke, that succeeded it, was delightful.

4. But the same laborant, who was very helpful to me in varying the preparation of the phosphorus, had a worse mis-adventure not long after; for bringing me some newly distilled grains of our noctiluca, covered with some of the shining water, that came over with it, he unluckily broke the glass in his pocket; whereupon the heat of his body, increased by the motion his long walk had put it into, did so excite the matter, that was fallen out of the broken phial, that it burned two or three great holes in his breeches, before he could come to me to relate his misfortune, the recent effects of which I could not look upon without some wonder as well as smiles.

5. HAVING already told you the effect of our noctiluca upon gun-powder; I thought fit to try, whether it would not kindle a body, that is thought somewhat less prone to take fire. And accordingly having put together about half a grain of our dry noctilucal matter, and six times its weight of common flowers of sulphur, they were lodged in the fold of a piece of white paper, which was laid upon a board, and when I had a little bruised and rubbed this with the haft of a knife, it shone through the intercepted paper very vividly, but did no more: wherefore suspecting, that the want of air was the cause why it did but shine, not burn too, I opened the paper, and found, that as soon as the air had access, it took fire and furiously burned the paper, and, if I had not been wary, had burned me too. Another time, the same experiment being tried, afforded this notable phaenomenon, that the ingredients, being well rubbed together in folded paper, though before the paper was displaid and exposed to the air, they did not kindle, yet upon the contact of this the mixture took fire, and did not burn away with a slow flame, as brimstone is wont to do, but flashed away at once with a great blaze, like fired gun-powder, save that the flame appeared more luminous.

6. THE highest effect of the heat of our icy noctiluca was casually produced by the laborant, who being desirous to try, whether some that was newly prepared was good and fit to be brought to me, began to write letters with it upon a piece of plank, that had been long used in the laboratory as part of a stove; and he, chancing to press the recent matter hard upon this board, that the constant heat of the place had brought to an unusual degree of dryness, found to his surprize, that he had not only shining but burning letters; the lucid matter having actually set on fire those parts of the wood, against which he had strongly pressed it.

SECTION. XIII.

EXPERIMENT I.

TO examine somewhat particularly, to what family, or sort of salts, the saline part of our noctilucal matter either does belong, or has most cognation with (for I thought it possible it might not fully agree with any known species of salts, but have somewhat peculiar to itself) I suffered a little of the small stock, I then had, to resolve itself *per deliquium* into a clear liquor, and then made with it some of the trials elsewhere delivered, by which I am wont to examine what species a salt belongs to, guessing this liquor by the taste, and the manner how it was made to be somewhat, though not altogether, of the nature of spirit of sea-salt: I dropt a little of it upon a convenient proportion of syrup of violets, and found, that it turned it not green, as a volatile urinous salt would have done, but of a fine carnation colour, such as that syrup is wont to acquire, upon the mixture of an acid spirit with it. I found also, that a very little of our anomalous liquor presently destroyed the blue colour, and not the other of a tincture of *Lignum Nephriticum*.

EXPERIMENT II.

I also put some of this liquor, that came by deliquium from the noctiluca, upon some filings of copper, which being thoroughly wetted, and some of them covered with it, I exposed in a hollow glass for two or three days to the air; and by this means had, as I expected, without the help of heat, a solution of some of the filings of copper, the colour of which was not a deep azure, as if it had been made with a volatile urinous salt; but seemed to partake of green and blue, and to be an intermediate or compounded colour.

EXPERIMENT III.

To make the saline nature of this liquor the more manifest, I put some of it upon powder of red coral, which it presently fell upon, and corroded with noise and froth; and putting another parcel of the same liquor upon some dry salt of tartar, there presently ensued a fierce conflict between them, whereby some noise and much froth was produced; so that I thought it needless to waste any more of the noctilucal matter, (wherewith I was but slenderly stored) to make it more apparent, that our liquor was not, as most chymists would have expected, of an urinous nature, but belonged to the family of acid salts, and seemed to be near of kin to that branch of them, to which the spirituous part of common or sea-salt belongs.

EXPERIMENT IV.

SOME virtuosi may be apt to think, that since our icy noctiluca is of a more solid substance than the aerial, and uses to continue to shine much longer; since, I say, this is so, if the consistent phosphorus were included in a glass, whence its expirations could have

have no vent, the matter being kept from wasting, the luminousness may also be kept from ceasing. This conjecture being plausible, though the notion I have of the nature of our noctiluca could not promise me a confirmation of the conjecture, yet, to prevent the being blamed for an easily evitable omission, I put some of our dry phosphorus into a clear phial, capable, as was guessed, to hold about an ounce of water, and having very carefully closed this glass, I laid it aside, observed it to continue to shine for some few days; after which the light manifestly decayed and soon after quite disappeared, though I thought it possible, that it did not altogether so soon expire, as it ceased to be visible to me; because the whitish fumes, emitted by the matter whilst it continued to shine, had covered the inside of the glass with a kind of whitish soot, that, at length opacating it, might well hinder a faint light from pervading the vessel, and reaching our eyes. But it seems, that the air included with the phosphorus, either had some vital substance (if I may so call it) preyed upon thereby, or else was by the fumes of the phosphorus, to name no other possible ways, tamed and rendered at length unfit to continue the flame [*sui generis*] of our noctiluca.

EXPERIMENT V.

YET to pursue the design of making a light more lasting than ordinary, by keeping the matter from commerce with the external air, I took some of our noctilucal matter, that came over with the aqueous, from which it was not so easily separable, but that I thought it best to leave them together, in regard that it shone so well, that it might pass for an excellent portion of the aerial noctiluca: this we sealed up in a glass egg (whose bottom had been made flat on purpose, that it might stand without leaning) and setting it in a place, where it would be frequently in my eyes I observed it from time to time, especially at night, and found it continue to shine (if I much misremember not) a week or longer, and that with so little decay of light, that I was surprized, when, coming in the night time to look upon it, I found it to shine no more at all, especially since I could not restore any manifest light to it, either by agitation, or by moderately warming the sealed glass, that contained it.

EXPERIMENT VI.

AFTER many observations made of the degrees of light, that our icy noctiluca afforded, as it were of its own accord, without external heat, I thought fit to try, whether by the application of a moderate heat or the fire, the light might not be much invigorated, and perhaps the phosphorus itself be brought actually to kindle, even in a close vessel. This design I was the rather induced to prosecute, because I had some hopes, that by this way of increasing the light of our phosphorus, though it should not long retain its acquired degree of luminousness, yet this increase might continue long enough for some not inconsiderable uses. And especially (in case much noctilucal matter were heated at once) to give light enough for taking of gun-powder out of the gun-room of a ship, or out of a magazine, without danger of firing the powder, which would be a means to prevent those sad accidents, that have but too frequently happened to ships, especially of war, of which we had very lately a notable instance in the river of *Thames*. In prosecution of this design, we took some grains of our consistent phosphorus, and having put them into a round glass egg, somewhat larger than an ordinary hen egg, fitted with a stem of a proportionable bigness, and about two thirds of a foot long. This being hermetically sealed up, (at least as far as we discerned) the globulous part of it was warily and by degrees warmed at the fire, and then we instantly removed it into a dark place, where the included matter not only shone by great odds more vividly than before it was heated, but some portions of it were brought

to an actual flame, as appeared both by the radiant splendor of the burning matter, and by the condition of the smoke it emitted; and yet more manifestly, by the intense heat, which the flaming part of the matter (and not the other parts) communicated to that part of the glass, which it adhered to; for there the vessel was not to be so much as touched without inconvenience: and when this flame expired, which it did after no long time, the portion of the lately kindled matter did no more shine or burn as before, but was reduced to the condition of the rest of the noctilucal matter, together with which it did for a good while retain a considerable degree of light, upon the account of the heat it had been exposed to, over and above that luminousness, that ordinarily belonged to it.

THIS experiment appeared so strange, and was so delightful to those, that had never seen it, that partly to gratify the curious, and partly to pursue my own design, it was reiterated, within the compass of a month or two, between (if I mistake not) twenty and thirty times, the same matter being still kept in the same vessel, though by being melted, and in great part sublimed by its frequent approaches to the fire, it was divided into several parcels. But this made the experiment so much the more pleasant, in regard, that sometimes (for it was not always) more than one or perhaps than two portions of the matter would seem to burn at once. This was looked upon as a very new and scarce credible thing, that one should be able to bring a body to burn with an actual flame, and for no inconsiderable time, in a glass hermetically sealed, and not large neither. But to deal with philosophical sincerity, I must not conceal from you, that after we had made many trials in the abovementioned glass, there happened a phenomenon, which gave me some suspicion, that at that time it was not actually sealed: but it did not appear, but that it had been very well sealed at first, and might continue so during several trials; for after this suspicion we used this glass ten or twelve times, or perhaps oftner, to make the before recited experiment, and after all those we could perceive no crack or flaw at all in the ball or stem of the glass, and found it difficult to get in the point of a small pin into a little hole, which we either found, or, by endeavouring to find one, made at the apex. However, by the things formerly related, it appeared, that our noctilucal matter would burn with less vent by great odds, than other fewels known to us; and that a small quantity may be made to burn and shine longer, than one would expect. And we were encouraged by what we saw, to hope, that if a more considerable quantity of matter were put into a convenient shaped glass, and assisted with other friendly circumstances, especially if the luminousness could be a little heightened, it may be rendered fit to be of some use in ships and magazines of powder.

IF I had been furnished with accommodations, when I first made the foregoing experiment, I would have pursued the trial somewhat further, by making a pretty quantity of our noctilucal matter burn several times, in a thin glass vessel exquisitely closed with *Hermes's* seal, that, by weighing the vessel in exact scales, both before and after the ascension of the included phosphorus, I might find, whether any ponderable parts were subtil enough to pervade the pores of the glass; and in case they were not, I then hoped to discover, what change of texture might be made in the matter of a body, reduced to an actual flame, in a vessel, wherein it could not receive the free air, nor emit any fumes or exhalations, which would have been to me a very acceptable experiment; and perhaps would have proved a very instructive one too. Since, as I have in another place complained, in the analyses hitherto made by chymists, either the body exposed to the fire has not been actually inflamed, which is the case of those distilled in exactly closed vessels, or else there has been some commerce betwixt them and the external air, which may justly render

render it doubtful, whether the bodies produced by this analysis were the same both for number, nature, &c. that would have been produced in vessels, exquisitely closed; since we see, that wood, for instance, burned in a chimney, affords store of soot and ashes, which are very differing bodies from those, that chymists obtain from the same wood distilled in close vessels.

BUT to trouble you no further with what I would have done, I shall add one circumstance I observed in what was done. Namely, that sometimes there appeared a little liquor in the glass (whether it consisted of some aqueous particles, that may be suspected to have lain hid in the noctilucal matter, or were produced by the actual deflagration of a part of the matter) and the rest of the matter, by the reiterated operations of the fire, was turned to a red colour, which it yet retains.

SECTION XIV.

EXPERIMENT I.

I HAVE formerly related, that, upon the immersion of our phosphorus into water, it would immediately cease shining, and continue without light as long as it was kept under that liquor. This gave me ground to suppose, that, by the interposition of water between the noctilucal matter and the air, the phosphorus may be kept unactive, till it be fitted, by an extraordinary agitation of its parts, to act with an unwonted vigour, when the air shall come to touch it suddenly: this supposition, I say, induced me to put two grains of our icy noctiluca into a small glass egg, and pour a pretty quantity of water on it. In order to the following experiment, we heated the liquor well, yet without making it at all boil, and thereby melted the little fragments of solid matter, and made them flow into one liquid mass, that kept itself at the bottom, distinct from the water: this done, we presently removed the glass into a dark place, and pouring out the water, we observed, that, as soon as the air came to touch the noctilucal matter, it seemed to be kindled into an actual flame, that afforded a very vivid light; which success pleased me the better, because it shewed, that a kind of fire may be kept under water, as long as one pleases, without sensibly burning, and yet, in a moment, upon the bare removal of the water, shew itself in the form of actual fire. That our shining substance was of this nature, appeared manifestly by this, that the water, being poured out somewhat too hastily, carried along with it, which I did not intend it should do, the whole mass of the noctilucal matter; and this by its fall into the silver cup, that was employed to receive the liquor, was divided into two or three parts, which coming to a more free, or full contact of the air, blazed out much more than when they were in the glass, and afforded us a delightful spectacle, since the flame burned upon the water, with much light and fierceness, and a strange deal of smoke, and it did, ever and anon, sputter with noise, like salt-petre made to burn upon a live coal. These flames continued the pleasure we had to see them burn upon the water a pretty while; and after their extinction, looking into the silver cup, we found divers flakes of a reddish matter, (which the chymists would call a *caput mortuum*) that lay at the bottom of the water; and the sides of the silver cup, that were next to that liquor, looked almost as if fine brick-dust had been strewed upon them.

EXPERIMENT II.

BEING desirous to see, whether our noctilucal matter shining through a coloured glass, the beams of light would be tinged in their passage, we took two or three grains of our matter, and put it into a phial, of an almost spherical figure, capable of holding, by our estimate, about twelve ounces of water; which phial was made of fine

glafs, of a very pleasant colour, participating of thofe, that are called orange and aurora: but the lucid matter being fhut up in this phial, and carried into a dark room, did not appear through the glafs to be confiderably altered in colour; which becaufe I imputed partly to the fmallnefs of the fragment of the phofphorus, in reference to the capacity of the veffel, through which it would give no more than a faint light, I caufed the glafs to be confiderably heated, and then brought it into the dark room I ftayed for it in: there, as foon as it was come, the included matter feemed to be actually flaming, and the trajected beams of light appeared of an unufual and glorious colour, the light being fo confiderable, that it made divers bodies diftinctly vifible, at a pretty diftance from the glafs; and we judged that, by the help of it, a book of a good print might have been eafily read: but this light, which was the greateft we had till then, produced with our phofphorus, did not laft long in its vigour, but, in a fhort time, gradually decayed, till it came to little more than the ufual fplendor of the noctilucal matter.

E X P E R I M E N T III.

I formerly related, that I could not make fuch an experiment, as I fuccesfully tried with the oil of cinnamon and the oil of cloves, to fucceed with the oil of mace. But now I muft add, that the little phial, wherein the noctilucal matter, and that oil were included, having been fet afide as ufelefs, I afterwards chanced to caft my eyes on it, and to have the curiofity to try, whether or no the unfuccesful experiment, I had made before, were not one of that kind, which, in another paper, I have difcourfed of, under the name of contingent ones; and accordingly, there being a fomewhat dark corner in the room, I carried the phial thither, and although it were yet broad day, I unftopt it there, and was fomewhat furprifed to find the included matter to afford immediately a vigorous light, which put me afterwards upon repeating the experiment, at different times, which I did with the like fucces, without being able to determine the caufe of this odd phaenomenon.

E X P E R I M E N T IV.

ONE experiment I fhall now relate, which though (becaufe it feems, as well as the laft recited, a contingent one,) I forbore to fet down with the reft, will perhaps be thought more fingular than any of them.

WE had, in one of our receivers, that was but fmall, (fince it was not judged capable of containing a gallon of water) a parcel of our confiftent noctiluca, in which my laborant told me, that he had met with a phaenomenon, that to him, who knew nothing of what is related *feft. XIV. exper. 1.* was very fuprizing, and feemed to appear by chance, fince he often tried, in vain, to produce it when he pleased. This receiver I took into my cuftody, and pouring out the common water, with which the fplendid matter was kept covered to hinder it from fteaming away, we obferved no other change, than that, upon the removal of the water, and the contact of the air, the noctiluca would immediately fhine, and continue to do fo, till we thought fit to extinguish it *pro tempore*, by pouring water on it again.

THIS being done in the morning, I confidered the following night, that this receiver having been kept in the laboratory, which constant, and fometimes vehement fires, made a very warm place, it was but fit, in order to make the trial a fair one, to bring the fhining matter to as great a warmth as it had in the laboratory, where it exhibited the phaenomenon I was defirous to fee. Having then caufed the receiver, with the water in it, to be held in a hot place, till the liquor had attained, by our guefs, a fit degree of tepidity, we poured out the water, and, within a minute or two after, by our estimate, we had the pleasure to fee, that the confiftent matter, notwithstanding the

weight,

wetness, that in probability the water had left on it; we observed, I say, that this wet matter, upon the contact of the air, took fire of itself, not without noise, and burnt with a manifest and actual flame. But our pleasure was somewhat moderated, though the experiment was the more ascertained, by this accident; that, before we could pour in water to quench the fire, the violence of the flame had broken the receiver, which was thick enough, and thrown off a piece above half as broad as the palm of one's hand; by which unlucky chance we were hindered from endeavouring to find, as we intended to do, whether we could, by repeated trials, discover the cause of the appearing contingency of this odd phænomenon, which had, far oftner in vain than successfully, been endeavoured to be produced.

THIS experiment recalls into my memory a notable phænomenon, belonging to that formerly recited (*sect. XI. exper. 2.*) about the kindling of our phosphorus with the sun-beams, united by a burning-glass: for whereas I there mention, that the noctilucal matter did not burn all away at first, but left a kind of *caput mortuum*, which lay in the form of a cake variously coloured, I shall now add, that so much matter could not be left unfired, unless something hindered its accension; we warily turned over the little cake, with the point of a sharp knife, and then the under part, being I presumed hot, presently took fire upon the contact of the air, and flamed away, till the matter was almost totally consumed.

The CONCLUSION.

AND now I have acquainted you with all the chief things, that I have hitherto been able to try or observe, about our icy noctiluca, or solid phosphorus: and though I have been obliged to deliver them without any exact method, yet perhaps their novelty will serve to make them acceptable to you. Light is so noble a thing, that the matter our phosphorus affords it to reside in being endued with some uncommon qualities, and particularly with a strange, and almost incredible subtilty of parts, I cannot but hope, that, if improvements, upon such a matter, were more industriously attempted, by persons better qualified for such a work, than I (especially in my present circumstances) pretend to be, something would be produced, tending to the discovery of the nature, not only of light, but divers other bodies, and perhaps also, of good use to human life. If some unwelcome circumstances did not, for the present, discourage me, I would contribute my weak endeavours towards such a design. For, sometimes I think a naturalist's pen ought to be like a merchant's ship, that comes from time to time into port to rest, but not always to stay there, but to take in new lading, and refit itself for a new voyage to the same, or other parts. In the mean time, I recommend this subject to yourself, and those excellent virtuosi, you hold correspondence with, whose ingenious attempts to advance true philosophy will have, for their good success, the hearty wishes of

Your most affectionate, and most humble servant,

R. B.

A CHYMICAL PARADOX, grounded upon NEW EXPERIMENTS, making it probable, that Chymical Principles are transmutable; so that, out of one of them, others may be produced.

AN ADVERTISEMENT of the PUBLISHER to the READER.

THE following paradox, having been written in or before the year 1680, was kept in the author's hands, that it might come out with the Latin version of his treatise, intituled, *The producibleness of chymical principles*, which is annexed to the second edition of his *Sceptical Chymist*, printed 1680; but some unlucky accidents having kept that translation from being finished, the author thought fit the ensuing paper should accompany his icy noctiluca, both in English and in Latin: upon this account, he sent me not only the discourse, that now comes forth, but some other papers, containing the minutes taken from time to time by his laborant, of what occurred in the long train of distillations, on which the following reflections are grounded. For, the reader, whether foreign or domestic, may here be pleased to be advertised, once for all, that as the author hath been pleased to publish all his works in the English tongue, for reasons best known to himself; so the province of the translating them into Latin, hath been undertaken by others: for, indeed, his assiduity and diligent attendance on his daily and growing experiments will not allow him leisure or opportunity to undertake that work himself; though otherwise, if he had a desire to polish any thing in that tongue, his pen can command a fluent stile. This by the by. But I having returned to the author, both his own papers, and my version of them, in one roll, it unfortunately happened, that before the icy noctiluca was printed off, there broke out, in the night, a great fire, not far from the author's lodging, which was so threatening, even after the blowing up of several houses to stop it, that, as many others were obliged hastily to remove their goods, our author thought fit, by the same way, to endeavour to secure his own manuscripts; but did it not so successfully, but that some are yet missing; and, among others, the English and Latin papers lately mentioned. Notwithstanding which, the importance of the subject, and the novelty of the experiments, prevailed with the author, (to prevent the like mischance from happening to what he could retrieve concerning them) to communicate them to the curious, who will, by what I have here related, be enabled to understand what he writes at the beginning of that part of the following paper, which, because it was written after the fire abovementioned, and very long after the rest, he calls his postscript.

A CHYMICAL PARADOX.

I ADVENTURED many years ago, in the *Sceptical Chymist*, and long after in other papers, to lay down some reasons of questioning, whether the fire be the true and proper instrument of analyzing mixed bodies, and do but dissociate their principles or ingredients, without altering them or compounding them anew. But I shall now present you a discovery, that will perhaps make you think the vulgar opinion of chymists to be less fit to be doubted of, than rejected. The occasion of making the following experiments was afforded me by the complaint of an ingenious chymist, (and great distiller) who told me, that endeavouring to purify an essential oil by rectification, he found

found to his disappointment, that he distilled it four or five times successively, yet it still left some fæces, (but much less than at the first) though he concluded, that if he should undergo the trouble of distilling the liquor a few times more, it would come over perfectly pure, without leaving any fæculency behind it. But it was more congruous to my hypothesis, to conjecture, that the *caput mortuum* he complained of, was not, (at least after the first or second distillation,) a more gross or fæculent part of the oil, separated from the more pure, but a new compound produced, as other concretes also might be, by the operation of the fire. This conjecture of mine was favoured by some experiments I had made many years before, and imparted to some inquisitive men, whereby two distilled liquors were made, barely by their mutual re-actions, to afford great store of an earthy and very fixed substance. And to the same conjecture it was suitable, that, by obstinately reiterating the experiment, the action of the fire upon the parts of the body exposed to it, and their mutual operations and combinations among themselves, and, not improbably too, the material concurrence of igneous particles might produce, besides earthy fæces, other bodies not unlike those, that pass for the chymists principles. How far the event proved agreeable to his hypothesis, will be the best gathered from the phænomena themselves of the trials, which I shall proceed to set down a succinct account of, as soon as I have premised, to make way for it, that by an essential oil, chymists are wont to mean such a fine oleagenous liquor, as, to prevent empyreume and fæculent parts, has been distilled with store of water in a (vesica or) limbeck.

WE took a pound of essential oil of anniseeds, which liquor we therefore made choice of, because it is more easy to discern it, by its self-coagulating property, not to be sophisticated; and having put it into a glass retort of a convenient size, we caused it to be distilled (in a sand-furnace, capable of giving a strong fire) thirty-six times, in which train of operations, the ensuing phænomena were both congruous to our hypothesis, and in themselves observable.

1. As pure as the essential, or, as some spagyristis stile them, the ætherial oil of vegetables are presumed to be, and as confidently as chymists pretend they are, the pure sulphurs or unctuous principles of the bodies that afford them; yet, not only the first distillation left a substance black like pitch, at the bottom of the retort, but at every one of the following distillations, such a substance was either separated or generated.

2. THOUGH after a distillation or two it seemed likely, that this pitchy substance would be found every time less and less, which made the person, formerly mentioned, tell me, that he supposed within ten, or at most twelve distillations, in all, if one should make so many, this, which he looked upon as an earthy recrement, would be quite separated, and leave the oil a most pure and homogeneous liquor; yet I, that (as I formerly intimated) looked upon this black stuff not as a separated excrement, but generated substance, caused the distillations to be repeated, till they had attained thrice that number, and not only found, that at each time such a black substance was left; but that now and then a subsequent distillation yielded much more of it than the precedent had done; which change, from less to more, and from more to less, was not observed only once or twice, but several times. And though this odd pitchy substance were, towards the latter end, found in less quantity than at the beginning, yet the cause of that may well be, that the oil to be distilled did sensibly, from time to time, decrease in bulk, partly by reason of the recess of that portion of the oil which could not but be dissipated and lost in so many cohobations; and partly, and indeed chiefly, by the loss of so much oil, as was transmuted into pitch and other substances.

3. THE oil appeared in distillation more fixed or unapt to rise, than one would have expected from so fine and light a liquor; and especially towards the latter end of the distillations,

distillations, it was often necessary to employ a scarce credible degree of fire to elevate all, that was not turned into pitch.

4. THE liquor did not distill like a pure principle or homogeneous body, as quicksilver is wont to do, but first some fine and light oil usually came over, after which followed a less volatile oil with another substance or two, and after that, another ascended in a distinct manner.

5. FOR it is to be noted, that, besides the forementioned black earth, there were produced, by the operation of the fire, divers other substances, whereof the first was a waterish liquor or phlegm, which, after the oil had been exposed to some distillations, began to grow very troublesome. For being rarified by the heat of the fire into large bubbles, the antipathy, or rather incongruity, between them and the oil, occasioned a kind of conflict, wherein these bubbles did often suddenly break, (usually not without much noise) and sometimes with such violence, as to shake and endanger the retort; which once, by this contest, was actually broken; yet not so, but that the liquors, and other products of the fire, were saved by the watchful laborant, and seasonably transferred into a new retort.

6. BESIDES this phlegm and the pitch formerly taken notice of, our operation afforded us, from time to time, a pretty quantity of a certain substance, which, with some not unskilful persons, passed for a volatile salt; because it ascended to the upper part of the vessel, and appeared in a dry form, almost like short needles; and because also it seemed to the laborant, that, like a salt, it was (part of it at least) dissoluble in the spirituous phlegm mentioned in the last number. But though at first I inclined to this opinion, yet having made some few trials to examine the truth of it, I was, and still am, a little doubtful, whether this sublimed body deserve the name of a true volatile salt, though possibly there may be a pretty deal of that contained in it. For I found the lumps of it, notwithstanding their seeming spunginess, to sink in common water, and continue at the bottom of it, without manifestly being dissolved by that liquor, (as meer volatile salts are wont easily to be) either in the cold, or by being kept awhile in a moderate heat. I found this substance fusible, like bees-wax, at the flame of a small taper; and if a lump of it were kindled thereat, it would burn away, partly with a yellow flame, and partly with a flame more intensely blue than that of rectified spirit of wine; but it appeared apt enough to go out of itself.

THESE, and some other things inclined me to look upon our anomalous sublimate, as a substance *sui generis*; but yet such a one, as I suspected to be somewhat of kin to a *sal volatile oleosum*, such as camphire seems to be. For our sublimate rises without strong fire, and that in a dry form, and is easily enough fusible; all which I have observed in camphire, as well as in volatile salts; and our sublimate will, like camphire, dissolve in a high rectified vinous spirit without at all colouring the liquor. And having long since found by trial, that camphire will, though slowly, dissolve in good oil of vitriol, and make the menstruum look of a reddish brown; I put some of that solvent upon our sublimate, and after having left them some hours together, though but in the cold, the liquor seemed to have dissolved part of the dry body, having, by its action upon it, acquired a brown colour somewhat inclining to red; and part of this liquor being put into a pretty deal of common water, there seemed to emerge by degrees a dry body or flores, which brought into my mind what I have elsewhere observed, when I employed the same method, to recover camphire out of oil of vitriol. But, as I was lately intimating, though I think it not improbable, that our anomalous sublimate may be nearer of kin to a *sal volatile oleosum*, than to any of the chymical principles; yet I have not hitherto found the resemblance betwixt it and such a salt to be complete enough, to make me dogmatical in referring it to any chymical product of a known denomination:

denomination: and therefore, till I be further satisfied, I shall only add, that this volatile salt, or oily sublimate, or whatever name it may deserve, was very pretty to look upon, being glittering almost like some fine flowers of *Benzoin*; and of this we had, though it were very light, between two or three drams.

7. BESIDES all these differing substances, our oil of anniseeds afforded us, from time to time, a little quantity of spirit, as we concluded from two or three signs: one, that it came not over with the phlegm, and yet would mingle with that liquor, but not with the distilled oil: and another, that, as it was more fixed than the oil and phlegm, so it rose later than they; and not only needed a stronger degree of fire, but, which is chiefly considerable, it was usually observed to come over in white fumes, as many spirits, that are somewhat fixed, are wont to do; which was the more easy to be observed, because, that being willing to make use of the same retort as long as we could, for the greater certainty of the experiment, and the pitch being not to be taken out, whilst it was any thing soft, because of its close sticking to the glass, it was thought, to give at the latter end of the distillation so strong a fire, as, by making the sand and retort red hot, (or very little less hot) would make the pitch so dry and brittle, that it might afterwards be loosened from the sides of the glass, and got out in the form of a dry and brittle, though exceeding black substance. And to the two foregoing signs I shall now add a third, that does more clearly evince, that the substance, we have been speaking of, was a spirit: for, though it could not but be very much weakned by being diffused through so great a quantity of phlegm as came over before it, yet its corpuscles were so many and vigorous, than when I put them upon the powder of crude coral, they presently began to dissolve it; and the phlegmatic spirit did in a trice make a great ebullition with noise and bubbles, whether I poured it on the fixed salt of tartar, or the urinous and volatile salt of sal armoniack.

THE success of this experiment, being answerable enough to what I desired and expected from it, allowed me to make divers reflections on it, and particularly those that follow.

AND, 1. Our trial argues, that a substance, that is looked upon by chymists as a homogeneous body, and which passes for one of their principles, (for that is the case of our essential oil of anniseeds) may yet be of such a nature, that, barely by the further action of the fire it may be made to afford a very considerable proportion of a substance, exceedingly different from that which afforded it. For in our experiment, we obtained a *caput mortuum*, whose qualities were quite other than those of oil of anniseeds; since it was opacous, black, dry, very difficultly fusible, and fixt in so strong a degree of fire, as made the retort, that contained it, and the sand about it, red hot. This substance would lie undissolved in a highly rectified vinous spirit, into which oil of anniseeds would readily have diffused itself (if they had been a little shaken together) without the help of heat. And though we made the liquor actually boil a pretty while, yet most of the *caput mortuum* continued a black substance; only it discoloured the menstruum, which looked as if it had rather extracted a tincture, than made a solution properly so called. And of this black and pitch like *caput mortuum*, we had at the end of our distillations, when we weighed the several parcels altogether, not much less (which you may justly think strange) than half the weight of the whole oil of anniseeds; this black stuff amounting to a pretty deal more than seven ounces. And from hence we may collect, that the analysis, wont to be acquiesced in by vulgar chymists, is as yet but an undetermined thing, since they have not declared (nor perhaps thought of any such thing) what number of distillations, (whether one or more, or if more than one, how many,) shall be made the standard, by which we are to conclude, that a substance, obtained by distillation, is a chymical principle.

2. IT

distillations, it was often necessary to employ a scarce credible degree of fire to elevate all, that was not turned into pitch.

4. THE liquor did not distill like a pure principle or homogeneous body, as quicksilver is wont to do, but first some fine and light oil usually came over, after which followed a less volatile oil with another substance or two, and after that, another ascended in a distinct manner.

5. FOR it is to be noted, that, besides the forementioned black earth, there were produced, by the operation of the fire, divers other substances, whereof the first was a watery liquor or phlegm, which, after the oil had been exposed to some distillations, began to grow very troublesome. For being rarified by the heat of the fire into large bubbles, the antipathy, or rather incongruity, between them and the oil, occasioned a kind of conflict, wherein these bubbles did often suddenly break, (usually not without much noise) and sometimes with such violence, as to shake and endanger the retort; which once, by this contest, was actually broken; yet not so, but that the liquors, and other products of the fire, were saved by the watchful laborant, and seasonably transferred into a new retort.

6. BESIDES this phlegm and the pitch formerly taken notice of, our operation afforded us, from time to time, a pretty quantity of a certain substance, which, with some not unskilful persons, passed for a volatile salt; because it ascended to the upper part of the vessel, and appeared in a dry form, almost like short needles; and because also it seemed to the laborant, that, like a salt, it was (part of it at least) dissoluble in the spirituous phlegm mentioned in the last number. But though at first I inclined to this opinion, yet having made some few trials to examine the truth of it, I was, and still am, a little doubtful, whether this sublimed body deserve the name of a true volatile salt, though possibly there may be a pretty deal of that contained in it. For I found the lumps of it, notwithstanding their seeming spunginess, to sink in common water, and continue at the bottom of it, without manifestly being dissolved by that liquor, (as meer volatile salts are wont easily to be) either in the cold, or by being kept awhile in a moderate heat. I found this substance fusible, like bees-wax, at the flame of a small taper; and if a lump of it were kindled thereat, it would burn away, partly with a yellow flame, and partly with a flame more intensely blue than that of rectified spirit of wine; but it appeared apt enough to go out of itself.

THESE, and some other things inclined me to look upon our anomalous sublimate, as a substance *sui generis*; but yet such a one, as I suspected to be somewhat of kin to a *sal volatile oleosum*, such as camphire seems to be. For our sublimate rises without strong fire, and that in a dry form, and is easily enough fusible; all which I have observed in camphire, as well as in volatile salts; and our sublimate will, like camphire, dissolve in a high rectified vinous spirit without at all colouring the liquor. And having long since found by trial, that camphire will, though slowly, dissolve in good oil of vitriol, and make the menstruum look of a reddish brown; I put some of that solvent upon our sublimate, and after having left them some hours together, though but in the cold, the liquor seemed to have dissolved part of the dry body, having, by its action upon it, acquired a brown colour somewhat inclining to red; and part of this liquor being put into a pretty deal of common water, there seemed to emerge by degrees a dry body or flores, which brought into my mind what I have elsewhere observed, when I employed the same method, to recover camphire out of oil of vitriol. But, as I was lately intimating, though I think it not improbable, that our anomalous sublimate may be nearer of kin to a *sal volatile oleosum*, than to any of the chymical principles; yet I have not hitherto found the resemblance betwixt it and such a salt to be complete enough, to make me dogmatical in referring it to any chymical product of a known denomination:

denomination: and therefore, till I be further satisfied, I shall only add, that this volatile salt, or oily sublimate, or whatever name it may deserve, was very pretty to look upon, being glittering almost like some fine flowers of *Benzoin*; and of this we had, though it were very light, between two or three drams.

7. BESIDES all these differing substances, our oil of anniseeds afforded us, from time to time, a little quantity of spirit, as we concluded from two or three signs: one, that it came not over with the phlegm, and yet would mingle with that liquor, but not with the distilled oil: and another, that, as it was more fixed than the oil and phlegm, so it rose later than they; and not only needed a stronger degree of fire, but, which is chiefly considerable, it was usually observed to come over in white fumes, as many spirits, that are somewhat fixed, are wont to do; which was the more easy to be observed, because, that being willing to make use of the same retort as long as we could, for the greater certainty of the experiment, and the pitch being not to be taken out, whilst it was any thing soft, because of its close sticking to the glass, it was thought, to give at the latter end of the distillation so strong a fire, as, by making the sand and retort red hot, (or very little less hot) would make the pitch so dry and brittle, that it might afterwards be loosened from the sides of the glass, and got out in the form of a dry and brittle, though exceeding black substance. And to the two foregoing signs I shall now add a third, that does more clearly evince, that the substance, we have been speaking of, was a spirit: for, though it could not but be very much weakned by being diffused through so great a quantity of phlegm as came over before it, yet its corpuscles were so many and vigorous, than when I put them upon the powder of crude coral, they presently began to dissolve it; and the phlegmatic spirit did in a trice make a great ebullition with noise and bubbles, whether I poured it on the fixed salt of tartar, or the urinous and volatile salt of sal armoniack.

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2. IT

2. IT may be also inferred from some phænomena of our experiment, that the fire, as it is wont to be employed, is not, as chymists pretend it to be, the true and genuine instrument of the analysis of bodies, since it does not, as they presume it does, barely extricate and separate the several similar substances, that, though concealed and disguised by commixtures with each other, were pre-existent (in the same forms wherein they afterwards appear) in the body exposed to its operation. For in our case, the oil of anniseeds is, according to the chymist's estimate, the sulphureous principle of the concrete; and therefore has not any other principles, especially in any considerable quantity, contained in it. And yet, by the bare action of the fire, this oil, which they acknowledge to be a similar body, is brought to afford three or four other substances of differing natures from one another.

3. FROM the two foregoing observations we may likewise deduce, that the fire, at least in divers cases, may not only separate, but variously compound and alter, the parts of a body exposed to its action; and thereby give considering men cause to suspect, that divers substances, that are presumed to be only extricated or extracted by the operation of the fire, may be really produced by it.

4. AGREEABLY to which suspicion, it happens unluckily enough for the chymical hypothesis; that in our experiment the substances, that were obtained, were a fixt and earthy powder, a not inconsiderable portion of phlegm, a spirituous liquor, and a dry sublimate, a-kin to a volatile salt: and these, though they all proceed from a body, that, according to the chymists, should not, and indeed, for aught appears, did not actually contain any of them before, did yet so resemble in qualities the earths, phlegm, and spirit, that chymists obtain by distillation from those bodies they look upon as perfectly mixed and compounded; that if they are not the same, they have divers qualities so like those, that entitle what is afforded by confessedly mixed bodies to the name of phlegm or salt, or some other primordial ingredient, that the earth, for instance, or the (acid) spirit obtained in our experiment, are far less differing from the earth of blood, or the spirit of amber, than these are from the earth and salt of thoroughly calcined hartshorn.

5. IT will scarce be necessary to draw so obvious a corollary from what has been already delivered, as this; that it is possible, that chymical principles (or at least such substances, as a vulgar chymist, not knowing from what body they were obtained, would look upon as such) may be made of another.

BUT though I shall not enlarge on this corollary, it will not be amiss to make one considerable observation, that belongs to it; namely, that acid and aqueous substances, how differing soever each of them is from a pure oil, may be produced from it by the action of the fire. For I found by trial, that in that liquor, which the laborant took for the phlegm of oil of anniseeds, there was such store of acid parts, that (as was above recited) they would readily dissolve powdered coral, though crude, even in the cold; and would make a great conflict with salt of tartar, and with that of urine, as soon as the liquor was put upon it. But yet the greatest part of the liquor, by far, seemed to be of an aqueous nature, which a chymist would call phlegm; which is a body, that will not mingle with oil, and is otherwise exceedingly different from oil, especially an essential one, (such as that of anniseeds,) whose purity makes it totally inflammable. And the quantity of the whole liquor, consisting of acid and phlegmatic parts, was far from being inconsiderable, amounting to about two ounces and three quarters. It may also be worth while to observe, as another thing belonging to our corollary, that the truth declared in it allows us to question, whether it be necessary to suppose with the chymists, that nature has been obliged to make provision of great quantities of primordial and simple bodies; and that she is solicitous to mix them all together,

together, for the composing of a body, capable of affording, by the analysis or separatory operation of the fire, salt, spirit, sulphur, phlegm, and earth. I will not hence universally infer, that there are no such substances, one or more, to be found, in any of those bodies, that are called perfectly mixed, antecedently to their being exposed to the fire. But this, I think, will follow from what has been delivered, that the pre-existence of such substances must be made out by some other way, than the bare operation of the fire; and that the grand chymical supposition will not hold in all bodies, that what similar body soever is obtained by the operation of the fire from a concrete, committed to distillation, was formerly and actually pre-existent in it.

6. AND lastly, our experiment affords us a considerable argument in favour of that part of the corpuscular or mechanical hypothesis, that teaches inanimate bodies to differ from one another, but in the bigness, shape, motion, contexture, and, in a word, the mechanical affections of the minute parts they consist of. For in our experiment, we see, that oil of anniseeds, which is not only an uniform or similar body, as to sense, but is judged so by chymists, upon an analysis of the concrete that afforded it, is, by having its parts variously agitated, shaken and rubbed against one another, and in differing manners broken, associated and ranged, transmuted into four bodies of such differing natures and qualities, as the chymists principles and elements are known to be; and this, without the help of any true seed or plastick principle, by the bare operation of the fire, which *Helmont* calls *the artificial death of things*, and *the destroyer of seminalities*. And this is the more considerable, because, whereas the ancient corpuscularian philosophers assigned three general ways, whereby bodies may be produced; namely, by the addition of new parts, the dividing and sometimes taking away a portion of the former, and the transposition of the constituent parts; in our experiment, the whole work seems to be performed only by what they would have called transposition, and that guided but by so simple, impetuous, and unruly an agent, as the fire. Unless it be said, that divers igneous particles, that penetrated the glass retort, did substantially associate themselves with some parts of the oil of anniseeds, and concur with them to compose the pitch-like *caput mortuum*; which they will perhaps say, that (whatever others may do) I ought to allow as a possible thing, after what I have elsewhere written, purposely to shew, that such a penetration of the pores of glass, by the atoms of fire, is not impossible. But the experiments I have delivered, of the ponderability of flame, prove only, that some of its particles may combine with heavy bodies, and fixed in the degree of fire I exposed them to; my trials having been made upon tin and lead. And it will not perhaps be thought likely, that igneous atoms should, by their combination with the particles of an inflammable oil, produce an aqueous liquor, and that in great quantity; as we lately noted of the acid phlegm of anniseeds, amounting to two ounces and almost six drams.

UPON the whole matter, the phaenomena observable in our experiment upon oil of anniseeds seem very congruous to the mechanical hypothesis, and very unfavourable to that of the chymists. For, whether the fire be supposed to have acted merely as an agent, or efficient cause, or to have also concurred as a material one; it appears, that by changes of texture, without the addition of any visible parts, or of any seed, bodies very differing in colour, consistence, fixity, and divers other qualities, may be produced from a body, not only homogeneous as to sense, but pure enough to pass for a chymical principle. And though the suspicion lately proposed should be allowed to be probable, as to the other products, as well as to the black substance; yet still our process upon the oil of anniseeds would afford considerable corollaries against the chymical doctrine I call in question. For, 1. The objection we are considering will give wary men just ground to suspect, that in ordinary chymical distillations the fire is not

always to be looked upon as a meer instrument of analysis; but may in many, if not in most cases, be also a material cause of the supposed principles produced by its means, which is quite contrary to the received doctrine of the vulgar spagyrist, (who are those, I now dispute with.) But, not to insist on this remark, I think our process upon oil of anniseeds will not serve to prove the paradox proposed at the beginning of this paper; since, treating of ingredients chymically obtainable, I may be allowed to speak of them in the usual sense of chymists, who suppose the different substances, obtained from a body committed to distillation, to be the hypostatical principles, and other ingredients of it, without supposing the fire to do any more than extricate or disentangle them from one another. So that, secondly, (to conclude at last this long paragraph) our experiment seems to prove the production of other chymical principles out of one, as validly as their experiments prove, that such principles are obtained from the bodies they call mixed. For, whereas the force of the lately proposed surmise or objection lies in this, that the association of igneous particles hinders the different substances, that our oil of anniseeds afforded us, from being uncompounded bodies, and therefore, from being true principles, they may, for all this, have as good right to the title of principles, as most of these they will have us take for such; since the atoms of the fire may every whit as reasonably be supposed to associate themselves variously with the corpuscles of a mixt body, committed to distillation, as with those of oil of anniseeds, and so their supposed principles will, no more than ours, be free from composition. Nay, the advantage in the comparison lies on our side, since the different substances, that chymists are wont to obtain from a mixt body, may be compounded, not only with igneous particles, but with the differing ingredients of the same body; since this, in their hypothesis, is a mixt body; whereas essential oil of anniseeds is by them granted to be a simple one; and therefore each of its productions is compounded with no extraneous substance, save the corpuscles of the fire.

WHEN I had framed the conjecture, that from a chymical principle several differing bodies might be obtained by the meer operation of the fire; I thought fit to endeavour the confirmation of it, by making experiments upon other distilled oils, (for those made by expression are, by chymists themselves, owned to be compounded bodies,) of natures different, both from the oil of anniseeds, and from one another. And accordingly, whilst our process with this oil, which the chymists call essential, and which was drawn from a vegetable seed, was carrying on, I took care to have distilled in the same furnace oil of turpentine, which, though drawn from a vegetable substance, differs very much from oil of anniseeds; as also oil of amber, which, according to chymists, belongs to the mineral kingdom; and lastly, oil of hartshorn, afforded by a subject, which (to speak in their phrase) belongs to the animal kingdom.

P O S T S C R I P T.

THESE oils were committed to the same laborant, that managed the lately mentioned oil of anniseeds; and he accordingly kept a kind of journal of the number of rectifications, the quantities of pitchy matter from time to time afforded by them, and divers other phænomena, or circumstances, that occurred in so tedious a prosecution, as I thought experiments of such moment deserved. But the papers, containing the minutes of these things, having been unhappily lost, with divers others, by occasion of a great fire, that obliged me, after midnight, to make a hasty and very disorderly remove of my writings, I could never since retrieve the particulars. And therefore I must content myself, to set down as much of the trials, (which I hope will comprize the most substantial part of them) as by examining my own memory and the laborant's
and

and by some few other helps, I am able to collect; as soon as I have given here one advertisement, because I think it was omitted in the papers, whence the foregoing part of this writing was transcribed. The advertisement is this; that as well in the precedent, as in the subsequent part of this discourse, I do not take chymical principles in the strictest sense of that term, wherein it is confined to salt, sulphur, and mercury; but in the larger acception, wherein the learned Doctor *Willis*, and divers other chymists (that are not all his juniors) employ it, when they comprize under it two elementary bodies; as they do, when they constitute five principles, (which perhaps might be more clearly called similar ingredients;) in which number they comprize phlegm and earth, which other chymists, as well as the Aristotelians, would call elements, (of the body that affords them.) Taking then, in his whole writing, the word principles in the larger sense above declared (congruously whereunto I usually call them the chymical principles indefinitely, not the hypostatical principles, which are accounted but three;) I proceed to the particular observations and reflections I was going to begin.

First, THEN it plainly appears, that two of the three lately mentioned oils, namely, the oil of turpentine, and the oil of amber, and therefore very probably the third also, (my design being the same in all three) were distilled at least fifty times; for I intended not to stop short of that number. And by an inscription upon one of the phials, I found, that the oil, which the contained liquor was drawn from, had been distilled one and fifty times; which number exceeds, by fifteen, that of the distillations formerly mentioned to have been made of the oil of anniseeds.

2. EACH of the three other oils, (*viz.* that of hartshorn, that of turpentine, and that of amber,) did leave, from time to time, in the bottom of the retorts, whence they were drawn off, a not inconsiderable quantity of black fæces, much like those, that were left by the oil of anniseeds, and which I have formerly called a pitchy substance. I found in a superscribed paper some quantity of this stuff left by the oil of turpentine; and, though I am not certain, whether it were all the stuff of this kind, that was afforded by the pound of oil we employed, yet it amounted to above two ounces and five drams; and, if I much mistake not, the other two oils did each of them afford a considerable quantity of black terrestrial matter, though the heedful laborant observed, that the oil of hartshorn did sooner leave off yielding copious fæces (as I often in this paper call them, to comply with the chymists terms, though I assent not to their notion) than the oil of turpentine, or that of amber. But if neither of the two afforded any more than did the oil of turpentine, I look upon it as a remarkable thing, that the oil of anniseeds, which is a fine essential oil, distilled in a vesica or limbeck, should yield above twice more of earthy matter, than either of the three other oils, that were distilled but in retorts.

3. OF the colour of the rectified oil of hartshorn I can say little, having unluckily lost the liquor itself; but the oil of amber, after the one and fiftieth distillation, was indeed very clear, but yet of an amber colour, that was far from pale; and the oil of turpentine, that is usually after one rectification a clear and colourless liquor, after fifty distillations appeared almost red.

4. BUT that is much more considerable, which I observed in the quantities of the different liquors afforded by the long series of our distillations; for at the end of the process, the remaining oil of turpentine, for instance, did not appear to my eyes to be considerably, if at all, superior in bulk to another liquor, that came over with it in distillation, and was not true oil; for it would readily enough mix with water, but keep itself in a mass distinct from the oil, and weighed above three ounces and three quarters.

5. This oddly produced liquor I looked upon as compounded of spirit and of phlegm: for though the latter did so much exceed the other in quantity, that, in an expert chymist's

mist's opinion, the whole liquor passed for phlegm; yet, I not only judged some parts of it to be spirits, but found them to be of an acid nature too; since, besides what the taste made me suspect, I found, that the compounded liquor would readily enough begin to corrode beaten coral, even in the cold, and some of it being poured upon good salt of tartar, presently made with it a conflict and ebullition, not without a hissing noise and a multitude of bubbles. So likewise the spirituous phlegm of amber made a conflict with salt of tartar, and dissolved crude coral, as other weak acid spirits are also wont to do. This liquor of amber was not pale, as the phlegmatic spirit of oil of anniseeds was; and that lately mentioned to have been obtained from oil of turpentine was high coloured, being of a brownish red.

6. I forgot to take notice in due place (and therefore do it in this) that, among other trials made to discover, that the spirits afforded by our oils were really acid, we put two ounces of the spirituous phlegm of oil of anniseeds (that being the mildest oil) upon some minium; and, having digested them a while together, found the liquor turned sweet, and fit (as we judged) to make *Saccharum Saturni*: and this liquor (after filtration through cap-paper) being gently abstracted, left in the bottom of the retort a thick honey like substance, from which (the distillation being continued in the same retort, but with a much stronger heat) there came over some liquor, which being in too little quantity to be rectified, we could not free it from its phlegm, and therefore did not find it inflammable; as I guessed the spirituous part would have been after rectification, in regard the liquor was exceeding like the *Spiritus ardens Saturni*, I have elsewhere described, in its peculiar and very penetrating taste and smell.

7. It may not be unfit to be taken notice of in this place, that having lighted on two phials, that I long knew not what was become of, one of which contained some of the oil of turpentine, and the other some of the oil of amber, that I formerly mentioned to have been each of them distilled at least fifty times; I thought fit to try, whether, after these liquors had been laid by about a year and half, or longer, they would, after having had so long a time to defecate themselves in, yield still such a black substance as has been oftentimes mentioned; and having, to satisfy myself, caused each of these liquors to be again distilled in a retort, it left behind it a greater quantity of a black and shining substance, than could well have been expected.

8. It may seem very odd in itself, and may much serve to confirm what I have elsewhere delivered about the mechanical origin of fixity, as also of the qualities opposite to fusibleness and to fluidity; that so volatile and thin a liquor, as a chymical rectified oil, should, by the bare operation of the fire, be brought to yield a great quantity of what looks so like terrestrial fæces, as our pitchy *Capita Mortua* did. But this reflection will, I presume, appear the better grounded, if I add the success of one trial (among others) that I made, to examine the terrestrial nature of the black bodies I am speaking of: for, although many bodies, that will not ascend, or be dissipated in close vessels, will easily be driven away in open ones; yet having put one ounce of the *Caput Mortuum* of the oil of anniseeds, and as much of that afforded by oil of turpentine, each of them into a distinct crucible, and kept them three hours and a half, or near four hours, in such a heat as made the vessels all the while red hot; though we kept not the crucibles closely covered, but only loosely to keep out the ashes, yet we found, when the vessels were removed from the fire, that the contained bodies had not at all been brought to fusion, only that from the oil of anniseeds was in part somewhat caked together: and notwithstanding all the heat they had been exposed to, the pitchy substance of the oil of turpentine retained not far from three quarters, of its first weight; and the *Caput mortuum* of oil of anniseeds lost about eighteen grains less than that.

9. AFTER this we also endeavoured to discover, whether our pitchy substances would afford any fixt or alcalifate salt, as the *Capita Mortua* of most bodies belonging to the vegetable kingdom are wont to do. But though we kept an ounce a-piece of the black substances, left by the oil of anniseeds and that of turpentine, for nine or ten hours, red hot in the crucibles; yet we found indeed the bodies very much diminished in quantity, but they did not appear at all calcined.

10. INTO a couple of ounces of this last named liquor, we put, by little and little, as much of dry salt of tartar, as it would work upon, as an acid, or (if you please) till there would no longer be any visible conflict excited by adding more salt. The acid being thus mortified or satiated, I intended to draw off all the rest of the liquor, and to try with the phlegm drawn off, whether, by cohobating it very slowly in a new glass head and body, I could not make a farther transmutation of the tercointinate oil, and change, at least, part of this aqueous phlegmatic liquor into a whitish earth. About the possibility of which transmutation, and of some others also, I might here subjoin an account, if, since the lately mentioned fire, I could have found a short discourse I wrote, to propose and examine this grand physico-chymical problem, whether we ought to admit any other elements or hypostatical principles at all, even so much as one of the bodies, that are commonly called, mixt?

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Wherein are contained divers EXPERIMENTS made both in compressed and also in factitious AIR, about FIRE, ANIMALS, &c. Together with a DESCRIPTION of the ENGINES, wherein they were made.

The PREFACE to the LATIN Edition.

AFTER I had first published my physico-mechanical experiments to the curious world, and, some years after, the continuation of them, (together with a full description of the engines, and lesser vessels, which I used in the making of them) I thought it a very venial thing in me, if, superseding any farther labour upon such subjects, I left that argument to be studied, and, if they had pleased, cultivated by others. And therefore I was content to annex only some experiments, occasionally made, concerning respiration, concerning the scarce credible rarefaction of the air, and lastly, concerning the preservation of some bodies, whilst they are defended from the contact of the air; in regard those tracts were of kin to other arguments, which I had occasion to handle at several times. But in seven or eight years space, hearing of very few experiments made, either in the engine I used, or in any other made after the model thereof, I began to reassume some thoughts concerning the farther use thereof myself; at which time it happened very opportunely, that a certain tract written in *French*, small in bulk, but very ingenious, containing sundry experiments concerning the preservation of fruits, and some other tracts of a different nature, was brought unto me by monsieur *Papin*, who had joined his pains with the eminent monsieur

ſieur *Chriſtian Hugenius*, in making the ſaid experiments; and, upon farther diſcourſe with him, finding, that he came out of *France* into *England* but a little before, in hopes to obtain ſome place here, which might be fit for his genius, and, whilſt he was in that expectancy, that he was willing to beſtow his pains about experimental philoſophy, upon which, I had an inclination, at my coſt, to gratify his curioſity, whilſt I alſo indulged my own; and, ſeeing he had a pneumatic-pump of his own, made by himſelf, to the uſe of which he was more accuſtomed, though it differed from the ſtructure of my pump, I gave him the freedom to uſe his own, becauſe he beſt knew how to ply it alone, and (if any diſorder ſhould happen, from the luxation of its parts, or any other casualty) how to repair it more eaſily. Though, in his abſence, I choſe rather to uſe my own pump, both becauſe my domeſtics were better acquainted with it, and alſo becauſe it was not ſubject to ſo many and frequent inconveniencies, by reaſon of its more ſolid ſtructure.

BUT, ſeeing ſeveral ſorts of experiments, long ſince made on divers bodies, had left me little to do about the ſame ſubjects, there were only two things, which I chiefly deſigned to proſecute. One of which contained thoſe experiments, which, when I firſt publiſhed my *Phyſico-mechanical Experiments*, I had wiſhed in general had been made, not in rarefied or expanded, but in condensed or rather compressed air. The other was to be verſant about thoſe trials, which were not to be made, as the former, with natural air, either in its wonted ſtate, or any way rarefied, but factitious air, (that I may ſo ſpeak,) ſuch as, in my former writings, I had mentioned to be producible by the help of fermentations or corroſions. The divers ways of producing or extricating that factitious air, and the ways of trying it, when it was produced, having been ſome years ago preſented to the Royal Society, I was invited, by that learned aſſembly, to proſecute farther thoſe diſquiſitions. Now, although thoſe were the chief kinds of experiments, which I applied my mind unto, yet it will appear by the following ſheets, that I did not confine myſelf to them alone.

BUT, before I could make any conſiderable progreſs in this work, it pleaſed the moſt juſt and wiſe God, the ſupreme arbiter and ruler of all things, to afflict me with the ſtone (the pains whereof do as yet now and then trouble me,) ſo that I was enforced to take another courſe of proceeding. For, to eaſe myſelf, it was judged meet, that monſieur *Papin* ſhould ſet down in writing all the experiments and the phænomena ariſing therefrom, as if they had been made and obſerved by his own ſkill; and moreover, the calculation of the degrees of the rarefaction and condensation of the air, included in our mercurial gage, was intruſted to his care. But I, myſelf, was always preſent at the making of the chief experiments, and alſo at ſome of thoſe of an inferior ſort, to obſerve whether all things were done according to my mind. But, as for thoſe experiments, which required a longer time in making, ſuch as thoſe about the conſervation of bodies, he did from time to time, with great diligence, acquaint me with thoſe alterations, which happened in them in my abſence; and he alſo brought the glaſs-inſtruments to me, and declared to me the effects of the experiments, when they were finiſhed, that ſo I might take into conſideration the changes made in the materials, when taken out of the veſſels. Yet, I confeſs, I was purpoſely ſomewhat more incurious and remiſs about thoſe experiments, which were made concerning the preſervation of fruits, and of fleſh in liquors, which was made chiefly by the help of compression; and alſo about the coction of meat. For, as ſome of theſe later experiments were propounded for trial by monſieur *Papin*, for a particular end of his own, ſomewhat different from my deſign in the other experiments; ſo I was very willing, that he ſhould uſe his own method about them, not doubting but he would uſe his greateſt induſtry therein, as I found, by the event, that he had done. Yea, I did judge, that I might more ſafely acquieſce in
his

his relations, concerning the experiments about flesh, about fruits, and about boiling of meat; because, as these were some of the last which we made, so I had cause enough to trust his skill and diligence used about the former experiments; some of which, *viz.* those which are marked with an asterisk, he himself propounded, as if they had been formed in his own brain; as also not a few of the mechanical instruments, (especially the double-pump, and wind-gun) which sometimes were of necessary use to us in our work, are to be referred to his invention, who also made some of them, at least in part, with his own hands.

IN the following tract, the reader will not find the reasons subjoined, which moved me to make these experiments, (which I usually did in my former Physico-mechanical Experiments, and in the Continuation of them) for I had neither leisure, nor a mind free from other businesses, to make such a preface; and I did also hope, that the sagacious reader would find out my sense well enough, though purposely not expressed in plain words, if he did but attentively consider the nature of the things treated of; especially if calling in to his aid those short corollaries, which he will find annexed to the several experiments, whereby he may fish out my aim. Though, to speak the truth, some few of those inferences owe themselves more to my assistant than to me.

I am well assured, that very many of the following experiments will not be thought weighty enough by many readers, as to deserve to be printed; and indeed I myself was so far of their mind, that I had once thoughts of expunging them out of the following collection; but at last I was more easily persuaded to afford them a place amongst the rest, because, however they may be considered apart, yet, in consort with the rest, they may be, at least, of moderate use.

I was not very solicitous about the style, because, being infirm in point of health, and besides, surrounded with many businesses, I was enforced to leave the choice of words to monsieur *Papin*; my chief care being to have the whole work diligently read over to me, that so no mistake might pass by unobserved about the experiments themselves. Besides, seeing the things here treated of are merely physical, and their manner of handling but historical, there is no need of any farther apology to excuse the incomptness of the style: yet this may be alledged in excuse thereof; that the heads of things (or memorials as they are called) being at first set down, for haste, by monsieur *Papin* in his own native tongue, *scil.* the *French*, and afterwards turned into *Latin*, (in which habit they now appear) do labour with that inconvenience, which doth usually attend all translations, especially where the interpreter must have a greater care of the propriety of words, than of the elegance of them.

MOREOVER, he that shall attentively consider the following experiments, will not wonder, that they are delivered in a less accurate method. For we accounted it sufficient for our purpose, to reduce those experiments, which did differ, and had least affinity amongst themselves, into some certain heads, to which they seemed most commodiously to be referable: and, besides, considering the nature of the experiments themselves, I hope the reader will easily grant, that at least many of them ought to have been set down in the way of a diary, yet distinguished, and, as it were, intercalated by frequent intervals, because the examination of some of them was protracted for many days, the nature of the experiments themselves, and also the design of the experimentators, requiring such chains. Add hereto, that I was more willing to set down divers things with their minute circumstances; because I was of opinion, that probably many of these experiments would be never either re-examined by others, or re-iterated by myself. For though they may be easily read, when set down with pen and ink in paper-sheets, yet he, that shall really go about to repeat them, will find it no easy task.

For there are so many, and such sundry sorts of instruments, both of a greater and lesser size, which are necessarily required for use herein, some of them to be made on purpose for the present occasion; respect also being had to the time and assiduity, requisite and necessary for making the experiments and observations, in cases, wherein so subtle and elastic a body as the air is, must be violently reduced into a preternatural state, and must be long kept in that disposition; that, as it is a very difficult thing to prevent those inconveniencies, which do attend so unusual experiments, so it is far more difficult to apply remedies to those inconveniencies, after they have once happened. For these, and other reasons, so much time is to be spent, that I am almost ashamed to tell, how much thereof was impended on these trials which are contained in the present book, though but small, to which this poem is prefixed.

NEVERTHELESS, though all these things are alledged in excuse, yet the deficiency of this collection is so well known to me, (there being little to be found therein which may commend books) that I would invite very few philosophers to the reading of so incult and unpolite a rhapsody, especially from the beginning to the end. For though it may probably happen, that some experiments contained herein may not be disallowed by the curious, yet they may have leave from me, to esteem this whole tract but as a loose heap (or rather chaos) of particulars belonging to the air, especially as constituted in its preternatural state, and to the operations of it upon some bodies, as clothed with such and such circumstances: so that it is free for them to cull out only those experiments, which please their curiosity, or any other of their concerns best, without being obliged to read over the whole book, no more than a lexicon, which we use not to consult, but now and then, for the sake of a word. In short, it is not probable, that a book so impolite, as this is, will be either wholly read over, or can conciliate any favour from the reading, unless with those readers, to whom a book comes sufficiently commended only upon this account, that it contains things new and also true. For if those two privileges are enough to obtain favour, then there is no cause, that the following tract should wholly despair of the reader's benevolence, especially since some trials contained therein do treat of the properties and operations of the air; I say, of the air, which, notwithstanding the laudable endeavours of some ingenious modern writers in the explication thereof, yet is a body, which, I fear at present, we have greater use and necessity of than knowledge.

An ADVERTISEMENT of the PUBLISHER to the READER, before the Latin Edition.

SEVERAL tracts, made by our author, printed at *Geneva*, and bound up in one volume, were not long since transported into *England*: in which matter, though the author himself doth not complain (which yet he might lawfully do) of the immoderate liberty of some men, who have presumed, unknown to him, to bind up so many of his writings together, and to publish them; not to mention the print, as being but bad, (or at least not accurate) yet there are two things in that edition, which, in our author's behalf, cannot be concealed without just reprehension, for they may impair his credit much, especially with those, to whom his writings are not otherwise known than by that collection.

For, first, there is no signification made therein, that any of Mr. *Boyle's* tracts were ever written in any other language than that, wherewith they are there clothed, viz. the *Latin*; whence it may probably come to pass, that all the faults and defects of style, which are wont to blemish translations, especially such as are literally made, may, by readers, who are not otherwise informed, be imputed to the author himself, who, for

for reasons often rendered by him, was induced to write all his works in the English tongue; the versions of some of them into Latin being not so much as seen by him, till, being come from the press, they were put into his hands.

SECONDLY, the several tracts, making up that collection, are all dated in one and the same year, viz. 1677, as if they had been all, both writ, and also published, by our author, at once; whereas indeed some of them were made publick eight or 10 years, some 11 or 12, others 17 or 18 years before ever this collection saw the light. Hence an injury, greater than the former, may be offered to our author; for those readers, to whom neither himself nor his lucubrations are known but from that volume, may be easily persuaded to believe, that those experiments, if perhaps they meet with the same, which are comprehended in these books, and are also found in other mens works printed before 1677, were transferred, by our author, out of their tracts into his own; than which nothing can be imagined or spoken at a greater distance from truth. For, indeed, if, applying myself for three whole years to manage the experiments of so great a person, and thereby having frequent opportunity to converse with him, I sometimes casually light upon something new, yet who sees not, that thanks is to be returned to him alone, who afforded me both the occasion of meditation, and also leisure to operate? Yet such is the humanity of this noble person, that he mentions my name in the preface to this book, as if some things therein were mine. Who then can justly say, that he hath excerp'd any thing from other authors, who gives his own freely unto others?

[The rest of this advertisement relates to a catalogue of Mr. Boyle's philosophical writings, subjoined to it.]

The TRANSLATOR to the READER.

THOUGH the first part of the Physico-mechanical Experiments of this honourable author was published by him in the English tongue, as was also, some years after, his first Continuation of the same; yet so welcomely were they entertained by the curious, especially in transmarine parts, that the first part hath been long since published in the Latin tongue; and the first Continuation is also translated in the same tongue, though (for reasons, in part mentioned at the end of the publisher's advertisement to the reader, prefixed before this tract) not yet printed.

THIS second Continuation of the aforesaid experiments speaks Latin at the first hand; but that all those three tracts might be cloathed in one habit, it was the desire of some ingenious persons, that it might also be rendered into English; which province hath been recommended to me by the bookseller.

I may without vanity affirm, that I have an advantage beyond some others, in reference to the versions of any tracts of this noble author, either out of English into Latin, or out of Latin into English; in that, by reason of the vicinity of my habitation, I have conveniency, at fitting seasons, to consult the author himself, about his sense in any place, which may be doubtful to me; which I mention, not only to declare the candour and condescension of so eminent a person, but also to account for any mistakes I may be guilty of, which are therefore rendered the more inexcusable in me, and properly to be laid at my own door.

It is not to be doubted, but that, if the honourable author of these following experiments had himself at first drest them up in their English habit, they had appeared far more terse and polite, than my inability can trim them up to; yet, besides the necessary inconveniencies, which attend all translations of books, (especially those, which treat of nice and curious subjects) which I alledge for part of my apology, I do farther re-

lieve myself with that saying of the orator, *Si quis summa desperet, tamen est pulchrum in secundis tertiusve consistere.* Quintil.

AND in reference to the elegancies of this noble author, in the English as well as other languages (of which he is so great a master) I may farther add, with the same orator, *Ut transeundi spes non sit, magna tamen est dignitas consequendi.* It is sufficient honour for me to write after his copy. In fine, I conclude with the poet;

*Veniam pro laude peto, laudatus abunde,
Si fastiditus non tibi, lector, ero.*

The SECOND CONTINUATION of PHYSICO-MECHANICAL EXPERIMENTS.

ICONISME I.

The description of the engine, with a double tube, for the exhausting of the air.

AA **A** RE two pumps made of brass. BB are two plugs hollow within, and open below.

CC are two holes in the upper part of the plugs, with valves opening outwardly, that they may afford passage to the air to go out, and hinder it from coming in.

DDDD are iron rods serving to move the plugs, and annexed to them, by means of the gnomons FF.

EE are two flat iron stirrups at the top of the rods DD, on which the operator must stand to set a work the engine.

GGG is a cord joined to the two stirrups, and compassing the pulley H.

LL are two valves at the bottom of the pumps, opening inwardly, for the admission of the air out of the tube MM.

MM is a tube reaching from both pumps to the plate OO, by means of the curvature PP QQ; which curvature ought to be of so great length, that the tube PQQ may not hinder the exerciser of the pumps, but that he may conveniently stand on the stirrups EE.

OO is a plate bored in the middle, on which the receivers, to be evacuated, are to be put; as R for example.

BEFORE this engine can be fit for use, it is to be put into a frame of wood to

support it, as is shewed in the second scheme, and as much water is to be poured through the hole Q in the plate OO into the pumps, as is sufficient to fill the cavities of the plugs, and a little more; and then somebody must stand on the two iron stirrups EE, and must alternately depress and elevate them. For by this means it will come to pass, that the plugs, following the motion of the stirrups in their ascent, will leave the space in the bottom of the pumps empty, and seeing all other passage is intercluded from the air, that air alone which is contained in the receiver R, is conveyed into the aforesaid pumps by the tube QQ PP M, and opens the valve L, which, being presently shut, hinders the same air from making a regress; wherefore the plug, afterwards descending, compresseth that air, whence of necessity, the valve C must be opened, and all the air must pass out at it, viz. because the water, in the bottom of the pumps, doth exactly fill all the spaces, and doth also regurgitate through the valve C.

HERE we may observe, that this double engine is, upon many occasions, to be preferred before a single one, that is moved with the foot) for it doth not only produce a double effect, but performs it also much more easily; for in those engines, which are furnished but with one tube, whilst the plug is drawn up to evacuate the pump, the

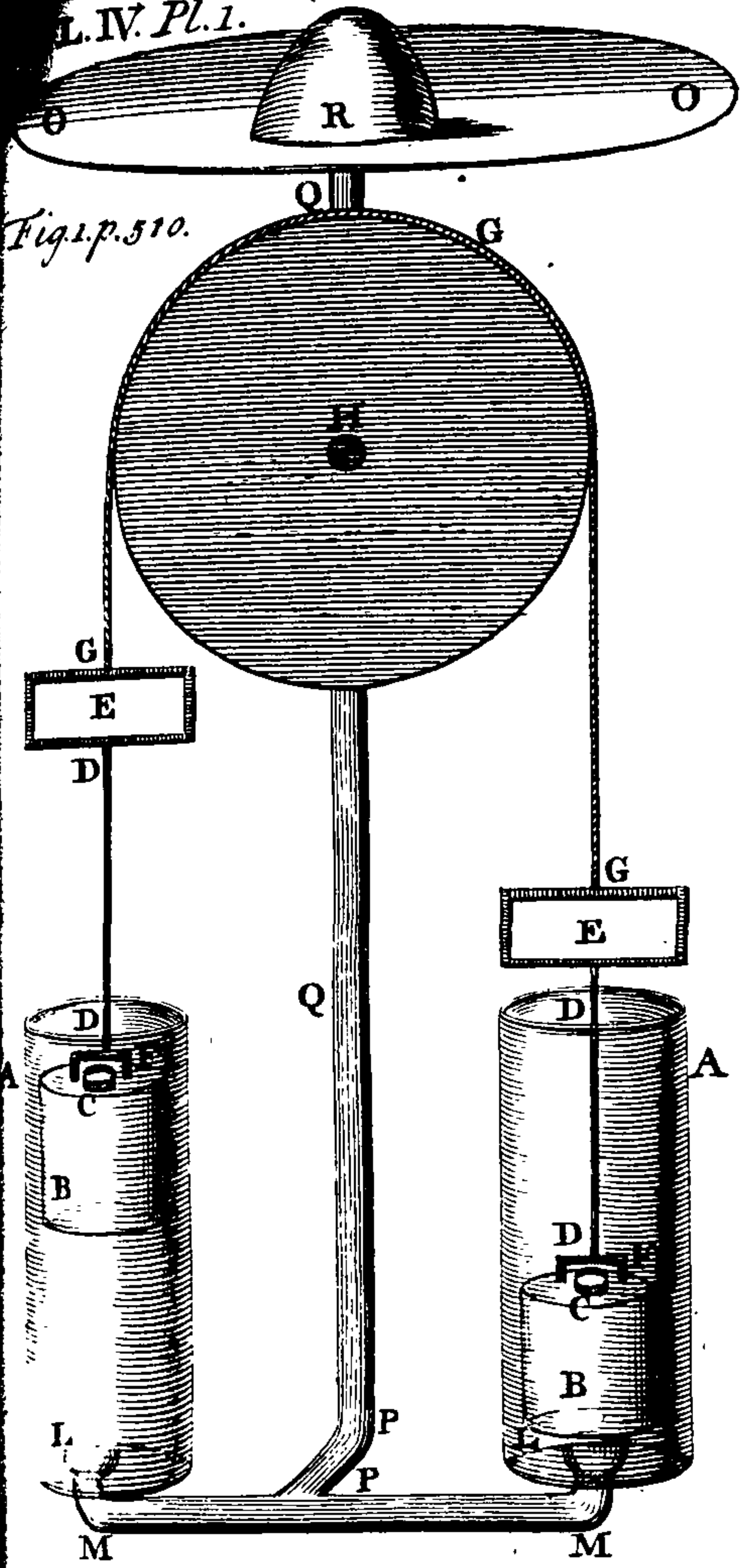


Fig. 2. p. 510.

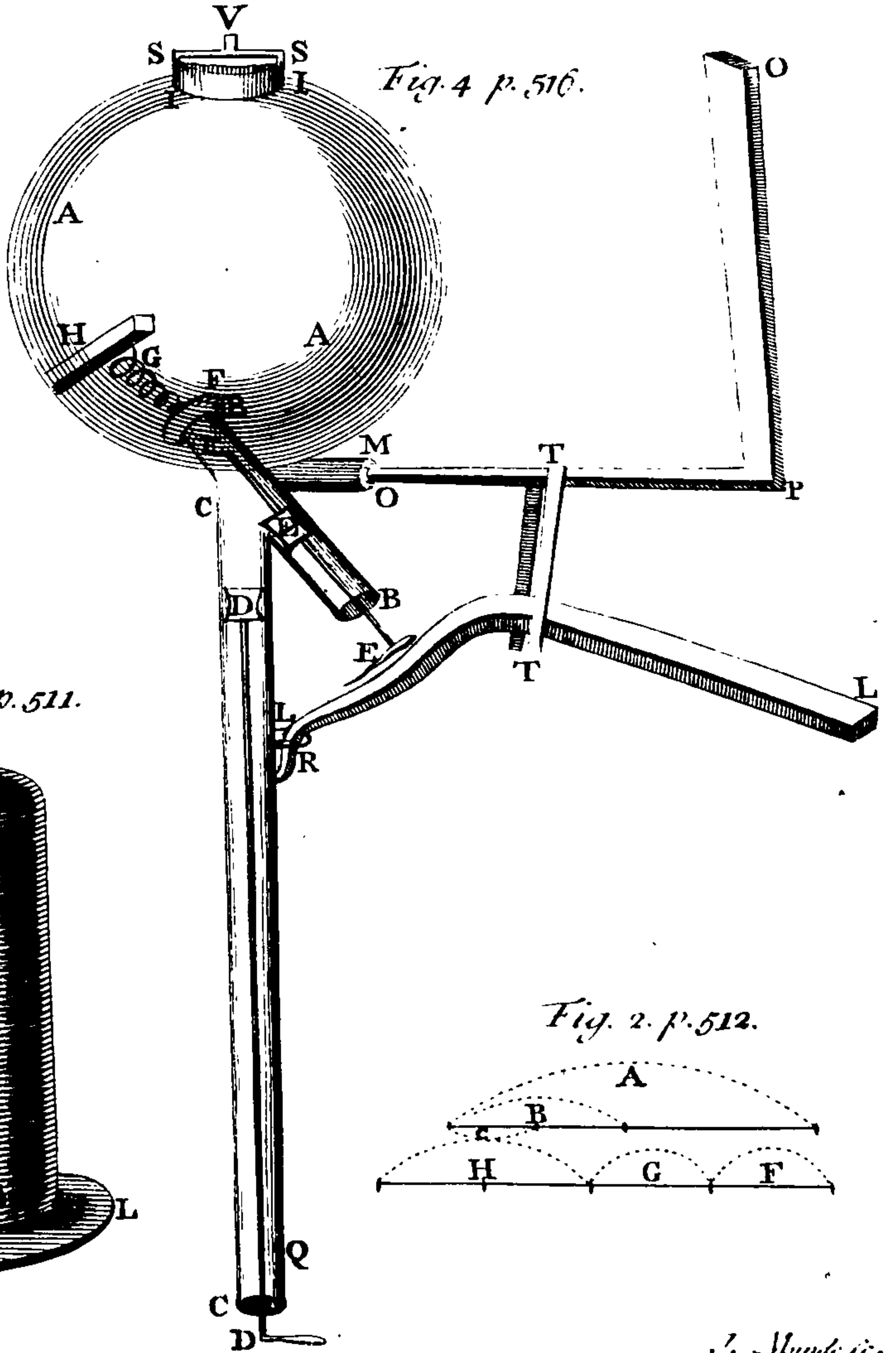
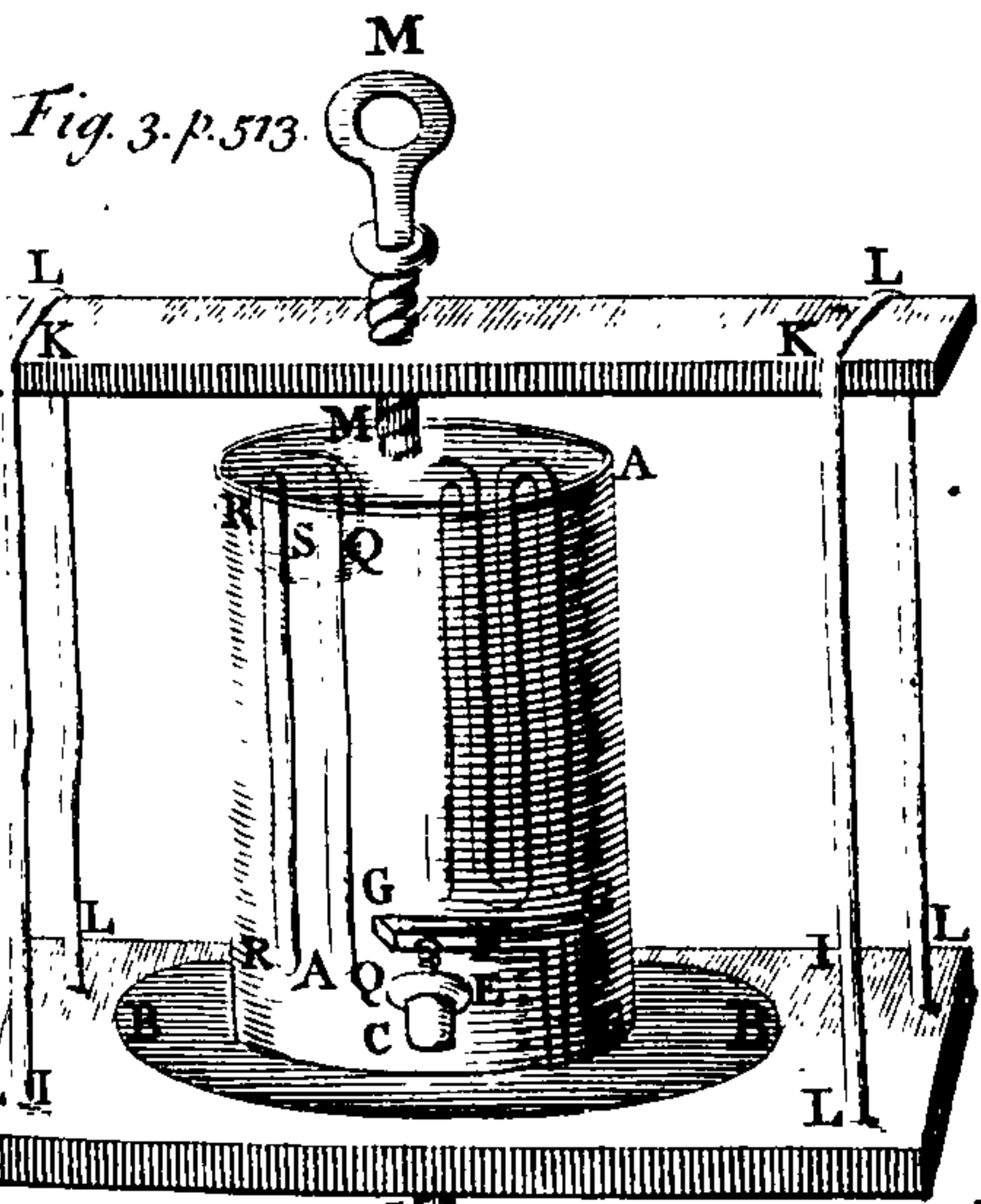
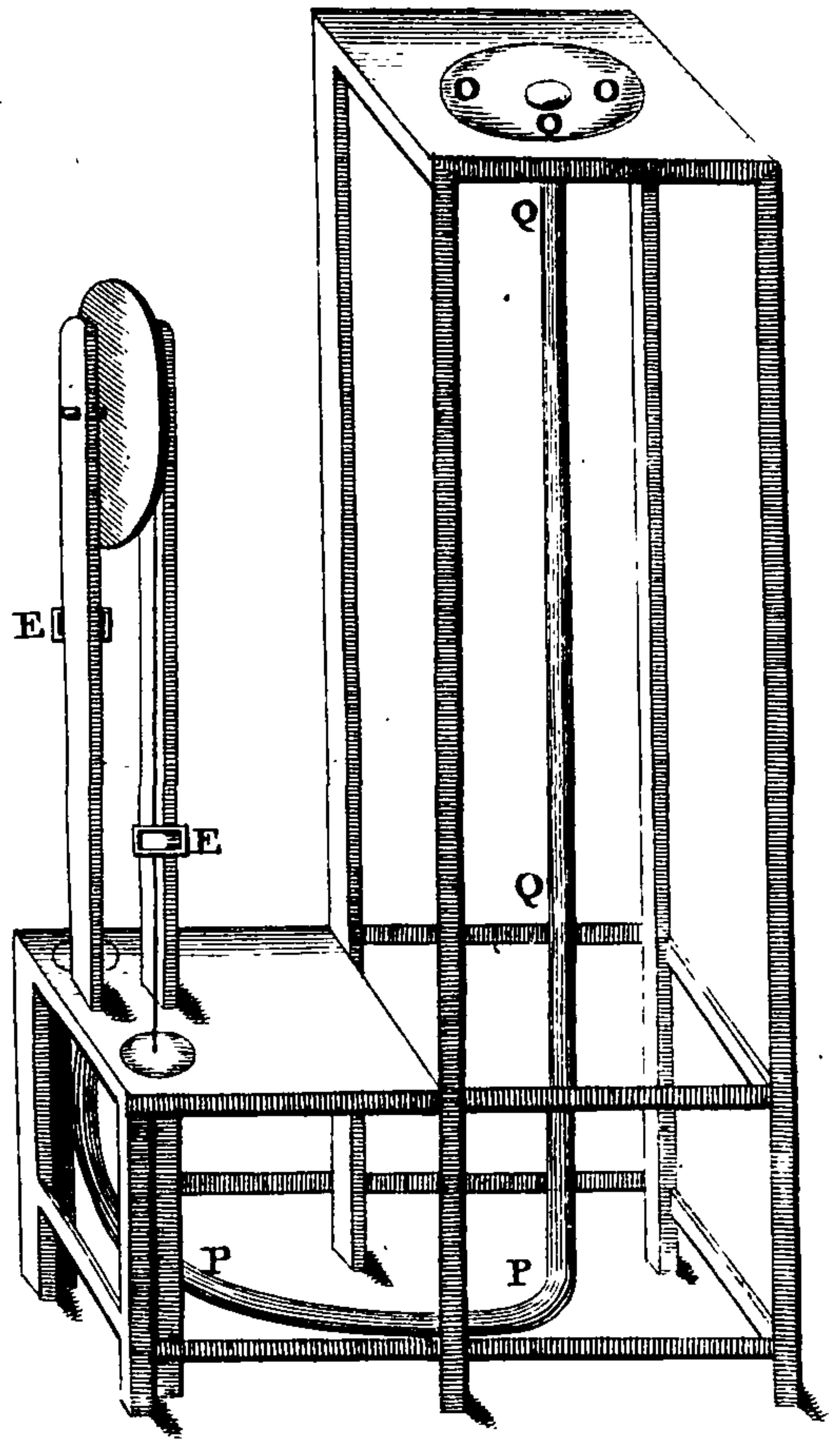


Fig. 1. p. 511.

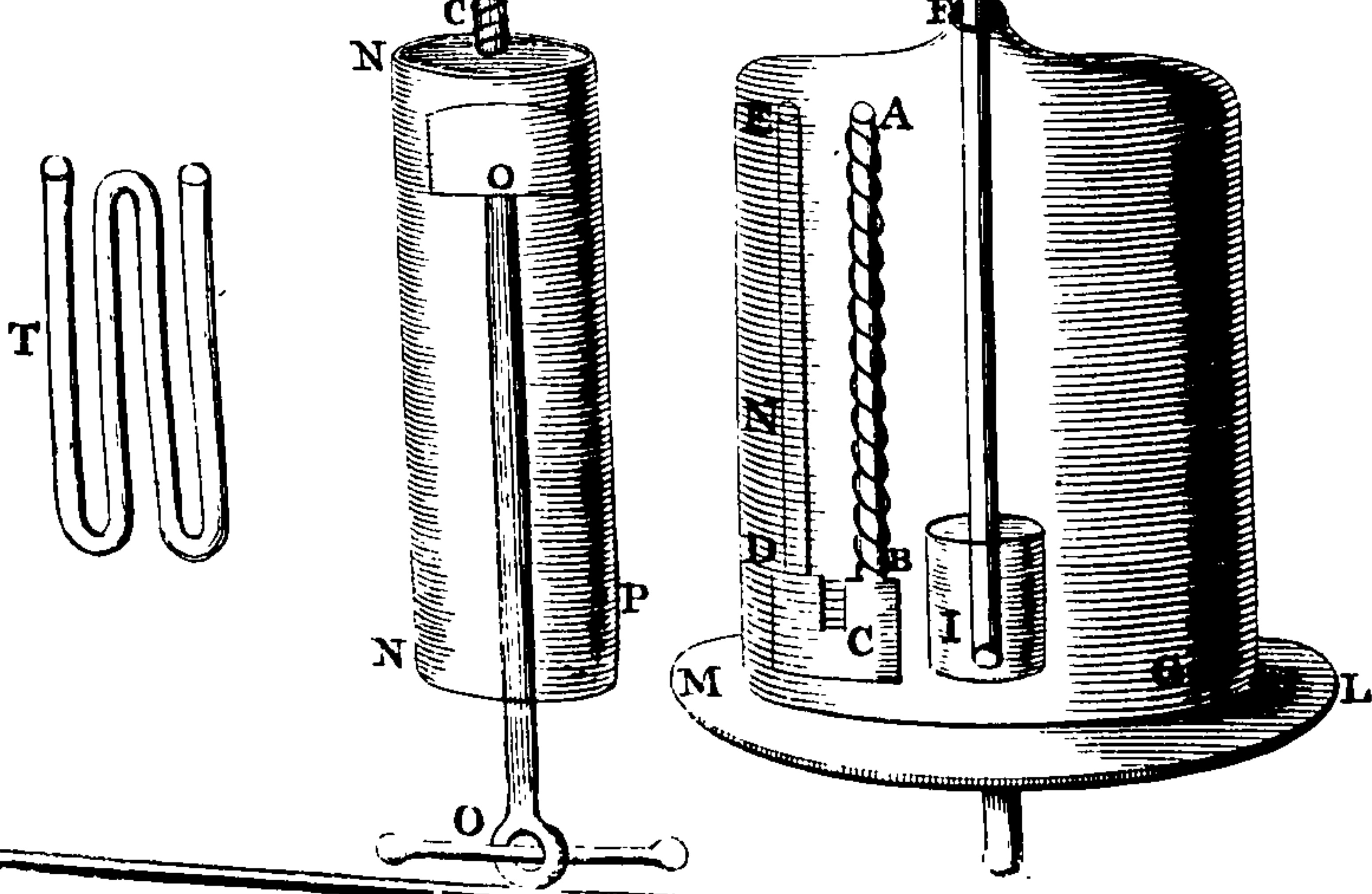
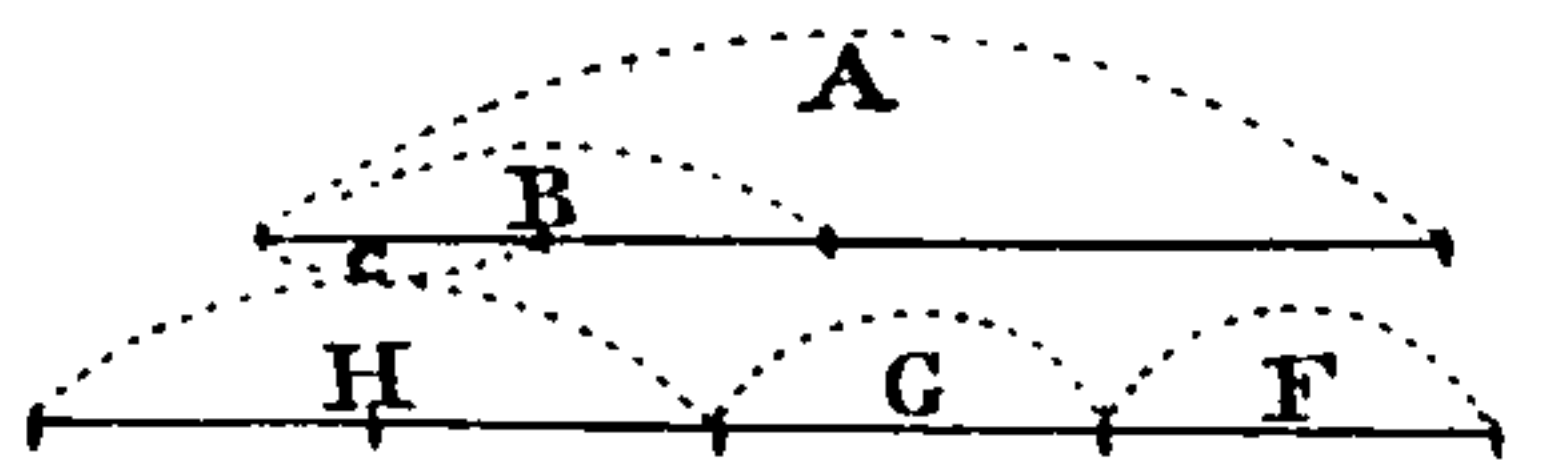


Fig. 2. p. 512.



the whole pillar of the air, incumbent on the plug, is to be elevated by force; and again, when the plug returns back, it is also by force to be restrained, lest it should be too swiftly impelled by the air, and so break the bottom of the engine; but in these double engines, the plyer of them is in a manner wholly free from that toil. For in the first suction, the plugs are easily lifted up, because the air, immediately derived from the receiver R into the pumps, presseth the plugs downwards, almost as strongly as the external air incumbent on the opposite part; and when the quantity of the internal air is diminished, it comes to pass, that the plug to be depressed tends downwards with so much the greater force; and so, by means of the cord GGG compassing the pully, draws the other plug upwards, and, at the same time, hinders it from too much velocity of descent. And by this means both plugs, at one and the same time, will be helpful to him, that exerciseth the pumps.

SEEING the plugs make but a very small resistance, a man may easily judge, that the two pumps of this engine may be plyed with greater ease, and also with more speed, than one pump in single engines can; so that this engine is of great use in order to those experiments, which cannot be well made but with velocity and speed.

ICONISME II.

The description of the mercurial gage.

THE first description of a mercurial gage, to discover the degrees both of the rarefied and condensed air, may be seen about the beginning of the Continuation of our Physico-mechanical Experiments; but those gages, which I used in the following experiments, are declared in the subsequent scheme.

Fig. 1. THE whole gage ABCDE consists of three glass tubes, all very well fastned and cemented together, yet so, that a passage is open from one to the other; the first of these tubes AB being open at the extreme A, is of less capacity than the

tube BCD, but of greater than the tube ED. The tube BCD is crooked in the middle, and the tube ED ought to be hermetically sealed, at the extreme E, but the part BCD must first be filled with mercury.

THIS instrument, thus prepared, if it be put into a receiver, out of which the air is afterwards to be extracted, it will come to pass, that the air remaining in the part ED, will, by its spring, compress the mercury DCB, and force it to ascend into the part BA, and itself will be dilated in the cavity DC. If then the proportions be duly observed between the bigness and length of the tubes, as shall be declared hereafter, when the air is extracted, the mercury will almost reach to the top A, and the air in the other leg, being so dilated, that it cannot sustain a greater body of mercury, will be kept included in that place.

BUT that this instrument may exactly tell the quantity of the air produced in its receiver, the tubes AB ED are to be distinguished by marks into several parts; and when the Torricellian experiment is tried, above the plain plate LM of the pneumatick engine, as you may see in the figure, a receiver FGE is to be taken, being perforated in the top F, and the tube HI is to be transmitted through the hole, that so the receiver may be applied to the plate; and then the hole F being stopped, and the gage ABCDE being put into the receiver, the air is to be exhausted; the air then being dilated in the receiver, the mercury cannot be sustained so high in the tube HI, but must descend by degrees; and at the same time the air of the tube ED, drives the mercury, by little and little, into the tube AB. When then the mercury in the tube HI descends to the height of 29 digits (I take digits for inches throughout all this tract) and stays at that height, if we mark to what height the mercury hath ascended into the tube AB, we may know, that as often as the mercury in our gage shall rest at that height, the air in the same receiver will

be able to sustain only 29 digits of mercury; so that the place in the gage, or in the paper semblably divided, must be marked with the figure 29. And so further, every digit of the mercury in the tube HI may be marked in our mercurial gage, and the part AB will be fit to shew all the degrees of the rarefied air.

BUT now if the air be condensed in the receiver above its wonted pressure, and all ways of its escape be stopped, you may immediately know it by the tube ED; for the mercury will be impelled into it by the incumbent air, through the open hole, so much the higher, as the compression of the air in the receiver shall be the greater; and how great that is, and what an altitude of the mercury it can sustain, may easily enough be found out, if the computation be made after the manner following:

It is evident, from the experiments long since published by Mr. Boyle, in his answer to *Limus*, that the space possessed by the air, is diminished in the same proportion, as the compressing force is increased, and *vice versâ*.

Fig. 2. LET then (for example) the space A be possessed by a certain quantity of air, when (for instance) the compressing force is F: if now we encrease that force by the addition of G, which is equal to it, it will happen, that our self-same quantity of air will be reduced to half its space; so that B, the remaining space, will be the half of the total space A, even as the former pressure F is the half of total pressure F + G. So further, if we encrease the pressure more, by the addition of H, so that the first pressure F is only $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total pressure F + G + H, it will come to pass, that the air can possess only the space C, which is $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total space A. And so afterwards, the remaining space will be in the same proportion to the total space, as the first pressure is to the total pressure.

THE remaining space : the total space :: the first pressure : the total pressure.

So that three of those terms or quantities being known, it will be easy to find out a fourth, by the rule of proportion. For instance, in our gage let the tube ED be the total space, in which the air is compressed by the wonted pressure of the air, which in *England* is wont to be equivalent to 30 digits of mercury, or thereabouts; and therefore the first pressure will be 30 digits of mercury. Now, if that pressure be encreased, and the air be reduced into a narrower space, suppose into the space NE; if I would find out the quantity of this pressure, I measure the remaining space NE exactly, and I constitute that, suppose six digits or inches, for the first term of proportion; the second term will be the total space DE, suppose 12 digits; the third term will be the height of 30 digits of the mercury, which was the first pressure; and so the fourth term, or total pressure will be found to be 60 digits of mercury; whence I may conclude, that the pressure of the air in the receiver can sustain the mercury to the height of 60 digits: and so of the rest.

FROM the same principle before laid down, it will be easy to collect, what ought to be the proportion between the largeness of the tubes AB and ED. For that depends on the length of the legs, which the higher they are, so much the better they can restrain and keep in the air, being but a little dilated in the sealed part. For instance, let the length AB be of 10 inches, which height of the mercury is $\frac{1}{3}$ of the accustomed pressure, it will be sufficient, that the tube HB be twice as big as the tube ED; for after the mercury hath ascended to the top of the tube AB, the air included in the other leg, expanding itself into the space, forsaken by the mercury, will possess three times more than its former space, and so $\frac{1}{3}$ of the first pressure, which is 10 digits, will be sufficient to curb its spring. But if the legs were of less length, then the mercury would be expelled by the included air, at least in part. And therefore the bigness of the tube AB ought to have a greater proportion to the bigness

bigness of the tube ED, that the ascending mercury may afford greater place to the air to be dilated, and so, the spring of the air being weakened, the weight of the mercury cannot be overcome. And that would happen so, if the height of the gage be to the height of 30 digits, in the same proportion which the first space of the air is in, to the total space, which the air would possess *in vacuo*, according to the principle before laid down.

It is better, that the height of the tube be longer than shorter; because if it be shorter, the mercury will be expelled in part, and so will not be able to shew all the degrees of rarefaction; but if it be longer, this only will happen, that the mercury will not reach to the top, and so the gage will nevertheless indicate all the variations, though they be less sensible ones.

BUT the tube DC ought to contain that quantity of mercury, at the least, which may be sufficient to fill the tube AB, before any way of eruption be opened for the air included in the tube ED. If the capacity of it be much greater, the matter is not much; nor need we be very solicitous concerning the figure of this tube.

ICONISME II.

A description of the engine to compress the air.

Fig. 3. AA Is a glass vessel, whose orifice is exquisitely fitted to the plain plate BB.

BB Is a plain plate of brass, made to cover the vessel AA exactly.

CC Is a small tube of brass, passing through the middle of the said plate, and fastened thereunto.

E Is a little valve, opening inwardly, to shut the small tube C aforesaid.

F Is the spring depressing the valve E.

GGG Is the gnomon fastened to the plate BB, made for restraining the spring F.

II Is a square lath, sustaining the plate BB, and bored through in the middle to transmit the little tube C.

LLL ARE two iron wires, which

passing through the holes in the lath II, and compassing the upper part of the iron plate KK, do hinder the said plate, that it cannot be much moved from the lath.

KK Is an iron plate, with a hole in the middle, formed into a female-screw, to receive the male-screw MM.

MM Is an iron screw, whose use is, straitly to conjoin the receiver AA with the plate BB. And lest the brass vessel should be broken, it is convenient to put some wood with leather between the screw and the upper part of the receiver: also leather is to be put upon the plate BB, both to prevent the breaking of the glass, and also for the more exact shutting of the receiver.

NN Is a pump fastened to the tube C, below the plate BB.

OO Is the sucker or plug of the pump NN.

P Is a little hole in the lower part of the pump, by which the air enters into it, when the plug is brought to the lowest part thereof.

Now if we would compress the air by the help of this engine, we put the bodies, about which the experiment is to be made, into the receiver AA; and laying it on the plate BB, we firmly bind it thereto by the help of the screw MM. This being done, the sucker or plug OO is to be drawn, till the external air, by the hole P, can fill all the upper part of the pump: then if the plug be drawn upwards, it will come to pass, that the air, finding no other way of egress, will open the valve E, and enter into the receiver AA, from whence there is no regress, because the valve E is presently depressed by the spring F, and doth shut the hole C. And so we may iterate the compression of the air into the vessel AA, as often as we please, and the quantity thereof is easily known by the mercurial gages.

BUT I am wont so to fashion the pump, that it may be fitted by a screw to the tube C; for so when one receiver is full, we may take away the pump, and use it to fill other receivers.

Now,

Now, because in these engines mercurial gages are used only to shew the degrees of compression, there is no need of using the gages here, which are described in the first figure; for they are made with more difficulty, and besides, they afford but a small space to note the degrees of compression in. And therefore it is better to fold the glass tube, sealed at one end, in several places, as the figure T shews, that a long tube may be contained in a shorter receiver; so that the mercury being put in, through the open end, as much as will suffice to fill the length of one digit, all the rest of the space filled with air, will serve for the making of the degrees of compression, much more sensibly than can be done in a shorter tube.

HERE we must note, that when the mercury tends downwards in such an inflected gage, the weight thereof doth help the external pressure; but when it is impelled upwards, the same weight makes resistance: this difference must be heeded, if we have a mind to try very accurate experiments.

ICONISME II.

How mixtures may be made in compressed air.

Fig. 3. LET the receiver be AA, in which we have a mind to mix either liquors or powders.

LET QQ RR be two tubes, each of them, sealed at one end, and open at the other.

LET RQS be a vessel of brass, to be laid upon the orifice of the tubes, as is shewed in the figure.

THE liquors to be mixed must be poured into the tubes QQ RR, each liquor in his own tube, and let the vessel inverted RQS, be laid on the orifices of the tubes, and in that posture let all be covered with the receiver AA; let the screw be wrung or straitened, and the air intruded after the manner described fol. 513. And when you shall understand by the gage TT, that the compression is arrived at that degree, which you intend, the engine is

to be inverted, and so the liquors will flow down from the tubes into the vessel RQS, and be mixed there. If you desire to mix more liquors or powders, then the number of the tubes is to be encreased accordingly.

ICONISME III.

How factitious air may be transmitted out of one receiver into another.

I tried two ways (principally) to transmit air out of one receiver into another; but because the first of them seemed less convenient, I shall here only describe the latter.

AA Is a plain plate made of metal, having an hole in the middle.

BB Is the stop-cock fastened to the hole in the middle of the plate AA, one of whose ends is formed into a male-screw.

DC Is a copper funnel open below, with a broad orifice (that so it might be easily set upon the pneumatick engine, and there stand firm) and in the upper part the orifice D is fashioned into a female-screw, to receive the male-screw of the stop-cock BB.

Fig. 2. EE Is a small tube, open at both ends, both whose orifices are excavated in a female-screw, to receive the male-screw of the stop-cock BB.

Fig 1. FF Is the receiver laid on the plate AA, and exquisitely fitted thereunto.

Now, if we would make factitious air, we must put the matter, which is to produce the air, into the receiver FF, and placing the said receiver on the plate AA, by means of the screw, we must strongly fasten it thereto, after the same manner as hath been described in our engine for compressing the air; and the stop-cock BB we insert into the female screw D; then the orifice C, and with it the receiver, is to be placed upon the pneumatick engine, and the stop-cock B being opened, the air is to be extracted; when the receiver FF is emptied of air, the stop-cock B is to be shut, that so all passage of external air into the receiver may be intercluded, and the stop-

ICONISMUS 3.^{us}

Pl. 3.

Fig. 1.
p. 514

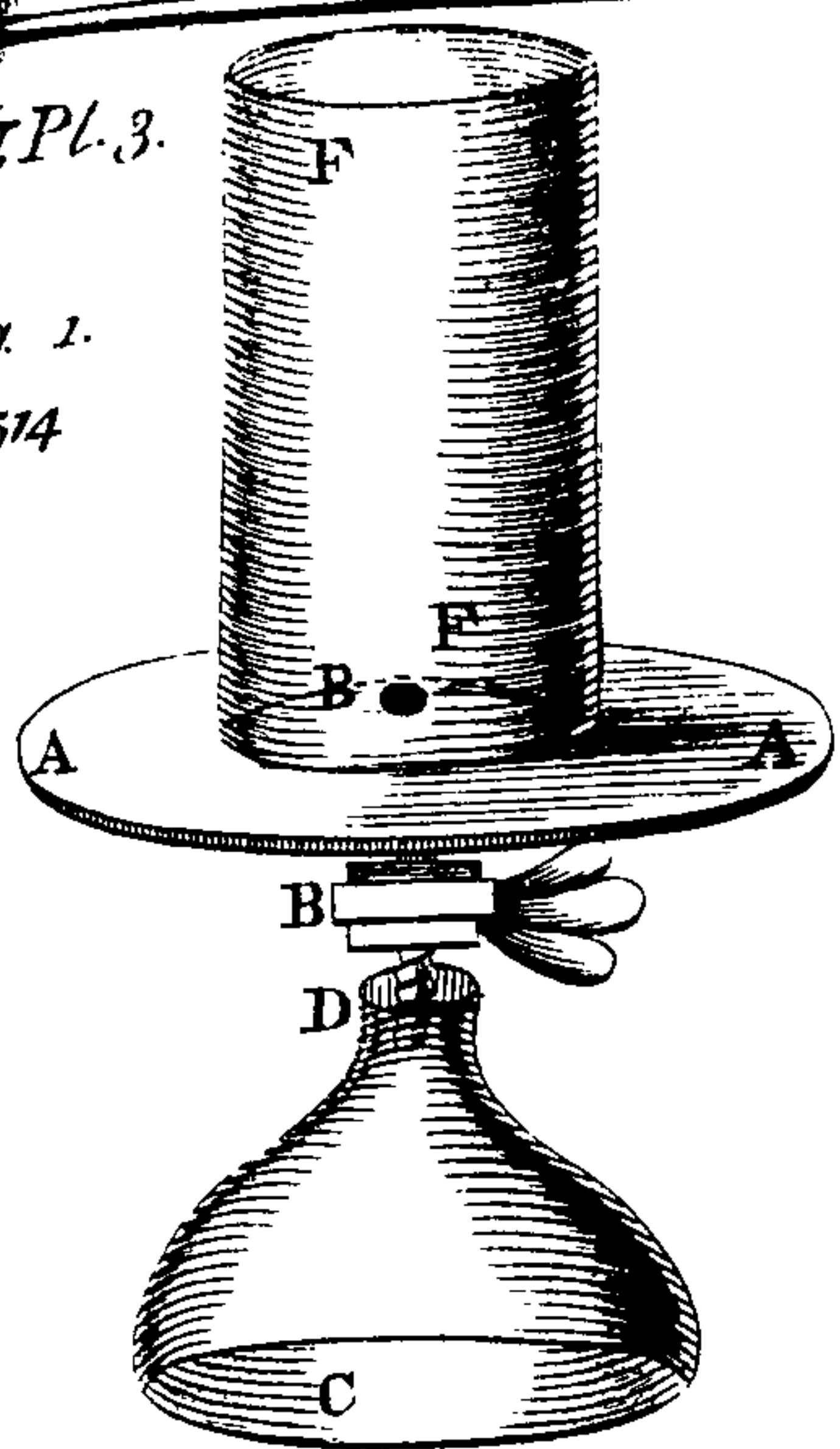


Fig. 2. p. 514



Fig. 4.

p. 515

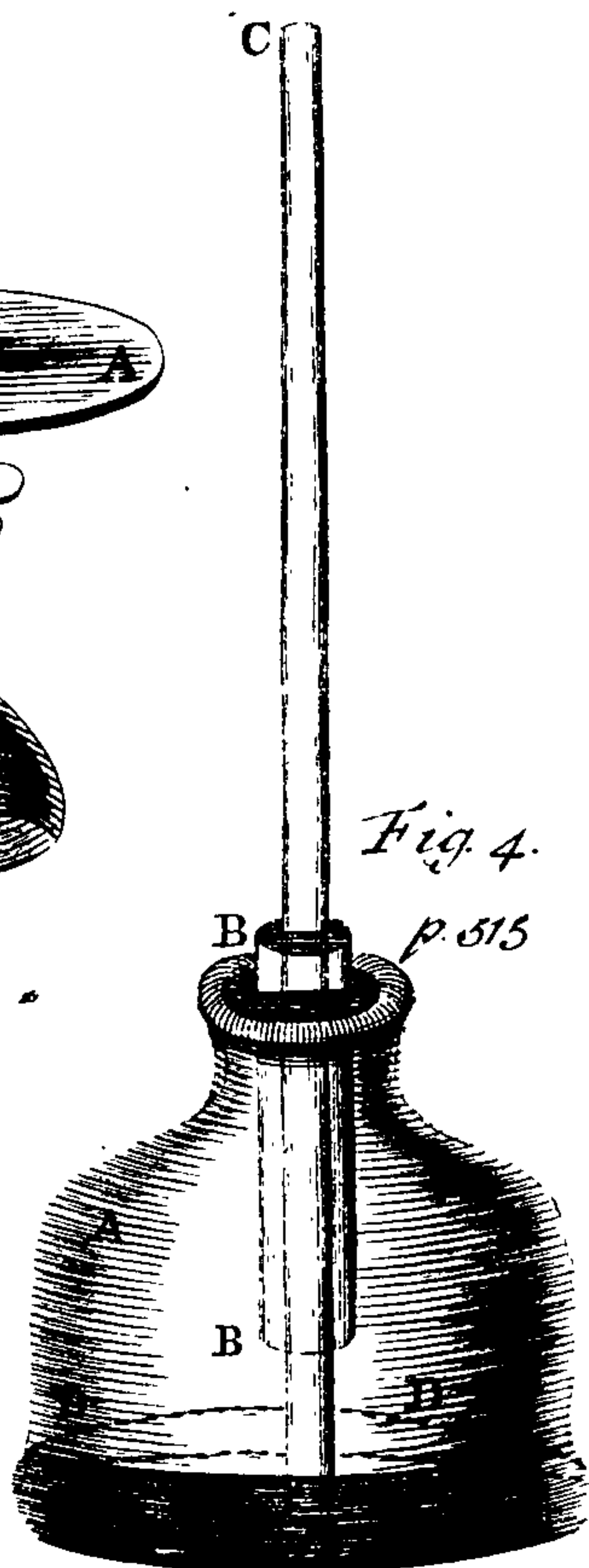
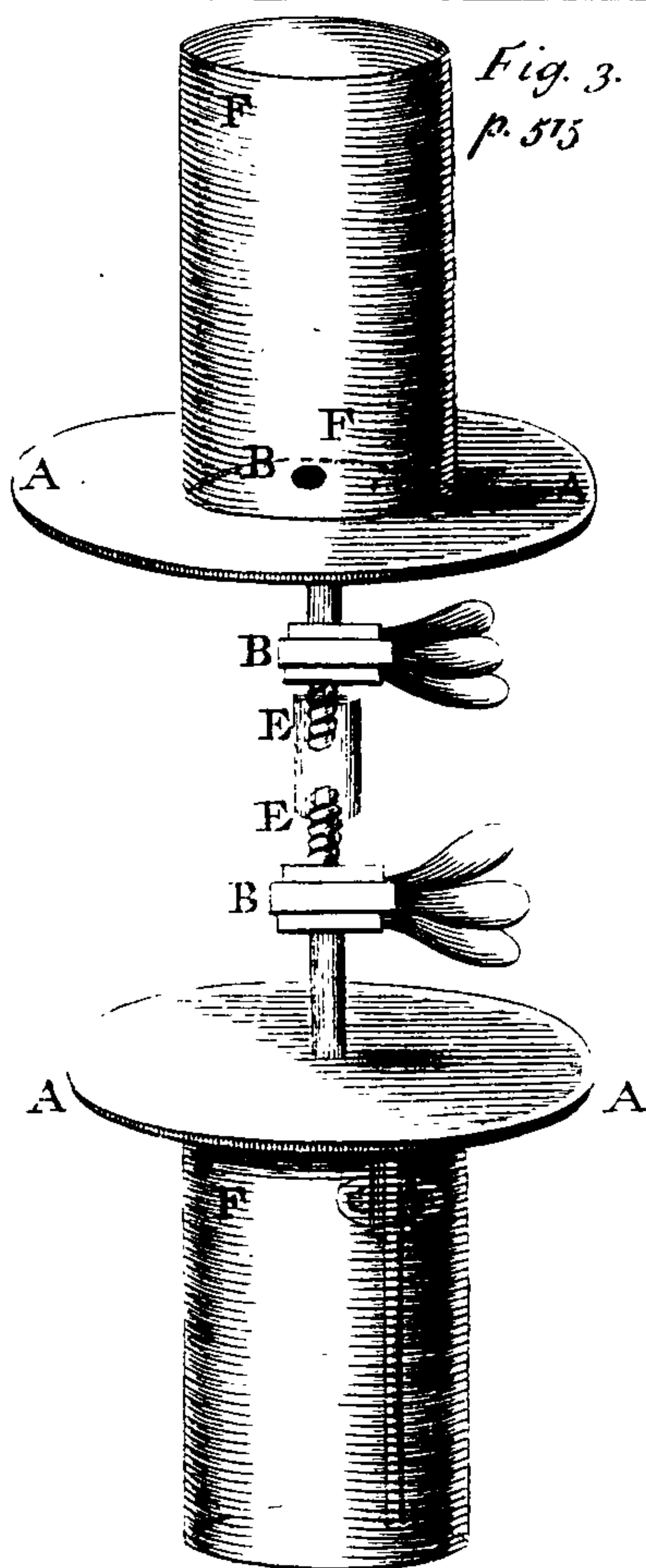


Fig. 3.
p. 515



IV. Pl. 4.

ICONISMUS 4.^{us}

Fig. 1. p. 515.

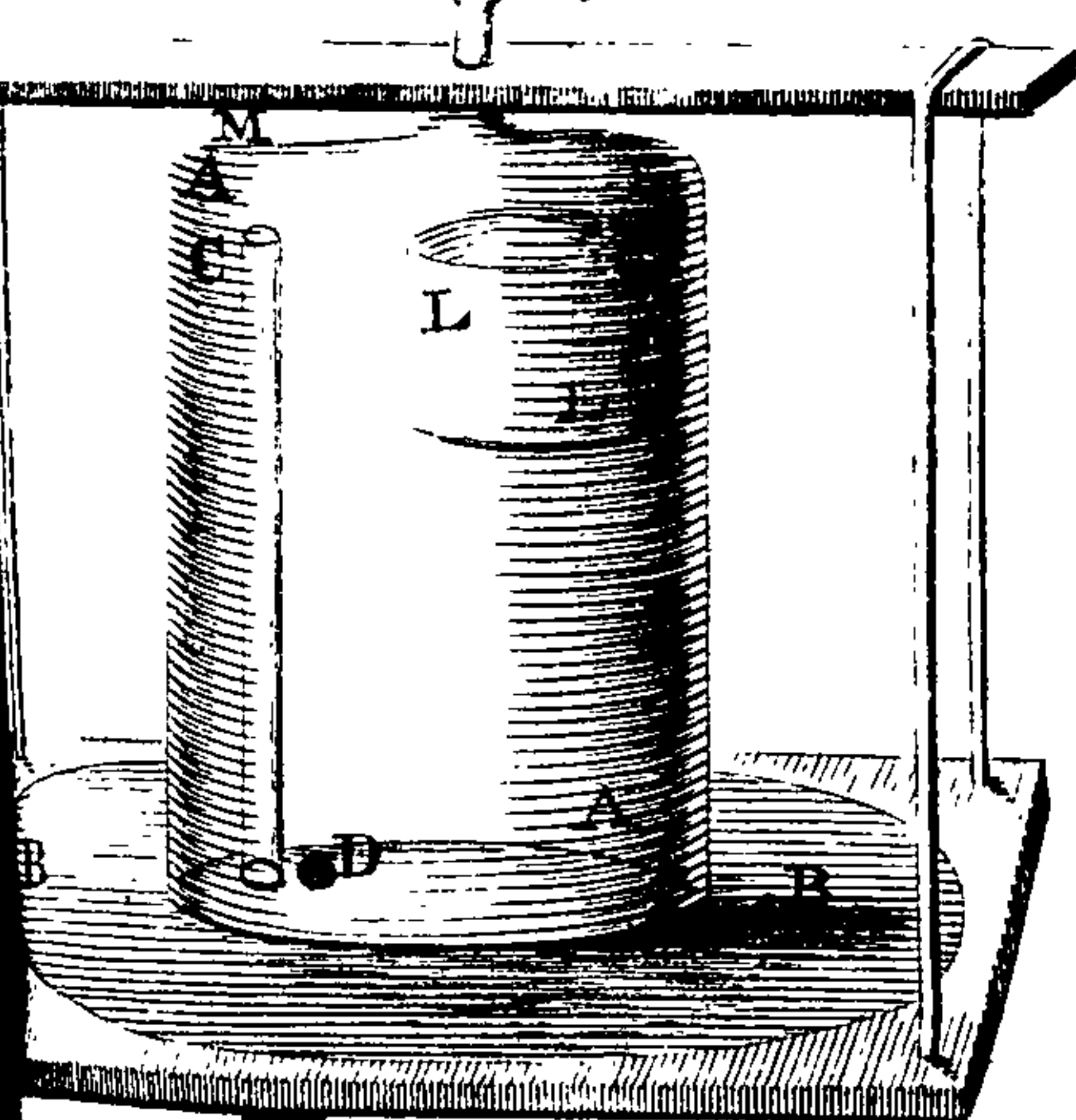


Fig. 2. p. 516.

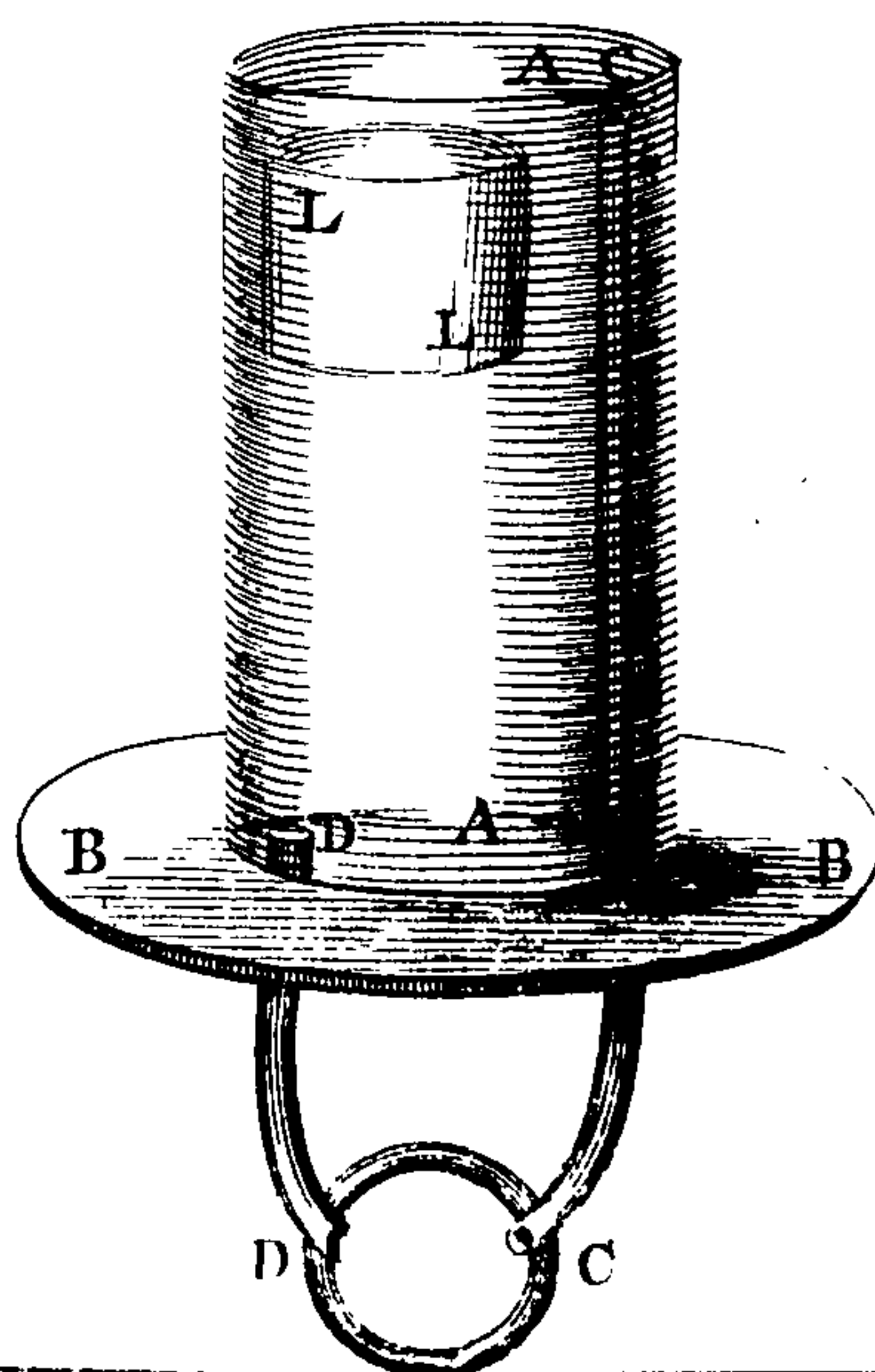
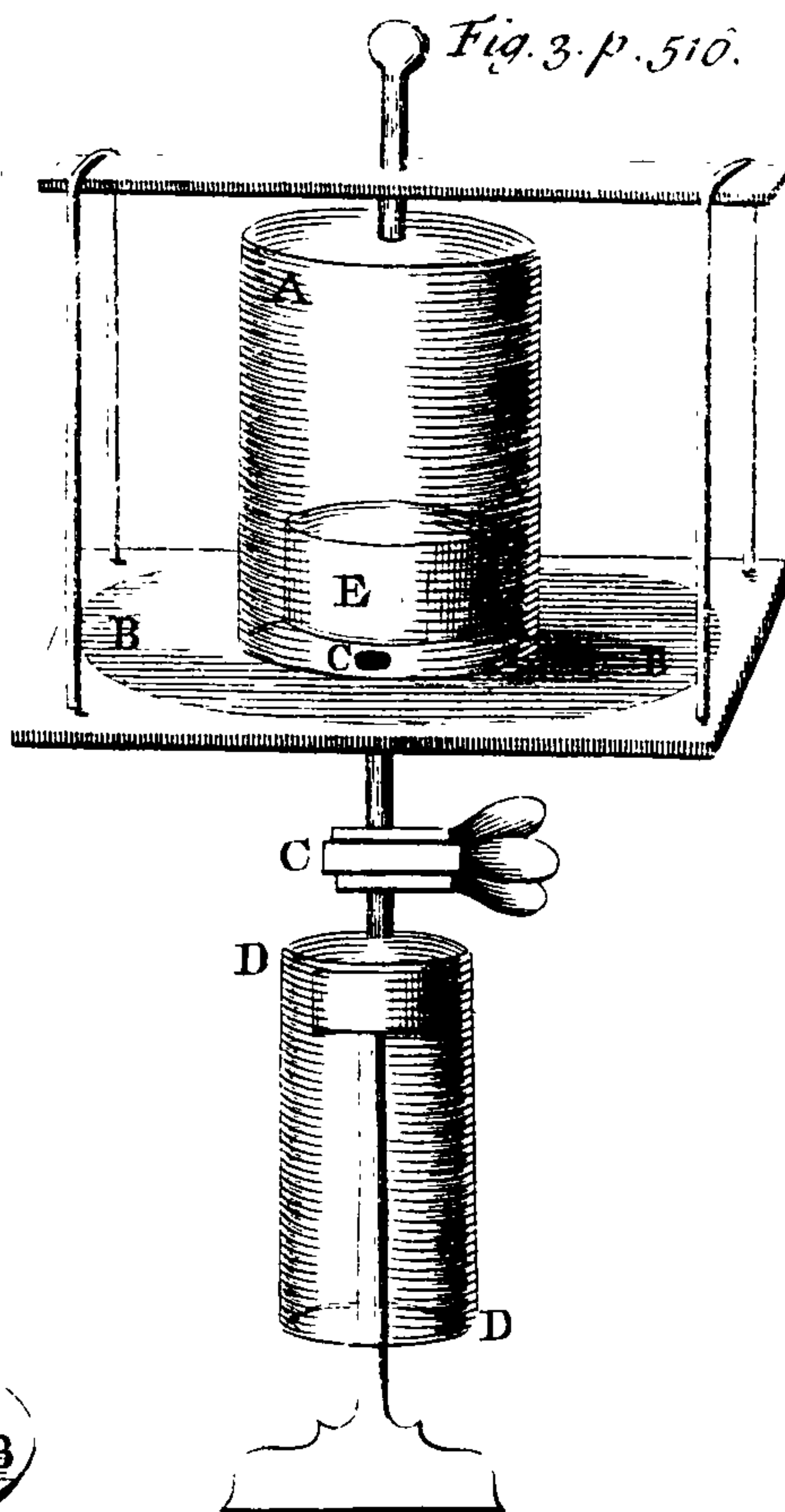


Fig. 3. p. 516.



J. Mande sc.

stop-cock being taken out from the female-screw D, the receiver is presently to be immersed in water, so that at least the plate AA, with the stop-cock, may be covered therewith; for so it will be clear, that no air from without can find ingress, and the air produced out of the matter included in the receiver will be preserved unmixed, and the degrees of its rarefaction or compression are known after the same manner, as hath been described p. 512.

Fig. 3. Now if we would transmit that air into another receiver; another receiver FF with another plate AA, and a stop-cock BB is to be procured and excavated after the same manner, as was before described; then, by means of the small tube EE, we join the stop-cocks BB of both receivers, as is shewn in fig. 3, and all suspected places are to be stopped with cement or turpentine, that no external air may find admission; then, the stop-cocks being opened, the air produced in the former receiver flows into the latter, and the stop-cocks being again shut and plucked out from the tube EE, the receivers may be kept apart; and if there be any matter included in the latter receiver, we may easily view what influence the factitious air hath upon it.

BUT because the mercurial gages described fol. 511. are spoiled, if they be inverted, and the gages, mentioned fol. 514, do presently expel their mercury, if the air be rarefied in their receivers; and seeing the operation, here described, cannot be perfected, but both receivers must be inverted, and both likewise emptied of air; we must make gages of another sort, after the manner following. See fig. 4.

AA Is a glass phial filled with mercury to the superficies DD, or thereabout.

BB Is a glass tube very well cemented, in the orifice of the phial.

CC Is another tube transmitted through the tube BB, and reaching to the bottom of the glass. This tube must be sealed above and open below; neither must it so exactly fill the tube BB, but that passage

may be opened to the external air within the glass AA.

Now if you put this instrument into a receiver, from which the air must be afterwards extracted, it will come to pass, that both tubes will be exhausted of air; and when you invert the receiver, to take in new air, as in fig. 3. is declared, the mercury will flow down to the orifices of the phial, and will be there kept below the orifice of the tube BB; and the new air entering, will easily fill both tubes and phial: then the receiver being erected, the mercury will again be stagnant in the bottom of the phial, and the orifice of the tube CC will be found demersed in it. Then if any air be produced out of the bodies included in the same receiver, it will come to pass, that the mercury will ascend into the tube CC, and there, reducing the air into a narrower place, will shew the degrees of compression.

Note, that almost all the kinds of factitious air in the beginning are in part destroyed, that therefore the degrees of compression cannot here be so exactly known, unless we know by experiments, what part of the air is wont to be destroyed.

ICONISME IV.

An instrument, by which air may be filtrated through water.

Fig. 1. AA Is a glass receiver, whose orifice, laid upon the plate BB, agrees exquisitely therewith.

BB Is a plain plate, with an hole in the middle, to transmit the tubes CC DD.

CC DD ARE two tubes cemented to the plate BB, one of which is no higher than the plate, but the other reacheth almost to the top of the receiver.

EEEE Is a stop-cock, to whose holes the extremities of the tubes CC DD are fastned.

FF Is the key of the stop-cock unperforated, wherein only one chinck GG is excavated.

HH Is the receiver, compassing the end of

of the stop-cock, and fastned to it, serving against the ingress of the outer air, and communicating with the pump II.

LL Is a glass vessel.

M Is a hole in the top of the receiver, whose stopple is fastned with a screw.

In the second figure there is exhibited a stop-cock, cut transversly, that the two tubes CC DD may be the better distinguished, and their insertion into the stop-cock be perceived.

THIS instrument is thus to be used: we put the thing, about which the experiment is to be made, into the vessel; and the receiver AA being laid on the plate BB, we pour water into the hole M till the receiver be half full, or thereabouts, and the vessel LL, with the matter contained therein, do swim on the top thereof; then we stop the hole exactly, and fasten it with a screw, in the same manner as hath been described in the first scheme. These things being thus prepared, the key is to be set in that posture that the chink GG may communicate with the tube CC; then the plug being brought to the lowest part of the pump, the air of the receiver AA, entering through the upper orifice of the tube CC, will flow down through the chink GG into the receiver HH, and into the pump. Then the key being inverted, so that the chink GG do answer to the insertion of the tube DD, the plug is to be impelled upward, and then the air will be expelled from thence, and, finding no other passage, will be driven through the chink GG into the tube DD; and from thence will emerge to the upper part through the water stagnant in the receiver. Iterating this labour, we strain the air through the water, as often as we please; and by this means, we know, whether it be cloathed with any new qualities, in respect of the body included with it.

ICONISME IV.

How the same numerical air may be sometimes condensed, sometimes rarefied.

LET the receiver AA be placed upon the plate BB, and screwed in, as is described, fol. 102.

CC Is the stop-cock, fastned to the hole in the midst of the plate BB.

DD Is a pump joined to the stop-cock C with a screw.

E Is a vessel of that bigness, that it may fluctuate in the receiver AA without danger of inversion.

LET some animal be put into the vessel E, and let the receiver AA be put upon it and screwed to it, as the scheme shews. Then let the pump be filled with water, and by a screw fitted to the stop-cock; the stop-cock being then opened, let the plug P be forced upwards, then the water ascending through the stop-cock, will, in part, fill the receiver AA, and will reduce the air, contained therein, into a narrower space, without any addition of new air; if then you draw the plug downwards, the same numerical air will be again rarefied. Thus you may both condense and rarefy the same air as often as you please; and by this means you may find out, whether the condensation of the air do contribute any thing to prolong the life or health of animals, yea or no?

ICONISME II.

The description of a wind-gun.

Fig. 4. AA Is a copper globe, hollow within.

BB Is a tube, fastned to the globe.

F Is a valve opening inwardly, and shutting the globe BB.

G Is the spring depressing the foresaid valve.

H Is a gnomon affixed to the globe AA, and making fast the spring G.

CC Is a tube of iron, fastened to the tube BB and the globe AA.

DD Is a plug exactly fitted to the foresaid tube.

EEE Is another plug fitted also to the tube BB with an iron wire, reaching almost to the valve F.

R Is the protuberance of the tube CC, somewhat hollowed above to receive the end of the iron LL.

LL Is a crooked iron, moveable about the extremity in R, so that it is like a lever to lift up the plug EEE.

OPO Is a crooked iron, fastned in M, that the thumb sticking in the angle P, the rest of the fingers may attract the leaver L, and so force the plug EEE upwards. But the curvature is made for this use, that the one end O might be applied to the shoulder, if it be thought fit to aim at any mark.

TT Is a rectangle of iron, compassing the leaver LL and the iron OPO, to keep the leaver in that posture, which the present scheme holds forth; for otherwise the plug EEE, would be thrust out far away, whilst we intrude the air into the globe AA.

II Is an elliptic hole, in the upper part of the globe, very well shut with a valve, opening inwardly, whose use is to give liberty of inspection, and of amending what is amiss; for the valve may be drawn through the hole by reason of its elliptic figure.

SS Is a metalline plate transversly placed above the hole II, and perforated to transmit the screw V, by whose help the valve shutting, the hole II is sustained and is applied closely to the hole.

Q Is an hole in the inferior part of the tube CC, by which the air enters into the tube, whilst the plug D is brought to the lowest part of the tube.

THE air is thrust into this engine after this sort; I tread with my foot upon the crooked end of the plug DD, that it may not be removed from the ground, and I lift the engine upward, till the upper part of the plug be found below the hole Q, and then the air entering through the fore-said hole, doth wholly fill the tube CC.

THEN I forceably depress the engine, and so the air, contained in the tube CC, opens the valve F, and is thrust into the globe AA; whence it cannot return, because the said valves presently stop the passage; and thus by iterated turns, we may condense the air in the globe, until the force of its spring cannot be overcome by our strength.

Now if we would discharge the air, so condensed, the plug DD is wholly to be

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drawn out, and a bullet of lead to be put into the bottom of the tube CC: then by means of the leaver LLL the plug EEE is to be impelled upward, as we said before, and then the extremity of the iron wire opens the valve B, and the air breaking out therefrom, expels the leaden bullet through the tube CC with great violence.

NOTE, that before the plug DD is again put into the tube CC for the compression of the air, about half an ounce of water is to be poured into the said tube. For by this means no air at all can escape out by the plug, and moreover, that water exactly filling the upper part of the tube CC, will cause, that the whole compressed air will be intruded within the cavity AA, and so the condensation will be perfected much sooner, than if, at every turn, part of the compressed air did remain below the valve F.

THIS engine is much better than any wind-guns hitherto mentioned in print.

1. BECAUSE that seeing only one valve serves, both for the letting in and discharging forth of the air, it is less subject to be spoiled or impaired, than if two valves were used for that purpose.

2. If any disorder happen in other guns, the engine remains useless; but here, by the elliptic hole, a man may take out the spring and the valve, and so mend whatsoever is amiss.

3. In other guns, the valves being covered with leather were put in before the engine was on every side shut, and therefore silver solder could not be used in cementing the parts, but only lead solder, by which the air, being much compressed, could by no means be restrained; but here all things are well cemented with silver solder, without danger of burning, in regard the valve covered with leather is put in afterwards through the elliptic hole II.

4. BUT this engine is chiefly to be preferred before others on this account, because we emit several bodies into the receiver, through the elliptic hole, and so make many experiments in highly compressed air.

S f f

I C O-

ICONISME V.

An instrument to distill in vacuo.

Fig. 1. AA Is a brass vessel, shut below and open above,

BB Is a diaphragma or midriff of tin, whose edges are so polished on both sides, that they exquisitely do agree and suit with the edges of the vessels AA DD, which are also polished, and so keep the external air from ingress.

CC Is a tube fastened to a hole in the middle of the diaphragma BB.

DD Is a brass vessel, whose aperture is applied to the diaphragma BB.

EE Is a stop-cock fastned to the hole of the diaphragma BB.

FF Is a tube reaching from the stop-cock EE to the hole for suction in the pneumatic engine.

GG Is a metalline vessel shutting in the commissures of the vessels with the diaphragma, and also the stop-cock, that it, being filled with water, may keep all safe from the external air. This vessel is to be soldered to the vessel AA.

We use this engine after the following manner: taking away the diaphragma BB, we put the things to be boiled into the vessel AA, and so set it in a convenient place, that it be not shaken, whilst it is evacuated; then putting on the diaphragma BB and the vessel DD, we put to the pneumatic engine, and making use of the tube FF, the air is pumped out of the vessels, the vessel GG being yet first filled with water. Then the stop-cock is to be shut, and taking away the tube FF, we may place the evacuated engine on the fire, and the vapours ascending through the tube CC, are condensed in the upper vessel, and so we have a liquor distilled *in vacuo*; and the quantity of the generated air, is known by the mercurial gage H, but that must be kept up in the top of the receiver, lest the mercury do exhale, by reason of too much heat.

NOTE, that round pieces of paper, per-

forated in the middle, are to be laid over the orifices of the vessels AA DD, to the end they may be better joined with the diaphragma; and the commissures of the tube FF with the stop-cock and pneumatic engine are to be fortified with cement, and the stop-cock EE is so to be disposed with the vessel GG, that part of the key may be prominent without the vessel through the hole, that so it may conveniently be turned, and yet nevertheless, the stop-cock, with the diaphragma, may be taken out of the vessel GG, whilst the vessel AA is to be filled with flesh or any other matter. And that is very easily done in this manner: the key consists of two parts, one of which M is turned in the stop-cock itself, by means of a certain chink, which receives the small protuberance of the other part OO, which other part doth exactly fill the small pipe NN, fastned to the vessel GG, and being prominent outwardly may easily be turned in it, and communicate its motions to the other part M, but it is drawn outward whilst the diaphragma BB is to be taken out of the vessel GG.

Fig. 2. SHEWS you another instrument, herein differing from the former, that it is almost all of glass, and affords a longer passage for the vapours.

BB Is not a diaphragma, but only a small tube, polished at both ends, that it may exquisitely suit with the orifices of the vessels A and D.

AA DD ARE two vessels, whose orifices are applied to the tube BB, and so the vapours are easily transmitted from the one to the other.

EE FF GG I, have the same use as in the former scheme, and the whole instrument is to be evacuated after the same manner, and placed upon the fire; except, that here the vessel AA, as being made of glass, must not be put on an open fire, but *in balneo Mariæ*, or on sand, and the vapours will be condensed in the vessel DD.

ART I.

Fig. 1. p. 518.

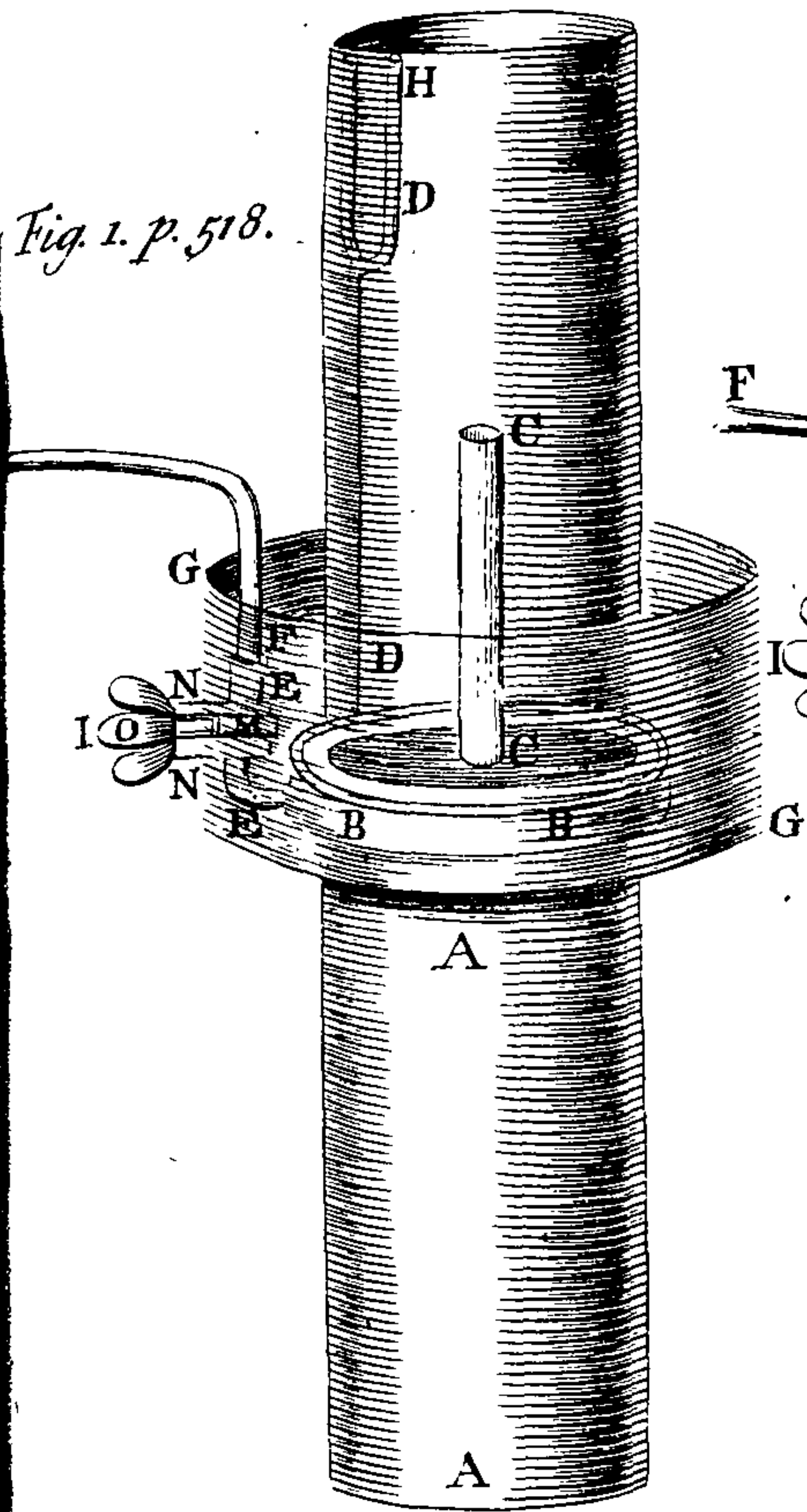
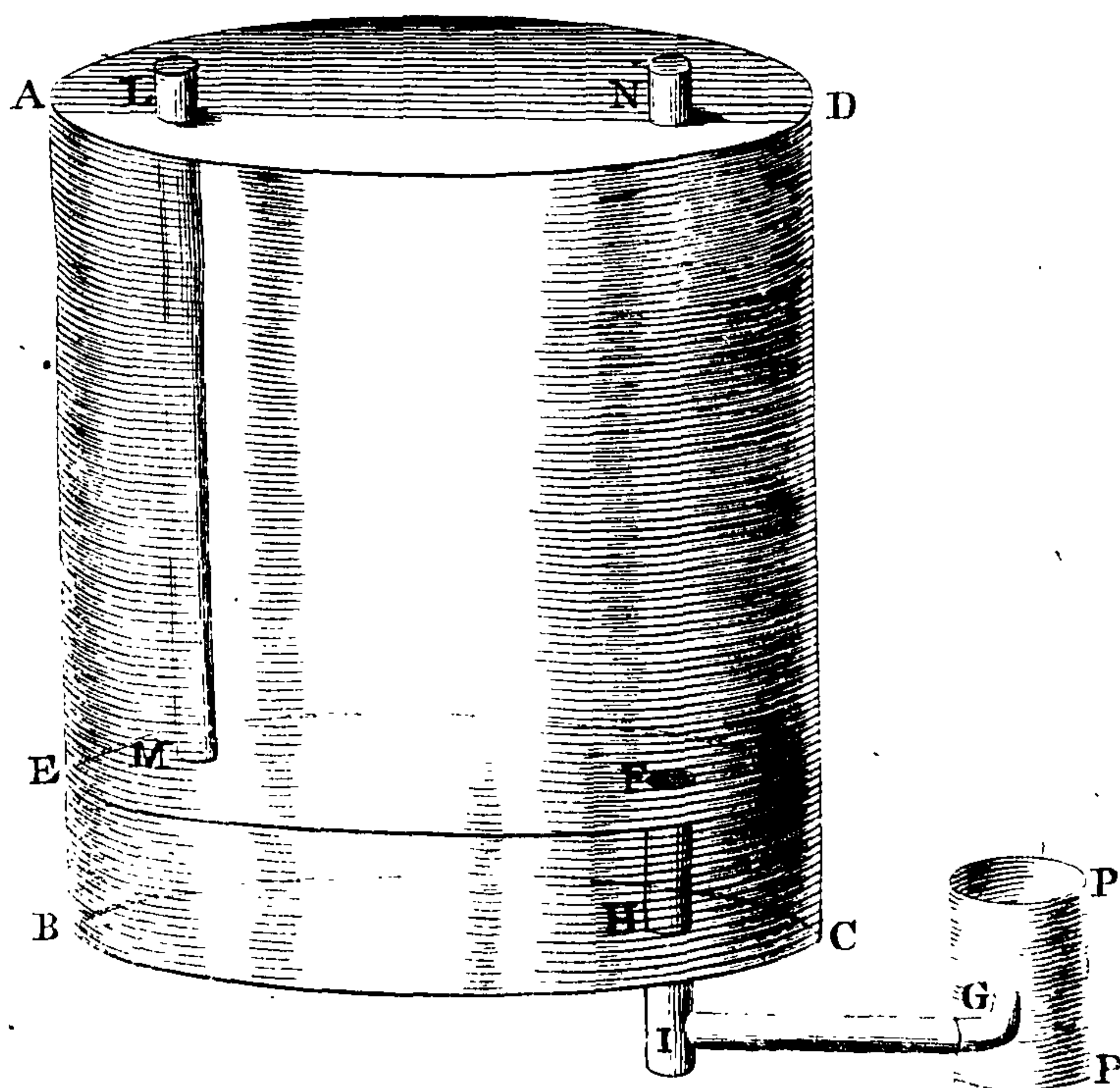
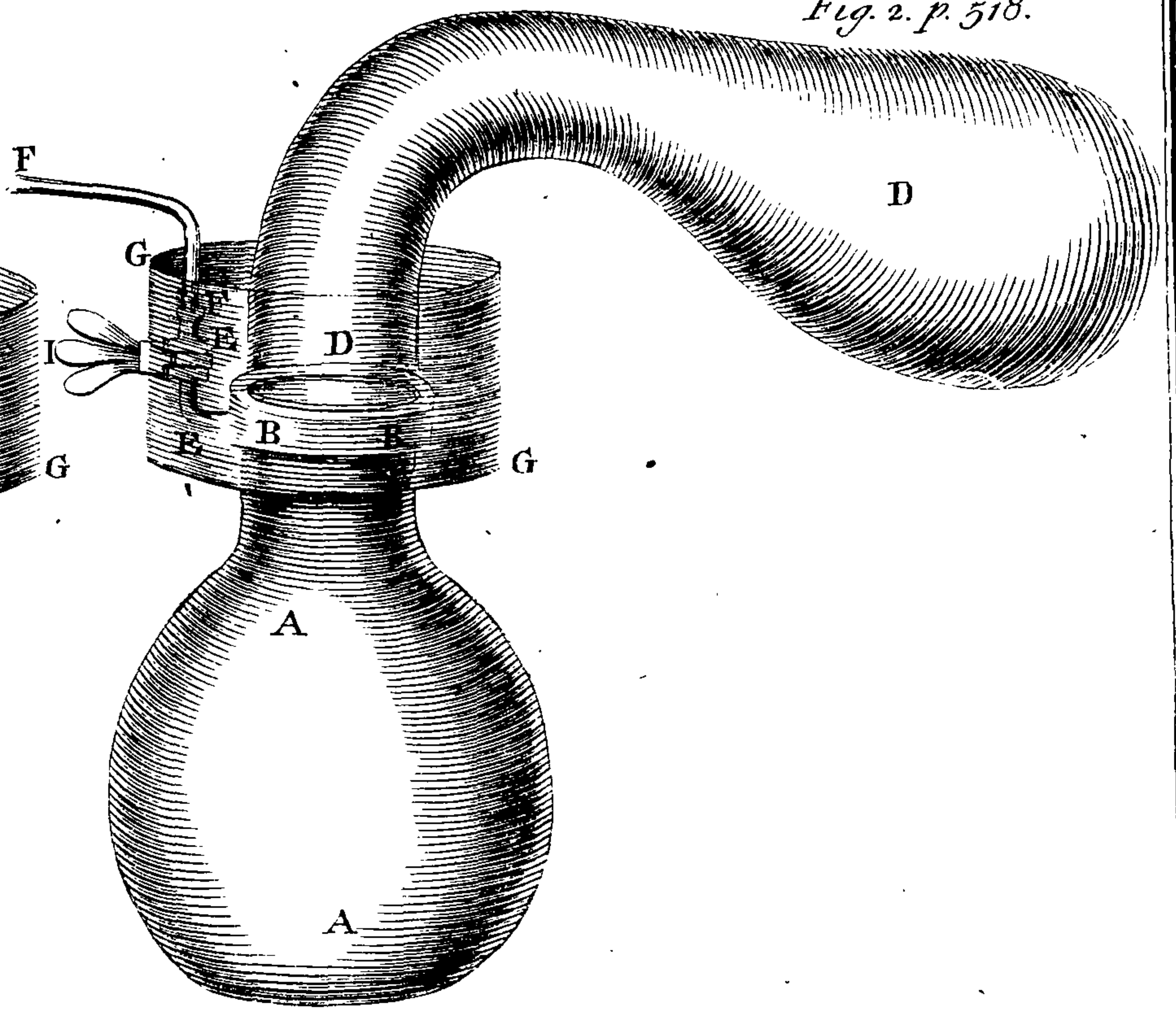


Fig. 2. p. 518.



ARTICLE I.

Several ways used to help the production of the air.

EXPERIMENT I.

July 11, 1676. BECAUSE it appears by the new experiments published at *Paris*, in the year 1674, and which are to be sold by *John Cusson* in *St. James's-street*, that bread alone can produce no air *in vacuo*, we were willing to try, whether yet it did not contain some air, which might come forth some other way. I therefore included a little piece of bread, very moist, and a little kneaded, *in vacuo* with a mercurial gage.

July 12. In six hours space no air was produced yesterday, but this night a little brake into the receiver, as much as did suffice to sustain three digits of mercury: the reason was, because I had neglected to fortify the cover with turpentine.

Towards the evening, I found the mercury higher, by one inch, or thereabout, and I am very certain, that nothing had entered from without.

July 13. This night also the mercury ascended higher, but my gage was not of that sort, as exactly to discover many degrees.

July 26. THIS day the piece of bread dis-joined its receiver from the cover, by the force of the produced air, and the smell of it was acid.

HENCE it follows, that water is a fit dissolvent to draw forth air out of bread.

EXPERIMENT II.

July 11. I tried another way to extract air from bread, for by the help of a burning glass I burnt bread *in vacuo*, and so I found, that the bread did generate much air, and that air did ever and anon break out, as by fulmination: whence it seems probable, that air is contained in bread, but it is so closely coarctated therein, that no easy operation can give it a discharge; but if any thing could dissolve and loose

that knot, it may then produce great effects.

EXPERIMENT III.

Sept. 22. I took eight ounces of dried grapes, and, with seven ounces of water, included them in a receiver, able to hold twenty-two ounces of water; the grapes were bruised.

Sept. 23. THE receiver was demersed under the water all this night, yet the mercury ascended two whole inches.

Sept. 30. In seven days space, the mercury came to the height of thirteen inches.

Octob. 5. In five days space, the mercury ran up twelve inches, and was now twenty-five inches high.

Octob. 18. THE mercury did not proceed to ascend with the same swiftness, and the air began to pass out of the receiver, but not before this day; yet these grapes produced much more air than those, which I had included without water. See *Art. IX. Exper. I.*

EXPERIMENT IV.

July 12. I included of raisins of the sun bruised ten ounces *in vacuo*, with a sufficient quantity of water to promote fermentation.

July 14. In two days space, the raisins had produced ten inches of air.

ABOUT the evening the mercury was about fifteen inches high: the fifteenth day, the mercury had almost reached to its accustomed height.

July 16. THIS day, in the morning, I found the receiver severed from its cover, and the air breaking forth through the water, in which it was demerged: I included the same raisins again *in vacuo*.

July 18. THIS day, in the morning, I found the air again breaking out.

July 19. I shut up the same raisins in the same empty receiver.

July 21. THIS day I found the receiver full, and the air breaking out of it.

I again shut in the same raisins in the same exhausted receiver.

July 23. YESTERDAY, about noon, I found the whole receiver almost full of air, and this day in the morning I perceived the air to pass out very often. From the first experiment of art. IX. it appears, that grapes, without water, can generate but little air: so that it is manifestly hereby, that water is a fit medium to elicit air out of them: it is also evident, that the production of air is not begun presently upon the affusion of water; but it proceeds on with greater swiftness, after that the parts of the water in five or six days time have more deeply sunk into, and pervaded the grapes.

EXPERIMENT V.

Aug. 13, 1677. I included pears in two receivers *in vacuo*; and plums in another.

Aug. 16. In three days space, all my receivers were filled with air, newly generated; yea, one of them, which included the pears, because I had left it exposed to the rays of the sun, in the space of twenty-four hours, was separated from its cover; whence we may conjecture, that the production of air is very much promoted by the heat of the sun.

EXPERIMENT VI.

Octob. 16, 1677. I took two ounces of grapes bruised, and secured them from the ingress of air, in an exhausted receiver capable of containing twenty ounces of water.

Octob. 17. THE mercury rose higher about one half inch.

Octob. 18. THESE last twenty four hours the mercury ran up about another half inch.

Octob. 20. THE height of the mercury was two inches.

THE 22 it was almost 4.

THE 27 it was almost 6 inches.

Jan. 2, 1678. THE mercury, as yet, came not to the height of 10 inches.

Octob. 16, 1677, I put three ounces

of bruised grapes, with half an ounce of spirit of wine, into a receiver able to hold 30 ounces of water, and then I exhausted the air.

Octob. 17. THE mercury ascended but a very little.

Octob. 18. THE mercury came not up to the height of one quarter of an inch.

Octob. 20. THE mercurial gage was out of order.

Jan. 2. 1678. I this day found my receiver filled with air, and also, when some of the liquor was poured out, some bubbles were formed in the turpentine about the orifice, and were broke outwardly.

From this experiment, made in two receivers together, it seems to follow, that spirit of wine doth much advance the production of air *in vacuo*, though in common air it wholly hinders it. See the IId, VIIIth, and XIVth experiments of the IId article.

EXPERIMENT VII.

July 19, 1678. I put must, expressed from grapes bruised, and kept for 10 months in a vessel stopt with a screw, into the same receiver, being also stopped with a screw.

July 21. THE mercury had not ascended at all.

23. THE height of it was 3.

24. THE height was 5.

25. IN the morning it was 104.

TOWARDS the evening the height was 137; and the must got out.

26. THE must was almost all out of the receiver; and although the air now did possess double the space it did yesterday, yet it kept up the mercury in the same height.

27. ABOUT half of the remaining must brake forth this night, because I had omitted to set the screw, lest the receiver should have been broken in pieces.

FROM this experiment it follows, that grapes kept so long a time do rather acquire than lose a fermentative virtue.

E X P E R I M E N T VIII.

Jan. 30. I put two quantities of apples, boiled the day before, into two receivers stopped with a screw; with one of them I mixed one third part of sugar, the other had no sugar at all.

N. ALL these receivers were quite full.

Jan. 31. I included raw apples bruised in three receivers; in one of them I mixed one third part of sugar; the second was without sugar, and so was the third, but it differed herein from the second, that it was six times as big: for by this means, we may know, whether the capacity of the vessel, or the mixing of sugar, or the crudity of the fruit, can promote or retard the production of air.

Feb. 10. IN that receiver only, which contained the raw apples with sugar, some air was produced.

Feb. 14. THE raw apples with sugar had impelled the mercury up to 10 inches; those that were boiled with sugar, to two only; in the other receivers no air was produced.

Feb. 18. IN the receiver containing the raw apples with sugar, the mercury came to the height of 56 inches; in that containing the boiled apples with sugar, the height was three; in the other receivers there was also some air produced, except in that wherein the boiled apples without sugar were put. I opened that receiver in which the apples had produced so great a quantity of air; yet the apples seemed hardly to be fermented, but were endued with a most pleasant taste.

Feb. 21. THE boiled apples without sugar had lost some of their juice; and, opening the receiver, I found the cover to be broke, and yet the apples were not rotten at all.

March 1. IN the great receiver, containing the raw apples, the mercury was 25 inches high; and in the little one, only 7; but in that where the apples were boiled with sugar, the mercury had ascended to 9 inches.

March 8. IN the great receiver the

height of the mercury was 29; in the lesser 22 $\frac{1}{2}$; and where the boiled apples with sugar were, the altitude abode at 9 digits.

March 17. THE juice got out of the great receiver; in the little one the height was 67; where the apples were boiled with sugar, it was 15 digits.

FROM this experiment it seems inferrable, that sugar, the crudity of the fruit, and the largeness of the receiver, do all contribute to the production of air.

A R T I C L E II.

Several ways to hinder the production of air.

E X P E R I M E N T I.

Dec. 21, 1678. I made paste of bread-corn-meal, without leaven, and put it into an empty receiver; and then I put the receiver in a certain apartment, with fire, which there kept a greater heat than is wont to be in the middle of summer; yet the dough or paste produced no air in 10 hours space: whence it seems to follow, that if dough hath once suffered too much cold, it can scarce recover its faculty of fermenting; for, some years ago, when I made dough without leaven in the summer time, it produced very much air *in vacuo* in a short time.

E X P E R I M E N T II.

May 23. I included three ounces of dough, kneaded with leaven, in a receiver capable of holding 50 ounces of water; I also poured upon it some quantity of spirit of wine, to try whether fermentation would be hindered by that means.

May 24. The mercury was there inches high.

26. Little change.

27. No change.

29. No change.

June 2. It seemed to have ascended a little higher.

14. No change.

Dec. 14. No more air being produced from the dough, I took it out from the receiver, and found the smell of it not grateful,

ful, but subacid. I put it into an empty receiver, and there it rose or swelled to double its accustomed space, and made a little ebullition.

May 23. I included three ounces of dough kneaded with leaven in a receiver able to hold 50 ounces of water, but here I mixed no spirit of wine.

May 24. The mercury was $19\frac{1}{2}$ inches high.

May 26. It was 38 inches high.

27. THERE was no change.

Decem. 14. THE mercury persisted in the same height; and this day, opening the receiver, I found the dough of a most acid smell.

FROM which experiment it seems to follow, that spirit of wine, even in dough kneaded with leaven, doth hinder the production of air.

EXPERIMENT III.

Aug. 29. I included pears, with a mercurial gage, in a receiver full of water, and then I intruded air into it, till the mercury staid at 26 inches higher than it was wont; within a quarter of an hour one of the pears was broken, and afterwards almost all of it was reduced to the consistence of a pultis.

Aug. 30. IN 24 hours space, the pears seemed to have afforded no air; but on the contrary, the mercury in the gage was depressed an inch and half.

Aug. 31. I this day found no change in the height of the mercury.

Sept. 1. Now the pears began to produce air, and the mercury was almost 27 digits high.

Sept. 2. IN 24 hours the mercury ascended more than eight digits, and now it was 35 digits high.

Sept. 3. THE height of the mercury was increased 17 digits high or thereabout.

Sept. 4. WITHIN these 24 hours the mercury rose seven digits higher, and rested then in 59.

Sept. 5. IT was 64 digits high; a pear being broken, was become black.

Sept. 6. THREE digits and more being added to the height of the mercury, it came now to the 67 digits and $\frac{1}{4}$ beyond what it was accustomed.

Sept. 7. IT descended three digits, and rested again in 64.

Sept. 8. THIS day the mercury was depressed to the 58th digit, and some of the water had broke out; and therefore I straitned or set the receiver with a screw.

Sept. 9. THE mercury ascended full three digits, and now stuck suspended above 67.

Sept. 10. IN 24 hours it mounted $1\frac{1}{2}$, and stopped almost in 69.

Sept. 11. Now it began to descend again, and was no higher than 67 digits; yet I am certain, nothing had escaped out of the receiver, but it was a sharp cold night.

Sept. 12. No change did evene.

Sept. 13. THE height of the mercury did again decrease; it was not above 64 digits: the cold increased.

Sept. 14. IN 24 hours it became higher by six digits, reaching to 70.

Sept. 16. IT was 69 digits high, or thereabouts.

19. IT remained in the same place.

20. IT again reached to 71.

Sept. 23. The mercury was again depressed to 69.

Octob. 1. It came now to the height of 75 digits.

Octob. 3. YESTERDAY I found no change at all in the mercury; but this day it stuck in 70; and the cold was very bitter.

Octob. 5. YESTERDAY the mercury did abide in the same place; but this day it reached to 75: it was a rainy day.

Octob. 7. IT continued rainy; and the mercury continued in the same place.

Octob. 10. HITHERTO the mercury was not changed; but this day I found it had descended to 69 digits; though the rain ceased not.

Octob. 12. YESTERDAY the mercury stood still; but this day it was depressed to 65 digits: and the cold weather returned.

CEleb.

Octob. 13. The height of the mercury was 64.

14. } The height was { 69.
15. } { 74.

24. The height was 68. It was a cold season.

Nov. 2. The height was 64. The cold encreased.

5. The height was $80\frac{1}{2}$. The cold abated.

2. The height was 65. It was a hard frost.

27. The height was 68. It was a thaw.

Dec. 6. The height was 61. It was a very bitter frost.

FROM the former experiment we may learn, that fruits in a great compression of the air, cannot produce so great a quantity of air; for when I made an estimate of the quantity of the fruits, and of the small space which is to be filled with air; I found, that that quantity of air was not $\frac{1}{8}$ part of that, which had been produced in an empty and a large receiver; yet the cold of the water might also give some impediment to the generation thereof, as the following experiment will confirm.

It is also farther manifest, that the air is produced by iterated turns, and, as it were by reciprocations, even as all bodies in motion, by the force of their gravity or of their spring, are carried beyond their point of rest, and so suffer many vibrations, or goings and returnings. Now although cold and heat are not the sole causes of such reciprocations, yet they seem to contribute much thereunto.

EXPERIMENT IV.

Feb. 22, 1677. I INCLUDED 10 ounces of paste in a receiver capable of holding 22 ounces of water, and afterward I thrust as much air into it as was sufficient to sustain 73 digits of mercury, besides the wonted pressure, in two hours space I perceived no sensible change.

Feb. 23. IN 18 whole hours the mercury ran up seven digits only, its height being 80.

IN six hours space it was now ascended three digits; its height was 83.

<i>Febr.</i>	24.	} Its height was {	90
	25.		97
	26.		101
	27.		105
	28.		$107\frac{1}{2}$
<i>March</i>	1.		112

AND water seemed to be expressed out of the mass.

March 2. } Its height was { 120
3. } { 121

4, & 5. It stayed at 121

March 8. THESE two or three last days, the frost being dissolved, the mercury ran up four digits: the height thereof was 125.

March 10. YESTERDAY the mercury persisted in the same height; but this day, mounting six digits, it stayed in 131.

March 21. BY reason of the long cold season, no air was produced; but in the three last days the mercury ascended seven digits, and stayed in 138.

April 4. YESTERDAY I perceived the mercury had ascended, but I deferred exactly to measure the quantity till this day: but in this very night one of the iron-wires, that straitned the receiver, was broken, and so the receiver was ejected to 4 or five foot distance.

FROM this experiment we may conjecture, that the compression of the air did very much hinder the production thereof; for that is wont to be perfected in paste in two or three days space. Moreover, cold doth much hinder the same production.

EXPERIMENT V.

March 1, 1677. I included two ounces of raisins of the sun, with six ounces of vinegar, in an emptied receiver, and bubbles in a sufficient quantity did break fourth: the raisins were bruised.

March 2. THE mercury in 24 hours space ascended not to the height of half a digit: yet some bubbles still appeared.

March 25. THE vinegar did always appear interspersed amongst some of the bubbles, yet the mercury ascended not to the height of one digit.

Ev

By this experiment it appears, that vinegar doth hinder the production of air and fermentation, seeing otherwise raisins are wont to afford much air.

EXPERIMENT VI.

April 7. I included 10 ounces of paste in a receiver capable of 22 ounces of water: afterwards I intruded air into it, as much as sufficed to sustain 128 digits of mercury, besides its accustomed height.

IN six hours space the mercury mounted up four digits, and staid in 132.

April 8. IN 16 hours the mercury ran up nine digits higher: it staid in 141.

NINE hours after the mercury was not changed.

April 9. THIS day, in the morning, I perceived some air had broke forth, and the mercury was depressed to 130 digits, and therefore with a screw I shut the receiver more closely, and thrust in 11 digits of new air: the height was 141.

<i>April</i> 10.	} The height was {	151
11.		158
12.		168
13.		176
14.		183
15.		183
16.		187
17.		191

April 27. For eight whole days the mercury kept its station in the same place, but these two last days it ascended seven digits, and stayed in 198 above its wonted height.

April 30. PERCEIVING the mercury to persist in the same height, I a little relaxed or eased the screw, that some air might break forth; and when I saw, that the mercury had so far descended, that it exceeded its accustomed height only 50 digits, I presently set the screw, that so I might know, whether that remission of the spring of the air would afford any place for new air to be generated; and truly in two or three minutes time I found the mercury to have ascended sensibly higher.

THREE hours after, making an admea-

surement, the mercury was found 12 digits higher; for it came to 62.

IN five hours space it ascended one digit and $\frac{1}{2}$ and no more.

May 1. IN 15 hours the mercury gat higher only one digit.

May 3. YESTERDAY the mercury persisted in the same height, but this day it was higher by $1\frac{1}{2}$, and remained in 66.

May 4. THE mercury was not changed at all, and therefore I suffered all the air to escape: but something hindered, that I could not quickly set the screw; whence it is probable, that very much air, which at that time was produced, got out of the receiver; yet nevertheless, after the receiver was again straitly stopped, I perceived, that two digits of air and more had been produced in five or six minutes time.

May 7. THE mercury, in three days, again mounted two digits.

May 8. THE mercury was higher by $\frac{1}{2}$ a digit.

May 11. THOSE two last days the mercury again ran up half a digit, and not much more. I included this mass, almost unfit, as it seemed, for producing of air *in vacuo*; and then, in five minutes space, the mercury ascended to the height of one digit.

May 21. It did not yet ascend quite three digits.

May 30. THE mercury staid at the height of four digits and $\frac{1}{2}$.

By this experiment it appears, that all the air, producible from paste, may be in a manner generated in a great compression; yet it is somewhat restrained by that hindrance, which at length, in a lesser compression, will break forth in a short time.

MOREOVER, we have a confirmation by this experiment, that air is producible by repeated turns and operations; also, that it is produced more slowly in compressed than in free air: for such a production, in free air, is wont to be perfected in two or three days time.

EXPERIMENT

EXPERIMENT VII.

Artificial air.

July 30, 1677. I included plums and apricocks, many of them being cut asunder, in an empty receiver, and afterwards I immitted as much air, produced out of cherries, into the same receiver, as was sufficient to sustain 64 digits of mercury.

Aug. 1. OUR fruits had produced no air, but grew yellow, by reason of their overmuch ripeness, more than those which were in common air. *See next col.*

Aug. 3. THIS day I found the mercury a little higher, and that apricock, which remained whole, seemed to be full of some drops of water.

Aug. 7. THE whole apricock grew more and more soft; the mercury was 59 digits high above its wonted pressure.

Aug. 8.]	[61
9.]	[65
10.]	[71
11.]	[74
13.]	[78
14.]	[80
15.]	[80

16. and the days following it abode at the same height.

24. The height of it was 77; though I certainly knew, that nothing had issued or escaped out of the receiver.

29. Seeing I found, that neither the fruits nor the height of the mercury were changed any more, I opened the receiver, and perceived, that the apricocks had kept their colour very well, but the flesh of them was spongy, and their taste subacid; many bubbles had broke forth from them, at the time they were freed from the circumstant pressure.

Common air.

July 30, 1677. I included the half parts, cut off from the fruits aforesaid,
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in a receiver full of common air; and with them also some fruits of the same kind uncut.

July 31. I found the mercury had attained eight digits high.

Aug. 1. AT six o'clock in the evening the mercury was 21 digits high; in the other receiver it was not moved.

Aug. 3. OUR fruits kept their firmness much better than those, which were included with artificial air. The height of the mercury was 35 digits.

Aug. 4. THE height of the mercury was 42 digits.

Aug. 6. OUR whole apricock seemed not at all to be altered. The height of the mercury was 57.

Aug. 7.]	} The height of it was {	81
8.]		95
9.]		113
10.]		124

THE colour of the whole apricock yesterday began, and now proceeded, to wax yellow. No moisture appeared.

Aug. 11.]	} The height of it was {	131
13.]		157
14.]		163
15.]		171
16.]		171

17. and the days following the same height remained.

27. The height was 182.

29. When I saw, that neither the fruit nor the height of the mercury were changed any more, I opened the receiver, and found the apricocks of a more acid and less acceptable taste, than the others in factitious air; yea, their pulp was of a very good colour, but spongy: they sent forth many bubbles, as the others did.

FROM this experiment made in two receivers together, it is probably collected, that the artificial air of the cherries was a great hindrance to the apricocks, that they could not produce air; yet, notwithstanding, it doth advance the alteration of their colour

colour and firmness; and is also good to preserve their taste.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

Grapes without spirit of wine.

Octob. 10, 1677. I shut in an ounce and half of grapes, unripe and bruised, in a receiver, that would hold 10 ounces of water; I drew out no air.

Octob. 11. The mercury ascended a little.

12. There was but a small change.

13. The height was $\frac{1}{2}$ a digit.

17. The height was one digit.

18. The height $1 \frac{1}{2}$.

19. The height almost four digits.

20. The height the same, but some finew or mouldiness appeared in their superficies.

21. The height was $4 \frac{1}{2}$.

22. } The height remained the
23. } same, but the mouldiness
24. } or finew encreased.

26. } $5 \frac{1}{2}$

27. } 6

30. } $6 \frac{1}{2}$

Nov. 2. } $7 \frac{1}{2}$

6. } 9

8. } 10

Nov. 9. } 12

12. } The height of it was 15

14. } 17

18. } 23

21. } 26

Dec. 8. } $36 \frac{1}{2}$

12. } 39

27. } 39

Jan. 6, 1678. The height was 36. The air broke out.

Grapes with spirit of wine.

Octob. 10, 1677. I made the same experiment in another receiver, observing the same circumstances, save that here I mixed two drachms of spirit of wine with the grapes.

Octob. 11. The mercury was not changed.

12. There was no change.

13. The mercury was not moved.

17. It ascended a little.

Octob. 18. The height of it was not yet a quarter of an inch.

19. It was moved but a very little.

Jan. 6. The grapes, during all the time elapsed, had produced no air.

By this experiment made in a double receiver, it appears, that spirit of wine doth hinder fermentation.

EXPERIMENT IX.

Octob. 17, 1677. I put one peach into an emptied receiver, with some quantity of spirit of wine, which yet could not touch the peach, unless it were elevated into vapours.

March 27, 1678. I drew out the peach, which had kept its colour, only it had lost its firmness. Though the receiver was but small; yet it was not filled with air, for when it was opened, the air seemed to rush into it: the peach being softened, was so depressed, that the lower part of it did a little touch the spirit of wine; it also came to pass, that the superior part had contracted the taste of the spirit of wine, as well as that, which was immersed in it,

EXPERIMENT X.

Air with spirit of wine.

Octob. 17. I included five peaches in an exhausted receiver, and together with them, some spirit of wine, which could not touch the peaches, unless it were elevated in form of vapours.

Octob. 18. The mercury ascended not at all.

20. The height of the mercury was $3 \frac{1}{2}$.

21. } $5 \frac{1}{2}$

22. } $7 \frac{1}{2}$

23. } 9

26. } The height of it was $9 \frac{1}{2}$

Nov. 2. } 12

6. } 14

12. } 16

Nov. 14. } It kept the same height.

16. }

Dec. 8. } 18

16. } The height of it was $19 \frac{1}{2}$

27. } $20 \frac{1}{2}$

Jan.

Jan. 6, 1678. It was 23.

March 28, 1678. It was $31 \frac{1}{2}$.

Air without spirit of wine.

Octob. 17. I included five peaches in a receiver full of common air, without spirit of wine.

Octob. 18. The mercury ascended not at all.

20. The height of the mercury was five digits.

21.]	8
22.]	10
23.]	11
26.]	12
Nov. 2.]	15
6.]	$17 \frac{1}{2}$
12.]	20
14.]	20
16.]	21
Dec. 8.]	26
16.]	$26 \frac{1}{2}$
27.]	$28 \frac{1}{2}$

Jan. 6, 1678. The height was 32.

March 28, 1678. The height was $33 \frac{1}{2}$.

April 15. THE liquor in the lower part of the receiver had broke all out, and the air followed it; so that I took out the peaches.

By this experiment we learn, that the very vapours of spirit of wine do somewhat hinder fermentation, yet much less than the spirit itself.

EXPERIMENT XI.

Paste with leaven or ferment.

April. 27, 1678. I included an ounce and half of paste mixed with leaven, with common air, in a receiver able to hold 23 ounces and a half of water.

April 28. The height of the mercury in the gage was $2 \frac{1}{2}$.

April 30, The height of it was $3 \frac{1}{4}$.

May 4. The mercury was depressed, though no air broke forth, and the paste was mouldy. The height of it was $2 \frac{1}{2}$.

May 6.]	$2 \frac{3}{4}$
8.]	3
10.]	$3 \frac{1}{2}$
14.]	4

May 17.]	$4 \frac{1}{2}$
20.]	5
24.]	6
28.]	8
June 2.]	9
6.]	10
14.]	$10 \frac{1}{2}$
July 5.]	$13 \frac{1}{2}$
19.]	15

Paste without leaven.

April 27, 1678. I included an ounce and half of paste, without leaven, with common air, in a receiver capable of holding 23 ounces and a half of water.

April 29. HITHERTO the mercury had not ascended; but this afternoon I found its height to be a quarter of a digit.

April 30. There was no change.

May 4. The mercury ascended but very slowly, and the paste was finewed or mouldy.

May 6. The height of the mercury was four digits.

8.]	$5 \frac{1}{2}$
10.]	$7 \frac{1}{2}$
14.]	$10 \frac{1}{2}$
17.]	$12 \frac{1}{2}$
20.]	$13 \frac{1}{2}$
24.]	16
28.]	$18 \frac{1}{2}$
June 2.]	$20 \frac{1}{2}$
6.]	$21 \frac{1}{2}$
14.]	25

By this experiment, made in two receivers at once, it seems clear, that leaven doth rather hinder than help the production of air, if the paste be not made in a place hot enough.

EXPERIMENT XII.

Paste with spirit of wine.

May 23. I included an ounce and a half of paste, without leaven, in a receiver capable of holding 25 ounces of water, and I poured spirit of wine on the paste.

May 24. The mercury was one digit high.

26. It was almost two digits high.

27. It was $2 \frac{1}{2}$.

31. There was no change.

T t t 2

June

June 2. }
 6. } The height of it was { $3\frac{1}{2}$
 10. } { 4
 { $4\frac{1}{2}$

July 19. No change.

Decem. 14. WHEN the height of the mercury was no more changed, I opened the receiver, and the paste affected my nostrils with a subacid smell.

Paste without spirit of wine.

May 23. I included one ounce and a half of paste, without leaven, in a receiver capable of holding 25 ounces of water; but I added no spirit of wine.

May 24. There was no ascension of the mercury.

May 26. It was three digits high.

27. }
 28. }
 29. }
 31. } The height of it was { $4\frac{1}{2}$
 June 2. } { $5\frac{1}{2}$
 6. } { 7
 10. } { $9\frac{1}{2}$
 { 12
 July 4. } { 17
 { 22
 { 30

July 19. The mercury little exceeded 30 digits. This day I found, that the air had broke out, and therefore I set or straitned the screw.

Decem. 14. THE mercury came again to the height of 15 digits; but this day I opened the receiver, and found the paste very acid.

FROM these experiments, made with paste, in a four-fold receiver, at one and the same time, it seems to follow, that spirit of wine doth very much prejudice the production of air; and the rather, if the paste be wrought with ferment: besides, it is clear, that paste without ferment, in tract of time, will produce no less air than paste with ferment.

EXPERIMENT XIII.

Octob. 11. I included new ale in a receiver, exactly filled by the help of my pneumatick engine, that so no air might be left; and I included another quantity

of the same ale in another receiver, where in some room was allowed for the air.

Octob. 12. I this day found the cover of that receiver, in which I had left some air, to be broken, and therefore I transfused the same ale into another receiver, in which there was room large enough left for the air. In the receiver exactly full, the mercury ascended a little.

Octob. 13. IN the receiver exactly filled, the height of the mercury was 13 digits, though it had been shut up a shorter time, and a much larger space was left therein, in which the air newly produced might have been dilated.

Octob. 14. IN the full receiver the height was 13; in the other receiver, 18. Towards evening I found the full receiver to work with greater swiftness, for the height of the mercury in it was 22; and in the other 20.

Octob. 15. IN the full receiver the height of the mercury was 42 digits; in the other 26. Besides we must mark, that some bubbles of air, which in the full receiver had possessed its upper part, now did wholly vanish; and besides, the ale did occupy a long space in the mercurial gage, wherein before it was not found.

Octob. 16. IN the full receiver the height was 60 digits. In the other 30.

18. IN the full receiver the height was 90. In the other 40.

22. IN the full receiver the height was 90. In the other 42.

23. IN the full receiver the height was 103. In the other 50.

26. IN the full receiver the height was 108. In the other 60.

28. IN the full receiver the height was 134. In the other 63.

THE bubbles, which were vanished, appeared again, yet nothing flowed out.

Nov. 8. THE full receiver had lost much ale; wherefore I opened it, and thereupon all the ale seemed as if it would have vanished into froth, unless I had suddenly shut the little hole, which I had opened:

opened: I tried it many times, that if the hole were opened in the gage, the mercury presently descended; but if the hole were again shut, it would speedily ascend; as if the compression, being abated, had afforded some facility for the production of air. The ale had a most pungent taste.

Nov. 9. I opened the other receiver, and observed in a manner the same circumstances.

FROM this experiment it seems to follow, that ale, if the air be wholly excluded from the vessel, will ferment more slowly, than if some air were left with it: yet, in tract of time, it makes a greater compression, if no place be left for its dilatation.

EXPERIMENT XIV.

Pease with spirit of wine.

June 27. I put green pease into an emptied receiver with spirit of wine. Towards the evening the receiver seemed to admit the external air, and the mercury came to the height of 18 digits; and therefore I firmed the cover with turpentine.

June. 30. I perceived no more change in the height of the mercury.

July 7. No air was produced, even in the most vehement heat.

Pease without spirit of wine.

June 27. I put new pease into an emptied receiver without spirit of wine. The receiver and the quantity of the pease were the same, as in the last mentioned experiment.

June 28. THE receiver was full of air, for I think it was not exactly shut; and therefore I again included the same pease. Towards evening the height of the mercury was five digits.

June 29.	} The height of it was	10
30.		16
July 1.		19
5.		26
7.		30

July 8. THE air got out of the receiver being too much filled.

FROM this experiment, made in two re-

ceivers at once, it appears, that spirit of wine doth also hinder the production of air in pease.

ARTICLE III.

The effects of artificial air are different from the effects of common air.

EXPERIMENT I.

June 19, 1677. I put cherries into an evacuated receiver. In six hours time the mercury came to the height of five digits and a half.

June 20. The ascension of the mercury was $3\frac{1}{2}$. Towards the evening it was two.

N. The ascensions are always to be understood, as added to the former.

June 21.	} The ascension was	$1\frac{1}{2}$
22.		$1\frac{1}{2}$
23.		2
24.		$1\frac{1}{2}$
25.		$1\frac{1}{2}$
26.		3
27.		3
28.		5
30.		$1\frac{1}{2}$
July 1.		3
2.		4
3.		2
4.		$2\frac{1}{2}$
5.		3

The height was 48; but I transmitted the air into another receiver, and the mercury was depressed to the height of 25 digits.

July 6. The ascension of the mercury four digits in one night's space.

7. The ascension of it was $5\frac{1}{2}$ in 24 hours space.

8. The ascension of it was 5.

9. The ascension of it was 5.

10. The ascension of it was 6.

11. The ascension of it was 12 in the space of 34 hours.

12. The ascension of it was 7.

13. The ascension of the mercury was three, the height about 92 digits; but the air transmitted in-

to another receiver, the mercury staid in the height 50.

July 14. }
 15. } The ascension was { 14
 16. } { 11
 17. } { 13
 18. } { 5
 18. The ascension of the mercury was nine, the height of it 102.

19. The height of the mercury 92. viz. because I transmitted part of the air into another receiver.

20. The ascension of the mercury was 15.

22. Some air got out, and the height of the mercury was $63\frac{1}{2}$.

23. The ascension of it was $12\frac{1}{2}$.

24. The ascension of the mercury was four, the height of it was 79 digits; but the air being transmitted into another receiver, the height staid at 62.

25. }
 26. } The ascension was { 8
 27. } { 9
 28. } { 4
 28. } { 5

30. The ascension of it was 10, the height was 98. Part of the air being transmitted into another receiver, the height staid at 64.

31. The ascension was 6.

Aug. 1. The ascension of the mercury was nine digits.

2. The ascension of it was 4.

3. I transmitted the air into another receiver, and the mercury abode in the height 68.

4. I transmitted the air again into another receiver, and the mercury rested in the height 54.

6. The ascension of the mercury was 7.

7. The ascension of it was 4.

8. There was no ascension thereof.

9. The ascension thereof was three digits.

THE receiver being opened, I found the

cherries of a whitish colour, and of very little taste; but the taste they had was not ungrateful; their flesh or pulp was spongy.

FROM this experiment it seems to follow, that cherries contain much air in them, and that they produce it very irregularly.

EXPERIMENT II.

July 13, 1677. I put cherries into an empty receiver, and then I transmitted into the same receiver as much air produced from other cherries, as was sufficient to sustain 50 digits of mercury.

July 15. YESTERDAY the mercury had not ascended at all; but this day it was two digits higher, viz. in 22 above its wonted height.

July 16. The height of the mercury $23\frac{1}{2}$.

17. The height of it was 25.

26. The height of it was 43. Some air got out.

27. The height of the mercury was 45. Some more air made an escape.

30. The height of it was 52.

31. The height of it was 61 digits.

Aug. 1. THE height of the mercury persists in manner the same, but the air brake out.

Aug. 27. THE air had all broke out for some time before: I took out the cherries, and found them not to have lost their colour, as they had in the former experiment; and besides they had contracted no putrefaction nor mouldiness, but had a taste a little more acid than they were wont to have; and being opened, there were many cavities in their pulp, like fermented paste or dough, but not quite so thick.

FROM this experiment compared with the former it may probably be inferred, that in artificial air fruits do produce less air, and so they keep their colour and their taste better; for the cherries, in the former experiment, remained included in a receiver, nor much longer than those in this.

EXPE-

EXPERIMENT III.

Common air.

Sept. 10, 1677. I put six ounces of unripe grapes into a receiver capable of containing 25 ounces of water; and I stopped it firmly, by the help of a screw, with common air.

Sept. 11. The mercury ascended not at all.
12. The mercury stopped a little below one digit.

13.	} The height of it was {	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
14.		7
15.		10
16.		12 $\frac{1}{2}$
17.		14
18.		16
19.		18
20.		20
21.		22
22.		23 $\frac{1}{2}$

23. The height of it was 27. The grapes were not altered.

24. The height was 30.

25. The height was 31. The grapes now began to be yellow.

26.	} The height of it was {	32 $\frac{1}{2}$
27.		34
29.		35
30.		35

Octob. 1. The height remained at 35.

2. The height was 36.

5. } The height stayed at 36.
6. }

10. The height was 35.

13. The height of it was 32 $\frac{1}{2}$.
The air got not forth, but the cold began to come on and encrease.

Nov. 9. The same remained.

Dec. 19. I found the air almost all to have made an escape.

Dec. 20. I took out the grapes, and I found, that, by their smell and their taste, they had contracted some mouldiness, though the same was not discernable by the eye. Their firmness was encreased.

Factitious air.

Sept. 10, 1677. I included two ounces of crude grapes in a receiver capable of

holding eight ounces of water; and to the common air I superadded air produced out of pears, until the mercury did stay 10 digits above its wonted pressure.

Sept. 11. The mercury descended; its height was eight digits.

Sept. 12. The height of it was 11; the ascension of it was 3.

Sept. 13.	} The height of it was {	16
14.		20
15.		23
16.		24

17. The height was 28; the grapes turned yellow.

18.	} The height of it was {	29
19.		30
20.		31
21.		33
22.		35
23.		20

Because some air had broke out: the grapes were also of a yellow colour.

Sept. 24. The height of the mercury was 21 digits.

25. The height was 22.

26. The height almost the same.

Sept. 27. The height abode in 22.

29. The height was 27.

30. The height was 28.

Octob. 1 & 2. The height stayed at 28.

5.	} The height of it was {	30
6.		31
10.		31 $\frac{1}{2}$
13.		31

Nov. 9. The height was 13. Some air had got out.

Decem. 19. The height of the mercury was 20 digits.

Dec. 20. I took out the grapes, and their smell and taste were more grateful than of others, and their firmness was rather increased than diminished.

By this experiment, made in two receivers at once, we learn, that factitious air seems fit to alter colour, and to preserve taste; but the firmness might be increased here, as it is augmented in turpentine; viz. the spirits, in tract of time, being exhaled.

EXPERIMENT IV.

July 18. I took two pieces of orange, and by the help of my screw I stopped them in fast in my receiver with common air, and then into the same receiver I put air, produced out of cherries, as much as was sufficient to sustain 12 digits of mercury. At the same time I put another piece of the same orange into another receiver, with common air alone, and that not compressed.

July 20. THE orange, in common air, began to contract mouldiness; the other seemed not at all to be altered.

July 23. THE mouldiness of the orange in the common air increased; the other remained sound.

July 16. THE orange, in the common air, did not proceed to increase its mouldiness, but seemed wholly rotten; the other also began to putrify, but remained free from mouldiness.

Aug. 1. PERCEIVING, that the oranges were no more sensibly changed, I opened the receivers; and though the air, where-with I had mingled artificial air, was so compressed in its receiver, that now it could not sustain 26 digits of mercury above its wonted pressure, yet the fruits were far better preserved in it than in the other; only something in the superficies seemed to have lost its juice, but all the inner parts, with the rind or pill, were very well coloured, well tasted, and firm: in the other receiver, the whole orange seemed almost rotten, not excepting the rind. In the *Exper. X. of Artic. IV.* the orange was more corrupted in the compressed air, because, as it seems, no factitious air had been mixed with it.

HERE also it seems worthy our observation, that the same air, generated from cherries, is apt to produce different effects upon fruits of a different kind; for here it retarded the alteration of colour and firmness, which in *Exper. VII. of Artic. II.* where I included air with apricocks, it accelerated and hastened.

EXPERIMENT V.

Factitious air.

July 20, 1676. I included a small piece of beef in an emptied receiver, and then I put air, produced from cherries, into the same receiver, as much as sufficed to sustain 27 digits of mercury.

July 21. } The mercury persisted almost
22. } in the same height, and came
23. } not to its wonted pressure.
25. }

July 26. THIS day the beef had removed the receiver from its cover; and because it stunk very much, we threw it away.

Common air.

July 20, 1676. I put a piece of beef into a receiver full of common air, and I carefully stopped and firmed it in, by the help of the screw.

July 21. The mercury had not at all ascended in the gage.

22. The height of the mercury was one digit.

23. The height of it was $5\frac{1}{2}$

25. The height of it was $9\frac{1}{2}$

26. The height of it was $14\frac{1}{4}$.
In the evening 18.

27. The height of it was $21\frac{1}{3}$.
In the evening 25.

28. The screw, not being firm enough, suffered the air to break forth.

By this experiment, made in two receivers at once, it appears, that air, produced from cherries, is a great hindrance to the production of air from flesh.

EXPERIMENT VI.

Common air.

March 14, 1676. I put two onions into a receiver, full of common air, with a mercurial gage; and I fastened the stopple with a screw, to see whether vegetation would increase the quantity of the air, or diminish it.

March 28. Two days after, the mercury seemed depressed $\frac{1}{4}$ of a digit; but afterward

afterward it recovered its former height, and two digits more; and now the air brake forth, and the roots grew longer.

April 28. ABOUT 10 or 12 days since I perceived the roots to be corrupted; and indeed now they were wholly putrified.

May 9. THE mercury persisted in the same height, because the air had broke forth; and therefore I took out the onions, and found their roots putrified, but they were not mouldy at all.

Fælitious air.

March 17, 1676. I included two onions in an empty receiver, and afterward put air, produced from paste, into the same receiver.

March 28. MY onions took root, at least as well as those, which I kept in the common air.

April 28. THE ends of the roots began to putrify, yet they were in far better case than those, who are furrounded with common air. Perhaps the cause of this difference is to be fetched from hence, that a greater quantity of water was included with artificial air. The mercury mounted higher 9 or 10 digits.

May 18. HITHERTO the onions seemed not all to be corrupted, but this day I found one of them to have contracted some corruption, which may be called a syderation or planet-striking, and differs from a mouldiness.

FROM this experiment, made in two receivers at once, we may gather, that artificial air doth not at all hinder vegetation: it appears also thereby, that not only the sensible bigness of the body, but also the quantity of the air, is increased by vegetation.

EXPERIMENT VII.

Common air.

August 25. I included six ounces of unripe grapes in a receiver capable of holding 25 ounces of water, but I did not exhaust the air.

August 26. The mercury ascended a little.

27. The height of the mercury was one digit.

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August 28. The height of it was $1\frac{1}{4}$.

29. The height of it was $1\frac{1}{4}$.

August 30. THE mercury seemed to have descended rather than ascended. The colour of the grapes was less altered here, than in the receiver, into which air produced out of pears had been immitted.

August 31. THE receiver was broken, and I left the grapes exposed to the free air.

Sept. 7. THE grapes being left in the free air, did still keep their green colour, and were of a taste grateful enough, though less pungent than before.

Fælitious air.

August 25. I included two ounces of unripe grapes in a receiver capable of holding eight ounces and $\frac{1}{2}$ of water; and having stopped it close with a screw, I filled it further with air, which I immitted, produced from pears, as much as sufficed to sustain 15 digits of mercury.

August 26. SOME air escaped out, and therefore I immitted new air, produced out of the same pears, until the mercury staid at 17 digits above its wonted pressure.

August 27. THE mercury was depressed below the 16 digit; and yet no air had brake forth. Towards evening, I found the mercury had again ascended to 17.

Aug. 28. }
29. } The height of it was { 19
30. } { 21
31. } { 22
 } { $23\frac{1}{2}$

Sept. 1. }
2. } The height of it was { 24
 } { 24

Sept. 4. THE same height continued at 24, and the grapes had all contracted a yellow colour.

Sept. 5. THE air broke out.

Sept. 7. THE air proceeding to get out by degrees, I took out the grapes, and found them very insipid, and of an unacceptable taste.

THIS experiment, made in two receivers at once, doth confirm to us the efficacy of artificial air, to alter the colour of fruits. It is also very observable, that in this experiment it did prejudice the

U u u

prefer-

preservation of the taste, and promoted the production of the air, contrary to what had happened in the former experiments. It would be worth the while to try, whether the same success would even with all unripe fruits.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

Factitious air.

August 2, 1676. I shut up one gilliflower in a receiver, with air produced from paste made with meal, and not mixed.

August 4. OUR flower began to change colour and to be moist.

August 9. THE gilliflower was little altered.

August 12. THE moisture increased by little and little, but no mouldiness appeared.

August 31. THE gilliflower was little altered, yet it was less fresh than those, which were kept *in vacuo*.

Common air.

August 2. I shut up one gilliflower in a receiver, with common air, not mixed.

August 4. OUR flower was not changed.

August 9. THE gilliflower was madid, and had almost lost all its colour.

August 12. Now a great mouldiness covered all the flower.

Vacuum.

August 2. I included two gilliflowers *in vacuo*; and took special care, that no humidity should be included with them.

August 4, 1676. ONE of the gilliflowers began to appear madid.

August 31, 1677. DURING the whole elapsed year, the gilliflowers had suffered no mutation.

By this experiment, instituted in three receivers at once, it seems probable, that factitious air doth render the change of colour more speedy, yet it prevents mouldiness, even as *vacuum* doth the same.

EXPERIMENT IX.

Common air.

July 24. I put apricocks, and some plums, of which divers were cut in pieces,

into a receiver full of common air, and stopped it firmly with a screw.

July 25. THE mercurial gage was spoiled, and therefore I could not by any means perceive the quantity of the air to be generated.

July 30. THE fruits seemed not at all to be altered, saving, that one of the dissected plums had contracted something of mouldiness.

August 2. I opened the receiver, and found all the fruits firm, of a good colour, and of a grateful taste.

Artificial air.

July 24. I made the same experiment in another receiver, with the same circumstances, save only, that into this last receiver I intruded air, produced from cherries, as much as was sufficient to sustain 22 digits of mercury.

July 25. I found the mercury to have descended three digits; it staid in 19. Toward the evening it recovered its former height; it staid in 22.

July 26. }
27. } The height of it was $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 28 \\ 34\frac{1}{2} \\ 36 \\ 40 \end{array} \right.$
28. }
29. }

July 30. The height was 44. The apricocks, which were cut, began to moisten, and to be dissolved into water.

31. The height was 51.

Aug. 1. The height was 60.

2. The height was 65. Towards evening, when I found some liquor had escaped out of the receiver, I screwed it more straitly; but one of the iron wires being broken, all the air got out. Wherefore I took out the fruits, and found them very soft, especially those whose lower parts were immersed in the water; for the rest they were a little more firm, but all of them retained a grateful taste.

FROM this experiment made in two receivers, it seems to be inferrible, that air produced from cherries doth promote the

the alteration both of colour, and also of firmness in apricocks.

It appears also, that some part of such air is destroyed in the beginning.

EXPERIMENT X.

July 30, 1676. I put plums, cut asunder, into three receivers, of which one was full of artificial air, produced from gooseberries; the second was full of common air; the third was vacuum.

August 2. In the artificial air, the plums were not changed; in the common air, they began to be mouldy; but in the evacuated receiver, they retained their colour, but were soft.

August 5. In the artificial air the plums had contracted a red colour, humidity, and softness; in the common air they seemed black and mouldy, yet retaining their firmness; in the evacuated receiver they were almost melted or dissolved.

August 7. In the common air the plums now began to soften.

August 8. In the common air, the plums seemed to have lost their black colour, and to have contracted a red one; even as it happened three days ago to the plums in the artificial air.

In this experiment, artificial air seems to have promoted alteration.

EXPERIMENT XI.

Sept. 24. I put five peaches in a receiver, with common air mixed with air produced from grapes; and I included the grapes themselves in the same receiver, that the common air might be the better saturated with the artificial.

Sept. 25. THE height of the mercury was 21 digits.

<i>Sept. 26.</i>	} The height of it was	23
27.		31
28.		39
29.		42
30.		45
<i>Octob. 1.</i>		48

2. THE same height continued.

3. THE height of it was $52\frac{1}{2}$.

5. THE height the same; but

the peaches seemed somewhat madid.

6. THE height of it was 58.

7. THE height of it was the same.

8. THE height of it was 61.

11. THE mercury ascended a little.

19. THE height of it was 65.

25. THE height of it was 16. The cold was sharp.

27. THE cold abated, and the mercury ascended.

30. THE height staid at 61, and a little more.

Nov. 2. THE height of the mercury was 59. It was bitter cold weather.

6. THE height of it was 61. The frost broke and was dissolved.

7. THE mercury seemed somewhat higher.

9. THE mercury persisted in the same height.

Decem. 9. In one month's space the mercury ascended by little and little; its height was 80 digits.

April. 1, 1678. THE mercury came to 96 digits above its wonted height. And I opened the receiver, and whilst the air was breaking out, the peaches did emit many bubbles through their skin, not without violent noise, and the skin in some of them was broken: they had preserved their taste pleasant enough, and the colour of their pulp was commendable, but they had lost their firmness, as if they had been boiled: being left in the air for three hours space, they were all rotten.

THIS experiment proves, that common air doth corrupt bodies, yet it doth so much less, if it be mixed with fastitious air.

EXPERIMENT XII.

The first receiver.

August 4. I cut five pears, each of them into four parts, and I put one part of each into a receiver full of common air, and stopped it close with a screw.

U u u 2

August

August 6. THE colour of these fruits was altered little less than of others: the mercury ascended not at all.

August 7. THE pears were little altered; the mercury was higher by a little.

August 8. THE pears underwent no great mutation. The height of the mercury was four digits.

<i>Aug.</i>	9.	} The height of it was	{	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
	10.			6
	11.			10
	13.			16
	14.			20

The pears began to be softened.

15. The height of it was 21.

16. The height of it was 19. I believe the air had got out.

17. Now I found the air had escaped out.

18. When the air had almost all got out since yesterday in the evening, and I saw the fruits to look worse than before, I took them out, and found them putrified.

The second receiver.

Aug. 4. I took one quarter of each of the aforesaid pears, and included it after the same manner; and afterwards I im-mitted air, produced out of cherries, till the mercury possessed 23 digits above its wonted pressure.

August 6. THOSE fruits had altered nothing, but their colour a little.

August 7. THE pears, almost all, seemed rotten. The mercury persisted in the same height.

August 8. THE pears were not altered much more. Something hindered, that I could not see the mercury.

August 10. THE pears waxed more and more soft. Now looking upon the height of the mercury, it was 40 digits more than its wonted height.

<i>August</i>	11.	} The height of it was	{	51
	13.			61
	14.			67
	15.			73
	16.			The mercury descended;

yet I know assuredly, that nothing had got out.

17. The mercury exceeded not 69 digits in height, yet the air could by no means escape out.

18. The mercury persisted at the same height, but I suffered the air to break forth; it affected my nostrils with a sharp odour: moreover, the taste of the fruits seemed very acid, and their pulp exceeding soft.

The third receiver.

August 4, 1677. I put a quarter of each of the foresaid pears into a receiver, not exactly shut.

August 6. THE pears seemed to change their colour.

August 7. ONE of our pieces of pears began to lose its firmness: but in the artificial air, another piece of the same pear did yesterday seem wholly rotten.

August 8. ONE piece was mouldy, the rest were soft.

August 9. THE pears grew more and more rotten.

August 11. THE pears were wholly mouldy and rotten.

THIS receiver, compared with the first, shews, that corruption doth not begin in free air sooner than in included air; but when it is begun, it is much more, yea, and more speedily increased, viz. because the included air might be satiated.

The fourth receiver.

August 4, 1677. I included one quarter of each of the said pears *in vacuo*.

August 6. THE height of the mercury was 5.

<i>August</i>	7.	} The height of it was	{	8
	8.			10
	9.			12
	10.			14
	11.			16
	13.			20
	14.			23
	15.			25
	17.			28
				<i>August</i>

August 20. HITHERTO the pears had undergone no alteration, but this day began to be soft: the mercury ascended not.

August 26. NEITHER the pears, nor the height of the mercury were altered at all.

THIS production of the air seems very regular.

By this experiment, made in 4 receivers at once, we find the aptitude of artificial air for the softning of fruits.

AND that the production of air was here promoted by artificial air, is very probable; yet it had succeeded otherwise with apricocks, *Art. II. Exper. VII.*

EXPERIMENT XIII.

The first receiver.

August 21, 1677. I divided six apricocks, each into four parts, and I put one piece of each into a receiver full of common air, and stopped it firmly with a screw.

August 22. THE apricocks seemed riper this day than yesterday; but no air was produced by them.

August 23. ONE piece, contiguous to the water, began to be mouldy; the rest inclined to putrefaction: the mercury seemed to have ascended a little.

August 24. A piece next the water was covered with a great deal of mouldiness; another piece, more remote from the water, was somewhat mouldy also; but all were rotten.

August 25. THE fruits contracted no more mouldiness; but the putrefaction more and more increased. The height of the mercury was seven digits.

August 26. The height of the mercury was 15 digits.

28. The height of it was 30.

29. The same height continued.

30. The height of it was 33.

The fruits were almost all dissolved.

31. The height of it was 38.

Septem. 1. The height of the mercury was the same.

2. The same height still.

Septem. 3. The mercury ascended a little.

4. }
5. } The height of it was { 41
7. } { 43
8. } { 45
 { 46

9. The same height continued.

22. Little or no change was made in the height of the mercury; but the fruits were almost melted into water.

Octob. 1. WHEN the mercury continued in the same height, and the fruits were almost all vanished, I opened the receiver, and found the apricocks very much impaired, and soft; yet they had retained a taste, not ungrateful, but subacid.

The second receiver.

August 21, 1677. I covered one quarter of each of the foresaid fruits, the receiver not being fortified against external air.

August 22. THE apricocks were flaccid or quailed, as if they had been dry or withered.

Aug. 23. MANY of our fruits appeared rotten and mouldy.

Aug. 24. THE apricocks wholly infected with putrefaction and mouldiness.

The third receiver.

Aug. 21. I included firmly, by the help of a screw, one quarter of each of the foresaid fruits, in an unexhausted receiver; to which I after added air produced from pears, as much as sufficed to sustain 20 digits of mercury.

Aug. 22. THE mercury ascended not at all; but the fruits seemed to have acquired a greater degree of maturity than those, which are included in common air.

Aug. 23: THESE fruits seemed less altered than they, which were in common air.

Aug. 24. THE fruits were not altered.

25. THE fruits did begin to produce air, but I could not discern the quantity.

Aug. 26. LITTLE alteration in the fruits.

28. THE apricocks began to moisten, yet they were far less altered than those which remain in common air.

Aug.

Aug. 30. THE mercury did this day emerge above the body by which it was hid. Its height above the wonted pressure was 30 digits.

Aug. 31. The height of the mercury was 40 digits.

Sept. 1. The height of it was the same.

2. The same height continues.

3. The height thereof 45.

8. The height was little changed.

9. The height was 40, and yet no air got out.

Sept. 11. The height was 38.

12. The mercury continued to descend.

Sept. 13. The height of it was 33.

Sept. 14. The mercury was so depressed, that it appeared no more.

Sept. 22. The mercury did emerge again; its height was 33. The fruits were covered with a kind of mucor or finew.

Octob. 1. WHEN the height of the mercury, nor the apricocks, were any more altered, and the finew vanished away, I opened the receiver, and found the apricocks not impaired, but of a colour laudable enough; but their pulp was spongy and soft, and of a subacid taste.

The fourth receiver.

Aug. 21. I took a quarter of each of the aforesaid fruits, and shut them up firmly with a screw in an unexhausted receiver, into which afterwards I intruded air, till the mercury came to 90 digits above its accustomed pressure.

Aug. 22. OUR receiver broke into an hundred pieces, by the force of the air compressed within it: whereupon I put the fruits into another receiver, and added only such a quantity of air, as was able to sustain 60 digits of mercury.

Aug. 25. THE apricocks had contracted much mouldiness; I added new air.

Aug. 26. THE apricocks were wholly infested with mouldiness, and rottenness.

THIS receiver, if compared with the former, doth shew, that the quantity of corruption doth depend on the quantity of the air.

By this experiment made in four receivers at once, we have a confirmation, that in factitious air, alteration is made quicker; but in tract of time, the corruption is far greater in common air.

ARTICLE IV.

The effects of compressed air are different from the effects of common air.

EXPERIMENT I.

March 21, 1677. I put two onions into a receiver, which was to be stopped close with a screw, and I intruded so much common air thereinto, that raised the mercury 60 digits above its wonted pressure.

March 28. MY onions took root, as well as other onions, which I had included in common air at the same time.

April 28. THE onions included in common air eight days ago were covered with mouldiness, though in the beginning they had put forth roots numerous enough: the onions in the other receiver began to contract corruption at the ends of their roots; but the compressed air 10 days before had found a gradual passage out, and now was almost all escaped: and therefore I put in new air, till the mercury had attained to the height of 60 digits above its accustomed pressure.

April 29. THE onions in the compressed air were all over covered with mouldiness.

FROM this experiment it seems to follow, that a little compression doth not prejudice those bodies, which are to be expanded by vegetation.

MOREOVER, the new air, which was intruded, seems to have promoted the mouldiness; though, in the beginning, it is probable, that the compression of the air did retard both the mouldiness, and also the corruption.

EXPERIMENT II.

May 9. I put two equal quantities of tulips and lark-spurs into two receivers of an equal bigness, and stopped them up firmly

firmly with screws: I left one of them with common air only; but I compressed the other with the intrusion of new air, till the mercury did exceed its wonted height by 70 digits.

May 11. Two tulips, in the common air, contracted mouldiness; but all things remained unaltered in the compressed air.

May 12. A third tulip, in the common air, began to be finewed; but there was no such thing in the compressed air.

May 14. *THIS* day I perceived one tulip in the compressed air to be infected with some mucor or finew; but those, which remained in the common air, were all very mucid; and also one of the larkspurs, in the common air, had contracted a mucor.

May 17. *THREE* of the tulips, in the compressed air, had indeed contracted a finew, but not half so much as tulips in the common air were covered with. And moreover, two of the larkspurs in the common air appeared finewed also; but those shut up in compressed air, were preserved fresh, and wholly free from mouldiness or finew.

May 21. *THE* flowers in the common air were all rotten and putrified; but the other in the compressed air, received no further alteration: and besides, the tulips, which had contracted some finew, seemed rather to lose that, than to acquire new.

May 30. *WHEN* the flowers, in the common air, being wholly putrid, were dissolved into water, I took them out, and kept the liquor in the vessel, to try whether any insects would breed therein. In the compressed air the flowers suffered no more sensible alteration; and therefore I took them out, and found them madid, and infected with a subacid odour.

By this experiment it seems plain, that compressed air doth hinder putrefaction and mouldiness in some plants.

EXPERIMENT III.

May 21, 1677. I cut an orange into equal parts, and one of the halves I stopped up in a receiver, with air so compressed,

that it would sustain 100 digits of mercury above its wonted pressure; but I left the other half in another receiver, well shut, only with common air.

May 25. *EACH* half of the orange had contracted mouldiness, but that which was in the common air, was much more mucid than the other.

May 26. *THIS* day I perceived that the compressed air had almost all got out, and therefore I put in new.

May 30. *EVERY* day I perceived some air had got forth, and therefore I made a daily supply by adding new. And it came to pass that the orange, by receiving new air, so often admitted, had contracted a mucor, notwithstanding the compression, much more than the other piece of orange, that was always left in the same air without pressure.

June 1. I took out the two half oranges, and that which remained in the compressed air, seemed to have contracted a corruption, at least, three times greater than that, which had continued in the common air.

By this experiment, the aptitude of compressed air, to retard corruption, is confirmed; yet, in progress of time, it is very probable, that the quantity of corruption doth depend upon the quantity of the air. See *Exper. I.*

EXPERIMENT IV.

May 31, 1677. I included two equal quantities of roses in two receivers, which I stopped by the help of screws, into one of which I intruded as much air as would suffice to sustain 90 digits of mercury, besides its accustomed pressure; but I left the other only with common air.

June 11. *THE* roses, in the common air, were free from mouldiness, only they seemed to have lost something of their colour; but those, which were shut up in the compressed air, had almost all contracted a yellow colour, as if they had withered in the open air, and yet they were not mucid or finewed.

June

June 18. THIS last week the flowers in the common air admitted not the least change; but those in the compressed air grew more and more yellow. I opened both receivers, and found the roses to have kept their smell, yet it was somewhat altered; neither of them were dry nor withered. I kept them apart in the open air, and found that the roses, taken out from the compressed air, were not so soon altered by the contact of new air, as those which had remained in the air not compressed.

FROM this experiment it seems to follow, that compressed air is sometimes fitter for the alteration of colour than common air. And perhaps it may not be unworthy of our notice, that roses so included contract not a mouldiness, but only a yellow colour; but in tulips and larkspurs, the matter succeeded otherwise. See *Exper. II.*

EXPERIMENT V.

June 1, 1677. I put the two halves of the same orange in two receivers: in the one I increased the quantity of air till it sustained the mercury 100 digits above its wonted height; but I left the other uncompressed, only exactly shut.

June 6. EACH half of the orange was infected with mouldiness, especially that, whose ambient air was compressed. But note, that new air was every day to be supplied thereunto; for the compressed air in 24 hours space had almost all got out: but in *Exper. III.* it had remained very well shut in for six whole days.

June 11. THE orange in the common air contracted no more mouldiness; but in the compressed air, the mucor or mouldiness was more and more increased.

June 18. FINDING the mouldiness of the orange in the common air to be lessened, rather than increased, I took it out; and perceiving further, that in compressed air the orange was not more mucid, after I had ceased to intrude new air, I was willing to try, whether the new air did suppeditate new strength to the orange, to exert and thrust out its mouldiness; there-

fore I made the mercury in the gage, by reason of the air I intruded, to exceed its wonted height 80 digits.

June 20. Two days after I had intruded new air into the receiver, the mouldiness of the orange appeared to be manifestly augmented.

FROM this experiment we may gather, that the quantity of the mouldiness doth depend on the quantity of the air.

EXPERIMENT VI.

June 17, 1677. I put two shrew-mice into two receivers, of equal bigness, and stopped them up carefully: in one of them I left only common air; into the other I intruded air, till the mercury was higher than its wonted pressure 30 digits: but the mouse in the common air was included about 5 and 52', 6' after the other.

THE mouse in the compressed air seemed to lose his strength much sooner than the other, the motion of his breast being less frequent. Yet notwithstanding about 6 and 18', the mouse in the common air, which seemed the stronger, fell into convulsive fits and died; but the mouse in the compressed air seemed then, and some time after, to be as well as it was an hour and half before.

ABOUT eleven of the clock, the mouse in the compressed air did as yet breathe, but about four in the morning he was found dead in the same posture, wherein he was seven hours before: whence we may conjecture, that he was free from convulsive fits.

I must not here omit to relate, that the mouse in the common air had consumed something of that air, so that the mercury stood at 29 digits, which, when the receiver opened, presently ascended to 30.

FROM this experiment we learn, that compressed air seems fitter than common air for the prolongation of life, seeing the one mouse lived 24' and no more, but the other lived about 15 turns longer, though only a double quantity of air was included in his receiver.

EXPERIMENT VII.

June 13, 1677. I put four flies into a receiver, into which I afterwards intruded air, till the mercury did occupy 60 digits above its wonted height; and at the same time I included three other flies in another receiver, with common air not compressed.

June 14. THIS day in the morning all the flies were well. In the afternoon I found two of them dead in the compressed air, but in the common air they were all alive. About five of the clock one of the flies in the compressed air was alive, and three in the common air.

June 15. THIS morning I found all the flies in the common air dead; but that single one, which remained alive in the compressed air, seemed still to be very well, and being taken out of the receiver, flew speedily away.

FROM this experiment it seems to follow, that flies are not very sensible of the compression of the air; and that they die more for hunger than for default of air: for the fly, which was so long well, fed upon the carcases of those which were dead, so that she seemed to be affected with no distemper. Yet I iterated the experiment. See *Exper. VIII.*

EXPERIMENT VIII.

June 15. I repeated the former experiment, only including four flies in each receiver, and compressing the air somewhat more.

June 16. THIS morning I found two of the flies in the common air dead, and but one in the compressed air.

ABOUT two in the afternoon the four flies in the common air seemed to be dead; but in the compressed air, the three were alive.

June 17. ALL the flies died, except one in the compressed air.

FROM this, and the former experiment, a man may conjecture, that the compression of the air is of small consequence to flies; and indeed they are not prejudiced

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by the rarefaction of the air, but with great difficulty, unless there be almost a complete *vacuum*.

EXPERIMENT IX.

June 18. I included two frogs in two receivers, and stopped them by the help of screws; the one only with common air, the other with air compressed to sustain 70 digits of mercury.

June 19. BOTH the frogs were alive; and the height of the mercury in both receivers remained the same.

June 20. NEITHER of the frogs were dead, and they seemed to me rather to diminish than increase the air, but the difference was so small, that I dare not be positive therein.

June 21. IN the morning both the frogs were alive; but towards evening the frog in the common air was found dead.

June 22. AT evening the frog in the compressed air was alive.

June 23. IN the morning I found the frog dead.

It must be found out by iterated experiments, whether the greater length of life was to be ascribed to the compression of the air, or to the disposition of the frogs.

EXPERIMENT X.

June 18, 1677. I shut two half parts of the same orange in two receivers, and stopped them by the help of screws; the one with common air, the other with air compressed to sustain 90 digits of mercury.

June 22. THIS morning I found the orange in the common air to be infected with mouldiness, but the other was sound.

AT three of the clock in the afternoon, the orange in the compressed air seemed also to have contracted some mucor.

June 23. I found the orange in the common air far more mucid than the other.

June 24. THE orange in the common air did not increase his mouldiness, but the other was covered all over with it.

X x x

June

June 28. THE mouldiness produced in the common air was now wholly vanished; in the other receiver, I saw no further alteration in the fruit.

June 30. PERCEIVING that the fruits persisted in the same state, I took them out. The half orange, which was kept in common air, seemed half rotten; but the other besides its finew, appeared wholly putrified.

By this experiment we have a confirmation, that the quantity of the mouldiness or finew doth depend upon the quantity of the air.

It seems also worthy of observation, that the mouldiness, or hoariness, did appear a little later in the compressed air than in the common, though afterwards it increased much more.

EXPERIMENT XI.

June 29, 1677. I included roses in two receivers, stopped by the help of screws; I left one with common air only, but I filled the other with so much air, intruded by force, that the mercury ascended to 90 digits above its wonted pressure.

July 14. FOUR or five days ago I found the roses in the compressed air to wither and to degenerate into a yellow colour. There was not the least alteration in the other receiver.

July 17. WHEN I perceived, that this present experiment proceeded after the same manner, as that mentioned p. 121. I took out the roses. Those kept in the compressed air, were very much corrupted and of a very ungrateful smell; but the others were little altered; and their smell not unpleasant.

HENCE we have a further confirmation, that the quantity of corruption doth depend on the quantity of the air.

EXPERIMENT XII.

July 4. I cut a lemon asunder, and put both halves into two receivers, to be stopped by the help of screws: the one I left with common air only, but the other I filled with so much compressed air, that it

sustained 90 digits of mercury above its wonted pressure.

July 7. THIS day both parts of the lemon seemed to grow mouldy at the same time.

July 17. THE part of the lemon in the compressed air had contracted much more of hoar or finew, than the other: and perceiving no further alteration in them, I took them out, and found the lemon in the compressed air far more putrid than the other.

By this experiment it is confirmed, that the quantity of corruption doth depend on the quantity of the air.

It seems also, that a triple compression of the air, in respect of a lemon, is too weak sensibly to retard the production of mouldiness or finew.

EXPERIMENT XIII.

July 18, 1677. I included two parcels of gilliflowers, equal in number, in two equal receivers, and stopped them close with screws. I filled the one with compressed air, till it sustained 100 digits of mercury above the wonted pressure; but the other was left with common air alone.

July 23. IN the compressed air, the gilliflowers were bedewed with some hoariness or mould; the others appeared only moist: but the mercury exceeded its wonted height only 70 digits, because some of the air had got forth.

July 25. IN the compressed air, the gilliflowers proceeded to be much more corrupted than the others: they had wholly lost their colour.

July 26. IN the compressed air, the gilliflowers were wholly putrified, and covered with an hoary finew: the others were moist only in some places.

Aug. 1. PERCEIVING no further alteration in the gilliflowers, I took them out of their receivers: those which were kept in compressed air were rotten, and did stink; but the other kept their colour, and their smell was not offensive, but they were moist.

THIS experiment confirms, that the quantity of the air doth increase corruption.

WE may also observe, that the mouldiness or hoariness is not produced, but in compressed air; neither is it probable, that this happened by chance, seeing, in each receiver, there were four gilliflowers included, or three at least.

EXPERIMENT XIV.

July 21, 1677. I included a shrew-mouse in a recipient, with common air, and shut it in firmly with a screw, to try whether he would produce or consume air.

AFTER two hours the mouse died, and some air was consumed, but a less quantity than in the experiment mentioned, p. 121.

July 24. HITHERTO I found no change in the height of the mercury.

TOWARDS evening it seemed a little higher.

July 25. THIS day in the morning much air was produced *de novo*.

July 26. THE quantity of the produced air increased more and more.

By this experiment we have a confirmation, that living animals do consume air, but dead ones produce new.

EXPERIMENT XV.

Compressed air.

Aug. 31. I put pears into a receiver, whereto, after it was well stopped, I added as much air, as sufficed to sustain 30 digits of mercury above the wonted pressure.

Sept. 1. THE mercury was depressed, as it happened fol. 522.

Sept. 2. THE height of the mercury decreased: it exceeded not 25 digits.

Sept. 3. THIS day the mercury proceeded one digit higher: it stayed in 26.

Sept. 4. THE height thereof was 28.

Sept. 8. BECAUSE the receiver did afford some efflux to the air, I therefore put in new: and this day, opening the receiver, to compare the taste of these fruits with the taste of the others, I found, that

five of the pears had lost their firmness, but two had retained it.

Common air.

Aug. 31. I included pears of the same kind in another receiver, with common air only, not compressed.

Sept. 1. THE mercury was a little depressed, as if it had been in compressed air: the cause whereof I judge attributable only to the cold.

Sept. 2. THE mercury was not changed.

Sept. 3. THE height of the mercury was one digit above the wonted pressure.

Sept. 4. } The height of it was { 4
5. } 6 $\frac{3}{4}$
6. } 6 $\frac{1}{2}$
7. } 12

Sept. 8. THE height of the mercury was 20. The pears being taken out of the receiver, had preserved their taste much better than those, which were included *in vacuo*. They also retained their firmness.

Vacuum.

Aug. 31. I included pears of the same sort *in vacuo*; but some external air brake in, and the height of the mercury was one digit.

Sept. 1. }
2. }
3. }
4. } The height of it was { 4
5. } 8
6. } 12
7. } 16
8. } 19
9. } 23
10. } 27
11. } 30

THE pears, being taken out, had kept their firmness, but had lost much of their taste.

FROM this experiment made in three receivers at once, it seems to follow, that in a greater compression, a less quantity of air is produced.

EXPERIMENT XVI.

Dec. 7. I shut up a small bird in a receiver, capable of holding twenty ounces of water. The bird began to be ill, before I had set the screw; but after I had intruded so much air, as could sustain 30 digits

digits of mercury, above its wonted height, she seemed to recover again; but in some space of time after, she began again to be sick, and therefore I intruded air the second time, till the mercury staid in 45 digits above its wonted height, and then the bird was again restored to health, but a little time after she began to gasp again; then opening the receiver, after she had staid in it 28 minutes, she got out, and was very well.

EXPERIMENT XVII.

Jan. 20, 1678. I put a shrew mouse into the receiver of my wind-gun, whose elliptick aperture was situate in its upper part, the figure of it is set down p. 516, 517. Then as quick as I could, I so far condensed the air there, till it was reduced to the twentieth part of its space, or thereabouts; and then I presently discharged that air, and the elliptick hole being opened, I suspected, that the mouse had been only a little convulsive; but when he was taken out, there were no signs of life in him. And therefore it is left to enquiry, whether the cause of his death were to be ascribed to the narrowness of the receiver, or to the compression of the air?

WHEREFORE I put another mouse into the same receiver, and the air being reduced to a third or fourth part of its space, I opened the receiver, but not so carefully as I had done in the former experiment; yet the mouse taken out therefrom, was found to be very well.

I afterward repeated the same experiment, the air being about seven or eight times condensed, and the mouse seemed to suffer no inconvenience thereby.

I tried the same experiment again in air, compressed seven times, and left the mouse included for 24 minutes; which time being elapsed, I discharged the air, and the hole being opened, I perceived the mouse to fetch many deep groans, as it were; yet, being taken out, he could not recover his health again.

By these experiment it is manifest, that a great compression of air is noxious, yea mortiferous to animals.

EXPERIMENT XVIII.

Jan. 28, 1678. I put a shrew mouse into a glass, to whose neck I tied a bladder stopping the orifice. These things being thus prepared, I put them into a receiver for the compressing of the air. A little time after, when the mouse began to be sick, I compressed the air, and the bladder was straitned, and so the mouse was found in compressed air; though no new air could penetrate to him: then he seemed to be much better, and his heart did not pant so often; and opening the receiver, in a short time was as well as ever.

I iterated the same experiment, and the mouse was left there so long, that he could hardly breathe, whilst I began to compress the air; and the compression seemed again to abate his respiration; the receiver being opened, and so the mouse exposed to the air could not breath much more freely; but if I blew the air on him by bellows, he seemed to be something relieved; but being again committed to the compressed air, he breathed less frequently, and at last died.

March 25. BECAUSE in the former experiment it was not clearly manifest, whether the air did enter through the ligature of the bladder, I used the instrument described p. 516. And when I perceived, that the mouse was sick, and breathed seldom, I intruded water into the receiver, so that the air was reduced to half of its space, and then the mouse breathed more rarely; but if, extracting the water, I left the whole space entire for the air, his respiration seemed more vivid; and the air being thus many times contracted and dilated, the sick mouse seemed to me to breathe more lively in the common air, than in the compressed. Whence I conjectured, that the air is to animals like food, the quantity whereof ought to bear some proportion with their strength: and that I might more certainly know it, I put the same mouse into my pneumatick engine, and rarefied the air, so that it possessed more than double the space it was wont; whilst the air was rarefying, presently

sently the mouse began to be better; yet a little while after he seemed to be sick, and when the air was restored, it brought no sensible commodity or inconvenience to the mouse. I thus repeated the rarefaction three times, and the same success followed; but at last the mouse died.

ARTICLE V.

The effects of artificial air upon animals.

EXPERIMENT I.

May 5, 1677. I put a bee, with vinegar distilled, and pulverized coral, into an emptied recipient; and the air being wholly exhausted, I ordered the matter so, that the coral fell down into the glass of vinegar: but the air, produced from thence, did not restore any power or motion to the bee; but when she was exposed to the open air, in a little time after she began to move herself.

HENCE a suspicion doth arise, that artificial air is unfit for the life of animals.

EXPERIMENT II.

Aug. 12, 1676. I put two flies into a receiver, and exhausting the common air, I substituted air, produced from gooseberries, in its place, as much as could sustain 26 digits of mercury.

AFTERWARDS I put two other flies also *in vacuo*; but with this difference, that I restored common air to these latter flies, only in that quantity, as could sustain 23 digits of mercury.

WITHIN a quarter of an hour, these latter flies, upon the restitution of the air, recovered that power of motion, which they had lost *in vacuo*, and did flie in the rarefied air; but the former lay without any motion, though they had received a greater quantity of air.

Aug. 13. THE flies in the artificial air, seemed still dead; but the others were lusty.

The flies taken out of the artificial air, and exposed to the common air, remained so all this whole day, and yet did not recover any life.

Aug. 18. I renewed the same experiment, with the same success, though I had restored a greater quantity of artificial air.

HENCE we have an high confirmation, that artificial air is noxious to the life of animals.

EXPERIMENT III.

June 22, 1677. I put paste into three receivers, out of which I afterwards exhausted the air.

June 23. WHEN my three receivers did this day regurgitate with air produced from the paste, I kindled a perfumed cone, and thus kindled I put it into one of my receivers, which being presently stopped, the fire, within one minute of time, went out. Then by blowing, I expelled the artificial air from the receiver, and put in fire to it, as before; and then it burned bright for a pretty long time, though I had shut the receiver as speedily, and as accurately as before.

I tried another experiment, after the same manner, with a fly, and in the artificial air she was presently dead, as it were; but afterward, being exposed to the sun, she, in a short time, grew well again. Then I blowed in common air into the receiver, which being done, the fly included as before, suffered no inconvenience thereby.

I iterated the self-same experiment with the same fly in our third receiver, being filled with artificial air, and the same success followed; save only that this fly, when it was taken out from the artificial air, could not be restored to health, but in a longer time, *viz.* because she was left there longer.

By these experiments it appears, that factitious air is prejudicial to fire, as well as to the life of animals.

EXPERIMENT IV.

June 25, 1677. I put paste into four receivers, and exhausting the air wholly from two of them, I pumped out only half the air from the other two.

June 26. I found the two receivers, which I had left half full with common
air,

air, to be quite filled with air newly produced; neither dare I assert, whether they had, for some time, regurgitated or no, so that the quantity of common air was much diminished. However the matter was, I put two flies at once into one of the receivers, after the manner before described; and they, as soon as they touched the bottom of the receiver, in a very little while after remained without motion. I put a third fly into a receiver, after the same manner, and found she lived a little longer there than the former. A fourth fly being thrust in, maintained her life longest of all, yet at last, suffering some convulsion, she lay unmoved and resupine. All the flies, after some stay in the artificial air, being taken out from thence, and exposed to the common, grew well in a short time.

I made the same experiments in another receiver half full of artificial air, and in a manner with the same success; but the flies, in that receiver to which only common air was blown in, recovered the power of motion and their strength in a short time.

June 27. I found one of the receivers, which was wholly evacuated of common air, to be full of artificial air; but it being casually thrown down upon the ground, ingress was thereby afforded to the external air; yet I put a frog into it, which seemed not to be very sick therein.

June 30. My fourth receiver, by the power of the produced air, seemed at length forced away from his cover. I put a frog into it, in manner aforesaid, and she fell into high convulsions for five minutes space, and then lay without motion. After four minutes were elapsed, I opened the receiver, and taking out the frog, for 46 minutes she remained without motion; but afterwards in four or five minutes more she grew very well.

By these experiments it is evident, that artificial air is very hurtful to the life of animals; but if it be mixed with common air, it doth not so readily produce its effects.

EXPERIMENT V.

June 28, 1677. I put paste into four receivers, three of which I caused to be wholly exhausted of common air, but the fourth was left half full of air.

June 29. ONE of the receivers, which were wholly exhausted, was found full of air newly produced; and a frog being put into it for four or five minutes, had strong convulsive fits; then for one minute it lay still without motion, whereupon I took the frog out, and in five minutes she began to move, and a while after became well again.

I took another receiver, filled with artificial air, and putting a frog into it, seven minutes were elapsed before she ceased to be convulsive. And afterward, when she had lain one minute there without motion, I opened the receiver, and taking out the frog, found, that she began to struggle and move; yet I judged those motions to be the relics of her convulsions; for after that, she remained unmoved for a whole half hour and more; yet at last she grew well again.

As for that receiver, from which I had exhausted only half of the air, it had so long regurgitated with produced air, that it is very credible much common air had got out together with it. A frog being cast into it, seemed to be vehemently moved, and convulsive for 10 minutes, as the rest did, and then she seemed quite dead; but after a full minute was elapsed, I opened the receiver, and the frog, being exposed to the open air, within a quarter of an hour began to recover motion again.

I put a frog into a recipient, full of common air, to try, whether, the paste being now taken out, the frog would continue her life any longer time there?

July 1. IN the afternoon, I found the frog dead; in the morning she was alive and breathed; so that she lived about 48 hours.

June 30. I cast a frog into my fourth receiver, which was wholly filled with artificial air; for seven minutes and an half she

she was vehemently convulsive, and at last died; then, after two minutes, she was taken out of the recipient, and yet recovered no motion at all.

July 1. PERCEIVING the frog to remain in the same posture, I threw her away.

WE have a confirmation by these experiments, that artificial air is so much the more hurtful to animals, by how much the freer it is from common air.

EXPERIMENT VI.

June 30. I included paste in two receivers, and then I exhausted the air.

July 4. I would have put a shrew-mouse, being taken by the tail, into one of my receivers, filled with artificial air; but the little vermin, with his fore feet, did so catch at the edges of the receiver, that he could not then be thrust into it; and by this means the receiver, being for a while open, afforded ingress to the external air; yet I shut it again, till I had bound the legs of the mouse, and then he was easily put in, and there suffered vehement convulsions, and after the elapse of one minute, died: I presently took him out, and exposed him to the common air; but his life being wholly gone, no power of motion could be recovered.

THEN I took the other receiver, and putting a snail into it, did with some wonder observe, that he continued to be moved very strongly for a whole quarter of an hour; but afterwards his motion was slower, until, about another quarter of an hour being elapsed, he lay still, as if he were dead; but then being taken out of the receiver, and exposed to the air, in a short time he grew well.

I put flies into the same receiver; but now it had admitted too great a quantity of external air, for the flies suffered no prejudice.

By this experiment we gather, that artificial air doth kill animals by some venomous quality, and not only by the defect of common air; for the snails lived

a longer time *in vacuo*. See *Art. VI. Exper. III.*

EXPERIMENT VII.

I took a receiver, filled with air produced from cherries, and then transmitted that air out of that into another receiver, full of common air, in which a frog was kept: matters were so ordered, that the water gave place only to the artificial air entering in, and the water itself flowed out; and thus the frog, being included in pure artificial air, for a quarter of an hour and more suffered convulsions, and at last lay still without motion: yet being after taken forth, and exposed to the open air, she grew quickly well.

It seems probable by this experiment, that air produced from cherries is less hurtful to frogs, than that produced from paste. See *Exper. V.*

EXPERIMENT VIII.

July 9, 1677. I put gooseberries into three empty receivers.

July 20. I found one of my recipients severed from his cover by the force of the produced air; I cast a flie into it, which died in one punctum of time; a second flie being likewise cast into the receiver, presently also died: a third flie put into the same receiver, seemed a little while to be convulsive there; but less than a fourth flie, which I included there, which yet before one quarter of a minute was elapsed, lay unmoved. Afterward I dispelled the artificial air out of the receiver, by blowing, and in a little time the flies grew well.

July 24. I took another receiver, filled with air produced from gooseberries, and putting a shrew-mouse into it, found, that he died there in the space of one half minute.

FROM this experiment it seems inferrible, that air produced from fruits is less hurtful to animals, than air produced from minerals. For the 20th day of *July* I tried, that a mouse did not live above a quarter

quarter of a minute in air produced out of gunpowder.

EXPERIMENT IX.

July 5, 1677. I included paste in four receivers, having the air exhausted from them.

ONE of those receivers, being filled with factitious air, was forced from its cover, which I again stopped, yet not so suddenly, but some common air might mix with the artificial: yet I put a shrew-mouse into it, who was presently highly convulsive, and after one minute and half remained unmoved; and being presently taken out, he seemed to make some convulsive motions, but died notwithstanding.

July 7. I took a second receiver, filled with artificial air, and having put a little bird into it, I suddenly stopped it; she presently fell into convulsive motions, and within a quarter of a minute, or a little more, died; I took her out, but it was too late, for she never stirred more.

I blew out the artificial air from the receiver, and then, another bird of the same kind, being put into it, was very well; yet she staid there four minutes.

July 9. I took a third receiver full of artificial air, and put that bird into it, which in the former experiment had continued well, and yet seemed to be lively and sound; before she had been there a full quarter of a minute, she lay without motion, and being presently taken out, there appeared no sign of life in her.

In the afternoon I put an adder into my fourth receiver, and within two minutes he began to be ill, and to gape and pant; yet he was not wholly deprived of motion till after 24 minutes. Then after six minutes more, which made up half an hour, I took the adder out of the receiver, motionless as he was, and exposed him to the free air; yet he did not recover life.

July 10. THE adder remained in the same state, and gave no hope of reviviscence.

EXPERIMENT X.

July 12, 1678. I put a bird into a receiver full of air produced out of raisins of the sun; she died in $\frac{1}{4}$ of a minute, and though I took her out presently, yet she never stirred more.

July 18. I likewise put a shrew-mouse into a receiver full of air produced from raisins of the sun; but a thread, left on the edge of the receiver, hindered me from stopping it close; yet the mouse presently began to be very ill, and after two minutes he lay, as it were, without any motion; yet being taken out, in two or three minutes time he was well again.

EXPERIMENT XI.

Octob. 1, 1678. ABOUT ten of the clock in the morning, I included a shrew-mouse with common air, in a receiver fortified against the external air; about 11 the mouse was brought to such straits, that he could hardly breathe. I threw in another strong and lusty mouse into the same receiver, and presently put on the stopple again: but because the first mouse had consumed some of the air, it came to pass, that the external air was forcibly impelled into the receiver, and so was able to dispel a great part of the air stagnant there: and indeed, when this was done, the first mouse seemed to be much better, neither did it die much sooner than the other; but both of them died about noon. About four in the afternoon, I thrust a fresh strong mouse into the same receiver; and lest the external air might again expel the included air, I put him in very slowly and leisurely: the issue was, that this third mouse lived not three minutes entire.

WHENCE we may conjecture, that that portion of air, which hath once served the respiration of animals, as much as it could, is no longer useful for the respiration of another animal, at least of the same kind.

EXPERIMENT XII.

THIS day in the morning I put so great a quantity of paste into an empty receiver, that

that in the afternoon I found the receiver full of factitious air : whereupon I thrust down a snail into it, which presently frothed very much, and did very often expand and again contract itself; but at length after four minutes were elapsed, he ceased to move at all; yet I took him not forth, till he had staid in the receiver an whole quarter of an hour, and then, being extracted, he seemed as if he had been quite dead; for though he were pricked with a pin, yet he discovered no sign of life; yet after another quarter of an hour, being also pricked with a pin, he made a little motion.

I blew out the factitious air from my receiver, and then thrusting in another snail after the same manner as I did the former, he was very well in the receiver, and did not froth at all.

WE have a confirmation by this experiment, that factitious air is a greater enemy to animals, than a *vacuum* is.

E X P E R I M E N T XIII.

June 22, 1678. THIS day, in the morning, I put green pease into an empty receiver, and towards evening the mercury had almost attained to the height of 10 digits.

June 23. THE height of the mercury was almost 30 digits.

June 24. THE mercury did not as yet exceed 30 digits in height: the cover did no longer stick to the receiver yet hitherto nothing had escaped out of it.

June 26. I included the same pease in the same empty receiver.

June 29. WHEN I now found, that the receiver was filled with factitious air, I thrust a snail into it, who put forth much spume or froth, and did very often expand and contract his horns; but after six minutes were elapsed, he lay still, as if he had been dead, for two or three minutes; then the receiver being opened, and the snail taken out, moved himself a little, if he were pricked: whence it seems to follow, that air produced from pease is less prejudicial to snails than air from

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paste. See *Exper. XII.* I blew new air into the receiver, and a snail then put into it did very well.

IN this experiment it seems observable, that pease do quickly produce air *in vacuo*; but in the wonted compression of air they generate but little.

A R T I C L E VI.

Animals in vacuo.

E X P E R I M E N T I.

June 22, 1676. I put a butterfly into an empty receiver, and it was almost three hours before she was wholly deprived of her faculty of motion: at length, perceiving him to lie unmoved, I let in the air into the receiver, and in a little time the butterfly recovered his motion. Then I bound him by one of his horns with a thread, and so hanged him in the receiver, and then he was carried very freely from one part of it unto the other, by clapping his wings; but after the air was extracted, the clapping of her wings was in vain, for she could not move the thread in the least, from being perpendicular.

E X P E R I M E N T II.

July 12, 1676. YESTERDAY I put two flies into a receiver, in which I left $\frac{1}{3}$ of air, *i. e.* as much as would sustain 10 digits of mercury: the biggest of the flies seemed to die presently, but the other, which was a small bodied one, lived almost twenty-four hours.

WHEN both the flies lay as if they were dead, I suffered some air to enter in, till the mercury was 15 digits high; and then the lesser fly began to move her feet, but the other continued still without motion.

HENCE it appears, that air highly rarefied may serve for insects to breath in, and that it doth not kill them so soon as artificial air.

E X P E R I M E N T III.

May 1. I put two snails into an emptied receiver, and for an whole hour they seemed

Y y y

seemed to be well enough, and crept up to the top of the receiver; but in two hours time, they fell down from thence, and lay without motion.

Six hours after they were first put in, I took them out *à vacuo*, and within half an hour they began to move a little. During the time they were included, they produced near as much air as sufficed to sustain the mercury in the height of $\frac{1}{4}$ of a digit.

THESE snails lived longer *in vacuo* than the others included in artificial air. *Art. V. Exper. VI.*

EXPERIMENT IV.

August 12, 1676. I put fly-blowings, or the eggs of flies, into an empty receiver, to try, whether they would produce worms there or no.

August 14. I saw the worms were formed, but the air had crept into the receiver, so that it could sustain 15 digits of mercury.

HENCE it appears, that insects may be produced, and may live, if not *in vacuo*, yet at least in air very highly rarefied. See *Exper. VI. and VIII.*

EXPERIMENT V.

March 17, 1677. I put two equal quantities of frog-spawn into two vessels of glass, of equal bigness; I left the one included in an empty receiver, exposed to the sun; but the other being in a receiver full of common air, I fortified against the access of the external air. The frog-spawn *in vacuo* did all swell into bubbles.

May 2. No frogs were produced in either receiver, and that seed or spawn, which was kept *in vacuo*, remained still full of bubbles; but about three days ago all the bubbles vanished, and the spawn was changed into a certain green liquor.

July 2. Our receivers remained in a window, exposed to the noon-day sun; and so some water, that was mixed with the frog-spawn, all *in vacuo*, and the very spawn itself, was elevated into vapours, and afterwards sticking to the sides of the receiver, out

of its own vessel, was there condensed; but the vessel kept in the common air, still contained all its water, together with the seed or spawn.

EXPERIMENT VI.

August 16, 1677. I put flies-eggs into an empty receiver.

August 29. WHEN no worms were produced out of them, I gave admission to the air to enter into the receiver, and left all things in the same posture, to try, whether the eggs had lost their faculty of producing worms.

Sept. 9. THE eggs produced nothing.

THIS experiment, if it be compared with *Exper. IV.* seems to shew, that insects may be generated, and may live in air highly rarefied, but not at all *in vacuo*.

EXPERIMENT VII.

June 15. I shut in a frog in an emptied receiver, at about seven of the clock in the evening; about nine the frog died.

June 16. I repeated the same experiment, and again perceived, that the dead frog, in two hours space, had produced some air, rather than consumed it.

June 18. THE frog, left hitherto *in vacuo*, was swollen very much; but the air now entering, made her far more flaccid and lank, than she was wont to be.

WE are instructed by this experiment, that a receiver void of artificial air, is less hurtful to the life of such kind of animals. See *Exper. IV. and VIII. of Art. V.*

EXPERIMENT VIII.

August 3, 1678. I put fly-blowings sticking to flesh, into an emptied receiver.

August 12. No worms were generated from them.

August 15. PERCEIVING no change in the eggs, I opened the receiver, to try, whether they would yet be generated in the free air.

Sept. 15. NOTHING was produced from them.

WE have a confirmation by this experiment, that animals, which may be generated

rated and live in highly rarefied air, yet are killed *in vacuo*. See *Exper.* IV.

EXPERIMENT IX.

August 22, 1678. I included vinegar full of small eels, or vinegar-worms, in an emptied receiver.

August 29. THE worms were still moved, yet they were fewer than in the beginning.

Sept. 6. YESTERDAY some of those worms did still move in our vinegar, but this day I could not see one; whereupon taking a microscope, I found them all dead: but in the vinegar, which I had left in the open air, the eels made as brisk motions as at the beginning.

HENCE it appears, that those, even very diminutive animals, are also affected with the presence and absence of the air.

ARTICLE VII.

Fire in compressed air.

EXPERIMENT I.

May 14. I took a perfumed cone, of that nature, that being once kindled in the free air, it is wont by degrees wholly to be consumed, and put it into a receiver firmly stopped with a screw; and I intruded air into it, till the mercury came to 120 digits above its wonted height, and then putting to my burning glass, I kindled the cone, which presently darkened all its receiver with smoke, and after some time $\frac{7}{8}$ parts of 1 digit thereof in length were reduced to ashes: yet taking out the cone, and blowing away ashes, I found only the superficies therefore consumed, but the inner parts were untouched.

I included another cone of the same sort in a much greater receiver, but I did not compress the air therein: the cone, fired by the same burning-glass, was not taken out, till all the fumes were abated and fallen down; yet much less of this cone was burnt than of the other.

EXPERIMENT II.

May 19. I weighed a perfumed cone exactly, and then firmly included it in a receiver with common air, and I kindled it by the help of my burning-glass. When the fumes were condensed, I took the cone out of the receiver, and weighed it again; the loss of its weight was almost one grain. Then I got me many pieces of paper, each of them of the self-same weight, which I presume to call paper-grains.

AFTERWARDS the same cone, observing the same circumstances, was again included and kindled; but first I had intruded air into its receiver, as much as could sustain 90 digits of mercury: and thus, by means of a pair of scales, I found the loss of weight this time was four times more than of the former, for the cone was lighter by four paper-grains.

FROM this experiment it seems to follow, that the consumption of matter is so much the greater, by how much the greater quantity of air is contained in the receiver.

EXPERIMENT III.

May 17, 1677. I included a perfumed cone in a receiver firmly stopped by the help of a screw; and, the air being compressed to sustain 60 digits of mercury above its wonted pressure, I set fire to it with my burning-glass; the cone being afterwards taken out, had lost three paper-grains and an half in weight.

I repeated the same experiment, but in air so compressed, that the mercury reached to 120 digits above the wonted pressure: then the cone was $7\frac{3}{4}$ paper-grains lighter; and so, though the quantity of the air was not double, yet the consumption of the matter by the fire was more than twice as much as that was in the former experiment.

May 17. I iterated the same experiment in air compressed to sustain 97 digits of mercury, and then the loss of weight seemed to be six paper-grains.

By all these experiments we are taught, that the matter is so much the more consumed by the fire, by how much the compression of the air in the receiver is the greater; yea, the consumption seems to have a greater proportion to the consumption, than the compression hath to the compression.

May 18, 1677. I included a perfumed cone as before, in a receiver seven times larger than that, which I used in the former experiments, and I immitted no air at all into it. The cone kindled there lost $3\frac{1}{4}$ paper-grains of its weight, and no more; whereas, in the same quantity of air, if it had been reduced to a fifth part of its space, the cone would have lost 10 grains, viz. by observing the proportion of the consumption made before in air, sustaining mercury to 120 digits above its accustomed height, (*i. e.*) air reduced to a fifth part of its space.

From this experiment it seems to follow, that the same quantity of air, if it be reduced to less than its accustomed space, on that account alone causeth a greater consumption, than if it had remained in its wonted expansion.

EXPERIMENT IV.

May 19, 1677. I repeated the experiment last described, in the same receiver, closely stopped with a screw, that nothing might go out or in. The cone lost one paper-grain and quarter only of its weight; whence I suspect that it was not well kindled.

May 21. I made the same experiment, after the same manner. This day the cone was lighter by four paper-grains; whence I more certainly collected, that it was not well set on fire in the former experiment.

May 23. I repeated the same experiment twice, but do suspect, that the cone was not well kindled, seeing at one time it lost only $\frac{3}{4}$, and at another time one paper-grain of its weight.

May 24. I tried the same experiment again, and this day also the loss of weight

was found only one paper-grain and a quarter. Then I opened my receiver, and having wiped and cleansed away the soot, I iterated the experiment, and then the cone took fire very well, for the loss of its weight amounted to six paper-grains and an half.

I tried the same experiment again in an uncleaned receiver, and then the cone lost only three paper-grains in weight.

May 25. I iterated the same experiment in a receiver well washed, and the cone was lighter by six paper-grains and an half.

I made the same experiment in the like manner, and in a well cleansed receiver, and the cone lost seven grains and an half of its weight.

I tried the same experiment again, in an unwashed receiver, and then I could not sufficiently kindle the cone.

May 26. I tried the same experiment in an unwashed receiver, about the middle of the day, the sun being clear and clouded with no mists; and I removed not my burning-glass from kindling the cone a long time, so that it took fire very well, and became eight paper-grains lighter.

By these experiments it is manifest, that the quantity of a cone to be consumed in the same quantity of air, is not fixed and certain, but sometimes lesser, as the cone shall be more or less kindled: besides, the imperfect mixture of the matter may cause some difference; yet, it seems certain, that fire is more easily kindled in compressed air, than in common; and the consumption will be the greater in a certain quantity of air, if that air be reduced into a narrower space, than if it enjoyed its wonted expansion.

EXPERIMENT V.

May 22. I put a perfumed cone into a receiver made for compressing the air; and intruding the air till the mercury staid in 30 digits above its wonted pressure I kindled the cone, and found its weight to be abated $1\frac{3}{4}$ of a paper-grain.

May

May 23. I made the same experiment again, after the same manner, and in effect, with the same success,

I tried the same experiment again, but the cone took not fire well. Whence we have a confirmation, that fire is more easily kindled in air much compressed, than in common air, or that, which is but a little condensed.

I iterated the same experiment, and after I had removed my burning-glass from kindling the cone, whilst I was intent to see whether the cone would proceed to be consumed, the receiver brake into 100 pieces, some of which struck my head, and wounded it: which passage I mention, that so no man may be confident his glass will not break whilst he is about these experiments, because he hath found, that at other times it hath resisted a greater pressure. For this very glass of mine, had contained air four times more compressed, very well. See *Exper. III.* Yea in *Exper. VI. of Art. II.* it had resisted air sustaining 168 digits of mercury above its wonted height; yet, now it was broken by a pressure more than six times less: and therefore, whilst a man looks into such receivers, his head had need be fortified with some perforated or pellucid muniment and defence to preserve it from a blow.

A R T I C L E VIII.

Fire used to produce air.

E X P E R I M E N T I.

June 4, 1676. I burnt paper, besmeared with sulphur *in vacuo*, and found, that it produced some air, which air was not at all diminished for two whole days.

THAT air is to be ascribed to the paper, for no air is produced out of sulphur alone.

E X P E R I M E N T II.

June 15. I burnt harts-horn *in vacuo*, and found, that the fumes issuing therefrom did contain some air in them.

THESE two last days, I iterated the same experiment, and always observed, that air produced from harts-horn, was in a short time in part destroyed; but that, which preserved the elastic nature of air for a full hour after the burning-glass was removed, seemed afterwards not to lose it at all.

June 19. I took the harts-horn out of the receiver, and found no volatile salt, but only a foetid oil to be produced therefrom.

E X P E R I M E N T III.

June 21. I burnt amber *in vacuo*, and at first I could not find, that the fumes did ascend above the height of one digit; and yet in a receiver full of air, they would be carried up to the top of the receiver, and from thence be reflected downwards; yet afterwards, even in the vacuum itself, the fumes reached almost to the top of the receiver, but the mercury was not at all changed in its gage.

June 22. THIS night a great deal of that water, in which I had immersed the receiver, found a passage into it, though the cover was so well fitted to the aperture, that I never perceived any water to get in betwixt them before. Hence a suspicion arose in me, that some volatile salt had probably attracted (if I may so speak) the aqueous parts, by reason of the congruity betwixt them.

July 8. I still kept the receiver immersed in water, but no more water entered in, as if the salts being washed away, the external water, being destitute of assistance, could no longer creep in: but that agreement between the fumes of the amber and the parts of the water had need of a confirmation by a great many more experiments.

HENCE it appears, that amber produceth no air, no not though it be burnt.

E X P E R I M E N T IV.

Jan. 18, 1677. I put two drachms of camphire into an empty receiver, and the

commiffure of the cover with the receiver being fortified againſt external air, I put the camphire on a digeſting furnace.

Jan. 19. THE camphire was ſublimated into flowers, but no air was produced.

EXPERIMENT V.

May 24, 1676. I included *ſulphur vivum* in an exhausted receiver, and melted it by the help of my burning glaſs, but found, that the fumes, produced therefrom, did contain no air in them, becauſe the mercury did aſcend to the aperture of its gage, as it uſeth to do while the receiver is evacuating: yet when the receiver was cooled, the mercury returned to its former height; and therefore I think that change proceeded only herefrom, becauſe the air, included in the ſealed leg of the gage, was rarefied, and drove the mercury into the other part.

EXPERIMENT VI.

July 19. HAVING included paſte nine days ago *in vacuo*, and perceiving, that it now contained no more air, I endeavoured to fire it with my burning-glaſs. The ſubſiding fumes had tinged the ſuperficies of the paſte with a curious yellow colour; and beſides I conjectured, that ſome air, was produced, becauſe the receiver, which before was ſtraitly joined to its cover, was now with eaſe plucked therefrom.

ARTICLE IX.

Concerning the production of air in vacuo.

EXPERIMENT I.

Sept. 9, 1676. I exhausted the air out of a receiver half full of dried grapes, and fortified it againſt the external air.

Sept. 10. In 24 hours time the height of the mercury was $\frac{1}{2}$.

12. In two days time the aſcenſion of it was $\frac{1}{2}$.

14. The aſcenſion of the mercury was $\frac{3}{4}$.

17. The aſcenſion of it was $\frac{3}{8}$.

22. The aſcenſion of it was $\frac{5}{8}$.

27. The aſcenſion was $\frac{1}{4}$. The height three digits.

Oct. 11. The height of the mercury was now about fix digits.

Sept. 9, 1676. I put dried figs into a receiver, and filled about half of it with them, and then I extracted the air, till the mercury ſtaid in the height of three digits.

Sept. 10. No air was produced.

Sept. 17. PERCEIVING no air to iſſue out of the figs, I opened the receiver.

By this experiment we learn, that dried fruits, put into an exhausted receiver, do produce very little air with regularity.

EXPERIMENT II.

Aug. 5, 1676. I included pears and apricocks *in vacuo*.

Aug. 6. IN 18 hours time the mercury reached two digits; in 10 hours more it reached the third digit. Its height was three digits.

Aug. 7. The height of it was five digits.

8. The height of it was $6\frac{1}{2}$.

9. In 14 hours ſpace the mercury mounted $\frac{3}{4}$. Its height was $7\frac{1}{4}$.

10.	} The height of it was {	8 $\frac{3}{4}$
11.		10 $\frac{3}{4}$
12.		12 $\frac{1}{4}$
13.		14 $\frac{1}{4}$
14.		16
15.		18
16.		20
18.		25
19.		29
20.		31 $\frac{1}{2}$
21.		32 $\frac{1}{2}$
22.	}	34
23.		35
26.]		38 $\frac{1}{2}$

29. The height of the mercury was 41.

Sept. 1. The height of the mercury was $42\frac{1}{2}$.

4. The height of it was 44.

7. The three days laſt paſt being hotter than the foregoing, the aſcenſion of the mercury was $2\frac{1}{4}$. Its height was $46\frac{1}{4}$.

Sept.

Sept. 10. The height of the mercury was $47\frac{1}{2}$.

13. The mercury was depressed; its height was only 44 digits.

23. The mercury was by degrees again mounted to the 48th digit.

27. The height of the mercury was $50\frac{1}{2}$.

Nov. 5. The mercury ascended by degrees to the height of $52\frac{1}{2}$.

28. The apricocks were reduced to water; the skin was severed from the pulp, yet no more air was produced.

Jan. 10, 1677. WHILST it was a very hard frost, the mercury came to the height of 57 digits: but when the thaw came, it was depressed to 23. Whether the strength of the frost opened some way for the air to get out, I know not.

March 3. THE mercury could ascend no higher, because the air was got out. This day I found the receiver tumbled on the ground, and the apricocks, when the frost was broke, were putrified, and had lost their colour.

FROM this experiment it seems to follow, that apricocks do produce air almost as easily in their wonted pressure, as *in vacuo*.

EXPERIMENT III.

June 20, 1676. I put four cherries into two empty receivers, and observed altogether the same circumstances in them both; save, that in the one, the cherries were whole, in the other, cut asunder. In two hours space the whole cherries had impelled the mercury into the gage to the height of 10 lines; and the dissected cherries to about 20.

June 21. IN 24 hours space the mercury, which was in the receiver containing the whole cherries, came to the height of three digits; but in the other receiver the mercurial gage was spoiled.

June 26. THE whole cherries had not yet produced so much air, that could sustain 15 digits of mercury; but the dis-

sected cherries had wholly filled their receiver with air.

July 9. THIS day the receiver of the whole cherries was removed from his cover: I did eat one of the cherries, and its taste seemed pleasant enough. I included the rest again *in vacuo*; many of them were broke, and in one hours space they impelled the mercury to ascend to the height of about two digits.

July 10. THESE last 24 hours the mercury ascended not; whether the gage was prejudiced, I am not certain.

July 15. THIS day I found the cover severed from his receiver, and so it was clear, that the gage was spoiled or hurt.

THIS experiment gives us a probable consequent, that some dissected fruits do sooner produce their air than whole and undivided ones.

EXPERIMENT IV.

June 9, 1676. I put cherries (not acid ones) into an empty receiver, and within one hour I found as much air produced from them, as sufficed to sustain $\frac{1}{4}$ of a digit of mercury.

June 10. IN 18 hours the mercury seemed to have come to the height of 11 digits.

July 11. OUR fruits produced air less and less copiously; so that this day, towards the evening, they came not up to the height of 15 digits.

June 12. NOW the mercury was a little higher than 25 digits.

13. The height of the mercury was 22 digits.

16. The mercury yet came not up to 30 digits.

18. Perceiving no more air to be produced from my fruits, I opened the receiver.

SUCH a small production of air seemed very observable to me, because I had found by experience, that fruits of the same kind in *France* had filled their receiver in two days time: it may probably come to pass, that fruits of the same kind, in several countries,

countries, may differ much amongst themselves.

EXPERIMENT V.

June 12, 1676. I put cabbages cut in pieces into an empty recipient with a mercurial gage, and in one hours space the mercury had made one line.

June 13. The mercury was now come almost to the height of 10 digits.

17. The mercury was come almost to the top of its gage, and the receiver being opened, I found the cabbages little altered.

19. The cabbages being left two days in the open air, were wholly corrupted and blackish. I put them again *in vacuo*, to try, whether the putrefaction begun would promote, or else retard the production of air.

19. The mercury in half an hour ran up $\frac{1}{2}$ of a digit.

22. For three whole days the mercury got higher only 10 lines. Its height was 1 and $\frac{1}{3}$ of a digit.

23. Finding, that the cabbages produced no more air, I took them out of the receiver: their smell was very bad.

HENCE a suspicion arose within me, that bodies, when they putrefy, have already produced almost all their air.

EXPERIMENT VI.

May 29, 1676. I took pieces of orange weighing four ounces, and put them into a receiver capable of holding 10 ounces of water, and I exhausted the air.

June 10. THIS day the receiver was removed from his cover by the force of the produced air; so that I took out the oranges, and presently put them into another empty receiver capable of containing eight ounces of water, and the mercury, with-

in half an hour, was elevated to the height of one half digit.

June 13. THAT sudden ascension of the mercury was not durable, for it yet came not to the height of two digits.

June 16. THE mercury, the last 24 hours, ascended about three lines.

June 21, THE mercury, these last 24 hours, did not ascend the space of one line.

July 18. I perceived no more alteration was made in the height of the mercury; but some mouldiness appeared, though I am certain, that no air from without had found any ingress into the receiver.

EXPERIMENT VII.

April 27, 1676. I put a tulip into an empty receiver with a mercurial gage; but before it was fortified against the external air, some air had got in, enough to sustain two digits of mercury.

May 2. THE tulip, which first seemed striped with sundry colours, was now wholly changed into a dark red, and was moist: it produced very little air.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

April 22, 1676. I put half of a lemon into an empty receiver, with a mercurial gage so short, that the mercury could run up the space of three digits.

April 24. In two days space the mercury came to the height of one digit and a half.

25. The mercury was now two digits high.

27. Yesterday the mercury made four lines, but this day only one.

29. The two last days the mercury mounted higher by one line.

May 3. In four days space the mercury ascended one line and a little more.

May 3, 1677. THE mercury came to the top of its gage, yet no air got out; but the lemon was little altered.

Jan. 1, 1678. As yet no air escaped out of the receiver; but the lemon had contracted a yellow colour, and moisture therewith.

EXPERIMENT IX.

March 16, 1677. I put two apples of the same sort in two empty receivers; one of the apples began to putrify before, the other was only bruised with a few blows.

May 15, 1677. As yet the fruits were in very good case; but this day that apple, which was bruised, appeared wholly rotten, and the receiver was forced from his cover; the other apple remained without any change.

Aug. 20. 1677. THAT apple, which before began to be rotten, suffered no farther alteration; but this day finding, that the receiver was pulled from his cover, and fearing lest the apple would be speedily putrified, I took it out: its taste was grateful, but subacid, as if it had been fermented; but the pulp inclined to the consistence of meal.

FROM this experiment it seems to be confirmed, that fruits have produced the greatest part of their air, when putrefaction begins to alter them; seeing the putrid apple did not fill its receiver but in a much longer time than the other apple. See *Exper. V.* of this article.

EXPERIMENT X.

May 17, 1676. I poured two equal quantities of milk into two glass receivers of equal bigness; the one I left in the free air, the other I included to be kept in an emptied vessel with a mercurial gage.

May 18. THE cream did swim on the top of that milk, which was left in the free air; but that, which was *in vacuo*, was only covered with bubbles, and the gage was not changed at all.

May 19. THE bubbles swelled more and more, and the mercury in the gage was a little higher.

May 20. THE bubbles *in vacuo* swelled yet more, and that milk seemed curdled; but the other, in the free air, was mani-

festly curdled. The mercury *in vacuo* came almost to the top of its gage.

May 22. THE milk *in vacuo* proceeded to generate air more and more, and now it evidently appeared to be curdled; whence it is manifest, that the coagulation of milk, when the air is taken away, is retarded. Now almost all the bubbles were broke.

June 20. THE milk *in vacuo* was no longer covered with bubbles, and remained still coagulated in the same state. But the milk in the free air stank filthily, and was full of worms: when it was put on the engine, and the air extracted, it did emit many very great bubbles for a long time; and the worms did move themselves very vehemently, but not one of them died in four hours space.

May 19, 1677. THREE or four months ago, some whey *in vacuo* was poured out of a vessel into a receiver, and it seemed clear and limpid like water; yet there was whey enough left in the vessel to separate the butyrous from the caseous part at a sufficient distance.

THIS day the milk stagnant in the receiver seemed to have got out of it; so that it is clear, that the air in the receiver was of greater force than the external air, for the cover also was forced from the receiver. Towards night I took that milk out of the receiver, and found it to be acid both in smell and taste, yet it was not unacceptable to the palate; but after a short time, the whey, which hitherto had remained limpid between the caseous and butyrous part, began to disappear, and to be blended with the rest.

May 24. THIS day the butyrous part was wholly vanished, though as yet it had suffered no sensible mutation; but the milk began to smell amiss.

June 1. OUR milk had not yet contracted the worst of smell, neither had it produced any worms, but it grew dry by degrees; and this night the mice eat it up, as perhaps they had done the butyrous part before.

THIS is the story of my preserved milk, in which these four things seem most observable.

Z z z

servable. First, that the coagulation of milk, when air is extracted therefrom, is somewhat retarded. Secondly, the weight of butter, or of whey, or cheese, is not the same in the air, as it is *in vacuo*; for in the air they are mixed one with another confusedly: but *in vacuo* one swims on the top of the other. Thirdly, the putrefaction of milk, when air is extracted, is hindered or very much retarded. Fourthly and lastly, milk, by long continuance *in vacuo*, is made unfit to generate worms, even in common air.

EXPERIMENT XI.

Sept. 5, 1677. I took the same receiver and the same vessel, which I used before to preserve milk *in vacuo*, and I included urine therein, after the same manner as I had done milk before. The quantity of urine was three drachms, or thereabouts; and the receiver was only capable of holding 10 ounces of water.

Sept. 7. THE mercury reached to the height of almost two digits.

Sept. 8. THE mercury was this day somewhat higher than yesterday.

Dec. 5. THE mercury ascended not above three digits in height, and for the whole month past was not changed at all. The urine seemed not all to be altered.

Dec. 6. I set other urine under a receiver, not fortified against the external air.

Dec. 16. THE urine *in vacuo* still kept unaltered, but the other in 10 days time seemed turbid, and to have contracted some mouldiness in its superficies.

THIS experiment, compared with the former, gives us a probable inference, that urine, which is an excrementitious humour, contains less air in it than milk, which is alimental.

MOREOVER the efficacy of the air to corrupt urine seems very observable.

EXPERIMENT XII.

May 19. I took paste very much diluted, and without leaven, and put it in a glass vessel into an empty receiver; and

though the vessel, which contained it, were not half full, before all the air was exhausted, yet the paste had swollen above the brims of the vessel.

May 20. THE paste continued to swell more and more, and was interspersed with many cavities.

May 22. THIS day the paste was much more tumid than before, and much air was generated therefrom.

May 23. THIS day in the morning I found the cover severed from his receiver, by the force of the produced air, and some of the paste was spread above the edges of the receiver; yet its swelling was somewhat abated. In the afternoon, its tumidness was much more abated, yet it took up twice more room than it did before it was put into the receiver. The taste of it was not acid, and therefore I think that bread, thus made, is very light.

EXPERIMENT XIII.

July 20, 1676. I took a quantity of beef, and put it into an exhausted receiver fortified against the external air; and likewise I put another equal quantity of beef into a receiver, neither exhausted nor closely stopped.

July 21. IN thirty hours space, the exhausted receiver was all filled with air, so that I suspected some air had got in; and therefore I included the same beef again, and so closed it, that there was no fear of the ingress of any external air.

July 22. IN fourteen hours space the mercury came to the height of 15 digits.

July 25. FOR three whole days and more, the beef did not produce so much air as would fill one half of the receiver.

July 29. THIS day the receiver was severed from his cover; and in one hour's space, I perceived, that the beef, being again included *in vacuo*, had produced air, which sufficed to sustain 10 digits of mercury.

July 28. I found the receiver again filled with air, and re-exhausted it, much air was in a short time again produced from the beef.

July

July 30. THE receiver being again filled, I included the beef again *in vacuo*, and found, that the air produced from it in one hour's space was able to sustain 10 digits of mercury.

Aug. 1. THE receiver being this day filled again, the beef stank so filthily, that we threw it out of doors.

HENCE it appears, that flesh, whilst it putrifies, doth produce much more air, than before it putrifies; but it is otherwise with fruits. See *Exp.* IX. of this Art.

EXPERIMENT XIV.

July 18, 1676. I put some goosberries, which I had kept long in receivers to produce air, into a vacuous receiver.

WITHIN half an hour the mercury ascended to the height of one digit.

IN an hour and half's time, the mercury mounted to another digit.

July 19. IN twenty-four hours time the receiver was almost all filled with air.

July 20. THE cover was forced from his receiver, and much juice had run out of the receiver.

July 29. I left the same goosberries in a receiver, not hitherto fortified against the external air; but this day I included them again *in vacuo*, to try, whether they could produce any more air.

July 30. IN sixteen hours time, the goosberries drave up the mercury a digit and $\frac{1}{2}$ into the gage.

July 30, 1677. THE goosberries could not wholly fill the receiver, and they always remained in the same state; but a while since they had almost lost their red colour, and inclined to white.

FROM this experiment it seems to follow, that these fruits, after they have produced all their air, admit very little alteration; as if that air itself were the cause of corruption.

EXPERIMENT XV.

Aug. 23. I put pears into a *vacuous* receiver with a mercurial gage; and before the receiver could be well fortified against the ingress of the air, the mercury was come to the height of one digit and an half.

IN two hours space the mercury ascended four digits; its height was almost six.

Aug. 24. The height of the mercury twelve digits.

Aug. 25. The height thereof was sixteen.

Aug. 26.	} The height of it was {	18
27.		21
28.		23
31.		30
Sept. 1.		32
2.		35
3.		$38\frac{1}{2}$
4.		$44\frac{1}{2}$
5.		$45\frac{1}{2}$
6.		50

Sept. 7. The height of it was the same, because some air had escaped; but I prevented that for the future.

8. The height of the mercury was $53\frac{1}{2}$.

9. The height of it was $54\frac{1}{2}$.

10. The height of it was 58.

Sept. 12. Yesterday the mercury persisted in the same height; but this day it seemed to be depressed: whence I conjecture, that some air had got out. The height of it was $53\frac{1}{2}$.

Sept. 13. I transmitted the air into another receiver: the height of it was $32\frac{1}{2}$.

Sept. 16. I perceived, that the air had got out; and opening the receiver, I found the pears very rotten.

THESE pears produced their air irregularly enough, sometimes quicker, sometimes more slowly.

EXPERIMENT XVI.

Sept. 17. I put dried plums into an evacuated-receiver.

Sept. 19. The mercury seemed to have ascended a little.

Sept. 22. I perceived not that the height of the mercury was any more altered.

Nov. 8. WHEN I saw, that the plumbs produced no more air, I opened the receiver.

BY this experiment we have a confirmation, that dried fruits are very unfit to produce air.

Z z z z

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EXPERIMENT XVII.

Sept. 28. I put fresh nut-kernels, cut into pieces, having thrown away their shells, into an evacuated receiver, with a mercurial gage.

Sept. 29. The mercury ascended a little.

30. The height of it was two digits.

Octob. 5. The mercury proceeded to ascend by degrees: the height of it exceeded six digits.

Octob. 15. The height thereof was ten digits.

Octob. 22. The height of it was fifteen.

Nov. 28. The mercury was come to the height of twenty digits, or a little more; but this day the receiver was cast down and broken, and the nut-kernels thrown about: they were kept very well, both as to colour and taste.

HENCE we may conjecture, that air without sensible putrefaction may be produced from fruits, even of an hard consistence.

ARTICLE X.

Concerning the production of air above its wonted pressure.

EXPERIMENT I.

I included new pease in a receiver, with a glass full of raisins of the sun bruised, and mixed with water; I did not exhaust the air.

TOWARDS evening the mercury had mounted to twelve digits; but a great part of that air was produced from the raisins, not from the pease.

June 23. The height of the mercury was 49.

June 24.	} The height of it was	75
25.		90
26.		90
28.		100

The pease did, as it were, sweat, and grow yellow.

June 30. The height of the mercury was 110.

July 1. The mercury ascended not, yet no air escaped out.

4. The height of the mercury was 124.

7. The height of it was 140.

July 10. The height remained the same, but the liquor, which distilled or sweat out from the pease, got out.

12. New liquor was produced from the pease, but the mercury continued in the same height.

July 13. The liquor got out of the receiver, and some air besides: whereupon I set the screw, and new liquor being in a short time collected did fortify the cover within.

July 15. THIS day the receiver was broken in pieces; but the pease being softer than ordinary, were easily stript of their husks, as if they had begun to be boiled: they kept their ordinary taste.

EXPERIMENT II.

Sept. 15, 1676. I put unripe plumbs into a vacuated receiver; but before the receiver could be guarded against the external air, the mercury had already ascended to the height of one digit.

Sept. 16. IN twenty-four hours time the mercury ran up five digits; its height was six digits.

Sept. 17. The height of the mercury was eight.

Sept. 18.	} The height of it was	10
19.		12
20.		14
22.		18
23.		18
24.		19
26.		23
28.		26

Octob. 1. The height of the mercury was 30.

4. The height of it was 31: it was somewhat cold.

Octob. 5.	} The height of it was	32
7.		33
9.		33 $\frac{1}{2}$
11.		Same.

Octob.

Octob. 15. These two last days, the cold being abated, the mercury ascended more speedily : its height was 37.

<i>Octob.</i> 17.]	[38
19.]	[39 $\frac{1}{2}$
22.]	[41
26.]	[43
29.]	[45
<i>Nov.</i> 2.]	[46
5.]	[47
20.]	[53

The height of it was

In this experiment, the air seems to be produced sometimes regularly enough, and at other times anomalously.

EXPERIMENT III.

July 6, 1676. I put goofberries into an emptied receiver; but before it could be guarded against the external air, it had entered in, and impelled up the mercury to the height of half a digit; and afterwards in half an hour, the air produced from the goofberries had impelled it up to another semi digit.

In seven hours time the mercury ascended four digits higher: it staid in five.

July 7. In fourteen hours space the ascension of the mercury was two digits and $\frac{1}{2}$.

In ten hours space the ascension of it was 2 $\frac{1}{2}$.

July 8. In fourteen hours the ascension of the mercury was 1 $\frac{1}{2}$.

In ten hours the ascension of it was two digits.

July 9. In fourteen hours the ascension of the mercury was 2 $\frac{1}{2}$.

In ten hours its ascension was 1 $\frac{1}{4}$.

July 10. In fourteen hours the ascension of it was 1 $\frac{3}{4}$.

In ten hours the ascension of it was three.

July 11. In twenty-four hours the ascension of the mercury was four.

July 12. In twenty four hours the ascension of the mercury was four.

Now the mercury was brought to its wonted pressure.

July 13. This day in the morning, I found the cover to be broken; and because it was fastned by a screw, that it might not be severed from the receiver, I suspected, that it was broken by the force of the internal air: I substituted another cover in its place.

July 14, 15, 16, 17, 18. I perceived no change in the height of the mercury, because the cover was not exactly shut; and therefore I took out the fruits, and put some part of them into another evacuated receiver, and the rest I stopped up closely with common air, that nothing might get out.

In four hours the ascension of the mercury was four digits.

July 19. In fourteen hours the ascension of the mercury was 1 $\frac{1}{2}$; but suspecting the air to have escaped, I set the screw.

In nine hours the ascension of the mercury was eleven digits.

THE cover was broke, and the air made an escape.

THIS experiment seems to prove, that goofberries contain much air in them, which, as soon as it is freed from the wonted pression of the air, doth more readily break forth, than when it is restrained by some ambient air, until the goofberries begin to be fermented, for then air is produced in a far larger quantity, even in a great compression.

EXPERIMENT IV.

I included paste in an exhausted receiver, and, before it was guarded against the external air, the mercury was come to the height of three digits, by reason of the air making an irruption from without; when it came to pass that the paste, which was much swollen, lost about the third part of its tumidity.

A little

A little while after it swelled again, and within half an hour the mercury mounted higher by two digits.

In one hour's time the ascension of the mercury was $2\frac{1}{2}$; and the paste continued to swell or rise more and more.

In another hour's space the ascension of the mercury was three digits and $\frac{1}{2}$.

In one hour's time the ascension of it was $4\frac{1}{2}$ digits: it staid in sixteen.

July 9. In 14 hours space, the ascension of it was 21 digits. The height of the mercury was 37. Moreover I suspected, that some air had got out. When I set the screw, the cover brake, and upon the ingress of the external air, the paste, which always did rise, now did abate about two digits of its tumidity, though it was now found in a less compression than before.

In five hours space the ascension of the mercury was 15 digits.

BUT when I again endeavoured to set the screw, the cover brake, so that the air escaped; the paste did presently somewhat pitch, and was depressed.

In four hours space the ascension of the mercury was 10 digits: the paste did again swell or rise, as before; but being willing to substitute a better screw in the place of the other, I permitted an egress to the air; yet this time the paste did not pitch or subside, as before it had done.

July 10. THIS night the paste rose again, yet it seemed to have produced no air.

In four hours space there was no ascension of the mercury.

In seven hours space the ascension of it was four digits.

July 12. I perceived no ascent of the mercury.

13. It seemed to have ascended a little.

17. Seeing no more air was produced, I took out the paste, and found it to be of a sub-acid smell.

THIS experiment seems to prove, that air may be produced out of paste, in compressed air, as well as *in vacuo*.

BUT the paste was twice depressed, because the compressed air suddenly finding out a way of eruption, was so much dilated, as it is wont to happen in all springs, when they are carried beyond their point of rest: but when that air was immediately repelled by the external air, the paste did pitch and was depressed.

EXPERIMENT V.

July 13, 1676. I included some beans, of that sort, which are given to horses for provender, *in vacuo*, with some water: some of them, which were bruised, seemed to swell much; but those, which were left whole, suffered no sensible alteration.

In two hours space I saw no air produced, though the beans continued to swell.

July 14. In 24 hours the ascension of the mercury was seven digits.

July 15. In 16 hours the ascension of the mercury was three digits and $\frac{1}{2}$.

In eight hours the ascension of it was $1\frac{1}{2}$; the height of it was 12.

July 16. In 14 hours the ascension of it was three.

17. In 26 hours the ascension of it was six.

18. In 24 hours the ascension of the mercury was almost nine.

19. I stopped the receiver firmly with a screw, because the air had got out. In nine hours space the ascension was one digit.

20. In 24 hours space, the ascension was $3\frac{1}{2}$.

21. In 24 hours space the ascension was $5\frac{1}{2}$.

22. In 14 hours the ascension of the mercury was two digits.

23. In 24 hours the ascension of the mercury was 18 digits.

24. In 14 hours the ascension of the mercury was almost five. The height of it was 35 above the wonted pressure.

25. The receiver could not sustain a greater pressure. I found the beans of a foetid smell, not much unlike

unlike the smell of putrified flesh.

FROM this experiment it seems to follow, that beans contain much air in them; and that that air is produced in a moderate pressure, as well as *in vacuo*, sometimes more speedily, sometimes more slowly.

ESPECIALLY, that great inequality, which happened July 23, is to be taken notice of.

EXPERIMENT VI.

July 23. I included goosberries *in vacuo*, and fortified them very well against the external air.

IN two hours space the mercury ascended one digit.

July 24. The height of the mercury was seven digits $\frac{1}{2}$.

July 25. }
26. } The height of it was } 12
27. } 17
28. } 20
29. } 24 $\frac{1}{2}$

22. The height of it was almost 30.

30. The height of it was almost 31.

I transmitted some air out of this receiver into another evacuated receiver, and so the height of the mercury was 26.

31. The height of the mercury was 35.

August 1. THE height of the mercury was 32. But some air had escaped out; and going about to stop the receiver close, I suffered some more air to get out.

The height of the mercury was 30.

2. The height of the mercury was 39. I transmitted some air into another receiver.

The height of the mercury was 31.

3. The height of the mercury was 39.

4. The height of the mercury was 41.

Aug. 5. The height of the mercury was 43. I transmitted the air into another receiver.

The height of the mercury was 30 digits.

6. The height of the mercury 43.

7. The height thereof was 47.

8. The height thereof was 48. But the air being transmitted into another receiver, the height of it was 36.

9. The height of the mercury was 41. Fourteen hours were past.

10. The height of the mercury was 47; the air being transmitted into another receiver, the height of it was 35: 24 hours were elapsed.

11. The height of the mercury was 38 $\frac{1}{2}$. Fourteen hours were elapsed.

12. The height of the mercury was 42; twenty-four hours were passed. I extracted the air, and the height of the mercury was 26.

13. The height of the mercury was 33: twenty-four hours were elapsed,

Aug. 14. }
15. } The height } 36
16. } of it was } 39
17. } 41 $\frac{1}{2}$ } hours 24
18. } 44
19. } 47
20. } 50

I transmitted the air into another receiver, and the mercurial gage was spoiled. I took out the goosberries, and found, that they had lost their colour, and also almost all their acidity.

FROM this experiment we may infer, that goosberries do produce their air regularly enough, unless something be extracted out of the receiver; for then they acquire strength to produce new air more speedily.

EXPERIMENT VII.

Sept. 12. I put crude grapes into an emptied receiver; but before they could be fortified against the external air, some thereof had got in, as much as could sustain three digits of mercury.

Sept. 13.	5
14.	10
16.	17
17.	19
19.	23
20.	25

Sept. 22. The height of the mercury was 30. I stopped the receiver with a screw.

23. The height of the mercury was about $30\frac{1}{2}$.

24. The height thereof was 32.

Sept. 26.	$34\frac{1}{2}$
27.	$36\frac{1}{4}$
28.	$36\frac{1}{4}$
29.	$37\frac{1}{4}$
30.	$37\frac{3}{4}$
Octob. 2.	$39\frac{1}{2}$
4.	$39\frac{1}{2}$
5.	$40\frac{1}{2}$
7.	$41\frac{1}{2}$
9.	$42\frac{1}{2}$

Octob. 15. The height of the mercury was 46. It ascended chiefly these two last days, when the frost was dissolved.

Nov. 2. The height of the mercury was 54 digits.

Nov. 5. The height 58.

Jan. 10, 1677. Now the mercury was come to the height of 70 digits; and yet I perceived no sensible mutation in the mercurial gage, even when the cold was most fierce, though the grapes and their juice were concreted into ice.

Sept. 21. HITHERTO the grapes seemed not altered: but the mercury had ascended a little, because the air had found a passage out. This day I opened the receiver, and when the air brake forth, many of the grains seemed to be contracted into wrinkles. The grapes had kept their taste, but much more pungent; but their juice

continued to be tinged with a curious red colour.

THIS experiment seems to inform us, that grapes produce not all the air, but in a long tract of time.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

August 10, 1677. I put pears, cut in two, into a vacuous receiver. Towards evening the mercury was come up to the height of 10 digits.

Aug. 11.	20
13.	38
14.	48
15.	55
16.	60
17.	68

The air being transmitted into another receiver, the height of the mercury remained at $53\frac{1}{2}$.

Aug. 18.	61
19.	64
20.	70
21.	72

The air being transmitted into another receiver, the mercury remained in the height of 61.

Aug. 22.	68
23.	74
24.	79
25.	81

The air being transmitted into another receiver, the mercury remained in the height of 61.

August 26. The height of the mercury was 56, because some air had got out; yet I transmitted the air into another receiver, and the mercury remained in the height 52.

Aug. 27.	60
28.	68
29.	75
30.	83
31.	88
Sept. 1.	93

Sept. 2. The height of it was 100.

Sept. 3. The height of it was 89, because some air had escaped out, which made me cautious to prevent the like for the future.

Sept.

- Sept. 4. The height of the mercury was 100.
 5. The same height continued.
 7. The same height still continued, though no air at all had any egress.
 9. The height of the mercury was 107.
 10. The height of the mercury was the same.

The air being transmitted into another receiver, the mercury staid in the height 99.

- Sept. 11. The mercury moved not.
 13. The height of the mercury was 105.

Octob. 8. I this day found, that the air had got out.

THIS experiment seems to inform us, that pears do produce their air, as it were, by paroxysms, or fits.

ARTICLE XI.

Various experiments.

EXPERIMENT I.

March 16. I melted down lead with a fire in a brass vessel, whose diameter was an inch and half; but before the lead was concreted by cold, I put it into a receiver, out of which I exhausted the air with great speed; whence it came to pass, that the figure of the concreted lead was concave, and the parts of it were so much the more depressed, by how much they were the nearer to the center: whereas, on the other side, lead congealed in common air doth exhibit a convex figure, except in the middle, where a little cavity doth appear.

I made the same experiment with tin, and had the same success; though both metals being liquid, and very hot, had remained long enough *in vacuo*, yet no bubbles seemed to emerge from either of them; whereas all other hot liquors do send forth numerous bubbles *in vacuo*.

EXPERIMENT II.

Sept. 2. I put water saturated with dissolved salt, *in vacuo*, to try, whether it

would be there converted into chrystals, and the salt be carried above the plain, or superficies of the water, as it is wont to happen in the free air.

Sept. 15. THE water with the dissolved salt abiding in the same state, I opened the receiver: seeing no vapours could escape out of the evacuated receiver, it is consentaneous to reason to judge, that the salt could not there be converted into chrystals.

EXPERIMENT III.

August 8, 1676. I put air produced from gooseberries, into an evacuated recipient, furnished with a mercurial gage.

March 1, 1677. WHEN I perceived, that no change was made in the height of the mercury, I opened the receiver.

EXPERIMENT IV.

August 8. I took a phial, which was able to hold seven ounces five drachms and three grains of water, and exhausted the air out of it; and when, in a balance, it was suspended in an *equilibrium* with another weight, I pierced the bladder, which covered the orifice, with a needle; and then the phial, being filled with air, appeared heavier by four grains and $\frac{1}{2}$, which latter weight to the former, is in the same proportion as 1 to 814: whence it follows, that water is about 800 times more ponderous than air of an equal bulk. Yea, it is probable, that the proportion is with the least, because this day the air was hot and clear, and besides, some air was always left in the receivers after the exhaustion.

EXPERIMENT V.

Jan. 19, 1677. I put *aqua fortis* with fixed nitre into a receiver; and having exhausted the air as much as I could, I poured in one of them on the other, and found much air produced. I marked the height of the mercury in the gage.

March 5. FINDING, that the produced air was not destroyed, and that the mercury persisted in the same height, I opened

the receiver, and found nitre produced *in vacuo* from the mixture.

EXPERIMENT VI.

May 12, 1677. I filled a phial, of a long and very narrow neck, with oil up to the middle of the neck; and thus filled, I put it into a receiver firmly stopped by the help of a screw, into which afterwards I intruded air till it could sustain 120 digits of mercury above its wonted height; and the oil, in the neck of the phial, appeared depressed toward the phial about one quarter of an inch; the cause whereof I judge attributable to the compression of the air: and yet having eased the screw, and thereby suffered the air to break out and be dilated, the oil did not ascend at all; so that I judge it was condensed only by cold.

August 5. I made the same experiment after the same manner, only using water instead of oil; and yet I could perceive no change of the height of the water in the neck of the glass, though the heat being moderate might have produced a sensible effect.

Jan. 14, 1678. BECAUSE I found by some experiments, that compressed air did enter into the pores of the water, and did pierce even to the bottom, a suspicion might arise, that the water was not condensed by the compressed air, for this reason, because the air entering into the pores did make the pressure within equal to the pressure from without. And to be sure of this, I filled the glass abovesaid with spirit of wine, leaving only the length of three digits in the top of the neck thereof, which was filled with air only. Then my hands being applied to the glass, the spirit of wine, being heated, in a short time filled the whole neck even to the top. Then the glass being inverted into a vessel full of mercury, I removed my hands; which being done, the spirit of wine being soon cooled, afforded space to the mercury to fill three digits in height. I put the vessel and the glass in that posture into a receiver, into which I afterwards compressed the air,

till the mercury exceeded its wonted height 90 digits; and yet there was no sensible condensation of the spirit of wine, nor any ascension of the mercury: however, it is certain, that no air had crept in, because the mercury hindered it; and the receiver being opened, when the air, that compressed from without, was dilated, no bubbles appeared in the spirit of wine.

In this experiment, it seems worthy our enquiry, how it comes to pass, that spirit of wine was so sensibly condensed by a moderate cold, and not at all by a great compression of the air.

EXPERIMENT VII.

May 12, 1676. I poured spirit of wine into a glass vessel, and superadded some drops of oil of turpentine thereto, which swimming upon the spirit of wine, began to be whirled about by motion, hither and thither, as it is wont to come to pass. I put the glass vessel on the pneumatic engine, and covered it with a receiver; and yet the bubbles did not at all cease to be moved up and down. Then I pumped out the air, till the spirit of wine did only not bubble; and it came to pass, that the bubbles emerging from the spirit of wine did adhere to the drops of oil, and carried them with themselves to the sides of the vessel, and there retained them; yet two drops, free from such bubbles, proceeded to have further motion: afterwards I wholly exhausted the receiver, and some drops were emitted to the top thereof, by the force of the bullient spirit of wine; but the remaining drops proceeded on to be moved a little, and in a little time after they rested. The air being immitted, the drops began again to renew their motion, but it was a slow one, and it quickly ceased.

I iterated the same experiment with spirit of wine and oil of turpentine, cleansed from air; and no ebullition was then made, yea, no bubble appeared at all, but the drops of the oil of turpentine were moved *in vacuo*, as in the open air.

HENCE

HENCE it seems to follow, that the cause of the motion of the drops is not to be ascribed to the dissolution; for all the dissolutions *in vacuo* have hitherto seemed to me to produce bubbles.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

May 19, 1676. I left yesterday two radishes *in vacuo*; one of them I hanged up, the root being upside down, the other in a contrary posture; both of them cut transversely did hang over a subjacent vessel, which contained red wine. All these being left a whole night *in vacuo* seemed well purged from their air. Opening the receiver, I added two other radishes to the former included ones, cut after the same manner, and from which I had further detracted their thick skin. Then exhausting the receiver, I immersed the cut part of all the radishes at once into the subjacent wine: and then many bubbles seemed to arise out from them, as it came to pass in those little glass-tubes of *Exper. IX.* yea, more bubbles were emitted from those radishes, which were purged from air the whole night, than from those, which had not remained above half an hour *in vacuo*; and from whom I had taken away their skin.

THIS experiment seems to afford us a confirmation, that bubbles are formed of particles of air swimming in water; and because in the skin there are some canals fit to retain parts of air, it came to pass, that the radishes, from which I had detracted their skin, afforded no opportunity for the forming of so many bubbles.

THE liquor ascended no less into those radishes, which hanged with their roots upwards, than into those of a contrary posture.

EXPERIMENT IX.

May 4, 1677. I immersed one end of a small glass-tube, open at both ends, into water stagnant *in vacuo*, and presently the water ascended up into it, as it is wont to do in common air, and even to the same height; but a little while after, many

bubbles being formed there, lifted the water higher, and kept it suspended in three different places, disterninated by many bubbles; and many other bubbles seemed to pass out from that end, which was immersed in water.

THEN I sealed the other end of the tube hermetically; and so the experiment being made in common air, the water could not ascend up into the tube by the open end. But *in vacuo* the matter succeeded far otherwise; for the water ascended up into the tube no otherwise, than if it had been open at both ends; and many bubbles formed in a short time, did distinguish the water, contained in the tube, by great intervals, as before; whilst the mean time, many other bubbles seemed incessantly to pass out from the end of the tube immersed in water; yet in progress of time they appeared less frequent.

BUT this circumstance I much admired, that the water being suspended higher in the tube, seemed to be filled with no bubbles, whereas the end only did emit so many.

THEN I took out that end from the water, and no bubbles did any more appear, though that end was wholly filled with a cylinder of water.

May 5. I repeated the same experiment; but before I had immersed the end of the tube in water, a drop of water, which ran over from the superior aperture of the receiver, flowed down to the open end of the tube, and pierced up into it the height of two lines; neither was any bubble formed there in a full half hour's time: that being passed, I inmitted the end of the tube into the water of the vessel, and not long after bubbles began to be formed, as before, of which some followed others within half a minute; yet afterwards they came forth less frequent. Furthermore, iterating this experiment many times, I perceived, that when the water was extracted from the tube, no bubbles appeared; but if it were immersed in water, bubbles would cleave to the end of it, either sooner or later.

May 6. I tried the same experiment, with the infusion of nephritic-wood, and the success was wholly alike, but that the bubbles could emerge and pierce the liquor, before they had acquired any bigness; for being yet very small, they pervaded the liquor contained in the tube, and were carried to the upper part thereof; whence we may conjecture, that that liquor is very thin, and hath no viscosity to resist the pervading body.

May 10. I iterated the same experiment with spirit of wine, mixed with a certain oil made *per deliquium*: yet I found no new event, but that the ascension of the liquor into the tube was not so high.

From these experiments it seems to follow, that the bubbles are formed, in the extremity of the tube, of aerial particles, swimming in the water, which finding some impediment at that end cannot pass by, and so, new ones coming upon them, they swell into a bubble.

EXPERIMENT X.

July 18, 1676. Two days ago I took some beans, such as are given to horses for provender, and included them in an iron tube closely stopped; yet I first affused water on the compressed beans, till the tube seemed wholly full, to try, whether the force of the swelling beans would be enough to break the tube. This day the tube seemed not to be altered at all; but the stopple being plucked back, some quantity of air brake out, and much water fell upon the ground, which was not sucked up by the beans; then a certain noise, as it were, of bubbling water was heard for a whole hour and more.

July 25. I left the iron tube in the same posture; but this day one of the ends of it being unstopped, and some beans taken out, the murmur of the bullient water was heard, as before.

From this experiment it seems to follow, that beans do contain air in them, which in a great compression cannot escape out; but if it be freed from the force compressing it, then it makes an eruption.

EXPERIMENT XI.

March 4, 1677. I put a glass half full of spirit of sal-armoniac and *limatura cupri*, into a receiver exhausted as much as I could, and there stopped it in. And it came to pass, that in 15 minutes space the liquor had contracted a certain blue colour, but very much diluted; but the air being immitted, in three minutes the blue colour appeared vivid and thick. I put the liquor so tinged again *in vacuo*, to try, whether in tract of time that colour would vanish.

April 4. The blue colour was almost quite vanished, but upon the admission of the air, it quickly returned.

EXPERIMENT XII.

May 8. I put a certain oil made *per deliquium*, with spirit of wine into an exhausted receiver, and the spirit always swam on the top; now lest the spirit might be spilt by bubbling above the edges of the vessel, I extracted the air by degrees, and in the beginning great bubbles came from the spirit, and but very small ones from the oil; but after one hour's time, the oil did emit great bubbles, which, being small at bottom, in their ascent did fill the whole latitude of their vessel; and after another hour, some bubbles brake out with so great force, that they hit against the top of the receiver.

May 9. I iterated the former experiment in a glass somewhat long and narrow, that I might the better perceive the motion of the bubbles; and then I saw the bubbles passing out of the oil into the spirit of wine, without any great increase of their quantity; but being distant only one quarter of an inch from the superficies, they were suddenly expanded.

EXPERIMENT XIII.

May 3, 1676. I mixed a certain quantity of *aqua-fortis* with a quantity of spirit of wine somewhat greater; and then I distributed that mixture equally into three glass vessels, and put three equal pieces of iron

iron into them, to each vessel one. This being done, I included one of the three vessels *in vacuo*, and there many great ebullitions were made. Then after a quarter of an hour, I took out the vessel, and found the liquor black and turbid; whereas the other two vessels had their liquor not altered in colour, but only some black powder did appear in the bottom of the liquor.

Of these two vessels I put one *in vacuo*, and then there arose ebullitions, great indeed, but much lesser than the former: when one quarter of an hour was elapsed, I took the vessel *à vacuo*, and found the liquor black indeed, yet somewhat less so than the former; but the liquor, which was left always in the air, did in a manner remain unchanged.

May 4. This day in the morning, the liquors in the two vessels, put *in vacuo*, appeared cleansed and green, and had no other operation.

BUT the liquor, which was not put *in vacuo*, did bubble more strongly than yesterday, and exhibited a red colour. I put the three vessels together *in vacuo*, and perceived no eminent ebullition; only some bubbles appeared larger in the red liquor, than in the other two.

FROM this experiment, it seems to follow, that spirit of wine *in vacuo* doth accelerate ebullition.

EXPERIMENT XIV.

Jan. 21, 1678. I kept a glass half full of sal armoniac and filings of copper, the hole thereof being so exactly stopped, that the blue colour, which was induced into that liquor, from the contact of the external air, (see *Philosophical Transactions*, Num. 120.) did wholly now disappear. The stopple was made of leather, prepared after a special way and manner.

I put that glass *in vacuo* with paste not yet fermented.

I did it to this end, that the receiver, being full of air from the paste, I might perforate the leather, that stopped the glass, with an iron wire prepared for that

purpose; and that I might try, whether the contact of the air generated from the paste, would also communicate some colour unto the liquor.

Jan. 22. THERE was no need to perforate the leather, for this day I found the liquor already tinged; so that it is probable, that air produced from paste is endued with such minute particles, that it can penetrate leather, which is impervious to common air.

YET I will keep the glass, not touching its ligature, to try, whether that colour may vanish again.

Jan. 25. Now the liquor became almost colourless; whence it appears, that common air is too thick to penetrate all passages, which are pervious to air produced from paste.

Feb. 2. I put the same phial *in vacuo*, but did not fortify the commissure of the receiver with the cover, with turpentine; so that the air, making a gradual ingress, in 24 hours filled the receiver, even as it was leisureably filled with the air produced from paste; yet the liquor remained still colourless.

Febr. 15. I put the same glass again *in vacuo* with some quantity of paste; but this time the air produced from thence did not pervade the leather, as it had done before, and the liquor was not tinged at all.

EXPERIMENT XV.

April 2, 1678. I put a shrew-mouse into the engine described, p. 516. and when I perceived he was reduced to extremity, I began to stir the pump, that the air might penetrate, and be, as it were, filtrated through the water. The mouse, a while after, seemed to be better, yet he could not be wholly restored to health. Now, because he had been long kept fasting, I am uncertain, whether he died for want of aliment, or of new air.

April 12. I iterated the same experiment with a small and weakly mouse, that had been kept a long time fasting. And finding, that this experiment had the same success with the former, I took out the mouse

mouse before he was dead; and though he then enjoyed the free air, yet he recovered not; so that we have need of more experiments, that we may attain to a certain knowledge of the effect of that filtration.

EXPERIMENT XVI.

May 2, 1678. SIX weeks ago, I included frog-spawn in three recipients; the first of which was vacuous; the second contained common air; and into the third I intruded so much air, that the mercury staid in 60 digits above its wonted height.

IN 15 days the mercury in the evacuated receiver came to the height of one digit.

The spawn in the common air seemed corrupted and of a blackish colour; but that in the compressed air remained unaltered in colour; but no frogs were generated.

AFTER an whole month was elapsed, the sperm *in vacuo* had not changed its colour, excepting the black round spots, but seemed reduced into water: the colour of that in the common air was very black; but in the compressed air the spawn began to be reddish.

As yet no change was perceived, neither in that spawn *in vacuo*, nor that in the common air; but in the compressed air the spawn waxed more and more red.

May 22. THE sperm *in vacuo* was not changed; in the compressed air it remained red; but in the common air it became again colourless.

June 23. THE sperm *in vacuo* and in common air was tinged with no colour, but in the compressed air it inclined to greenness.

Octob. 15. I took out all the spawns; that which was kept *in vacuo* was almost exhaled out of its vessel, and was stagnant in the receiver, like clear water: in the common air, the sperm remained colourless; but that in the compressed air kept still its red colour.

EXPERIMENT XVII.

May 9, 1678. SIX days ago, I included two pieces of the same orange in two re-

ceivers, not quite of equal bigness; but in the greater receiver there was left some quantity of water, so that no less space was left for the air in that, than in the lesser. The issue was, that the orange included with water, though it were not touched by it, yet was four times more mouldy than that, which was kept without water.

AND therefore in iterating this experiment, I put two pieces of the same orange into two receivers, but I filled the third part of one of them with water, yet so, that it did not reach the orange.

June 15. NEITHER of the oranges had contracted any mouldiness.

May 16. I repeated the same experiment with the same success; yet neither orange had acquired any mouldiness in the space of more than a month, though in former experiments all such oranges would be mouldy.

THE cause of the difference seems to be attributable to some disposition of the air.

EXPERIMENT XVIII.

June 1, 1678. I put a small glass-tube, half full of Venice turpentine, into the wind-gun, described p. 516. and I had scarce reduced the air to the tenth part of its wonted space, but the leather, spread over the elliptic valve, was driven out; so that the air having made an escape, I drew the glass-tube out of the engine, and found many bubbles formed in the superficies of the turpentine; and therefore I suspected that the air had pervaded the turpentine, and that it would have penetrated more deeply into it, if they had remained longer thus enclosed together: and therefore I re-immitted the same tube into the same gun, and there left it in air reduced to about the 15th part of its space.

June 3. I opened the engine, and, taking out the tube, found the turpentine almost free from bubbles; yet by degrees many were formed therein, in the parts remote enough from the superficies.

June

June 4. I threw away the former turpentine, and put new in the same tube, and included it *in vacuo*, that the turpentine might be the better purged from all air; then I poured water upon it, and shut up all in the wind-gun.

June 8. I opened the engine, and at first sight both the water and the turpentine in the tube seemed to be very free from bubbles; but a little while after I perceived, that bubbles were formed in the turpentine, and that they ascended by degrees; yea, some of them seemed to be made almost in the very bottom, about half an inch below the superficies of the turpentine. So that we may conjecture, that all the water, and so great an height of the turpentine, were penetrated by the air, which formed those bubbles.

E X P E R I M E N T XIX.

Aug. 11, 1678. I included spirit of sal armoniack, with a mercurial gage, *in vacuo*; and after that the spirit ceased to emit any bubbles, I mixed filings of copper therewith, which caused many bubbles to break forth again; but they were so far from producing any air, that they contrariwise consumed that, which was there before; as it hath been already observed in the *Philosophical Transactions*, N. 120: but the liquor was made greenish and turbid.

Dec. 5. THE spirit was almost all exhaled out of the vessel, in which it was contained, and being condensed in the receiver, remained still turbid, by reason of much filth, which was included there; but that, which was not exhaled out of the vessel, appeared clear like water: also the mercury was wholly expelled out of the gage. Whence I conjecture, that the air in the receiver was more and more consumed.

E X P E R I M E N T XX.

Sept. 2, 1678. I put two cylinders, one of tin, the other of lead, *in vacuo*, but their lowest parts were immersed in mercury; and at the same time I immersed

two other cylinders, like the former, after the same manner in mercury: but these latter were left in the free air.

Sept. 6. I opened the vacuous receiver, and the mercury, in the tin cylinder, was come to the height of four digits and a half above the superficies of the stagnant mercury; and cutting the cylinder transversely in the middle of that height, the amalgama seemed to have penetrated into the cylinder about half a line. And cutting the cylinder transversely again, in that part, which was distant only one digit from the superficies of the stagnant mercury, I found the thickness of the amalgama to equal one line.

In the lead cylinder the mercury came to the height of two digits and $\frac{1}{2}$, but only as far as the superficies; and that very part, which was immersed in the mercury, was not penetrated by it to any sensible thickness.

Sept. 7. I took out the tin, left in the air, out of the mercury, in which it was immersed, and found the mercury to have ascended to the height of five digits.

Sept. 10. THE same cylinder being left in the mercury, seemed to be besmeared therewith up to the very top, six digits and more above the superficies of the stagnant mercury. When the cylinder was transversely cut in several places, it appeared, that the mercury had pierced so much the higher into the tin, by how much it came nearer to the stagnant mercury; so that in the part near to the fore-said mercury, almost the whole diameter of the cylinder, three lines broad, was penetrated thereby.

In the lead cylinder the mercury exceeded not the height of three digits and $\frac{1}{2}$, neither had it penetrated to any sensible thickness. Whence it appears, that the weight of the air contributes little or nothing to the ascension of mercury into metals.

E X P E R I M E N T XXI.

Dec. 12, 1678. I took a small whiting, and having cut off his head, I divided him transversely

transversly into five pieces. The first whereof I included *in vacuo*. The second in common air. The third in air so compressed, that it could sustain mercury 50 digits above its wonted height. These three receivers were closely stopped with screws. The fourth piece was put into a receiver, full of air produced from paste, which was presently stopped. The fifth was left in the free air.

Dec. 15. THIS day in the morning, that part of the whiting, which was left in the free air, began to shine; and towards evening it sent forth somewhat a more vivid light.

Dec. 16. IN the morning, the whiting left in the free air, gave over shining; but towards evening it shone again.

Dec. 17. THIS morning the same part of the whiting shined a little, yet less than it did yesterday in the evening.

Dec. 18. IN the morning there appeared no light, though I fixed my eyes a long time upon the receiver in a dark place; but the night coming on, the light appeared again.

Dec. 20. HITHERTO the same part of the whiting, left in the air, proceeded to shine; but all the other parts did not yet begin to shine.

Dec. 22. YESTERDAY the light of the whiting, left in the air, had not quite ceased; but this day it appeared no more.

Dec. 24. THE part of the whiting in the free air gave over its shining quite; but that, which was included with common air, did yesterday send forth a faint light; but this day it proceeded not to shine.

Dec. 26. No shining appeared any more in the common air: but the three other pieces did not so much as begin to shine.

Jan. 26, 1676. I perceived no more shining in any one of the receivers.

ARTICLE XII.

Artificial air destroyed.

EXPERIMENT I.

Aug. 3, 1677. I transmitted air, produced from cherries, into a receiver full of

common air, but so stopped with a screw, that the mercury ascended to 25 digits above its wonted pressure.

Aug. 4. THE mercury was depressed about two digits. The height of it this day was only 23 digits.

Aug. 6. The height thereof was reduced to 20 digits.

7. The height thereof was the same.

8. The mercury was somewhat depressed.

Aug. 10. THE height of it was $19\frac{1}{2}$ above its wonted height. When I perceived little or no alteration more, I opened the receiver.

FROM this experiment we have a confirmation, that air, produced from fruits at the beginning, is in part destroyed; but the rest can keep the form of air very long.

EXPERIMENT II.

May 26, 1676. I took six grains of sal armoniack, and put them into a receiver with a sufficient quantity of oil of vitriol: then the air being exhausted, I forced down the salt into the oil, whereupon a great ebullition presently followed, and the mercury ascended into the gage almost to its wonted height; but presently after it sunk again, and returned to its former state.

May 27. I repeated the same experiment; but this time the salt remained 10 hours *in vacuo* before it was put into the oil, but the ebullition followed as in the former experiment; yet the air was produced much more slowly, neither could it wholly be destroyed but in seven or eight hours time; yet at last the mercury descended to the very bottom.

May 29. I tried the same experiment again, leaving the materials 24 hours *in vacuo*: this time the ebullition seemed much less, and the air was produced both in a lesser quantity and more slowly than before. I observed also, that whilst the materials staid *in vacuo* before their mixture, that the mercury came nearer to the open end of the gage, as if some air had been either extracted or destroyed.

June

June 8. I put oil of vitriol alone into a receiver, in which I left only a fifth part of common air, to try, whether this oil, without sal armoniack, would diminish the elastical force of the air: but it fell out contrary, that the force of the air was increased, and the mercury, in one hour's space, seemed to have ascended a little into the gage; but afterwards, for 24 hours space, no change was made.

THIS experiment doth confirm, that some artificial airs may be destroyed; but why this destruction happens sometimes sooner, sometimes slower, it may perhaps seem worthy of a further enquiry.

A R T I C L E XIII.

Experiments concerning the different celerity of air produced in vacuo, or in common air.

E X P E R I M E N T I.

Common air.

July 10, 1676. I put paste, kneaded two days before and sourish, into a receiver, and stopped it firmly with a screw.

IN one hour's space the height of the mercury was one digit.

IN seven hours space the height of it was six digits.

July 11. The height of it was 11 digits.

12. The height of the mercury was 24.

13. The height thereof was 30.

14. The height of the mercury was sensibly greater.

15. The mercury ascended a little. Measuring its height exactly this day, I found it 38 digits.

19. No more air was produced from the paste.

Vacuum.

July 10, 1676. I put another quantity of the same paste, much less than the former, into an exhausted receiver.

THOUGH the quantity of the paste was less, yet in one hour's time the height of the mercury was two digits.

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IN seven hours time the mercury came almost to the top of the gage, but it was a short one.

July 19. THE paste was not able to remove the receiver from his cover, though at the beginning it had produced a greater quantity of air than the paste in common air. I endeavoured to fire it with a burning-glass, and the fumes, elevated therefrom, afterward falling upon the paste, did tinge the superficies thereof with a pleasant yellow colour; and that air was thus produced, I conjectured hereby, because the cover was afterwards easily severed from its receiver.

FROM this experiment, made in two receivers at once, we learn, that air is sometimes generated much more easily *in vacuo* than in common air.

E X P E R I M E N T II.

Common air.

Aug. 20, 1676. I put paste, kept for 24 hours, into a receiver full of common air; to which I further added new air, so that the mercury exceeded its wonted height four digits and $\frac{1}{2}$.

IN six hours space the mercury gained almost four digits. Its height was eight digits.

Aug. 21. The ascension of the mercury was four digits and $\frac{2}{3}$.

22. The ascent of it was about one digit.

23. The ascent of it was $\frac{1}{2}$ a digit.

26. For three whole days the ascent of the mercury was only $\frac{1}{2}$ a digit.

27. There was no ascent of it at all.

29. The paste, taken out of the receiver, affected our nostrils with an acid smell.

Vacuum.

Aug. 20. I put another quantity of the same paste into an empty receiver, and kept the same proportion between the quantity of the paste and the capacity of the vessel, as in the former experiment.

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THE mercury seemed to have ascended in a short time. Its height was two digits.

Aug. 21. The ascent of the mercury was five digits.

22. The ascent of it was three digits.

23. The ascent of the mercury was one digit.

26. For three whole days the ascent of it was two digits.

27. There was no ascent of the mercury.

29. I took out the paste, exhausted of its air, from the receiver.

THIS experiment confirms to us, that air is sometimes more easily produced *in vacuo* than in common air.

EXPERIMENT III.

Vacuum.

Sept. 4. 1677. I put the kernels of filberds into an exhausted receiver.

Sept. 5. The height of the mercury was five digits.

6.]	} The height of it was {	10
7.]		10
8.]		12
9.]		15
11.]		18
12.]		23
13.]		27
14.]		29

15. The height of it was almost the same.

17. The height of it was 30.

18. This day the air began to escape out of the receiver; for some bubbles appeared in the turpentine, which strengthened the commissure of the receiver and cover.

Common air.

Sept. 4. I put kernels of filberds into a receiver with common air.

IN the afternoon the quantity of air seemed to be lessened.

Sept. 5. The height of the mercury was less than half a digit.

6. The height of it was the same.

Sept. 7. The height of it was one digit.

8. The same height still continued.

18. The same height continued.

THIS experiment gives us a confirmation, that sometimes air is produced much more easily *in vacuo* than in common air.

EXPERIMENT IV.

Sept. 15, 1677. I included eight ounces of raisins of the sun, bruised and diluted with a little water, in an exhausted receiver able to hold 22 ounces of water.

Sept. 16. The height of the mercury was six digits.

17.]	} The height of it was {	10
18.]		15
19.]		29
20.]		29

Sept. 21. THIS day I found the receiver forced from his cover.

Sept. 24. I took out some of the raisins; but those, that remained, I enclosed in the same evacuated receiver.

Sept. 25. THE raisins forced the receiver, now full of air, from his cover.

Sept. 15, 1677. I put eight ounces of raisins of the sun, bruised and diluted with a little water, into a receiver able to hold 22 ounces of water; but I did not exhaust the air at all.

Sept. 16. The height of the mercury was $\frac{3}{4}$ of a digit above what was accustomed.

Sept. 17. The height of the mercury was $1\frac{1}{2}$.

18. The height of it was 3.

19.]	} The height of it was {	5
20.]		7
21.]		9
22.]		11
23.]		12
24.]		15

BEING about to put peaches into the receiver, I permitted the air to break forth; and then many bubbles did emerge from the raisins.

THIS experiment doth further teach, that air is sometimes much more easily produced *in vacuo* than in common air.

EXPERIMENT V.

Vacuum.

Feb. 17, 1677. I put three onions into an emptied receiver.

Feb. 19. The ascension of the mercury was one digit.

21. The ascent thereof was again one digit. The onions were not altered.

15. The whole ascent of the mercury was nine digits. The onions not altered.

May 4. The onions had yet undergone no alteration.

18. Neither were they yet altered.

June 19. I this day found the receiver forced from his cover, and the onions rotten.

Rarefied air.

Feb. 17. I inclosed three onions in air so rarefied, that it could sustain 10 digits of mercury.

Feb. 19. There was no ascent of the mercury.

21. There was yet no ascent thereof.

The onions did not germinate, but contracted a mouldiness.

25. The ascension of the mercury was about seven digits. The onions received no further alteration.

May 4. The onions were not altered.

18. The onions were not yet altered, but the receiver, by the force of the produced air, was removed from his cover.

Common air.

Feb. 17. I put three onions in a receiver not exactly shut.

Feb. 21. The onions contracted no mouldiness, but did germinate.

25. The onions put forth root more and more.

May 4. The onions began to be mouldy.

THIS experiment gives us a likely proof, that some bodies do produce their air not much more easily *in vacuo* than in rarefied air.

AND besides it hereby appeareth, that vegetation is hindered, not only by the evacuation, but also by the rarefaction of the air.

It seems also worthy our observation, that the onions, as long as they emitted roots, did contract no mouldiness.

ARTICLE XIV.

The difference betwixt whole or entire, and bruised fruits.

EXPERIMENT I.

Bruised fruits.

Aug. 23, 1677. I put pears bruised into a vacuous receiver with a mercurial gage.

Aug. 25. The height of the mercury was five digits.

Aug. 26.	} The height of it was {	10
27.		14
28.		18
29.		21
30.		25
31.		28

Sept. 1. The height of it was 30.

2. The receiver was found forced from his cover.

Whole or entire fruits.

Aug. 23. I put whole pears into a vacuous receiver, and I took care, that the quantity of the pears, and the capacity of the receiver, might be the same with those, which I mentioned before.

Aug. 25. The height of the mercury was 11.

Aug. 26.	} The height of it was {	17
27.		25
28.		28
29.		30

Aug. 30. THE mercury ascended no higher, because the receiver was forced from his cover.

THIS experiment seems to prove, that bruised fruits do not produce air as soon as entire ones.

EXPERIMENT II.

Entire fruits.

Aug. 24. I enclosed whole apples in *vacuo* with a mercurial gage.

Aug. 25. The height of the mercury was five digits.

26.	} The height of it was {	9
27.		12
28.		15
29.		19
30.		25
31.		28

Sept. 1. The height of it was 29.
 2. The height of it was 30.
 3. The receiver was forced from his cover.

Bruised fruits.

Aug. 24. I put an equal quantity of bruised apples into a vacuated receiver of the same capacity with the former.

Aug. 25. The height of the mercury was one digit.

26. The height of it was three digits.

27. The height of it was four.

Sept. 3. The mercury continued in the same height.

25. The mercury ascended not at all.

THIS experiment seems to inform us, that bruised fruit do produce air slower than whole or entire ones.

EXPERIMENT III.

Bruised fruits.

Aug. 25, 1677. I put unripe grapes bruised into a vacuated recipient.

Aug. 26. The height of the mercury was one digit.

27. The height of it was two digits.

28. The height of it was two digits and an half.

29. The height of the mercury was the same.

Sept. 15. The mercury did not ascend at all, but its height remained at $2\frac{1}{2}$.

Whole fruits.

Aug. 25, 1677. I put unripe grapes, not bruised, into a vacuated receiver.

I

Aug. 26. The height of the mercury was three digits.

27. The height of the mercury was five digits.

28.	} The height of it was {	7
29.		10
30.		12
31.		13

Sept. 1. The height of the mercury was 15.

2. The height of it was 16.

3. The height of it was 18.

4. The height of it was the same.

Sept. 5. The height of the mercury continued the same; but all the grapes had almost contracted a yellow colour.

Sept. 7. The mercury rested in the same height; but all the grapes were yellow.

Sept. 15. The height of the mercury was 20.

THIS experiment gives us a further confirmation, that whole fruits do produce air more readily than bruised ones.

EXPERIMENT IV.

Fruits whole and entire.

Sept. 10, 1677. I put two ounces of ripe grapes, but not bruised, into a receiver able to hold 10 ounces of water.

Sept. 11. The height of the mercury was six digits.

12.	} The height of it was {	9
13.		12
14.		15
15.		20
16.		25
17.		28

18. The height of the mercury was 30. The grapes were not altered at all.

19. The height of the mercury was the same.

20. The receiver was not yet forced from his cover. The grapes were not altered, but appeared only a little riper.

21. The receiver was forced from his cover, though as yet nothing had made any eruption out.

22. This

22. This day in the morning I found the grapes begin to rot, and therefore I included them again *in vacuo*.

Sept. 23. The height of the mercury was five digits.

24.]	} The height of it was {	9
25.]		14
26.]		17
27.]		20
29.]		27
30.]		28

Octob. 10. The receiver was not forced from his cover till this day: the grapes by their colour seemed rotten, yet they had kept their firmness.

Bruised fruits.

Sept. 10, 1677. I included two ounces of ripe and bruised grapes in a receiver capable of holding 10 ounces of water.

11.]	} The height of it was {	4
12.]		7
13.]		10
14.]		12
15.]		15
16.]		18
17.]		20
18.]		25

Sept. 19. THE grapes had severed the receiver from his cover, and much juice was spilt.

Sept. 20. I again put the same grapes into the same receiver; but because they had spilt their juice by ebullition, I did not exhaust all the air; but the mercury staid in the height of five digits.

Sept. 21. THIS day in the morning, the receiver, being now full of air, did no longer stick to his cover; so that I took out the grapes, and transmitted them into another receiver, which I stopped close with a screw, but extracted no air from it.

Sept. 22. The height of the mercury was 11 digits, though the receiver was able to hold 26 ounces of water.

Sept. 23. The height of the mercury was 19.

24. The height of it was the same.

30. The height of it was 20.

Octob. 3. WHEN the grapes produced no more air, I took them out, and found them of a bitter taste, because they were not yet come to their perfect ripeness.

THIS experiment, if you compare it with that, which I related before concerning unripe grapes, doth seem to intimate, that unripe grapes do produce less air when they are bruised, than when unbruised; but ripe grapes do the contrary.

EXPERIMENT V.

Nov. 29, 1678. I put apples into three vacuated receivers. In the first was a sound apple; in the second an apple bruised, and repositied loosely in the open vessel; in the third was also a bruised apple, and repositied in the vessel, but the cover was so fitted to the vessel, that it did straitly compress the parts of the apple; for I was desirous to know, whether the bruised apple would produce air *in vacuo*, as well as the sound one, provided his parts were narrowly conjoined: but the issue was, that in the exhausting of the receiver, the air, formed between the parts of the apple, did expel all the juice.

Nov. 21. In the first receiver the height of the mercury was five digits; in the second, three digits; in the third, none at all.

Nov. 23. In the first receiver the height of the mercury was seven; in the two others there was no change.

Dec. 7. In the first receiver the height of the mercury was 11 digits. There was no alteration in the other two.

Jan. 23. THE first receiver was now severed from his cover by the force of the air produced anew. In the two others there was no air generated.

May 20, 1679. THIS day the third receiver was found forced from his cover; whereas the second had produced no air.

THIS experiment informs us, that bruised fruits do produce less air *in vacuo* than sound ones, contrary to what happens in common air. The reason whereof may perhaps be this, that fruits bruised are very much rarefied *in vacuo*, and so the several

several principles, of which they consist, cannot act upon one another: but unbruised fruits, by reason of the entireness of their ambient skin, undergo less rarefaction.

ARTICLE XV.

Air is sometimes found unfit to produce mouldiness.

EXPERIMENT I.

July 12, 1678. I put roses into two receivers, which were to be stopped with screws. One of them contained common air uncompressed; but I intruded so much air into the other, as sustained the mercury 60 digits above its wonted height.

Aug. 2. THE roses in the common air, four days ago, were turned into a yellow colour, as if they had been withered: but those in the compressed air kept their colour very well.

Feb. 10, 1679. THE roses, in the compressed air, as yet retained their fresh colour.

THIS experiment, compared with that, which was made the year before with roses, doth inform us, that the air, at divers times, is diversly affected; so that sometimes it had a power to hinder corruption, and sometimes to promote it. See *Artic. IV. Exper. IV.*

EXPERIMENT II.

May 22. FIFTEEN days ago I included two equal quantities of flowers in two receivers; into one of them I thrust so much air, as sustained the mercury 60 digits above its wonted height; but in the other I left common air uncompressed. The flowers were tulip, and larkspurs.

SINCE that time no mouldiness appeared, except only, that 10 days ago, one half of a tulip, being cut in two, in the common air seemed somewhat mouldy: but this day, the other half of the same tulip, in compressed air, seemed to be infected with some mouldiness.

As for the flowers, some of them seemed as fresh as when they were first put in,

especially those in the common air; for in the compressed air they seemed more moist.

June 22. No more mouldiness appeared; whence we have a confirmation of the inference drawn from the former experiment, viz. that the air is sometimes unfit to produce mouldiness; seeing the year before all those kind of flowers had contracted a great deal of mouldiness.

ARTICLE XVI.

Experiments concerning the change of weight made by the beams of the sun, even in vessels sealed hermetically.

EXPERIMENT I.

Sept. 4, 1678. I exposed one drachm of minium in an open glass to the sun beams, concentrated in a burning glass, and I found, that it had lost $\frac{3}{4}$ of a grain of its weight, though much of the minium had not been touched by the solar rays.

EXPERIMENT II.

Sept. 6. I took coral, already calcined in fire, and endeavoured to calcine it further by the beams of the sun in a sealed glass, but I could scarce produce any good effect; yet the whiteness of the calx of the coral was somewhat increased.

Sept. 10. I exposed the same coral again to the sun-beams, in the same glass hermetically sealed, for two whole hours; and weighing the glass, found, that the loss of its weight was about $\frac{1}{6}$ part of a grain, since the time it was first sealed.

EXPERIMENT III.

May 23. I put calx of tin in a light glass phial, sealed hermetically, and weighed it exactly: afterwards I exposed it to the beams of the sun for a long time, by the help of a large burning-glass; then the glass, being again weighed, seemed to have lost $\frac{1}{4}$ part of a grain of its weight.

May 29. I repeated the same experiment, only using minium instead of calx of tin, and the loss of weight came to $\frac{1}{4}$ part of a grain.

May

May 30. I endeavoured to burn the same minium again; but such plenty of air was produced, that the glass broke into an hundred pieces, and made a great noise at its diffilition.

June 6. I tried the same experiment again with minium, and then $\frac{1}{4}$ part of a grain was abated of the weight.

WHEN I attempted again to burn the minium, the glass broke a second time.

July 15. I took coals made of wood, for the same experiment; but the sun did not affect them at all.

July 20. I exposed vive sulphur to the beams of the sun, after the manner before described; and though it was easily melted, and did emit many fumes, yet I found no change at all in the weight.

Aug. 1. I kept the same phial still with the flower of sulphur, and exposed it often to the fire of my burning-glass, without danger of being broken, *viz.* because sulphur produceth no air; but the fumes were emitted as at the first, and the sulphur bubbled up; but the weight seemed not to be changed.

ARTICLE XVII.

The preservation of bodies in compressed liquors.

EXPERIMENT I.

August 3, 1678. I included two apricocks in two receivers, one of which was exactly filled with raisins of the sun bruised, and with water; but in the other there were only some raisins enclosed, yet so, that the apricock was not touched, neither by the raisins, nor by the water.

Sept. 10. I took out the apricock, inclosed with the water; and whilst the air did break forth, the fruit did bubble very much: the raisins had lost almost all their taste, but the apricock had preserved a pleasant relish; yea, it seemed more pleasant than the taste of such fruits bought at that time of the year useth to be.

Feb. 10, 1678. THE apricock, inclosed without water, as yet kept its colour and

figure, only seemed to have lost its firmness.

THIS experiment informs us, that the taste of some fruits may be preserved in an infusion of raisins of the sun; at least in vessels, which are able to contain a great compression of the air.

EXPERIMENT II.

Sept. 17, 1678. I included peaches, with an infusion of raisins, in two receivers, shut with a screw.

Sept. 21. Too great a quantity of air, produced in one of my receivers, expelled some part of the liquor out of it. The other receiver as yet retained its liquor.

Sept. 25. THE receiver, out of which the liquor was expelled, lost some more hereof, so that its fifth or sixth part now seemed empty: but setting the screw, the liquor was then preserved. The other receiver was not altered.

Sept. 26. THE same receiver began again to leak and run over, so that I set the screw again.

Nov. 27. OUR receiver seemed hitherto to be shut exactly enough, but this day I opened it, and, whilst the air was getting out, the peaches bubbled very much; one of them, of the sort of those, to which the stone or kernel useth to stick, had preserved its firmness, and afforded a taste pleasant enough; but the other, being of that sort, which are of a yellow colour, was very soft, yet the taste thereof seemed to be more pleasant than the taste of the other. The liquor was very pleasant and grateful.

Dec. 28. As yet the other receiver seemed unaltered; but when I opened it; an innumerable company of bubbles did emerge from the liquor, and from the peach. The peach on one side had preserved its firmness, on the other it had lost it; but the whole peach was acceptable to the palate, yet somewhat sharp.

THIS experiment seems to teach us, that liquors may grow sour, though no spirits have evaporated from them.

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EXPERIMENT III.

Sept. 20. I included peaches, with unripe grapes, in two receivers, and filled them exactly. In the one were apples bruised to the consistency of a pultis: in the other, an infusion of raisins of the sun.

Sept. 25. THE receiver filled with pulp of apples hitherto seemed unaltered; but in the other, the air which was generated had extruded the half of the contained liquor, and impelled the mercury into the gage, to the height of 100 digits; wherefore I opened the receiver, and the peach, whilst the air was getting out, was almost reduced to the consistency of a pultis; the taste of it was pleasant enough.

I put another peach into the same receiver, and substituted a new infusion of raisins of the sun, instead of that, which was lost.

Sept. 26. THE mercury was now come to 30 digits above its wonted height.

Sept. 27. The height of the mercury was 72.

28. The height of it was 90. The liquor did work out.

30. The same height remained, but the liquor was all gone out.

Octob. 1. I now perceived, that all the air had also escaped; wherefore opening the receiver, I found the peaches very soft, yet of a pleasant taste.

Octob. 3. THE receiver filled with the pulp of apples had as yet lost nothing; but this day I perceived, that almost all the juice of the apples had run out: I opened the receiver, and found all therein very much fermented. The peach was very soft, but in taste not unpleasant.

THIS experiment informs us, that fruits cannot be long kept in pulp of apples, by reason of the great production of air; though that happens a little later in the infusion of raisins.

EXPERIMENT IV.

Sept. 23, 1678. I included peaches with crude grapes in two receivers, one of

which was exactly filled with pulp of apples, the other with unripe grapes bruised.

Octob. 1. THE receiver filled with pulp of apples seemed as yet to have received no alteration; but the other was this day found emptied of his wine: this therefore I opened, and found one of the peaches to have retained its firmness, and its taste; but the other had lost its firmness, yet retained a grateful taste.

Feb. 5, 1676. THE receiver containing the pulp of apples hitherto seemed unaltered; yet I opened it, and the great ebullition thereupon did manifest, that a mighty compression of the air was in it. The pulp of apples and the peach had kept a grateful taste, but somewhat more pungent than ordinary.

THIS experiment shews us, that juice of crude grapes cannot conveniently be used for the preservation of fruits, by reason of production of too much air.

EXPERIMENT V.

Sept. 25, 1678. I included two pears, called butter pears, in a receiver exactly filled with pulp of apples.

Sept. 28. HITHERTO I perceived no alteration in the height of the mercury.

Octob. 5. THE mercury was now come to the height of 15 digits.

Octob. 6. THE height of the mercury was 16 digits and more.

Octob. 12. THE mercury was not changed.

Octob. 20. THREE days ago the mercury was depressed, though nothing had escaped out.

Octob. 26. THIS day my receiver was found cracked, though I did not find, that the air was compressed within; but perhaps the screw was set too high. The pulp of the apples was of a very grateful taste; so were the pears, but they were very soft, and one of them seemed to incline to rottenness.

PERHAPS the crack in the receiver was the cause, why so little air was produced in this experiment.

EXPERIMENT VI.

Oct. 1, 1678. I inclosed peaches in two receivers, one of which was filled with pulp of apples, and the other with unripe grapes bruised.

Octob. 5. MUCH air was produced in the second receiver, yet some of the wine ran out. The height of the mercury was 64 digits.

Octob. 6. THE wine proceeds to run out: the height of the mercury was 70.

Octob. 8. Now the wine all run out of the receiver, and the height of the mercury was 86.

Octob. 12. THE height of the mercury abode at 86.

Octob. 18. THAT receiver, out of which all the wine was run, yet held the air very well; and the height of the mercury in it, staid at 86. The other receiver, filled with pulp of apples; had for these five last days suffered some juice to flow out.

Dec. 4. I opened the receiver filled with pulp of apples: and though all the juice was got out, yet it still contained the air, very much compressed; and many bubbles brake forth, not without some noise, after the receiver was quite opened. The peach was very soft, and of a pungent taste, like to that of inebriating wine.

Jan. 21, 1679. AFTER the effusion of the wine in the other receiver, the mercury staid in the same height. I opened the receiver; the peaches did emit many bubbles, and were wrinkled, but their colour was little changed: their sapor was most pungent, and inclining to acid.

THIS experiment doth confirm the conclusions of the former.

EXPERIMENT VII.

Octob. 4, 1678. I put peaches into three receivers; the first of which was filled with ale, or beer without hops; the second with beer hopped; the third with wine.

Octob. 5. The height of the mercury in the first receiver was 15 digits; in the second, 10; in the third, 9 digits.

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Octob. 6. The height of it in the first receiver was 25 digits; in the second, 15; in the third, 20.

Octob. 8. The height of the mercury in the first receiver, was 35 digits; in the second, 15; in the third, 20.

Octob. 12. The height in the first receiver was 63 digits; in the second, 15; in the third, 28.

15. The height of the mercury in the first receiver was 81 digits; in the second, 15; in the third, 30.

16. There was no more change perceived in any of the three receivers.

18. The mercury rather descended than ascended, in all the three receivers.

22. In the wine only, the mercury ascended or descended according to the heat and the cold.

24. The height of the mercury in the first receiver was 96 digits; in the second, 15; in the third, 20.

30. The height in the first receiver was 115 digits; in the second, 20; in the third, 30.

Novem. 3. The height in the first receiver was 117 digits; in the second 20; in the third, 30.

6. The height in the first receiver was 120 digits; in the second 31; in the third, 31.

11. The height of the mercury in the first receiver was 105 digits; in the second, 31; in the third, 28. It was cold weather.

Novem. 16. The height of the mercury was the same. The peach, which hitherto was demersed, now mounted up to the upper part of the liquor in the second receiver; all the rest staid in the bottom.

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Nov.

Novem. 25. The height in the first receiver was 140 digits; in the second, 47; in the third, 32.

Novem. 28. The height in the first receiver was 96 digits; in the second, 36; in the third, 28. It was very cold weather.

Dec. 13. The height in the first receiver was 96 digits; in the second, 47; in the third, 33. I opened the third receiver, and found the peach firm, and of a laudable colour; but it had contracted much of taste from the wine, which yet was capable of being amended by sugar, so that a very pleasant and edible dish might be made thereof. The wine also was grateful to the palate.

Dec. 30. The height of the mercury in the first receiver was 96 digits; in the second, 47. I opened the first receiver, and the peaches, which had lain till then at the bottom of the liquor, did presently emerge to the upper part thereof; they emitted many bubbles: the taste of the ale, of which they had contracted much, was made pleasant with sugar.

THIS experiment informs us, that fermented liquors may be useful for the preservation of fruits, as being unfit to produce air.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

Sept. 5, 1678. I included one peach not cut, with another cut into pieces, in a receiver; into which I after poured old wine, till it was exactly filled, and then shut it with a screw. I hoped the issue would have been, that if the wine did extract any tincture from the peach, that the cut peach would easily supply it; and so the whole peach would keep its full taste.

Nov. 20. As yet nothing seemed to be altered; but this day I perceived, that some of the wine did run out.

Nov. 30. THE third part of the wine was lost.

Decem. 8. Seeing the wine begin again to run out, and that there was little of it left, I opened the receiver, and found the peaches very much fermented, yet endued

with a grateful, but most pungent taste. The wine also was pleasant.

By this experiment, if it be compared with the third receiver in the former experiment, we may conjecture, that wine doth hinder the fermentation of peaches, if it be in a sufficient quantity; but here the wine was not sufficient, because the pieces of that peach, which was cut, did fill the whole receiver, so that no room was left for the wine, but in the interstices.

EXPERIMENT IX.

Octob. 11, 1678. I put two peaches, one whole, the other cut in pieces, into a receiver filled with hopped and fermented beer.

Octob. 12. In one night's space the mercury ascended three digits.

Oct. 15. The height of the mercury was 15 digits.

16. The height of it was 15.

18. The height of it was 12. It was very cold.

20. The height of it remained at 12.

22. Now the mercury ascended again. The cold abated.

Nov. 2. The height of the mercury was 20.

3. The mercury descended a little.

It was cold weather.

6. The height of the mercury was 28. The weather grew hotter.

8. The height of it was 33.

11. The height of the mercury was 40.

12. The height remained at 40. Some of the beer wrought out.

16. The height of it was 46.

19. The height of it was 43. But much of the beer was lost.

21. The mercury ascended not, but the beer proceeded to work out.

23. When the beer was almost all wrought out, I opened the receiver.

receiver, and found the peaches very soft, yet of a grateful taste, though they had been kept nine hours in the free air, after the receiver was opened.

N. These fruits were never quite ripe.

FROM this experiment, if it be compared with the second receiver in *Exper. VII.* it may be inferred, that beer doth hinder the fermentation of peaches, and the production of air, if it be in a sufficient quantity: but here there was but a little beer contained in the interstices, which was not able to hinder the fermentation of the peaches.

E X P E R I M E N T X.

Octob. 19, 1678. I included raw beef in three receivers; the first of which was exactly filled with stale beer, forcibly intruded, so that the mercury exceeded its wonted height by 60 digits. The second was also exactly filled with stale beer, but here there was no compression made. The third was filled partly with the beef, and partly with common air.

Octob. 20. IN the first receiver the mercury was depressed to the twentieth digit beyond its usual height, though nothing at all had escaped out. In the second also, it descended a little; but in the third, it ascended somewhat.

Octob. 26. IN the first receiver the mercury did sometimes ascend, and then descend very irregularly; in the second it began to ascend slowly two days ago; in the third it was not moved at all.

Octob. 27. ONE piece of the same beef, which was left in the air, began to have an ill smell; and also the mercury in the third receiver began to ascend. In the second it proceeded to ascend by little and little; but in the first it seemed rather to descend.

Nov. 3. THE mercury in the first receiver ascended not; in the second, the height of it was 20 digits; in the third, it was 10 digits.

Nov. 5. I opened all the receivers, and

the two first did not stink at all, yet they had contracted a smell from the beer; the flesh boiled in the same beer was found very tender, but its taste was bitter, perhaps by reason of the too great quantity of the beer. That beef, which was included with common air, when the receiver was opened, did presently affect the nostrils with a stinking smell; yet, when it was taken out, and accurately smelt to, it scarce seemed to stink. I included the same flesh in the same receiver, to try, whether new air being admitted would promote corruption.

Nov. 6. The height of the mercury was three digits.

11. The height of it was 9.

25. The height of it was 20 digits.

I opened the receiver; I found the flesh so stinking, that I was forced to throw it away.

FROM this experiment it seems to follow, that beer may be convenient for the preservation of flesh, especially if it be intruded by force into the receiver; but this compression is soon abated, because the air compressed in the same receiver is apt to enter into and pervade the pores of the beer by degrees.

E X P E R I M E N T XI.

Nov. 12. I included beef, as hardly as I was able to do it, in three receivers: into the first of them I poured water, mixed with one fortieth part of salt, which filled up all the interstices, which were left betwixt the parts of the flesh: in the second some salt water was in like sort contained; but it was intruded by force, so that the mercury in the gage ascended to 15 digits above its wonted height: into the third receiver I poured no water, and therefore those few interstices, which could not be possessed by the flesh, was left for the air.

Nov. 13. THE mercury descended in all the receivers, especially in the second, which had admitted the compressed liquor.

Nov. 18. THE two receivers, which were not compressed, did not repel the depressed mercury upward: but as for that, whose mercury had been impelled to 15 digits, and afterwards had descended most of all, it now returned almost to its former height. A piece of the same beef, being left in the air, began to have a bad smell.

Nov. 23. In the three receivers air was produced a new; but this day in the second the mercury descended three digits; the height of it was 20: in the other two it was about 16. I opened the first receiver, and the flesh was not corrupted at all.

Nov. 30. I took the flesh out of the receiver, which was put in without salt; it did not stink at all; but being boiled, was very tender and of a pleasant taste.

Dec. 6. I opened the receiver, into which I had forcibly introduced salt water. The mercury exceeded its wonted height 25 digits. The smell of the flesh did strongly affect the nostrils, yet it did not stink. The flesh put *in vacuo* sent forth many bubbles, which ceased not but a pretty while after the receiver, in which it was included, was taken out of the pneumatic engine; yet the mercury, in one hour's space, came to the height of three or four digits. Afterwards I immersed the same receiver so exhausted in hot water, and the liquor contained therein did bubble very much, though the water from which it borrowed all its heat did not boil at all; but so great a quantity of air was produced, or else had entered from without, that the receiver was quickly full. Afterwards the liquor contained therein did not bubble or boil, though it were immersed in boiling water. I took out the flesh, and found it pleasant and tender, yet less so than I expected, perhaps because it was not yet boiled enough.

THIS experiment teacheth us, that water, as well as beer, may conduce to the preservation of flesh.

EXPERIMENT XII.

Nov. 29, 1678. I inclosed oysters in four receivers: in the first the oysters

were without their shells, and filled the whole space as exactly as we could; in the second, the oysters, not taken out of their shells, were included with common air: in the third, the oysters also were included in their shells, and the remaining space of the receiver was exactly filled with salt water. All these three vessels were firmly closed with screws. The fourth receiver was exhausted of air, and it contained three oysters in their shells, and eight taken out of their shells. When the air was pumped out of this receiver, the oysters, which were taken out of their shells, did emit many bubbles, and those very great ones; but the three others underwent no sensible mutation, save that one of them did gape.

Nov. 30. In the three recipients, which were stopped with screws, the air seemed to be consumed, rather than produced; but the mercury *in vacuo* ascended a little.

Dec. 4. WHILEST the weather was cold, the mercury ascended not; but now when the cold began to abate, the height of the mercury in the first receiver was seven digits; in the second, none; in the third, three; in the fourth, three.

Dec. 5. THE height of the mercury in the first receiver was 20 digits; in the second, one digit; in the third, three; in the fourth, five.

Dec. 7. THE height of the mercury in the first receiver was 30 digits; in the second, one digit; in the third, three; in the fourth, eight. Other oysters, left at the same time in the air, had a bad smell.

Dec. 9. In the first receiver the height was 30; in the fourth, 11. The rest were not changed.

Dec. 13. THERE was no change in the three first receivers, but in the fourth the height was 14 digits.

Dec. 20. In the first receiver the height was 46 digits; in the fourth, 24; the rest were not changed.

Dec. 21. In the first receiver the height was 52 digits; in the fourth, 25: in the rest no change.

Dec.

Dec. 22. THE height of the mercury in the first receiver was 60; in the fourth, 27: no change in the rest.

Dec. 27. IN the fourth receiver the height was 29; the rest were not changed.

Jan. 1, 1679. THE oysters in the third receiver had tinged the water with a black colour.

Jan. 25. THE mercury *in vacuo* seemed still to remain almost in the same height. But this day some bubbles were formed in the turpentine, by the internal air, about the commissure of the cover with the receiver. Therefore I opened the receiver, and found the oysters very stinking; I likewise opened the other receivers, and found the oysters of a stinking smell, and turned to a kind of viscous gelly.

THIS experiment seems to inform us, that fishes do produce less air than flesh; and yet that they will be corrupted, though they are fortified against the air.

EXPERIMENT XIII.

Nov. 29, 1678. I exactly filled a glass vessel with fresh butter, not at all salted, and then stopped it with a screw. A mercurial gage was included in the same vessel.

Nov. 30. IN the night, the cold being very sharp, the butter was condensed, for the mercury came nearer to the aperture of its gage.

Dec. 2. THE mercury came nearer and nearer to the aperture of its gage, perhaps because the cold did daily increase.

Dec. 5. THE cold being abated, the mercury returned almost to its former height; part of the same butter, being left in the air, began to have a very bad smell.

Dec. 7. THE cold again returning, the mercury did also again come to the top of its gage. The butter left in the air smelt worse than before, notwithstanding, as yet, it was edible.

Dec. 24. THE butter had produced no air; being taken out of the receiver, it

was of a grateful taste, except only a little of the superficies, which was contiguous to the leather, that was spread over the cover.

FROM this experiment it follows, that butter may be kept a great while, if it be defended from the contact of the external air.

EXPERIMENT XIV.

Nov. 30, 1678. I filled two receivers with whittings; and that no air might be left in the vacant spaces, into the one I poured wine; into the other oysters, with their juice, without their shells; so that both the receivers were exactly filled. When I had afterwards closed their covers with screws, the air in the mercurial gages was compressed; but in three hours space the mercury again returned to its former mark.

Dec. 2. THE cold increasing, the mercury came nearer to the aperture of its gage in both receivers.

Dec. 4. THE cold ceasing, the mercury ascended very much in that receiver wherein the oysters were; but in the other receiver it was not moved.

Dec. 5. IN the receiver containing the oysters, the height of the mercury was 20 digits; but in the other, it was not yet returned to its wonted height.

Dec. 7. IN the receiver with oysters, the height of the mercury was 40 digits; in the other, it continued still below its wonted height.

Dec. 9. THE mercury in both receivers was changed little or nothing.

Dec. 20. WHEN the mercury was changed no more, I opened the receivers, and both of them were found to be very stinking. And this seemed new to me in this experiment, that the receiver, in which the wine was, had admitted of corruption without production of air; for hitherto all bodies, whilst they were corrupting, produced air.

EXPERIMENT XV.

Dec. 3, 1678. I put raw beef into two large receivers, with pepper and cloves;
and

and that no air might be left in the interstices, I poured in beer upon them, and no long time after I found the pressure of the air in the receivers to be abated, the mercury in the gages coming to the open ends.

Dec. 8. THE mercury did not ascend in either of the receivers. I opened the one, that I might boil the flesh; it was endued with a sweet smell, contracted from the cloves; and the liquor contained in the same receiver, before it was boiled, did smell like hippocras.

Jan. 2, 1679. I opened the other receiver, and found no air produced therein; the flesh was not at all corrupted, and when I boiled it *in vacuo*, I observed, that if a more intense fire were kindled, the air, or some spirits, did make an eruption through the stop-cock, which was fastened to the top of the receiver. The receiver, being cooled all the night, the day after was found almost quite empty of air. The flesh was very tender, and well tasted, only it was a little over-boiled, for it had been kept on the fire six full hours.

WE have a confirmation by this experiment, that beer may be useful for the preservation of flesh, especially if the bitter taste thereof be corrected by some aromatics.

EXPERIMENT XVI.

Dec. 4, 1678. I included two larks, with some beef, in a receiver, all whose spaces, unpossessed by the flesh, I filled with ale; and at the same time I filled another receiver with the same sort of beef, adding beer also, but no larks were put in with it.

Dec. 9. SOME pieces cut off from the larks, and exposed to the air, began to smell ill; but those included in the receiver, as yet had produced but little air; for the mercury was not yet come to five digits above its wonted height. In the other receiver it was not moved.

Dec. 19. In the receiver, which contained the larks, the mercury ascended no

higher; for the cover being broken, suffered the liquor to run out. Wherefore I opened the receiver, and boiled both the beef and the larks, which were not at all corrupted, but they seemed very acceptable to the palate; yea the beef had contracted a pleasant taste, partly from the larks, and partly from the beer.

Dec. 23. I opened the other receiver, and the boiled flesh seemed pleasant, yet not so pleasant as that, which was endued with a venison-like taste from the larks.

THIS experiment shews, that even tender birds may be preserved long by the help of beer or ale.

EXPERIMENT XVII.

Dec. 14. I included apples in four receivers; in the first was an whole apple, and all the spaces were filled with powdered sugar: in the second, an apple was cut in pieces, and the spaces filled with sugar, as before: in the third an apple was also cut, but the rest of the receiver was filled with water, wherewith $\frac{1}{10}$ part of sugar was mixed: in the fourth, the apple was also cut, and the spaces were likewise filled with a solution of one part sugar, and five parts of water.

Dec. 21. THIS day, in the first receiver, the mercury began a little to ascend, yet the sugar did not melt: in the second receiver all the sugar was melted, and the pieces of apple were shrivelled, also they produced much air when they were first put into the receiver. In the two other receivers the mercury began also to ascend; but in the third, the pieces of apple were very much corrupted, for their skin or rhine was taken off.

Dec. 22. AIR was produced in all the receivers, but the quantities of the air produced, did not bear the same proportion amongst themselves, as the quantities of the sugar: for in the second receiver much air was produced, but in the fourth the mercury ascended less than in the third; and besides, in the first some air was generated.

Dec.

Dec. 27. IN the three first receivers the height of the mercury was ten digits; but in the fourth it was only six digits.

Dec. 31. IN the first and second receivers the height of the mercury was 13; in the third the height was 15; in the fourth it was only nine digits.

Jan. 2, 1679. IN the first and second receivers the height of the mercury was almost 14; in the third 17; in the fourth 11.

Jan. 7. IN the second receiver the height of the mercury was 16 digits; in the third 36; in the fourth the height of it was 15; but in the first the mercury had not ascended, and something had escaped out of the receiver, and therefore I eased the screw, that I might dispose of it the better; and then the air made an escape.

Jan. 9. IN the first receiver the height was six digits; in the second 16; in the third 39; in the fourth 15.

Jan. 17. IN the first receiver the height was 13; in the second 19; in the third 56; in the fourth 17.

Jan. 30. IN the third receiver the height of the mercury was 76 digits, and the liquor brake out, and therefore I opened it, and found the fruit to have lost much of its taste, but the water had contracted it, and was pleasant enough to the palate. In the second receiver the mercury ascended no more. I opened this receiver also, and found the fruit much more pleasant in this than the other; yet much of its taste was imparted to the ambient sugar, so that it was found changed into a very good syrup.

Feb. 16. THE height of the mercury in the first receiver was 22 digits; but in the fourth 33. I opened it, and found the fruit to have lost much of its taste, and that the ambient water had got it, and was thereby turned into a pleasant drink.

Feb. 27. IN the first receiver the height of the mercury was 30 digits.

March 15. IN the first receiver the height of the mercury was not changed; but this day I found something to escape

out of the receiver, and therefore I opened it, and found the apple of a laudable colour; but the pulp was spongy, and had lost much of its taste.

THIS experiment seems to teach us, that sugar is not so fit for the preservation of fruits, as fermented liquors. See *Exper. VII.*

EXPERIMENT XVIII.

Dec. 23. I filled a glass vessel with milk, and then stopped it with a screw; and into another receiver I put a lark with milk, and stopped it close.

Dec. 24. THIS evening I perceived, that the caseous part was levered from the butyrous, in the closed receivers as well as in the milk, which, at the same time, I had left exposed to the air.

Dec. 27. I found no air produced in the receiver, which held the lark; but in the other, the mercurial gage was spoiled.

Dec. 31. THE mercury ascended in that receiver, which contained the lark; but the milk, that was left in the air at the same time, that I stopped the receivers, did stink three days ago.

Jan. 1, 1679. IN the receiver, wherein the lark was included, the height of the mercury was 10 digits.

Jan. 2. THE height of the mercury was $14\frac{1}{2}$. The milk stagnant below the butyrous part appeared of a red colour.

Jan. 4. THE height of the mercury was 19. Some white sediment was concreted in the bottom of the milk.

Jan. 9. THE height of the mercury was 29 digits.

Jan. 25. I opened both receivers, and found the lark to affect the nostrils with a strong, though no foetid smell, yet it had been kept 32 days; when it was boiled, it was of a pleasant taste. In the other receiver, the caseous part of the milk was subacid and grateful, but the butyrous part was not sour at all.

THIS experiment informs us, that sometimes milk may be used with good success for the preservation of flesh.

EXPERIMENT XIX.

Dec. 24. 1678. I put a lark into a small receiver, and poured butter upon it, melted with a slow fire, till all the spaces were exactly filled; then I closed the cover with a screw.

Dec. 27. THE mercury approached nearer to the aperture of its gage; but the butter seemed to be altered, for the lowest part of it was more yellow, and the middle more white than it seemed before the inclusion thereof: the upper part was fluid.

Jan. 5. 1679. THE mercury returned by little and little, to its wonted height.

Jan. 9. THE mercury was somewhat higher.

Jan. 28. THE mercury was little changed: I opened the receiver, and found that part of the butter, which was contiguous to the leather spread over the cover, to be white, and of a very unacceptable taste. The butter, which was more remote from the leather, was yellow and something graveolent, yet it was edible. But the lark being roasted was grateful to the palate, though it had been kept 34 days.

THIS experiment seems to inform us, that butter melted and hot is not so successfully used for the preservation of flesh.

EXPERIMENT XX.

Jan. 4. 1679. I included boiled flesh *in vacuo*, in a receiver stopped with a screw, and filled the interstices exactly with broth of the same flesh, which seemed a little too salt. Whilst I set the screw all the things in the receiver suffered a compression, and the mercury ascended to the height of six digits into the gage; but shortly after it returned to its wonted height.

Jan. 28. THE air was more and more consumed, so that the mercury now descended to eight digits below its wonted height. I opened the receiver, and found the flesh very sweet and tender. The broth also had a subacid, but a very grateful taste.

THIS experiment informs us, that flesh, after it is boiled, may be kept long without prejudice, which is a great conveniency in long voyages at sea; so that perhaps there will be no need of salted flesh. For after the raw flesh hath been kept so long in vessels stopped with screws, till experience shews, that there is no danger of its corruption, then it is to be taken out, and being perfectly boiled, is again to be included in the same receivers: and so without doubt it may be kept for a long time without salt. See *Exper.* XII.

EXPERIMENT XXI.

Jan. 30. 1679. I put raw flesh into two receivers: to the first I added pepper and cloves; in the second I mixed nothing, for I was willing to know, whether these spices would promote the production of air, or retard it.

Feb. 11. THE height of the mercury in the first receiver was three digits; in the second the height of it was below $1\frac{1}{2}$.

Feb. 12. THE height of the mercury in the first receiver was $4\frac{1}{2}$; in the second not above $1\frac{1}{2}$.

Feb. 13. IN the first receiver the height of the mercury was six digits and more; in the second it was three digits. I boiled the flesh of the first receiver, after the manner before described, and it was very pleasant and tender.

Feb. 14. THE height of the mercury in the second receiver, was five digits.

Feb. 19. THE height of the mercury in the second receiver, was eight digits.

Feb. 20. THE height of the mercury in the second receiver was 11 digits. I boiled the flesh and found it very tender, though it had staid over the fire *in balneo Mariæ* only for three quarters of an hour. I put some part of this flesh, before it was boiled, into a receiver, and filled all the spaces as exactly as I could with the same flesh, to try how long the flesh might be preserved when the air was so excluded.

Feb. 21. THE mercury ascended very little.

March

March 20. THE height of the mercury was about 16 digits. I opened the receiver, and the flesh seemed of a pleasant taste, yet inclining to corruption.

EXPERIMENT XXII.

Feb. 10. I put raw beef into three receivers: in the first, the beef was seasoned with pepper and cloves; in the second it was encompassed with salt water; in the third I put neither salt nor spice.

Feb. 19. FOUR days ago the mercury ascended in the third receiver; in the first also it began to ascend; but in the second it was not moved at all.

Feb. 21. IN the first receiver the height of the mercury was four digits and $\frac{1}{2}$; in the third 10 digits; but in the second there was no ascent at all.

Feb. 25. THE height of the mercury in the first receiver was six digits; in the third 19 digits; in the second half a digit.

Feb. 26. THIS night there was no ascension of the mercury in all the receivers. I opened the third receiver, and the flesh, after boiling, and was found very good.

THE former experiment seems to teach us, that spices do hinder the production of air; but the present experiment proves the contrary. Whence this contrariety should proceed, I know not; unless it be, because, perhaps, I had left a space large enough for the air in these receivers; but in the former experiment I filled all as exactly as I could with flesh.

March 9. THE height of the mercury in the first receiver was eight digits; in the second none.

March 12. THE height of the mercury in the first receiver was 12 digits; in the second one digit.

April 3. THE height of the mercury in the first receiver was 11 digits: but in the second it exceeded not one digit. I opened the receiver, and boiling the flesh, after my accustomed manner, I found it very tender, and of an excellent taste.

THE corollary from this experiment seems to be, that the saltness of water,

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included with flesh, doth hinder the production of air; but because there was so small a quantity of water, compared with the quantity of flesh, I do rather incline to think, that less air was produced in the second receiver, because it was more exactly filled. And indeed, if fresh water had been used instead of salt, the matter succeeds after the same sort; but the chief art to preserve flesh without salt consists herein, that all air be excluded from it, and that there be a great compression in the receiver.

ALL these experiments about the preservation of aliments, what great use they may be of for the transporting of fruits, venison, or other flesh, from places far remote to great cities, and for the affording better nourishment to mariners, I leave to the reader to judge.

ARTICLE XVIII.

Experiments concerning elixation and distillation in vacuo.

EXPERIMENT I.

Dec. 12, 1678. I put two ounces and six drachms of beef into an empty receiver, which was able to hold 22 ounces of water. Then I put it into boiling water for three hours; which being done, I exposed it to the air to be cooled for a whole night; afterwards, using my pneumatic engine, I perceived, that the air formed in the receiver could scarce sustain three digits of mercury; and so deducting from the calculation, a man may easily find, that flesh, whilst it is boiled, cannot form air enough to make an entire pressure in a receiver capable of holding a double weight of water: that is, if you include one pound of flesh in an emptied receiver, able to hold two pounds of water, it will not generate air, that can remove the cover from the receiver, unless heat do confer much to produce the effect; but I confess, that our flesh was not boiled enough.

See the description of a vessel to boil and distil in vacuo, p. 515.

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EXPERIMENT II.

Dec. 23. I inclosed three ounces of raw beef in a receiver able to hold 32 ounces of water; and when it boiled, having been long on the fire, the cover was forced from its receiver, and so suffered the vapours to pass out; but because it was presently shut again, the fire being removed, the receiver soon lost its internal pressure, so that being set again to the fire, it was a long time before it could force away the cover the second time. I tried this again and again; yea, unless the receiver had been exposed to a very strong fire, the cover could never have been removed; but if the fire be kindled enough, sweet exhalations continually pass out.

Dec. 24. THE receiver, having been cooled during the whole night, was this day, by the use of the pneumatic engine, almost wholly evacuated. Whence we seem to have a confirmation, that the divulsion of the cover is not made by that air, which can keep the form of air, but from the steams exhaling from the flesh, and subsiding again therein, if they be hindered from egress, which may easily be performed, if we use not too fierce a fire in the empty receiver, and so the loss of those sweet smelling vapours may be easily avoided.

EXPERIMENT III.

Jan. 21, 1679. I put paste, without leaven, into an exhausted receiver; and also I included another part of the same paste in another receiver, full of common air. I enclosed these two receivers in *balneo Mariæ*, stopped with a screw; and when they had staid there for three hours, having been exposed to a moderate fire, I opened the receivers: the paste in *vacuo* I found reddish, as far as the superficies; but the other had admitted water; and the paste was not boiled enough, and therefore I put both receivers again in *balneo Mariæ*, where they staid an whole night.

Jan. 22. THIS day in the morning, I found the *balneum Mariæ* quite cold; and

the paste, when it was taken out, was boiled enough, but it was covered with no crust. That, which was included in *vacuo*, was interspersed with many cavities, but it seemed too insipid; the other contained no cavities, but afforded a more pleasant taste. Both the receivers were found almost wholly emptied of air.

EXPERIMENT IV.

Feb. 3, 1679. I enclosed paste kneaded with leaven in *vacuo*; and, as soon as it had filled its receiver with factitious air, I transmitted it into that receiver, which I am accustomed to use to boil flesh in *balneo Mariæ*; but when the paste was thus removed out of one receiver into another, it pitched or sunk very much; yet when it had remained for three hours in a fervid *balneo Mariæ*, the bread made of it was interspersed with many cavities, but it was covered with no crust.

Feb. 5. I iterated the same experiment; but this time the paste was included in *vacuo*, in the same receiver, which was afterwards put in *balneo Mariæ*, and therefore there was no need to remove the paste, and expose it to the air. Hence it came to pass, that the bread made thereof was much lighter than the former.

EXPERIMENT V.

Feb. 12. I included rosemary with water in the vessel described p. 515. and when the air was pumped out, I put the vessel in *balneo arenæ*, and there came forth a water endued with a very sweet smell; yea, and some drops of essential oil, smelling very sweet also, and affected with no *empyreuma*. But when I opened the stop cock for to let in the air, the noise did so soon cease, that I judged much air was produced from the rosemary.

Feb. 13. I put the same rosemary into the same evacuated vessel, and administered a more intense fire thereunto; yet I could extract no oil, neither sweet nor stinking; and besides, the water was less fragrant than the former.

EXPERIMENT VI.

Feb. 10, 1679. I boiled one pound of flesh *in vacuo*, in the vessel described p. 515, which could contain almost four pounds of water: the upper part thereof, which was made of glass, did hold the mercurial gage, by the help whereof I perceived, that the mercury had not ascended to the height of three digits, though the flesh had boiled for three hours and more. It was not boiled enough, and its taste was ungrateful; and moreover the liquor, which was formed of the condensed vapours, afforded also an unpleasant taste.

Feb. 11. I iterated the former experiment, but this time I sprinkled the flesh with pepper and cloves; the issue was, that the mercury ascended to the height of six digits, though the flesh was boiled no longer than the other: it seemed very grateful to the palate, and the liquor formed from the vapours afforded a most pungent taste of pepper; but it had contracted nothing ungrateful from the flesh, as was done in the former experiment.

FROM these experiments made about elixation and distillation *in vacuo*, the corollary seems to be, that such vessels may be very useful for the distilling and boiling of such bodies, which do contain thin and very volatile spirits; for all things will be preserved by their help, and nothing will avolate or fly away.

ARTICLE XIX.

Concerning elixation in vessels stopped with screws, by the help whereof, even harts-horn, and the bones of fishes, and four-footed Creatures may be softened.

EXPERIMENT I.

Jan. 29. EIGHT days ago I filled a vessel, stopped with a screw, with beef and water together, and when it had continued exposed to a moderate fire, for eight or nine hours *in balneo Mariæ*, stopped also with a screw, I took the flesh out of it;

but it was boiled a great deal too much, and the taste of it was very unpleasant. Afterwards, I boiled new beef in the same vessel, and after the same manner, save that this was seasoned with pepper and cloves, and remained exposed to the fire only for three hours. The issue was, that this flesh preserved a most pleasant taste: wherefore that I might know, whether the excellency of this flesh above the other, did proceed from the spices, or from a shorter time of boiling, I boiled other flesh without spices for three hours, in the same manner: when the flesh was taken out, it was of a good taste. Whence I conjectured, that the cause of spoiling the first flesh was to be chiefly ascribed to the over-boiling: yet I think, that the spices may be convenient to correct some part of the ungrateful taste; for I left a place for the condensing of the vapours, in the top of the vessel, and found, that the liquor there formed was of an unpleasant taste; but when the flesh was seasoned with pepper and cloves, no such thing was found.

EXPERIMENT II.

Jan. 29. I boiled apples, after the same manner as I did the flesh before described; but I mixed no water with them. They were set upon a moderate fire almost for two hours. They were very soft, and of a very good taste, but some pieces, which were laid in the upper part of the receiver, where the vapours ascending from the inferior part were condensed, were found of an unpleasant taste; and also the drops, formed from the same vapours, did affect the nostrils with an ungrateful odour.

EXPERIMENT III.

Feb. 4. I inclosed flesh, with pepper and cloves, in a receiver stopped with a screw, but poured no water in to fill the interstices; only I compressed the flesh, as much as I could, and then I put the receiver *in balneo Mariæ*, already hot, and stopped it with a screw; and when it had remained there, over a moderate fire,

for a whole hour, the flesh was rather over-boiled than under-boiled: but when I opened the *balneum Mariæ*, all the water brake out of it with a great force, viz. the liquor being hot, and hitherto incarcerated, now having freedom given, at length did shew its strength.

Feb. 5. I inclosed some part of this flesh in a receiver stopped with a screw.

March 12. THE flesh, which was included five weeks ago, was this day found very good. I do not doubt, but that perfect elixation was able to contribute something to its preservation, viz. because the sundry principles of which flesh consisteth, had, whilst the heat continued, exerted their strength upon one another, far better than if the flesh, being less boiled, by reason of the great avolation of parts, had been to be removed from the fire, as it happens in ordinary coctions. And indeed, by experiments made about other bodies, I have found that elixation, the perfecter it is, doth so much the more hinder fermentation. See *Artic. XVII. Exper XII, XX.*

EXPERIMENT IV.

Feb. 10. I boiled an ox-foot or cow-heel, after the same manner as I had done the flesh above-mentioned, but I left the cow heel for four hours or more, upon a moderate fire. That time being elapsed, and the vessels unstopped, the flesh was excellently well boiled, and the bones were so soft, that they might be cut with a knife, and eaten like cheese.

Feb. 12. I repeated the same experiment, but the vessels remained exposed to the fire for twelve hours space; and though the water of the *balneum Mariæ* did every where secure the vessel demersed in it, yet the flesh had contracted a taste and a smell very *empyreumatical*; but the juice, which in the former experiment did concrete into a very firm gelly, in this latter could not be congealed at all.

By these experiments it appears, that many bones and hard tendons, which we daily cast away as unprofitable, by the

help of *balneum Mariæ*, stopped with a screw, may be converted into good nourishment.

EXPERIMENT V.

Feb. 10. I boiled a fish, after the same manner as was described above, in *balneo Mariæ* stopped with a screw, but I mixed no water therewith. The fish staid upon the fire two hours only; then the vessel being cooled and opened, the fish was found of a very good taste, and his bones were so soft, that they yielded to the pressure of one's finger, and the head of it could be eaten like its flesh. The juice of it, in a short time, did concrete into a gelly of an hard consistence.

THIS experiment is very useful for the boiling of fish, which are full of bones.

EXPERIMENT VI.

Feb. 15. I put harts-horn into a receiver, which was to be stopped with a screw, and filled the intervals with water. I included the receiver, thus stopped, in *balneo Mariæ* stopped also with a screw, and so exposed it for four hours to a moderate fire; when that time was passed and the vessels opened, the harts-horn was as soft as cheese, and the juice did soon concrete into a very firm gelly.

Feb. 17. I repeated the same experiment, but no water was included with the harts-horn, and the fire lasted six hours under the *balneum Mariæ*: when this was done, the harts-horn was found very soft, but a little juice had excreted out of it, and that did adhere to the external parts of the harts-horn in the form of drops of gelly.

THE excellency of this *balneum Mariæ* is confirmed by this experiment: for seeing harts-horn itself can be boiled by the help thereof, without the mixture of water, there is no doubt, but all fresh water, which is wont to be spent in ships to boil flesh, may be preserved for other uses of the mariners. Furthermore, if we add what we have tried about the preservation of raw flesh, and after of that,

which is boiled, (See *Exper. III*) doubts we may conceive great hope, that many inconveniencēs, which are wont to prejudice mariners, both by reason of the saltness of their meat, and the putrefaction of their water, will be almost wholly remedied and prevented. Neither let any

man object, that so many vessels, and so exactly stopp'd, are very difficult to be procur'd; for daily experience doth evince, that very many mechanical instruments, far more difficult, may, in a little time, become very easy for use, and as easily procurable.

A LETTER of Mr. BOYLE's to the learned Dr. JOHN BEAL, Fellow of the Royal Society, concerning Fresh Water made out of Sea Water, printed at the desire of the patentees, in a tract intitl'd, Salt Water sweetned, by R. FITZGERALD, London 1683, in Quarto.

S I R,

TO give you a short account (suitable to the little time I have to do it in) of the transaction, which I suppose must have given the rise to the mention made of my name in the publick gazette, I must inform you, that one of my nearest relatives, (Captain *Fitzgerald*) and some other worthy gentlemen, having acquainted his majesty, that they had an invention for making sea water sweet and wholesome, in great quantity and with small charge, and that I had examined, and did approve the water so prepared; his majesty was pleas'd, with very gracious expressions, to command me to attend him with a further and more particular information. Having readily obeyed this order, and been made acquainted with the objections the king thought fit to make against the practicableness of the invention, which (though a private man had urg'd them) I should think the most judicious, that have been fram'd against it; I humbly represent'd to him, that I look'd upon this invention as comprising two different things; a *mechanical* part, which related to the engine itself, and the use of it a ship-board, and a *physical* part, which concerns the potableness, and wholesomeness of the liquor. About the former of these I did not pretend to clear the difficulties, especially such strong ones as his majesty had propos'd, but left it to the patentees to give him satisfaction, which they were in a readiness to offer: but as to the wholesomeness of the prepared water, I had made some trials upon that liquor, which gave me no just grounds of suspecting it to be unwholesome, but several motives to believe it well conditioned, and of great use to navigators, and not to them only. And having hereupon briefly acquainted his majesty with the chief trials I had made to examine this sweetned water, he was pleas'd to look upon them as satisfactory; and vouchsafed, on that occasion, to discourse as a virtuoso of the sea, and brackish waters, and gave me some new, as well as instructive observations about them; and, in conclusion, dismiss'd the patentees with a gracious promise of his royal protection and peculiar favour.

To this short narrative it now remains, that I briefly subjoin the chief things, that perswaded me of the salubrity of this water, whence may be justly and easily infer'd the utility the publick may receive by a cheap and easy way of preparing it. First then, I consider'd, that almost all the rain water, that falls from the clouds on the
main

main ocean, and which (except perhaps in very few places in torrid climates) is unquestionably received as wholesome, must be afforded by the sea, and consequently be but sea water, freed from its salt; (according to the famous motto, *redit agmine dulci.*) Next I found, as his majesty himself had done, that the liquor was well tasted, and without any sensible brackishness; and so some of it continued for between four and five months in a large chrystal bottle, that I purposely kept unstopped, and for the most part in a south window, where it neither did, nor probably in a long time will, putrify, nor so much as appear troubled, or less transparent; during which time it was, with approbation, tasted and smelled by several learned physicians of the famous college of *London*. Thirdly, I found it laver very well, which most pump waters, and many others, that have some little (though unperceived) common salt in them, will not do. Fourthly, this water will boil pease tender, which, amongst seamen, is one of the principal signs of good water. Fifthly, in very good balances, with an instrument that I purposely caused to be made for the nice weighing of liquors, I found this water far less heavy than one would expect; for if it differed at all in weight from the like quantity of undistilled water, (I speak with an *if*, because it is far more difficult to be exact in such nice trials, than the unpractised will imagine) the difference was not considerable, being but between the 400 and 500th part of the weight of the common water; and that difference is very small, in comparison of that, which navigators and learned authors relate to be observable in natural waters, all of them good and potable. I might tell you on this occasion, that the last great duke of *Tuscany*, who was an eminent virtuoso, and the patron of the celebrated academy of *Lyncean* philosophers, is affirmed, among other prudent courses, that he took for his health, whereof he was very solicitous, to have constantly made use of distilled water for his own drinking. And I could add other things, favourable enough to the patentees water, if haste, and perhaps discretion too, did not oblige me to leave them yet unmentioned, that I may now have time to say somewhat of the main thing of all, that convinced me of the saltlessness of the water I speak of. I considered then, sixthly, that the thing, that was aimed at by those ingenious men, that, at differing times and in several countries, have attempted to make sea water sweet; and the thing, that was required, by proposing recompences, or otherwise to encourage the makers of such attempts, was to free the sea water from brackishness, without any noxious additament: so that on all sides it was taken for granted, that the only thing, that kept the sea water from being safely potable, was its brackishness; from which reflection it was natural for me to infer a conclusion very favourable to our prepared water. For having long since written a short discourse of the saltiness of the sea, I had been industrious to devise ways of comparing water in point of brackishness: and by these I found the patentees water to be more free from common salt, than waters, that are usually drank here in *London* of which I remember I shewed those gentlemen an experiment, that surprised as well as convinced them; and that, which more satisfied me myself, was a trial, that I carefully made by a way, which having mentioned, but not yet, for want of opportunity, disclosed to his majesty, the respect I owe him forbids me to impart it without his leave: on which account, I hope, you will be content to be at present assured of these two things; one, that, by this way of trial, I found what possibly you will think strange, that if there were in water so much as one grain of salt in above two ounces of water, I could readily discover it; and the other, that even by this critical examen, I could not detect so much as a thousandth part of salt in our prepared water; whereas I found, by trials purposely and carefully made, that our English sea water contained a 44th or 45th part of good dry salt, or which is all one, that 44 pints, or near so many pounds of marine water, would yield about one pound of dry common salt.

THUS,

THUS, Sir, you have a short and artless account, such as my haste will permit, and the nature of the subject requires, of my part in promoting this profitable invention, to which I own myself a great well-wisher, not out of any private interest, (though that were obligingly proffered me by the patentees) but as I think the bringing it into general use may prove a real service to mankind, upon the score of divers utilities and advantages, which yet, though I had leisure, I should think very needless to enumerate to so discerning a person as Dr. BEAL; to whom I shall therefore hasten to subscribe myself

An affectionate friend and servant,

R. BOYLE.

MEMOIRS for the NATURAL HISTORY of HUMAN BLOOD, especially the Spirit of that Liquor. With an APPENDIX.

The PREFACE introductory, addressed to the very ingenious and learned Dr. J. L.

I WILLINGLY acknowledge, that divers physicians have amply and learnedly, and some of them very eloquently, set forth the praises of the blood, and manifested how noble and excellent a liquor it is. But I must beg their pardon, if I doubt, whether their writings have not better celebrated its praises, than discovered to us its nature. For, though the laudable curiosity of the moderns has acquainted us with several things not delivered to us by the antients; yet, if I mistake not, what is generally known of human blood, is as yet imperfect enough, and consists much more of observations than experiments; being suggested far more by the phænomena, that nature herself has afforded physicians, than by trials industriously made to find what she will not, unsolicited by art, discover. I will not be so rash as to say, that to mind (as too many anatomists have done) the solid parts of the body, and overlook enquiries into the fluids, and especially the blood, were little less improper in a physician, than it would be in a vintner to be very solicitous about the structure of his cask, and neglect the consideration of the wine contained in it. But though I will not make so bold a comparison, yet, when I consider how important a part of the human body the blood is; and that, as when it is well constituted and does orderly move, it conveys nourishment, and vigour, and motion, and in a word health, to the rest of the living engine; so the mass of blood being either vitiated, or (which is very often the effect of that depravation) disorderly moved, is the seat of divers, and the cause of most diseases, whose cure consequently depends mainly upon the rectifying of the blood: when I say, I consider these things, I cannot but think it an omission, that so important a subject has not been more skilfully and industriously enquired into. But, I hope, you were not in earnest, when you solicited me to repair that omission; for, you know I have not the vanity to pretend to be a physician; and being none, I must want both the skill and many opportunities, wherewith a man, that were professedly so, would be advantaged. And though I deny not, that many years ago I propounded to some ingenious physicians a history of the fluid parts of the body, such as the humours and other juices, and also the spirits of it, and did particularly draw up a set of enquiries,

and

and make divers experiments in reference to the blood; yet those papers being since lost, and a long tract of time, and studies of a quite other nature, having made me lose the memory of most of the particulars, I find myself unable to contribute any thing considerable to your laudable design. And as all the search your commands obliged me to make after my papers, has hitherto proved fruitless, so they having been written, when I had more health, vigour, and leisure, than I now have, and when my thoughts were much more conversant with medicinal subjects; any thing, that I shall now present you about the blood, will not only be extremely short of what ought to be said, but will also be short even of what, if I mistake not, I did say of it. But yet all this is said, not to excuse me from obeying you at all, but to excuse me for obeying you so unskilfully. For, since you will have me set down what I can retrieve about human blood, you shall receive it in the following paper, which consists of four parts: the first whereof contains a set of titles (which I call of the first order, for reasons to be given you in the advertisements about them) towards the natural and medical history of human blood, which may direct those, that want better guides, what enquiries to make, and to what heads to refer what they have found by observation or trial. But because this part contains but bare titles (whose system, yet, perhaps I look upon as likely to make the usefullest part of the ensuing papers) and because I have neither leisure nor materials to answer all or most of the titles; I thought fit, in a couple of subjects, namely, the serum of human blood, which is a natural, and the spirit, which is a factitious part of it, to give some instances of what I had thoughts to do on others; and propose some example to those, that may be more unpractised in drawing up natural histories, than the general design and course of my studies of natural things permitted me to be: and what is said on these two subjects, makes the third and fourth part of these papers. As for the other titles (of the history of the blood) I contented myself, in compliance with my haste, to set down what occurred to me in the casual order, wherein they offered themselves; without scrupling to mingle here and there, among the historical notes, some experiments, that I formerly but designed as trials, that might prove luciferous, whatever the event should be. This rhapsody of my own observations makes one of the four parts, and the second in order, of what your commands embolden me to offer you at this time. And I shall be very glad to be so happy as to find, that by doing a thing, that I am wont to do so delightfully as to obey you, I have, by breaking the ice, contributed something to so noble and useful a work as the history of human blood. About which, that I may not make the porch much too great for the building, I shall add to this preamble nothing but these two advertisements; of which the first shall be, that it is not my design in these papers, to treat of my subject, as it may be considered (to borrow a school phrase) *in fieri*, which would have obliged me to trace the progress from the reception of aliments at the mouth, to the full elaboration, which were to write the history of sanguification as well as that of blood; but to treat of this liquor, as it is compleatly elaborated, and that too, not as it is formed in the vessels of a living body, but as it is extravasated, and let out by the lancet; such blood alone being that, on which I had some opportunity to make trials. And to this first advertisement I shall subjoin as the second, that in the following papers I have, as the title intimates, treated but of such human blood, as was taken from sound persons; both because, being no professed physician, I had not the opportunities of examining that of sick persons molested with particular diseases, (which yet would much conduce to a complete history of the blood;) and because the knowledge of the nature of the blood, when it is rightly conditioned, is necessary to those, that would discern, in what particulars, and how far it deviates in the sick, according to that generally received axiom,

Resum

Restum est index sui & obliqui: on which account the scheme of titles drawn up for the history of healthy blood may serve for a direction to any, that would write the history of morbid or depraved blood in any particular disease, as a pleurisy, a quartan ague, the dropsy, the scurvy, &c. For having compared the qualities and accidents of this vitiated blood, with those of the blood of sound men delivered in the fore-mentioned system of titles, it will not be difficult for a physician to find, to what heads he is to refer those things, that considerably recede from such as belong to healthy blood. And these recessions or depravations, with perhaps a few additions of some peculiarities, if any occur, will make up the history of the blood, as it is wont to be vitiated in that particular disease; one general admonition sufficing (if that itself be not unnecessary) to make the reader take notice, that in all other points the blood of persons sick of that disease is not unlike that of those, that are healthy.

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF HUMAN BLOOD.

PART I.

Containing a list of titles for the history of human blood. To which are premised some advertisements about them.

THAT the scope and meaning of the ensuing scheme of titles, (and divers others, that I drew up for differing subjects) may be the more clearly understood, I must lay down in this place some passages borrowed from the (unpublished) essay or letter I wrote to Mr. *Oldenburg*, secretary to the Royal Society, about the way of compiling a natural history. I proposed then in that tract three sorts of heads, to which the particulars, that might occur, and properly belong to the history of the subject to be treated of, whether a body, or a quality, or an operation, or a process, (that is, a progressive change) might conveniently be referred. These distinct sets of topics or enquiries I call orders, ranks, or classes; and because to each of these sets it was found by experience, that things of somewhat differing nature were to be referred, as queries more properly so called, propositions either affirmative or negative, and other heads of natural history, that are less fit to be reduced to either of the two former sorts than to be looked upon as subjects to be treated of; for this reason, I say, among others, I thought fit to comprise all these sorts of particular topics, or articles of inquiry (to use our illustrious *Verulam's* phrase) under the general and comprehensive name of titles.

THE first order or classis of these titles, I would have to consist of such, as occurred readily enough to my thoughts upon the first deliberate view, or general survey, of the subject to be treated of. For it is scarce to be expected, that at the first attempt a man should be so clear sighted, or so happy, as to pitch, or light upon as direct and compendious ways of indagation, and as good methods of digesting and delivering what is discovered, as when a studious enquiry has furnished him with better informations about the subject he is to treat of: and therefore it may suffice for the first time, that the mind do, as it were, walk round the object it is to contemplate, and view it on every side, observing what differing prospects it will that way afford, (as when a painter, or an anatomist, looks upon a man's body, first when the face and belly are towards him, then when the back and other hinder parts are so) and that it takes notice of the limits and boundaries of it, and of the most essential and considerable parts or other things that belong to it. Wherefore in the first classis of titles, one need not be

too scrupulous about the enumerating and marshalling the particulars referable to it, but may be more solicitous, that the titles should be various and comprehensive enough, than that they should be nicely methodical; and much less than that they should be accommodated to any particular hypothesis. And because, even at the first deliberate view, some (though perhaps very few) of these titles may appear considerable and fertile enough to deserve, that there should to each of them be referred two or a greater number of subordinate and more particular topics; I thought fit, for method's sake, to call the capital titles, that is, those of the first classis, primary titles, and the subordinate, secondary ones. [Of which distinction a notable instance will be met with in what is hereafter delivered, about the spirit of human blood; all the sixteen titles, together with the appendix, contained in that epistolary discourse, being secondary titles referrible to that primary one, which is the eighteenth in the first classis of the history of human blood.]

WHEN by reading, conference, meditation, and (which is here mainly to be considered) the trials suggested in the topics of the first classis or order, the naturalist has received the best and fullest information he can procure of all, that belongs to the subject he is to treat of, he may then proceed to frame another set of titles, which may be called the second; or (if no other interposed) the last order or classis of them, which, if he have been diligent and any thing prosperous, will be much more copious and better ranged than the first.

FOR now divers things will in likelihood appear to belong to the subject of the history, which were not at first taken notice of to do so, yea, perhaps were not at all thought of; and the further discovery made of the nature of the thing treated of may direct the historian to range his topics, or titles, in a better order, and more natural method, than those of the first classis. And, which is a thing of far greater moment, divers, and perhaps most, of the particular titles will appear to be of greater extent, or more comprehensive, than they were formerly conceived to be: so that a particular title may well be thought fit to be branched into many subordinate topics, or articles (which we lately called secondary titles) some one of which may perhaps comprise as many experiments, or observations, as it was at first guessed would appertain to the prime or more general title itself. And from the materials orderly drawn together under this last set or classis of titles, with some requisite changes in point of method and connexions, and some additional things, as transitions, &c. by the help, I say, of such alterations and additions, the particulars whereof the last order or classis consists, may be digested and framed into an inchoate natural history of the subject they have relation to; I said, an inchoate history, to intimate, that even after all that has been already done, I think it too probable, that the history will hereafter appear to have been rather begun than compleated; the nature of things, and the industry of skilful men, being so very fertile, that the knowledge of the subject of the history will from time to time be increased; and so the history itself may be enlarged and corrected, but will not, I fear, in many ages, if ever it be at all, be made absolutely perfect.

AND on this occasion I must add, that when the subject to be treated of is very comprehensive or very difficult, as the generation of living creatures, magnetism, fermentation, gravity, &c. it may be very useful, if not almost necessary, to interpose, between the titles of the last and those of the first classis, a set of titles, that may be called of the middle order, or classis. For the framing whereof, the historian is considerably and narrowly to resurvey the nature of the subject, and make a heedful collation of that, and of the several notices attained by his endeavours to furnish the differing titles of the first classis with a competent number of particulars. For, by this collation, there will in all likelihood be suggested to him many new topics of enquiry, and

and hints, which, added to the former, will deserve to have a new classis framed consisting of articles more copious and various than the first, and fit to be ranged in another order. It may perhaps illustrate what I have been saying, and am going to say, about the several classis of titles, if on this occasion I shall add, that a natural subject being proposed to be historically treated of, there may occur something like what happened to the *Israelities* in reference to the land of *Canaan*. For at their first entrance into it, *Joshua* and the other spies took a transient view of the country, and could bring back but an unaccurate account of it, together with a little of the most remarkable fruit: but upon a second expedition, the spies were furnished with fuller instructions, and ordered to direct their researches to the answering of a great many particular articles of enquiry; their industry to answer which produced, in methodical tables or schemes, a far more copious and distinct chorography and survey of the fruitful land of *Canaan*.

It is scarce to be expected, that at the very first time the titles, whether primary or secondary, of a natural history should be made so comprehensive, and be so skilfully bounded, as not to need to be either enlarged or reformed by second thoughts, and a further progress in the practical knowledge of the subject treated of. I therefore thought it necessary, or at least useful, to subjoin to the first edition of the titles of each of the natural histories I delineated, a mantissa or appendix, that should consist of two sorts of particulars, *viz.* Paralipomena and other Addenda; whereof the first should contain such things as may be properly referrible to some one or more of the titles, (either primary or secondary,) distinctly enumerated in the scheme of the history, and were but by haste or oversight kept from having place among them: the other consists of new particulars, that, after the history was written, were suggested by further discoveries; whether these particulars did directly belong to any of the preceding titles, or might only in a general way contribute somewhat to the knowledge, or illustration of the subject.

TITLES of the first ORDER.

For the natural history of human blood of healthy men.

1. **O**F the colours of human blood arterial and venal.
2. **O**F the taste of human blood.
3. **O**F the odours of human blood.
4. **O**F the heat of freshly emitted human blood.
5. **O**F the inflammability, and some other qualities of human blood.
6. **O**F the aerial particles naturally mixed with human blood, and also found in its distinct parts.
7. **O**F the specific gravity of human blood entire.
8. **O**F the specific gravity of the two obvious parts of human blood, the red (and fibrous) and the serous.
9. **O**F the consistence of entire human blood.
10. **O**F the disposition of human blood to concretion, and the time wherein it is performed.
11. **O**F the liquors and salts, that coagulate human blood.
12. **O**F the liquors and salts, that impede or dissolve its coagulation.
13. **O**F the liquors, &c. that preserve human blood.
14. **O**F the mixtures, that human blood may admit from aliments.
15. **O**F the spontaneous or natural analysis of human blood into a serous and a fibrous part.

16. OF the respective quantities of the serous and fibrous part of human blood.
17. OF the differences between the serous and the red part of human blood.
18. OF the artificial or chymical analysis of human blood, and first of its spirit.
19. OF the volatile salt of human blood, and its figures.
20. OF the phlegm of distilled human blood.
21. OF the two oils of human blood.
22. OF the fixt salt of human blood.
23. OF the *Terra Damnata* of human blood.
24. OF the proportion of the differing substances chymically obtained from human blood.
25. OF the fermentation or putrefaction of human blood, and its phænomena.
26. OF the mechanical uses of human blood, as in husbandry, &c.
27. OF the chymical uses of human blood.
28. OF the medicinal uses of human blood.
29. OF the difference between human blood, as it is found in persons differing in constitution and circumstantiated, as men, women, (when menstruous, and when not) children, Moors, &c.
30. OF the affinity and difference between the blood of men, and that of divers other animals, as quadrupeds, birds, fishes, and sanguineous insects.

An APPENDIX, containing,

1. PARALIPOMENA, relating to the history of human blood.
2. MISCELLANEOUS observations, experiments and enquiries about human blood: (to be added to the history of it.)

I do not think it unlikely, that some of the titles of our intended history of blood, and a greater number of the particulars, that you will meet with in it, may seem frivolous to you at the first perusal. But, perhaps, in process of time, these very things will not appear impertinent, nor be found useless: for it is a matter, as of more difficulty, so of more utility, than men are wont at first to discern, to find out, and bring into a narrow compass, a considerable number of particulars relating to one subject, and present them, as it were, at one view to the intellect to act upon. And there is many a particular experiment or observation, which, upon the first, or perhaps the second reading, may seem but slight or superfluous, which afterwards is found capable of being made good use of by those, who seriously intend, and endeavour to attain, not a maimed or a superficial, but a deep and solid knowledge of the subject of their enquiry. And to such indagators many particulars, that at first were past by unregarded, because there appeared no direct use or obvious application of them, will be found serviceable to hint new hypotheses or theories, or to illustrate them; to examine those of others, and, if they be true, to confirm them, and, if erroneous, to confute them. For, to be short, the knowledge of matters of fact cannot but be some way or other, and probably more ways than one, serviceable to a naturalist, that has sagacity and judgment to make a right use of them.

HAVING already advertised you, that the following papers treat of none but extravasated blood, since I had no other at command, to make my trials upon; I presume you will not wonder, that you find not in the scheme of titles such as these.

OF the process of sanguification, or the series of changes, that the aliment successively undergoes, from its being taken in at the mouth, till it be turned into blood.

OF the motions of the mass of blood, and particularly its circulation.

OF the chyle, lymph, and other liquors, that are supposed to enter and mingle with the blood.

WHETHER the humours, phlegm, gall, and melancholy, be really contained in the blood, as constituent parts of it.

WHETHER some other substances may not with as much reason be admitted into the composition of the blood.

THESE, as I was saying, and perhaps some other titles should have been added, if my design had reached further than to treat of blood separated from the body; and I wish that you, who by your abilities and profession are far better qualified than I for such a work, would fill up these titles, and add to them, some as preliminaries, and others as appendices, to the history of blood I have ventured to begin.

PERHAPS it may not be altogether impertinent to add, that I had once some thoughts of a designation of a natural history of other liquors of a human body, as well as the blood; I mean such as the gall, the lymph, the *Succus Pancreaticus*, spittle, urine, milk, &c. But I quickly perceived it was fit for me to resign such tasks to physicians; only I shall here subjoin, as a small specimen, a set of titles for the history of urine, which, though, by reason of its affinity in many regards to blood, it must have many titles in common with it, yet some will be differing according to the nature of the subject; which (liquor) I therefore pitch upon, because I dare own to you, and I do it not without premeditation, and having wrought on urine longer than on blood itself, that I think urine to be a liquor, which, as much despised as it is by others, deserves to be solicitously enquired into by physicians, naturalists, and upon special accounts by chymists; who will perhaps be excited to seek and hope for great matters, both for medicine and alchymy, from this liquor skilfully handled, when they consider that the phosphorus, of which I have elsewhere related so many new, and some of them surprizing, phænomena, is made, at least according to my way, of meer urine by a simple distillation.

TITLES of the first CLASSIS.

For the natural history of human urine emitted by healthy men.

1. **O**F the colours of human urine.
2. **O**F the taste of human urine.
3. **O**F the odours of human urine fresh and putrified.
4. **O**F the heat and cold of human urine.
5. **O**F the specific gravity of human urine.
6. **O**F the consistence of human urine, as to density, viscosity, &c.
7. **O**F the aerial particles contained in human urine.
8. **W**HETHER human urine is a fit liquor for fermentation properly so called.
9. **O**F the differences between fresh and stale human urine.
10. **O**F the fermentation or putrefaction of human urine, and the time it requires.
11. **O**F the spontaneous separation of parts in human urine.
12. **O**F the vulgar analysis of human urine by distillation.
13. **O**F some other ways of distilling human urine.
14. **O**F the proportion of the principles, or ingredients of human urine.
15. **O**F the spirits of human urine.
16. **O**F the phlegm of human urine.
17. **O**F the volatile salt of human urine.
18. **O**F the fixt salt of human urine.
19. **O**F the compounded salt of human urine.
20. **O**F the shining substances obtainable from human urine.
21. **O**F the salt, that is predominant in human urine.

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5. OF the specific gravity of human urine.
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7. OF the aerial particles contained in human urine.
8. WHETHER human urine is a fit liquor for fermentation properly so called.
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17. OF the volatile salt of human urine.
18. OF the fixt salt of human urine.
19. OF the compounded salt of human urine.
20. OF the shining substances obtainable from human urine.
21. OF the salt, that is predominant in human urine.

22. OF

22. Of the empyreumatical oil, or oils of urine.
23. Of the mellago, or rob of human urine, and its uses.
24. Of the *Terra Damnata* of human urine.
25. Of some accidental differences of human urine, as it is emitted in the morning, or at certain distances from meat, or after the use of certain aliments, or medicaments, as sparagus, turpentine, &c. or at differing seasons of the year, as winter, summer, &c.
26. Of the affinity of human urine with divers other bodies, especially vegetable and mineral.
27. Of the hostility of human urine with acid, &c.
28. Of the affinity and difference between urine, blood, gall, milk, &c. and divers other liquors, or juices belonging to the animal kingdom, particularly of the comparison between human urine and that of beasts.
29. Of the mechanical uses of human urine.
30. Of the chymical uses of human urine, and its parts, especially as menstruums.
31. Of the medicinal uses of human urine, external and internal.

An APPENDIX, containing

1. PARALIPOMENA relating to the history of human urine.
2. PROMISCUOUS observations, experiments, and inquiries about human urine (to be added to the History of it.)

PART II.

Containing miscellaneous experiments and observations about human blood.

IF I were furnished with all the former experiments, observations, and papers, that at several times I made and wrote about human blood, or were supplied with materials and opportunities to repair the want of them, (as possibly, God assisting, I may hereafter be,) this second part of our work would perhaps appear much less maimed, and jejune, than it will now be found. But I am so sensible of the disadvantage, that the want of those requisite helps must have brought to this rhapsody of unconnected notes, (written at differing times, and on differing occasions) that I was more than once inclined totally to omit it. And it is the importance of the subject, upon which even mean experiments may sometimes prove of good use, that keeps me from suppressing it; which I thus early give notice of, that nothing more than loose experiments, and those referrible but to some of the titles of the history of human blood, (divers others being left untouched) may in the second part of our memoirs be expected.

To the fourth (primary) Title of the HISTORY of HUMAN BLOOD.

EXPERIMENT I.

HAVING for some reasons, that need not here be mentioned, been induced to inquire of more than one person, that has used to let many men blood, whether they did not observe, that some persons found a manifest and considerable change in the heat of the blood, as it came to issue out first or last? I was answered affirmatively, and told, that several persons, that had no fever, said, that after their blood had run out a while, they found it come sensibly hotter than before; and some of them complained, that it came with a degree of heat, that was troublesome, and, as they fancied, ready to scald them.

To the same Title of the HISTORY of HUMAN BLOOD.

EXPERIMENT II.

I got a chirurgeon to put a sealed weather-glass, adjusted by the standard of *Gresham* college, into the porringer, wherein he was going to bleed a young gentlewoman, that, as the blood ran out of the open vein, it might fall upon the ball of the instrument, in which the liquor was made by the warmth to ascend a good way, but not much (if at all) nearer, than about an inch to the smaller upper ball of the thermoscope.

To the same TITLE.

EXPERIMENT III.

BUT, within less than an hour before this time, having procured a man of middle age (that seemed healthy enough, and was let blood in the same shop by the same chirurgeon) to bleed upon the same weather-glass, the tinted spirit of wine ascended above all the marks belonging to the stem, and from the top of the stem expanded itself to a considerable quantity in the small upper ball of the stem, (for the chirurgeon told me it was a fourth part of the height of the ball;) so that, though we could not determine, how high it would have risen, if the stem had been long enough, yet it seemed manifest, that the warmth, that made it rise, did considerably exceed the usual warmth of the air in the dog-days; these gaged thermoscopes being wont to be so framed, as to keep the liquor in the stem all the year long, without sinking quite into the greater ball in winter, or ascending into the lesser in summer.

WE employed also, when a young woman was blooded, a sealed thermometer, that was not gaged, but was much shorter than the other; and in this the tinted spirit was raised almost to the top, which argued no inconsiderable degree of heat.

To the same TITLE.

EXPERIMENT IV.

I know not, whether it may be worth while to take notice on this occasion, that a porringer, whereinto a healthy man had been let blood, having been brought from the chirurgeon's house to my lodging; though the blood was already coagulated, yet when I thrust into it the ball of the forementioned gaged thermoscope, it appeared to have retained warmth enough to make the spirit of wine ascend, by my guess, at least three or four fingers breadth above its former station.

To the fifth Title of the HISTORY.

SINCE human blood does, in distillation, afford a not inconsiderable quantity of oil, one may well suppose it to be a combustible body: but every one will not think it so inflammable, as, upon trial purposely made, I found it to be. For having taken a piece of human blood dried till it was almost pulverable, and held it in the flame of a candle, it would take fire, and afford a flame much like that, which excited it, burning with a crackling noise (much like that of sea-salt cast into the fire) and here and there melting. But the inflammableness of such dried blood did much better appear, when putting together four or five thoroughly kindled coals, we laid on them a piece of dried blood of the bigness of a small nutmeg, or thereabouts; for this yielded a copious and very yellow flame, and if it were seasonably and warily blown from time to time, as the effluvia degenerated into smok, it would, by these frequent re-accensions continue

to yield clear and yellow flames of no contemptible bigness (in proportion to the body that yielded them) much longer than one would expect. And during a good part of this deflagration, the blood appeared, as it were, to fry upon the coals, and in good part to melt into a black substance almost like pitch. There was also a crackling noise produced, like that, which chymists observe, when they decrepitate common salt.

THESE experiments for the substance were repeated. But I shewed another instance of the inflammableness of blood, that was somewhat surprising. For, having caused some human blood (being part of the same, that was made use of in the foregoing trials) to be so far dried, that it was reducible to fine powder, I took some of this powder, that had past through a fine sear, and casting it through the flame of a good candle, the grains, in their quick passage through it, took fire, and the powder flashed, not without noise, as if it had been rosin. This experiment was reiterated with success.

To the seventh Title of the HISTORY.

THE specific gravity of human blood is more difficult to be determined than one would readily imagine: for the gravity of blood may differ sensibly in several persons, according to their sex, age, constitution, &c. and in the same person it may be varied by the time of the year, and of the day, and by being drawn at a greater or lesser distance from a meal, and by divers other circumstances. But besides all these things, there is a mechanical difficulty, if I may so call it, that attends the work we are speaking of: for the blood begins to coagulate so soon after it is emitted, that it is scarce a practicable thing to weigh it hydrostatically, either by immersing into it a solid body heavier than itself, or by weighing the whole blood in water; the former way being opposed by the fibrous part of the blood, and the latter by the serum: and upon the same account it is somewhat (though not so much) difficult to compare with any accurateness, the weight of blood with that of water in a glass; as also for other reasons, which he, that shall considerably go about to try it, will quickly find. But however, since it may be a thing of considerable use, to have some tolerable estimate, though not an exact one, of the difference in gravity between water and human blood, by which so many parts of the body, consistent as well as fluid, are by various changes of texture constituted and nourished; I shall subjoin a trial, that this consideration invited me to make as well as I could. We took the blood of a sound man emitted all at one time, and put the whole mass of it, as well the serous as the fibrous part, into an oblong glass, of the fittest size and shape we could light on amongst several; and having suffered the blood to rest, till all was settled, and the many bubbles vanished, we carefully marked with a diamond that narrower part of the glass, which the upper surface of the blood reached to: then we weighed the glass and the blood in a very good balance, and having poured out the blood (for other uses) and washed the glass, it was filled with common water to the lately mentioned mark, and then weighed again in the same balance; afterwards the water being poured out, the glass alone was counterpoised in the same scales, and its weight being deducted from each of the two formerly mentioned weights, the water was found to have weighed ℥ix. 3vi. 50 gr. and the blood (equal to it in bulk) to have weighed ℥x. 3ij. 4 gr. so that the difference between them being 3ij. 14 gr. the blood was heavier than so much water, but about the 25th part (for I omit the fraction) of its own weight. But this experiment, for the reasons above intimated, deserves to be reiterated more than once.

To the eleventh Title of the HISTORY.

THOUGH rectified spirit of wine be a menstruum consisting of very subtle parts, and upon that account be a good dissolvent of divers vegetable substances, and, as experience

experience has assured me, of some metalline ones too, that seem to be more solid than the fibrous part of human blood; yet looking upon this body as of a very differing texture from those, I thought spirit of wine might have a very differing operation upon it. And accordingly, having separated from the serum a clot of blood, that was coagulated, but soft enough, as the fibrous part uses to be before it is dried, I kept it for divers hours in a very well dephlegmed vinous spirit, from whence I afterwards took it out as hard, as if it had been well dried by the fire.

To the nineteenth Title of the HISTORY.

EXPERIMENT I.

THE volatile salt of human blood, as fugitive as it is, is yet so fusible, that, if it be dextrously handled, one part of it may be brought to melt, and, as I have tried, even to boil, whilst the rest is flying away. The like I have tried with some other volatile salts, and I presume the observation will hold in most, if not all of them.

To the same TITLE.

EXPERIMENT II.

THOUGH the volatile salt of human blood, when it is by sublimation made white and clean, seems to be a very homogeneous substance, and according to the principles of the chymists ought to be so; yet I am apt to suspect, either that its substance is not altogether similar, or that the corpuscles, that compose it, are of sizes, if not also of shapes, differing enough. For having weighed out some grains of a resublimed salt of human blood, that seemed very pure, the odour was so strong and diffusive, that one would have expected the whole salt, being but six grains, should in a few hours evaporate away, especially being left in a south window exposed to the air in a flat piece of glass. And yet several days after, if I mistake not, seven or eight, I found the salt so little diminished, as to its sensible bulk, (for I did not think fit to weigh it) that it seemed to have wasted but little; and yet what remained had scarce any odour at all, that I (whose organs of smelling are acute enough) could well perceive, notwithstanding which, this white body retained a saline taste; and a little of it being for trial's sake put upon a solution of common sublimate in fair water, readily turned it white. So that it seemed, that the penetrant and diffusive odour of the volatile salt of blood proceeded from some particles, much more subtile and fugitive than the other parts, that composed it. But this experiment ought to be reiterated with differing quantities of salt, by which means, perhaps, a heedful observer may discover, whether the comparative fixity of the salt, that remains after the odorous particles are (at least for the most part) flown away, may not arise from their coalition with some acid corpuscles, that are wont to rove up and down in the air, and adhere to bodies disposed to admit their action.

To the same TITLE.

EXPERIMENT III.

A dram of volatile salt of human blood, sublimed in a lamp furnace, was put into as much common water, as in a narrow cylindrical glass served to cover the whole ball of our standard or gaged thermoscope; and when, after this had stood a while in the water to be brought to its temper, we put in the above-mentioned salt, the tinted spirit of wine manifestly subsided about two tenth parts of an inch, and probably would have fallen

fallen lower, if there had been more water in the vessel to make a seasonable solution of the salt, whereof a considerable part lay undissolved at the bottom.

To the same TITLE.

EXPERIMENT IV.

WHEN we perceived the liquor to subside no more, we put to it by degrees some strong spirit of nitre, till it would no longer make any manifest conflict with the dissolved salt. The event of which trial was, that the liquor in the thermoscope began presently to mount, and continued to do so as long as the conflict lasted; at the end of which, we found by measure, that it had ascended more than three inches and a half above the station it rested at when the ebullition began.

To the same TITLE.

EXPERIMENT V.

THE figuration of the volatile salt of human blood may be considered, either in regard of the single grains, or of that aggregate of them, which, when they are made to ascend to the top of the glass, may be called its sublimate. The latter of these may be best observed, when the saline exhalations first ascend and fasten themselves to the inside of the blind head, or other glass, that is set to receive them. For, though towards the end of the operation the corpuscles lie so thick and confused, as to leave no distinct figures, yet at first one may often observe the little saline concretions to lie in rows, sometimes strait enough, and sometimes more or less crooked, with differing coherencies and interferences; so that though sometimes these rows of concretions may, especially if a little befriended by the spectator's fancy, represent either trees, or their branches, or hartshorn, &c. yet these seem not to be constant representations depending upon the particular nature of human blood, but casual figurations, that depend upon several accidental causes and circumstances, such as the degree of fire employed to sublime the salt, the plenty or paucity of the ascending matter, the capacity and figure of the vessel, that receives it, besides several others not needful to be here enumerated. Nor is the salt of human blood the only volatile one, among whose elevated concretions I have observed the above named circumstances to produce diversity of configurations. But as to single grains of the volatile salt of blood, I discerned a good many of them to be finely shaped; but whether it were accidental or not, further trial must inform me. I could not, that I remember, observe these handsome figures in the concretions, that composed the sublimate, that was obtained by rectifying or elevating again the salt, that first came over, but in the grains, that in the first distillation fasten themselves to the upper part and sides of the receiver; for of these divers were of considerable bigness and solidity: and though they were not all of the same shape, some of them being not unlike to cubes, others to parallelopipeds, others to octoedrons, being almost like grains of allum; yet most of them were prettily shaped, being comprehended by planes smooth, finely figured, and aptly terminating in solid angles, as if the concretions had been cut and polished by a jeweller.

To the same TITLE.

EXPERIMENT VI.

THERE is another way, that I have used to observe the figures of the salt of blood, which was to rectify the spirit of blood, so as it may be fully satiated with the salt, whilst

whilst the liquor (in the receiver) continued yet somewhat warm. For then, setting aside this over impregnated liquor when it came to be refrigerated (which should be done very slowly) there appeared at the bottom of the vial a good number of saline concretions of differing sizes; several of which, as far as the rest would suffer me to see them were shot into crystalline plates, very smooth, and prettily figured, having, to the best of my conjecture, their broad and parallel surfaces of a hexagonal on an octagonal figure regular enough.

To the same TITLE.

EXPERIMENT VII.

ACCORDING to the hypothesis of divers learned naturalists and physicians, I supposed it would be thought considerable to know, what would happen upon putting together the volatile salt of human blood, and the spirit of nitre, with the more fugitive parts of which salt they conceive the air to be plentifully, and some of them to be vitally impregnated.

To gratify some of these philosophers, we took a dram of dry volatile salt of blood, (which we made choice of rather than spirit, because we had a mind to know what quantity of acid salt it would retain;) and having dissolved it in some distilled water, we dropped into it good spirit of nitre, till the two liquors, though they were shaken, would no longer manifestly act upon one another: the conflict being ceased, we slowly evaporated the superfluous moisture, which steamed almost all away before the saline part would coagulate. At length it came to driness, and then the middlemost part appeared in the form of thin crystals, not unlike those of saltpetre; but the rest, which was by much the greater part of the concretion, seemed to be a confused mass without any distinct figure. This mass weighed but 12 gr. more than a drachm. So that, as far as this single experiment can inform us, the volatile salt of blood may be satiated by so little as a fifth part of its weight of the saline corpuscles of spirit of nitre. This compounded salt being laid in a window, did appear to be very prone to be resolved by the moisture of the air, or, in the chymist's phrase, to run *per deliquium*. A little of the same salt being put upon a well-kindled coal, readily melted, and seemed to boil, and towards the latter end made a noise, and afforded a flame very like common nitre, save that its colour was more yellow. The strong smell, that accompanied this deflagration, was like that, which is peculiar to spirit of nitre.

To the twenty-first Title of the HISTORY.

EXPERIMENT I.

HUMAN blood, as most of the other subjects of the animal kingdom, that I have had occasion to examine, afforded by distillation in a retort an empyreumatical and very fetid oil, whose colour was almost black; but that seemed to me to proceed only from the intense and opacous redness of the liquor, since some portions of it being purposely looked on against the light, when they were spread very thin upon glass, appeared of a deep yellow, or of a reddish colour, as they chanced to lie more or less thick upon the glass.

EXPERIMENT II.

WHEN the blood was well dried, before it was committed to distillation, I found it to afford a greater quantity of oil, in proportion to the weight of the dry body, than was at first expected. Once out of a pound of not over-well dried blood, we had

near an ounce and a half of oil; and from another parcel we had it in a far greater proportion to the quantity of blood, that afforded it.

EXPERIMENT III.

I remember, that having many years ago had the curiosity to prepare blood by a very convenient digestion, and to rectify very carefully the distilled liquors, that came over, with the flame of a lamp; I obtained among other things two oils of very differing colours, the one being of a yellow or pale amber colour, and the other of a deep red. But that, which surprized even ingenious spectators, was, that though these oils were both of them afforded by the same blood, and were clear and pure enough, yet they would not only swim in distinct masses one over another, but if they were confounded, by being shaken together, would little by little separate again, as common oil and water are wont to do. Whether the difference in specific gravity between these two oils could keep them from permanently mixing, when they were mingled, as well as it kept their masses distinct before they were shaken; or whether this seeming antipathy proceeded from some particular incongruity in the textures of these liquors, I shall not now stay to dispute.

EXPERIMENT IV.

It may be of some use, especially to those, that aim at making medicinal uses of human blood; to know, that having had a suspicion, that the oil of blood might contain or conceal divers saline particles capable of being separated from it; we took a parcel of unrectified oil, and having put to it a convenient quantity of distilled water (I suppose rain-water would have done as well, though common water would not) we diligently confounded these liquors by frequent agitation, that the water might rob the oil of its separable saline corpuscles. Of which trial the event was, that after the liquors were well settled, the water (whereof we purposely forbore to employ too much) was found impregnated with saline corpuscles, that it had by dissolution obtained from the oil, by virtue of which it was endowed with a moderately brisk taste, and would readily turn syrup of violets green, and precipitate out of a solution of common sublimate a white powder, to name now no other of its resemblances to weak spirit of human blood. And this operation I the more willingly relate on this occasion, that you may be invited to try, what the like method will do on other empyreumatical oils, as of hartshorn, urine, &c. drawn from bodies; that belong to the animal kingdom.

EXPERIMENT V.

To examine a conjecture, whose grounds I cannot stay to set down, we put some unrectified oil of human blood into a concave piece of glass; and then having dropt into it as much oil of vitriol, as might by guess amount to a fourth or third part of the fetid oil, we stirred them well together with a slender piece of solid glass; by which means the mixture was made to send up good store of whitish fumes, or smoke, and grew, as was expected, considerably hot, it being indeed so hot, that though it amounted not to above a spoonful, yet I was not able, without pain and inconvenience, to hold my finger underneath that part of the glass, that contained the incalcent liquors.

EXPERIMENT VI.

It may be worth while to relate, that what I have elsewhere observed about some other empyreumatical oils, holds true in that of human blood: for having some of this liquor unrectified, though in that state it appeared gross, and dark, and muddy, yet it would readily, even in the cold, dissolve in, or mingle with highly rectified vi-
nous.

nous spirits, to which it communicated a reddish colour deep enough, agreeably to what I formerly noted touching the colour of this oil.

To the twenty-second Title of the HISTORY.

I do not remember to have met with, in any author, an account of the qualities of the fixed salt of human blood; and I know not whether any have had the curiosity to prepare it; whereat I do not much wonder, since to obtain so much as ℥j. of it, there is requisite a considerable quantity, perhaps some pounds of blood; and the calcination requires so obstinate a fire, that a man's patience may easily be tired before the operation be perfected; or by the small appearance of calcination, that the *caput mortuum* will afford him after having been kept three or four hours in the fire, he may be induced to conclude, that all the salt of blood is volatile in a good fire, and consequently, that it will yield no fixed salt.

But having by an obstinate calcination obtained between three and four drachms of this salt, I found not, that it was a fixed alcaly or a lixivate salt, but rather, as I expected, of the nature of common or sea-salt, though not without some little diversity, which discovered itself by some nice trials. But as to the main, our salt was scarce distinguishable from marine salt, for it tasted very like it; a strong solution of it did not readily (for I was not at leisure to wait long for the event) turn syrup of violets green or greenish, nor (which was more) precipitate a brick colour or brownish yellow, no more than a white powder, out of solution of sublimate. I also found by trial, that the spirit of salt did not dissolve it as an alcaly. And to these ways of examining it I added three others, that I had not known used for such a purpose, and which had all three of them such events as were expected: for having put some oil of vitriol upon a little of our dry salt, it did immediately, as I had divers times observed it to do upon common salt, corrode it with great violence, and with much foam and smoke. We also dropped a little of our fixed salt, dissolved in distilled water, upon a solution of fine silver made in *aqua fortis*, whereupon immediately ensued a precipitation of a copious white powder. And lastly, for further trial, having put some leaf gold into *aqua fortis*, which would not (as will easily be believed) work upon it; whilst it was swimming there without being so much as discoloured, I put a little of our powdered salt into the liquor, which being thereby turned into a kind of *aqua regia*, did in a trice, without the assistance of heat, totally dissolve it.

To the twenty-third Title of the HISTORY of HUMAN BLOOD.

THERE is a far greater calcination, than one would expect, required to obtain the *caput mortuum* of human blood, which affords but very little of it. For from ℥xxiv. of dried blood, (which perhaps was but the third or fourth part in weight of the entire blood, that afforded it) we could get after two days calcination but ℥ij. 9 gr. of earth. And though this were so carefully made, that it may very probably be supposed to deserve the name of *terra damnata*, better than most substances, to which chymists are wont to give that appellation; yet one may suspect, that this itself was not pure elementary earth, since it had a red colour, very like that of colcothar of vitriol.

To the twenty-fourth Title of the HISTORY.

THE quantities of the principles, or rather of the several differing substances, obtained by distillation from human blood, may seem easy, but is indeed very difficult, if at all possible, to be determined; not only because of the sometimes great disparity, as to proportion, that may be met with of the fibrous, or concremented part, to the serum, in the blood of differing persons, and even of the same persons according to differing circumstances;

cumstances; but also, because it is more difficult to distill even the dried and pulverable part of blood without addition, than those, that have not tried, will easily judge; and I doubt, that few have tried it well, because I have not met with any, that take notice of the necessity of shifting the retort, to gain as much volatile substance as may be obtained, and leave as little as may be in the *caput mortuum*. For when we distilled a somewhat considerable quantity of dried blood, though it was warily done by an expert artist, yet the same heat, that made the lower part of the blood pass in the form of exhalations into the receiver, made the matter so swell, that it heaved up to the upper part of the vessel a considerable quantity of black matter, which an ordinary distiller would have taken and thrown aside for *caput mortuum*, but which an heedful eye might easily discern to be much of the same nature with what it was, when it was first put in, though it were blackened by the ascending fumes. Wherefore we took it out, and mixing it with the remaining substance, that was less remote from the nature of a true *caput mortuum*, it was again in another retort committed to distillation, whereby we obtained more oil, &c. And perceiving, that even this seeming *caput mortuum* had at the top of it a pretty deal of matter, that I did not think sufficiently dispirited, if I may so speak, I caused it to be taken out, and distilled in a fresh retort, in which it afforded a not contemptible quantity of volatile matter.

HAVING thus prepared you not to expect any thing of accurateness, in the determination of the quantities of the differing substances obtainable even from dried human blood; that I may assist you to make some guess at it, that may approach somewhat near the truth, I will inform you, that having thus in three retorts distilled 24 ounces of dried human blood, we obtained of volatile substances, I mean spirit, together with a little phlegm, white salt, and very high coloured oil, ℥xij . and a drachm, besides several parcels of thick oil, that stuck to the retorts and the receiver, which we estimated at seven drachms more. So that the whole volatile part amounted to fourteen ounces, of which we found the oil to be about ℥ij . + ʒvj . And the clear liquor (which, though probably not without some phlegm, may deserve the name of spirit, because it was fully satiated with saline and spirituous parts) to be ℥vi + ʒij s, besides the volatile salt, which, when the spirit was drained from it, appeared white, but wet: for which reason it was not possible to determine exactly, neither how much liquor it yet retained, nor consequently how much itself weighed; but you may guess pretty near the truth, when I shall have told you, that having carefully sublimed the salt, there remained in the glass ʒij and about five grains of phlegmatic liquor, which was not judged devoid of salt, though it could not by that operation be separated; and of volatile salt in a dry form we obtained ℥j + ʒij s. The *caput mortuum* amounted to ℥vij s, and somewhat better, which being calcined for two days together, afforded not white, but only brownish red ashes, whence we obtained ʒvij and a quarter of white and fixed, but not truly lixivate, salt; and (as was lately noted to another purpose, under the next foregoing title) ʒij , and nine grains of earth. In this troublesome experiment there occurred so many necessary operations, in each of which we could scarce possibly avoid losing some, and now and then a considerable portion of the matters we handled, that if you had been present at the trials, perhaps you would not think it strange, that I should write, (as I did a little above) that I think it a very difficult thing in practice, to determine exactly the proportions of the differing substances, that may be chymically obtained, by vulgarly known operations, from a proposed parcel of human blood; especially since I think, that it is without sufficient grounds, that chymists do universally take it for granted, that in distillations carefully made, the matter, that passes into the receiver, or at least ascends, together with the remains, or *caput mortuum*, amount to just the weight, that

Of this see
the notes
referred to
the 22d title.
&c.

that the entire body had before distillation: which paradox I endeavour to make highly probable, if not certain, in another paper, that belongs not to the present collection.

P A R T III.

Containing promiscuous experiments and observations about the serum of healthy man's blood;

(Whereof the first may be referred to the sixteenth, and most of the rest to the seventeenth of the titles of the first order.)

SINCE the division, that nature herself makes of human blood, when being let out of the veins it is suffered to refrigerate and settle, is, into a fluid or serous, and a consistent or fibrous part; and since it is found, that oftentimes the former of these parts either equals or exceeds the latter in quantity; I thought it might probably much conduce to the better discovery of the nature of the blood, to make some trials upon the serum by itself; of which, it will not, I hope, be useless to give a summary account in the following promiscuous observations, that were made only upon the serum or whey of the blood of persons presumed to be sound.

1. HAVING separately weighed the serum and the consistent part of a parcel of human blood, obtained at once by a single phlebotomy, we found the latter to weigh $\text{℥iv} + 5\text{vjss}$, and the former $\text{℥iij} + 5\text{vj}$: and having made the like trial with another parcel of blood drawn from another person, the fibrous part weighed $\text{℥iv} + 3\text{v}$ and the serum four ounces: but though in both these trials the weight of serum, that appeared in one mass, was inferior to that of the fibrous part; yet it would not be safely inferred, that, absolutely speaking, the fibrous part of either of these parcels of blood exceeded the other, since we weighed only the serum, that we found in a distinct mass; whereas a multitude of serous particles may well be supposed to be lodged between the parts of the consistent mass or portion of the blood; since, besides, that it is, probably upon the account of the interspersed serosity, very soft, it affords a great deal of aqueous liquor.

2. THIS may sufficiently appear by the following experiment, which was purposely made to examine this conjecture.

WE took a porringer of blood, wherein the serum was separated from the fibrous portion, that was coagulated into one consistent mass; and having carefully poured off all the fluid part, we put the remaining mass (which weighed $\text{℥iv} + 3\text{v} + 34\text{ gr.}$) into a small head and body, and distilled it in the digestive furnace, till the matter left in the bottom of the cucurbite was quite dry, which it did appear to be long before it was so indeed. Then taking out the separated parts of this red mass, the dried portion was found to weigh but $\text{℥i} + 3\text{iij} + 34\text{ gr.}$ whereas the serous liquor, that passed into the receiver, and was limpid and aqueous without any shew of salt or oil, amounted to $\text{℥iij} + 53\text{ gr.}$

FOR further satisfaction we repeated this experiment with the fibrous part of another parcel of human blood, and found the dry mass remaining in the cucurbite, to weigh but $\text{℥j} + 3\text{vj} + 50\text{ gr.}$ whereas the plegmatick liquor distilled from it amounted to ℥vij , that is, to more than three times and a half as much as the dry part.

3. HAVING hydrostatically examined the serum of human blood, we found it heavier than common water: for a piece of red sealing-wax being suspended in a good balance by a horse-hair, was found in the air to weigh $3\text{j} + 56\text{ gr.}$ and in the water 35 gr. but did in the serum weigh but 33 gr.

THIS trial was confirmed by a more exact one, made with an instrument, that I purposely caused to be made for weighing liquors nicely, in which, when common

water

water weighed 253 grains, an equal bulk of serum weighed 302 : and because I supposed, that all serums of human blood would not be of equal specific gravity ; I thought fit to try that of the blood of another person in the same instrument, and found it to weigh two grains less, that is, 300 grains in all.

4. WE once employed some serum, that could not be (or at least was not) poured off so clear, but that it appeared of a reddish colour ; and though we filtered it through cap-paper, yet a good number of the tinging corpuscles were so thoroughly mingled with it, that the liquor passed through the filtre of a yellow colour.

5. To try whether acids would coagulate our serum, as I had found they would some other animal liquors, I dropt into it some spirit of salt, which did immediately produce with it some white concretions, that quickly subsided to the bottom, and there (when there was a pretty quantity of them) appeared like a very light and tender cheese-curd.

THE like operation, but more powerful, had oil of vitriol upon another parcel of our serum.

6. WE dropt into some of our liquor good spirit of sal-armoniac ; which, as we expected, rather made it more fluid, than did appear to coagulate it, as the acid liquors had done.

7. To try whether these precipitations did not more proceed from the coalition and texture of the acid salts and the serum, than barely from the peculiar action of those salts, as acids ; we dropt into another portion of our serum, a strong alcalifate salt, viz. oil of tartar *per deliquium*, which instantly produced a white curd, as the spirit of salt had done, but not, as it seemed to us, so copiously.

8. WE poured also upon some serum highly rectified spirit of wine, which, as we expected, did presently coagulate some part of it into a white curd, that was copious enough, but appeared much lighter than either of the former, since it would not like them subside, but kept at the top of the liquor.

9. To try also, what a salt compounded with a metal would do upon our serum, we put to it a little strong solution of sublimate, with which it presently afforded a white and curdled substance.

WE put some of our serum upon some filings of *Mars* ; but, by reason of the colour of the liquor itself, we could not satisfy ourselves about the event : and though we afterwards put another parcel of serum upon filings of the same metal, yet neither did this give us satisfaction, in regard the vial having been mislaid, was not looked upon again till many days after ; at which time the liquor was grown so thick and muddy, that we could not well discern any more of the colour, than that it was somewhat dark, but not either black or blackish : yet, by a trial or two, that we made with a little of this liquor, it seemed to have made a solution of some part of the steel ; for putting it to some fresh infusion of galls, made with water, it presently afforded a copious precipitate ; but this was so far from being inky, that it was not so much as dark coloured, but rather whitish ; at which some analogous experiment (mentioned in another treatise) that I formerly made, kept me from wondering. Yet I shall not omit to add, on this occasion, that having mixed with some of our impregnated serum a convenient quantity of infusion of galls, made in a highly rectified vinous spirit, the two liquors did not only afford a kind of coagulum, or precipitate ; but, being left together for some hours, associated into a consistent body, wherein the eye discovered no distinct liquor at all.

10. BUT expecting more clear success, by putting some of our liquor upon filings of copper, which when wrought upon by bodies, that have in them any thing of urinous salt, are wont to give a conspicuous tincture ; we accordingly found, that the metal

metal had in a very few hours discoloured the menstruum; and afterwards (the vial being left unstopped, that the air might have access to the liquor) it began by degrees to grow more and more blue, and within a day after was of a deep ceruleous colour.

11. AND, to be confirmed in our conjecture, that this tincture proceeded from some particles of volatile salt latent in the liquor, we mixed some of it with a convenient quantity of syrup of violets, and thereby obtained what we looked for; namely, a colour, which, by reason of the action of those particles upon the syrup, appeared of a fine green.

12. THE blue tincture or solution of copper (mentioned number the 10th) I thought fit to keep for some time, to try, whether the metalline particles would, as it were, embalm the serum they were dispersed through, and preserve the liquor from putrefaction: and in effect, though the vial was left unstopped in a window in my bed-chamber for many weeks, yet I (whose organs of smelling are very tender, and who did often put the vial to my nose) did not perceive the liquor to grow at all stinking.

13. ABOUT 3ij, by guess, of serum of human blood, were left in an unstopped vial (which they more than half filled) for twenty days or three weeks; and though the glass usually stood in a south window, and in the month of *July*, yet, somewhat to our wonder, the serum did not by the smell appear putrified, and yet had let fall a considerable quantity of whitish sediment: but within three or four days after this, the liquor was found to stink offensively. Wherefore, we tried, whether this more than incipient putrefaction was accompanied with any acidity; but could not perceive, that it was, since it would not so much as take off the blue colour of the infusion of *lignum nephriticum*, or our *succedaneum*, to it: when it was in this state, we put it to distil in a low cucurbite with a gentle fire, to try, if from this fætid liquor, as is usual from putrified urine, the spirit would first ascend; but we found the liquor, that first came over, to be so little spirituous, or saline, that it would not in an hour's time turn syrup of violets green: but yet we judged it not quite destitute of volatile alkali, because having let fall some of it into a good solution of sublimate, it presently made a white precipitate.

14. WE took some ounces of serum of human blood, filtered through cap-paper to free it from all concreted substance; and having committed it to distillation, in a small retort placed in a sand furnace, we obtained only a few large drops of a darkish red oil, some of which subsided to the bottom of the other liquor, but the greater part swam upon it. We obtained in this first distillation no volatile salt in a dry form, but after a pretty deal of insipid phlegm had been drawn off, there came over a good proportion of spirituous liquor, which smelled almost like the spirit of blood, and contained a pretty deal of volatile alkali; so that it would readily turn syrup of violets green, and make a white precipitate in the solution of sublimate, and a great ebullition with spirit of salt: this spirit being rectified in a small head and body, there was left, in the bottom of the glass, a greater quantity than was expected of a substance thick like honey, and which was for the most part of a dark red, and seemed to contain more oil than appeared upon the first distillation. The liquor, that came over the helm, seemed more pure, but not very much stronger than the first spirit. Yet, having put it into a glass egg with a slender neck, and given the vessel a convenient situation in hot sand, we obtained a volatile alkali, that sublimed into the neck in the form of a white salt. If this trial be reiterated with a success like that I have now recited, it will seem to argue, that the serous, or fluid part of the blood, affords the same elementary principles, or similar substances, both as to number and kind, that the fibrous and consistent part does, though not as to quantity; that of the oil and dry salt being

being less in a determinate portion of serum, than they would be in a like quantity or weight of the concreted part of the blood.

HAVING long since observed, that though the spirituous parts of man's urine are wont to require, that the liquor be digested or putrified about six weeks, to loosen them from the more sluggish parts, and make them ascend before the phlegm; yet if fresh urine be poured upon a due proportion of quicklime, a good part of the spirit will presently be untied, and made capable of ascending in distillation; I thought it worth while to try, what would be afforded by the serum of human blood, if it were put upon quicklime, before we distilled it. In pursuit of this enquiry, we put these two bodies together, upon whose commixture there ensued (but not presently) a sensible, but transient heat. This compounded body, being committed to distillation, afforded first a kind of phlegm in a gentle fire, and then in a stronger, a moderate quantity of liquor, that was thought to smell manifestly of the lime, but had not a brisk taste. This was accompanied with somewhat more of high coloured and fætid oil, than was expected. The other liquor being slowly rectified, the spirit, that first came over, had a strong and piercing smell, but less rank than that of human blood, drawn the ordinary way. Its taste also was not only quick, but somewhat fiery. Being dropt upon syrup of violets, it presently turned it green; with a strong solution of sublimate in water, and another of quicksilver in aqua-fortis, it immediately made two white precipitates; and being mingled with some good spirit of sea-salt, though, upon their being confounded, there appeared a thick, but whitish smoke, there was not produced any visible conflict or bubbles, yet the colour of the spirit of salt, appeared much heightened by this operation. But here I must, though not in due place, take notice, that having put the lately mentioned mixture of the spirit of serum and of salt, to evaporate, that we might observe, whether it would afford a salt much figured like sal-armoniac, we found, that it did not; but that the colour produced in the mixture, whilst fluid, was so heightened in the concretion we speak of, that it appeared of a blood-red colour; but for the shape, it was so confused, that we could not reduce it to any known kind of salt. But all which phenomena, this spirit of the serous part of blood seems to be very near of kin to that of the concreted part of blood, elsewhere by us described. Because quicklime is wont to be suspected by physicians, by reason of its caustick fretting quality, I thought fit to try, whether the fixed salt of pot-ashes (which is a lixivate alkali as well as lime) being substituted in the room of it, would in distillation have the same effect upon serum of human blood. Wherefore, to four parts of the liquor we put one of the salt, and having distilled them slowly in a glass head and body, we obtained good store of a liquor, which was not judged any thing near so strong, as that formerly mentioned to have been drawn off from quicklime: and having put this weak liquor, afforded by our serum, to rectify with a gentle heat, we found, that even the two spoonfuls of liquor, that first ascended, were not spirituous, but very phlegmatick; nor would it well turn syrup of violets green, though it afforded some little and light precipitate, when it was put upon a solution of sublimate.

THIS may seem somewhat the more remarkable, if I add, on this occasion, an experiment, that may be sometimes of practical use, especially in physick, and may afford much light to those that are studious, to know the nature and preparations of so very useful a subject, as human urine. We took three parts of fresh urine, (that was not many hours old) and having put into it one part of salt of pot-ashes, (because that was at hand, for else I presume the fixt salt of tartar, or even of common wood-ashes, would have served the turn) and having slowly distilled them in a head and body, there first ascended a liquor spirituous enough; which being set aside, we continued the distil-
lation

lation (after having poured the mixture into a retort) till the remains appeared dry. In this operation it is to be noted, that we obtained not one drop of oil, and that (perhaps for that reason) this spirit of urine was not near so fætid, as, being made the common way, it is wont to be : and that the liquor, that came over toward the latter end of the distillation, was so unlike that, which the serum of blood afforded us, that it was not only considerably strong, and manifestly stronger than that, which first ascended, but had a penetrating and fiery taste, which left a lasting impression upon the tongue ; and, with good spirit of salt, made a notable ebullition, which I remember not, that upon trials purposely made, I found the spirit of urine, drawn from quicklime, to have done. And whereas, with this last mentioned liquor, I never (that I remember) found any volatile salt to ascend (in a dry form ;) in the operation made by the help of salt of pot-ashes, there came up, without rectification, divers grains of volatile salt, one of which was chrySTALLINE, and considerably large ; so that we could, with pleasure, observe it to be like a plate curiously figured : but because of some lesser corns of salt, that hid one part of it, I could not clearly discern, whether it were hexagonal or octagonal.

BUT here I must not conceal, that having, for greater certainty, reiterated this experiment, it had not so good success ; the liquor, that came over, appearing much more phlegmatick than that, which the former trial afforded us ; though we both times employed salt of pot-ashes taken out of the same vessel, and the urine of the same person. So that what the reason of the difference may be, does not yet occur to me ; but perhaps will, upon further trials : yet this liquor, that appeared so weak at its first coming over, being rectified *per se*, afforded more than was expected of a brisk saline spirit, from which we easily obtained a pretty quantity (in proportion to the liquor) of volatile salt in a dry form, and of a very white colour.

WE took between two and three ounces of serum of human blood ; and having put it into a bolthead, capable, by our guess, of containing about four times as much liquor, and having sealed the glais hermetically, set it by, as well to observe, whether any manifest changes would appear in it within a week or two, (of which none in that time occurred to us) as for some other purposes, that may be guessed at by the following account of the event.

1. AFTER we had kept the liquor sealed up above a whole year, it did not appear to be at all coagulated, nor to have let fall any manifest residue ; but seemed to be as fluid as when it was first put in.

2. IT did not appear to have bred any the least worm or maggot. And this I the rather take notice of, because it agrees very well with what I have elsewhere alledged, in disfavours of their opinion, that think all the fluid and soft parts of human bodies do naturally, and of themselves, in no long time, breed worms, or some such insects ; which, for my part, I never observed to be generated in blood itself, though very long kept and putrified, provided it were fresh enough when put into the glass, and, by an exact closure, kept from being any way blown upon by flies, or impregnated by seminal particles, that may be unsuspectedly conveyed to it by the air.

3. NOR did there appear to the eye any mother, as they call it, or recrementitious substance, that is supposed, in liquors, always to accompany and betoken putrefaction.

4. ONE of my designs, in our experiment, being to try, whether the serum would, by the mutual action of the parts upon one another, or by that of some catholick permeating fluid, afford so much air, as would either crack, or more violently break the glass ; the tip, at which the bolt-head was sealed, was warily taken off with a key,

whereupon there rushed out a pretty deal of air, with a considerable noise: and I doubted not that this generated (or at least extricated) air had been considerably compressed, whilst it was pent up; when casting my eyes on the liquor, to discover what change this eruption had made there, I perceived, on the upper surface of the liquor, a multitude of small bubbles, such as are wont to be seen in drink a little bottled, upon the opening of the vessel; and also in divers liquors, after the air has been pent up with them, when the glasses come to be unstopped. And I also the less wondered at this, because I remembered what formerly happened to me, after having sealed up some sheep's blood, and kept it for several days in a gentle warmth; for, though the glass it was inclosed in, were far larger than this, that contained our serum; yet, after some time, when no body offered any violence to it, or was near enough to stir it, it was suddenly blown up with a surprising noise, by the aerial or elastical corpuscles, that were produced, or set free by the putrefaction we discovered to have been made.

5. THE smell of our serum was strong, but not cadaverous, but rather resembled that of the tincture of sulphur, made with salt of tartar and spirit of wine, or of some such sulphureous preparation.

6. ONE of the chief aims I had in keeping our serum so long sealed up, was to try, whether by a digestion, or putrefaction for some months, the serum of blood would, like urine, (which is commonly thought to be a liquor made of it, and of very near cognation to it) afford a saline spirit, or an alcali volatile enough to ascend before the phlegm. And, in pursuit of this enquiry, we committed our serum to distillation in a small glass head and body, and in a digestive furnace, being careful to take the first spoonful, or thereabouts, of spirit, that passed into the receiver: but we found, that, though this liquor at first smelt strong enough, (I say at first, because the odour soon after grew fainter) yet the taste was not at all brisk nor spirituous, like that wont to be obtained by distillation from putrified urine; nor did our liquor, being dropped into a little syrup of violets, give it presently any manifest greenness. But yet, because I found it not insipid, I thought fit to examine it a little more critically, and dropt a convenient quantity of it into a clear and saturate solution of sublimate in common water, by which means there was produced a whiteness like that (but not near so dense) which spirit of urine, or volatile salt would have produced. And by this I was invited to mix some of it with a little syrup of violets, upon a piece of white paper, and also to wet with the same (distilled) liquor some small fillings of copper spread upon another piece of paper, and to leave them both all night in the open air, that the liquor might have time enough to work upon the syrup and the metal: by which course we found, in the morning, that the former was turned green, and the latter was so far dissolved, as to leave a large blueish stain upon the paper. I mention these things the rather, because, according to the opinion of some learned men, this degenerated serum should have been of an acid, not an alcalisate nature.

7. THE near cognation, that, according to some learned physicians, there is between milk, and the more serous part of the blood, invited me to try, whether, (according to an experiment made on new milk, that I have heard ascribed to the famous *Sylvius*) our serum of human blood would grow red, by being kept continually stirring over a moderate heat, with a competent quantity of salt of tartar; but in two trials, we found not any redness produced, though one of them was made in a vessel of refined silver, with an eighth part of the salt in reference to the serum, which was the same proportion, that we had used, when we made the experiment succeed well in milk.

8. PERHAPS it will be needless to take notice, that the serum of human blood will, by heat, be in a short time coagulated into a kind of gelly, or rather, as far as I have observed,

observed, into a substance like a custard, as to consistence, though not as to colour. And therefore I shall now add, that having found, that acid spirits also would coagulate serum, I thought fit to try, whether alcalies would not oppose, or retard its coagulation. Of which trial the event was, that having put spirit of human blood to a convenient quantity of serum, and caused them to be kept stirring over a very gentle fire; though the volatile alcali did not hinder the coagulation, yet it seemed to make it both more slow, and more soft or lax: and this effect was yet more considerable, when we tried another parcel of serum with salt of tartar, instead of spirit of blood.

P A R T IV.

Containing the history of the spirit of human blood, begun in an epistolary discourse to the very learned Dr. J. L.

S I R,

HAVING, by want of leisure and opportunity, been reduced to treat of the history of human blood in so imperfect and desultory a way, that several of the titles have been left wholly untouched, and others have been but transiently and jejune treated of; I thought fit to handle more fully some one of the primary titles, and branch it into its several subordinate or secondary titles: and for this purpose I pitched upon the spirit of human blood, being willing, on so noble a subject, to give a specimen of what might have been done to illustrate the other primary titles, if some requisites had not been wanting. And since the spirit of human blood is, at least, one of the noblest of urinous or volatile alcalies, so that most of the things, that shall be taught concerning that, may, with some little variation, be applied to spirit of urine, hartshorn, sal-armoniac, foot, &c. I thought fit to lay down a scheme of subordinate titles, whose heads (which amount to above half the number of the primary ones, that belong to the whole history of blood) should be so numerous and comprehensive, that this paper may pass not only for an example, but for a kind of summary of the history of volatile salts in general, and so supply the loss of a paper, that I once begun on that subject.

AND now I should, without further preamble, proceed to the intended history, but that I think it requisite to premise three or four short advertisements: whereof the first shall be, that the spirit I employed in making the following trials and observations, was drawn from human blood without any sand, clay, or other additament, (save perhaps, that, by a mistake, that could do no mischief, a small parcel had some vinous spirit put to it to preserve it a while) and that the first distillations (which I so call to distinguish them from rectifications) were performed in retorts placed in sand, (and not with a naked fire) care being taken, that the vessels were not too much filled, because blood [N. B.] if it be not well dried, is apt to swell much, and pass into the neck of the retort, if not into the receiver.

SECONDLY, I desire to give notice, that the blood we made use of, was drawn from persons, that parted with it out of custom, or for prevention; which was the main reason, why I was so scantily furnished with blood, that of sound persons being, in the place I resided in, very difficult to be procured in quantity, and that of sick persons being unfit for my purpose.

THIRDLY, It may not be amiss, for obviating of some scruples, to advertise, that there being so great a cognation between the spirit and volatile salt of human blood, that, as we shall see anon, it is probable, that the latter is little other than the spirit in a dry form, and the former than the salt united with phlegm enough to give it a liquid form;

form; it is presumed, that it may be allowable to consider the volatile salt of blood as its dry spirit.

LASTLY, To the three foregoing it will be fit to add this fourth advertisement, that though, in comparison of the particulars thrown in to the second and third part of those memoirs, the ensuing fourth part is methodically written; yet you are not to expect to find in the method any thing of accurateness; since the experiments and observations, whereof this fourth part consists, were written in loose papers at distant times and on differing occasions; and, because of this and of my haste, will be found, without any regular dependence or connexion, referred to the titles, under which they are ranged, in that order, or rather disorder, wherein they chanced to come to hand.

A LIST of the secondary Titles concerning the SPIRIT of HUMAN BLOOD.

a.

1. WHETHER human blood may be so ordered by fermentation or putrefaction, as that, in distillation, a spirit, either urinous or vinous, may ascend before the phlegm?

b.

2. WHETHER spirit of human blood be really any thing but the volatile salt and phlegm well commixed?

c.

3. OF the species of saline bodies to which spirit of human blood is to be referred.

d.

4. WHETHER spirit of human blood be differing from spirit of urine, and other spirits, that are called volatile alcalies?.

e.

5. OF the quantity of spirit contained in human blood: whether accompanied with its serum or dried?

f.

6. OF the specifick gravity of spirit of human blood.

g.

7. OF the odour, taste, colour, transparence and consistence of the spirit of human blood.

h.

8. OF the dissolutive power of the spirit of human blood.

i.

9. OF the tinctures, that may be drawn with spirit of human blood.

k.

10. OF the coagulating power of the spirit of human blood.

l.

11. OF the precipitating power of the spirit of human blood.

m.

12. OF the affinity between spirit of human blood and some chymical oils and vinous spirits.

n.

13. OF the relation between spirit of human blood and the air.

o.

14. OF the hostility of the spirit of human blood with acids, whether they be in the form of liquors or of fumes.

p.

15. OF the medicinal vertues of spirit of human blood outwardly applied.

16. OF

^{9.}
16. Of the medicinal vertues of spirit of human blood inwardly used in pleurifies, head-achs, coughs, fevers, scurvies, cachexies, dropfies, fits of the mother, &c.
App. AN appendix, containing Paralipomena, and promiscuous experiments and observations concerning the spirit of human blood.

The first (secondary) T I T L E.

Whether human blood may be so ordered by fermentation or putrefaction, as that, in distillation, a spirit, either urinous or vinous, may ascend before the phlegm?

IT is not unlike, that you will think the question proposed in this title more curious than necessary; and I shall not quarrel with you, if you do so. But that you may not think it groundless, I desire two things may be considered; first, how ordinary it is, especially since the learned Dr. *Willis's* writings came to be applauded, to look upon fevers as inordinate fermentations of the blood: and the second, that though human urine, which has a great cognation with the human blood, will not, whilst fresh, afford by distillation a spirit or volatile salt, till the phlegm be first drawn off, and then requires a good fire to make it rise; yet, if it be kept for a competent time (which usually amounts to divers weeks) in fermentation, (as chymists commonly call that, which, in this case, I would rather stile putrefaction,) the spirit and volatile salt will with a gentle fire ascend, before much, if not before any phlegm.

THESE two considerations, as I was intimating, may keep that from being thought a groundless question, which has been above proposed. And, though I more incline to the negative than to the affirmative, at least as to the first part or member of the question, yet I thought it well deserved to be determined, if it may be, by experiment; but for want of a sufficient quantity of blood, and good luck in making trials with that I could procure, I must suspend my judgment, till further experience resolve me one way or other. By what I have yet tried, I am not much encouraged to expect from human blood a vinous or ardent spirit, though that be the usual product of fermentation in liquors: and I am the less encouraged to expect this, because I am not sure, that there is any fermentation, truly and properly so called, in human blood, either within or out of the body; having never yet found any thing in the blood or urine, that convinced me, that either of those liquors would afford an ardent spirit. I remember I once kept human blood for a year together in a glass very carefully, and, if I mistake not, hermetically closed, with a purpose to try, whether any spirits would first ascend: but when the blood came to be exposed to the contact of the air, the stink was so great and offensive, especially to some ladies, that lived in the house, that we were fain to have it hastily thrown away. Another time, having caused some sheep's blood to be digested in a pretty large vial, hermetically sealed, after it had continued a good while in the digestive furnace, upon a sudden, though no body touched it, it broke with a surprizing noise, and blew off the long neck of the vial. Two or three almost like mischances I had with attempts made on human blood, which I was the more troubled at, because I thought it not very improbable, that by putrefaction the texture of blood, like that of urine, may be so loosened or otherwise altered, that a volatile salt or spirit may, in a slow distillation, ascend before the phlegm. But, as I said before, it is only from further experience, that I must expect satisfaction in these enquiries.

YET in the mean time I shall add on this occasion, that the ill success I had in my attempts to draw a spirit from entire portions of blood, without separating any part from it, or adding any foreign body to it, did not hinder, but rather invite, me to try, whether

whether I could not make some experiment, of affinity to those above-mentioned, upon whose success I might ground some kind of conjecture, what would have been the events of those trials in case they had not miscarried. Wherefore looking upon the serum of blood as the likeliest part of it, as well as much more likely than the entire blood to concur to a fermentation properly so called; we took some ounces of this serum, and put to it about a fourth part of raisins (of the sun) well bruised, and kept them in a glass, whereof a considerable part was left empty; and having closed the vessel, we kept it in a warm room for many days. The event of this trial was, that within few days the raisins began to emerge, and afterwards continued to float; and there was produced or extricated a considerable quantity of permanent and springy air, as by a certain contrivance described in another paper, did manifestly appear: both which phænomena seemed plainly to argue, that there had been some degree of fermentation produced in the mixture. But yet when we came to distill the thus altered serum, though it did not stink, as if it had putrified it would have done, yet the liquor, that first ascended, even with a gentle heat, did not taste or smell like a vinous spirit, though it was differing from meer phlegm. If I had been furnished with a greater quantity of serum, perhaps the reiterated experiment would have given more satisfaction; and, in making it, I would have been careful to observe, whether the produced fermentation might not be suspected to proceed, not so much from the whole serum, as such, as from the aqueous particles, in distinction from the others, that concurred with them to compose it.

As for the second question intimated in the present first title, namely, whether blood will, by digestion or putrefaction, be so opened, as that, when it is distilled, the spirit will ascend before the phlegm? I likewise endeavour to try that, with the serous part of the blood poured off from the fibrous or coagulated, as supposing it in this separated state more proper for our trial than the entire blood: and having kept a pretty quantity of this serum above four times as long, as I had observed to have been sufficient to make urine in distillation part with its spirit before its phlegm, we distilled this long kept liquor with a very gentle fire, that few, or none, besides the fugitive parts might at first ascend. But we found the liquor, that came over, to have but little strength, either as to smell or taste, nor would it readily turn syrup of violets green: I say readily, because after they had been some hours together it would; but yet as a volatile alcali, it would presently turn a strong solution, made of common sublimate in fair water, into a white opacous, and almost milky liquor.

The second (secondary) T I T L E.

Whether spirit of human blood be really any thing but the volatile salt and phlegm well commixed?

SINCE the question moved in this title may be also propounded concerning other alcalifate spirits, as those of urine, hartshorn, foot, &c. it is upon that account the more important: and for this reason, as well as for the difficulty of determining it by cogent proofs, I may think myself obliged to forbear taking upon me to decide it peremptorily, till further experience shall have furnished me with fuller information. So that for the present, about this difficult question, I shall venture to say no more than this; that what has hitherto occurred to me, inclines me to think, that the spirit of human blood is totally composed of volatile salt and phlegm; if by phlegm we understand, not simple or elementary water, but a liquor, that, although it pass among chymists for phlegm, and deserves that name better than any other liquor afforded by human blood, yet in the strictest acception it is not that; for when the spirit,

spirit, volatile salt, and oil, are separated from it by distillation and sublimation, as far as they are wont to be in chymical preparations of volatile alcalies, the remaining liquor, which passes for phlegm, will yet be impregnated with some particles of oil, and perhaps also with some few of volatile salt, that are too minute to be distinguishable by the naked eye. But whether frequent rectifications may so accurately separate these heterogeneous parts, as perfectly to free the aqueous ones from them, and thereby reduce the phlegm to simple or elementary water, I am content, at least till I shall have had sufficient quantities of distilled blood for making the requisite trials, to leave as a problem: and this the rather, because I am not sure, but that, by frequent distillations, some particles of the fire may, from time to time, substantially be associated with those of the liquor; nor yet, but that, even in the first distillation of human blood, the fire may have either separated or produced a liquor, that, though almost strengthless, and not justly referrible to either of the received principles or ingredients, oil, salt and earth, is not yet phlegm truly so called, but a liquor as yet anonymous; as I have elsewhere shewn, that woods, and many other bodies, afford by distillation a liquor, that is not an oil, and is neither acid nor alcalisate, and yet is no true phlegm, but, as I have there stiled it, an adiaphorous spirit.

It will probably be thought material, if on this occasion I add, in favour of the opinion or conjecture, to which I lately owned myself inclined, that considering, that the knowledge of the composition of a body may be sometimes as well, if not better, investigated by the way of generating or producing of it, as by that of analysing or resolving it; I made for trial's sake the following experiment. We dissolved in distilled water as much volatile salt of human blood, as the liquor would take up; and then having carefully distilled it in a conveniently shaped vessel, with a regulated degree of heat, the distillation afforded us such a liquor as was desired; namely, one, that by smell, taste, and divers operations, appeared to be a good brisk spirit of human blood. This experiment, for the main, was made another time with the like success.

The third (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the species of saline bodies, to which the spirit of human blood is to be referred.

I need not spend much time to declare a thing, that is now so well known to many physicians and chymists, of this, and some of the neighbouring countries, as it is, that, of late years, saline spirits, obtained by distillation, have been observed to be of two sorts: but because there are many, even of the learned, especially in the remoter parts of *Europe*, that are not well acquainted with this distinction; lest some, to whom you may shew this paper, should chance to be of that number, it may not be amiss to intimate in two or three words, that the saline spirits, that ascend in distillation, are some of them acid in taste, as spirit of nitre, spirit of vitriol, &c. and some others have tastes very differing from that, being rather somewhat like common salt, or like lixivate salts. And the difference is greater in their operations, than in their tastes; for being put together, there will presently ensue a manifest conflict between them, and usually (for I have not found it to hold in all cases) the one will precipitate the bodies, that the other hath dissolved. And it is necessary to add, that among the salts called alcalies, some are fixed in considerable degrees of fire, and others not; for which reason, divers modern spagyrist and physicians, that take acid and alcali for the true principles of mixed bodies, call the one fixed and the other volatile alcalies. And, though I have elsewhere questioned this doctrine, and given my reasons, why I approve neither it nor the appellations newly mentioned, and often call the salts, made by combustion, simply alcalies or else lixivate salts, and those, that ascend, sometimes uri-

nous, and sometimes volatile salts and spirits; yet, since the names of fixt alcalies and volatile ones are much now in request, I shall comply with custom, and oftentimes (though not always) make use of them in the sense of those, that employ them.

THESE things being premised, I may now seasonably propound this important question; to what species of saline bodies the spirit of human blood is to be referred? I say, of saline bodies, because, though the spirit of blood be a liquor, yet its more efficacious operations seem almost (if not more than almost) totally to depend upon the fugitive salt wherewith it abounds. The ground of the foregoing question may be twofold; the one, that I have elsewhere proved against the general supposition, that some volatile salts, that arise even in a dry form, may not be of an alcalifate, but acid nature; and the other, that not only *Helmont* and his disciples, but a great part of the modern chymists, and physicians too, ascribe digestion to an acid ferment or menstruum in the stomach; whence, one may suspect, that store of acid corpuscles may pass into the mass of blood, and impregnate it, as I elsewhere shew, that particles of differing natures may be even by the senses discovered to do.

BUT, notwithstanding this, I shall not scruple to say, in answer to the propounded question, that, as far as I have hitherto been able to observe, the spirit of human blood is manifestly referrible to that classis, that many call volatile alcalies (and I often call urinous spirits;) for I find spirit of blood capable of doing those things, the performance of which has been looked on, almost ever since I publickly proposed them, as the touchstone to know volatile alcalies, and distinguish them from the other sorts of saline bodies. For the spirit of human blood will make a great conflict with divers acid spirits, as spirit of salt, aqua-fortis, &c. It will immediately turn syrup of violets from its blue colour into a fair green; it will precipitate a solution of sublimate in common water into a white powder; and, in short, I found it to perform those other things, that may be expected from volatile alcalies, as such, as often as I had occasion to make trial of it, sometimes on one body, and sometimes on another.

IF I were sure (as for reasons elsewhere declared I am not) that the digestion of aliments were made by an acid ferment or juice, whencesoever the stomach is furnished with it, I should be prone to suspect, that some acid particles may be mingled with the blood: but however, that would not hinder me from referring the spirit of human blood to volatile alcalies; because so few acid particles would be either destroyed by the alcalifate ones, that are so abundant in the spirit, or at least these would be so very much predominant, as to allow us very warrantably to give on their account a denomination to the mixture. And if a few drops of spirit of vinegar were mixed with some pints or pounds of stale urine, they would either be deprived of their acidity by some corpuscles of a contrary nature, that they would meet with in the liquor; or they would be so obscured and overpowered by the fugitive salts it abounds with, that the acetous corpuscles would not hinder the spirituous liquor, drawn from the mixture by distillation, to be justly referrible to the classis of volatile, urinous salts.

The fourth (secondary) T I T L E.

Whether spirit of human blood be differing from spirit of urine, and other spirits, that are called volatile alcalies?

THE question, whether there be any difference between the spirit of human blood, and other volatile alcalies, as spirit of urine, harts-horn, &c? Seems to me very difficult to be decided; because two bodies may agree in many qualities, and perhaps, in all of those, that are the most obvious, and yet may on some third body, or in some cases, manifest distinct powers, and have their peculiar operations. Nor do I yet see
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any certain way, by which the affirmative part of the question, though it should be true, can be clearly demonstrated. Therefore, leaving the peremptory decision of this question to those, that shall think themselves qualified to make it, I shall (at least till I be further informed) content myself to make a couple of remarks, in reference to the proposed inquiry.

AND first, I think, there may be a great difference between volatile salts or spirits, as they are ordinarily prepared for medicinal uses, and as they may, by reiterated rectifications, and other ways of depuration, be brought to as great a simplicity or purity, as a dextrous chymist can bring them to. I thus express myself, because as to an exquisite or elementary simplicity, though some eminent artists pretend to it, I am not sure, that chymists can attain it; especially considering what I elsewhere shew of the unheeded commixtures, that may (at least sometimes) be made by the corpuscles of the fire, with those of the bodies it works on.

My other remark is, that whether or no, if the spirit of human blood, and other liquors abounding like it in volatile alcalies, were reduced to as great a purity as they can by art be brought to, they would be altogether alike in their nature and qualities; yet, if we consider them (as men use to do) in that state, wherein they are wont to be thought pure enough for medicinal uses, and are accordingly employed by physicians and chymists; I think it very probable, that there is some difference between the spirit of human blood and some other volatile alcalies, and particularly those afforded by urine and by harts-horn. For, though to me the bad smells of all these liquors seemed to be much alike, yet divers ladies, and those of very differing ages, affirm they find a manifest difference between these smells, and do abhor the odour of spirit of blood as a stink, though they will with pleasure hold their noses a great while over the spirit of harts-horn, and even that of (vulgar or European) sal armoniac (which is in effect a spirit of man's urine) and affirm themselves to be much refreshed by it. And, whereas, with spirit of urine or of sal-armoniac joined in a due proportion with spirit of salt, I have usually (as I have long since noted in another paper (a) been able to make a salt, that shoots into the peculiar figure of sal-armoniac, which figure is very differing from that of sea-salt, nitre, &c. I have seldom, if ever, obtained (at least in any quantity) a salt of that shape, by the commixture of the spirit of human blood with that of common salt; for, though their saline corpuscles upon the evaporation of the superfluous moisture, would coagulate together, yet the concretion seemed confused, and either all or a great part of it was destitute of that neat and distinct shape, that I had several times observed in concretions made by the mixture of the spirit of sea-salt with urinous spirits. And, as to the medicinal virtues of spirit of blood, though I have not had opportunity to make comparisons experimentally, and therefore shall forbear to affirm any thing myself; yet, if we credit the famous *Helmont*, there is a considerable difference between the spirit of human blood and that of human urine, since he somewhere expressly notes, (though I remember not the place, nor have his book at hand) that the spirit of human blood cures epilepsies, which is a thing the spirit of urine will not do.

(a) The usefulness of experimental philosophy.

The fifth (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the quantity of spirit contained in human blood, whether accompanied with its serum or dried.

It is not easy to determine the exact proportion of that liquor, which, when by distillation obtained from human blood, the chymists call its spirit, in reference to the other principles or ingredients, whereof the blood consists. For some men's blood

may be much more phlegmatic or serous than that of others, which itself may be more less spirituous, according to the complexion, age, sex, &c. of the person that bleeds. But, to make some estimate, that will not probably much recede from what may be ordinarily found, I shall inform you, that twelve ounces of healthy human blood afforded us seven ounces and a half of phlegm, and consequently about four ounces and half of dried stuff: and then, I shall add, that having committed to distillation, in a retort sand furnace, seven ounces of well dried (but not scorched) blood, we obtained about seven drachms, that is, about an eighth part of spirit, to which, though it were not rectified, that name may well enough be given; because it was so very rich in spirituous and saline parts, that it left, in the receiver and in the vial I kept it in, a good deal of volatile salt undissolved, which a phlegmatic liquor would not have done: and if that be admitted for a truth, that was above proposed as a very likely conjecture; namely, that spirit of blood is but salt and phlegm united, we may well suppose, that human blood yields a far greater proportion of spirit than this; since from the seven ounces of dried blood last mentioned, we obtained about five drachms of volatile salt, which if we had by distillations united with a fit quantity of phlegm, would probably have afforded us near two ounces of a liquor deserving the name of spirit.

The sixth (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the consistence and specific gravity of the spirit of human blood.

To the consistence of the spirit of human blood, taken in the more lax sense of the word consistence, one may refer its specific gravity, (as that is usually proportionate to the density of bodies,) the greater or lesser degree of fluidity, that belongs to the liquor as a mass, and the greater or lesser subtilty of the minute parts, whereof it is composed, or wherein it abounds.

AND as to the first of the three attributes, we have noted to be referrible to the consistence of our spirit; gravity is a quality, that is so radicated, if I may so speak, in the nature of visible fluids or liquors, and does so obstinately accompany them, that I durst not omit to examine the specific gravity (that is, the gravity in proportion to the bulk) of spirit of human blood; though by reason of the small quantity I had of it I could not make use of the same instruments, that I was wont to employ in hydrostatical trials, where I was not so stinted in the liquor to be examined. But, however, I made a shift to make a trial of this kind, by which I found, that a compact body weighing fifty eight grains in the air, and in water six grains and three fourth parts, weighed in rectified spirit of human blood but five grains and one fourth part: and on this occasion I shall tell you, what I presume you did not expect, which is, that notwithstanding the volatility of our spirit of blood, I found, that a pretty large piece of amber being put into it, did not, as most men would confidently expect, fall to the bottom of the liquor, but kept itself floating at the upper part of it, and, if plunged into it, would emerge.

THE next quality we referred to the consistence of our spirit of blood, is the degree of its fluidity, or, if you please, its greater or lesser immunity from tenaciousness or viscosity, which some modern philosophers (whose opinion needs not here be discussed) think to belong to all liquors as such. Now, one may be the more inclined to expect a manifest degree of tenacity in the spirit of human blood; because among many modern chymists it passes for an alcali, and we know, that divers other alcalifate liquors, as oil of tartar *per deliquium*, fixed nitre resolved the same way, solution of pot-ashes, &c. are sensibly unctuous, and but languidly fluid: but yet, I did not observe, that some rectified spirit of human blood, that I purposely tried between my fingers, did feel
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more unctuous than common water. And whereas, those, that sell brandy, or spirit of wine, are wont to shake it, till it afford some froth, and then, by the stay this makes on the surface, to judge of the tenacity or tenuity of the liquor, esteeming that to be the most unctuous, whereon the bubbles make the longest stay, and that the finest, on which they soonest disappear; I thought fit, by the same method, to examine spirit of human blood, and found, that the froth would last very little on the surface of it, the bubbles breaking or vanishing, almost (if not quite) as nimbly, as if the liquor had been good spirit of wine. And I likewise observed, that when I warily let fall some of our well rectified spirit of blood upon some other body, it seemed to me, that the single drops were manifestly smaller, than those of water, and of several other liquors, would have been: which will be much confirmed by one passage of what I have to say, about the third quality referrible to the consistence of the spirit we treat of.

BECAUSE it may be a thing of some importance, as well as curiosity, to know, how subtil the active parts of spirit of human blood are, and how disposed and fitted to disperse or diffuse themselves through other liquors of convenient textures; to make a visible discovery of this, I bethought myself of a method, that having formerly devised for several purposes, I thought fitly applicable to my present design. For having looked upon it as a great defect, that men have lazily contented themselves to say in general, that such a body is of subtil, or of very subtil parts, without troubling themselves to find out any way of making more particular and less indeterminate estimates of that subtilty; I was invited to find out and practise a way, that might, on divers occasions, somewhat supply that defect: but having delivered this easy method in another paper, I shall forbear to repeat a tedious account of it in this; since it may here suffice to tell you in short, what will perhaps surprize you; namely, that according to the forementioned way, we so prepared common water by infusions made in it without heat, that by putting one single drop of our rectified spirit of human blood into $\text{℥iv.} + \text{℥iv.}$ (which make 2000 grains) of the prepared water, and lightly shaking the vial, there appeared throughout the liquor a manifest colour, whereof no degree at all was discernible in it just before: which sufficiently argues a wonderful subtilty of parts in the spirit we employed; since that a single drop of it could disperse its corpuscles, so as to diffuse itself through, and mingle with two thousand times as much water, and yet retain so much activity, as to make their presence not only sensible, but conspicuous, by a manifest change of colour they produced. I confess, this computation is made upon supposition, that a drop of water weighs about a grain, and that a drop of our spirit of blood was of the same weight with a drop of water.

THE former supposition is commonly made; and though I have not found it to be exactly true, but that a drop of water weighed a tantillum more than a grain; yet, that difference is much more than recompensed by that, which we found between the weight of a drop of water, and the weight of one of spirit of human blood. For having, in a very good and carefully adjusted balance, let fall ten drops of common water, and as many of our rectified spirit of human blood, (as judging it a safer way to make an estimate, by comparing so many drops of each liquor than one alone;) we found, as we might well expect, that a drop of this last named liquor, as it was manifestly lesser, so it was far lighter, than a drop of water, insomuch, that the whole ten drops did not amount to four grains: so that we may safely judge the drop of spirit to have manifestly diffused itself, and acted upon above 4000 times so much water in weight, (and perhaps in bulk too;) since indeed the proportion extended a good way towards that of one to 5000, and so may be said to be, as that of one to between 4000 and 5000; which, though it may seem incredible to those, that are unacquainted with the great subtilty of nature and art, in the comminutions they can make of bodies;

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yet, I can, by repeating the experiment, easily convince a doubter in less than a quarter of an hour. And this subtilty of the parts of blood will appear yet greater, if it be considered, (what I think I can evince,) that no contemptible part of the single drop I employed was phlegm, useless to the change produced, the operation being due to the energy of the saline spirits of the little drop.

The seventh (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the odour, taste, colour, and transparence of the spirit of human blood.

THOSE qualities, that, in my opinion, more generally than deservedly are called first, do not any of them belong to the spirit of human blood, in such manner, as to oblige me to say any thing of them in relation to it; and therefore I shall content myself to have made this transient mention of them, to keep it from being thought, that through forgetfulness I had overlooked them: yet, something there is, that may not inconveniently be referred to the heat or coldness of spirit of human blood; in regard that physicians, as well as philosophers, distinguish these qualities into actual and potential; for it seems, that the spirit of human blood is, in reference to some liquors, potentially cold, since it refrigerates them; and, in reference to some others, potentially hot, since, being mingled with them, the mixture becomes actually hot. Of this last, I shall here set down the ensuing instance.

INTO a slender cylindrical glass we put the lower part of an hermetically sealed thermoscope; which, in this paper and elsewhere, I usually call the gaged one, because it was adjusted according to the standard of such instruments kept at *Gresham* college. Into this cylindrical glass we poured as much moderately strong spirit of blood, as would cover the ball of the thermometer, and then dropped on that liquor some good spirit of salt, upon whose mingling with it there was produced a conflict, accompanied with noise and bubbles, and a heat, which nimbly enough made the spirit of wine ascend two inches and a half. This experiment is therefore the more considerable, because there are divers volatile alcalies, that being confounded with acid spirits, though they seem to make a true effervescence, yet do really produce a notable degree of coldness. And that, which to me seemed considerable on this occasion, was, that whereas I had several times found by trial, that the spirit of verdigrease (which some call the spirit of *Venus*) would with the volatile salt of sal-armoniac, or of urine, produce a seeming effervescence, but a real coldness; this spirit of verdigrease itself, being mixed in the forementioned small cylindrical glass, with but moderately strong spirit of blood, did not only produce a hissing noise and store of bubbles, but an actual heat, whereby the spirit of wine in the thermoscope was made quickly to ascend above an inch and a half, though the liquors employed amounted not both together to two spoonfuls.

The eighth (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the dissolutive power of spirit of human blood.

IT will not only serve to manifest the subtilty and penetrancy of the spirit of human blood, but it may be also of some use to physicians, if it be made appear by experiments, that this spirit is by itself not only a good medicine for several diseases, (as will be hereafter shewn,) but may be also employed as a menstruum, to dissolve several bodies, and even some metalline ones. And because these last mentioned are the most unlikely to be readily dissoluble, by a substance belonging to the animal kingdom, as chymists speak; I shall subjoin two trials, that I made to evince this dissolutive power of the spirit of blood.

AND

AND first, we took crude copper in filings, (which if they be very small, are so much the fitter for our purpose) and having poured on them some highly rectified spirit of human blood, we shook them together; and in about a quarter of an hour or less, perceived the menstruum to begin to look a little bluish, which argued its operation to have already begun: and this colour grew higher and higher, till, after some hours, the menstruum had dissolved copper enough to make it deeply ceruleous. Some other, and somewhat differing trials on the same metal, will be met with in their proper place. In the mean time, I shall here take notice, that, in some circumstances, the spirit of blood has such an operation upon copper, whose quickness is surprising: for having made a coined piece of that metal clean and bright, (that no grease or foulness might hinder the effect of the liquor,) and put a drop or two of our spirit upon it, within about half a minute of an hour, (observed by a watch, that shewed seconds) the verge of the moistened part of the surface appeared bluish, and, almost presently after, the rest of the wetted part acquired a fine azure colour.

WE also took filings of zink, or (as in the shops they call it) spelter; and having poured on them very well rectified spirit of blood, we observed, that even in the cold it quickly began to work manifestly, though not vigorously: but being assisted with a little heat, it dissolved the zink briskly, and not without producing store of bubbles, being also a little discoloured by the operation. Of this experiment some use is made in another place, and therefore need not be delivered in this.

ON this occasion I shall add, that for curiosity's sake I took a piece of coagulated blood, but not dried, somewhat bigger than a large pea, having a care to take it from the lower part of the lump of blood, that it might be black, the superficial part of fibrous blood, that lies next the air, being usually red. This clot of blood we put into a slender vial of clear glass, that the colour might be the better discerned; and then poured on it a little rectified spirit of human blood, and shook the glass a little; whereupon, in a trice, the colour of (at least) the superficial part of the blood, was, as I had conjectured, manifestly changed, the blackness quite disappearing, and being succeeded by a very florid colour, like that of fine scarlet. The liquor also was tinged, but not with near so deep or so fair a red; and by the little bubbles, that from time to time past out of the clot into it, it seemed to work like a menstruum: and yet, soon after coming to look upon this lump of blood again, I found it to have much degenerated from its former colour, to one less fair and more dark,

WE took also another clot of blood like the former, save that one part of it, which had lain next the air, was not black; and having, in a vial like the former, poured on it some spirit of blood, taken out of the same vial, whence I took the first parcel, the reddish colour seemed presently to be much improved, and made more fair, and like true scarlet: but the black was not so altered, as to be deprived of its blackness, but retained a dark and dirty colour. So that this second experiment requires a further trial, when there shall be conveniency to make it; and it will the rather deserve one, because what has been already recited of the operation of the spirit upon the two parcels of blood, may suggest uncommon reflections to speculative wits.

AND here, on this occasion, it will be proper to relate to you, that having a confused remembrance, that I had a great while before put up some human blood, with a certain quantity of volatile spirit, to keep it fluid and preserve it, without distinctly remembering what volatile alcali I had employed; I found among other glasses, that had been laid aside, one bolt-head with a long neck, to which was tied a label, importing, that at such a time twelve drams of human blood were put up with two drams of spirit of human blood. By the date of this paper it appeared, that this blood had been preserved much above a whole twelve month; and yet it appeared, through the glass,
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of a fine florid colour, and seemed to be little less than totally fluid. And indeed when we came to open the vessel, which was carefully stoppt with a good cork and hard sealing-wax, we found no ill scent or other sign of putrefaction in the mixture; and but a very small portion of blood lightly clotted at the bottom; the rest passing readily through a rag. So that the spirit of human blood seems to have a great embalming virtue; since it was able so long and well to preserve six times its weight of a body so apt to concrete and putrify, as human blood is known to be, and probably would have preserved it much longer, if we had thought fit to prosecute the experiment. To this account of our trial I know not whether it will be worth while to add, that having broken it off, that we might distill the above-mentioned mixture with a very gentle heat; the first liquor, that ascended, was not a spirit, but a kind of phlegm, though afterwards there came up, besides a spirituous liquor, a volatile salt in a dry form.

On this occasion I shall subjoin the following trial, long since made with a spirit, that I supposed to have been weaker than that, with which the lately mentioned experiments were made.

In order to a design, that need not here be mentioned, I caused some filings of mars to be purposely made, that, being presently employed, they might not contract any rust, whereby the operation of our liquor might be made doubtful. On these we poured some of our spirit, and having kept them together a while in digestion, we found, as we expected, that the liquor had wrought on the metal, and produced a considerable quantity of a light substance, in colour almost like crocus, but something paler: and we also found more than we expected; for there appeared in the liquor good store of thin plates, like a kind of *terra foliata*, (as the chymists speak) which, after a very slight agitation, being held against the sun-beams, exhibited the colours of the rainbow in so vivid a manner, as did not a little delight, as well as surprise the spectators; but I did not perceive, that the taste of the liquor was considerably martial.

The ninth (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the tinctures, that may be drawn with spirit of human blood.

MOST of those extractions the chymists call tinctures, being, as I have elsewhere shewn, partial solutions of the bodies from which they are obtained, it will, I presume, be easily granted, that since the spirit of blood is able (as in the foregoing title it has appeared to be) to dissolve copper and zink, that are solid and metaline bodies, it will be able to extract tinctures out of divers others: but, that this power of our *menstruum* may be rather proved than supposed, it will not be amiss to add a few instances of it.

SPIRIT of blood being put upon English saffron, did soon acquire upon it a fine yellow colour.

SPIRIT of blood being put upon powdered *curcuma*, or, as tradesmen are wont to call it, turmerick, did, in the cold, extract from it a lovely tincture, like a rich solution of gold; which probably (to intimate that upon the by) may prove a good de-obstruent medicine, particularly in the jaundise; in which disease turmerick, that is taken to be a kind of East-Indian saffron, is, upon experience, commended, and in this our tincture is united with spirit of human blood, which is very near of kin to spirit of urine, and probably at least as efficacious; with which liquor, when well rectified, I have had more than ordinary success in the jaundise.

To make some trial of the extracting power of the spirit of blood upon substances, that have belonged to animals, I thought it might particularly conduce to some medical purposes, to try, what it would do upon the solid part of human blood itself slowly dried,

dried, so as not to be burned, but only to be reducible, with some pains, to fine powder. Accordingly, upon this well-sifted powder of blood, we put some moderately strong spirit of the same subject, on which the liquor began very soon to colour itself, even in the cold; and within no long time after, it appeared as red as ordinary French claret wine. This extraction made me suspect, that the phlegm, that was not carefully separated from the spirit I then employed, might hasten the coloration of the *menstruum*: for which reason I put upon another portion of the same powder some rectified spirit of blood, so well dephlegmed, that it would not dissolve a grain of the volatile salt of blood; and I found indeed, as I suspected, that this *menstruum* did not any thing near so soon draw a tincture, as the other had done; for after divers hours, the colour it obtained was but brown; but, after some hours longer, the colour appeared to be heightened into redness, but yet manifestly inferior to that of the somewhat phlegmatick spirit above-mentioned, whereto it did yet, in a longer time, grow almost equal. By this means we may not only disguise the spirit of blood, but impregnate it with the finer parts of the unanalysed solid body, which may possibly make the spirit a remedy more proper for some diseases or constitutions: and this medicine I sometimes call the intire tincture of human blood, because it consists of nothing else but such blood.

To shew, at length, that the spirit of human blood may extract tinctures out of some of the hardest bodies, I made the following experiment.

WE took some choice filings of steel (for such are those, that are saved by the needle-makers) and having put them into a small egg, we poured on them some highly rectified spirit of blood, and kept them all night in digestion in a moderate heat. The next day (but not early) we found the *menstruum* turned of a brownish red colour, that was deep enough. And some of the filings, that chanced to stick to the sides of the glass, but were higher than the liquor could reach in its gross body, seemed to have been, either by exhalations from the *menstruum*, or perhaps by the transient contact of it, as it was pouring in, turned into a kind of yellow crocus martis. I must not here forget, that having kept the *menstruum* and the filings together in the forementioned egg, for some days longer, the colour was grown opacous, and appeared to be black, when it was looked on in any considerable bulk; this last expression I employ, because it had another appearance, when it was somewhat thinly spread upon white paper.

PERHAPS it may be a remark not altogether useless to physicians, among many of whom chalybeate remedies are in very great request, if I add, that for reasons not needful to be mentioned here, having a suspicion, that our spirit would work upon steel, in another manner than the acid solvents wont to be used by chymists and physicians; we poured some of our tincture, drawn from filings of steel, upon a freshly drawn tincture of galls, (infused in common water) and did not find, that this liquor would, with the infusion, make any inky mixture, nor that the precipitate, that was quickly produced, was of a black, much less of a true inky colour; though I have found means to produce, in a trice, a black mixture, with other martial solutions and tinctures, which, for curiosity's sake, I sometimes made green, sometimes red, sometimes yellow, and sometimes, if I mistake not, of neither of those colours.

I have been the more express, in setting down the particulars above delivered, because, I hope, they may be somewhat helpful to rectify the judgment of divers very ingenious modern physicians, especially among the cultivators of chymistry, who build much upon a supposition, which, though I deny not to be specious, I doubt is not solid, and I fear may be of ill consequence. For, by the above recited trials, it may appear, that it is unsafe either to suppose, that if chalybeates be dissolved in the body, it must be by some acid juice; or, to conclude, that if the steel be dissolved by the

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liquors of the body, it must be, *ex prædominio*, (as they speak) alcalifate; since a liquor, that exercises a great hostility against acids, dissolves it: and, by parity of reason, one may probably infer the quite contrary of what they suppose; in regard that steel, in our experiment, was (partially at least) dissolved by what they call an alcali; and consequently ought to be, *ex prædominio*, of an acid nature. But of this hypothesis we elsewhere purposely discourse, and therefore shall here add nothing concerning it, but leave it to be considered, whether it would not be requisite to seek out some other way, than physicians have hitherto pitched on, to explicate the manner of operation of chalybeate medicines in the human body; and whether some use may not be made in medicine of martial remedies prepared by volatile alcalies, instead of acids.

I put some spirit of human blood upon powdered amber, sifted through a fine sieve, and kept it in digestion for some days, giving it a pretty degree of heat; but we obtained not hereby any tincture at all considerable; whether it was, that the spirit was not yet highly enough rectified, or that the amber (which was of a finer sort of white amber) was not so proper to yield its tincture, as I have several times found courser, but deeper coloured amber, to be.

To this (ninth) title may be referred the event, that followed, upon our having put some spirit of human blood upon that sort of gum *laccæ*, that comes out of the *East-Indies* in grains, and (for that reason) is commonly called seed-lace: for the spirit we put upon this, though this be a resinous gum, and of no easy solution, soon became tinged; which I expected it should, because I conjectured, that the redness, wont to appear in many of the seed-like grains, is but superficial, and proceeds from some adhering blood of little (winged) insects, that, by their bitings, occasion the production of this gum upon the twigs of the tree where the lac is found; on which twigs I have more than once seen store of these gummous grains. So that the tincture seems not to be drawn from the lac itself, but rather to be afforded by the blood of these little animals, which the spirit of human blood, that will draw tinctures from dried man's blood, dissolves; and this tincture may probably be a good medicine, since most of the insects, used in physick, as *millepedes*, lice, bees, ants, &c. even in our colder climates, afford medicines of very subtil and piercing parts, and of considerable efficacy.

The tenth (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the coagulating power of the spirit of human blood.

THOUGH the spirit of human blood have such a dissolving power, as we have mentioned, in reference to some bodies, yet, upon some others, it seems to have a quite contrary operation. I say *seems*, because it may be questioned, (and I am not now minded to dispute it) whether the effect I am going to speak of be a coagulation, properly so called, that one body makes of another, or a coalition of particles fitted, when they chance to meet one another, (in a convenient manner) to stick together. But whatever name ought to be properly given to the thing I am about to speak of, I have found, by trial purposely made, that the highly rectified spirit of human blood being well mingled, by shaking, with a convenient quantity (which should be at least equal) of vinous spirits, that will burn all away, (for if either of the liquors be phlegmatic, the experiment succeeds either not at all, or not so well) there will presently ensue a coagulation or concretion, either of the whole mixture, or a great portion of it, into corpuscles of a saline form, that cohering loosely together, make up a mass, that has consistence enough not to be fluid, though it be very soft: and in this form it may remain, as far as I have yet tried, for a good while, perhaps several months, or weeks at least, if it be kept in a cool place.

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The eleventh (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the precipitating power of spirit of human blood.

Of the precipitating power of spirit of human blood, I have yet observed nothing, that is peculiar; and therefore it may suffice to say in general, that, as far as I have had occasion to try, it has, in common with those other volatile spirits, which I elsewhere call urinous, a power of precipitating most bodies, that are dissolved in acid *menstruums*. I say *most*, because (as I have elsewhere more fully shewn) it is an error, though a vulgar one, to suppose (as chymists and physicians are wont to do) that whatever is dissolved by an acid, will be precipitated by an alkali, as such, whether fixed or volatile, which latter sort they take the spirits of urine, blood, &c. to be of: for there is no necessity this rule should hold, when the body is of such a nature, that it may be dissolved as well by an alkali, as by an acid. And, though the hypothesis of *alkali* and *acidum* allowed them not to think there were any such bodies, yet I have in another paper experimentally evinced, that there are so: and it may be proved, without going very far, since we lately observed, * that good spirit of human blood would, in the cold, dissolve both copper and zink, which are bodies, that will each of them be readily dissolved by aqua-fortis and some other acid *menstruums*. * See the eighth Title.

BATING such bodies as those I have been speaking of, I have not found, but that spirit of human blood precipitates other bodies dissolved in acid *menstruums*, much after the same manner, that spirit of urine and other such volatile alcalies are wont to do. Of this, among other instances, I remember, that I made trial upon red-lead, or minium, dissolved in the acid salt of vinegar, silver in aqua-fortis, gold in aqua-regia, and tin dissolved in an appropriated *menstruum*. I also, with our spirit, precipitated the solutions of divers other bodies, which need not here be named. But in regard of the great and frequent use, that men make of sea salt, in preserving and seasoning what they eat, it may not be amiss particularly to mention, that out of a solution of common salt, made in common water, we could readily precipitate, with the spirit of blood, a substance, that looked like a white earth; and such a substance I obtained in far greater quantity from that, which the salt-makers call bittern, which usually remains in their salt pans, after they have taken out as much, or near as much salt, as would coagulate in figured grains.

THE spirit of human blood does also make a precipitation of Dantzick vitriol dissolved in water, but not, that I have observed, a total one; which you need not wonder at, because it will dissolve copper, which is one of the ingredients of blue vitriol.

The twelfth (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the affinity between spirit of human blood, and some chymical oils, and vinous spirits.

THOUGH in another † paper I declare myself, for reasons there expressed, dissatisfied with the vulgar notions of sympathy, antipathy, friendship, affinity, hostility, &c. that are presumed to be found among inanimate bodies, yet, in this place, nothing forbids to employ the terms affinity, cognation, and hostility, in the lax and popular sense, wherein they are used, not only by the vulgar, but by school-philosophers and chymists. † About the mechanical origin or production of qualities.

It seems then, according to this acception of the word affinity, that there is such a thing between rectified spirit of human blood and pure spirit of wine; since we have formerly (under the tenth title) observed, that, being put together, they will readily

concoagulate, and continue united a long time. It is very probable, that the like association may be also made with other ardent spirit prepared by fermentation.

WE have likewise formerly noted, that our spirit will make a solution of the finer parts of human blood well dried; which instance I mention, on this occasion, because it seems to be the effect of some affinity or cognation, (as most men would call, what I would call mechanical congruity) between the spirit and the body it works on, in regard I found, by more than one trial purposely made, that a highly rectified vinous spirit (for if it be phlegmatic, the water may dissolve some of the blood) would not (at least in divers hours, that my trials lasted) draw any tincture from it.

WITH lixivate liquors, such as are made of salt of tartar, fixed nitre, &c. resolved in the air, or otherwise, the chymist will expect, that the spirit of blood should have an affinity, since they esteem all these liquors alcalies, though this be volatile, and those be fixed. But though these liquors comport well with one another, yet we find not, that they strictly associate by concoagulation, as we lately observed the spirit of blood to do with spirit of wine.

See the
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THE same spirit of blood mingles readily with that spirit of vegetables, that I have elsewhere given a large account of under the title of adiaphorous spirit; which argues, that there is some affinity between them, or rather, that there is not any manifest hostility or contrariety.

THE like relation may be found between spirit of blood and many other liquors, which it were needless and tedious to enumerate. It may better deserve the consideration of a chymist, that though there is manifestly a near cognation between the spirit of human blood and the oil, since they both proceed immediately from the same body, yet even dephlegmed spirit of blood, being shaken, and thereby confounded with its oil, will quickly separate again from it; though with spirit of wine (which is, according to the chymists, a liquid sulphur, as well as the oil) it will permanently unite, notwithstanding, that these two liquors do (to speak in their language) belong even to differing kingdoms, the one to the animal, and the other to the vegetable.

WITH the essential oils (as chymists call them) of aromatic vegetables, or at least with some of them, the well rectified spirit of human blood seems to have a greater affinity. For having taken a dram of this liquor, and an equal weight of oil of anniseeds, drawn in a limbeck, [*per vesicam*] and shaken them well together, they made a soft, or semi fluid white coagulum, that continued in that form for a day or two, and probably would have longer done so, if I had not had occasion to proceed further with it.

It may not be impertinent, on this occasion, to take notice, that because I presumed, that, though spirit of blood would not totally mix with essential oils, (as chymists call them) it might either communicate some saline parts to them, or work a change in them; I digested a while, in a glass with a long neck, some rectified spirit of human blood, with a convenient quantity of oil of anniseeds drawn in a limbeck, and found, as I expected, that the oil grew coloured of a high yellow, and afterwards attained to a redness; which experiment I the rather mention, because it may possibly afford you a hint about the cause of some changes of colour, that are produced in some of the liquors of the body.

UPON the forementioned affinity, or congruity, of the spirit of blood, with that of wine, and with (some) essential oils, I founded a way of taking off the offensive smell of spirit of human blood, which is the only thing, that is likely to keep the more delicate sort of patients from employing so useful a medicine, as this will hereafter appear to be. But, to deal with a philosophical candour, I must not conceal from you, that, till experience shall be duly consulted, I shall retain a doubt, whether the way employed

ployed to deprive our spirit of its stink, will not also deprive it of part of its efficacy : but, on the other side, I consider it as a thing probable enough, that these aromatised spirits may, by being impregnated with many of the finer parts of the oils employed to correct their odour, be likewise endowed with the virtues of those oils, which are liquors, that chymists not improbably believe, to consist of the noblest parts of the vegetables, that afford them.

To aromatise the spirit of human blood, we employed two differing ways, the first whereof was this : we took a convenient quantity of well rectified spirit of blood, and having put it into a glass egg, we added to it as much, or (what may in many cases more than suffice) half as much essential oil of anniseeds, for instance ; and having shaken these liquors together to mingle them very well, we placed the glass in a fit posture in a furnace, where it should not have too great a heat : by which means, the slight texture of the coagulum being dissolved, part of the oil (sometimes a great portion of it) appeared by itself floating at the top of the spirit ; whence being separated by a funnel or otherwise, the remaining liquor was whitish and without any stink ; the smell predominant in it being that of the anniseeds, of which it tasted strongly, though the saline spirituous part of the blood did in this liquor retain a not inconsiderable degree of their brisk and penetrant taste.

THE other way I thought of to aromatise our spirit of blood, was by employing a medium to unite it with essential oils : for which purpose, in a vinous spirit so dephegmed, that in a silver spoon it would totally burn away, we dissolved, by shaking a convenient proportion, as an eighth part, or a far less (according to the strength of the oil) of an essential oil (of anniseeds, for instance ;) and to this solution we added an equal quantity, or some other convenient one, of our rectified spirit of blood ; and having, by shaking them, mixed them as well as we could, we suffered the expected coagulum (which was soft and not uniform) to rest for some time, after which it appeared, that some of the oil was revived, and swam in drops distinct from the other liquor, which consisted of a mixture of the two spirits, impregnated with the particles of the oil they had intercepted and detained. This liquor abounded with little concretions, made by the coagulation of the sanguineous and vinous spirits, and these, with a very gentle heat, sublimed in the form of a volatile salt, to the upper part of the glass ; which salt seemed to have a much less penetrating odour, than the meer volatile salt of human blood, but had quite lost its stink, and yet retained a considerable quickness, and somewhat of the scent of the anniseeds ; the remaining liquor also was deprived of its ill smell, and moderately imbued with that of the oil.

I thought it worth trying, whether there would be any affinity between our spirit (which I perceived contained in it many latent particles of an oleaginous nature, and the highly rectified oil of petroleum, which is a mineral bitumen : and having shaken together a convenient quantity of these two liquors in a new vial, they presently turned into a white mixture. And though, after it had for many hours been left to settle, the greater part of the oil swam above the spirit, yet there appeared betwixt the two liquors a good quantity of a whitish matter ; which seemed to be something, that had been produced by the precipitation or union of many particles of the spirit and oil, that were more disposed than the rest to combine with one another.

The thirteenth (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the relation between spirit of human blood and the air.

THAT the contact of the air has a speedy and a manifest operation upon human blood, is elsewhere shewn by some experiments of an Italian virtuoso, signior — and some of mine. But whether, after human blood has had its texture so much altered,

tered, as it uses to be by distillation, it will retain any peculiar relation to the air, I have not been able to make trials enough to determine; but, however, it will not be amiss to set down the chief experiments I made on this occasion, because they may be considerable, as parts of our history, though they should not be so, as arguments decisive of our controversy.

THE first experiment was quickly made, by thinly spreading upon a piece of white paper, (which ought to be close, that it may not soak up the liquor) some small filings of copper, and wetting them well, without covering them quite over, with a few drops of spirit of blood; for, by this means, being very much exposed to the free air, the action of the liquor was so much promoted, that within a minute or two it did, even in the cold, begin to acquire a bluish colour, and in fewer minutes, than one would have expected, that colour was so heightened, as to become ceruleous: but, when I put another parcel of the same filings into a vial, and covered them with spirit of blood, and then stopt the vial, to keep it from intercourse with the external air, the liquor would not in some hours acquire so deep a colour.

THE other experiment we made, in order to the late proposed inquiry, was the same for substance, that I had formerly made, (and have elsewhere at large delivered) with the spirit of urine, and with that of sal-armoniac, save that, to spare our spirit of blood, we employed a far less quantity of it, than we did of either of the forementioned liquors. For, having, in a clear cylindrical vial of about an inch diameter, put more filings of copper than were requisite to cover the bottom, we poured upon it but so much spirit of human blood, as served to swim a finger's breadth, or about an inch, above them. This liquor, because of the quantity of air, that was contained in the vial, did within few hours acquire a rich blue colour; and this, after a day or two, began to grow more faint, and continued to do so more and more, till it came to be almost lost; but, yet the liquor was not altogether lympid, or colourless, as I have often had it with spirit of urine, or of sal armoniac; which remains of bluishness I was apt to attribute to the great quantity of air, that was included in the vial with so small a quantity of liquor: and though I thought it not impossible, but that length of time might destroy these remains of bluishness also, yet, not having leisure to wait so long, I unstopped the vial, and perceived, as I expected, that in a very short time, perhaps about two minutes of an hour, the surface of the liquor, where it was touched by the newly entered air, became ceruleous, and in a short time after, perhaps less than a quarter of an hour, the whole body of the liquor had attained a deeper colour than that of the sky; which colour, the vial being seasonably and carefully stopped, began in two or three days to grow paler again.

THESE experiments would, I question not, to many seem manifestly to infer a great cognation or affinity (for I know not well what name to give it) between the spirit of human blood and the air. But, though I shall not deny the conclusion, as it is an assertion, I dare not rely on the validity of the inference; because, I have, for curiosity's sake, made the like experiments succeed with other spirits abounding with volatile salt. I foresee it may very speciously be pretended, that those trials succeeded upon the account of some spirituous parts of the blood, since spirit of urine is made of a liquor separated from the blood; and that, though the sal-armoniac that is made in the *East*, may consist in great part of camel's urine, yet, that, which is made in *Europe*, (where camels are rarities) and is commonly sold in our shops, is made of man's urine, and consequently its spirit may well be presumed to be impregnated with spirit of human blood. And I confess, that when this consideration came first into my mind, it appeared so probable, that I should perhaps have acquiesced in it, if it were not for what I am going to subjoin; namely, that I found by trial, carefully made, that with
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another volatile spirit, made without any substance, that is afforded by the body of man, I could, with filings of copper, make an experiment very analogous to that above related. But, because, in this trial the reiterated contact of the air produced, in the liquor, not a ceruleous, but a green colour, I am willing to suspend my judgment about the problem lately proposed, till experience shall have further informed me.

I know not, whether it will be worth while to relate, that having, in an unstopped glass, put some spirit of human blood into a receiver placed upon our pneumatic engine, and withdrawn the incumbent air by pumping; the spirit of blood seemed to afford lesser and fewer aerial bubbles, than such a quantity of common water itself would probably have done: but, as I lately intimated, I know not, whether this observation be considerable, because, being not willing to weaken, by exposing it, a fresh parcel of spirit, I know not, whether the paucity of air, observed in that lately mentioned, were accidental or not.

The fourteenth (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the hostility of the spirit of human blood to acids, whether they be in the form of liquors or fumes.

THAT there is in the spirit of human blood such a thing, as a chymist or a vulgar philosopher would call hostility, or an antipathy in reference to acids, has been plainly enough, though very briefly, intimated in a passage belonging to the third of the precedent titles. But, yet, it may not be impertinent to add in this place, that our spirit of human blood exercises this hostility against more than one sort of acid spirits, though perhaps they differ not a little from one another, as spirit of salt, spirit of nitre, spirit and oil of vitriol, *aqua-fortis*, *aqua-regia*, &c. and not only against factitious acids, but against natural ones too, the spirit of human blood may discover a manifest hostility, as I found by the conflict it would make with newly expressed juice of lemons, which it would put into a confused agitation, accompanied with bubbles. And this was yet the more evident, when I employed the volatile salt of blood, that is, the spirit in a dry form: for having squeezed upon a parcel of this some juice of lemons, there was presently excited a great commotion, accompanied not only with froth, but with noise. But (to return to the strongly acid liquors made by distillation) whether the great commotion, and froth, and hissing noise, that usually follows upon the mixture of spirit of human blood with any of these menstrua, do proceed from a true hostility, or an antipathy deservedly so called, or else by a motion to coalescence or union; or an effect of the disturbed motions proper to the differing, but now confounded, liquors; or lastly, a consequent of some impediment, which the new texture of the mingled liquors gives to the free passage of some æthereal or other subtil permeating matter or fluid, I shall not take upon me to determine; but rather, to what I lately told you of the at least seeming contrariety of the spirit of human blood to acid spirits, I shall add, (what perhaps you did not expect) that this hostility extends even to the invisible effluvia or emanations of these liquors, as may be readily seen in the following way, that I long since pitched upon to make it not only visible but manifest.

THIS is easily done by putting any strong acid spirit, as of salt, or of nitre, &c. into a vial somewhat wide-mouthed, and some well dephlegmed spirit of blood into another; for when I purposely inclined these glasses so towards one another, that their lips did almost touch, and their respective liquors were ready to run out, though neither of the liquors did at all visibly fume whilst they were kept asunder, though the glasses were unstopped, yet, as soon as the liquors came to be approached in the way just now mentioned, the fumes meeting each other in the air would make coalitions, which

would be manifestly visible in the form of ascending smoke, which was wont at first to surprize the delighted spectators; and this production of smoke would continue a good while, if the vials were not severed to make it cease, which, upon their remove, it would presently do. I have divers times practised a more easy way of making these fumes conspicuous; but it belongs more to another paper, and what has been now delivered may suffice for my present purpose.

YET, it may not be improper to take this occasion to acquaint you with an experiment, that I made to observe what the contrary salts, that abound in our spirit of blood and in some acid liquors, would produce, when they were combined and brought into a dry form. I shall therefore annex a transcript of the experiment I speak of as I find it registred in one of my note-books.

[WE took some pure volatile salt of human blood, and having just satiated it with spirit of nitre, we slowly evaporated away the superfluous moisture, that the acid and urinous salts might be united into a dry concretion, from which my design was to separate them again, the salt of blood in its pristine form, and the spirit of nitre in the form of salt-petre. To effect this, we put the compounded salt into a small bolt head with a long and slender neck, and then added to it a convenient quantity of salt of tartar, and as much distilled water, as would suffice to make the mixture somewhat liquid, to promote the action of the contrary salt, upon one another. By which mutual actions we supposed, that the saline spirits of nitre, being more congruous to the fixed salt than to the volatile, would forsake the salt of blood, (which it detained before from flying away,) and give it leave to sublime; and accordingly, having kept the glass, wherein the mixture was made, for a competent time in a convenient heat, we obtained what we looked for, since a good proportion of fine volatile salt ascended, in a dry form, into the neck.]

HAVING put to some of the spirit of human blood a small quantity of exceeding strong spirit of nitre, there was, upon the conflict of the two liquors, excited so great a quantity of thick white fumes, that I could not but wonder at it, having never seen any thing of that kind comparable to it. And these fumes circulating long in the cavity of the glass, whereof perhaps a tenth part was full of liquor, did many of them, though the vessel were wide-mouthed, fall back and run down the sides of the glass into the stagnant mixture, as if they had composed streams of a milky liquor. And when at length, after these fumes had disappeared, we dropt in a little more of the same smoking spirit of nitre, the like strange plenty of white exhalations did presently ensue, and continue to circulate a great while in the open glass, the mixture, in the mean while, appearing reddish. Being settled, and seeming to have been so discoloured by a fatish substance, we put to it a little rain or distilled water, and having by filtration separated it from the fæces, and slowly evaporated the thus clarified liquor, the saline parts shot into crystals much of the shape, and crossing one another much after the manner, of striae of salt-petre; but their colour after a while appeared yellow, as if some oily substance were yet mixed with them.

N. B. THOUGH on several occasions the spirit of blood appeared thus oily, yet, I remember, I had not long since some distilled from another parcel of blood, which, after having been kept a year, was limpid and colourless, like an ordinary vegetable spirit.

SOME of the forementioned crystals being put upon well kindled charcoals, did presently melt and burn away, with a noise not unlike salt-petre; but the flame seemed not quite so halituous, and was more differing in colour, being not at all blue but very yellow. After the deflagration was quite past, I was curious to see, if any fixt substance was left upon the coals, and found it to be somewhat odd; for it was not of a
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light colour, nor of an incoherent body, like ashes, but a little lump of a dirty coloured matter, in which I could not perceive an alcalifate taste, and indeed scarce any at all: and this brittle substance (for such it was) being held in the flame, became red hot, without appearing destroyed by that ignition, no more than afterwards it did by being a good while kept upon a glowing coal.

The fifteenth (secondary) T I T L E.

Of the medicinal virtues of spirit of human blood outwardly applied.

HAVING resided for many years last past in a place so well furnished with learned physicians as *London* is, I was careful to decline the occasions of entrenching upon their profession. And though that care did not always secure me quiet, yet, I did it so far, as that you, to whom my circumstances are not unknown, will not, I hope, expect, that I should say much upon my own experience, of the medicinal virtues of spirit of human blood; yet, since I had some few opportunities to get trials made by practitioners in physic, (who were pleased very willingly to make them for me,) that I may not leave this subject wholly untouched, I will subjoin what occurs, either to my memory, or to my thoughts, about it.

WHEN I consider, that, as far as I have observed, we do not meet regularly with any acid substance, (except perhaps in the *succus pancreaticus*) in a sound human body; (for the fixt salt of blood does itself much resemble sea-salt, whether its spirit be acid or no;) whereas the several parts of it, whether solid, as bones, or liquid, as blood, afford in distillation store of liquor impregnated with volatile salt; I am induced to think it probable, that the spirit of human blood, wherein such a salt abounds, and whereof it is the main and predominant ingredient, is like to have notable operations upon the human body, and afford medicines of great efficacy in many of its diseases. And though against most of these it is to be internally given, yet there are some, against which it may be successful, when but externally administered.

FOR, as well rectified spirit of human blood abounds with very subtle particles, which in point of taste, odour, diffusiveness and penetrancy, do much resemble those of strong spirits of urine, of hartshorn, and of sal-armoniac; so one may very probably expect to find the same virtues in the spirit of blood, that experience has manifested to belong to those other spirituous liquors.

I have seldom, if ever, seen any medicine operate so nimbly in fits of the mother, as a well dephlegmed spirit of sal-armoniac; which, as I formerly noted, is in effect mainly a spirit of urine, which itself is granted to be a liquor separated from blood: for this spirit being held to the noses of hysterical women, has often in a trice, to the wonder of the by-standers, fetched them out of their fits. Nor is this the considerablest effect, that I have had of this spirit, for sometimes it has, with a strange quickness, brought to themselves patients, that were fallen to the ground, and either really were, or were judged to be, epileptical: and even in agonizing persons, where it could not recover them, it would frequently for the time bring them out of their swoons, and make them know and understand the assistants, and perhaps speak to them too; of which, if it were needful, I could give more than one instance. But I shall rather add, that if nature be not quite spent, and the case wholly desperate, this may be of great advantage, because it allows the physician some (though perhaps but little) time, and a good opportunity to administer other remedies, which the patient, unless excited and brought to himself, would not be made to take. Of which I shall give you a memorable instance in a patient of the very learned Dr. *Willis's* who being in the fit of an apoplexy, when he was necessitated to go from her out of the town, and leave her

would be manifestly visible in the form of ascending smoke, which was wont at first to surprize the delighted spectators; and this production of smoke would continue a good while, if the vials were not severed to make it cease, which, upon their remove, it would presently do. I have divers times practised a more easy way of making these fumes conspicuous; but it belongs more to another paper, and what has been now delivered may suffice for my present purpose.

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in that condition, he committed her to the care of a very ingenious physician, who (whether by his direction or no, I remember not) came to me to acquaint me with it, complaining, that they could not hope for any success of their remedies, in regard she was so stupid, and had shut her mouth so close, that they could not get any down: whereupon I gave him, and told him the use of, a very subtil spirit, that I had by me for such cases, though I remember not, whether it were of sal-armoniac, or some other volatile or liquid alcali; by applying which to her nose, the physician found he could presently make her open her eyes, and in part come to herself; but then she would again, when the glass was removed, soon relapse into her former condition. Wherefore, having by those frequent vicissitudes gained some time, and got a medicine for his purpose, he then held the glass to her nose for a good while together; by which means she so recovered her senses, that she knew the by standers, and being exhorted to take a medicine, that was offered her, which they told her would do her much good, she understood them, and swallowed it; and though afterwards, upon the removal of the vial, she relapsed into a senseless state, yet by the help of the urinous spirit they kept her alive, till the very brisk medicine she had taken began to act its part, and make a copious evacuation, which did not only rouse her, but little by little relieve her: so that in a short time she happily escaped a danger, that was judged to be very hardly, if at all, superable by any medicines. But here I must give you notice, that in such difficult and desperate cases I am not content, that a vial, with a somewhat long neck, be held to the nose, but sometimes order, that little pellets of lint or cotton, or of thin rags, be dipt into the spirit and thrust up into the nostrils. And the same thing I would advise, if need should require it, in the administration of spirit of human blood. And as, for external uses, I make a particular preparation of spirit of sal-armoniac, or of urine, that is more strong and penetrant than that, which is made the more ordinary way: so, if I had been furnished with store of spirit of blood, I would have handled it in a not very unlike manner. And, however, with the little I had, I made the following experiment for trial's sake. We took some dried volatile salt of human blood, (being then better able to spare that than spirit,) and put to it as much spirit of nitre, as would just serve to satiate it; and then by evaporation we obtained thence an anomalous kind or compounded salt, which afterwards, because we desired a medicine in a dry form, we sublimed from a convenient quantity of a well chosen fixed alcali, (if I mistake not, we took an equal weight of salt of tartar,) fit to retain not only the phlegmatic parts, but the oleaginous too, which oftentimes lie concealed in volatile salts and liquors, wherein they do not at all at first appear, and unto which the greatest part of the foetid or offensive smell may probably be imputed: by this means we obtained a dry white salt of a very piercing smell. But I had no opportunity to try this sublimed salt upon diseased persons; for whose sake I also made use of another way to bring over the saline part of blood in a liquid form, (which, for the use of smelling, I for the most part prefer to the dry:) for which purpose we mixed two parts of dried human blood with three parts of lime, and then distilled them with a pretty strong fire; by which means we obtained, as we expected, a pretty deal of spirit, unaccompanied with any volatile salt in a dry form: which spirit seemed, even without rectification, to have a stronger smell, and a more fiery taste, than other spirit of blood after a rectification. And I guessed, that if we had taken more or stronger lime, we should have had less oil and a more piercing spirit, since the lime would probably have retained most of the oil, and perhaps all the superfluous moisture.

I have likewise often found, that slighter head-achs have been cured in less (and perhaps much less, time than a quarter of an hour, by the bare smell of some of these well depurated volatile alcalies; and if I mis-remember not, I have been relieved, particularly

larly by that of *H. B.* and I have very rarely for these many years used, or (thanks be to God) needed any other medicine to free myself from pains of the head. And even violent and durable pains of that part have been, if not quite removed, yet much lessened by the same remedy often reiterated, which I have likewise observed to be usually enough very effectual in faintings, especially those of hysterical and hypochondriacal women; which makes it probable, that our spirit of human blood, which is a liquor, that in many qualities manifestly resembles other volatile alcalies, (and perhaps surpasses them,) and which, when well freed from its oil, can by few, if by any, be distinguished from other urinous spirits, may, by its odour, be available in the forementioned maladies. I expect you should tell me, that the ill scent of spirit of blood will hinder that sex from using it externally, to divers of whose distempers it is the most proper. To this it may be answered, that most of those, that find themselves in pain or danger, would be content to be eased or rescued by an unpleasant medicine: for we may apply to health, what *Vespasian* said of the tax, that was paid him upon the score of urine, *Lucri bonus odor ex re qualibet*. And accordingly we see, that ladies themselves ordinarily make use in such cases of burnt feathers, and in these and some others of *Castoreum*, *Galbanum*, and *Asa fœtida*, whose smells are offensive enough to men. But for the more delicate and nauseous patients, one may much lessen the offensive odour of our spirit by long digestions, or by reiterated or skilful rectification. And if even then they cannot be reconciled to the odour of so good a remedy, that odour may (as was formerly intimated on another occasion) be corrected by uniting it with a convenient quantity of highly rectified spirit of wine; by which means it may perhaps (for I am not sure of it) lose somewhat of its penetrancy, as well as of its urinous odour, but yet may remain subtile and active enough for divers good purposes. And if you would not only correct the smell of the spirit of blood, but make it afford a fragrant one, you may do it by dissolving in the spirit of wine a convenient quantity of some aromatic, or other well scented chymical oil, whose proportion may be found by letting it fall drop after drop into the vial, and frequently shaking it to mingle the liquors well, till you find by your smell, that the offensive odour of the spirit of blood is sufficiently obscured; or (if you will not only correct it, but perfume the liquor) that the mixture is sufficiently imbued with the grateful odour of the oil, wherewith you compounded it.

I shall add on this occasion, that, if we aim chiefly at correcting or changing the smell of spirit of blood, we may usefully employ a chymical oil, more mild or temperate than the aromatic ones of cinnamon or cloves. For trial purposely made has informed me, that if the oil of *Rhodium* (which is much esteemed by perfumers) be sincerely and skilfully made, (which I fear it is not over frequently) a very few drops of it will make an ounce of alcohol of wine so fragrant, that this solution being shaken together with a convenient quantity (perhaps much less than an equal one) of well rectified spirit of human blood, there will emerge a mixture, that I found to have a scent brisk enough, and yet to be not only free from stink, but imbued, though not strongly, with the odoriferous particles of the *Rhodium*.

I must not here omit, that divers happy practitioners, as well physicians as professed chymists, do highly extol the oil of amber against convulsion fits and other distempers of the brain and *genus nervosum*: and indeed experience has so recommended some medicines of amber to me, that, in some cases, there are few, that I more willingly give or take. And besides the great character, that *Helmont* has left of amber dissolved in spirit of wine, experience has brought such credit to it in divers cases, (for there are some cases and constitutions, wherein I suspect it of too much heat) that many patients, as well women as men, had much rather endure the smell, than deny themselves the benefit of the tincture or the oil. And if you have any such patients, perhaps you will

not be ill pleased to be advertised, that you may, according to the formerly mentioned way, employ the high tincture of amber taken with spirit of wine, to correct the odour, and increase (at least in number) the virtues of spirit of human blood. And because it requires some skill, and not seldom a pretty deal of time, to draw this tincture from crude amber, though finely powdered, I bethought myself of the following way to draw speedily a strong tincture from the oil itself; for, though this oil will not, even by long shaking, dissolve thoroughly in spirit of wine, as the aromack and other oils lately mentioned will do; yet I found, that, by well shaking those two liquors together, and leaving them to settle at leisure, though they would separate into distinct masses, yet the spirit of wine would, even in the cold, extract from the oil a fine tincture of a high yellow colour, little, if at all, different from that of the oil itself: of which tincture I afterwards mixed as much with spirit of blood, as sufficed to obscure the urinous smell, and make that of the oil of amber somewhat predominant, and as we judged, more subtile and brisk than it was before.

THREE things more I have to intimate concerning the external use of our spirit of blood. The first is, that by what has been said of the good effects it may have, when (after it has been, by the lately mentioned or other preparations, imbued with chymical oils) it is smelt to, I would by no means be thought to deny, that it is, after these changes, fit to be also inwardly employed, as I shall have, e'er long, occasion more particularly to declare. My second admonition shall be, that, whereas in some mixtures it will be hard to hit upon the proportion of the chymical oil, or other things employed to correct the smell of the spirit of blood, so exactly, but that, after the mixture has had some time to settle, a separation of some oleaginous parts will be made; the bulk of the mixture may be freed from it, by pouring all into a glass tunnel somewhat sharp at the bottom, after the manner used among chymists to separate oils from other liquors, and then the mixture, that will run through before the oil, may be kept close stoppt in a vial by itself, and the fragrant oil (unless it be of cinnamon or cloves) reserved for other uses. And whereas frequently, if not most commonly, if the vinous spirit were sufficiently rectified, there will, by the concoagulation of the saline and urinous particles, be produced a kind of salt; you may either pour the liquid part from it into another vial, and use each of them separately without more ado, or else, without thus separating them, you may sublime, with a very gentle warmth, as much as will ascend from the rest of the mixture in a very dry form. And this *sal volatile oleosum* of spirit of blood, when it was duly prepared, I found to be deprived of its former bad scent, and perhaps endowed with a fragrant one, and yet to have an odour more subtile, brisk, and piercing, than I had thought it reasonable to expect. The third and last thing I would advertise, is, that besides those medicinal uses, that may be made of the odours of spirit of blood simple or compounded, it may have considerable virtues, applied in substance as a liquor, by way of fomentation or otherwise; which I think the more likely, because the spirit of sal-armoniac has been much commended for mitigating the sharp pains of the gout, and is said to have been successfully used in the *Erysipelas*. And when I consider, that our liquor is very spirituous and penetrating, and so fit to strengthen and resolve, and also of an alcalisate nature, which fits it to mortify acidities; it seems very probable, that, by virtue of these and other friendly qualities, it may, by being applied in its liquid form, prove good in divers cases, where the surgeon's or physician's help is wont to be required.

BUT it is high time for me to proceed from the external to the internal uses of the spirit of human blood.

The sixteenth (secondary) TITLE.

Of the medicinal virtues of the spirit of human blood inwardly used.

I have long been prone to think, that it is not necessary the number of specifically different morbidic matters, (as physicians call actually noxious humours or other substances) in the human body should be near so great, as that of the diseases it is noxious to; and consequently, that every disease, that has a distinct name affixed to it, does not always require a distinct sort of peccant matter to produce it; but that the same hurtful humour, or other agent, may produce sicknesses, that pass for different ones, (and accordingly have distinct denominations) only as the same morbidic agent's bad effects are diversified, partly by its own greater or lesser quantity, and more or less active qualities, and partly (and indeed chiefly) by the particular natures, or structures and situations of the parts, that it invades. To this opinion I have been led by divers inducements, that I shall not now stay to set down; especially, since the probability of it may be easily deduced, from what frequently enough occurs among sick persons, of the metastases of morbidic matters; the same acid or sharp humour, for instance, producing sometimes a cholic, sometimes after that a palsy, sometimes a cough, sometimes a flux of the belly, sometimes an ophthalmia, sometimes a violent head-ach, sometimes convulsions, and sometimes other distempers; as the peccant humour, or other noxious matter, happens primarily to invade, or afterwards to be translated to, this or that particular part of the body. And to the hitherto proposed notion it is very agreeable, that one remedy, by being capable victoriously to oppugn one or two of the principal kinds of morbidic matter, may be able to cure differing diseases, especially if it be endowed with any variety of active virtues. And upon this ground I am apt to think, that the spirit of human blood, skilfully prepared and administered, may be a good remedy in no small number of internal affections of the human body. And indeed volatile alcalies in general have been in *England* so prosperously made use of in physick, since the year 1656, (about which time I had the good fortune to contribute so to introduce them, as to bring them by degrees into request, by divulging easy ways of making them, as well as by declaring their virtues) that I see small cause to doubt, but that they will hereafter be more generally esteemed and employed, than yet they are, and will little by little invite physicians to prefer them to a great many vulgar remedies, that, for want of better, are yet in common use, though they clog or weaken the patient, and want divers advantageous qualities, that may be found in volatile alcalies. For (to apply what has been said to our present subject, as an instance, that may serve for other urinous spirits) the spirit of human blood is endowed with divers qualities, that are both active and medicinal. For it mortifies acid salts, which are the causes of several diseases, and if I mistake not, of some, that are not wont to be imputed to them. It is a great resolvent, and, on that score, fit to open obstructions, that produce more than a few diseases. It is both diaphoretick and diuretick, and, on both these accounts, fit to assist nature to discharge divers noxious salts, and expel divers contagious or malignant corpuscles, that offend her. It resists putrefaction and coagulation of the blood, gives it a briskness and spirituousity, that promotes the free circulation of the blood, to which it is congenial; by which means (though not perhaps by these only) it becomes a good cordial, and probably against some poysons an antidote. And, which is none of the least, nor least extensive, virtues, it is very friendly to the *genus nervosum*, and upon that account is like to be very proper in fits of the mother (as they are called,) convulsions, some sorts of head-achs, palsies, incipient apoplexies, some sort of asthmas, &c. It is also balsamical in some circumstances, and may have divers other

other virtues, that have not yet been observed. For a medicine, that does not weaken, nor cause great evacuations, nor clog the stomach, nor is blemished with the excess of any manifest quality, but has in itself a complex of so many useful powers, may reasonably be supposed, likely to be available in more than a few diseases: since a good part of those, that human bodies are liable to, may be powerfully oppugned by some of those excellent qualities, one or more, whose confluence may be found in the spirit of human blood.

I presume therefore, that one may rationally propose it, as likely to be a good remedy in many distempers, especially wherein either spirit of urine, or the urinous spirit of sal-armoniac, have been found successful medicines; such as hysterical fits, pleurifies, coughs, some scorbutick distempers, convulsions, apoplexies, some kinds of fevers, head-achs, the jaundice, &c. But I formerly prepared you not to expect, that I should say much of the virtues of the spirit of human blood (inwardly given,) upon my own personal experience. And therefore I shall not scruple to tell you, that *Helmont* himself, as little as he is apt to praise other than his own, or the Paracelsian, arcana, more than once commends the spirit of cruor, (though that be, in his sense of the word, not yet fully elaborated human blood) against the epilepsy, which, he says, it will cure even in adult persons, which is a virtue he expressly denies the spirit of urine. And a famous writer about the hermetick physick (but, if I mistake not, better versed in divers other parts of learning, than in chymical arcana,) though he so far depreciates spagyric preparatious, as to commend the utility but of a very few of them, is pleased to put the distilled liquor of blood into the number of those very few, that he vouchsafes a good character to.

I am the more inclined to give credit to these praises of spirit of blood, because, as I remember, this was the medicine, that I made use of in the following case. A young lady, in whose family the consumption was an hereditary disease, was molested with a violent and stubborn cough, that was judged consumptive, and looked upon by those, that gave her physick as not to be cured by any other way, than a seasonable remove from *London* into the French air; but she was already so far gone and weakened, and there remained so much of the winter, that it was judged she would die before the season would make it any way fit for her to undertake so long and troublesome a journey; but if she could be kept alive till the end of the spring, there would be some hopes she might in *France* recover. On this occasion being solicited by some friends of hers and mine, to try what I could do to preserve her, I sent her some spirit of human blood very carefully prepared and rectified, (to which I gave some name, that I do not well remember,) upon the use of which she manifestly mended, notwithstanding the unfriendliness of the season; insomuch, that about the end of *February*, she had gained relief and strength enough to venture to cross the seas, and make a journey to *Montpellier*, whence in autumn she brought home good looks and recovery. If I much misremember not, the same spirit of blood, made very pure and subtile by the help of a lamp furnace, was the medicine, that I put into the hands of an ingenious and successful physician, who complained to me, that he had a patient, that had quite puzzled him, as well as baffled the endeavours of other eminent doctors, whom the difficulty of the case had invited at several times to try their skill upon him. This man was frequently obnoxious to such violent and tormenting fits of the head-ach, that he could not endure the light, and was offended with almost every noise or motion, that reached his ears; insomuch, that he was forced to give over his profession, which was that of a taylor: but upon the constant use of the before-mentioned spirit of blood, (for the other medicines he took were much inferior to it, and had not before been available) he received such relief, as made him with great joy and thankfulness return

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to the exercise of his trade; and the physician, to whom I gave the remedy for him, told me one circumstance too considerable to be here omitted; namely, that the patient having, by our famous *Harvey's* advice, been used to bleed once in two or three months, the physician counselled him, notwithstanding his recovery, not abruptly to break off this ancient custom; and the patient thereupon sent for the same chirurgeon, that had been formerly wont to let him blood, and to complain of the great badness of his blood; but when this chirurgeon, who knew not what had been done to the patient, came to open a vein again, and perceived what kind of blood it afforded, so he was surprized, that he stopped the operation, and asked the man with wonder, how he came by such florid blood, adding, that it was pity to deprive him of so well conditioned a liquor.

THE medicinal vertues, hitherto mentioned, belong to the spirit of human blood, as it is pure and simple: but it is not improbable, that it may acquire other, and perhaps nobler, faculties, if it be dexterously corrected, diversified, or united with fit ingredients, that is, in a word, skilfully altered or compounded.

THESE things may be performed several ways; for they may be done, either by uniting, as well as one can, by long digestion, or frequent cohobations, the spirit of human blood with the oils, salt, and (if need be) phlegm, of the same concrete, into such a kind of mixture, as some chymists call *Clyffus*.

OR, secondly, by uniting the spirit of blood with acids, as with spirit of nitre, spirit of vinegar, spirit of verdegrease, oil of vitriol, &c. and employing these mixtures, either in their liquid form, or reduced, by evaporation, into chrystals, or other salts; and making use of these, either as they are, or after a kind of analysis of them.

OR, thirdly, by uniting our spirit with metalline solutions, as of gold, silver, mercury, and with solution of minium, made with spirit of vinegar, by mixture of which liquor with spirit of blood, and a slow evaporation of them, I remember I have had pretty store of finely figured chrystals.

OR, fourthly, by dissolving in spirit of blood, carefully dephlegmed, sulphur opened with salt of tartar.

OR, else, by dissolving in it some metalline bodies, as copper, zink, and iron, which last will afford a martial liquor, that, differing much from other preparations of steel, that are wont to be made with acids, may probably have some virtues, distinct from those of the known remedies made of that metal.

BUT I cannot stay to enumerate the several ways, whereby the spirit of human blood may be made serviceable to the medicinal art. Yet one preparation there is, which though I have already taken notice of in the foregoing title, and therefore can scarce mention without some repetition, yet I think I ought not to pretermitt it on this occasion; partly because, whereas it was formerly proposed with respect only to the outward uses of it, I shall now consider it with reference to the inward; and partly because, by this way of proceeding, we may, at once, correct, diversify, and compound our spirit of blood.

THIS operation may be performed two ways, whereof the former is more simple than the latter. The first is, to add to well rectified spirit of blood a double weight, or about an equal one, (as the liquors, especially the volatile alcali, are more or less strong) of alcohol of wine: for these liquors, being well shaken together, will, in very great part, coagulate into salt, which, with a very gentle heat, will sublime in a dry form, in which I found it to have lost almost all its offensive smell. And though, against this way of proceeding I know it may be objected, (as was formerly intimated) that the efficacy of the medicine may, as well as the urinous smell, be much weakened by this preparation; yet I found this salt to retain a considerable degree of quickness and

and penetrancy, which its volatility kept me from thinking strange. And experience has persuaded me, that divers of these compounded, or, if I may so stile them, resulting salts, (which some chymists call *salia enixa*, for all agree not in the sense of that name) though they seem to have their activity clogged, may have considerable operations both in chymistry and physick. And why the emergent salt we speak of, may not be of that number, I see no sufficient cause; [*N. B.*] especially since such a kind of mixture, though made with another urinous spirit, has had such effects in fevers, as I thought extraordinary. Nor is the liquor, that our compounded salt leaves behind, to be thrown away, since, if it be dephlegmed, it may afford a not despicable liquor, both for medical and mechanical uses, of which it may here suffice to have given you in general this hint.

AND if the more simple way of altering the spirit of human blood, be carried on a little further, by dissolving in the alcohol of wine, before the conjunction of the two spirits be made, a convenient proportion (as perhaps a twentieth, or twenty-fourth part) of an essential chymical oil, as of cloves, anniseeds, marjoram, &c. the volatile salt, that will be sublimed from this mixture, will not only be deprived of its stink, but endowed with the smell and the relish of the oil; which, by being thus united with a salt very subtile and friendly to nature, will less over-power and offend the brain and stomach, than mere chymical oils are wont to do; and being associated with such agile and penetrating corpuscles, will with them gain admission into the more inward recesses of the body, and there exercise the virtues, that belong to the vegetables, that afforded the oils, or, at least, to the oils themselves. In these odoriferous aromatic mixtures, the oleaginous particles are, by the intervention of the saline ones, brought to mix readily with other liquors, and even with aqueous vehicles, and to continue long enough mixed for the patient to take them commodiously. And thus, by this one method, there may be a multitude of *salia volatilia oleosa*, that is, of pleasing, subtile and efficacious remedies for inward uses, prepared, even as many as the physician or chymist shall please to make essential oils, (or others, that will dissolve in alcohol of wine;) and if these be drawn from cephalick plants, as marjoram, rosemary, lavender, &c. or from cephalick spices, as nutmegs, cinnamon, &c. they will probably afford very brisk and grateful medicines, to relieve and comfort the brain and spirits; as they may the heart, liver, and other *viscera*, if, in the sublimation, the saline particles of blood be associated with those of oils drawn from vegetables, whose virtues do peculiarly respect those parts.

OTHER ways might be here proposed of making remedies, whereof the spirit of blood should be the main ingredient. But I willingly leave that work to yourself, and those of your profession, if you think fit to prosecute it; since my present task does not require, that I should write like, what I am not, a professed physician, but like what I endeavour to be, a diligent natural historian. And for the same reason I purposely forbear to insert here some chymical processes, that I have met with, of remedies, that admit of distilled blood, though I have also declined the mention of them, for two other reasons; one, that the authors do not recommend them upon their own experience; and the other, that these medicines being much more compounded, than those I lately proposed, wherein our spirit is mingled but with some one chymical oil or other diluted with alcohol of wine, their preparations are less fit for my design, which leads me to consider the effects of human blood upon patients, less as they are sanative, than as they are signs of qualities, whose knowledge tends to the discovery of the nature of spirit of human blood, and so of that blood itself.

AND this, Sir, it may suffice to have, at present, set down, touching the history of the spirit of human blood; of which, and of the other parts constituting that
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red body, or obtainable from it, I might have given you a far less incomplete account, if I had had more leisure; and if, for want of materials to make experiments upon the entire liquor, and the concentered and serous parts of it distinctly, and especially to afford a sufficient quantity of the spirit, I had not been so straitened, that I was fain to leave many things untried, and to try some others in much less quantities, and much more unaccurately than otherwise should have been done by, Sir,

Yours, &c.

An APPENDIX to the MEMOIRS for the HISTORY
of HUMAN BLOOD.

HAVING elsewhere mentioned the reasons, that moved me to think it fit to subjoin an appendix to each of the natural histories, that I drew up, or designed, of particular subjects; it would be needless to trouble you with them in this place, where it may therefore suffice to advertise you, that the following particulars I have thrown together, as they occurred to me, to be annexed to the foregoing history of human blood, are made up of two sorts: some, which through haste, or otherwise, were prætermitted, when they should have been ranged under one or other of the foregoing titles, and so are answerable to those, that in the first part of these memoirs were called *paralipomena*; and others, that are, for the most part, of kin to those, that are there stiled *addenda*; though some of them may be judged to deserve better the name of supernumerary, which yet I thought fit to let pass among the rest, because, though they do not directly belong to any of the distinct titles of our history, yet they may obliquely be referred to one or other of them, or are at least capable of being made some way subservient to the general design of the history itself. But the paucity of the particulars, that I am at present furnished with makes me fear it may favour of ostentation, if in so much penury of matter, I should curiously refer the particulars, that now occur to me, to the differing titles, primary and subordinate, that have been enumerated in the schemes of our intended histories. And therefore, till I be better stocked with materials, I shall forbear to make scrupulous references of them, or so much as constantly distinguish the *paralipomena*, from the other *addenda*; contenting myself to refer some of them in a general way, and in the order they chance to come to hand, to that part of the memoirs, whether the second, the third, or the fourth, to which they respectively seem most to belong.

It is hoped, that neither connection nor stile will be expected in loose notes, hastily set down, at several times, to secure the matters of fact, then fresh in memory, from being, as to any necessary circumstances, forgotten.

SOME trials may seem to have been made extravagantly, and quite at random, which perhaps would be otherwise thought of, but that I judged it not worth while, especially writing in haste, to spend time in setting down the inducements I had to make them, or the aims I had in them.

I am well aware, that some few of the following trials may seem but repetitions of others, recited in the body of the history. But these were added on purpose, that where the event of both trials was the same, they might confirm one another, which, where the subject has lain uncultivated, is oftentimes a desirable thing; and where they disagree in any considerable circumstances, their difference may occasion further trials, and in the mean time keep us from building dogmatical conclusions upon the circumstances, wherein they differ.

Particulars referrible to the second part of the HISTORY.

EXPERIMENT I.

THE proportion of the substances obtainable from dried human blood being, as I formerly noted, very difficult to be determined, because of that difficulty, and the importance of the inquiry, I thought fit to employ some blood, that I made a shift to collect, since the writing of the second part of the foregoing history, in making another experiment, that we may make the nearer and safer estimate, of the quantities of the distinct substances sought after. For this end I caused twelve ounces of dried blood to be carefully distilled by an expert laborant, well admonished of the difficulty of his task, and the exactness he was to aim at in performing it. The distillation being ended, the substances obtained were brought me, with this note of their quantities. Twelve ounces of dried human blood yielded, of volatile salt and spirit together, five ounces, of which we poured off from the wet salt 3xij+. 54 gr. so that there remained 3iij+. 5ij+. 6 gr. of volatile salt; of foetid oil there were two ounces; of *caput mortuum* four ounces and two drams: so that, in spite of all his care, there was lost, by sticking to the retorts and other glasses, (which, I presumed, retained little else than the more viscous oil and phlegm) and by avolation of some more subtile parts, (especially upon pouring the liquors from vessel to vessel) about six drams. The four ounces and two drams of *caput mortuum*, being diligently calcined, afforded but six drams and a half of ashes: of which very great decrement, the accension and consumption of the more fixed oleaginous part seems to be the cause. And if it be so, we may suppose, that there is a far greater proportion of oil in human blood, than has been hitherto taken notice of. These ashes were not white or grey, as those of other bodies use to be, but of a reddish colour, much like that of bricks; and yet the watchful laborant affirmed he could easily know them to be true ashes, because, that whilst there remained any thing oily or combustible in the *caput mortuum*, it would look like a thoroughly kindled charcoal (which it would continue to do far longer than one could expect:) but when that combustible substance was quite wasted, the remaining *caput mortuum* would look, in the fire, like dead and ordinary ashes, though, when they were cold, they appeared and continued red. These ashes, being carefully elixivated, afforded five scruples of white fixed salt, besides a little, which being casually got into the contiguous sand, and thence recovered by water, and reduced to the like white salt, amounted to about a scruple more: so that there remained for the *terra damnata* thirteen scruples and about a half, that is, a good deal above twice the weight of the salt; whence it appears, that according to this analysis, the pure fixed salt of human blood is but between the 57th and 58th part even of dried blood, and therefore probably, amounts but to the 150th, or perhaps to the 170th part (in weight) of blood, as it flows from the vein opened by a lancet; and the fixed earth, or *terra damnata*, is to the dried blood, that affords it, as 19 and about a half to one.

EXPERIMENT II.

IN regard the foregoing experiment, and another of the like nature formerly mentioned, were made with dried and pulverable blood of several persons put together, though I knew it would be scarce possible, in so small a quantity of blood, as I could obtain, at once, from one person, to find out, with any accurateness, the quantities of the several substances it was capable of affording; yet, to be able to make some tolerable estimate grounded upon experience, I was invited to make a trial, whose success, though in one part of it unlucky, was registered as follows:

AN entire parcel of human blood weighing ten ounces and 73 gr. being slowly distilled to dryness in a head and body, on a digestive furnace, afforded of phlegmatick liquor 3vij +, 3ij +. 47 gr. and of *caput mortuum*, or rather of dry substance 3ij +. 5ij. This pulverable matter being beaten and put into a retort, and distilled in sand, by degrees of fire, afforded 3j +. 48 gr. of oil. But there happened an unlucky mistake about the salt and spirit; for after the latter was poured off, which weighed but 48 gr. the wet salt, which stuck in good quantity to the lateral and upper parts of the receiver, instead of having been washed out, as it should have been, with the phlegm of the same blood, was washed out with distilled water; whence we obtained, by sublimation into the neck of a glass egg, 3j +. 5 gr. of dry salt: but, by the taste of the distilled water, whence it was sublimed, it appeared, that all the salt had not been raised; which invited me to put to it as much good spirit of salt, as I supposed to be at least sufficient to satiate it with design to try, whether, by evaporating this mixture to dryness, and subliming the salt, by the help of an alcali, we might not recover all, or almost all the volatile salt, that had been somewhat fixed by the acid spirit.

THE retort being cut, that the *caput mortuum* might be taken out, it was found to weigh 3vj +. 12 gr. which, being carefully calcined, yielded but two scruples and four grains of ashes, which the laborant said were red. These, being elixivated, afforded 18 grains of salt, besides the remaining earth or terrestrial substance, which I keep by me, because, notwithstanding all the violence of fire it has undergone, it is of a red colour, which seems to some to have an eye of purple in it.

EXPERIMENT III.

SPIRIT of vinegar being put upon the florid superficies of a parcel of human blood, did very quickly deprive it of its fresh scarlet colour, and make it of a dark or dirty colour.

EXPERIMENT IV.

THE juice of a lemon squeezed upon the florid surface of blood, did presently somewhat impair the colour, but did not appear to alter it any thing near so much, as the spirit of vinegar had done.

EXPERIMENT V.

JUICE of orange changed the colour of the florid surface of blood, less than juice of lemons had done.

EXPERIMENT VI.

THE black, or lower part of a portion of human blood being turned uppermost, and thereby exposed to the air, within half or three quarters of an hour, (somewhat more or less) acquired, by the contact of it, a pleasant and florid colour.

EXPERIMENT VII.

BUT if upon the black surface of the blood some good urinous spirit (as that of sal-armoniac) were dropped, there would be an alteration produced in a trice; and a pleasant red colour, though perhaps somewhat inferior to that produced by the contact of the air, would presently appear on the surface of the blood.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

FIXED alcalies, or lixivate salts resolved *per deliquium*, did likewise alter the black superficies of the blood to a red colour, but not so florid or pleasant, as that produced by the urinous spirit abovementioned.

EXPERIMENT IX.

THE freshly drawn juice of the leaves of scurvy-glass being dropped upon the black superficies of a lump of human blood, seemed presently to make some change in the colour of it, making us judge it somewhat reddish and inclinable to floridness.

THE seven foregoing notes suppose it to be already known, that when healthy blood is suffered to settle in a porringer, that surface of the concremented part, which is exposed to the air, will be adorned with a fine red colour; and if the same mass be turned upside down, that, which before was the lower surface of it, will appear of a very dark and blackish colour.

EXPERIMENT X.

HAVING, for trial's sake, almost filled a vial, capable of containing by guess near a pound of human blood, with a mixture of that liquor, and some rectified spirit of wine, whose proportion I cannot remember, but guess it was a fourth or eighth part; at the end of above three years, looking upon the same glass, stopped with nothing but a cork, we found it coagulated, or to speak more warily, in a consistent form. And the vessel being unstopped, there appeared no sign of putrefaction in the blood; and having smelt to it, we could not perceive, that it did at all stink: so balsamick a virtue has dephlegmed spirit of wine to preserve human blood.

EXPERIMENT XI.

WE took a piece of fibrous or concremented blood, of the bigness of a large bean (or thereabouts) and having put it into a small glass vessel with a flattish bottom, we poured on it as much highly rectified vinous spirit, as might serve to cover it, though it had been twice thicker than it was; then we lightly covered this open-mouthed glass with another, and set the vessel in a quiet place, that the vinous spirit might have leisure to imbibe the serous or aqueous parts of the blood, and thereby harden that yet soft substance; and, in effect, it quickly seemed to have gained a superficial crust, but the internal parts continuing yet soft, we left the liquor upon the blood for a day or two longer, and then we found, that the action of the liquor had quite penetrated the lump of blood, and made it moderately hard and friable.

THIS experiment having been made in the cold, may much confirm a trial elsewhere mentioned to have been made to the same purpose; and both of them together induced me to fear, that two or three ingenious writers, that, in their chymical receipts prescribe solutions and tinctures of concremented blood in spirit of wine, have set down the pompous processes, wherein these operations are prescribed, rather according to conjectures than experience.

EXPERIMENT XII.

It may be of some use to the speculative to know, how much volatile salt of blood is dissoluble in water or phlegm: and therefore, having caused an ounce of distilled water (for common water, because of some saltiness, that usually accompanies it, would not have been so proper on this occasion) to be carefully weighed out, we put into it, little by little, some dry and white volatile salt of blood, and shook it well into the liquor, to make it disperse the better: we allowed it also a competent time for solution; and by this means, we found, that ℥i. of water would dissolve at least ʒij. that is, a fourth part of its weight of dry salt, and that in the cold; for, afterwards, by the help of heat, we made the same liquor dissolve near five and 20 grains more. In which last part of the experiment I had a further aim, which was to try, whether, upon the refrigeration of the liquor, the dissolved salt would not shoot into crystals of observable

observable figures; but the event answered not at that time my desire, yet left me not without some intention to reiterate the experiment, if I shall get another opportunity.

P O S T S C R I P T.

E X P E R I M E N T XIII.

WE put the abovementioned solution into a retort, to be drawn off with a pretty quick heat, (which on this occasion we preferred to a much slower one) and thereby obtained a distilled liquor, that contained all the volatile salt, save a little, that escaped in a dry form; which liquor tasted strong enough to pass for quite, or at least almost, as brisk a liquor, as moderate spirit of blood drawn the common way, and consequently discovered near enough, what proportion should be taken of the aqueous ingredient to the saline, when one would make such a spirit. The knowledge of which proportion may probably ease us of some trials, that would otherwise be necessary to find it out, when we are (as we may often be) less stored with spirit than with volatile salt, and desire to employ this in a liquid form; in which, we are wont to call it, for distinction's sake, the aqueous (not the phlegmatic) spirit of blood.

If opportunity had not been wanting, we would have tried, whether, by repeating the distillation twice or thrice, a better or stricter union of the salt and liquor would not have been effected: and this, the rather, because having ordered the vial, that contained this aqueous spirit, in which the water had been, if I may so speak, superonerated, to be kept stopt during a frosty night, we perceived at the bottom of the glass (what we had missed of before) a pretty deal of volatile salt coagulated or shot into crystals, though the crystals, that were this way obtained, were fine and clear, and some of them larger than spangles, yet being much more numerous than we desired, by adhering closely and confusedly enough to one another, they kept us from being able to discover the figure of particular grains, and made me somewhat doubt, whether the single crystals were all of them of the same shape; all that I could clearly discern being, that divers of those concretions were flat thin plates, with fine rectilinear angles, that inclined us to think, that if the whole plains could have been perfectly discovered, their broadest surface would have been found hexagonal, or of some polygon figures very near of kin to that.

E X P E R I M E N T XIV.

WE put an ounce of distilled water, wherein we dissolved as much volatile salt of human blood, as it would well take up, into a glass egg, and exposed it during a frosty night to congeal; which we did with design to discover, whether, as the saltiness, that is in sea water keeps it here in *England* from freezing, (at least or ordinary winters,) so the volatile salt of human blood, which much resembles the other in taste, would have the like effect upon water, especially if it were fully impregnated therewith. To this conjecture the event was answerable, the frost having produced no ice in our solution, nor having so much as made any of the salt manifestly shoot, (as I wished it had done, hoping thereby to discover somewhat about the figuration of the salt of human blood.)

AND, though afterwards we removed it into a frigorific mixture, that would probably have frozen beer and ale, and perhaps the weaker sort of French wine; yet, we did not perceive it to glaciare any part of our solution, but only made it let fall a pretty deal of matter, that seemed to be feculent, (for what it was, I had not opportunity to examine.)

EXPERIMENT XV.

SEA-SALT dissolved in water renders that liquor much more difficult to be frozen, than it was before; and yet being joined with ice or snow, the other ingredient of our frigorific mixture, it does, when outwardly applied, very much conduce to the artificial congelation of it, which usually would not succeed without it. Wherefore, to try whether, as volatile salt of human blood being dissolved in water, did, as was formerly noted, hinder it from freezing, so it would, outwardly applied, highly promote its glaciation; we mixed by guess about a scruple of this salt with a convenient quantity of beaten ice, and having put into this mixture a somewhat slender pipe of glass with common water in it, we found, after a while, the water, that lay in the lower part of the glass vessel, and was surrounded by the mixture, was turned into ice.

EXPERIMENT XVI.

To try some suspicions I had about the saline and aqueous parts, I thought might lie concealed in the fibrous or consistent part of human blood, I caused some of it to be in an open and shallow glass exposed to the air in a frosty night, and the next morning found it to be lightly frozen, and the surface of the ice prettily figured with resemblances of combs, with teeth on both sides or edges; on which account these figures did not ill resemble those, that I have oftentimes obtained, by slowly coagulating into salt a solution of sal-armoniac made in common water.

In the second part of the foregoing memoirs I have not said any thing of the medicinal virtues of human blood itself, (for those of the spirit belong to the fourth part) and though I might now, if I thought fit, say something not impertinent to that subject in this appendix, both out of some printed books and my own observations; yet, I now forbear to do it, not only for a reason, that it is not necessary I should here declare, but because four to five processes, that I have met with about human blood in *Paracelsus*, *Burgavius*, (famous for his biolychnium made of that subject) and one or two more, about the transplantation of diseases by means of the patient's blood, are such, as either I do not well understand, because of their being (probably on purpose) obscurely pen'd, or seem in themselves unlikely; of which sort is the biolychnium, or lamp of life, in which it is pretended, that the blood is so prepared, that the state of the health of the person, whose it is, may be discovered by the manner of the burning of the flame it affords, (though he be perhaps at a great distance from it,) and his death by its extinction. Besides that, as I have elsewhere noted, some circumstances relating to the ashes of human blood, make me doubt, whether some of these processes were not rather the products of fancy than experience. And, though, I think those medicines less improbable, that, without much destroying the texture of the blood by fire, aim at transplanting diseases by its intervention, yet I thought fit to decline transcribing the forementioned medicines, till experience shall warrant me to do it. And I shall also at present forbear to set down my own trials, because I have not yet seen the event of them: but, yet, I shall invite you to endeavour with me to prepare two, that, if they succeed, may afford, especially the last of them, considerable medicines. The first medicine, that I attempted, was, by putting to salt of tartar oil of human blood, instead of oil of turpentine; and by keeping them long, and stirring them frequently, in the open air, to make such a saponary concretion, as is not unknown to many in *London* by the name of *Matthews's* corrector, which, as he made it with common oil of turpentine, though it seem but a slight composition, is yet esteemed and employed with good success by some doctors of physic and other practitioners in *London*. To make the other medicine, we endeavoured to unite, by long digestion, the salt,
spirit,

spirit, and oil of human blood, into a mixture, which some chymists (for their terms are not by all of them used in the same sense) call a clyffus : but, having begun this, without having had time to finish it, we shall say no more of it, but that divers chymists may not improbably look upon this sort of compositions, as one of the noblest sort of preparations, that many a drug is capable of.

Particulars referrible to the third part of the HISTORY.

EXPERIMENT I.

A YOUNG man having bled into a porringer, and the blood having been kept several hours, that a sufficient separation might be made of the coagulated or consistent part and the fluid, the fibrous portion and the serum were separately weighed ; and the difference of the two masses, in point of weight, was not so great as one would have expected, the curdled part of the blood weighing about six ounces, and the serous part not many drams from that weight. This trial is here set down, that, by comparing it with some others, one may see what difference there is between the bloods of sound persons, as to the proportion of the serum, and the concreted part.

EXPERIMENT II.

HUMAN urine having first (that I know of) by the very ingenious Mr, *Hook*, and oftentimes by me, been observed, when frozen, to have on the surface of the ice figures not ill resembling combs or feathers ; the great affinity generally supposed to be betwixt urine and the serum of blood made me think fit to try at once, whether this last named liquor would freeze with such a degree of cold, as would easily, and yet not very easily glaciare water, and whether, in case it should freeze, the ice would have a surface figured like that of frozen urine. But, having for this purpose exposed some serum of human blood to cold air, in two freezing nights consecutively, the serum was not found to congeal, though some grumous parts of the same blood did, as has formerly been noted ; yet I scarce doubted, but an exceeding hard frost would have produced at least a thin plate of ice upon the surface of our liquor. And to confirm this conjecture, we took the same serum, and having strained it through a linen cloth, to separate the liquor, as much as by that way we could, from any clotted or fibrous parts, that might have lain concealed in it, we put it into a shallow concave glass, and laid that upon some of our frigorific mixture made of ice and salt, which we have described and often made use of in the history of cold. By this means the exposed serum, being frozen from the bottom upwards, there appeared here and there upon the ice contiguous to the air certain figures, that did not ill resemble those of congeliated urine.

EXPERIMENT III.

HAVING formerly had occasion to observe, that man's urine would tolerably well serve for what they call an invisible ink ; and having considered (when I remembered this) the great affinity, that is supposed to be between urine and the serum of blood, I thought fit to try, whether the latter might not be employed like the former to make a kind of invisible ink. To this effect we took some serum of human blood, and having dipt a new pen in it, we traced some characters upon a piece of white paper, and having suffered them to dry on, we held the unwritten side of the paper over the flame of a candle, keeping it always stirring, that it might not take fire : by which means, the letters, that had been written, appeared on the upper surface of the paper, being, though not of an inky blackness, yet of a colour dark enough to be easily legible, and
very

very like to some others, that, having been purposely written with fresh urine, and made visible, by heat, were compared with them.

Particulars referrible to the fourth part of the HISTORY.

EXPERIMENT I.

I confess the defectiveness of our historical knowledge of human blood extravasated has been such, that among the authors I have had occasion to peruse, I have met with so few matters of fact delivered upon their own knowledge, that the things I have thought fit to transcribe out of their books into this little tract, do scarce all of them together amount to half a sheet of paper: but yet I would not impute this penury, either to the laziness or the ignorance of writers, but rather to this, that they wanted some person, exercised in designing natural histories to excite their curiosity, and direct their attention; there being many, that would enquire, if they knew what questions were fit to be asked about a proposed subject, as for instance human blood, and what researches ought to be made to discover its nature. Upon this account I hope, that after some time the foregoing scheme of titles, and the papers, that refer to it, will give occasion to a great many more experiments and observations about the blood, (and perhaps other liquors of the human body) than hitherto have been published by others, or are now imparted by me. Which last words I set down, because I would not be thought guilty of the vanity of pretending to have near exhausted the subject I have treated of; since, besides other deficiencies, I now perceive, that I wholly omitted a considerable title, which might either have been referred to the primary ones of the first order, or employed as a kind of preliminary to the secondary titles of the history of the spirit of blood. This pretermitted title should have been, *of the several ways of distilling human blood*; since, according to these, the produced spirit, salt, &c. may be considerably diversified.

UPON this account I thought fit to distill three portions of dried blood, each with a differing additament. The first with a mineral alcali, quicklime: the next with a vegetable alcali, calcined tartar: and the third with a sulphureous acid, oil of vitriol. And, though some accidents kept me from prosecuting the trials as I desired, yet the first having succeeded indifferent well, and the others not having wholly miscarried, I shall subjoin the accounts of all three, as they were set down in my notes.

HAVING observed (*Exper. I.*) that divers bodies, when they were distilled with quicklime, afforded liquors differing from those they would have yielded, if they had been distilled, either *per se*, or with some vulgar additaments; we took 3v. of concreted, but not dried human blood, and having mixed it with an equal weight of quicklime, (such as I could procure, but not so strong as I have often seen,) we distilled it by degrees of fire in a retort placed in sand, by which means we obtained a large proportion of reddish spirituous liquor, which did not seem considerably phlegmatic, together, with some oil, which was but in very small quantity, the rest being probably kept back; (and perhaps some of it destroyed) by the lime: and of this little oil, that did come over, there was a small portion, that sunk in the spirit, the rest swimming upon it.

THE abovementioned spirit being put into a small head and body, was set into a digestive furnace, to rectify at leisure with a very gentle heat, and the receiver was three or four times shifted, that we might observe, what difference, if any, there would be betwixt the successively ascending portions of liquor. The first spirit, that came over, did not smell near so rank, as that is wont to do, that is distilled *per se*. This observation belongs also to the three or four succeeding portions of liquor; probably, because

because the lime better freed the spirit of the first distillation from the fætid oil, many of whose particles are wont, though unperceivedly, to mingle with it, when it is drawn over without additament. The rectified spirit, which was clear and colourless, had a taste much stronger than its smell; for a small drop of it upon the tongue had something of fieryness, that was surprizing, and lasted longer than one would wish; which made me doubt, whether the spirituous part of the blood had not carried up with it some of the fiery parts of the quick-lime; which doubt, if future trials resolve in the affirmative, one may expect some uncommon effects from such a spirit, which, in this case, would be enriched with a kind of volatilised alkali, a thing much desired by many chymists and physicians. Upon occasion of this suspicion, we dropped a little of it into a strong solution of sublimate in fair water, and it seemed at the first contact to make a precipitate a little inclining to yellow, (as I have observed the saline parts of quick-lime to do in a greater measure,) though afterwards the precipitate appeared white, like that made with ordinary volatile liquors of an urinous nature.

BUT, because I expected, that our alcalifate spirit of blood, if I may so call it, would have some peculiar qualities, discriminating it from the spirit drawn without addition; I thought fit to make a few trials with it, whose event justified my conjectures. For having put into a glass egg with a slender neck some of our well rectified spirit, it did not then afford any volatile salt in a dry form, (though afterwards, if I mistook not, by another trial, we at length obtained a little;) and having continued the trial somewhat obstinately, we found the spirit to have, by the action of the fire, lost its limpidness, and to have been made muddy or troubled.

HAVING mingled another portion of it with a highly rectified ardent spirit, and kept them all night in the cold, no coagulation ensued, nor could we perceive any after it had been kept divers hours in a moderate heat: but the mixture acquired a yellow colour, and let fall, somewhat to our surprize, a pretty deal of darkish powder, though not enough to invite us to make any trials upon it.

WE put to another parcel of our spirit some good spirit of salt; but, though they smoked much at their meeting, yet we observed no noise nor bubbles upon their mixture.

AND having mingled another portion with oil of vitriol, though there was produced a very great smoke, and besides that an intense degree of heat, (the quantity of the matter considered,) yet there was no visible ebullition, nor any noise or bubbles produced, but the colour of the oil of vitriol was very much heightened, the mixture growing almost red.

FROM these, and the like phænomena, one may gather, that our alcalifate spirit of blood is in several things differing from the simple. Whether this disparity will make it a more potent medicine, or make it, by too much participation of the fiery parts of the lime, a less safe remedy, future experience must discover. But it seems not improbable, that either as a medicine, or as a menstruum, if not in both capacities, it may be a not inconsiderable liquor; for which reason I have made my account of it the more circumstantial.

EXPERIMENT II.

WE took ʒij of tartar calcined to whiteness by equal weight of (kindled) nitre, and mingled this alkali with ʒij of dried and powdered human blood. This mixture being distilled in a retort in a sand furnace, made it appear, by its productions, that quick-lime, on these occasions, acts otherwise upon the blood, than other alkalies do. For, whereas the distillation, wherein lime was employed, afforded us, as has been noted, a spirit, that, before rectification, was very strong, and unaccompanied with dry salt; the

very like to some others, that, having been purposely written with fresh urine, and made visible, by heat, were compared with them.

Particulars referrible to the fourth part of the HISTORY.

EXPERIMENT I.

I confess the defectiveness of our historical knowledge of human blood extravasated has been such, that among the authors I have had occasion to peruse, I have met with so few matters of fact delivered upon their own knowledge, that the things I have thought fit to transcribe out of their books into this little tract, do scarce all of them together amount to half a sheet of paper: but yet I would not impute this penury, either to the laziness or the ignorance of writers, but rather to this, that they wanted some person, exercised in designing natural histories to excite their curiosity, and direct their attention; there being many, that would enquire, if they knew what questions were fit to be asked about a proposed subject, as for instance human blood, and what researches ought to be made to discover its nature. Upon this account I hope, that after some time the foregoing scheme of titles, and the papers, that refer to it, will give occasion to a great many more experiments and observations about the blood, (and perhaps other liquors of the human body) than hitherto have been published by others, or are now imparted by me. Which last words I set down, because I would not be thought guilty of the vanity of pretending to have near exhausted the subject I have treated of; since, besides other deficiencies, I now perceive, that I wholly omitted a considerable title, which might either have been referred to the primary ones of the first order, or employed as a kind of preliminary to the secondary titles of the history of the spirit of blood. This pretermitted title should have been, *of the several ways of distilling human blood*; since, according to these, the produced spirit, salt, &c. may be considerably diversified.

UPON this account I thought fit to distill three portions of dried blood, each with a differing additament. The first with a mineral alkali, quicklime: the next with a vegetable alkali, calcined tartar: and the third with a sulphureous acid, oil of vitriol. And, though some accidents kept me from prosecuting the trials as I desired, yet the first having succeeded indifferent well, and the others not having wholly miscarried, I shall subjoin the accounts of all three, as they were set down in my notes.

HAVING observed (*Exper. I.*) that divers bodies, when they were distilled with quicklime, afforded liquors differing from those they would have yielded, if they had been distilled, either *per se*, or with some vulgar additaments; we took $\frac{3}{4}$ v. of con- creted, but not dried human blood, and having mixed it with an equal weight of quick- lime, (such as I could procure, but not so strong as I have often seen,) we distilled it by degrees of fire in a retort placed in sand, by which means we obtained a large pro- portion of reddish spirituous liquor, which did not seem considerably phlegmatic, together, with some oil, which was but in very small quantity, the rest being pro- bably kept back; (and perhaps some of it destroyed) by the lime: and of this little oil, that did come over, there was a small portion, that sunk in the spirit, the rest swimming upon it.

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the calcinatum of nitre and tartar afforded us, at the very first distillation, a spirit less strong; but withal, so much volatile salt as covered almost all the inside of the receiver, not now to mention the difference of their respective *caput mortuums*. And, though the strong saline spirit of blood made with quick-lime did not, as we lately noted, make an effervescence with acid spirits, yet this volatile salt readily did it upon the affusion of spirit of salt.

EXPERIMENT III.

BESIDES the fixt alcalisate additaments, with which I distilled the dried blood of men, I thought fit to add to it a very acid additament, *viz.* oil of vitriol; and this, the rather, because I had long since found by trial, (and, if I mis-remember not, have elsewhere related) that this liquor being mixed with some other bodies, particularly with some belonging to the animal kingdom, did in an odd manner mingle its own substances (for I take it not to be a simple body) with them, and notably diversify the products of the distillation. We put therefore upon ℥ij. of powdered human blood an equal weight of oil of vitriol, and left them for some time together, to try, if by the action of this corrosive menstruum, though upon a body not of a mineral nature, some heat would not be excited; and accordingly we found, that after a while, though not at the very first, the mixture grew sensibly warm. Then we removed the retort into a sand furnace, and distilling it by degrees of fire, we had a spirit, which was preceded by a pretty deal of phlegmatic liquor of an odd sulphureous smell, but so strong and lasting, that I could not but wonder at it. The *caput mortuum* I was fain to let alone, because I had some inducements to suppose, that it was of so compounded a nature, that I should not, in my present circumstances, have the opportunity to examine it thoroughly. But, it seemed remarkable, that, notwithstanding the great acidity of oil of vitriol, and the fixative power it exercises on many bodies wherewith it is committed to distillation, our experiment afforded us a pretty quantity of volatile matter in the form of a white salt. But, indeed the smell and taste of it were so uncommon, that I was troubled I had not then conveniency to examine it carefully, much less, to try, whether it had any peculiar virtues or operations in physic; though I had then by me a glass instrument, that I purposely provided to obviate the great inconvenience, that is usually met with, and has been often complained of by me as well as others, in the way chymists are wont to imploy, when they are put to make repeated sublimations of volatile salts, whether alone or with additaments. Of this instrument I cannot now stay to give you an account; but if it continue to appear as useful as expeditious, I may hereafter do it by presenting you one ready made.

HAVING set down these preliminaries, I shall proceed to

EXPERIMENT I.

To some naturalists and physicians, that delight to frame hypotheses, perhaps it may not be unwelcome to know, that, for curiosity's sake, we attempted to make *aurum fulminans*, by precipitating a solution of gold (made in *aqua-regia*) with spirit of human blood, by dulcifying the precipitate with common water, and then drying it leisurely; and that, by this means, we succeeded in the attempt.

EXPERIMENT II.

HAVING into a wide-mouthed glass put as much spirit of blood, as would more than cover the ball of a small sealed weather-glass, and suffered this instrument to stay a while, that the ambient liquor and the included might be reduced to the same temper, as to heat and cold; we poured on some spirit of verdigreese made *per se*, and observed,

served, that, though this spirit, with some other volatile saline liquors, had a very differing operation, yet working on our spirit of blood, with which it made a conflict, and excited bubbles, there was produced in the mixture a degree of warmth, that was not insensible on the outside of the glass, but was much more sensible in the thermometer, whose liquor, being hereby rarified, ascended to a considerable height above the former station, towards which, when the conflict of the two liquors was over, it began, though but slowly, to return.

EXPERIMENT III.

HAVING by degrees mixed our spirit of blood with as much good spirit of nitre, as it would manifestly work on, there was, not without noise, produced great store of bubbles by their mutual conflict; which being kept in a quiet place, till after the liquors had quite ceased to work on one another, it began to appear, that, notwithstanding all our care to free the spirit of blood from oil, something of oleaginous, that had been concealed in it, had been manifested, and partly separated by this operation; since not only a somewhat red colour was produced by it, but, after a while, the surface of the liquor was covered with a film, such as I have often observed in saline liquors copiously impregnated with antimony or other sulphureous bodies. And this thin membrane had its superficies so disposed, that looking upon it with eyes placed conveniently in reference to it and the light, it did to me, and other persons, that did not at all look on it from the same place, appear adorned with vivid colours of the rainbow, as red, yellow, blue, and green; and, as I remember, in the same order, that these colours are to be seen in the clouds.

EXPERIMENT IV.

HAVING unexpectedly found, amongst some other long neglected glasses, a vial, that was written upon above twelve years before, and inscribed spirit of human blood, it appeared to have been, by I know not what accident, very loosely stoppt, and yet not so, as to give me cause to think, that the liquor was much wasted: but notwithstanding this, and that the liquor had acquired a deep colour, almost like that of red wine; yet it was so dispirited and strengthless, that it appeared to be very little other than nauseous phlegm. Which observation I therefore think not unworthy to be preserved, because by it we may guess, how little a portion of the noble and genuine spirit or salt may suffice to make a liquor pass for spirit of human blood.

EXPERIMENT V.

IN a frosty season we exposed, late at night, two or three spoonfuls by guess of spirit of human blood, that was not of the best, being, at the utmost, but moderately strong. And though the cold of that season had thoroughly frozen a vial almost full of oil of vitriol, and the night, wherein our spirit was exposed, was (at least) moderately frosty; yet, the next morning, we did not find so much as any superficial ice upon it: but having removed the vial into a mixture of powdered ice and common salt, we found, in no very long time, that most part of the spirit was turned into thin plates of ice, which joined close together, and had their edges upwards, like those of the leaves of a book, when it is held with its back downwards.

EXPERIMENT VI.

To make a further trial of that imperfect one mentioned in the eighth subordinate title, we took a clot of human blood of the bigness of a bean, or thereabouts, and having put it into a vial in such manner, that that part, which before was contiguous

to the air, and for that reason was florid, was now the undermost, and the other, which was blackish, lay now uppermost, we made haste to pour upon it as much spirit of human blood, as was more than sufficient to cover it, and perceived, that the contact of it presently began to lessen the blackness of the surface of the blood, and bring it to a considerable degree of floridness: and to try whether that would continue, we stopt the vial, and set it by till the next morning, (for it was then night,) when looking upon it, we found the superficial colour not to be black, but still red.

EXPERIMENT VII.

UPON the powder of dried human blood we put (in a small vial) some of the rectified spirit of human blood, which quickly dissolved part of it, and acquired a deep and pleasant colour. But highly rectified spirit of wine being put upon some of the same powder in a like glass, did not in many hours acquire any manifest tincture, and got but a pale yellow one, even after having been for a longer time kept in a moderate heat. And yet common water, being put upon another portion of the same powder, did quickly enough appear, by the colour it acquired, to have dissolved a pretty deal of it.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

SOME of our spirit of human blood being put upon some curious vitriol, that I had as a rarity (if I mistake not) from the *East-Indies*, part whereof was in lumps, and part beaten to powder; that liquor, which was put upon the former, being able to dissolve it but slowly, made little or no froth; but the spirit, that was put upon the latter, by hastily working on it, produced a manifest one. And the solutions made of both parcels of vitriol were of a deeper and more lovely blue, than the mineral itself had been: nor did I observe in them any precipitate of a dark colour, as I have done upon the mixture of spirit of urine and ordinary vitriol.

EXPERIMENT IX.

HAVING with a clean pen drawn some letters upon white paper with spirit of human blood, and, as soon as it was dry, moved the unwritten side over the flame of a candle, we found, that this liquor may, for a need, be employed as an invisible ink, that seemed to be somewhat better, than those formerly mentioned to have been afforded us by serum and urine.

EXPERIMENT X.

HAVING found by trial, that divers salts, some that are volatile, and some that are not, being put in powder into water, will, whilst they are dissolving, sensibly refrigerate it; and on the other side, that some very subtle spirits actually cold, being put into cold water, will quickly produce in it a sensible warmth, I thought it would not be amiss to try, what spirit of human blood would do, when employed after the same manner. Having therefore placed a sealed thermoscope in an open-mouthed glass, furnished with as much distilled water as would cover the ball of the instrument, we left it there for a while, to bring the internal liquor and the external to the same degree of coldness. Then we poured upon the immersed ball two or three spoonfuls of spirit of human blood (which was all we could spare for this trial) but perceived very little alteration to ensue in the thermoscope, only that it seemed the spirit of wine in the stem did a little, and but a very little, subside; which effect (though it had been much more manifest) I should not have been surprized at, partly because I found spirit of urine to have a like, or somewhat more considerable effect, and partly because I remembered, what

what I elsewhere relate about the operation of the pure salt of human blood upon distilled water ; which liquor I therefore make use of in these and many other experiments, because in our common pump-water or well-water, and in most other common waters, I have observed a kind of common salt, which, though in very small quantity, makes it apt to coagulate with, or precipitate, some kind of saline corpuscles, whether more simple, or compounded. But before I quite dismiss the lately recited experiment, I must acknowledge, that I dare not acquiesce in it ; since probably the effect of the spirit of blood would have been more considerable, if I had been furnished with a sufficient quantity of it to pour into the water.

EXPERIMENT XI.

INTO a slender cylindrical vial we put filings of copper, more than enough to cover the bottom, and then pouring on some spirit of human blood, till it reached about an inch above the filings, we stopt the glass close ; and, as we expected, the menstruum dissolved some of the metal, and acquired upon it a deep ceruleous colour, which, by keeping the vessel in a quiet place for some days, did by degrees disappear, and left the liquor like water. And then the glass being unstopt, there did, as was expected, appear a fine blue surface on the confines of the air and the liquor, in a minute of an hour or less ; and this fine colour extending itself downwards, was in no long time diffused through the whole body of the liquor, and that so plentifully, as to render it almost opacous. But, though I kept the glass many days after well stopt, yet (whether it were, that there was too much air left in the vial, or for some other reason) the colour did not disappear, as was expected, but continued very intense. This may confirm and diversify an experiment related in the thirteenth title of the fourth part of the memoirs.

EXPERIMENT XII.

It is not only upon copper, in its perfect metalline form, but by nature itself embriated in, or blended with, stony matter, that our spirit of human blood did manifestly work : for having poured some upon well powdered *lapis Armenus*, the liquor did, even in the cold, and in no long time, (for it exceeded not a few hours) acquire a deep and lovely blue, almost like the solution of filings of crude copper made with the same menstruum.

The POSTSCRIPT.

AND here, Sir, I shall at length dismiss a subject, about which I now perceive I have already entertained you much longer, than at first I imagined. And yet, if I prevail with you, your trouble is not quite at an end ; since I exhort you to take the pains, for your own satisfaction and mine, to try over again such of the foregoing experiments, as you shall judge likely to be of a contingent nature. For, though I hope you will do me the right to believe, that I have as faithfully as plainly delivered matters of fact, without being biaised by hypotheses, or aiming at elegance, yet my exhortation may be reasonable : for I have observed human blood to be a thing so diversifiable, by various circumstances, and especially by the habitual constitution of the person, that bleeds, and his present condition at the very time of phlebotomy, that I dare not undertake, that every repeater of the like experiments with mine will always find the events to be just such, as I have recited mine to have had. I say, I dare not promise myself an exact uniformity of successes, even when I myself shall reiterate

some (of the nicer) of my own trials; especially if I can do it, as I desire, with greater quantities of blood than (for want of them) the first were made with.

To the particulars already delivered in order to the history of human blood, I could now, Sir, add some others, if time and discretion would permit me to do it. For, as little cultivated as the subject has been, I found it not so barren, but that, whilst I was delivering some trials concerning it, the consideration of those, and of the nature of the thing, suggested new ones to me. But it is high time I should break off an appendix, that being but a rhapsody of the notes and other things, that have occurred to me since the memoirs were written, may, I fear, seem already too prolix, as well as confused. I do not forget, that the two last subordinate titles of the fourth part of the memoirs concern the external and internal use of the spirit of blood in physic; and that therefore perchance it may be expected, that I should here add some experiments or observations relating to those titles. But I hope the lately mentioned reasons, and my just backwardness to part with some of them, because they are not yet finished, will make you easily excuse my laying them aside; which I am like to do long, unless you and your learned friends shall peremptorily require them of me in a fitter season than this, in which some occasions, that I cannot dispense with, call me off to other employments, and oblige me to leave a further inquiry into this subject to yourself, and those able professed physicians, who have, as well more obligation, as more ability than I, to pursue it effectually. This I may well hope, that you and they will do, since, upon a cursory review of a part only of what I have written, so many things sprang up, even in my thoughts, as original trials, if I may so call them, or as other things fit to be further considered, that I perceived it would not be difficult to increase the appendix, by two sorts of particulars; the one made up of *designed* experiments, that is, such as have not yet been tried, and yet seem worthy to be so, (to which it is probable our excellent *Verulam*, would have given the title of *historio designata*;) the other should consist of such trials, as I call succedaneous experiments, that is, such as I intended should be made upon the blood of beasts, in such cases and circumstances, wherein the blood of men either cannot be had, or ought not to be procured. When I shall next have the happiness to converse with you, you may command a sight of what I have drawn up of this kind. And, if GOD shall please to vouchsafe me health and conveniency, I may perhaps (for I must not absolutely promise it) offer you what *addenda* have occurred to me, as things not unfit to make way for a more copious, and less unaccurate scheme of titles, such as those, that in the first part (of the memoirs) are called *titles of the second classis, or order*: for which scheme I was the rather invited to think it fit materials should be by some body provided, because second thoughts made me sensible, that the particulars compiled in this small book come far short (as I lately acknowledged, and you will easily believe) of comprizing all, that should and may be known of so noble and useful a subject, as I have ventured to treat of. And I will freely confess to you, on this occasion, that, for my part, in the prospect I have of the future advancement of human knowledge, I think most of those virtuosi, that now live, must content themselves with the satisfaction of having employed their intellects on worthy objects, and of having industriously endeavoured, by promoting useful knowledge, to glorify GOD and serve mankind. For, I presume, that our enlightened posterity will arrive at such attainments, that the discoveries and performances, upon which the present age most values itself, will appear so easy, or so inconsiderable to them, that they will be tempted to wonder, that things to them so obvious, should lye so long concealed to us, or be so much prized by us; whom they will, perhaps, look upon with some kind of disdainful pity, unless they have either the equity to consider, as well the smallness of our helps, as that of our attainments; or the generous grati-
tude

tude to remember the difficulties this age surmounted, in breaking the ice, and smoothing the way for them, and thereby contributing to those advantages, that have enabled them so much to surpass us. And since I scruple not to say this of those shining wits, and happy inquirers, that illustrate and enoble this learned age, I hope you will not think, that I, who own myself to be more fit to celebrate than rival them, would dissuade you from improving and surpassing the slight performances, that are, in this little tract, submitted to your judgment by,

Knightbridge,
Dec. 22, 1683.

S I R,

Your very humble servant.

EXPERIMENTS and CONSIDERATIONS about the Porosity of BODIES, in Two ESSAYS.

To the R E A D E R.

THE reader is to be advertised, not to expect, in the following essay, a regular, or so much as a coherent discourse: for it was intended only as a collection of loose experiments and observations, about the porosity of the parts of bodies belonging (as chymists speak) to the animal kingdom, and laid (not to say thrown) together, in order to what I had thoughts of offering towards an intelligible account of occult qualities. I am not ignorant, that even one of the most antient and famous of physicians hath said, that a man's body is (almost) every where perspirable. But I judged, that a doctrine of such moment, and which divers things in the theory and practise of after physicians may make one think they either disbelieved or disregarded, did not deserve to be slightly delivered, and in general terms; but to be narrowly considered, and likewise made out by particular instances, whose appliableness and usefulness to explain divers obscure phænomena may hereafter appear much greater, than, perchance at the first sight, they will be thought.

AND the foregoing advertisement, with a light change, which, it is presumed, the reader may easily make of himself, is to be extended to the essay tacked to this about the pores of solid bodies, and so may excuse the absence of a distinct preface to it.

Of the POROUSNESS of ANIMAL BODIES.

AS the most numerous part of the pores of bodies is too minute to be seen, so the contemplation of them has been thought too inconsiderable to be regarded. But when I consider, how much most of the qualities of bodies, and consequently their operations, depend upon the structure of their minute, and singly invisible particles, and that to this latent contexture, the bigness, the figure, and the collocation of the intervals and pores do necessarily concur with the size, shape and disposition, or contrivance of the substantial parts, I cannot but think the doctrine of the small pores of bodies of no small importance to natural philosophy. And I scarce doubt, but if such little things had not escaped the sight of our illustrious *Verulam*, he would have afforded a good porology (if I may so call it) a place, (and perhaps not the lowest neither) among his *Desiderata*.

AND, though other employments and avocations hinder me attempting to treat of this subject, as amply and particularly as it deserveth, or even as I had designed in a
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scheme

scheme drawn divers years since, and seen by some virtuosi; yet, not to leave a part of physicks, that seems to me so curious and important, altogether as uncultivated, as I found it, I shall present you as many of the notes I had drawn together, about this subject, as I can conveniently, (for I do not pretend to do it methodically) reduced to three heads: whereof the first, which will challenge to itself this present essay, is *The porosity of animal bodies*, about which I shall not be solicitous to marshal my observations, since they all conspire to shew but this one thing; that the parts of animals, especially whilst these are alive, are furnished with numerous pores.

Those parts of the bodies of animals, wherein their porosity may be best shewn, seem to be their membranes, or skins, the bones, the flesh, and coagulations of membranes, flesh and juices; and therefore it would be proper enough to treat of these heads distinctly, and give instances of each of them in particular. But yet, I think, it will be more convenient to set down, in order, the principal fountains, whence the porousness of the substances belonging to the animal kingdom (as the chymists speak) may be derived, and to annex to each of these the experiments and observations, upon which I argue from it, and which it will be easy to refer, if that be thought fit, to this or that of the parts above-mentioned, (namely the membranes, bones, &c.) whereto they shall (respectively) appear the most properly to belong.

C H A P. I.

THE first thing, from which I will deduce the porosity we have been speaking of, is the frame or constitution of the stable parts of the bodies of animals. For the body of an animal being not a rude and indigested lump of matter, but a curious engine, admirably framed and contrived for the exercise of several functions, as nutrition, generation, sensation, and many differing local motions; it was necessary, that it should be furnished with variety of dissimilar, and organical parts, not only very skilfully, but very differingly contrived, congruous to the several uses, for which they were designed, or, if you please, to the several functions they were to perform. And because it will be easily granted, that the corpuscles, that are skilfully brought together, for such purposes, must be so contexted, as not to touch one another exactly every where, it will readily follow, that they must leave little intervals or pores between them; and that, considering the multitude of particles, that must go to the making up the body of the animal, and the great difference and variety, in point of bigness and figure of the corpuscles, that are requisite to contex such differing parts, as membranes, fibres, bones, gristles, ligaments, veins, arteries, nerves, &c. both the number and the variety of the pores cannot but be very great. This argument will be much confirmed, by what there will be occasion to say further to the same purpose, in the essay touching the porosity of even solid bodies. Wherefore I shall now proceed to the second thing, whence we may derive that of animal substances.

C H A P. II.

THIS is afforded us, by considering the nutrition of animals: for there being continually a great waste made of their substance, partly by the exclusion of visible excrements, and partly by the avolation of invisible steams, this great loss must necessarily, from time to time, be repaired by the supplies afforded by nutrition, of which the best, if not the only intelligible way of giving an account, is, to conceive, that the alimantal juice, prepared chiefly in the stomach, is impelled or attracted (for, to our present purpose, it matters not which) to the parts of the body, that are to be
nourished

nourished by it, and the corpuscles of the juice insinuate themselves at those pores they find commensurate to their bigness and shape; and those, that are most congruous, being assimilated, add to the substance of the part, wherein they settle, and to make amends for the consumption of those, that were lost by that part before. This may be illustrated by what happens in plants, and especially trees; in which, of the various corpuscles, that are to be found in the liquors, that moisten the earth, and are agitated by the heat of the sun and the air, those, that happen to be commensurate to the pores of the root, are, by their intervention, impelled into it, or imbibed by it, and thence conveyed to the other parts of the tree, in the form of sap, which passing through new strainers, (whereby its corpuscles are separated and prepared, or fitted to be detained in several parts) receives the alterations requisite to the being turned into wood, bark, leaves, blossom, fruit, &c. But to return to animals, our argument from their nutrition will be much confirmed, by considering, that in children, and in other young animals, that have not yet attained their due stature and bulk, the nutrition is so copious, as to amount to a continued augmentation: for as it is evident, that animals grow in all their parts, and each part according to all its dimensions, in so much, that even the cavities of bones increase; so we cannot well conceive, how this can be done, unless the nutritive liquor be distributed through the whole body of the part, that is to be nourished and augmented: and to this distribution it is requisite, that the body abound with pores, into which the congruous particles of the juice may be intimately admitted, and, penetrating even into the innermost recesses, may place or lodge themselves in the manner, that is most convenient for the natural increase of the part. But the more particular declaration of this process I leave to anatomists and physicians.

C H A P. III.

HAVING premised, once for all, that in this essay I often use the word skin, in the lax and popular sense of it, without nicely distinguishing the *epidermis*, or *cuticula*, called in English the *scarf-skin*, from the *cutis* it invests, and sticks closely to, I shall now proceed to another topic, whence the porousness of animals may be argued; namely, the great plenty of matter, that is daily carried off by sweat, and insensible transpiration. For it is confessed, that sweat is discharged at the pores of the skin; and, since there is no penetration of dimensions, we may safely conclude, that the matter, that is not wasted by sweat, or by any other sensible way of evacuation, must have small pores, or out-lets in the skin, at which it may issue in the form of steams; though nothing hinders, but that invisible effluvia also may evaporate at the same pores with the sweat, though for want of plenty, or grossness, or a fit disposition in the ambient, those effluvia be not, at the orifices of those pores, brought into little drops, such as those of sweat.

THAT therefore the skins of a multitude of animals, though they seem close to the eye, may be porous, may (as we have been saying) be argued in many of them from their sweating: but because all of them have not been observed to sweat, as is wont to be particularly affirmed of dogs, we shall add some other instances to make it probable.

WE may, sometimes, in the smooth skin of a living man discern pores, with good microscopes; and, with one, that is none of the best, we may easily, on the inside of gloves, which are made but of skins dressed, discern good store of these little out-lets, sometimes orderly enough ranged to make the sight not unpleasant. And though some of them may, I think be suspected to have been made by the hairs, that grew on the skin before it was dressed, yet that greater numbers of them, than can be supposed to

come from thence, are perforations that pass quite through the leather, may, not improbably, be shewn, by the usual practice of chymists, to purify quicksilver, by tying it up strictly in a piece of kid's, or sheep's leather, and wringing it hard to force it out; by which means the lower surface of the leather will be covered with a mercurial dew or sweat, which will fall down and fly cut, as the pores happen to open this, or that way, in a thick shower of globules, leaving the dross behind in the leather. And though when a man's skin is tanned, it is of a greater thickness than one would expect, and that, which I employed, seemed almost as thick as a buckskin glove; yet having had the curiosity to try the same experiment with the skin of a man's arm, I found the quicksilver would be squeezed out at the pores of that also. It is not necessary, that I should here enquire, whether the little holes, unperceived by the naked eye, at which the sweat is discharged, and perhaps the matter, that the body loses by insensible transpiration, gets out, be not, at least most of them, the orifices of small excretory vessels belonging to those very numerous glandules, which the excellent anatomists *Steno* and *Malpighi* are said to have discovered beneath the *cuticula*, and which, for their smallness and shape, have been called *glandule milliares*: I need not, I say, engage in this enquiry, since, according to this ingenious opinion also, the skin must be allowed a multitude of small perforations or pores, and that is sufficient for my purpose, from whencesoever this porosity proceeds in a man's skin. For the next observation will shew, that some membranes of animals may give passage to transpired matter, without being perforated by the excretory vessels of glandules.

THE membranes, or skins, under the shells of hens eggs, though they be very thin, are of a contexture very fine and close, as may be confirmed by their resisting the sharp corpuscles of vinegar; and yet, that not only these skins, but the shells that cover them, are porous, may be inferred from the experiments I made of keeping them suspended for a good while, and carefully counterpoised in good scales; for by these it appeared, that the eggs did, from time to time, manifestly lose in weight; which could not reasonably be imputed but to an invisible transpiration, the rather, because usually in eggs, that have been kept long, there will be, at one end, a cavity, which is wont to increase with their age, and is made by the shrinking of the membrane from the shell, to accommodate itself to the diminished quantity of matter, that remains to be involved by it.

WHEN I consider the plenty of matter, that is wont to be discharged daily by insensible perspiration, especially in healthful men, that exercise themselves moderately, I cannot but think it probable, that the minute pores, that suffice for the carrying off so much matter, are very numerous, and are much more so than even, by the multitude of drops of sweat, that serve to wet the skin, men are wont to imagine. For *Sanctorius*, in his excellent little tract *de medicina statica*, affirms, that what is barely carried off by insensible transpiration does ordinarily amount to more, that is, diminishes more the weight of a man's body, than all the visible excrements (whether gross or liquid) put together, *Aph.* vi. He adds, if the meat and drink, taken in one day, amount to the weight of eight pound, the insensible transpiration ordinarily amounts to five pounds, or thereabouts: and elsewhere says, that sometimes, in the space of twenty-four hours, in the winter time, a healthy body may exhale fifty ounces, or more. And some trials, that I have carefully made upon myself, added to some others of a very curious as well as great prince, that made use of a like instrument, and did me the honour to acquaint me with the events, gave me no cause to reject *Sanctorius's* observations, considering the difference, in point of heat, between the climate of *Italy*, where he writ, and that of *England*, where ours were made: only I fear there has been committed

committed an oversight by those many, that ascribe all the decrement of weight, that is not referrible to the grosser excrements, to what transpires at the pores of the visible parts of the skin, without taking notice of that great plenty of steams, that is in expirations discharged through the wind-pipe by the lungs, and appear manifest to the eye itself, in frosty weather; though they may be presumed to be then less copious, than those invisible ones, that are emitted in summer, when the ambient air is much warmer. But though I look upon the wind-pipe as the great chimney of the body, in comparison of those little chimnies (if I may so call them) in the skin, at which the matter, that is wasted by perspiration, is emitted; yet the number of these little vents is so very great, that the fuliginous exhalations, that steal out at them, cannot but be very considerable. Besides that those, that are discharged at the *aspera arteria*, do probably, at least for the most part, issue out at the latent pores of the membranes, that invest the lungs; which membranes may be looked upon as external parts of the body, in reference to the air, though not in reference to our sight. But, to return to our eggs, we may safely allow a very great evacuation to be made at the pores of the skin in man, who is a sanguineous and hot animal, since we see, that even eggs, that are still actually cold, transpire. And I elsewhere mention the copious transpiration even of frogs, that are always cold to the touch, and the decrement in weight of some animals, soon after they are strangled or suffocated, when their vital heat being extinct, no more fumes are emitted by expirations at the wind-pipe. To which signs may be added the trivial experiment of holding, in warm weather, the pulp of one's finger, as near as one can without contact, to some cold and solid smooth body, as to a piece of polished steel or silver; for you will oftentimes see this body presently sullied or over-cast with the invisible steams, that issue out of the pores of the finger, and are, by the cold and smooth surface of the body, condensed into visible steams, that do, as it were, cloud that surface, but, upon the removal of the finger, quickly fly off, and leave it bright again.

THE perviousness of the skin outwards may, not improbably, be argued from the quickness wherewith some medicines take away some black and blue discolorations of the skin, that happen upon some lighter stroke, or other contusions. For, since these preternatural and unsightly colours are wont, by physicians, to be imputed to some small portions of blood, that, upon the contusion, is forced out of the capillary vessels, that lye beneath the surface of it, and, being extravasated, are obliged to stagnate there; it seems very likely, that if a powerful medicine do quickly remove the discoloration, that work is performed by attenuating, and dissolving and agitating the matter, and disposing it to transpire through the cutaneous pores, though perhaps, when it is thus changed, some part of it may be imbibed again by the capillary vessels, and so, by the circulation, carried into the mass of blood. Now, that there are medicines, that will speedily work upon such black and blue marks, the books and practice of physicians and chirurgeons will oblige us to admit. *Helmont* talks much of the great virtue of white briony root, in such cases; and a notable experiment made a while ago by a learned acquaintance of mine, in an odd case, did not give *Helmont* the lye. And I know an eminent person, who having, some while since, received from a stroke by a kick of an horse on his leg, a very threatening contusion, which made the part look black and frightful, he was, in a few hours, cured of the pain of the hurt, and freed from the black part of the discoloration, by the bare application of the chopt leaves of hysop, mixed with fresh butter, into the form of a pultifs.

NOR is it only the skin, that covers the visible parts of the body, that we judge to be thus porous; but in the membranes, that invest the internal parts, we may reasonably suppose both numerous and very various pores, according to the exigency of their peculiar

peculiar and different functions or offices. For the two first causes of porosity, mentioned in this essay, are as well applicable to the membranes, that cover the internal parts, as the liver, the spleen, &c. as to the external skin, or membrane, that covers the limbs; and, in some respects, the transpiration through such pores seems more advantaged, than that through the pores of the surface of the body; since the parts that environ the spleen, liver, kidneys, &c. in man, are hot, in comparison of the ambient air, and being also wet, which the air is not, the laxity of the pores of the internal parts is doubly befriended. And perhaps it may be allowable to conceive, both the skin, that covers the limbs, and the membranes, that invest the internal parts of the body, to be like worsted stockings, waistcoats, &c. which, in their ordinary state, have a kind of continuity, but, upon occasion, can have their pores every way enlarged and stretched, in this or that manner, as the agents, that work on them determine them to be. This may be confirmed by what we manifestly see in the finer sort of leather, as that of kid or lamb, and by the latent pores, that may be opened in sheep's-leather, and man's leather, by the pressure of included quicksilver.

THIS porosity of a living man's skin, and other membranes, though internal ones, will the more easily be assented to, if it appear, that such thick and gross membranes, as the urinary bladders of dead animals, are porous, and penetrable even by water. This we tried, by putting some salt of tartar in a clean well dried bladder (which ought to be afterwards tied up close in the neck, lest the effect should be ascribed to the moist air) and leaving the lower part of the bladder, as far as the salt reached, immersed in common water, whose particles, by degrees, insinuated themselves into the pores of the bladder in plenty enough to resolve the salt of tartar into a liquor. And, that it may not be said, that the acrimony of the salt, by fretting the bladder, made way for the corpuscles of the water, I shall add, that the experiment succeeded, but much more slowly, when we tried it with sugar instead of salt of tartar. And there are some, who pretend that certain syrups made this slovenly way, which they would have pass for a secret, are very much preferable to those made of common water.

THAT the films, that line the shells of eggs, are of a very close texture, seems probable, as by other things, so by their resisting some liquors sharp enough to corrode the shell; and yet, that such membranes are pervious to liquors, that are none of the most subtle of all, we found by the ensuing experiment. This was made by taking an ordinary hen's egg, and keeping it for two or three days in distilled vinegar, or in strong crude vinegar; for then taking it out of the liquor, and wiping it well, it was visibly, and not inconsiderably, swelled, which I concluded to be from the ingress of some particles of the liquors at the pores of the skins, that invest the white of the egg; for we found nothing broken, though we made the trial more than once. And to be satisfied, that the manifest expansion proceeded from some other cause, than the mere dilatation of the white, or yolk, or both, we compared the weight of the egg, after it was taken out and well wiped, with that, which had been taken before it was put into menstruum, and found the egg, notwithstanding the loss of the shell, to be considerably heavier, than it was before its immersion.

I shall add, on this occasion, that by a more unlikely way, than that newly recited, both the egg, shell and lining of an egg, may be penetrated: for, notwithstanding the fine and close contexture of the membranes, that invest the eggs, the *Chinese* have a way of salting them in the shell, as I have been assured both by *English* and *Dutch* merchants trading to the *East-Indies*. And in one of the *Dutch* journals sent by the council of *Batavia* to their principals in *Holland*, and intercepted by an *English* man of war, I met with divers accounts of great numbers of salted eggs, that were such or such a day of such a month brought in by sea to *Batavia* or other ports. Long after
which

which time meeting with an ingenious physician, that lived in *Batavia*, I learned by enquiry from him, that it is very true, that such eggs are frequently met with in those parts; he having divers times eaten of them there, some, that he judged to have been either boiled or roasted before they were salted, and others, that were raw, when they came to be dressed for him, but yet retained a briny taste. And, though the merchants I enquired of could not tell me, what way the *Chinese* employed to salt their eggs, without making them unfit for common use; yet, by a trial, made with clay and brine, in which I kept the eggs for a competent time, I was persuaded, that it was possible the *Chinese* should have the art ascribed to them: for upon the breaking of an egg coated with clay, after it had lain for a competent time in brine, I found its taste considerably salt, but was, by I know not what accident, hindered from prosecuting the experiment and endeavouring to make it more practicable and useful.

I knew a physician of more learning than virtue, who, being tormented with a violent and obstinate cholick of a peculiar kind, was wont to relieve himself by clysters of sack; though he usually found, that, not long after he had taken any of them, they would make him giddy, and fuddle him, as he himself confessed to me. But, upon this instance I lay not much weight, and less upon what was answered me by a great chirurgeon, who having practised his art in the *West-Indies*, and being asked by me, whether he had not dressed wounds and ulcers with the recent juice of tobacco (a plant I use to keep growing in my garden for its excellent virtues in cuts, burns, and tumors,) and whether, if he employed it, he did not find it emetic; he told me, among other things, that having divers times dressed with this juice a small ulcer in a woman's leg, the patient soon after the application would grow sick, and have her stomach turned, or actually vomit. But, as I was saying, on this instance I lay no stress, because the corpuscles of the tobacco might probably enough get in at the small orifices of some corroded vessels, and so be conveyed inwards, rather by the help of the circulation of the blood, than on the account of the porosity of the parts. And therefore, I shall rather mention what has been related to me by an eminent physician of the famous college of *London*; namely, that he had divers times given himself a vomit, by a certain application of decocted tobacco to his wrists and some other external parts: which brings into my mind, what is affirmed to have been observed in some children, that have scabbed heads, who have been made drunk by the application of clothes or sponges wetted in infusion of tobacco, or of strong liquors, and applied to the part affected; though, in this case, the inebriating particles may be suspected to have got in, not at the meer pores, but rather at the orifices of the capillary vessels, that were made accessible by such little solutions of continuity, as are seldom wanting in scabby heads.

THAT children may be purged by outward applications, is asserted by some physicians; and an experienced person of that number has affirmed to me, that he can almost constantly do it by a plaister. But it is more considerable, what was related to me by an eminent virtuoso, who being indisposed to believe such things, a while before he told me the story, was desired by a curious person to shew him his hand; which the relator having done, the other took it in his hand, which was moistened (as was afterwards confessed) with a kind of subtle chymical oil, but so slightly, that the relator scarce minded it; till some time after, when he found himself pressed with a motion like that, which a purge would have given him; for the other thereupon smiling, my acquaintance began to suspect what the matter might be, and was in a short time purged four times, without griping, or other pain or discomposure. But, to return to the porosity of membranes, it may serve to make way for your admitting it, to observe, that though lute-strings be but ropes of fibres (which are at least the chief parts, that membranes consist of) dead, cold and stiff; yet, when the lute is in tune,

tune, they will sometimes in wet weather swell so forcibly, as with noise and violence to break ; which proceeds from the copious ingress of moist vapours into their pores, whereby they are not only shortened, but, as I have tried in nice scales, made manifestly heavier.

THE porosity of the internal parts of animals by both the forementioned ways, (*viz.* of emission and reception of corpuscles,) may be confirmed by the things, that happen in some of the metastases or translations (as the physicians call them) of the morbid matter in diseased bodies. It is known to them, that are any thing conversant with hospitals, or the observations of physicians, that there do not seldom occur in diseases sudden removes of the matter, that caused them, from one part to another, according to the nature and functions of which, there may emerge a new disease, more or less dangerous than the former, as the invaded part is more or less noble. Thus oftentimes the matter, which in the sanguiferous vessels produced a fever, being discharged upon some internal parts of the head, produces a delirium or phrenitis; in the latter of which I have somewhat wondered to see the patient's water so like that of a person without a fever: the same febrile matter, either by a deviation of nature, or medicines improper or unskillfully given, is discharged sometimes upon the pleura, or membrane, that lines the sides of the chest, sometimes upon the throat, sometimes upon the guts; and causes in the first case a pleurisy, in the second a squinancy, and in the third a flux for the most part dysenterical. But, because I suppose, that many, if not most, of these translations of peccant humours are made by the help of the circulation of the blood, I forbore at the beginning of this section to speak in general terms, when I mentioned them in reference to the porosity of the internal parts of the body, and contented myself to intimate, that some of them may serve to confirm that porosity.

THIS will not, perhaps, seem improbable, if we consider, that it is in effect already proved by the same arguments, by which we have shewn, that both the skin and the internal membranes are furnished with pores, permeable by particles, whose shape and size are correspondent to them. For we may thence probably deduce, that when a morbid matter, whether in the form of liquor, or of exhalations, chances to have corpuscles suited to the pores of this or that part of the body, it may, by a concurrence of circumstances, be determined to invade it, and so dislodge from its former receptacle, and excite disorders in the part it removes to.

C H A P. IV.

ANOTHER thing, whence the porosity of animals may be argued, is their taking in of effluvia from without: for these cannot get into the internal parts of the body, to perform their operations there, without penetrating the skin, and consequently entering the pores of it.

Now, that things outwardly applied to the body may without wounding the skin, be conveyed to the internal parts, there are many things, that argue.

AND first, it has been observed in some persons, (for all are not equally disposed to admit the action of particular poisons) that cantharides being externally applied by surgeons or physicians, may soon, and before they break the skin, produce great disorders in the urinary passages, and sometimes cause bloody water. And, I remember, that having once had a blistering plaister applied by a skilful surgeon between my shoulders, though I knew not, that there were any cantharides at all mixed with the other ingredients, yet it gave me about the neck of my bladder one of the sensiblest pains I had ever felt, and forced me to send for help at a very unseasonable time of night.

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THE porousness of the skin may be also argued from divers of the effects, even of milder plaisters. For, though some plaisters may operate, as they closely stick to the skin, and hinder perspiration from within, and fence the part from the external cold; yet, it will scarce be denied, that many of them have notable effects upon other accounts, whereof none is so likely and considerable, as the copious ingress of the corpuscles of the plaister, that enter at the pores of the skin, and being once got in, act according to their respective natures and virtues. The like may be said of ointments, whose operations, especially on children (whose skin is ordinarily more soft and lax) are sometimes very notable. And I have known considerable things performed by them, in an internal disease of grown men, where I should scarce have expected a vegetable ointment should perform so much: I say, a vegetable ointment, for it is vulgarly known, that by mercurial ointments salivation may be excited; and sometimes, against the physician's will, the corpuscles of the quicksilver get so far into the body, that he is not able to get them out again.

WHAT we lately said of plaisters may be applied to those, that physicians call *pericarpia*, or wrist-bands; the better sort of which, though sometimes ineffectual, are oftentimes successful in stopping fits of agues, as I have frequently found in a mixture, elsewhere mentioned, of currans, hops, and bay-salt well beaten together; by which, by God's blessing, many, and I among others, have been freed from simple tertians, and either double tertians or quotidians.

THE argument of the porosity of animals, drawn from those things, that get in through their skins without breaking or wounding them, may be much strengthened, if it can be made appear, that those physicians do not deceive us, who ascribe sensible operations and virtues to things externally applied in so loose a way, that they do not so much as stick to the skin, or perhaps immediately touch it; such as some call *Petriapta* and *Appensa*; divers of which are best known among us by the name of amulets; such as are the quills containing quicksilver or arsenick, that some hang about their necks, and wear under their shirts, against the plague and other contagious diseases; and the bloodstones, that others wear against hæmorrhages; and the stone, which the women use in the *East-Indies*, for a quite contrary effect, in *obstructione mensum*. That many of these external medicines answer not the promises of those, that extol them, having some of them no sensible operation at all, and others no considerable one. experience has assured judicious observers; but that some of them, especially on some patients, may have considerable, not to say admirable, operations, I confess, myself, by other motives, as well as authority, to be persuaded. Having been one summer frequently subject to bleed at the nose, and reduced to employ several remedies to check that distemper; that, which I found the most effectual to stanch the blood, was some moss of a dead man's skull (sent for a present out of *Ireland*, where it is far less rare, than in most other countries) though it did but touch my skin, till the herb was a little warmed by it. And, though I remember not, that I have known any great matter done to stop hæmorrhages by the bare outward application of other blood-stones; yet, of one, that looked almost like an agate, I admired the effects, especially upon a young and extraordinary sanguine person. To which I shall add a memorable thing, communicated to the experienced *Zwelfer* by the chief physician of the states of *Moravia*: for this learned man, whom he extols for a great physician and philosopher, assures him, that having prepared some trochisks of toads, according to *Helmont's* way, (which I remember I also was solicitous to prepare, but had not occasion to make trial of their virtue,) he not only found, that, being worn as amulets, they preserved him and all his domestics and friends from the plague (though he daily visited the infected) but that having caused these trochisks to be put upon the plague sores of several

if one would see this passage at the end of the book.

several persons, none of them died, but the venom of the pestilential carbuncles was thereby so weakened, that the ulcers were afterward easily cured by vulgar remedies.

AND now, as to the difficulty, which I acknowledge not to be small, to conceive, how bodies, actually cold, can emit effluvia, capable of penetrating (without moistening it) a membrane of so close a contexture, as a man's skin; I suppose it will be much lessened in the objector's opinion, by what he will meet with hereafter about the pores of bodies, and the figures of corpuscles. For, supposing these to be congruous, it will not seem incredible, that the effluvia of amulets should, in tract of time, get passage through the pores of the skin of a living body. And, to make this the more probable, I will give an instance in the skin of a dead animal. And, because this requires a liquor I much employed in these trials about porology, though I have many years since, in another tract, taught how to make it for another purpose; yet I shall here repeat, that it is made by exactly mingling flower of brimstone, powdered sal-armoniac, and good quick-lime, in equal quantities, save that, if the quicklime, be not very dry and good, a fourth or fifth part must be superadded; for these being nimbly mixed, and distilled by degrees of fire in a retort, till the sand be at length brought to be almost red hot, there will come over a smoking spirit, which must be kept very carefully stoppt, and which, for distinction's sake, I also use to call the permeating menstruum or liquor, and its expirations the penetrant, or permeating fumes.

AND now you will easily understand the experiment I was about to mention, which was this; we took a very clean piece of polished copper, in want of which one of silver will serve the turn, and having lapt it up in a piece of either lamb's or sheep's leather, so that it was every way inclosed, we then held it over the orifice of the vial, that contained the spirit, at a pretty distance from the liquor, whose fumes, nevertheless, did quickly (perhaps in a minute of an hour, or less) pervade the pores of the leather, and operate upon the included metal, as appeared by the deep and lasting tincture it had given to the lower surface of it, though the interposed leather itself was not deprived of its whiteness, nor at all sensibly discoloured; however, it smelt of the sulphureous steams, that had invaded it. And if I mis-remember not, the same experiment succeeded, though somewhat more slowly, when a double leather was interposed between the fumes and a new piece of copper coin. This will be thought the less strange, when I shall come to some other instances of the penetrancy of these spirits. In the mean while I leave it to be considered, whether this may not suggest some conjecture at that strange phænomenon, which is recorded by authors of good repute, that sometimes in great thunders the lightening, among other operations, has been found to have manifestly discoloured men's money, without burning the purses or pockets wherein it lay. For in our experiment, the steams, that in a trice pervaded the leather, the most usual matter whereof purses are made, were sulphureous, as the smell argues, that those, which accompany the fulmen, are wont to be; and whereas these, when they invade bodies, are usually very hot, ours operated, when the liquor, that emitted them, was actually cold. And, if it be said, that sometimes their money has been found discoloured in their pockets, who were not struck by the fulmen, but had it only pass near them, it may be objected, that though the intire body, whether fluid or solid, if there be any of this latter kind, that is in Latin called fulmen (for our English word, thunderbolt, seems not so applicable to a fluid) did not touch them, yet it might scatter steams enough round about it, to cause the phænomenon. For confirmation of which I shall take notice, that a considerable person of my acquaintance having had the curiosity to ascend a burning mountain in *America*, till the sulphureous steams grew too offensive to him, he told me, that, among other operations he observed them to have upon him, one was, that he found the money he had about him turned of a black and dirty colour,

four, such as I have observed our sulphureous steams often give both to copper and to silver coins. But whether or no our spirits will justify the conjecture they invited me to mention, at least their so easily pervading the skin of a dead animal may make it probable, that the skin of a living man may be easily penetrated by external steams, whose approach the eye does not perceive, and whose operations, though not inconsiderable, may therefore be suspected. I leave to physicians to consider, what use may be made of this observation, in reference to the propagation of contagious diseases by the contact of infected air, distinct from the respiration of it, and by the penetration of the steams, that, issuing from divers bodies, invade the skin, and may perhaps be capable of operations, either hurtful or friendly, that are not usually suspected to proceed from such causes, and are therefore mis-ascribed to others. And, on this occasion, it will not be impertinent to add, that by hanging up sheep's leather or lamb's leather in the free air, the vapours of it would so insinuate themselves into the pores in wet weather, that a moderate degree of moisture in the air would add to it a not inconsiderable weight, of which dry weather, whether hot or cold, would deprive it.

C H A P. V.

I MUST not in this place omit some instances very proper to manifest the penetrableness of membranes to fumes themselves, if they be subtile enough for their pores, or correspondent enough to them.

AMONG the observations published by physicians, I have met with some, by which it appears, that cantharides may have great effects upon the internal parts of the body, though they do not so much as touch the skin, but are placed at some distance from it, so that their effluvia must be transmitted through other bodies before they can penetrate that. The learned *Michael Paschalius* mentions a chirurgeon, who was twice brought to void much blood with his urine, by some Spanish flies, that he carried about in a purse or bag. And another doctor of note relates of another person, that came to complain to him that he pissed blood, having carried about with him cantharides, though in his pocket; and adds, that a like case was recounted to him by *Helideus*, whom he calls an eminent *Bolognian* physician.

Schenkii observationum, lib. 7. obs. 37.

WE see, that in linnen cloth, the finer and more slender the threads are, the closer and less porous, *cæteris paribus*, the linnen is: by analogy to which one may esteem the thin film, that lines the shell of an egg, to be of an exceeding close contexture; and yet, that even this film is not impervious to some fumes, I have found by the following trial.

To make this, we slowly and warily picked off a sufficient part of the shell of an hen's egg from the skin, that lay just beneath it, and is wont to stick so close to it, that their separation, without injuring the membrane, is not easy. In this skin, being wiped, we wrapt up a flat piece of copper, whose surface was made bright, that the change of colour might be the better seen; and having kept this covered bit of plate over the fumes of our smoking liquor, lately mentioned, for a minute or two by our guests, we unfolded the skin, and found, as we expected, that the lower surface of the copper, which was it, that had been held over the fumes, was turned of a dark colour, which manifested, that even so fine and closely contexted a membrane was not only, as we have formerly shewn, penetrable by liquors, but readily pervious to our sulphureous exhalations, though these were probably but faintly emitted, since the liquor they came from was then actually cold. But, in making the trial, it is fit to hold (as we did in that newly recited) the membrane against the light, to see if it be intire, and have escaped all those little lacerations, that are hardly avoidable in severing it from the shell it sticks so close to. If this caution be neglected, it is easy to be imposed on,

by overlooking some little holes, that are not easily discerned when one looks down upon the skin, and yet may be sufficient to make the experiment deceitful: but, though, when it is well made, it is a notable confirmation of the doctrine endeavoured to be established in this paper, yet, I shall now subjoin a more considerable instance to the same purpose.

THE porousness of the internal membranes of the body will be more easily granted, if it be considered, that either the liquors, or the moist exhalations, whose action is promoted by the natural heat of the parts, keeps them constantly wet or moist, and thereby renders them more lax, and more penetrable by subtle spirits or other corpuscles. In favour of this reflection I made the following experiment. We took a piece of a dried urinary bladder, which was judged to have been a calf's; and having lapt it about a new piece of silver coin, so that the bladder was single, where it covered the lower side of the piece, we kept it for divers minutes, by guess, over the spirituous fumes of our often mentioned permeating liquor, but could not perceive, that the coin was thereby at all affected or tarnished: whence we concluded, that the pores of the dry bladder were too close and narrow, to give passage to the expirations of the menstruum. But presuming, that moisture would somewhat relax them, with another piece of the same bladder, made limber, by being a little wetted in common water, we lapt up another like piece of new coin, as we had done the former, and kept it at the same distance, as before, from the liquor, but not for so long a time: for after about two minutes, by guess, we removed and took out the piece, and, as we expected, found much of its lower surface (that regarded the liquor) deeply discoloured. Which experiment will not only justify, what I lately said, of the greater laxity of moist than of dry membranes, but will be thought no mean confirmation of what is in this essay delivered about the porosity of membranes; since the urinary bladder does, as anatomists well know, consist of more than one membrane, though they stick so close together, as to appear but one to the eye. And this bladder was speedily penetrated by the fumes, that our liquor emitted in exceeding cold and frosty weather, though the bladder itself was not in the warm body of the live animal, but had been so long kept dried and cold, that probably the moisture it introduced in scarce one minute of an hour could not restore it to the laxity it had, whilst it was a part of the living calf.

ONE of the notablest instances I ever met with of the porosity of the internal membranes of the human body, was afforded me by that *British* nobleman, of whom our famous *Harvey* tells a memorable, not to say matchless story. This gentleman, having in his youth by an accident, which that doctor relates, had a great and lasting perforation made in his thorax, at which the motion of his heart could be directly perceived, did not only out-live the accident, but grew a strong and somewhat corpulent man; and so robust, as well as gallant, that he afterwards was a soldier, and had the honour to command a body of an army for the king. This earl of *Mount-Alexander* (for that was his last title) having married one of my nearest kinswomen, and having been told, that I was very desirous to see, what I had heard such strange things of, very obligingly came, at a fit time to give me that satisfaction. In order to which he removed that, which covered the wide orifice of his hurt, and gave me the opportunity of looking into his thorax, and of discerning there the motions of the cone, as they call it, or mucro of the heart. But these things I mention but upon the bye, and because of the strangeness of the fact; the thing I principally intended relates to my present argument. Having then made several inquiries fit for my purpose, his lordship told me, that, when he did, as he was wont to do from time to time, (though not every day) inject with a syringe some actually warm medicated liquor into his thorax, to cleanse and cherish the parts, he should quickly and plainly find in his mouth the taste and

and smell of the drugs, wherewith the liquor had been impregnated. And I further learned, that, whereas he constantly wore, upon the unclosed part of his chest, a filken quilt stuffed with aromatic and odoriferous powders, to defend the neighbouring parts and keep them warm; when he came, as he used to do after some weeks, to employ a new quilt, the fragrant effluvia of it would mingle with his breath in expiration, and very sensibly perfume it, not, as I declared I suspected, upon the score of the pleasing exhalations, that might get up between his cloaths and his body, but that got into the organs of respiration, and came out with his breath at his mouth, as was confirmed to me by a grave and judicious statesman, that happened to be then present, and knew this general very well. Other circumstances I might add, but that I dare not trust my memory for them, and unhappily lost the paper, wherein the oddness of the things invited me to set them down, for fear of forgetting them.

THAT part of this narrative, which relates to injections, may be much confirmed by what is delivered by *Galen* himself, who says, that mulsum, or honeyed water, being injected at the orifice of wounds penetrating into the cavity of the thorax, has been observed to be in part received into the lungs, and discharged out of the *Aspera Arteria* by coughing. And this he mentions, as a known thing, employing it as a medium, whereby to prove another.

THE mention, that has been made of the porosity of membranes, brings into my mind, what I once observed at the dissection, made by some physicians and anatomists, of a lusty soldier, that was hanged for I know not what crime. This man, though otherwise young and sound, was observed to have been long molested with what they call a short dry cough, which made us expect to find something much amiss in his lungs. But meeting with nothing there, we were at a loss for the cause of this cough, till coming to consider the internal part of the chest, we perceived something on one of the sides, by tracing of which we discovered, that between the pleura and the substance of the intercostal muscles there was lodged a certain matter, of the breadth of a silver crown-piece, or thereabouts, of a roundish figure, and of the consistence and almost colour of new, soft cheese; which odd stuff was concluded to have been the remains of some ill cured pleurisy, and to have transmitted through the pores of the pleura, though that be a very close membrane, some noxious effluvia, which ever and anon irritated the lungs into an irregular and troublesome motion, and so produced the cough the malefactor had been molested with.

C H A P. VI.

I AM well aware, that it is far less difficult, to prove the permeableness of single membranes, than that of such a part of the body as seems to be an aggregate of several parts, which, in regard of their close adhesion, are looked upon but as one part, to which, on that account, men commonly give a distinct name: but yet there are some phenomena, that seem to argue, that even such compounded or resulting parts, if I may so call them, are not destitute of pores; which, whether they be not some of them the orifices of exceeding slender and therefore unobserved capillary vessels, I must not now stay to inquire.

WHEN the cavity of the abdomen in those hydropical persons, that are troubled with an ascites, is filled with water, or rather with a liquor, that I have found to be much more viscous, it justly appears strange, that by an hydragogue, or some appropriated purging medicine, great quantities of this gross liquor should in a short time be carried off by siege, and perhaps also by urine; though to get into the cavity of the guts, or that of either of the kidneys, it seems necessary, that it permeate the tunics, and other component parts, of the viscera it gets into.

I know not whether, I may, on this occasion, take notice of what physicians observe to occur now and then in empyemas, that follow ill conditioned pleurifies. For it has several times been observed, that upon the bursting of such imposthumes into the cavity of the chest, the purulent matter hath been voided by siege and urine. I hesitate, as I was saying, whether I should alledge this phænomenon, as a proof of what I now contend for, till it be determined, whether this metastasis be made by transfudation properly so called, or by the ingress of the pus into the imperfectly closed orifices of the vessels of the lungs; where being once admitted and mingled with the blood, they may with this circulating liquor arrive at the kidneys, or any other parts fitted to make a secretion of this heterogeneous matter.

BUT whatever be the reason or manner of it, we find, that the lungs do sometimes oddly convey things to distant parts of the body. And if I may here mention a thing, *cui bonos præfationis est*, I shall add, that I have several times observed in myself, that when I had been an actor, or an assistant, in the dissection of a living dog, especially if his blood or body were rankly scented, I should divers hours after plainly find that odour in the excrements I voided by siege.

A famous chirurgion and anatomist relates, that one, who was very ill of a dropsy judged to arise from a scirrhus of the spleen, coming to ask his counsel and assistance, though he judged the patient's case desperate, yet to content him, he ordered him to dip a very large sponge in good quicklime water, and having squeezed out the superfluous liquor, to bind it upon the region of the spleen, only shifting it from time to time. He adds, that after some months he was much surprized to receive a visit from this patient, with solemn thanks for his recovery; the outward medicine having, it seems, resolved the schirrhous, and concurred with nature to evacuate the hydropical humour. For the resolution of which hard tumour it seems necessary, that the sanative corpuscles of the external remedy should at length penetrate, not only the epidermis, and the true cutis, but the muscles themselves of the abdomen, and some other interposed parts.

THESE instances may be strengthened by an eminent observation of *Galen*, who takes notice, that bones being sometimes broken, without piercing the skin, that covers the part they belong to, when the callus is making, and the broken parts of the bone begin to be conglutinated together, a portion of that blood, which had flowed to the part affected, is carried to the skin, and permeates that, so as to wet and foul the dressings or bandages, that are kept upon the limb affected by the fracture.

C H A P. VII.

BONES, horns, and parts of the like substance, being those, that are granted to be the most solid of the bodies of animals, I come, in the last place, to shew by particular experiments, that these also have their pores: I say, by particular experiments, because, in a general way, their porosity has been already proved by the same arguments from their original texture, nutrition, augmentation, &c. that have been employed to manifest the porousness of animal substances in general.

THAT the nails of men, as well as their skins, are porous, may be gathered from their being easily and permanently tinged with divers metalline solutions, and particularly with those of silver in *aqua-fortis*, and gold in *aqua-regia*; the former of which solutions, though cold, will but too easily tinge the skin and nails it chances to touch, and make some little stay upon, with a dark and blackish colour; which I found not, that I could wash out with water, or, even with a far more penetrating and absterfiv liquor. The like durableness I found in the purple spots, that I sometimes purposely made

made on my nails by letting some little drops of the solution of gold in *aqua regia* dry upon them, which I now and then did, to observe the way of the nails growth; for if the stain were made near the root of the nail, it would be still, though very slowly, thrust on by the new matter, till, after some weeks, it arrived to the further end of the nail, and was fit to be pared off with it. But this only upon the by. It is more to our purpose to take notice, that, though the menstruums employed in the recited experiments be of themselves very acid and corrosive, yet they are so changed by the metals they have dissolved, that they are acid no more; the solution of silver being rather extremely bitter, and that of gold of a kind of stiptic taste, almost like that, which flows growing in the hedges are wont to be of.

IVORY is a thing too well known to need to be described. And, since it is generally looked upon (for I have had no opportunity to compare it with the bones) as the solidest part of the vastest of terrestrial animals, experiments proving its porosity, will be strong presumptions for that of the hardest parts of other animals. And the porousness of ivory may be argued from the several ways of dying it with permanent colours; for in these colorations the tinctures, that make them, must penetrate into, and be lodged in the substance of the ivory, especially when the substance remains smooth and glassy, as I have divers times made it do, when I employed fit menstruums and metalline pigments. The solution I formerly mentioned of silver in *aqua-fortis*, being laid upon ivory, will soon give it a dark and blackish stain, which is not, that I have found, to be washed off. I remember also, that I many years since taught some ingenious artificers, to adorn ivory with a fine purple colour, by moistening it with, and suffering leisurely to dry on it a solution of gold made in *aqua-regia*, and, if occasion required, allayed with water; nor needs either of these solutions be applied hot, any more than the ivory needs to be heated. Both which circumstances favour the porousness of the solid body.

COPPER dissolved in *aqua-fortis* stains ivory with a bluish colour, as I have sometimes seen in the hafts of knives, about whose coloration, nevertheless, another way is also employed. But I remember, that, without making use of any acid or corrosive menstruum, I have even in the cold stained ivory with a fine and permanent blue like a turquois, by suffering to dry upon it as deep a solution, as I could make, of crude copper, in an urinous spirit, as that of sal-armoniac.

BUT, now to return to bones, their growth, in all their dimensions, does, as I lately noted, argue their porosity; and the marrow, that is found in the great hollow bones, whether it nourish them or no, must itself be supplied by some alimential juice, that soaks, or otherways penetrates, into the cavities, that contain it.

NOR does it seem at all improbable, that blood itself may through small vessels be conveyed into the very substance of the bone, so as that the vessels reach at least a little way in it, though perhaps the liquor they carry may afterwards, by imbibition, be brought to the more internal parts of the bone. For not to urge, that we manifestly see, that on each side of the lower jaw nature has been careful to perforate the bones, and make a channel in the substance of it; which channel receives not only a larger nerve, but a vein and artery, to bring in and carry back blood for the nourishment of the teeth, by distinct sprigs sent from the great branch to the particular teeth: not to urge this, I say, (which I mention but to shew, that the opinion lately proposed is agreeable to a known practice of nature) I have been assured by eminent anatomists, whom I purposely consulted, that they have observed blood-vessels to enter a great way into the substance of the larger bones; and one of them affirmed, that he had traced a vessel even to the great cavity of the bone: which I the less scrupled to admit, because it has been observed, that in younger animals the cavity is in great part furnished with.

with blood, as well as marrow, and in those larger pores, whereof many are found in the more spungy substance of divers bones, blood has been observed to have been lodged, as also in the spungy part of the skull, that lies between the two tables, as I have been assured by skilful eye-witnesses.

THE blackness also, that bones acquire, when put into a competent heat, and a peculiar kind of fatness, which they may by heat be made to afford, shew, that they harbour, even in their internal parts, store of unctuous particles, separable from the solid substance, (which still retains its shape and continues solid) in whose pores they may thereby be argued to have been lodged. The lightness of bones, even when their cavity is accessible to air and water, is also a great sign of their porosity: and so is their being corroded by tinging liquors, if they be penetrative and well applied. I know not, whether I should add on this occasion, that having taken calcined and pulverized bones, such as we used to make our cupels of and, after having given them a good heat, kept them for some time in the air, but in a well covered place, I found the imbibed moisture of the air to have manifestly increased their weight; and that, I also observed, in a carious skeleton, where the bones were kept together by wires, instead of other ligaments, that though I kept it in a well covered place, not far from a kitchen fire, yet in very moist weather the bones seemed to swell, since those joints, that were easy to be bent in dry weather, and that after several manners, would grow stiff and refractory, and indisposed to be put into such motions, when the weather was considerably wet. These particulars (as I was saying) I am somewhat doubtful, whether I should here insert, because one may suspect the phænomena may proceed rather from somewhat else, than the imbibed moisture of the air; and yet, I would not omit to mention these observations, because I do not yet see any cause, to which they may more probably (or indeed so probably) be assigned.

AND, on this occasion, I shall subjoin some observations made on large and solid ox bones, which in one of my note books I find thus registred, *Nov.* 15. We weighed two [entire or unbroken] marrow bones, and found the one to weigh $\text{℥xxix.} + 3\text{ss.}$ and the other $\text{℥xxiv.} + 3\text{iv.} + 30\text{ gr.}$ *Nov.* 24. the former weighed $\text{℥xxix.} + 3\text{vi.}$ and the latter $\text{℥xxv.} + 3\text{i.} + 30\text{ gr.}$ *Dec.* 28. the former weighed $\text{℥xxix.} + 3\text{ij.}$ 55 gr. and the latter $\text{℥xxiv.} + 3\text{vij.} + 39\text{ gr.}$ *June.* 7. of the following year, the former weighed $\text{℥xxix.} + 3\text{ij.}$ and the latter $\text{℥xxiv.} + 3\text{vij.}$ But which observations, purposely made at differing times of the year, and in very good scales, it seems, that bones do plentifully enough imbibe the exhalations of the air, and emit them again, together with some of their own, according as the ambient happens to be disposed. And these alterations argue the bones to abound with pores, since the external steams must have pores to receive them, and the effluvia must, upon their recess, leave pores behind them.

I confess, that to think (as, with some anatomists, I lately seemed to do) that bones themselves admit into their substance vessels capable of conveying a nutritive liquor, we must suppose those vessels extremely slender: but, that it is not only possible, but somewhat credible there may be such, I am induced to think by what is known to happen in that disease, which, from the country it most infects, is called the *Plica Polonica*. For, though one would think, that the hairs of men are much too slender to have cavities in them capable of visible liquors; and though I have found it very difficult, even with a good microscope, to perceive any cavities in the hair of a man transversely cut; yet, not only some other writers of good note, but the judicious *Sennertus* himself, deliver, that in this disease (of which he particularly treats) it has been observed, that if the patients cause the intangled hair to be cut, as they sometimes do, by reason of its nastiness or unsightliness, they are not only thereby endangered, but sometimes

sometimes the single hairs will actually bleed, where the ends have been cut off; so that so thick a liquor, as blood, may be conveyed through vessels, that can at most be but in a proper sense capillary, and must be far less than hairs, if their perforations be like those, by which many plants have their nourishment conveyed to them, or such as are obvious in divers canes, which, being cut quite through transversely, discover a multitude of distinct pores, that, by some experiments one may be induced to guess, reach all along, and make the cane like a cylindrical bundle of minute pipes; or rather a multitude of small cavities, that perforate from end to end the parenchyma, or substance analogous to it, that gives them stability. And for the present this sort of vessels seem to me the more likely to be those, that convey the blood to the extreme parts of the hair; because even in horse hairs, which yet are nourished and grow, I am not yet sure, that I have discovered with my microscopes any cavity, and therefore suspect there may be divers imperceptible ones, for the hair is nourished and grows, which it is not like it should do, if the body were solid; and if there were but a single cavity in it, as in the lower part of a quill, it is like the microscope I used would have discovered it, since with one much inferior I could easily see, that several little short hairs, that grow upon the animal, that yields musk, had each of them a cavity in it like that of the lower part of a quill.

To the things, that have already been said about the porosity of bones, I shall now add an observation of a very learned physician, that is very remarkable to our present purpose, because it argues, that even bodies not saline, nor actually moist, may from without get into the pores and cavities of human bones. Divers physicians have complained of the mischiefs done to the bones by mercury employed to salivate in venereal diseases: whereof I remember I have read a very notable instance, in a learned book (*which I have not now by me*) of an eminent Roman professor of physic, who had the opportunity of making several curious observations in the famous hospital of the *incurabili* at Rome, and is therefore the more to be credited; where he relates, that in the cavity of at least one pocky man's bones, there was found real quicksilver, that had penetrated thither. And this brings into my mind a memorable observation of an antient and experienced physician, who being famous for the cure of venereal diseases, was asked by me, what instances he had found of the penetration of quicksilver, either outwardly or inwardly administered, into the bones of men? To this he answered, that he could not say he had himself taken notice of any quicksilver in the cavities of greater bones; but that some other practitioners had told him, that they had met with such instances, as I inquired after. But for himself, he only remembered, that a patient, who had been terribly fluxed with mercurial inunctions, coming afterwards to have one of the grinders of his lower jaw pulled out, because of the raging pain it had put him to; my relator had the curiosity to view narrowly this great tooth, and found, to his wonder, a little drop of true mercury in that slender cavity of the root, that admits the small vessels, which convey nourishment and sense to the tooth, in more than one of whose three roots he affirmed to me, that he found true, though but exceeding little, quicksilver. But a full testimony, to my present purpose, is afforded me by the experienced physician *Eustachius Rudius*, who relates, that he saw himself, and that others also observed, some bodies dissected, of those, that had been anointed for the venereal pox, in the cavities of whose bones no small quantity of quicksilver was got together, which, yet, (to add that upon the by) he says, did not hinder some of them from living many years, surviving those inunctions.

Eustach Rudius (apud Senecum) lib. 5. de morbis acutis cap. 15.

C H A P. VIII.

I AM not ignorant, that among the particulars laid together in the foregoing essay, there are some, that are not absolutely necessary, to prove the porousness of the bodies of animals. But I thought it not impertinent to mention them, because I hoped, that they, in conjunction with the rest, may be of some use to naturalists, in giving an account of several things, that pass in a human body, whether sound or sick, especially if it be of a topical disease, and may remove, or much lessen that great prejudice, that makes many (and some of them otherwise learned) physicians despise the use of all amulets pericarpia, and other external medicines in distempers of the inward parts, upon a confident, but not well grounded supposition, that these remedies immediately touching but the outside of the skin, cannot exercise any considerable operations upon the internal parts of the body.

BUT though I have thus acknowledged some passages of the foregoing essay to be supernumerary, yet, I must not dismiss it without intimating, that I might from one topic more have fetched a probable, though not a demonstrative argument, in favour of the porousness of animals. For this may be very probably argued from hence, that even inanimate, solid, and ponderous bodies, that in all likelihood must be of a far closer texture, than the living bodies of animals (whose various functions require a greater number and diversity of pores in their differing organs) are not devoid of pores, and have some of them very numerous ones, as will be sufficiently made out in the following essay, to which I shall therefore hasten.

N. B. The following paper is that, which is referred to in the 767th page of this essay.

Pharmaco-
peize Regiæ
classis xiii.
pa. 614,
615.

Hujus rei veritatem comprobat doctissimus ac celeberrimus medicus & philosophus D. Johannes Chrysothomus Irmblér, statuum Moraviæ marchionatus protomedicus, his verbis ad me scribens: Et revera paravi ego, anno MDC LV. quo tempore inter infectos versabar quotidie, trochiscos bufonios, eosque, ut cætera Helmontii, indefessi veritatis indagandæ, & ex puteo opinionum veterum nostram credulitatem excæcantium eruendæ, nati philosophi, experimenta suas laudes sustinere comperi: inter viginti autem bufones vix unum quidem, jucundo sane spectaculo, vidi vermiculos, per nares & oculos egressuros, manu repellere, quamdiu poterat, donec elangueret bufo: sed trochiscos ex vermiculis unâ cum pulvere emortui bufonis, & materiâ per anum (nondum vidi per vomitum;) scilicet alis, pedibus, capitibus, ventribus scarabæorum viridibus, auratisve & nigris, quos bufo cum terra in escam venatur, ejecit, cerea patinâ exceptis, cum tragacantho rosato formatos, pluribus personis super autbraces opponi feci, atque nullum eorum mortuum esse dicere possum, sed & meorum domesticorum, ut & aliorum, quibus dedi, amicorum nullus, quod scio, infectus est. Sic comperi non tantum hisce trochiscis enervari virus pestilens in carbunculo jam admissum, ut dein vulgaribus chirurgicis remediis ulcus facili negotio fuerit curatum, sed etiam ad finistram mammam ligatos, mihi meisque accursui & occursui infectorum expositis, animositatem quandam indicibilem conferre, atque ita miasmata & effluvia pestilentialia abar- cere. Hucusque excel. medicus Moraviæ.

An ESSAY of the POROUSNESS of SOLID BODIES.

C H A P. I.

AS it will, with far less difficulty be allowed, that animals and vegetables, and such bodies as have belonged to either, abound with pores, than that inanimate, solid, and even ponderous bodies are not destitute of them; so it is far less difficult to make out the former, than the latter of these propositions: and therefore *Pyrophilius*, I hope you will not expect, that I should give you as many proofs of the one, as I have of the other: however I despair not, that those I shall present you will appear sufficient for my purpose, though they be not numerous enough to make me careful to marshal them in any exact order.

Of the reasons, that induce me to think, that even solid bodies are not destitute of pores, there are some, that have a greater affinity with those arguments, that the schools are wont to call *à priori*, because they require more unobvious ratiocinations upon physical principles; and others, which resemble, and indeed are, such proofs, as are usually named *à posteriori*, being suggested by the phænomena afforded us by experience, without the help of any difficult ratiocinations.

Of the first sort of reasons I shall propose to you three; and begin with that, which may be drawn from the origin and formation of divers hard bodies. For I have elsewhere endeavoured, and I hope not unsuccessfully, to shew, both that divers stones, and even gems themselves, and that several metalline, and other mineral bodies, were once either visible liquors, or, at least, very soft substances. And I have elsewhere proved, that both these kinds of bodies do consist of, (which is the case of liquors) or abound in (which is the case of soft and moist bodies) minute particles of determinate sizes and shapes: from whence, I think, one may very probably conclude, that such gems and other mineral bodies, notwithstanding any hardness they afterwards come to acquire, are not destitute of pores; since it is no way likely, that corpuscles of various and very irregular figures, such as those of moist liquors of the terrestrial globe are wont to be, can be so brought together, especially by chance, cold, or any other such agents, as not to intercept little intervals or pores between them.

See the tract of the origine and virtues of gems, and the notes about the mechanical production of hardness.

C H A P. II.

ANOTHER thing, which makes me think the porosity of the most part even of solid bodies to be great, is the consideration of the great disparity, that may be found in the specific gravities of such bodies, as the eye does not perceive to be porous: for, though water be a body of that kind, and though its parts be so close packed together, that the attempts of ingenious men to make a manifest compression of that liquor, by outward violence, have not hitherto proved successful; yet we find, that stones, clays, metals, and even some woods, and a multitude of other kinds of solids, will readily sink in water, and by consequence are specifically heavier than it; which greater gravity seems not any way explicable, without supposing, or at least so well as by supposing, that the corpuscles, whereof such sinking bodies consist, do either lye closer together, or are separately more solid, than those of water; which liquor must consequently be porous, though neither the eye, nor the great force, that has been several ways employed to compress it, can discover any pores in it. Upon the same ground I further conclude, that solid stones themselves, as marble, flints, &c. are not free from porosity: for whereas, as far as several trials, purposely made, can inform

me, I have found, that such of these as have nothing metalline in them, do seldom or never reach to treble the weight of an equal bulk of water, they will, upon the former grounds, appear to be considerably porous; since the lightest metals, which are tin and iron, are above twice heavier in specie, that is, the bulks being equal, than marble, flint, chrystal, &c. and, by the same reason, I also infer the great porosity, even of the solid body of iron, which is as well heavier, as very much harder than tin. For though copper be a good deal more ponderous than iron or steel, yet I have divers times found fine gold to be more than twice as heavy in specie as copper; since, whereas this metal, whether it be European, or brought from *Japan*, (for of that also I made trial) is about nine times as heavy as so much water; I found refined gold to be about nineteen times as heavy as water equal to it in bulk; by which it seems highly probable, that so solid and heavy a body, as iron or steel itself, may be so porous, that metalline matter, equal to it in weight, may naturally be contained in much less than half the dimensions, that metal possesses. And that gold itself, which is the most compact and solid body we know of, is not destitute of pores, may appear by the dissolution of it in quick-silver, of which I shall speak a little below. And if any should pretend, that hardness may be a greater argument of the compactness of a body, and its immunity from pores, than its specifick weight can be; I shall add, that though I have found, that emery, which is the body employed to cut steel, and load-stones, and crystal, and the most of gems, being indeed much harder than marble or flints, be far heavier than thrice its bulk of water; yet that ponderousness proceeds, as I elsewhere intimated, from the mixture of a metalline substance, which I have separated from it. And diamonds, though much harder bodies than emery, and indeed the hardest we know of in nature, are so far from being, as some of late have written, the most ponderous of bodies, that having examined them hydrostatically, by a way elsewhere mentioned, I found them not much heavier than either crystal, or fine glass, and not half so heavy as the lightest metals.

C H A P. III.

THE next thing, from which the porousness of solid bodies, and even those, that belong to the mineral kingdom, (as the chymists speak) may be deduced, is the same with the first of those, from which we formerly argued the porosity of substances belonging to the animal kingdom; namely, the very frame and constitution of such bodies: for the solidest bodies themselves resulting from the convention or coalition of a great number of particles of several bignesses and shapes, we cannot reasonably suppose, (especially in those concretes, wherein they are not ranged by a seminal principle) that they should be contexed so, as to touch one another exactly every where; and therefore they must, of necessity, leave some little intervals and pores between them.

THIS reason will, I hope, appear clear enough of itself to him, that shall attentively consider it; especially if we know, that it has been geometrically demonstrated, that there are but very few figures, that will, (as they speak) *implere spatium*, that is, which being adjusted to one another will so exactly touch, that there is not the least unfilled space within the circumference or circuit, if the figures be plain, or within the ambient superficies, if they be solid; so that, considering the vast variety of other figures, which made *Epicurus*, and other anatomists, pronounce it incomprehensible, it is very obvious to conceive, that corpuscles of such differing shapes being put together, will leave multitudes of little pores intercepted between those parts, that do not every where touch one another. And even the mathematical figures, lately spoken of, may be said to fill space rather in a geometrical, than a physical sense. For, if such por-
tions

tions of matter, as are required to constitute, for instance, a cube, were actually put together, they would not exactly fill the space comprehended within the ambient surface of the body they compose; because the component bodies, being physical, consist of corpuscles of their own particular shapes, which we never find mathematically exquisite. As if, for example, the cube were of marble, no art could polish the sides of a component body so, as that they should be perfectly smoothed; since (as, if I mistake not, the learned *Gassendus* well observes) emery, pumice-stone, and even puttee, or other powders, that are employed to polish, do themselves consist of little hard angular corpuscles, that leave small scratches, like so many little furrows, on their surfaces, which must needs hinder the perfect contact of the whole surfaces of two contiguous bodies, and consequently leave here and there intervals or pores between those surfaces: to which I shall add, that marble itself, as it is marble, abounds with internal pores, as will e'er long appear by experience, and as may be rationally conjectured from the specifick levity of it, in comparison of gold and lead.

C H A P. IV.

HAVING dispatched the arguments *à priori*, that may be employed to shew the porousness of solid bodies, it will be now seasonable to propose some experiments and observations, that may (as it were) *à posteriori*, either evince or confirm the same doctrine.

OF these instances some relate to solid bodies, that are of less specifick gravity; some to fossiles, presumed to be devoid of metalline parts; some to minerals, that are thought to participate of a metalline nature; some to metals themselves, and some to glass.

To begin with the first sort of these instances; that wood is porous, there are many things, that argue, some of which are elsewhere mentioned: but few would suspect, that quicksilver, which is so unapt to enter the pores of bodies much less compact, should permeate pieces of wood of a considerable thickness; and yet, that we have made it do by the following experiment. We took a wooden trunk, such as is employed to shoot pellets at birds with strength enough to kill them, and having closely stopped one end of it, we poured in quicksilver at the other, till it reached to a good height in the cylindrical cavity of the instrument; and then the lower parts of the metalline liquor being assisted by the weight of the incumbent ones, (not to mention that of the air) to press into the pores of the wood, they issued out at them on all sides, in great numbers of minute drops, much after the manner of quicksilver strained through leather out of amalgams; which was a phænomenon not unpleasant to behold. But till I have opportunity to repeat this experiment with differing circumstances, I shall not think it fit to lay much stress upon it, for want of knowing, what interest the great weight of the quicksilver may have had in the event.

AND this caution may perchance be applicable to the following experiment; namely, that having, by the help of my pneumatical engine, withdrawn the air from one side of a round piece of board, the air, on the opposite side, not having its pressure any longer resisted by that, which it used to meet with from the withdrawn air, pressed so strongly against the surface of the wood exposed to it, as to make itself way through the pores of it, and get copiously enough into the cavity, whence the other air had been pumped out; (the weight of the incumbent atmosphere doing, on this occasion, what the weight of the quicksilver did on that last recited :) which was a surprising spectacle to the by-standers, because the board, that was thus permeated, was of strong wood, and of considerable thickness.

I SHOULD here subjoin several other arguments of the porousness of wood, if I could display them without more words, than I am willing to allow them; and, I presume, it may here suffice, if I let you see, by some surprising effects, that when wood is reduced to that thinness, that its closeness or porosity may conveniently be examined, it will easily enough give passage, even unto visible, odorable, and tinging corpuscles, though they invade it not in the form of a liquor, but of dry exhalations, so they be not incommensurate to its pores. This, I suppose, you will not scruple to infer from the following trials, as they were long since set down in one of my note books.

1. THE fumes of our smoaking liquor [described in the foregoing essay] tinged a copper halfpenny through a broad thin shaving of deal, that did not, when held against the window, discover any perforation; tinged it, I say, very deeply in about a quarter of a minute and somewhat less.

2. THE same fumes tinged manifestly, but not so notably, the same halfpenny, first cleansed, through two such shavings of deal laid one upon another, in somewhat less than one minute.

3. AND, in about one minute, the same fumes tinged the cleansed halfpenny, through three such shavings of deal very visibly, but not so conspicuously, as through the two forementioned. These trials were made without the help of heat to promote the operation of the fumes.

C H A P. V.

FROM the consideration of woods, let us now proceed to give some instances of the porousness of bodies made of close and compacted, and, perhaps, well-baked clays, or other earths.

THAT earthen vessels, though strong and well-baked, are many of them porous enough. may be argued not only from what has been lately recited, but from hence, that some of them will suffer themselves to be soaked through by oil, others by solutions of nitre, and some other salts: and there are very few of them, without excepting Hassian crucibles themselves, that will long keep salt of tartar, and such like fixed alcalies, in fusion, without being penetrated by them. I have heard distillers complain, that when they have distilled corrosive materials, as vitriol and salt-petre, with strong fires in those earthen vessels, that are commonly made use of in *London*, (especially by refiners) instead of retorts, though their necks be straight and long, (upon which account they are called long-necks) a considerable quantity of the finest spirits make their escape quite thorough the vessel; so that in the retort and receiver many ounces are found wanting of the first weight of the matter to be distilled; and this sometimes, when the vitriol has been previously calcined, and a reasonable allowance has been made for what may have escaped thorough the lute, that joined together the long neck and receiver. And though I have observed of our bottles, made of the same earth with jugs, that they are hard enough to strike fire with good steel; yet a good experimenter upon such vessels, of whom I made inquiry, has assured me, that these, as compact as they are, may, even without external heat, have their pores pervaded by the finer parts of spirituous liquors.

TO this purpose I remember, that meeting once with a virtuosi, that was curious about the ways of making cyder as brisk and spirituous a liquor as he could; I inquired of him, whether he was able to keep in the subtle spirit of this skilfully fermented liquor in those earthen bottles, that, by reason of the solidity they acquire by the vehement coction of the fire, are commonly called stone bottles: to which he replied, that

he often found, to his trouble, that the liquor would permeate the compact substance of the bottles: and when I objected, that the spirits might either escape out at the cork, which I have made several spirits of divers kinds, that would readily permeate; he replied, that what he had said appeared by the outside of the bottles: to which, when I further objected, that the sight of dew on the surface of the bottles would not convince me, without tasting, whether it were vinous, because I had divers times observed, that brisk liquors would produce a dew on the outside of the vessels, that contained them, not by any transudation, (for I have made trial of it in glasses) but by condensing the aqueous vapours dispersed through the neighbouring part of the ambient air; he replied, that, besides what his taste had informed him of the quality of this dew, he found, that the included liquor, though exactly stopped, wasted in not very many months so considerably, as sometimes to lose a sixth, or even a fifth part; and this escape, or percolation, of the liquor through the substance of the vessels, he affirmed himself to have observed not only in one or two bottles, but in very many; and the like observation, for the main, was confirmed to me, upon his own experience, by an eminent physician, who, being a great lover of brisk cyder, used to bottle it up early and carefully.

THOUGH good Hassian crucibles be very closely compacted, as well as thoroughly baked bodies, and, upon that account, are able to keep silver and divers other metals long in fusion, without letting them at all run out; yet having dissolved silver in aqua fortis, I observed, that though the salts were, by this operation, so changed, that this horn-like silver did dissolve neither in aqua fortis, nor in the aqua regia, that I put it into; yet when I kept it a while in fusion, (which it is easily brought to be) among quick coals, it would, without cracking or perforating the crucible, soak into it, and permeate the pores of it in I know not how many places, as I convinced some curious persons, by shewing them, on the outside of the vessel, a multitude of minute globules of pure silver, like so many little drops, that were got thither, as it were, by transudation.

C H A P. VI.

FROM baked earths, that are designed in point of hardness to emulate stones, we will proceed to give some instances of the porousness of natural stones themselves.

THERE goes a tradition, that in some part of the *West Indies* they have a stone, of which they make large vessels, wherein they put water to percolate, as it were, through a strainer. Of these vessels I had one sent me for a present, whereof being hereafter to give some account in a more opportune place, I shall now only take notice, that I found, that water would (though slowly) soak through the vessel, though it were considerably thick.

IF, as many of the ancients and most of the modern corpuscular philosophers have conceived, the transparency and opacity of bodies proceeds from a rectitude or crookedness of pores, which makes them fit or unfit to transmit the light, that tends to pervade them in physically straight lines: if this hypothesis, I say, be allowed, we may draw a very probable argument, that stones may be porous from the phenomena of that odd gem, that is best known by the name of *oculus mundi*. For this small stone (at least that, which I made my observations of) when it is dry, and is kept in the air, is opaque, almost like a polished piece of white amber, and so it continues, as long as it is kept dry; but if you put it into fair water, it will in no long time become, by degrees, quite transparent; and that, which I made trial of, looked then not unlike a piece of clear yellow amber, which, by degrees, does in the free air lose its transparency,

rency, and turn to be opacous as before. Now, according to the above-mentioned corpuscular hypothesis, the pellucidness, which the stone acquires in water, may be accounted for, by saying, that the liquor, getting in at the crooked pores of the stone, does for the time rectify them, and make them pervious to the straight beams of light; as we see, that white paper, being wetted with water, or, which does far better, being made to imbibe oil, has its pores so changed and rectified, that the water much lessens its opacity, and makes it almost semi-diaphanous, and the oil, if it be fine and well soaked up, makes it transparent: but upon the recess or evaporation of the imbibed particles of water, the pores of the little stone, becoming crooked again, reflect the rays of light they should transmit. Which explication will be the better allowed of, if my memory do not misinform me, when it tells me, that a learned member of the Royal Society found the *oculus mundi* to weigh more in a nice ballance, when it was taken out of the water and well wiped, than before it was put in. This stone, which very few of the writers about gems take notice of, is so rare and difficult to be got, that I had not opportunity to make upon it all the trials I desired; and therefore, though the subject be curious, I may, I hope, be excused, if I hasten from it to another.

THERE is so much difference in many qualities betwixt stones and metals, that it is very probable, that when the corpuscles of both come to be brought together into one mass, they will not touch one another so close, as not to leave store of little intervals or pores between them. And upon this ground I have been apt to think, that divers very hard stones, diaphanous and opacous, are not devoid of porosity. For I have elsewhere delivered a way, by which I have obtained good store of metalline parts, both from American granats, and from emery; though this last be so exceeding hard a stone, that it is usually employed by artificers, to work upon iron and steel, and to cut not only rock crystal, but divers gems, that are harder than either that or steel.

UPON the same ground one may probably infer the porosity of many artificial gems made by fusion; for, to give these the colour of sapphirs, topazes, amethysts, &c. we are wont to add to the vitrifiable matter either some prepared metal, as calcined copper, calx of gold, &c. or else some mineral, as *Zaffora* and *Manganese* (as the glass-men call *Magnesia*) that abounds in metalline parts. Nay, I remember, I have sometimes given the colour to the vitrified substance, by employing natural gems, as granats; though to shew, that the coloration, which the mass received from these, proceeded from the metalline corpuscles, that lay hid in the tinging matter, the colour produced was not that, which was conspicuous in the gem itself, but one very different from it, and such as the metal, which, upon other accounts, I supposed the gem to partake of, ought, according to the grounds I proceeded upon, to produce in the vitrifiable matter. And this very experiment makes it also highly probable, that even natural transparent gems, (divers of which are much harder than marble, iron, and even steel) are themselves porous; since, notwithstanding their transparency, and seeming homogeneity, they are made up of ingredients of such differing natures, as are stony and metalline corpuscles.

FROM the same ground we may likewise deduce the porosity of marcasites; many of which I have observed to be not only hard enough plentifully to strike fire, by collision with steel, but more ponderous, than even divers ores, that were rich enough in metal to be wrought with good profit: and yet these hard and heavy (mineral) stones are very far from being homogeneous; since I have met with few inanimate bodies, produced by nature herself, so compounded, as several marcasites, that I have seen: for these are wont to contain more or less copper, and iron too; and they abound in combustible sulphur, a corrosive salt, and a certain fixed substance, which I found to differ

differ from true earth, but of whose nature the trials I have hitherto made on it have but little satisfied me.

I MIGHT here deduce the porosity of the load stone, as hard and solid a body as it is, partly from the effluvia it emits and admits, and partly from the heterogeneity I have, by chymical trials, found to be in it: but these things belong more properly to a paper about magnetical bodies, for which I the more willingly reserve them, because other experiments will keep them from being needful to be here insisted on.

THE porosity of marble and divers other stones of like contexture may with probability be deduced from this, that they are liable to be dissolved by divers of the corrosive menstruums of the chymists, such as aqua fortis, spirit of salt, &c. and some of them even by vegetable liquors of nature's own preparing, as the juice of lemons, and that of barberries. But a more noble and satisfactory instance may be afforded, by the invention of staining or colouring white marble, without employing any fretting liquor, or spoiling the texture of it. This way being casually lighted on by an ingenious stone-cutter in *Oxford*, who gained by it both credit and money, he long since thought fit to acquaint me with it, upon condition of secrecy, (which I have to this day inviolably kept) and of my assisting him to improve his invention, by making it practicable with other colours than red. These circumstances I mention, to signify, that I write not by guess of this matter, having both seen the experiment tried, and made it myself. But though I found it far less improvable to other uses, than one would expect, yet, as to our present purpose, it is very apposite; for by this way an excellent red colour may be made to soak into a piece of white marble, almost as oil will do into leather, without impairing, that I observed, the solidity of the stone, which, after being dyed, will be capable of a fine gloss as before. Some other colours (yet but few fair ones) would, by this way, be brought to soak into marble, on which one may with them so define and limit the colorations, that I remember the artificer, when I brought him to kiss the king's hand, presented his majesty with an andromeda, whose colours were so vivid, that this skilful judge of curious things, was pleased to honour it with a place among his rarities. And to satisfy his majesty, that the fine red was not, as some suspected, a mere varnish, I purposely broke a plate of marble, in whose fragments he saw, that the pigment had sunk to a considerable depth into the very substance of the stone; and I doubt not but it might have been made easily enough to sink much deeper, if it had been thought necessary. A fine plate of such white marble, with the penetrating pictures of coloured flowers drawn upon it, I yet keep by me to satisfy the curious; and some utensils, as hafts of knives, salt-fellers, &c. I have known to have lasted several years.

THERE is an experiment, that seems much stronger for the porousness of solid bodies, than that itself (which was lately recited) of staining marble: for in *Italy* some goldsmiths have a way of imbuing fragments of rock-crystal, which is a body much harder than marble, with divers colours; which do sometimes so embellish them, that having ground off those parts, that would not receive the same tincture, they set some of them in gold rings, and sell them with profit. When I was informed of this, I thought of a composition, that I hoped might perform the same thing, and perhaps better than that, which was employed by them, who either knew not, or, for aught I could perceive, used not, some minerals, that I thought fit for the purpose. Upon this presumption we carefully cemented some clear fragments of native crystal with a composition of some volatile minerals, together with a salt or two; and having suffered the crucibles to cool leisurely, we had divers of the fragments stained here and there, some with one colour and some with another, as differing fumes happened to invade them; and of these colours some were dark or dull, and some vivid enough. But having considered

considered the stained pieces, and the progress of the operation, more attentively, I began to doubt, whether these adventitious colours were really produced by the bare penetrating of the mineral fumes into the pores of the crystal itself: for I thought it possible, and not very unprobable, that the great heat of the fire and the ambient mixture might cleave or flaw, in many places, some of the crystalline fragments; and that the finer parts of the minerals, being vehemently agitated, might insinuate themselves into these thin flaws, which, upon the slow refrigeration of the stones, shutting themselves close again, might lock up the tinging particles, without appearing discontinued, especially to the eyes of persons, that were not made use of with a more than ordinary attention excited by distrust. This suspicion was not removed by the apparent entireness of each little piece of crystal; for having taken more than once a lump of that stone, and slowly brought it to be red hot in the fire, I found, that if I warily quenched it in water, though it would thereby acquire a multitude of little cracks or flaws, which destroyed its former transparency and make it look whitish, yet it continued still an entire body, notwithstanding the disadvantageous haste, wherewith the operation had been performed. And having, after this suspicion, inquired of an ingenious lapidary, that belonged to a great prince, whether, in polishing of gems upon a wheel, he had taken notice, that the heat would flaw them; he answered me, that now and then he had observed, that some stones, especially, if I misremember not, rubies, when they were very much heated by the swift motion of the engine he employed to polish them, did cleave, as it seemed to him, and gape, so as at first to make him fear the stones were spoiled; and yet afterwards they closed so perfectly, that no flaw at all could be perceived in them. I have mentioned the foregoing experiment of tinging crystal, to comply with the dictates of philosophical candor, which forbids me to lay much stress upon a proof, whose validity I myself distrust. But perhaps my suspicion may, by further trial, which I have not now conveniency to make, appear not to have been well grounded; and in that case the tinging of crystal, as well inwardly as outwardly, by fumes, will be a noble argument for the porosity of solid bodies, rock-crystal being harder, and probably closer, not only than marble, but even than glass.

C H A P. VII.

THAT metals, though the heaviest of bodies, are not destitute of pores, may be, with probability, proved in a general way by this; that they are all dissoluble in their appropriate menstrooms, as gold in *aqua regia*, and all the rest in *aqua fortis*, except tin, which yet itself will be corroded by that menstruum, though not well kept up in a fluid form, as it may be by another menstruum, which I elsewhere teach: and sometimes the same metal may be dissolved by very differing menstrooms, as lead by *aqua fortis* and spirit of vinegar; and copper by *aqua fortis*, *aqua regia*, spirit of vinegar, spirit of salt, and some other solvents, that, upon trial, I have found sufficient for that purpose.

BUT it will, I presume, be thought more considerable to my present argument, if it be shewn, that bodies, that appear gross, and which in their natural state are not fluid, and are confessed to be of a compounded nature, will penetrate metals quite through, even without melting them.

THIS we have divers times effected, by a cementation of copper plates with common sulphur (much a kin to a way prescribed by some alchymists to make *vitriolum Veneris*) which we warily performed much after this manner. We took good copper, laminated to the thickness of a shilling or thereabouts, and having cut it into small pieces, that they might the more easily be put into a crucible or cementing pot, we strewed at the
bottom

bottom of the vessel some beaten sulphur, and then covered it pretty well with some of these plates, which were laid on flat-wise. Upon these we strewed another bed of powdered brimstone, and covered that also with plates, upon which we put more sulphur; and so continued making one lair of brimstone, and another of metal, till we had employed all our plates, or filled the crucible, being careful, that the uppermost bed, as well as the lowest, should be of sulphur. This done, we luted on an earthen cover to the vessel, to keep the sulphur from taking fire; and afterwards having placed the pot amongst coals kindled at a good distance from it, that it might be heated by degrees, we kept it for some few hours (perhaps two or three) in such a degree of fire, as was sufficient to keep the sulphur melted (which is easily enough done) without bringing the metal to fusion; the pot being cold, we took off the cover, and found the plates quite altered in colour and texture, some of them having a dark and dirty colour, whilst others looked of a fine violet or blue: they were generally so brittle, that it was very easy to break them with ones finger, and reduce them to powder. And (now to add such circumstances as a chymist would not take notice of) many of the plates, when they were broken, appeared to have been (by the contiguous beds of sulphur above and below) horizontally divided each of them into two plates, divers of which in some places had a manifest distance or cavity between them: and it was observable, that when I considered one or other of these plates attentively in the parts, that had been contiguous before I broke it, I could plainly discern a multitude, as it were, of fibres, reaching from one of the flat sides of the plate to the other, and running many of them, as to sense, parallel to one another. These circumstances may sufficiently argue, that the plates were pierced quite through by the brimstone: but for confirmation of this, and to shew too, that the sulphur does, as it were, soak into the body of the metal, and in a gross manner lodge itself there; I shall add, that not only to the eye the plates appeared much swelled, or thicker than when they were put in, but having weighed them before the operation was begun, and after it was quite ended, the copper, though it needed not to be freed from externally adhering sulphur, was found to have a considerable increase of weight by the accession of the sulphur, which (to add that circumstance) though it appeared not to the eye, yet if a plate were laid upon quick coals, and blown, would oftentimes discover itself by a blue flame.

By making the like experiment for the main, we found, that refined silver, though a more heavy and compact body than copper, and not dissoluble by most of the menstruums, that work on this metal, is penetrable by the body of sulphur, which will also calcine tin and lead, and (especially) iron.

NOR is sulphur the only consistent body, that has this ingress into metals; for we have found them penetrable by prepared arsenick. But because these operations are not so easy, and the subject is not easily handled without danger, I forbear the mention of them in this place, where, after what has been recited, it is not necessary.

ANOTHER experiment there is, which does more advantageously, than that made with brimstone, discover the porosity of copper. For there is a way, by which, without the help of salts, sulphur or arsenick, one may make a solid and heavy body soak into the pores of that metal, and give it a durable colour, I shall not mention the way, because of the bad use, that may be made of it. But having had the curiosity more than once to try it upon a new copper farthing, the event was, that one part of it, which I purposely forbore to tinge, remained common copper still; but the other part acquired a yellow, that differed very little, if at all, from a golden colour, the former stamp, that was impressed upon the coin, continuing visible. And to convince the scrupulous, that the pigment did really sink, and, as it were, soak into the body of the metal, and

did not meerly colour the superficies, I made them take notice, that the farthing was not melted, and yet, by filing off a wide gap from the edge of the coin inwards, it plainly appeared, that the yellow or golden colour had penetrated a pretty way beneath the surface of the farthing; so that it looked there, as if two thin plates, the one yellow, and the other reddish, did, without any interval between them, lie upon one another.

If bodies be not to be pervaded, or deeply pierced into, by corpuscles, but only to have their more superficial pores, if I may so call them penetrated thereby, it is possible, that bodies, which are either much harder, or much closer, than marble, alabaster, or the like bodies, may have their pores possessed even by odorous corpuscles; I say, even by such, because they are most of them gross enough to be kept from exhaling by bodies much less compact than earthen bottles, and are far from being of the finest particles, that nature affords. But that such odorous corpuscles may lodge themselves in the exterior pores of very close bodies, I have been inclined to think, not only by the obstinately adhering odour, which I found, by trial, that some subtile and spirituous parts, such as the chymists would perhaps call, in their aggregates, the essence of musk, amber, ambergreece, &c. notwithstanding the washing of the glasses, that had long contained such liquors; but by what has been assured me by a physician of great experience, who travelled and lived much in the east. For having told him, that I had been informed, that in some places, less famous than *Damascus* for curiosity in making fine sword-blades, there was a way found and practised of making them richly scented, without injury to their gloss, I desired to know of him, if at *Damascus*, or elsewhere, he had seen any of them: to which he replied, that he did not remember he had, but yet made no doubt the information might be true; for he himself had in *Europe*, and kept for divers years, a watch, whose metalline case was richly perfumed: and when I asked him, whether there were not some thin varnish, or some outward case of perfumed leather, or chagreen, or somewhat else, from whence the odour proceeded; he assured me, that his observations had prevented and removed that and divers other scruples, and that the case being clean and glossy, he could not perceive, that the odour proceeded from any thing else than some odoriferous thing or other, that was invisibly lodged in the pores, or porous substance of the metal itself. And indeed, since both arsenick, and even common sulphur, may by art be, as it were, incorporated with some metals, and even with silver, I see not why it should be impossible, that some pleasantly scented substances should be admitted into the pores of metalline bodies, and be volatile enough to have their subtiler parts fly off in odorous exhalations, especially if they be a little excited, as the watch-case lately mentioned was, by a gentle heat, such as was that of the wearer's pocket. And on this occasion I remember to have made a certain metalline composition, which looked like gold, and of which I caused a ring to be cast; and yet this metal retained so many unperceived mercurial corpuscles in it, that an ingenious person, to whom I discovered the composition of it, found, after trial, as he assured me, that being worn as a ring, it had in some distempers, particularly of the eyes, manifest operations, that evidently enough seemed to flow, at least in great part, from its participation of the mercury we employed in preparing the factitious metal.

SINCE the writing of the former part of this essay, having met with an inquisitive nobleman, who had lived in several parts of *Africa*, and was governor of the best town the *Europeans* have on that continent, I discoursed with him, among other things, about the skill, that some ascribe to the African Moors, of making excellent weapons, whereof I knew his excellency was very curious. Upon which occasion he told me, that some of the off-spring of the Granadine Moors were indeed the best at making arms,

arms, that ever he met with ; and that he had seen some weapons of their forging and tempering, that he preferred even to those of *Damasco*. And when I asked him, whether any of them had the art of perfuming their weapons ? he answered me, that some of them did it admirably well, and instanced in a blade, which he kept for some years, and found it still to retain the perfumed scent, which he supposed to be, as it were, incorporated with the steel, whereof the blade was made. When I told him I suspected, that the scabbard might have been well perfumed, and communicate its odour to the contained blade, he allowed the objection to be plausible, but replied, that it was not concluding, since misliking the scabbard, as not handsome and fashionable enough, he caused a new one to be made, wherein he afterwards kept it. And the same lord further told me, that he had also a fowling piece, whose barrel was perfumed. And when I objected, that perhaps the odoriferous scent proceeded from the stock, and not from the metal ; he answered, that the gun not being, when it came into his possession, skilfully and handsomely mounted, he caused the barrel to be fitted with a new stock, notwithstanding which, it continued to smell fragrantly. And when I further asked, whether he ever caused the gun to be washed or scoured after it was grown foul by having been often shot in ? he answered me, that he had, and, as far as I can remember, subjoined, that after it was made clean, it did (notwithstanding the ill scent, that the foot of the powder had given it) retain a pleasing smell, but fainter than before.

C H A P. VIII.

SINCE the subject of this essay is the porousness of solid bodies, and since there is no body, that is generally reputed so close and compact a glass, it will be pertinent to this discourse, and probably will be expected, that I should here say something about the question, whether glass be, or be not, devoid of pores.

BUT before I acquaint you with my trials, or my thoughts, about this problem, I think it requisite to clear the sense, in which I mean to handle it, that I may not, as some others have done, for want of distinctly stating the question, speak confusedly and erroneously of it.

I shall then here observe, to prevent mistakes, that the porosity of glass may admit of two acceptions : for it may be said to be quite pervious to fluids, as a boot is to water, or only to be capable of having its superficial parts further and further dissolved or corroded thereby, as a silver cup is porous in reference to *aqua-fortis*, which cannot sweat through it, as water does through a boot, but eat its way through it, by dissolving the texture of the vessel.

ANOTHER thing requisite to be premised, to prevent ambiguity, is, that glass itself is not all of one sort, as men unacquainted with chymistry are wont to presume ; for glass of antimony, for instance, and that of lead, both of them made *per se*, do manifestly differ, usually in colour, and constantly in weight, and also in their operations upon human bodies ; and both these sorts of glass do in several points differ from common glass, under which name, for brevity's sake, I comprehend both white or crystalline glass, as it is called in the shops, and that courser sort, which they usually call green glass ; both which sorts I here consider under one notion, because both are made of fixt alcalies, and other fit ingredients, as sand, earth, ashes, pebbles, or flints, colligated by a strong and lasting operation of the fire : and it is of this common glass, in the sense now declared, that I shall consider the porosity in the remaining part

of this essay; in which, to proceed with some method, I shall digest what I have to say, into the ensuing propositions, and the observations annext to them.

Prop. 1. *It is very probable, that glass may be pierced into to some distance, even by visible and tangible bodies.*

I know, that this will seem a paradox to many, and repugnant to common experience, which shews, that glass vessels will contain very subtil and even highly corrosive liquors, as the spirit of hartshorn, of urine, and that of nitre; as also those potent menstruums, as *aqua-fortis*, *aqua-regis*, and oil of vitriol, which not only are not observed to pierce into it, but are unable to make any sensible alteration, so much as on the superficial parts, even in those vials, wherein they have been long kept.

BUT, notwithstanding all this, I presume you will not condemn the lately proposed paradox, when you have considered what may be said to justify it. For besides that it may be made probable *à priori*, by the arguments, whence we have formerly proved the porousness of solid bodies in general; there are two sorts of experiments, from whence one may argue, that glass, in particular, is not devoid of pores in the sense, wherein we are now speaking of them.

AND first, I remember, that having kept for a good while in a vial a quantity of a certain spirit of salt, that I had reserved in a cool place, I found, when I came to use it, that the glass was crackt, and most of the liquor was run out; but, before this happened, it had so far corroded the inside of the glass, that in some places it was eaten almost as thin as a piece of paper; and this part, which yet continued glass, was lined with a much thicker white substance, that stuck to the sides of it, and looked and tasted like a kind of odd salt; so that it invited me to conjecture, that it proceeded from the substance of the glass, which, you know, consists of an alcali, as well as of sand corroded by the saline spirits of the menstruum, and coagulated with them into this odd kind of concrete; and it was remarkable in our vessel, that the upper part of the vial, to which the menstruum did not reach, was not corroded nor altered, though the operation of the liquor reached as high as the liquor itself. And I remember, that when I related all this to some experienced chymists, one of them, that was a more heedful observer, assured me the like had once or twice happened to him, as since that time it hath likewise done to me.

I had also, if I misremember not, another vial, corroded by a distilled liquor of vitriol, that had in it more of the phlegm than of the oil; which you will somewhat the less wonder at, if you consider, that some corrosive menstruums will scarce work on some bodies, if they be too well dephlegmed, or at least will not corrode them so readily and powerfully, if they are very strong, as when they are diluted with a convenient quantity of water. And, as to oil of vitriol itself, which is the menstruum I am speaking of, when we employ it to make *vitriolum Martis*, we are wont to weaken it with water, that it may the better dissolve that metal. And, perhaps, you will suspect, that vitriol has some peculiar faculty of penetrating and fretting glass, when to the experiment newly recited I shall add that, which follows, as I find it registred among my notes.

[A pound of Dantzick vitriol and a pound of sea salt, after the former had been very lightly calcined, and the latter decrepitated, that they might not boil in, or crack the vessel, we caused to be distilled in a well coated retort by degrees of fire, giving at length a very strong one; then taking off the vessel, we were not much surprized to find, that the heat had here and there melted it, and that the fluxed *caput mortuum* had corroded the glass, fetching off, as it were films from it; and those parts, which did not appear to the eye thus manifestly wasted, seemed yet, by their great brittleness, to have

have been penetrated, so that their texture was spoiled by the saline and vitriolate corpuscles.]

Prop. 2. *Common glass is not ordinarily permeable by chymical liquors, though strong and subtle, nor by the directly visible or odorable expirations of bodies, though, absolutely speaking, it be pervious to some corporeal substances.*

THIS proposition consisting of two parts, we shall allow each of them its distinct proofs.

AND as for the first part, it is manifestly agreeable to the common experience of chymists, who daily find, that in well stoppt vials, or at least in hermetically sealed glasses, they can preserve their subtlest and most piercing menstrooms, as spirit of nitre, *aqua fortis*, spirit of salt, spirit of vinegar, and oil of vitriol. And this they found to be true, not only as acid and corrosive liquors, like those I have newly named, but also in those spirits, that abound with fugitive salts, as the spirit of urine, of blood, and of sal-armoniac; and in the most subtle and highly rectified spirit of wine; as also in the ethereal oil, or, as many call it, spirit, of turpentine; as likewise in the liquors of salt of tartar, and other fixt alcalies resolved by deliquium.

THE result of these observations may be much confirmed by considering, how often it happens in the distillation of more wild and fugitive spirits, as of nitre, tartar, and sugar, that, though they are much agitated, and perhaps subtilized, by heat, yet if the lute, that joins the receiver to the retort, be very firm and close, the receivers, though large, are often broken in pieces; which probably would not happen, if the spirits could insinuate and croud themselves through the pores of glass.

BUT, whereas it may be pretended that such vessels are strong and thick, I shall add, that I have had the curiosity to cause very fine bubbles to be blown at the flame of a lamp, purposely that they may be made extremely thin, and of but a small part of the thickness we meet with in the vessels made at the glass house; and some of these I caused to be exactly stoppt, and others to be hermetically sealed; but could not find, that either dry salt of tartar would relent in one, that was kept a good while under water, or that strong spirit of sal-armoniac, which is one of the subtlest spirits, that we know, would penetrate one of these thin films of glass, which we kept a great while immersed in it, though to discover, whether it would at all penetrate the thinnest glasses, we employed some, which were of that fine sort, that is called essence vials.

THESE and some other trials have, I confess, made me very diffident of the experiments, that have been delivered by some men of note, and built upon by others, of the permeableness of ordinary glass vessels to chymical liquors; as, that mercury and *aqua fortis*, being digested together in a bolt-head, may, by rubbing the outside of the glass, be made visibly and palpably to transudate: which experiment (if my memory do not much deceive me,) I purposely tried with care, but without success.

BUT, after all this, I must desire, that it may be remembered, that in wording the proposition of the imperviousness of glass, I intimated, that I would have it understood of what ordinarily happens; for in some extraordinary cases, which I take to be exceeding rare, I do not absolutely deny, but that the general rule may admit of exceptions. And, if it be lawful to conjecture, these exceptions are likeliest to take place, when the peculiar texture of this or that glass is more slight or lax than ordinary; or, when the bodies, that are to pervade it, are vehemently agitated by heat; or when, besides a great subtlety, and perhaps degree of heat too, their particles chance to have a special congruity to the relaxed pores of that particular glass they are to pass through. I remember I have seen, not without some wonder, a sort of glass of so soft and resolvable a texture, that vessels of it of a competent thickness would be manifestly prejudiced

and wrought upon by liquors, that were not considerably sharp or corrosive, if they were put in very hot. I have also heard of another sort of glasses, made in a certain forest, complained of by a distiller, as subject to be sometimes injured by corrosive liquors. I once knew a doctor of physic, that by divers credulous alchymists was suspected to have, what they call the philosopher's stone, because of a certain book, ingenious enough, that he was supposed to have written on that subject. But when, after some acquaintance, I happened to debate his principles freely with him, he confessed to me, that he had been mistaken; and to invite me to give him my thoughts upon such like works, he frankly made me an ingenious relation of his proceedings, wherein the main thing, that dazzled him, and kept him from seeing his error, was, that he had reduced the matter he wrought on, which was real gold, to that degree of fusibleness and subtlety, that when he gave too strong a fire, as mistake or curiosity made him several times do, the finer part of the metal would sweat through his glasses, and stick sometimes to the outside of them, and sometimes to the neighbouring bodies. And when I objected, that he might be mistaken in this, and that what he thought had come forth by transudation, rather issued out at some small unheeded crack; he replied, that he had made the observation so often, and with such care, that he was fully satisfied it was a real penetration of the glass by the attenuated metal, which he was to have convinced me of by trial. But, before he could come to make it, by an error of his own he unhappily died.

BUT, whatever be judged of this penetrating gold, I elsewhere relate, that I having upon a time distilled spirit of hartshorn with a very strong fire, into a receiver, that was large and thick enough, but of a coarse kind of glass, it did appear, upon my best examination, that the glass itself was penetrated by some vehemently agitated fumes, or some subtile liquor, that settled in strongly scented drops on the outside of the receiver. But such instances being very rare, and happening but in some cases or conjunctures of circumstances, that are not like to be at all frequent, they cannot hinder the first part of our proposition to be true in the sense, wherein it is laid down.

AND as to the second part of the proposition, which asserts glass to be pervious to some corporeal substances, it may be proved *ad hominem* against any Epicurean, that should deny it, (and the Cartesians must not) by the free ingress and egress, which our sealed thermoscopes shew, that the atoms or corpuscles of cold and heat are allowed, through the pores of the glass, that contains the rising or falling tincture, or other liquor. And without proceeding upon the peculiar principles of the Epicureans, we may give more certain proofs of the permeableness of glass by certain bodies: for I have elsewhere manifestly evinced, that the effluvia of a load-stone will attract and invigorate steel, though inclosed in hermetically sealed glasses; nay, I have also shewn by experiment, that the effluvia of so gross and dull a body as the earth are readily transmitted through glass, and will operate on iron, in vessels hermetically sealed. If light be, as probably it is, either a subtile and rapidly moving body, or at least require such an one for its vehicle, it must not be denied, that it is possible for a body without difficulty to pass through the pores of glass; since it is by its help, that we can clearly see the dimensions, shapes, and colours of bodies included in glasses. To this I shall add, that far less subtile bodies, than those, that constitute or convey light, may be made to permeate glass, if their figures being congruous enough to the pores of it, their penetration be assisted by an impetuous motion, or a brisk impulse; as I have found by the increase of weight in some metals exposed for divers hours in hermetically sealed glasses to the action of a flame: on which occasion I remember, that having some years ago tried the same experiment with some filings of copper, they had indeed their colour much altered, being beautified with exceeding vivid dyes, which they yet retain, but did not evidently appear to be increased in weight, as if because they were not of a texture
loose

loose enough to be melted, the igneous particles could not pierce them enough to stick fast in them, at least in numbers great enough to amount to a sensible weight.

BUT without the help of fire, or any sensible heat, I think it not impossible, that glass should be freely penetrated by some kind of corpuscles, (though I do not yet know of what sort they are) that sometimes happen to rove about in the air. This you will probably be surprized to read, but, perhaps, no more than I was at the phenomena, that induce me to write it, But because these are very unusual, and can scarce be discoursed of without some odd reflections hinted by them, I thought fit to set down a circumstantial account of them in another paper, to which it more directly belongs, than to this essay; and therefore shall now only tell you, what may be sufficient for my present purpose: namely, that having in two or three vials closely stoppt, kept a certain limpid and colourless liquor, it would by fits acquire and lose a high colour, though I could not reasonably impute the changes to any manifest ones in the air, nor to any other cause so probable, as the ingress and recess of some very subtile and uncommon particles, which at that time happened to swim to and fro in the air, and now and then to invade, and sometimes to desert, the liquor.

THERE is another sort of experiments relating to the porosity of glass, to shew, that it may be pierced into by bodies, that are not corrosive in taste, and are not liquors; but only have a forced and temporary fluidity, if they have so much as that.

THESE experiments may be drawn from some of the ways of colouring panes of glass for the windows of churches and other buildings; I say some of the ways, because, to deal candidly with you, I think, and so I presume will you e'er long, that in divers of those glasses the colour doth not pierce at all deep into the glass, but is produced by the close adhesion of a deep red, but thin and transparent pigment to the surface of a glassy plate, through both which the beams of light passing to the eye, receive in their passage the colour of the pigment.

BUT as, by some operations, the glass is rather painted, or externally enamelled, than tinged, so in some others the pigment or dying stuff appears to pierce a little beneath the very superficies of the glass, and the yellow colour will not only go further or deeper, but sometimes seems (for I do not yet positively affirm it) to penetrate the whole glass from side to side.

THE methods of painting and staining glass having been hitherto the practices of a particular trade, that is gainful enough and known but to few, the artificers are wont to be shy of communicating their secrets; though we know in general, that glass is stained, by having the plates covered with mineral pigments, laid on beds of beaten lime, or some other convenient powder, and kept for divers hours in a strong fire, but yet not strong enough to make the plates melt down; by which means the pores of the glass being much opened by the heat, and the pigments being likewise agitated, and some of them, as it were, vitrified with it, they are made either to pierce into the plate, or at least to stick very closely and firmly to it. But, because the practices of glass painters require, besides skill and experience, a particular furnace and divers implements, I shall add, that to try, whether glass may not, without so much ado, be so stained, as to shew it to be porous, we took prepared silver, (that metal having, of all the minerals I have tried, the best ingress into glass) and having laid it upon a piece of glass, not thick, nor yet so thin as to melt very easily, we laid this glass (with the pigment uppermost) warily upon a few quick coals; and having suffered it to Neal a while, we gave it about such a degree of heat, as might make and keep it red-hot, without bringing it to compleat fusion; and then, suffering it to cool by degrees, we found, as we expected, that the glass had acquired a yellow, and almost golden colour, which was not to be washed off, or to be taken away, without such scraping as would injure or

spoil the glass itself. The way of preparing silver for this operation, is not always the same: the glass painters commonly add to the calcined silver some mineral bodies, as antimony, yellow oker, or the like. But I, who take the penetration of the colour to proceed from the silver itself, do sometimes employ only some thin piece of silver, such as an old groat, upon which a little sulphur being put, and kindled in the open air, the metal is presently calcined, and the powder made use of. And this itself I do not so much out of necessity, as because the calcination reduces the metal into small parts, and gives it a form, that makes it more easy to be laid on, as one thinks fit. For, otherwise, going upon this my supposition, that the silver was the true pigment of the glass, I have more than once made glass yellow by leaf silver laid flat on the surface of it, and a little moistened, to keep so light a body from being blown off. And (to note that upon the by) it is pretty, that if the fire be made too strong, which it is hard to avoid doing, when we will make it strong enough without the help of a furnace, it has several times happened to me, that the died glass, though when held against the light it appeared of a golden or yellow colour, yet when held from the light it appeared blue; so that here we have in a mineral somewhat, that is very like that we admire in the tincture of *Vignum nephriticum*, which shews almost the like difference of colour, as it is held against or from the light; which may serve for a confirmation of what I have elsewhere said, to shew, that colours may be derived from mechanical principles: but that only upon the by. Whether the gold colour produced by silver do favour the hopes of those alchymists, that work on that metal, upon presumption that it is but unripe gold, it is improper here to examine. But since yellow is not the colour of silver, it seems the yellowness acquired by our glass plates argues, that there has been some ingress of the substance of the particles of the silver into the glass, there appearing no way so ready to give an account of the change of colours, as by supposing the particles of the silver to be wrought on by the fixt salts, and other fine parts, of the glass; since we know, that metals may afford differing colours, according to the saline and other bodies, that work upon them, as copper with spirit of urine, which abounds in volatile salt, gives a deep blue; with spirit of salt, a fair green; and with *aqua-fortis*, a colour, that participates of both. And in the making of glass of lead with minium and white-sand, or crystal, the glass itself, if well made, is usually of an amethystine colour: but, if you put a due proportion, (which it a very small one,) of calcined copper to it, this metal will not communicate to the glass its own reddishness, but be so changed by it, as to give it a good green, and sometimes so good an one, that pieces of this glass, such as we have cut and caused to be set in rings, might, among those, that judge of stones but by the eye, pass for no bad emeralds.

On this occasion it is likely it will be asked, whether there be any way of tinging glasses quite through, with a true and beautiful red, and whether the art of dying plates of glass, which the windows of many old churches shew to have formerly been practised, be now (as it is commonly supposed) altogether lost?

This question, consisting of two parts, I shall quickly dispatch: the former, by answering it without hesitancy in the affirmative; yet, adding withal, that the red tincture being communicated to glass, not properly by mere penetration of the pigment, but by the incorporation of it with glass or its materials, by the help of fusion, I think the experiment of no such great use in our present inquiry, as to hinder me from reserving what I have observed about it to a more opportune place. And as to the second part of the inquiry, it being rather a historical, than a philosophical question, I shall not here meddle with it; only I shall wish the question may be cautiously stated. For, upon the burning the famous cathedral of *St. Paul's* church in *London*, many pieces of the red glass, that adorned the windows, were found broken and scattered about, some
of

of which I procured from a chymist, that had carefully preserved them, designing to retrieve the lost invention of making the like: but when I came to examine them narrowly, I was confirmed in the suspicion I had, that the redness did not penetrate the whole glass, but proceeded from a diaphanous pigment very artificially laid on; for though in other postures no such thing could be discerned, yet, when I so held it, according to my custom in examining painted glasses, that the surfaces of the plate lay in the same level with my eye between it and the window, so that a broken edge was next my eye, I could plainly see, and made the chymist himself see, the lower part of the plate to be of ordinary uncoloured glass, upon which there lay a very thin plate or bed of a diaphanous red pigment, which, though it were not easily, was not impossible to be here and there scraped off.

BUT to return to those colorations, that seem to pierce into the pores of glass, I remember, that I had once occasion to distill in a small retort some gold amalgamed with such a fine and subtle mercury, that being (without the addition of any salt) put to the gold in the cold, they presently grew hot together. And in the distillation of this uncommon mixture, I found the matter had, before it flew away, permanently dyed or stained, about an inch in diameter of the bottom of the glass, with a colour, that, looked on from the light, was like that of the better sort of turquoises; but beheld, when it was interposed between the window and the eye, appeared of a somewhat golden colour. And this glass, with some others oddly coloured, I have yet by me to satisfy the curious, though I cannot but give advertisement, that the colorations of glass may be much better performed with such plates, and in such furnaces, as the glass-painters use, than without them.

SINCE the writing of the foregoing paragraph, I was visited by an industrious person, much addicted to some chymical operations, who had formerly advised with me about a process, of which I had had some experience, that he conceived might be useful to him. I then acquainted him with some of my thoughts about it, and he having afterwards united gold with quicksilver, (which by its effects, will be easily concluded not to have been in common) he kept them in digestion for some months; and afterwards coming to me with a melancholy look, told me, that the fire having been once immoderately increased in his absence, the sealed glass burst with an affrighting noise, and the included amalgam was so strangely dissipated, that scarce the least fragment of it could be retrieved. But the decoction having continued so long a time, it seems the matter was subtiliated enough to have a notable operation upon the glass: for, though the upper part of the bolt glass were blown off, and shattered into many pieces, yet the lower part escaped well enough; and when he brought it me to observe, what change had been made in it, I took notice with much delight, that the glass seemed to be tinged throughout with so fine and glorious a red colour, that I have seen several rubies themselves, in that point, inferior to it.

Short MEMOIRS for the Natural Experimental HISTORY
of MINERAL WATERS. Addressed by way of LETTER
to a FRIEND.

A D V E R T I S E M E N T of the P U B L I S H E R.

I FIND by some discourse I lately had with the author, that his design, in drawing up his memoirs, being to set down what had occurred to him of his own observation and experiments, he purposely forbore to consult the authors, that have professedly written upon medical waters: he would by no means have it thought, that he undervalued those learned writers, that he forbore to cite, because he had them not at hand, as well as because his design did not require he should transcribe from them. And therefore he desires, that his readers should not be kept, by any thing he has written, from consulting other writers, that have treated of mineral waters, especially the late ingenious exertations of the learned Dr. *Lister de Fontibus medicatis Angliæ* (after mentioned by our author,) and the curious little tract of the *French* mineral waters, that was brought our author in *English*, after his memoirs were come to him from the press, published by the virtuosi of the famous Royal Academy of Sciences at *Paris*, especially where they curiously examine the saline and earthly residences of waters, which our author has not done to the remains of our *English Acidule*, of which liquors he had for the most part such incompetent quantities, as concurred with another reason to discourage him from publishing his trials on them. Yet I may safely say, what he offers here to the reader is far beyond any thing, that has been published in this kind; for the virtuosi, as well as the water-drinkers, may reap no small benefit by the perusal of this learned treatise, as containing a great number both of useful observations and unusual experiments.

A D V E R T I S E M E N T.

THE author of the following papers had thoughts of reviewing and enlarging them before he parted with them; and, at least, of annexing notes to several of those titles of the historical platform, that are yet left untouched. But, besides his want of health and leisure, he was, by the supervening of some urgent occasions, obliged abruptly enough to lay aside this work he was about, and apply himself to others, that concerned him more, than the scrutiny of mineral waters could. Wherefore considering, that he had already made annotations, though but short ones, upon most of the considerablest titles or topicks of inquiry enumerated in the second and principal part of his schemes above them, he was content to give the ensuing writing, unfinished as it was, to the solicitations of some virtuosi, who rather than tarry, till he should have an opportunity, which he knows not how long he shall want, were desirous to take what they found ready, with all its imperfections. Which pressingness of theirs he could not deny to be the more excusable on this occasion, because the communicated writing is not pretended to be a full and methodical history of mineral waters, but only a bundle of short memoirs contributed towards the compiling of such a work.

THESE, that they may be the more conveniently cited or referred to, I thought fit to divide into six sections; whereof the first is introductory, and contains some general considerations about the occasion, the subject, and some other things relating to those memoirs. The second contains only a set of titles for the first part of the proposed work,

work, because urgent occasions kept me from making, I as intended, some marginal notes upon several of the particular articles. The third exhibits a scheme of titles for the second part of the proposed work, viz. the way of experimentally exploring portions of a mineral water severed from the spring or receptacle. And because the second part is that, which I mainly designed, I have referred to it two other sections, one, which is the fourth, containing a collection of experiments and observations relating to the usual way of examining mineral waters by galls, as a specimen given on the 13th title of larger annotations on the titles of the second part; and the other consisting of less copious annotations, and sometimes much shorter notes on divers other articles of the same second part. To which, lastly, is subjoined the sixth section, consisting only of a set of articles referrible to the medicinal use of mineral waters; together with a conclusion addressed to the ingenious Doctor that set me upon this task. In prosecuting of which, I desire it may not be thought strange, that I have not cited authors, that have written of *Thermæ*, or of *Acidulæ*; for in the disadvantageous circumstances, wherein I wrote, I should have been kept from consulting them, if I had had them at hand; and I thought it enough for me, at that time, to impart to my friends, what my own experiments and thoughts had furnished me with, how little or mean soever that was. Which advertisement is therefore the more fit to be here given, that I may not divert any from studying those more elaborate pieces, that have within no long time been published by skilful men, and especially by the very learned Dr. LISTER.

Short M E M O I R S for the Natural and Experimental History of particular
M I N E R A L W A T E R S.

S E C T. I.

SO many years, Sir, have past, since I had occasion to consider mineral waters, and opportunity to make trials on them with any application of mind, that, though since that time some virtuosi have been pleased publickly to declare, that they found some directions they received from me not unuseful to the examen of such waters; yet, having forgotten many of my past thoughts, and lost or mislaid most of my memorials about matters of fact relating to those liquors, I fear I shall not be able to satisfy either you, or myself, by what I now write about them. But however, since you will needs have me say something upon this subject; since it is a noble one, as that wherein the health of thousands is concerned; since it is of late grown to be more prized and discoursed of, than ever; and since, I have observed men's curiosity about it to have been confined to very narrow limits, most men contenting themselves with the discoveries they can make by the infusion of galls (or their body,) and perhaps a slightly improved evaporation: since, I say, I have these invitations to obey you, I am content to offer you my advices, such as they are, for the drawing up of such a natural history of a mineral water, proposed, as being comprehensive of many inquiries and ways of indagation, that even physicians have either not known or overlooked, may probably afford a more reaching notice, and enlarged knowledge of the subject treated of. Upon which account, I have, I confess, a desire and an aim, though no great hope, that this rude essay may, by your improvements, and those of your learned friends, be made of some service to the public.

2. But here I must ingeniously own to you, that notwithstanding the many ways I propose of discovering the natures or qualities of mineral waters, yet, I think the surest way of knowing them, is a long and sufficient experience of their good and bad effects.

effects. For, I strongly suspect, and it may be partly known, that there are, beneath the surface of the earth, divers mineral substances, some fixed, and some volatile, some in the form of hard bodies, some of soft ones, some of liquors, and some of fumes, divers of which the generality, even of learned men, are altogether strangers to; besides those, that, though some men may chance to have seen, have their natures so little known, that they have not so much as names assigned to them. So that when I consider, that of the ingredients we are unacquainted with (to pass by all the rest, that the earth may conceal) the proportions, wherein they are mingled, may be numberless, and the qualities resulting from these commixtures may be very differing from those of the separate ingredients; I am apt to look upon the difficulty of securely determining the effects of mineral waters *à priori*, as little, if at all less than insuperable to human understandings.

3. BUT this difficulty is not such, as ought to make us think it useless to have a good project of the natural history of a mineral water. For it is no small advantage, to know what particulars are fit for our inquiry, to be furnished with a set of heads, to which one may conveniently refer whatever he tries, or observes, about the subject proposed: and (which is yet more considerable) to be furnished with variety of methods or ways, to make trials fit for investigating the nature, or examining the qualities, of the proposed water; since by the number and variety of purposely and fitly devised experiments, he that makes them may, as it were, view his subject on all sides, and be much assisted to conjecture, what saline, or other minerals known to us, and what quantities of them, do impregnate the water he examines, and consequently what effects they are like to produce in human bodies.

4. THOUGH there be three sorts of things fit to be taken notice of by him, that would give an historical account of a mineral water, whether cold or hot, yet contenting myself to treat but very cursorily of those, that belong to the first and to the third of the three sorts, I have made a more full and particular enumeration of the titles, that peculiarly belong to the second sort of observables; namely, those, that mention the various trials, chymical and mechanical, that are to be made with the water after it is taken out of the spring. This I purposely did, chiefly because it was only of this sort of particulars, that you desired my thoughts, and partly also because they are most wanted and desired by naturalists and physicians, and are like to prove the most instructive to them; having also this to recommend them, that to make the greatest part of them by far, it is not necessary, that a man repair to the place, where the spring rises, but he may at leisure examine the water at home, where he may be accommodated with furnaces, vessels, and other conveniences, to make his trials upon it.

5. A much less discerning reader, than you, may perceive, that in forming the ensuing project of a natural history, I aimed much more to assist practical physicians to find the virtues and effects of mineral waters, than to inform speculative naturalists of their causes and manner of being generated. But yet a heedful peruser may find, that I have so endeavoured to gratify physicians, that I have not been altogether wanting [especially in the first part, which is almost wholly mineralogical,] to the curiosity of philosophers, as it relates to all sorts of mineral waters; though you may easily enough discern, and readily confess it, that the following paper does much more regard those cold ones, that from the acid taste, that is found in most of them, are called *Acidule*, than those other waters, that, from their heat, are commonly stiled *Thermæ*; because the former sort of mineral waters is that, which I have had the opportunity to be the more conversant in, as well as that, about which alone you have desired my observations.

6. I had

6. I had once thoughts of illustrating the following sets of titles with a kind of *rati-nale*, briefly declaring the reason of their order and their number (for both these were considerately pitched upon, not lighted on by chance :) but I was obliged to omit it, when I found (as I quickly did) that I had too little leisure and health, to employ much of either upon a troublesome work of no greater importance. And therefore, knowing your perspicacity to be more than sufficient to make you discern some reason for the order, wherein I have marshalled the articles of the last set of titles, which fall under the cognizance of your own profession, I have not been solicitous to assign that reason. And I presume it will be no great harm, if my haste have made me also omit to perform at present the intention I had to make here and there some brief marginal notes upon some of the articles of the first part. And I thought it sufficient (if not also capable of making some amends for the newly mentioned omissions) to make them somewhat numerous, and some of them large annotations upon the titles or articles of the second part; this being indeed the chief, that I designed to insist on, and present you.

7. I expect it will be wondered at, that so many inquiries should be proposed, and so many things directed to be taken notice of, about a subject, that hath been thought so barren, that men are wont to think their curiosity great enough, if they inquire, what colours the mineral water will strike with galls, or oaken leaves; and do observe, what kind and quantity of salt will remain after the evaporation of the liquor, and I much fear, that some, even of your profession, will think I cut them out a great deal too much work, by so many troublesome queries and trials. But I confess, that nature, or long experience, having made me, though not a sceptical, yet a suspicious and diffident philosophiser, I think myself obliged, on difficult occasions, to ask more than ten questions, before I presume to answer one. Nor do I think, that the slightness of another's curiosity dispenses me from industriously exercising mine. I might on this occasion represent, that though the greatest naturalists and physicians among the antients did not only mention, but admire and discourse of the load-stone; yet our *Gilbert* thought fit to examine it further, and was thereby able to discover far more numerous phænomena, than all them put together had taken notice of; and I might add other instances to the same purpose. But, to answer more closely and directly, I say, that to discover the nature of mineral waters being a thing far more difficult, than those, that have not tried, do imagine, I think we ought to view the subject in as many differing lights as we can expose it to, and take in as many helps to discovery, as we can; since a great many particulars, that singly, or at the first view, seem not very pertinent, if they be conveyed in conjunction, and be skilfully applied, may much conduce to the desired end. And, perhaps, hereafter, it will be found useful, if not necessary, to make large additions to the topics, whose number is now thought redundant: for the more qualities and other particulars we are acquainted with in any subject, the better grounded and the more enlarged knowledge we have of it. As for the trouble it may cost to make the proposed inquiries and trials, it may be said, 1. that they are not all necessary (though useful) nor yet of equal moment; and therefore the omission of some, that are less important, may not disappoint the main searches. 2. I have purposely made most of the trials as easy and short, as the matter and scope will permit; and those, that will not undergo some trouble in seeking an useful truth, do not deserve to find it, especially since, in the chase of noble discoveries, as in hunting the nobler game, the toil oftentimes makes a part of the pleasure. And I have made the less scruple to be somewhat ample in the inquiries I propound, because divers observations have persuaded me, that physicians ought to consider very well both the nature of the waters they ordain, and to what persons, for what diseases, and in what manner they

they prescribe the use of them: for though many look upon them as such innocent medicines, as, if they do no good, can at least do no harm; yet the effects, that have too often insued the unskilful use of them, especially when it was long continued, allow me not to look upon the drinking of mineral waters as a slight thing, that may safely be plaid with, but as that, whereby we have seen, as very much good, so a great deal of mischief, done, especially some time after the operation is thought to be quite over, and perhaps almost forgotten.

8. I look upon the examen of the properties and other qualities of mineral waters, as a thing, that is therefore of the greater importance, because, I am apt to think, upon probable grounds, that, by a diligent inquiry, there may be discovered in *England* (and in divers other countries too) a far greater number, than is yet imagined, of mineral waters, especially ferruginous ones; which I therefore guess will be found very numerous, because, by some uncommon ways of trial, that I have employed, I have found, that divers minerals, that either men knew not what to make of, or, by reason of their passing under other names, did not suspect to be martial, did yet partake of, and perhaps abound with, parts of a martial nature. And I shew, in another paper [*about the magnetism of the Earth*] that kindly provident nature, or rather its divine author, has, under various disguises, furnished our globe with a far greater plenty and variety of iron ores and minerals, that partake of that metal, the most useful by far to mankind, than of any other metal. And as martial minerals do thus abound in the earth, so they are more disposed, than one would suspect such hard bodies could be, to impregnate even such liquors, as are not manifestly acid, and seem unlikely to be able to work upon minerals far less hard than they. To make this probable, we took not iron ore, or embryonated mars, but pure steel itself, the same as needles were made of; and upon the minute filings of it, we put some tincture of galls made with common water, and filtered through cap-paper, that the present colour of the liquor, and the change we expected to be made in it, might the better appear: and by this trial we found, that in less than an hour the transparent infusion of galls was so altered, as to be grown not only opacous, but of a dark and almost inky colour, which it retained even after filtration; and this, though the vial, that contained it, was very slender. A not unlike effect was produced by small filings of steel, but somewhat slower, in the red tincture of brazil, and that of logwood, made with common water.

9. I know not, whether it may not be fit to be represented on this occasion, that in countries manifestly abounding with metalline and other minerals, it may perhaps be worth while, that men's curiosity descend much lower than the superficies or turf of the ground, and make search both after subterranean springs and wells, and their operations upon human bodies. For I have upon inquiry been assured by those, that in several places have visited mines, that they have met with in them, and sometimes at very great depths, running, as well as stagnant, waters, of differing tastes, and sometimes other qualities; and that the diggers venturing to make use of them to quench their thirst, as they found some of them mischievous (as corrosive, petrific, &c.) so they met with others, that were not only innocently potable, but medicinal. Of both these sorts we have instances, in our tin-mines of *Cornwal* and *Devonshire*: and of the latter sort I received from an ingenious gentleman, that has the oversight of some *Cornish* water-works, this memorable answer to an inquiry I sent him. The strangest account, says he, of mineral waters, that I have yet had, was of that in the bottom of a tin-work called *Karnkey*, wrought above 60 fathom [that is 360 foot deep;] the mineral being a mixture of tin and iron, and the water red and puddle, yet drank was cool and not nauseous, and would pass by urine near as red as it was drank, as I have been informed by those, that drank of it whilst it [the mine] was working, being now struck

struck out, [that is, the vein of ore being degenerated, or lost]. However, I believe experiments might yet be made with water much of the same nature. Thus far he, from whom, notwithstanding the remoteness of the place he lives in, I hope to get some of this liquor to make trial of; which if I do, I design you an account of the effects.

I could enlarge upon the subjects of these two last (the 8th and the 9th) numbers; but, after so long an introduction to short memoirs, it is high time, that I come at length to set down the topics themselves, that I design to propose.

S E C T. II.

T I T L E S

For the natural history of a mineral water proposed, considered as being yet in its channel or receptacles: (being the first, or mineralogical, part of the designed work.)

HE, that would draw up the history of a mineral water, [to have its qualities, some examined and some investigated,] should, in my opinion, make three sorts of observations about it. For first, he ought to take notice of those particulars, that relate to it whilst it is yet under ground, or in its native receptacles: next, he is to examine the properties and other qualities of it, when it is drawn up by men at the spring-head, or other receptacle: lastly, he is to consider the operations and effects of it upon human bodies, whether sick or sound, according to the several ways and circumstances made use of in administering it.

To the first of these three sorts of observations may be referred such heads or titles, as these.

1. IN what climate and parallel, or in what degree of latitude, the mineral water does spring up, or stagnate?
2. WHETHER the spring-head, or other receptacle, do chiefly regard the East, the West, the North, or the South?
3. WHETHER the water be found in a plain or valley? And if not, whether it arise in a hillock, a hill, or a mountain?
4. AND whether it be found at or near the top, the middle, or the bottom, of the rising ground?
5. WHETHER the waters leave any recrement, or other unusual substance, upon the stones, or other bodies, that lie in the channels they pass through as they glide along, or the receptacles that contain them?
6. WHETHER there be beneath or near the medicinal water, any subterranean fire, that hath manifest chimneys or vents, and visibly (by night only, or also by day,) burns or smokes, either constantly, or at certain periods of time?
7. WHETHER at or near the mouth, or orifice, of the abovementioned chimneys or vents, there be found either flowers of brimstone, or a salt like sal-armoniac, or some other mineral exhalations in a dry form?
8. WHETHER there be under or near the course or channel of the water, any subterranean æstuary, or latent mass, of hot, but not actually, or at least visibly, burning matters? And whether such æstuary afford an uniform heat, as to sense, or have periodical hot fits, as it were; and if so, whether these come at certain and stated times, or uncertainly or irregularly?
9. WHETHER it be observed, that over the æstuary, or in some other neighbouring part of the place, where the mineral water springs, there arise any visible mineral fumes or smoak, (which, when they do appear, are wont to do it early in the morning, or late

late in the evening,) and if such fumes ascend, how plentiful they are, of what colour, and of what smell?

10. WHAT is the more obvious nature of the not manifestly metalline, nor marcasitical part of the soil, which the medicinal water passes through or touches? And what are the qualities of the neighbouring soil, and the adjacent country? As whether it be rocky, stony, clayish, sandy, chalky, &c.

11. WHETHER there be any ores, marcasites, or earths, (especially highly coloured ones) impregnated with mineral juices, to be met with in the course of the medicinal spring, or in the receptacle of the same water stagnant? And what these minerals are, whether copperish, ferrugineous, marcasitical, &c. and whether the ores do, or do not, abound in the metalline portion? As also with what other ingredient, as spar, cauke, sulphur, orpiment, arsenick, &c. (whether innocent or hurtful) they are mingled, or else compacted together?

12. WHETHER it can be discovered, that the spring of the medicinal water was common water before it came to such a place or part of the soil it runs through, and there begins to be manifestly impregnated with mineral bodies?

13. AND whether, in this case, it makes any effervescence, or other conflict, with the mineral it imbibes, or with any other water or liquor, that it meets with in its way; and whether the conflict produce any manifest heat or no?

14. WHETHER, if the mineral water proposed be manifestly hot, or extraordinarily cold, the springs it flows out at, or the receptacle it stagnates in, have near it (and if, it have, how near) a spring, or well of water, of a contrary quality, as it is observed in very neighbouring springs in some few places of *France*, and elsewhere?

15. WHETHER, when the water appears in the spring or receptacle, there appear also, either floating at the top, or lying at the bottom, or swimming between both, any drops or greater quantity of oil, (like naphtha or petroleum,) or some other bituminous and inflammable substance?

16. WHETHER the water be considerably altered, in quantity or quality, by the different seasons of the year, as summer, winter, &c. by the much varying temperatures of the air, as to heat, coldness, drought, &c. by the plenty, or paucity, frequency, or unfrequency, of falling rains, or snows: and what may be the bounds and measures of these alterations of the mineral water?

17. WHETHER any thing considerable can be certainly discovered, or any very probable conjecture made, of the nature and qualities of the substances, that impregnate the water, by chymically and mechanically examining the mineral earths, through which it flows, or in which it stagnates? And particularly, by observing their colour, whether native or acquired, by being kept in the fire; their specific gravity; their affording, or not affording, any salt, or other soluble substance, by decoction; their being soluble, or indissoluble, in particular chymical menstruums of several sorts, as *aqua fortis*, spirit of salt, &c. and their being committed to distillation in vessels of differing sorts, and various degrees of fire, with care to receive separately the differing substances they afford, whether in the form of liquors, or of flowers; and by examining these substances by fit and proper ways, as also the *cap. mort* by calcination, elixivation, and (if it will bear such a fire) vitrification?

S E C T. III.

T I T L E S

For the natural history of a mineral water proposed, considered as being drawn out of its spring or receptacle: (being the second, or physico-chymical, part of the designed work.)

THAT this scheme of titles may be the better understood, and the more instructive and useful, though I have not time to write an ample comment upon it all, yet I thought fit to illustrate most of its particular articles by such notes, as may either explicate the meaning of what is but briefly couched, or deliver some of the practical ways of trial, that I make use of, on occasion of the subject mentioned in the title or article, whereto the notes belong. These being divers of them too large to be conveniently placed in the margin, are all of them set down together after this set of titles.

T I T L E.

1. OF the actual coldness or heat of the mineral water proposed.
2. OF the specific gravity of the mineral water proposed.
3. OF the transparency, the muddiness, or the opacity of the mineral water.
4. WHETHER the mineral water will, by standing for a competent time, let fall of itself any oker, or other earthy substance, especially though the liquor be kept from the air?
5. WHETHER any thing, and if any thing, what can be discovered in the mineral water by the help of the best microscopes adapted to view liquors?
6. OF the colour or colourness of the mineral water.
7. OF the odour of the mineral water, as acetous, winy, sulphureous, bituminous, &c.
8. OF the taste of the mineral water, as acid, ferruginous, vitriolate, lixivial, sulphureous, &c.
9. WHETHER any change will be produced in the transparency, colour, odour, or taste of the mineral water, by its being taken up at the spring-head or other receptacle; or removed to some distance, by its being kept stopped or unstopped for a greater or lesser space of time; and, by its being much warmed or refrigerated, and also, by naturally or artificially produced cold, turned into ice, and thawed again?
10. OF the thinness or viscosity of the mineral water.
11. WHETHER the mineral water be more easy to be heated and cooled, and to be dilated and condensed, than common water?
12. WHETHER the mineral water will of itself putrify, and, if it will, whether sooner or later, than common water, and with what kind or degree of stink and other phænomena?
13. OF the change of colours producible in the mineral water by astringent drugs, as galls, pomgranate-peels, balauftium, red roses, myrobolans, oaken leaves, &c. as also by some liquors or juices of the body.
14. WHETHER any thing will be precipitated out of the mineral waters by salts or saline liquors, whether they be acid, as spirit of salt, of nitre, *aqua fortis*, &c. or volatile alcalies, as strong spirit of urine, sal-armoniac, &c. or lixivate salts, as oil of tartar *per deliquium*, fixt nitre, &c?
15. How to examine with evaporation, whether the mineral water contain common salt, and, if it do, whether it contains but little or much?
16. How to examine, without evaporation, whether the mineral water have any acidity, though it be but very little?

17. OF the liquor or liquors afforded by the mineral water by distillation *in balneo*, and other ways.
18. OF the residue, *cap. mort.* of the mineral water, when the liquor is totally evaporated or distilled off; and whether the *cap. mort.* be the same in quantity and quality, if produced by either of those ways?
19. WHETHER the proposed water being, in glass vessels exactly luted together, slowly and warily abstracted to a thickish substance; this being reconjoined to the distilled liquor, the mineral water will be reintegrated, and have again the same texture and qualities it had at first?
20. WHETHER a glass full of mineral water being hermetically sealed, and boiled in common water, deep enough to keep it always covered, will have its texture so altered, as to suffer an observable change in any of its manifest qualities? And if it do, in what qualities, and to what degree of alteration?
21. OF the proportion of the dry *cap. mort.* to the mineral water, that affords it.
22. OF the division of the *cap. mort.* into saline and terrestrial, and other parts not dissoluble in water, in case it contain both or more sorts.
23. OF the proportion of the saline part of the *cap. mort.* to the terrestrial.
24. OF the fixity or volatility of the saline part in strong fires.
25. WHETHER the saline part will shoot into crystals or no? And, if it will, what figure the grains will be of? And, if it will not, whether being combined with a salt, that will (as purified sea salt-petre, &c.) it will then crystallize; and if it do, into what figures it will shoot, especially if any of them be reducible to those of any species of salt known to us?
26. To examine, whether the saline part be, *ex prædominio*, acid, alcalifate, or adiaphorous?
27. OF the observables in the terrestrial portion of the *cap. mort.* as, besides its quantity in reference to the saline, its colour, odour, volatility or fixity in strong fire; its being soluble, or not dissoluble by divers menstrua, as spirit of vinegar, spirit of urine, oil of tartar, &c.
28. WHETHER, and (if any thing) how much the mineral water's earth looses by strong and lasting ignition? What changes of colour, &c. it thereby receives? Whether it be capable of vitrification *per se*? And what colour, (if any,) it will impart to fine and well powdered Venice glass, if they be exactly mixed and fluxed into a transparent glass?
29. OF the oeconomical and mechanical uses of the mineral water, as in brewing, baking, washing of linnen, tanning of leather, or dying of cloth, callicoes, silks, &c. as these may assist in discovering the ingredients and qualities of the liquor proposed.
30. OF the imitation of natural medicinal waters, by chymical and other artificial ways, as that may help the physicians to guess at the quality and quantity of the ingredients, that impregnate the natural water proposed.

AN APPENDIX. Containing,

1. PARALIPOMENA, or things directly belonging to the history and pretermitted in it.
2. A chaos of observations and experiments, remotely or indirectly referrible either to one or more of the foregoing titles, or to the common subject of them all.

S E C T. IV.

Experimental remarks upon the (usual) way of examining mineral waters by the help of galls: delivered by way of larger annotations upon the thirteenth article of the second part.

SINCE the change of colour, that mineral waters produce in the infusion or tincture of galls, is the most usual way, that many physicians, and the almost only, that some of them endeavour to discover or examine mineral waters by, it may be worth while, in this place, to set down some remarks, that I have made about this way of probation; and the rather, because it may, *mutatis mutandis*, be not unsuccessfully applied to the exploring the qualities of mineral waters by colorations, though made with other materials than galls. First then it may be observed, that one need not make an infusion or tincture of galls in common water, to try if, by their means, a new colour will be produced: for I am wont to beat them to powder, and keep them in a glass (not too big) exactly stopped, by which means I have them always in readiness to mingle with the mineral water, and alter the colour of it, if galls be able to do it, almost in a trice; whereas, to draw the tincture of galls with simple water, often takes up several hours, and the tinging parts are much weakened by being diluted by the menstruum. If you would have a tincture, the powder of galls, tied up close in a rag, and with it hung in the liquor, makes the infusion less muddy. If you be in haste, and have none of the powder at hand, you may scrape as much of a gall-apple, as you need, into the mineral water.

2. I have observed those parts of the infusion of galls, (especially if made by heat) that produce the new colour with ferruginous waters, to be more apt to fly away than one would think, the infusion becoming often unfit to alter the colour of the martial waters, whilst yet itself appears sufficiently high coloured. Upon which account I chuse to make a tincture of galls not long belong I mind to use it; and, if I employ dry galls, to take powder, that is not stale.

3. It is no safe way, and may be very erroneous, that is usually taken in mixing galls, or their infusion with the water to be explored, so carelessly, as is wont to be done. For those, that are curious to make good ink, will easily believe, that much of the deepness of the colour depends upon the proportion of galls to the other ingredient; and accordingly, that by putting a much greater, or a much lesser, quantity of galls into such a quantity of the mineral water, the resulting colour may be more or less intense. To obviate which inconvenience, I take this course, when the occasion deserves it; I make my infusion of galls with a certain weight of the powder in a determinate weight of water. As for instance, I put about five gr. of powdered galls, to steep for so many hours in an ounce of water: but if I make use of the dry powder, then I am wont to put three or four grains into an ounce of the liquor to be examined; which is a way far more certain, than the common, wherein the ingredients are estimated but by guess. I have mentioned various proportions of powdered galls to the same quantity of liquor, because I have observed, that there is really a great inequality among the mineral waters, in which it may be put; and I have found by trial, that in an ounce of the *German Spa*, a single grain of powder would immediately produce a sufficiently deep purple colour.

It is an inconvenience, that not only galls, but the other drugs hereafter to be mentioned, impart a high tincture of their own to the common water they are infused in; and therefore it were to be wished, and is fit to be endeavoured, that we had some drug, that, without imparting a colour to the common water it impregnates, would afford an infusion fit to strike a blackish or a purple colour with martial waters.

THOUGH it be useful, yet it is not necessary, to employ galls to produce a colour in the mineral water proposed: for besides that it is known, that usually, (though not always, as I have tried) the same thing may be done, but somewhat more faintly, with oaken leaves, we may successfully enough substitute, for the same purpose, some other astringent vegetables, as dried red-rose leaves, the peel, and (as we have tried) the juice of pomegranates; and (what I find to be a notable stiptick) the blossoms of the same plant, (which are vulgarly called in the shops *ballaustium*;) to which may be added myrobolans, logwood, and some others, that need not now be mentioned, whose strong infusions have yielded me a tincture very dark and blackish with some martial liquors.

6. IN regard that the galls, or other drugs, to be infused in common water, are not always of the same goodness or strength, it is adviseable not so to trust to any determinate proportion of the pigment to the water, as not to take in the help of the eye to judge, by the colour of the tincture, whether the liquor be duly (and not too much or too little) impregnated.

8. WHEREAS there is an intimation in the close of this thirteenth article of the present set of titles, that animal liquors may be employed to produce new colours with mineral waters, I gave that hint, not only because it is usually observed in martial waters, such as those of *Tunbridge*, the *Spa*, &c. that the gross excrements of the lower belly are blackened by a commixture of their metalline parts; but in *Tunbridge* waters particularly I have observed that after the drinking of larger doses of them, the root of the tongue, and perhaps some neighbouring parts, would also acquire a dark colour, by the operation of the transient liquor.

THOUGH the way of trying mineral waters by the change of colours, that galls produce in them, be useful and recommended by being easy, cheap, and expeditious, yet I do not take it to be either of that extent, or of that certainty, that it is vulgarly presumed to be of: for its main, if not only considerable use is, to discover by striking, or not affording, a black or blackish, or at least a purple or a purplish colour, with a mineral water, to manifest the liquor to be, or not to be, either of a vitriolate, or a ferruginous nature. But there are divers metalline ores, and other mineral bodies, which, not participating of iron, will not, by this way, be discoverable, and yet may strongly impregnate the water proposed: as for example, to try, whether if arsenic were mingled with water, galls would discover it by producing with it a dark colour, I put some of the powder of them into a decoction of arsenic, but did not perceive, that it gave the liquor any deeper colour, than it would have done to common water. And as the extent of this explorer of waters is not very great, so neither do I find the informations it gives us to be so certain, as they are presumed: for, if I much misremember not, I long since found, upon trial purposely made, that another body of a metalline nature, and that did not partake of iron, would, with infusion of galls, afford a very dark colour, that might easily, among ordinary beholders, pass for the colour produced by a martial water: and I do somewhat doubt, whether so much as all liquors impregnated with iron will be discovered to be so by the colour they afford with galls; for I have sometimes made such a liquor with no mineral substance in it, save steel or iron, but I did not find it would turn the infusion of galls either blackish or purple; which made me suspect, that these colours are afforded only by such martial waters, as have been wrought upon, more or less, by some acid salts or fumes.

9. UNTO these things I shall add, that I found that to be a mistake, which is generally taken for granted, viz. that the infusion of galls will certainly discover, by becoming black, (or purple) if a mineral water, that is mixed with it, be vitriolate; for tho' it be true, that if in the vitriolated water iron, be the only or predominant mineral, or be

be at least considerably participated by the liquor, yet if the dissolved vitriol be altogether copperish, I found, by several trials purposely made with a strong solution of Roman vitriol, (wherein copper is affirmed to be the only, or to be very much the predominant metal) that it would not, with infusion or tincture of galls, afford either a black or a blackish colour, but only a thick and muddy one, that was not so much purplish.

It comes into my mind, upon this occasion, that from one of the northern countries of *England*, where there are divers mineral waters, there was brought me by a virtuosi a good quantity of very whitish earth, which he suspected to be of a peculiar nature, but could not tell of what. This odd earth being examined, I concluded it to contain a considerable proportion of lead ore, corroded by some mineral salts, and embodied with the soil; so that if it had been in a place, where people had sought for mineral waters, it is probable, that, finding some peculiarity in the taste of those, that passed through this earth, they would have taken it for a mineral water, but had been at a great loss to determine what mineral it did partake of; and perhaps, in endeavouring to resolve the doubt, by drinking it, they would have found very bad effects of it. But probably the sulphureous spirit, to be e'er long described in this paper, would have informed them, that the water was impregnated with a body of the nature of vitriol, but not of common vitriol: for though galls do not give a black, or very blackish colour with a solution of *saccharum saturni* (which is indeed the vitriol of lead) resolved in distilled or rain water; yet I found by trial, that this volatile sulphur did manifestly and presently do it; which trial I was fain to take up with, because, when I had occasion to consider this matter, I had not at hand the ores of lead, copper, &c. and therefore was fain to content myself with the solutions of the metals themselves in their proper menstruums, it being probable, that the metalline parts of the ores would have afforded either the same solutions, or some very like them, in the same menstruums; which consisting of niter, sea-salt and vitriol, bodies that abound in diverse places of the earth through which springs flow, the impregnated water would afford phænomena of the same kind. I made trials also upon a somewhat fine solution of refined gold made in an aqua regalis, and upon a solution of common running mercury made with aqua-fortis, and in a clear solution of tin made, not with either of the foregoing menstruums, (for I have not found them to dissolve it genuinely) but in a peculiar solvent, (which I have communicated in another paper) that does not only dissolve it readily, but keep it permanently dissolved, as aqua-fortis does silver, but not tin. To these solutions I put galls, without obtaining any blackish colour, except from that, which contained gold. But with our sulphureous liquor we produced notable changes of colour, and those, in all the solutions but one, a dark one, or tending to blackness; and though, for that reason, a careless eye might judge them indiscriminately to be blackish; yet, since I well remember, that the degrees, or some other modification, of the same dark colour seemed plainly enough not to be the same in all of them, I do not think it impossible, but that a very heedful beholder (which, when I made those trials, I had no great motive to be) may discern between those obscure colours some little differences, that may much assist him to guess, what metalline substance is contained in the liquor, or at least is predominant in it, if it be a compounded one. And I particularly remember, that the colour that, sprang from our sulphureous liquor and solution of tin, was manifestly distinguishable from those produced in that of any of the other solutions, being not black or blackish, nor so much as purple, but of a kind of brownish yellow.

THOUGH I am content, that the things I come from mentioning, should make men cautious and diffident, yet not only I do not despise or slight the use of galls, &c. even as it is vulgarly practised, but I am apt to think, that the way of exploring mineral waters by the changes of colour, that may be produced in them or by them, when they

they are mingled with convenient drugs or additaments, may be made of greater extent and use, than he, that has read what I have written in the foregoing number, will perhaps be forward to expect. But to make the way of exploring mineral waters by colorations, of somewhat more general use and less uncertainty, I would recommend these things to the experimenter,

(1.) It seems very fit, if not necessary, that he look upon the change of colours, both while it is producing, and when it is produced, in a good light, and with a heedful eye: for by this means he may discover several shades or varieties of the more principal colours, and some other circumstances, that he could not else take notice of; and which yet may afford good hints (in reference to other minerals, as well as martial ones) to a sagacious observer. And I have sometimes fancied, that there may be a kind of physiognomy of many, if not most other natural bodies, as well as of human faces, whereby an attentive and experienced considerer may himself discern in them many instructive things, that he cannot so declare to another man, as to make him discern them too.

(2.) THE attention here encouraged may perhaps be made more instructive by a way, that I have sometimes practised to vary the shades and other phænomena of colours produced with mineral liquors. This way consists chiefly in preparing sheets of white paper, by drenching them in a strong infusion of brasil, logwood, or some other convenient dying stuff, and then letting them dry leisurely in the air, which may give some of them, as I have observed, a colour differing enough from that of the liquor looked upon in a vial or drinking-glass. Upon this dry paper ye may let fall, but not all on the same place, some drops of the mineral liquor to be examined, especially if it be of a saline nature; and by the changes of colour effected by these drops on the parts of the paper they fell and spread themselves upon, a heedful observer may be assisted to guess, what kind of mineral impregnates the liquor, and how much it does so; especially if, on the same sheet of paper, some other fit mineral water, or idoneous liquor, be likewise dropped, that the changes of colours produced by the two fluids may be surveyed and compared together. I also practised another way somewhat differing from this; as the main part of which we prepared white paper, by rubbing well upon it, with a hare's foot, or some such thing, some idoneous powders, especially that of vitriol (whereof, for this purpose, English seemed the best) lightly calcined in a gentle heat, till it became of a greyish colour and friable between the fingers. By this means it was easy to make the paper fit for our turn: for the finer parts having lodged themselves in its pores, without much discolouring it, when the superfluous dust was struck off, it became capable of affording a variety of colours, or rather shades, some deeper and some fainter, when I let fall on it some drops of differing martial liquors. But of the examen of the *materia medica*, by the changes of colour produced in it or by it, more is said in another paper; and therefore, instead of transferring that hither, I shall here briefly intimate, that divers variations of colour may be made, either by infusion or otherwise mixing, as I have sometimes done, something in the mineral water before the tinging stuff be put to it; or by putting somewhat in the infusion or powder of galls, before it be mixed with the mineral water; or else by dropping fit liquors (such as spirit of salt first, and then spirit of urine, or oil of tartar) into the blackish or purple mixture of galls, and the medicinal water to be examined: for by these means diverse variations of colours may be observed, which, together with some other ways, that I have made use of to multiply them, I have not now leisure to set down.

(3.) It is not convenient to confine one's self to the use either of galls or oaken leaves, but to make use also of red roses, *balaustium*, logwood, brasil, and other astringent vegetable pigments. For though some of these give a deeper tincture than

galls,

galls, yet, by the diversity of colours produced by them in mineral waters, an attentive beholder may, as was lately intimated, where I mentioned diversity of lights and shades, discover some things, that he would not be informed of, or receive any hints of, by the help of galls or oaken leaves alone. Nay, I would not have our experimenter employ none but vegetable substances about his colorations, but sometimes make use of animal ones, and (more often) of minerals; since, by this means, he may much diversify his trials, and increase the number of phaenomena, some of which he may probably find instructive. Besides astringent plants, I have found, and sometimes devised, other substances, that will turn black, as well as galls, with vitriolated water; and that not only with those, that are richly impregnated with iron, but also with those, wherein copper alone abounds, as in Roman vitriol. And though, for certain reasons, I must not now set down a way I have, to discover in a trice both these vitriols, without any liquor or tangible body, yet I shall subjoin, as a kind of *succedaneum*, that may suffice for the present occasion, the way of making a liquor, that will presently turn black with a solution either of martial or cupreous vitriol.

“ TAKE equal parts of pure salt of tartar, and either flowers of sulphur, or at least sulphur finely powdered, and good sal-armoniac; reduce the first and the last to powder separately, melt the sulphur over a gentle fire, and by degrees put to it the salt of tartar, stirring them well, to make them incorporate and grow red, (or reddish :) then put this mixture pulverised into a glass retort, or a cucurbite, and pour on it the sal-armoniac dissolved in fair water; and closing well the junctures, distill all in sand by degrees of a moderate fire, shifting the receiver once or twice, because the liquors will be differinglly tinged and strong; and that, which ascends last, may bring over but very little of the sulphur, whose volatile tincture is yet the main thing we aim at in this operation.”

(4.) I do not despair, but that he, who were able to make a skilful use of the several drugs and other bodies, vegetable, animal and mineral, that may produce new colours in, or with, mineral waters, (or, in some cases, with the substances, that impregnate them) may, by their means, be also enabled to discover the presence or inexistence of divers other minerals, some of them salubrious, or at least safe, and some others either hurtful, or at least dangerous, that are not taken notice of by those, that content themselves to employ galls and oaken leaves in the exploration of the waters they examine: for some of these liquors contain salts, that, having not corroded either martial or cupreous ores, or marcasites, do not betray themselves by producing either an inky or a fainter degree of blackness, or else a purple, with the drugs made use of to change their colours. Of these salts I have met with more than one sort, which may be more properly taken notice of, when we consider the mineral water, and its contents.

12. I think it likewise very possible, that industrious men should find ways to discover, by the help of the change of colours, whether orpiment or native arsenick, or the like poisonous minerals, do so impregnate the water proposed. as to make it very hurtful or dangerous, though not absolutely pernicious. And as for sulphur, there may be several waters, that partake of it, without being taken notice of to do so. For I remember, that I have sometimes purposely made a liquor, that was limpid and colourless like spring water, and which would totally fly up, even with a gentle heat; and yet this liquor was richly impregnated with a mineral sulphur, as I convinced several virtuosi by manifest and ocular proofs. So that if sulphur chanced to be combined with any salt or mineral, of those many subterranean ones, that nature hath hid from us, that can suppress or disguise its peculiar odour, the water may be considerably, and yet unobservedly, impregnated with it. And yet it is like, this may easily be discovered

A Paper referred to certain observations about the salubrity and insalubrity of the air, under whose 4th proposition this process is ranged.

covered by the change of colour producible in such a sulphureous liquor by vitriolate bodies, and other appropriate additaments : which may be thought the more probable, because, though the spirit lately described be very transparent and totally volatile in the form of a liquor sometimes pale enough, yet common English vitriol, as also that of *Dantzick*, which is venereal, will presently turn it of a black or very dark colour. And to add here somewhat more difficult to be performed, I have devised a way, which I elsewhere deliver, whereby it may appear, that even copper, that hath been melted into a body, may be so subtilized and disguised, as to have a multitude of its metalline parts made to ascend with others in the form of a transparent liquor like common water ; and yet by putting to it a little of another substance, as volatile and colourless as itself, it would presently disclose the copper it contained, by turning blue as a sapphire.

13. BECAUSE arsenic is a very pernicious drug, and yet has been suspected to be clandestinely mingled with some mineral waters, which I thought the less improbable, because some of the marcasitical bodies, by which some minerals pass, are judged not to be devoid of arsenic ; for these reasons, I say, and for this other, which makes the mention of it pertinent in this place, that galls did not (as I elsewhere note) discover at all the inexistence of this poisonous drug in water, though the liquor were copiously impregnated with it, I thought fit to make some trials, that seemed to me likely to discover at once the inexistence of arsenic in water, and somewhat of the nature of that dangerous mineral.

HAPPENING some years ago to taste arsenic, not without some little danger and inconvenience, the taste of it did not seem to me to favour the vulgar supposition, that its poisonous nature consists in a highly acid salt ; whereas its taste agrees well with my conjecture, who suspect it to be of an exceeding corroding or fretting nature, but whose corrosiveness is *sui generis*, that is, of a peculiar kind. Having then made a strong solution of arsenic in common water, [which does not without some skill easily dissolve it,] we mixed a small proportion of it with the German Spa-water, and then dropping into this mixture some highly dephlegmed spirit of urine, we perceived a light lactescence to be produced, and a whitish precipitate very slowly to subside.

WE found also, that a little (excellent) oil of tartar *per deliquium*, being dropped into some of the lately mentioned solution of arsenic, produced a heavy whitish cloud, which presently settled at the lower part of the glass. We also put oil of vitriol, as one of the strongest acids we know, into the solution of arsenic, but did not perceive, that the oil made a precipitation, or wrought much otherwise on it, than it would have done upon common water. And by these three trials one would suspect, that arsenic is, at least *ex prædominio*, an acid body.

BUT not content with these, we put some of the arsenical liquor upon some syrup of violets, and found it to change the syrup, though but slowly, rather to a green than a red or purple colour.

WE put to another portion of the same liquor some of our volatile sulphureous spirit, but took notice of no precipitation, that ensued.

For a severer examen we employed a trial, that we successfully make use of (and have delivered in another paper) to discover such slight degrees of acidity in liquors, as by ordinary trials are not discoverable ; but we could not, by this way, discern the least acidity in our arsenical solution, but rather a manifest token of an urinous or lixivate quality.

WITH the former experiment agreed very well that, which we afterwards made, by putting some of the arsenical liquor into a strong solution of common sublimate made in fair water. For by this means we had a copious precipitate, such as might have been

been expected from an alkaline precipitant; and this was not brick-coloured, as fixed alcalies produce with dissolved sublimate, but white, such as urinous or volatile alcalies (as they call them) are wont to make with the same liquor.

THE foregoing trials having been made at one time, when I was in haste, and not at all fond of having to do with arsenic, (for which reason I caused the solution to be presently thrown away to prevent dangerous mistakes;) though what I have hitherto tried seems very favourable to our proposed conjecture; “That though arsenic be a
“very corrosive body, and perhaps upon that score poisonous, yet its deleterious nature does not consist only, or mainly, in a transcendently acid, nor in a lixivate
“caustick quality, but in a corrosiveness *sui generis*, I mean peculiar and distinct:” yet I shall forbear to be positive in this conjecture, till further trial, pretending only, by what has been said, to shew the need of examining the vulgar supposition by further inquiries, and to give some hints towards the finding of antidotes against this cruel poison.

I shall now add, that for the sake of water-drinkers I cast about in my thoughts for some way, that might be of use, though of no certainty, in examining a mineral water suspected to contain arsenic. To which purpose, for reasons, which haste forbids me to mention, I pitched upon vitriolate bodies, and found, that if a little solution of *Dantzick* vitriol were put to a convenient quantity of arsenical liquor, there would presently ensue a great change of colour, and a dark substance would by degrees precipitate itself, and settle in the lower part of the glass. The like effect we found, when we put English vitriol, which (having not copper added in the making, as that of *Dantzick* has,) is either altogether, or almost totally, martial, into a considerable proportion of the arsenical solution.

I fear I shall be thought to have dwelt by far too long upon this one (13) article of our set of titles: but I was tempted to do it, partly, because I thought the subject seemed both to merit and to need it; partly, because I thought fit to give an instance, that may shew, that even that part of the exploration of mineral waters, that is judged to be the most cultivated, hath been but superficially enough considered; and partly too, because my want of health, and my preengagement to some subjects, that I am more concerned for, than I am for that I now treat of, permitting me to make few other than shorter notes upon the particular articles and clauses of this scheme of titles; I thought it not amiss, by referring all the foregoing observations and trials to the same topick, to give one specimen (though but an imperfect one) of those, that, for distinction's sake, I stile Large Annotations. And though the title these belong to be the thirteenth in the scheme (of the II part,) yet I thought fit to promise these notes to all the rest, though divers of them be on titles antecedent to the thirteenth; because one or other of the many particulars referred to this last named title may probably be of use to you, in considering many of the other articles of this scheme, whether they follow the thirteenth, or precede it.

MARGINAL NOTES for the II. or physico-chymical part of the natural history of a mineral water proposed.

Notes on the first title.

1. 1. THE article mentions actual coldness and heat, because we do not here consider that, which the schools call potential.

2. THE knowledge of the degree of coldness in the water, especially if it be extraordinary, may somewhat assist the examiner to guess, whether the spring come from
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some notable depth under ground before it ascends, or whether it runs through a soil abounding with salt-petre or sal-armoniac, or some such very refrigerating substance.

3. THE degree of coldness or heat may be estimated several ways; as, if the water be cold, by its having, or not having, the power to coagulate essential oil of anniseeds or that of fennel-seed; and if it be that, by its being, or not being, able to melt bodies of somewhat differing dispositions to fusion, as butter, tallow, bees-wax, &c. or to coagulate the whites of eggs, or to boil eggs in the shell, &c. But the best way is to plunge into the water proposed at least the whole ball or globulous part of a good hermetically sealed thermoscope, whereon the degrees of cold and heat are carefully marked.

Notes on the second title.

II. THE knowledge of the specific gravity of a mineral water may be of great use to him, that endeavours to discover its nature, not only as this knowledge enables him to distinguish the proposed water from others, but because it may afford him a considerable and double information. For, by comparing the weight of the proposed liquor with that of common water, he may be, in case the former be heavier, (as it usually happens to be,) assisted to estimate, what proportion of salt, or martial, or other mineral substance, it is impregnated with. And if it be very light, and much more if it be lighter than common water, he may probably conclude, that the substance, that impregnates it, is either very small in quantity or proportion, or is not near so gross, as is to be found in other mineral waters, but of a spirituous and volatile nature, which is a discovery of no small moment in this affair. And though that may seem a paradox, which I here suppose, that a water impregnated with a metalline or mineral substance should be as light, or even lighter than common water; yet upon trial carefully made I have found some mineral waters, as particularly that of *Tunbridge* well taken up, and (though they be somewhat less light) that of the German Spa, and of some of the *Islington* springs, to be manifestly lighter, than common water; and some taken up at *Tunbridge* I found to be lighter, than common water, even purified by distillation.

AND though it be very hard to conceive, yet I think it not impossible, that a subterranean substance, that impregnates water, should be lighter *in specie* than it; but yet I would not refer this surprizing levity, in all cases, nor all of it in most cases, to the admixture of lighter corpuscles; because some trials justified the suspicion I had, that much of the comparative lightness proceeded from this, that the mineral water was imbued with a smaller quantity of vulgar or culinary salt, than common water uses to contain. But yet these trials did not satisfy me, that this paucity of common salt was the sole or adequate cause of the lightness of the mentioned waters.

BUT, to discover such minute differences, one must have good instruments; and indeed, to speak freely, there are few, upon whose reports I durst confidently rely for the specific gravity of mineral waters; for to weigh liquors any thing exactly, there is requisite more heedfulness, and more skill, and better instruments, than are easy to be met with together, and than we usually imagine. And when physicians and others weigh mineral waters, they are wont to do it in some apothecary's or other tradesman's shop, where, if the balances be small, the vessels and the water are commonly too heavy for them, and oftentimes wrong them. And if, as is usual, the bottles or other vessels be great, they require far better balances, than are usually employed in the shops of apothecaries or grocers, whose balances a critical examiner will too often find to be far from being accurate; inso much that usually, without at all altering the weights, though perhaps not great ones, he may easily make which scale he pleases manifestly preponderate, and continue in that position, and may as easily afterwards give the other scale the same advantage. The diligent and experienced methematician *Mersennus* much

much complains of the difficulty he found to weigh liquors exactly, even by the help of his nicer instruments, The accuratest way I know, is by comparing the differing weights, that the same sinking body has in common water and in the liquor proposed. But this way (which I elsewhere circumstantially deliver) requiring, besides good instruments, skill in hydrostaticks, is practicable but by few. And the way of comparing waters, by the greater or lesser sinking of the same cylinder or other swimming body into them, is scarce accurate enough: wherefore, I chose to make a very skilful artist blow, at the flame of a great lamp, a thin round vial with a flattish bottom, that it might stand upright, and be very light; and this was furnished with a neck as large as a goose quill, drawn very even into a hollow cylinder of above three inches long, and fitted at the top with a little gap, that hindered the water from ascending above the due height.

THIS glass contained 3iijss. and 43 grains of common water, and yet, when empty, weighed but 3vi + 42 grains: so that I could use it, when full of liquor, in such a balance, that the addition or detraction of half a grain, or less, would make either scale preponderate. The length and evenness of the stem was designed for uses not needful to be mentioned here, where it may suffice for my purpose to say, that this glass was judged capable of holding water enough for not uncurious trials, and yet not to be, though well filled, too heavy for a tender balance. In this vessel therefore we carefully weighed several liquors (whose gravity belongs not to this place) and among them divers mineral waters, some of which, at least known here at *London*, were found to be of the annexed weights.

THE glass being filled with several liquors to the same height, and weighed in the same balances;

								Ounces	dr.	gr.
Common water was found to weigh	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	43
Common water distilled	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	41
Acton water	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	48 $\frac{1}{2}$
Epsom water	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	51
Dulwich water	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	4	54
Straton water	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	55
Barnet water	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	52
North-hall water	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	50
The German Spa-water	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	40
Tunbridge water	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	38
Islington water from the music house	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	36
Islington water from the vault with steps	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	39
Islington water from the cellar	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	39

By this short account it may appear, that, as divers mineral waters (that contain salts in them) are considerably heavier, than common water, so some, especially ferruginous waters, are impregnated with so fine a substance, as to be lighter than common water.

Notes on the fourth title.

IV. THIS article may, in divers cases, give some light to the discovery of the kind of soil, through which the water has passed; and is also useful to distinguish the spontaneous residence, if I may so call it, that the liquor lets fall by meer standing, from that, which they call the *caput mortuum*, that remains after the total evaporation of the water; by which means also the weight of this last residence may be more truly known. Besides some other mineral waters, I found, that the German Spa waters, brought very well stopt to *London*, afforded, by long standing, a pretty quantity of

terrestrial substance, that looked almost like yellow oker, and perhaps was of great affinity to it in nature. 3. That clause in the article, *though the liquor be kept from the air*, was therefore set down, because I had found by trials, that some liquors, by being exposed to the free air, would have copious, and sometimes surprizing substances, separated from them; as if the air contained some precipitating salts fit to work on the liquors, so as to make in them such notable separations.

Notes on the fifth title.

V. AN accidental weakness I had in my eyes, when I had the best opportunity to endeavour satisfying myself about this inquiry, forced me to leave the prosecution of it to others. Only two things I shall take notice of on this occasion: one is, that having caused one, that had young eyes, and was accustomed to make use of such microscopes, as are mentioned in the article, to look upon some mineral waters through them, he said he could discern no difference between them and common water: notwithstanding which, the trial ought to be repeated by various persons, on several waters, with differing engyscopes, and in differing lights, and other circumstances. The other is, that whereas it is by divers learned men objected against the goodness of these magnifying glasses we now make use of to look on liquors, that the little bodies, that the ingenious Mr. *Lewenboeck*, and, since him, divers other virtuosi have observed in water, wherein pepper has been infused, are not, as he pretends, living creatures, but little inanimate concretions, that are casually formed, and carried to and fro in the liquor; to convince these doubters, of whose number I was myself at first inclined to be, I devised the following experiment: having laid upon the magnifying glass a part of a drop of water, wherein I could see store of these little animals frisking up and down, we put to the liquor, with a bristle or some such very slender thing, part of a drop of spirit of salt, which, as was expected, presently killed these little tender creatures, and, depriving them of their animal motion, left them to be carried so slowly to and fro in the liquor, as to make it visible, that they were then dead, and had been before alive.

Notes on the seventh title.

VII. 1. THE odours of divers mineral waters are best judged of at the spring-head or other receptacle, whence some of them being removed scarce afford any odour at all (perceptible by us men.)

2. PERHAPS the sulphureous scent, that is sometimes perceived in *Tunbridge* and some other waters in their sources, may in part proceed from loose exhalations, that casually happen to be mingled with the waters, but do not constantly belong to it.

3. THE winy odour is mentioned among others; because I am credibly informed, that in *France* there is a mineral spring, if not more or less than one, that has such a smell.

4. I MENTION the bituminous odour distinctly from the sulphureous, because men are too apt to confound them, and take all stinking mineral waters for sulphureous, whereas divers are manifestly bituminous; as may be gathered, to omit other signs, not only from their proper odours, but from more or fewer drops of petroleum, or a kind of coarse naphtha, that are found swimming upon the water.

5. I THINK it also not unlikely, that sometimes a spring may partake both of sulphur and bitumen, mingled together by the subterranean heat, since I have found, that I could easily melt and incorporate these two substances here above ground.

Notes on the ninth title.

IX. 1. THIS is an almost necessary article, because many persons, that drink mineral waters, cannot well, either for want of strength or conveniency repair immediately to the spring-head, but are obliged to drink them in their beds or their lodgings, and

and perhaps to have them transported to a great distance, or even to another country. 2. Many purging waters are found to retain their laxative virtue, and that perhaps for a considerable time, though they be transported to places distant from those they rise in. 3. In such ferruginous waters, as are lighter than common water, I found a manifest difference in reference to transportation; for most of them, even such as will bear removing, have something of freshness and quickness at the spring head, (perhaps from some spirituous and fugitive exhalations, that there arise with them, but presently vanish,) that they have not any where else; and some do not only lose this briskness by being removed, though in vessels well stoppt, but they lose also the power of producing, with the powder of galls, a purple colour, as I found by trial purposely made in more than one of these mineral waters; which, to prevent fraud, I sent for to the springs themselves by servants of my own: for though these carried their glass bottles along with them, and had no other errand there but to fill and stop them carefully, yet, by being transported less than one league, I found them so altered, that they would no longer make a purplish colour with powdered galls, but a deep reddish one; whereas the German Spa-waters did almost always here in *London* afford me, with the same powder of galls, a rich purple colour; and Tunbridge waters afforded me the like, but not so deep a one, when I received them at *London* very well stoppt. 4. This last clause was not to be omitted, because the exact or negligent closing of the vessels, wherein such waters are transported, is a circumstance of great moment. For more than once I received at *London* waters sent me from *Tunbridge* by physicians themselves, (who used at least a moderate care in putting them up,) which yet would by no means afford with galls a purplish colour. And I found, that even the German Spa-water would almost presently lose its capacity of being made purple by galls, if it were considerably heated. 5. But the same Spa-water being, in summer time, kept all night in an open vessel, did the next morning, till it was late, if not till noon, retain a disposition to be made purple by the admixture of galls; but that disposition it lost before the next day.

Notes on the fifteenth title.

XV. 1. BECAUSE it often happens, that men have not the leisure and the convenience totally to evaporate the proposed mineral water, it may be an useful thing to be able, without evaporation, to discover, whether it contain any common salt; and, if it do, to make some estimate, how copiously or sparingly the liquor is impregnated with it. This might easily be done with nicety enough, if I were not by very just reasons restrained, for a while, from communicating that way of examining the saltiness and freshness of waters; of which, I did, by the king's command, shew his majesty some proofs, whereof mention was presently after made in the printed Gazettes. But till it be free for me to impart that way to the public, I shall only intimate, that some guesses may be made at the saltiness of waters, by observing, whether they will lather with wash-balls or soap, and, if they will not, what quantity of curdled matter they will produce; as also, whether the waters will serve for washing of linnen, and will boil peas tender? Which two are the most usual ways, that many seamen take to examine the goodness of unknown waters by. In divers purging waters this way may be difficult to be practised with certainty, because of other salts, that may be predominant in them; but in the examen of lightly ferruginous springs it may be more relied upon. 2. It may not be unworthy observation, that, when I made use of my own way of examining the saltiness of mineral springs, I did not find even the lightest sort of them devoid of common salt; which I found, but not in equal proportions, to be contained not only in the several waters of Islington, Hampstead-water, and, if I misremember not, in some others, but also particularly in Tunbridge-waters, and those of the German

man Spa; which I did not much wonder at, because I had long known, that more or less of common salt is very usually harboured, though not observed, in many soils, through which all sorts of springs, and consequently mineral ones, have their course.

Notes on the sixteenth title.

XVI. THOUGH acidity be so usually a manifest quality of mineral waters, that authors are wont to divide them into *acidule* and *thermae*; yet I have found by several trials, that it is not near so easy, as men presume, to find a manifest acidity in all mineral waters, that are not sulphureous or hot. For several ferruginous waters having probably spent the acidity they had upon the iron ore, which they dissolved in their passage, retain so little acidity, that it is hard to discover they have any, either by their working upon coral, or by any conflict with spirit of urine, or the like, or by mixing them with syrup of violets, to change the colour of it; insomuch, that sometimes I should have concluded some such waters to have no acidity at all, if I had not had a way of discovering a far less degree of it, than I could discern it to have by other trials. The circumstances, that made this way of examining so critical, will cost me too many words to set down here, and I have done it in another paper expressly written of the way of discovering the qualities of divers bodies, by changes of colour made in or with them: and therefore I shall here but briefly tell you, that I discover the acidity of liquors by their operation upon the colours of an infusion of *lignum nephriticum* made in limpid water, (and ordered after a certain manner.) By this means I found the German Spa to retain a little acidity, even here at *London*; but more than one of our own ferruginous springs did not, even upon this trial, appear to have any: and (which some may think strange) I did not find even some of the purging springs, particularly that of *Aston*, to have any discernible acidity.

Notes on the twentieth title.

XX. THE scope of this inquiry was twofold: the first, to discover, whether a change of texture would notably alter the qualities of the liquor, when the hermetical seal hindered the avolation of any saline, ferruginous, or spirituous parts: and the other was to see, whether such an agitation by heat, as in the open air would, as I had found, deprive the Spa-water of the virtue of making a purple colour with galls, would cause any manifest separation of parts in the liquor, and make any grosser substance to precipitate or subside. But though we did twice (not without difficulty) make the experiment with Spa-water, yet we made it without success; for the first time the glass broke at the bottom, before the water we immersed it in was near boiling hot. And though the other glass resisted longer, and endured a greater heat, yet in not very many minutes that also broke at the bottom; which disappointment a faithful historian ought as little to conceal as better successes. And I chuse to leave this 20th article of inquiry in its place, among the rest of the titles, because possibly some other may be more happy, than I was, in endeavouring to answer it. And I hold it not amiss, in drawing up platforms of natural history, to set down what questions we think fit to be proposed to nature; because we cannot be sure, before endeavours for trial be used, whether the thing to be attempted be practically performable, or not.

Notes on the twenty-sixth title.

XXVI. 1. DIVERS ways may be propounded to discover, which of the qualities, mentioned in this article, is predominant in the salt to be examined; but, I confess, I somewhat doubt, whether these ways of trial be so certain, as many will be forward to think them. 2. If acidity be guessed to be predominant in the salt proposed, it will probably appear by such ways as these: by the taste, odour, or both: by working upon coral or crab's eyes finely powdered: by curdling of milk: by making syrup of violets reddish: by the power of destroying the blue colour of infusion of *lignum nephriticum*:

nephriticum ; by not being precipitable by potent acid liquors, as oil of vitriol, spirit of salt ; and by being precipitable by oil of tartar *per deliquium*, as also by strong spirit of urine, and other volatile alcalies, as they are called. But, as I was noting above, I doubt whether these proofs be absolutely certain ; for, if I mistake not, I found some purging mineral waters, that would not give even so slight a proof of acidity, as to destroy the blueness of the nephritic tincture, which yet would curdle milk, and turn it to a kind of posset ; and, on the contrary, I found, that some German Spa-waters would not curdle milk, and yet would readily deprive the newly mentioned tincture of its ceruleous colour ; which yet I did not find, that some of our English ferruginous waters were, at least when brought me to *London*, able to do. 3. The predominancy of an alcali, in the salt of a mineral water, may be probably discovered by such ways as these : by the lixivate taste, smell, or both ; the former of which may be observed in the true nitre of the antients, (which I have had brought me from *Ægypt*, and a neighbouring country, whose name I do not now remember :) by the turning of syrup of violets green : by the precipitation of solution of sublimate made in spring-water : by an effervescence or conflict with some potent acid, as *aqua-fortis*, or well dephlegmed spirit of salt : by heightning the red tincture of logwood or Brazil, drawn with common water ; to which may be added a nicer way or two, that I have elsewhere mentioned. But I propose these ways but as appearing rational, upon the score of my having successfully tried them with other saline bodies, that were alcalifate : for as to those mineral waters I have had occasion to examine, I do not remember I have yet met with any, wherein an alcali was predominant. 4. But, perhaps, farther inquiry will discover to others here in *England*, what I have not yet met with ; and I doubt not, but that there are, in divers places of the earth, salts of an alcalifate nature. And I presume, that if the Egyptians were any thing curious of such things, they would find, among their springs or wells, divers waters impregnated with them : for I found by trials purposely made upon latron, as some knowing men call the true Egyptian nitre, presented me by an inquisitive ambassador, who came out of the East, that the native salt exhibited divers of the same phænomena, that other factitious alcalies do. And some salt, afforded by the famous waters of *Bourbon* in *France*, being brought me thence, with a desire, that I would examine it, I found it to be evidently alcalifate ; insomuch that it would make a conflict with acids, and presently turn syrup of violets green. 5. If we suspect vitriol to be much predominant in the saline part of a mineral water, we may endeavour to discover it by such ways as these. By its blackning a solution of galls : by its vomitive operation upon the drinkers, though this may sometimes be an uncertain way, especially because an invisible permixture of arsenic, or perhaps arsenical fumes, may give the water they impregnate an emetic quality : by putting alcalies to a strong solution of the supposed vitriol, and observing, whether it will afford a yellow or yellowish precipitate, if salt of tartar or spirit of urine be dropt into it. By taking notice, whether a sulphureous spirit, especially such an one as I formerly told I had made, though not here described, will make a blackish or a very dark colour with it, as I first guessed, and then found it would do with several vitriolate liquors, and even with one, to make which we had dissolved but one grain of a natural vitriolate substance in above four or five thousand times its weight of syrup or water. But in the parts about *London* I remember not, that in any of the waters I have made trials on, I have found vitriol to be predominant, or to be so much as a manifest ingredient ; which seemed to me the more remarkable, because several parts about this city are not destitute of marcasites, the parents or wombs of vitriol. Since the writing of these papers, being casually visited by a discerning stranger, who had a particular occasion to take notice of the residences of many of the mineral waters of *France*, his

native country; he answered me, that he never met with any, that was manifestly vitriolate; and he seemed to be of opinion, that no vitriolate spring had yet been discovered among the many mineral ones, that are known to be in that country. 7. Since we so rarely meet with either manifestly acid or evidently alcalifate salts in our English mineral waters, it may deserve a serious inquiry, what other salts they may be impregnated with; and especially from what salts the purgative virtue, that is found to belong to many of them, as *Epsom, Barnet, Aiton, &c.* does proceed? Common salt indeed, as is already noted, I have found tokens of in the German Spa-water, and in all the English mineral waters I had occasion to try, not one that I remember excepted. But I did not find, that common salt was so copious in any of them, as to disclose itself by crystallizing in cubical grains. And the way I made use of to examine the saltiness of the water without crystallization, is not equally certain in all sorts of them. And because I had not store enough of these liquors, to evaporate them in large quantities, though I could not discern in the clear salts they afforded, either vitriol, or saltpetre, or allum, or even common salt, by their peculiar and genuine figures; yet I dare not confidently say, that none of our English mineral springs abounds with any of those salts. But as far as I can guess, by the trials, that I have hitherto had opportunity to make, I am apt to think, that the salt, that is found in our purgative waters, and in some of them copiously enough, does not belong to any one known sort of salts, but is either of a sort, for which, as for many other minerals, we have yet no name; or, which seems more probable, is a salt of a compounded nature, made up by the coalitions of some or all of the salts above-mentioned, and perhaps of some other, as yet nameless, subterranean salt, that the spring dissolves in its passage. That two bodies, which are neither of them cathartic, may, by a change of texture wrought in one another, compose a third body, that is briskly purgative, I have shewn in another paper. Besides, having formerly had occasion, in order to the resolution of a certain doubt I had entertained, to burn salt of tartar with about a double weight of common sulphur; I thence obtained, as I expected, a neutral salt, that had peculiar qualities differing from those of the bodies employed to make it up: and talking of this salt with an ingenious empirick, he told me it had a quality I had not mentioned, and that a very useful one; since in the dose of half a dram, or in some bodies, being taken in wine or broth, it would considerably, and yet gently, and without gripings, purge. And without the help of salt of tartar I have sometimes made out of common sulphur, a chrySTALLINE salt of a somewhat vitriolate taste, the like to which might possibly be made under ground, where there are subterranean fires, though perhaps not observed nor suspected, since we made this salt without adding any thing to the sulphur, only by the help of fire and common water. And I remember, that a great virtuoso, several years ago, brought me, in order to an examen he desired I should make of it, a certain salt afforded by a spring in or near his land, which I remember was in the west of *England*, though I have forgot the name of the county; which salt nobody knew what to make of; but I quickly told him I took it to be of the nature of the *sal mirabile Glauberi*, and predicted, that in such trials it would afford such and such phenomena, which accordingly came to pass. And I thought, that, if opportunity had not been wanting, this salt would have appeared purgative, as some factitious salts, that resemble it in transparency, colourlessness, and figure, have been observed to be.

Notes on the twenty-seventh title.

1. It is surprising to observe, how great an inequality one may sometimes meet with in the proportion, that the same quantity of two differing mineral waters bear to the *caput mortuum* they respectively afford: for a pound, for instance, of one may, after evaporation, leave behind it perhaps more drams of dry substance, than a pound of the

the other will leave behind it grains. But because I have no notes of the considerablest instances of this kind, that came to my knowledge, I shall add only by and by the product of a more recent trial. 2. As far as I have hitherto observed, those ferruginous waters, that are not heavier than common water, and in most drinkers prove but diuretick, afford but very little *caput mortuum*, or dry substance upon the total evaporation of the liquor; whereas mineral waters, that are purging, and manifestly more ponderous in specie than common water, leave, upon evaporation, a considerable quantity of residue, though some far less than others. 3. At once to explain, and partly prove, what I have been saying, I shall here recite, that from a pound of *Barnet* water (which is known to be purgative) slowly evaporated, we obtained a dram of white powder: but from the like quantity of *Tunbridge* water, we obtained but about one grain of *caput mortuum*; and, if I misremember not, we had but about a grain and a half from 25 ounces of the German Spa-water. 4. It may seem scarce credible to many, that so small a quantity of matter, of which perhaps not one half is saline, or metalline, (the rest being terrestrial) should impart a manifest virtue to so great a proportion of water. But this difficulty did not much trouble me, who have purposely made divers experiments, to discover, how small a proportion of mineral matter may suffice, when dissolved, to impregnate common water. I remember I took one grain of iron stone, casually found near the springs at *Issington*, (from which mineral it is probable those waters derive their virtue;) this being opened by the fire, and dissolved as far as it would be in a little spirit of salt, we let fall a drop or two of the yellowish solution into a great proportion of infusion of galls, to which it presently gave a deeper colour than *Tunbridge* water, or even the German Spa water, was wont to give here at *London* with the powder of galls: so that we guessed, that, if we had then had at hand a competent quantity of the infusion, the remaining part of the martial solution would have been able to colour ten times a greater quantity of the infusion, than our trial was made upon. This will be easily believed by him, that shall consider an experiment we afterwards made to the same purpose, which was this: we dissolved a half grain of a good marcasite, taken up not far from *London*, in a small quantity of spirit of nitre, (which for a certain reason I made choice of, though other acid menstruums, as aqua-fortis, and spirit of salt, would have dissolved the mineral;) this small solution we put into a pound of pretty high tincture of galls, made by infusing them in common water, and finding, as we expected, that this mixture grew very dark, we filled a vial with it, and emptying that vial into a larger glass, we filled the same vial three times with common water to dilute it; notwithstanding which, this new mixture, being put into one of our usual glasses, appeared of a colour much deeper than that, which the water of *Tunbridge*, or the German Spa, had formerly given with the powder of galls: so that probably if another vial of common water had been added, it would yet have afforded a purple colour, if not a deeper; so that one part of dissolved marcasite communicated a tincture to (61440) sixty one thousand four hundred and forty parts of infusion of galls. And that, which makes this experiment more considerable is, that this small quantity of marcasite was not itself all martial or metalline: for from our *English* marcasites, as well as others, I have obtained a pretty quantity of sulphur, like common sulphur; besides that they afford a not despicable quantity of terrestrial substance, about whose nature I have not yet satisfied myself. 5. I shall now add this reflection, that since the marcasite impregnated so much water with its corporeal parts, if I may so call them, obtained by bare dissolution, it seems highly probable, that the same quantity of liquor may be impregnated by a far less quantity of mineral matter, attenuated into a kind of spirituous state by being raised in the form of fumes or exhalations; and that imperfect or embryonated iron may be so, will scarce be denied by them, that

consider the way, that I have, in another paper, delivered to make iron manifestly emit copious fumes, without the help of external fire. And if it be with some such spirituous and volatile exhalations, that a mineral water, as that of *Tunbridge* or of *Islington*, is impregnated, it is not hard to conceive, that they may easily lose their chief virtue, by the avolation of most or many of their fugitive parts, upon their being removed to a distance from the spring head. And to make it probable, that vitriolate corpuscles may be made to ascend, without losing their nature, I shall here mention an experiment, that I devised to give some light in this matter. I had often found by trial, that a spirit richly impregnated with volatilized sulphur would with vitriol, whether in the form of a powder or a solution, produce in a trice a very dark or blackish colour: and guessing, that in mercury, turned by the addition of salt and vitriol into corrosive sublimate, many of the vitriolate corpuscles might ascend with the mercurial ones, I took such a volatile sulphureous tincture, as I have been mentioning, (which for this purpose ought to be deep) and having dropped it upon good sublimate, I found it turn presently of a very opacous colour. To shew also, that, to make a great dilatation or dispersion of the martial corpuscles of an ore or mineral, there needs no spirit of salt, or the like distilled menstruum, I procured from a copperas-work, (or place where vitriol is made by art) some of the liquor they employ before they cast in iron, that being corroded by it, it may increase the weight, and give solidity and some other qualities to the designed vitriol. Now though this liquor be made, without any chymical menstruum, barely by rain or snow-water, that impregnates itself with saline or metalline particles in its passage through beds of marcasites, that lye exposed to the sun and air; yet in this water such numbers of martial corpuscles are dispersed, that having shaken four drops of it into 12 ounces and a half of common water, this liquor, as I expected, was thereby so impregnated, that with powder of galls it presently produced as deep a colour, as good *Tunbridge* water would have done. So that, supposing a drop of this liquor to weigh about a grain, (as by some trials purposely made, we found it to do) it appears, that one part of the vitriolate water was able manifestly to impregnate 1500 parts of common water. And yet of these four drops or grains of vitriolate liquor a considerable part may very probably be concluded, from the way of its production, to have been rain water; as will easily be granted, when I shall have added, that, to examine this supposition or conjecture, we slowly evaporated some ounces of the vitriolate liquor, and found, that the remaining dry substance did not fully amount to the fourth part of the weight of the whole, at which rate it was easy to conclude, that one grain of vitriolate substance would have been found capable of so impregnating six thousand times its weight of common water, as to make it fit to produce, with galls, a purple tincture. We afterwards found, upon trial purposely and warily made, that the experiment will hold, though the proportion of the water to the grain of tinging substance should exceed that lately mentioned, by the weight of some hundreds of grains.

TITLES for the natural history of a mineral water proposed; considered as a medicine, (being the third part of the designed work.)

S E C T. VI.

THOUGH the effects of a mineral water upon human bodies, as well as upon other subjects, may challenge a place in the natural history of it; yet because the titles of this third part of this scheme, for the most part, directly regard the cure or prevention of diseases, which are held to be the proper offices of physicians as such,

I forbore to make any comments upon the particular titles of this part of our historical idea, contenting myself, for the sake of those, that are strangers to platforms of natural history, to have set down a series of titles, which may point out to them, what particulars may be fit for their inquiry, and furnish them with heads, whereto they may refer, and receptacles, wherein they may lodge what, upon trials or otherwise, they shall meet with worthy of observation. And so the accounts, that shall be given on these subjects, may be somewhat more distinct, and less incomplete.

To what temperaments and constitutions the mineral water proposed is the most proper, to what less proper, and to what noxious or inconvenient?

In what stated diseases, and in what particular cases, the mineral water is proper, or to be suspected of being dangerous, if not certainly hurtful?

WHAT difference there is, if any, between the water taken up and presently drank at the spring itself, or other receptacle, and that, which is carried to some distance off, whether in open, or in well stopped vessels?

OF the manifest operations of the water in those, that take it, whether it be by vomit, by siege, by urine, by several, or by two, or all of these ways.

WHETHER any occult virtues, or other hidden qualities, can be discovered in the mineral water? and, if any, what?

WHAT variation in the effects of the mineral water proceeds from its being drank all of it quite cold, or hot, or lukewarm; or one part, when it is in one of those tempers, and the rest, when in another.

OF promoting or facilitating the operation of the water, in some by taking it in bed, and in others by moderate exercise.

WHAT assistance may be given to the operation of the water, by giving with it, especially in the first draught, something to make it pass the better, or to correct its crudity, or to strengthen the stomach and bowels?

WHAT advantages may accrue from preparing the patient's body before he enters upon his course of drinking the waters? and what inconveniences may attend the neglect of such preparation, especially in gross, foul, or much obstructed bodies?

OF the assistance the water may receive by gently purging medicines, discreetly given from time to time.

OF the best dose, or quantity of the water, to be taken at once; of the compass of time, wherein it should be all drank; and of the gradual increasing and lessening the dose at the beginning, and sometimes before the end, of the whole space of time appointed for the taking it.

How much the greater or lesser length of time spent in taking the water conduces to its good effects? and what is the fittest measure of time to continue the drinking of it, respect being had to the patient's strength, disease, the time of the year, the accidental temperature of the air, and other considerable circumstances?

WHETHER the drinking of the mineral water, for several years together, be found almost necessary, or more beneficial, than to intermit it sometimes for a year or two, or perhaps longer, and then to return to the use of it?

OF the diet, as to meat, drink, exercise, sleep, &c. that ought to be observed by those, that take the water; and of the inconveniences that are wont to follow the neglect of it.

OF the signs, that declare the water to work kindly and effectually, and of the tokens of not doing so, and those of its being already hurtful or likely to prove so.

OF the inconveniences or unwelcome accidents (if there be any, as usually there is) that have been observed to happen, during, or some time after, the drinking of the mineral

mineral water, especially to persons of such constitutions, or that are in such and such circumstances, and of the ways to prevent or remedy such inconveniences.

WHETHER there be any necessity, or great use, of taking physick, after one has done drinking the water? and if there be, what are the fittest times and medicines to be employed for the prevention of any bad effects of it, and what is the danger of neglect to make use of them?

WHETHER, and how, the mineral water may be usefully given by being simply commixed with other liquors or bodies, as by boiling meat in it; or by receiving, together with the additament, a further preparation, as when the water is mingled with wine, or some other drink; when with milk it is made into posset drink; when brewed with malt alone, or with that and hops, it is turned into ale or beer?

WHETHER any such saline, or other substance may by evaporation, inspissation, calcination, &c. be extracted or obtained from the mineral water, as, being given in a small dose, may be substituted as a *succedaneum* to large quantities of the water as nature affords it?

OF what uses (if of any) the mineral water is, when outwardly applied, as by washing sore eyes or ulcers, bathing in it, &c. and whether the mud, or sediment it leaves, where it passes or stagnates, being externally applied, have the same or other medicinal virtues; and, if so, how the mud is to be administered to make it exert them.

OF some mechanico-medical trials, that may be made upon animals, to help us to guess at the qualities of the mineral waters; as by injecting it into the veins of a dog, to try, whether it will coagulate his blood, or make it more fluid, or operate powerfully by vomit, siege or urine; as also by keeping a dog very long, without allowing him any other drink at all than the mineral water.

BUT I propose such particulars, as mentioned in this article, but as analogous experiments, or *succedaneums* to trials, that should, but cannot well, because of the worthiness of the subject, be tried in living human bodies. And indeed all the titles of this third part of our designed history belong properly to physicians; many of whom (at least if they resemble you) are far better qualified to cultivate this medicinal subject, than I, who being as little desirous, as fit, to incroach upon their province, shall not enlarge upon this third member of our history, but willingly resign it into their, and especially into your own more skilful hands.

The C O N C L U S I O N.

AND now, Sir, it may be seasonable to put an end, at least for the present, to this rhapsody of papers, by telling you, that the foregoing idea, or platform of a history of mineral waters, being a draught of, or a first essay upon, so difficult and uncultivated a subject, as I have ventured to treat of; as I know you are too judicious to expect any thing of exactness and compleatness, in what I now present you, so I hope you will be so equitable, or so favourable, a reader, as to forgive those omissions and other imperfections, that I cannot doubt but you, (and even I myself upon a review) shall discover in the first edition of the foregoing papers. And though, if hereafter they shall be thought worthy of a second, I may possibly be able, if GOD will be pleased to grant me health and leisure, to rectify some oversights, and supply some omissions; yet, to deal freely with you, I much fear, that it will be very difficult for far skilfuller pens, than mine, to deliver such histories of mineral waters, as the curious would wish, and those criticks, that have never made trial of the difficulty of attempts of this nature, will be forward to require. And this difficulty will, I presume, be found a great one, not only, (as I have already noted) by him, that shall under-

take

take to give a good account of mineral waters *à priori*, but to him also, that shall take in all the help he can obtain *à posteriori*: for there are so many circumstances of seasons, weather, place, and a multitude of contingencies, that may vary the phenomena and effects of mineral waters, that it is extremely difficult, either to comprize so many different things at once, and, as it were, survey them at one view, or without having such a comprehension and multitude of various regards, to be able to pronounce with certainty about the nature, the medicinal operations, and the other effects of a subject, that may be influenced and diversified by so many causes and accidents, as a mineral water may. And therefore, 'till further disquisitions and trials shall have better cleared up the subject, I shall, without pretending to more, think the past discourse not altogether useless, if it can well perform the office of the *virgula divinatoria*; which, (supposing the truth of what many chymists and metallists deliver,) of how little value soever it be of itself, is fit to point at mineral treasures, and shew men the places, where they are to seek for them. *Farewell.*

This belongeth to the 16th TITLE of the first part.

IT is known, that the drinking of ferruginous waters, such as those of the German Spa and our *Tunbridge*, is usually prescribed for many weeks, during which time it often enough happens, that the fall of rains makes men doubt, whether the mineral water be not so much diluted, as to be spoiled in its medicinal capacity. And indeed I have more than once observed, that some such martial waters, after considerable rains, lost their power of producing the wonted colour with galls. And therefore it may in some cases be of good use to be assisted to conjecture, whether or no the rain have made the mineral water unfit for drinking? In order to this I shall take notice, that usually a small rain does little or no harm to the medicinal spring; and sometimes even a moderate rain, especially after a long drought, may, instead of weakning it, increase its virtue, by washing down into its channel some salts, that, during the dry weather, were concreted in the pores of the ground, and perhaps also by heightning the water in the channel, so as to dissolve some salts concreted there, which it could not reach before. But if the rain have long continued, the estimate may best be made, partly by the greater or lesser depth of the spring beneath the surface of the ground, and partly, and indeed chiefly, by the peculiar nature or strength of the mineral water; for some springs are much more copiously impregnated than others, and therefore will bear a greater dilution by rain-water, of which I shall give you this notable instance; that whereas I found (as I lately noted) that more than one of our English martial springs, especially those near *London*, were too much weakned by the water, that rained into them, I had the curiosity to try, how much of that kind of liquor some German Spa-water, that came to me to *London* very well conditioned, would bear; in pursuit of which design I warily made some trials, which shewed, (what probably will be thought strange,) that when the mineral water was diluted with no less than thrice its weight of rain-water, it yet retained strength enough to produce with newly powdered galls a purplish colour.

END of the FOURTH VOLUME.