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*Mois*, a people who inhabit the mountains to the west, and who often make incursions into their territories, the Chinese general marched with an army towards the mountains; but as he was not able to get at the enemy, on account of their inaccessible situation, he ordered two prisoners he had taken to be put to death, and their flesh to be devoured by his soldiers.

In the year 1777, being on board an English ship of war in Turon harbour, in order to return from Cochin-china to Europe, a party arrived there who had joined a powerful rebel named *Nbae*. This leader and his party had taken some of the king's confidential friends, and one in particular who had formerly done him a great deal of injury. The latter they put to death; and in order to gratify their revenge, they tore out his liver and ate it. The Cochin-chinese, in general, when violently incensed against any one, are accustomed to express a wish that they may be able to devour his liver or his flesh.

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*IX. Description of an improved Discharging Electrometer.*

*Read before the Royal Society of Copenhagen. By A. W. VON HAUCH, Marshal of the Court, &c. to his Danish Majesty\*.*

NO branch of natural philosophy can boast of having attracted so much attention as the doctrine of electricity; and indeed there are few which seem more worthy of investigation. When we consider the distinguished part which electricity apparently performs in the grand operations of nature; the astonishing, and, on the first view, so inexplicable effects produced by this power of nature so different from those of any other, and its secret and concealed mode of action, which the most acute observers have not hitherto been able to penetrate, it will not seem surprising that both

\* From the *Transactions of the Royal Society of Copenhagen.*

the learned and the unlearned should, with unabated zeal, have employed their attention on this phenomenon, as important to speculative philosophy as it is by its influence in society. Without this incessant attention our knowledge would not have made such rapid progress as it has done in the last forty years; and there might have been little difference between Otto von Guericke's balls of sulphur, or Hauken's glass globes, which were seventy years later, and the electric machine now in the Teylerian Museum at Haerlem. The former were scarcely sufficient to attract the lightest bodies, whereas the latter approaches near to nature in its strength, in its awful and wonderful effects; and seems to favour the possibility of the idea, that there are natural powers capable of impelling heavy bodies with prodigious force; and which, conducted by the hand of man, may, some centuries hence, banish the use of gunpowder, as the latter, a few centuries ago, banished bows and arrows.

Franklin conveyed electricity from the atmosphere, loaded a battery with it, and directed its mighty power with the same ease as that weak power excited by an electric machine. On account of the above-mentioned possibility of exhibiting the electric power in a certain degree and of a certain strength, it was found more and more necessary to have instruments proper for ascertaining these, and by which it might be determined with precision when and how a required effect could be produced.

Though these instruments have undergone many variations and improvements, and though there is an essential difference between Stephen Gray's or Du Fay's threads and the electrometers of Achard and Brooks \*, they are all to be considered rather as announcers of electricity than as accurate gauges or measures, as they are all incapable of shewing its intensity. Another instrument, hitherto equally imper-

\* A description of these Electrometers may be seen in Adams's and Cavallo's Treatises of Electricity, and in other works of the like kind.  
N. L. E. T.

cet, though no less important in electric experiments, is a discharging electrometer; for, as it is believed that the laws of electricity can be defined with mathematical certainty \*, it must be of importance to be able to employ, with the same certainty, the electric power which has been excited; and every instrument tending to promote this object, though still imperfect, must be of some utility, and be not unacceptable to those fond of electrical experiments. All the discharging electrometers hitherto known, perform their effect either by spontaneously discharging, as that of Lane, or as Henley's general discharger, &c. and in this case are affected by the greater or less conducting property of the air, which must necessarily be changed on each change of the atmosphere, and therefore must render the instrument very imperfect and incorrect; or the effect is produced by introducing a conducting body between two electric atmospheres, and by these means uniting them. But as this must depend on the greater or less dexterity of the person who performs the experiment to determine the proper moment for discharging, and as another electrometer is at the same time necessary, this method of discharging is as uncertain as the first.

I have endeavoured, therefore, to construct an instrument to supply this deficiency; and I hope it will not be found unworthy of attention. It is an electrometer which, though founded on the same principles as that of Brooks, that is, on comparing the effect of the repulsive power of electricity between two bodies of a given size with the known weight requisite to produce that effect, has, in my opinion, some improvements which are wanting in the other; for the state of the barometer has no influence upon this electrometer, as it has on that of Brooks; nor does friction, which is far from being unimportant, here take place. But as this in-

\* See Lord Stanhope's *Principles of Electricity*, 3d, 4th, and 5th parts; and Coulomb's description of an instrument by which it is proved that the effect of the electric matter is in the inverse ratio of the square of the distance.

strument is intended to be used as a discharging electrometer, and must be examined as such, no comparison can properly be made between it and any of the other electrometers hitherto employed.

Plate VI contains a representation of the electrometer, and the different parts of which it consists. OP is a board of dry mahogany, twelve inches in length and four in breadth, which serves as a stand for the instrument. In this board are fastened two massy glass pillars, M and N, which support the two brass capes or rings GG, with the two forks of tempered steel KK screwed into them. The two rings GG are well covered with varnish.

In the ring G is fastened a brass rod, which terminates in a ball E of the same metal, and an inch in diameter. The length of the rod and ball together is four inches and a half.

A very delicate beam, AB, the arms of which are of unequal length, moves on a sharp triangular axis (a knife edge) of well tempered steel on the fork K of the pillar M. It is seventeen inches in length, and so constructed that the short arm forms a third and the long one two-thirds of the whole beam. The short arm of brass furnished with the ball B, exactly of the same size as the ball E, is divided into forty-five parts equivalent to grains. The long arm A is of glass covered with copal varnish, and ends in an ivory ball A, into which is fitted an ivory hook R, destined to support the ivory scale H. In order to render the insulation more complete, this scale is suspended by three hairs.

A very delicate beam, CD, eleven inches in length, moves on an axis, like the former, on the pillar N, though not here shewn. This beam is proportioned in the same manner, one arm being a third and the other two-thirds of the whole length. The long arm of brass is furnished at the end with a ball D, and divided into thirty parts corresponding to grains. The short arm of glass terminates in a long roundish plate C, covered with copal varnish. The steel

forks are shewn by the sections of the two brass caps FF, as are also the two knife edges LL. By these caps the escape of the electric matter is partly prevented.

A brass ring Q, capable of being moved along the short arm of the upper beam AB, shews, by means of marks determined by trial and cut out on the beam, the number of grains which must be placed in the small scale to restore the equilibrium of the beam at each distance of the ring Q from the point of suspension.

On the long arm CD of the lower beam there is also a moveable ring S, which, like the ring Q, shews in grains, by its distance from the point of suspension, the power requisite to overcome the preponderance of LD in regard to LC.

The power necessary for this purpose will be found if the shell H, which weighs exactly fourteen grains, be suffered to sink down on the glass plate C, and the ring S be pushed forwards till both the arms of the beam are in equilibrium. The part of the beam on which the ring S has moved is divided into fourteen parts, so that *o* marks the place where the ring S must stand when the beam, in its free state, is in equilibrium; and 14 stands at the place where the ring S again restores a perfect equilibrium when the shell H is laid on the glass plate C. Each of these parts, which are divided into quarters, indicates a grain. The lower divisions of the scale will be found with more accuracy if quarters of a grain be put, in succession, into the shell H (after it has been laid on the plate C), and the ring S be moved between each quarter of a grain until the perfect equilibrium be restored. This place on the beam is then to be marked, and you may continue in this manner until the 30th part of a grain be given. Both scales, for the sake of distinctness, are divided only so low as quarters of a grain; though the instrument is so delicate, and must absolutely be so, that 1-20th of a grain is sufficient to destroy the equilibrium.

The two glass pillars M and N, together with the steel forks

forks affixed to them, are so fitted into the stand that both the beams lie parallel to each other as well as to the rod GE. In this position of the beams AB, the balls B and E are just in contact. The smallest glass pillar N is of such a height that the ball of the beam CD stands at the distance of exactly four lines from the ring G, and cannot move without touching the latter. The small shell H is suspended in such a manner that there is a distance of exactly two lines between it and the shell C. In each of the brass rings GG is a small hole, that the instrument may be connected with the two sides of an electric jar. I is a brass wire, with a hollow bit of ivory *a* destined to support the beam CD, which is necessarily preponderant at D, in order to prevent oscillation between the discharges to be examined by the instrument.

It may be readily comprehended that, when the beam AB has moved, A must pass over twice the space that B does; and that, in the beam CD, the case is the same in regard to C and D. If AB therefore be connected with the external side, and CD with the internal side of a battery, but in such a manner that the instrument is at a sufficient distance beyond the electric atmosphere; and if the battery be charged, the repulsive effect of the electric power will oblige the ball B to separate from the ball E; the shell H must therefore naturally sink down with double velocity, so that when the ball B rises a line, the shell H must sink two: when it reaches this depth it will touch the shell C, and the latter, by the power excited in it, will be obliged to sink, by which D must naturally again ascend in a double proportion to the sinking of C; so that when C has fallen two lines, D must have ascended four, and D that moment touches the ring by which the two sides of the battery are connected with each other, and discharges the battery.

But, as the attractive electric power between unlike atmospheres, under like circumstances, is at least as strong as its repulsive power between like atmospheres, it would thence follow that the electric power, instead of repelling the ball B  
from

from the ball E would rather attract D, and, by its contact with G, promote the discharging; by which the instrument would fail of its object, and be subjected to the temperature of the atmosphere like all other electrometers; and besides this, the electric power could no longer be determined by weight. To obviate this inconvenience, the instrument, in all electrical experiments, must be applied in such a manner that the power with which the ball D is attracted by AB may exceed in strength the power required to repel the ball B from the ball E. For this purpose the ring S must always be removed two divisions farther on CD, towards D, than the ring Q is shifted on AB towards B. If, for example, an electric force were required equal to eight grains, according to this electrometer, the ring Q must be removed to the place where 8 stands, and the ring S to the place marked 10. The repulsive power will then naturally repel the balls B and E before G is in a condition to attract the ball D, as a power of two grains would be necessary for this purpose, besides that of the eight already in action. The shell H, with its weight of fourteen grains, will easily overcome the preponderance of LD over LC, as it amounts only to ten grains, and therefore nothing exists that can impede the discharging.

When the ring S, according to the required power, is removed so far towards D that the shell H is not able by its weight to destroy the preponderance of LD in regard to LC, the active power of the shell H must be so far increased by the addition of weights that it can act, with a preponderance of four grains, on the plate C. If, for example, an electric power of fourteen grains be required, the ring S must be removed to 16, by which LD rests upon *a*, with a preponderance of sixteen grains in regard to LC. Now to make H act on the plate C with a preponderance of four grains, it must be increased to twenty grains, that is, six grains weight more must be added, as it weighs only fourteen; which six grains are again laid upon LB; and therefore the ring Q is shifted to 20, as the



strength of the repulsive power is pointed out by fourteen grains.

If an electric power of twenty-five grains be required, the ring S must be removed to 27, and the weight of seventeen grains be put into the shell H in order to produce a preponderance of four grains in regard to S. These seventeen grains are added to the required power of twenty-five grains, and the ring Q is pushed to 42, &c. In this manner the repulsive power always acts before the attractive power can.

It may be readily perceived that the faults and inconveniences common to all the electrometers hitherto employed, and which have been already mentioned, cannot take place here; because the discharging is performed by immediate connection between the positive and negative electricity in the instrument itself, without any external means being employed.

One of the most essential advantages of this instrument is, the certainty with which the same result may be expected when the experiment is repeated. For the same degree of electric power, whatever be the temperature of the atmosphere, will always be necessary to commence the separation of the two balls B and E from each other, the quantity of coated glass and the distance of the ring Q from the axis L being the same.

Another no less important advantage of this instrument is, that in an experiment where the same electric power, often repeated, is necessary to ascertain the result with accuracy; such, for example, as the charging a battery through acids, water, &c.; the same degree of precaution is not necessary as is indispensibly so in any other electrometer, as the person who puts the machine in motion has nothing to do but to count how often the electrometer discharges itself; and the instrument may be inclosed in a glass case, or prevented in any other manner from external contact, or any other circumstances which might render the experiment uncertain.

I flatter myself that the simplicity of the construction of this instrument, the facility with which it may be made at a very small expence, and the certainty that two instruments, prepared according to the same scale, with a like quantity of coated glass, must exactly correspond with each other; but, above all, that the certainty and accuracy by which experiments may be made with it, and by these means be accurately described, are advantages which will not be found united in any of the electrometers hitherto invented.

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X. *Observations on the Tones produced by an Organ-pipe in different Kinds of Gas.* By C. F. F. CHLADNI\*.

AIR, it is well known, is the most common conductor of sound; but it can become a sonorous body also. The latter is the case in regard to a pipe, as the pipe itself does not emit sound, but the column of air included in it, and which, being separated from the rest of the atmosphere, is obliged, by blowing, to vibrate in such a manner that it contracts and expands longitudinally in various ways; and these vibrations are then conducted to a distance by the surrounding air. It is not necessary that I should here farther explain the different kinds of vibration of which the air in a pipe is susceptible. Those who are desirous of information on this subject may consult Daniel Bernoulli's papers in the Memoirs of the Academy of Paris for 1762; those of Lambert, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Berlin for 1775; and of Euler, in the Sixteenth Volume of the New Transactions of the Imperial Academy of Peterburgh.

The conducting of sound through the air, and the vibrations of air in a pipe, depend on the same laws. This will readily appear from the following observation, besides others, that the velocity of the vibrations, under like circumstances,

\* From *Voigt's Magazin für den neuesten Zustand der Naturkunde*, Vol. I. part 3.