CONTRIBUTIONS

TO

ELECTRICITY AND MAGNETISM,

BY

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Contributions to Electricity and Magnetism. By Joseph Henry, Professor of Natural Philosophy in the College of New Jersey, Princeton.


INTRODUCTION.

1. Since my investigations in reference to the influence of a spiral conductor, in increasing the intensity of a galvanic current, were submitted to the Society, the valuable paper of Dr Faraday, on the same subject, has been published, and also various modifications of the principle have been made by Sturgeon, Masson, Page and others, to increase the effects. The spiral conductor has likewise been applied by Cav. Antinori to produce a spark by the action of a thermo-electrical pile; and Mr Watkins has succeeded in exhibiting all the phenomena of hydro-electricity by the same means. Although the principle has been much extended by the researches of Dr Faraday, yet I am happy to state that the results obtained by this distinguished philosopher are not at variance with those given in my paper.

2. I now offer to the Society a new series of investigations in the same line, which I hope may also be considered of sufficient importance to merit a place in the Transactions.

3. The primary object of these investigations was to discover, if
possible, inductive actions in common electricity analogous to those found in galvanism. For this purpose a series of experiments was commenced in the spring of 1836, but I was at that time diverted, in part, from the immediate object of my research, by a new investigation of the phenomenon known in common electricity by the name of the lateral discharge. Circumstances prevented my doing any thing further, in the way of experiment, until April last, when most of the results which I now offer to the Society were obtained. The investigations are not as complete, in several points, as I could wish, but as my duties will not permit me to resume the subject for some months to come, I therefore present them as they are; knowing, from the interest excited by this branch of science in every part of the world, that the errors which may exist will soon be detected, and the truths be further developed.

4. The experiments are given nearly in the order in which they were made; and in general they are accompanied by the reflections which led to the several steps of the investigation. The whole series is divided, for convenience of arrangement, into six sections, although the subject may be considered as consisting, principally, of two parts. The first relating to a new examination of the induction of galvanic currents; and the second to the discovery of analogous results in the discharge of ordinary electricity.*

5. The principal articles of apparatus used in the experiments, consist of a number of flat coils of copper riband, which will be desig-

* The several paragraphs are numbered in succession, from the first to the last, after the mode adopted by Mr Faraday, for convenience of reference.
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6. Coil No. 1 is formed of thirteen pounds of copper plate, one inch and a half wide and ninety-three feet long. It is well covered with two coatings of silk, and was generally used in the form represented in Fig. 1, which is that of a flat spiral sixteen inches in diameter. It was however sometimes formed into a ring of larger diameter, as is shown in Fig. 4, Section III.

7. Coil No. 2 is also formed of copper plate, of the same width and thickness as coil No. 1. It is, however, only sixty feet long. Its form is shown at b, Fig. 1. The opening at the centre is sufficient to admit helix No. 1. Coils No. 3, 4, 5, 6, &c. are all about sixty feet long, and of copper plate of the same thickness, but of half the width of coil No. 1.

8. Helix No. 1 consists of sixteen hundred and sixty yards of copper wire, $\frac{7}{16}$th of an inch in diameter. No. 2, of nine hundred and ninety yards; and No. 3, of three hundred and fifty yards, of the same wire. These helices are shown in Fig. 2, and are so adjusted in size as to fit into each other; thus forming one long helix of three thousand yards: or, by using them separately, and in different combinations, seven helices of different lengths. The wire is covered with cotton thread, saturated with beeswax, and between each stratum of spires a coating of silk is interposed.

9. Helix No. 4 is shown at a, Fig. 4, Section III.; it is formed of five hundred and forty-six yards of wire, $\frac{1}{16}$th of an inch in diameter, the several spires of which are insulated by a coating of cement. Helix No. 5 consists of fifteen hundred yards of silvered copper wire, $\frac{7}{16}$th of an inch in diameter, covered with cotton, and is of the form of No. 4.

10. Besides these I was favoured with the loan of a large spool of copper wire, covered with cotton, $\frac{11}{16}$th of an inch in diameter, and five miles long. It is wound on a small axis of iron, and forms a solid cylinder of wire, eighteen inches long, and thirteen in diameter.

11. For determining the direction of induced currents, a magnetiz-
ing spiral was generally used, which consists of about thirty spires of copper wire, in the form of a cylinder, and so small as just to admit a sewing needle into the axis.

12. Also a small horseshoe is frequently referred to, which is formed of a piece of soft iron, about three inches long, and \( \frac{3}{4} \)ths of an inch thick; each leg is surrounded with about five feet of copper bell wire. This length is so small, that only a current of electricity of considerable quantity can develope the magnetism of the iron. The instrument is used for indicating the existence of such a current.

13. The battery used in most of the experiments is shown in Fig. 1. It is formed of three concentric cylinders of copper, and two interposed cylinders of zinc. It is about eight inches high, five inches in diameter, and exposes about one square foot and three quarters of zinc surface, estimating both sides of the metal. In some of the experiments a larger battery was used, weakly charged, but all the results mentioned in the paper, except those with a Cruickshank trough, can be obtained with one or two batteries of the above size, particularly if excited by a strong solution. The manner of interrupting the circuit of the conductor by means of a rasp, \( b \), is shown in the same Figure.

SECTION I.

Conditions which influence the induction of a current on itself.

14. The phenomenon of the spiral conductor is at present known by the name of the induction of a current on itself, to distinguish it from the induction of the secondary current, discovered by Dr Faraday. The two, however, belong to the same class, and experiments render it probable that the spark given by the long conductor is, from the natural electricity of the metal, disturbed for an instant by the induction of the primary current. Before proceeding to the other parts of these investigations, it is important to state the results of a number of preliminary experiments, made to determine more definitely the conditions which influence the action of the spiral conductor.

15. When the electricity is of low intensity, as in the case of the thermo-electrical pile, or a large single battery weakly excited with dilute acid, the flat riband coil No. 1, ninety-three feet long, is found to
give the most brilliant deflagrations, and the loudest snaps from a surface of mercury. The shocks, with this arrangement, are, however, very feeble, and can only be felt in the fingers or through the tongue.

16. The induced current in a short coil, which thus produces deflagration, but not shocks, may, for distinction, be called one of quantity.

17. When the length of the coil is increased, the battery continuing the same, the deflagrating power decreases, while the intensity of the shock continually increases. With five riband coils, making an aggregate length of three hundred feet, and the small battery, Fig. 1, the deflagration is less than with coil No. 1, but the shocks are more intense.

18. There is, however, a limit to this increase of intensity of the shock, and this takes place when the increased resistance or diminished conduction of the lengthened coil begins to counteract the influence of the increasing length of the current. The following experiment illustrates this fact. A coil of copper wire \( \frac{1}{16} \)th of an inch in diameter, was increased in length by successive additions of about thirty-two feet at a time. After the first two lengths, or sixty-four feet, the brilliancy of the spark began to decline, but the shocks constantly increased in intensity, until a length of five hundred and seventy-five feet was obtained, when the shocks also began to decline. This was then the proper length to produce the maximum effect with a single battery, and a wire of the above diameter.

19. When the intensity of the electricity of the battery is increased, the action of the short riband coil decreases. With a Cruickshank's trough of sixty plates, four inches square, scarcely any peculiar effect can be observed, when the coil forms a part of the circuit. If however the length of the coil be increased in proportion to the intensity of the current, then the inductive influence becomes apparent. When the current, from ten plates of the above mentioned trough, was passed through the wire of the large spool (10), the induced shock was too severe to be taken through the body. Again, when a small trough of twenty-five one-inch plates, which alone would give but a very feeble shock, was used with helix No. 1, an intense shock was received from the induction, when the contact was broken. Also a slight shock in this arrangement is given when the contact is formed, but it is very feeble
in comparison with the other. The spark, however, with the long wire and compound battery is not as brilliant as with the single battery and the short riband coil.

20. When the shock is produced from a long wire, as in the last experiments, the size of the plates of the battery may be very much reduced, without a corresponding reduction of the intensity of the shock. This is shown in an experiment with the large spool of wire (10). A very small compound battery was formed of six pieces of copper bell wire, about one inch and a half long, and an equal number of pieces of zinc of the same size. When the current from this was passed through the five miles of the wire of the spool, the induced shock was given at once to twenty-six persons joining hands. This astonishing effect placed the action of a coil in a striking point of view.

21. With the same spool and the single battery used in the former experiments, no shock, or at most a very feeble one, could be obtained. A current, however, was found to pass through the whole length, by its action on the galvanometer; but it was not sufficiently powerful to induce a current which could counteract the resistance of so long a wire.

22. The induced current in these experiments may be considered as one of considerable intensity, and small quantity.

23. The form of the coil has considerable influence on the intensity of the action. In the experiments of Dr Faraday, a long cylindrical coil of thick copper wire, inclosing a rod of soft iron, was used. This form produces the greatest effect when magnetic reaction is employed; but in the case of simple galvanic induction, I have found the form of the coils and helices represented in the figures most effectual. The several spires are more nearly approximated, and therefore they exert a greater mutual influence. In some cases, as will be seen hereafter, the ring form, shown in Fig. 4, is most effectual.

24. In all cases the several spires of the coil should be well insulated, for although in magnetizing soft iron, and in analogous experiments, the touching of two spires is not attended with any great reduction of action; yet in the case of the induced current, as will be shown in the progress of these investigations, a single contact of two spires is sometimes sufficient to neutralize the whole effect.
25. It must be recollected that all the experiments with these coils and helices, unless otherwise mentioned, are made without the reaction of iron temporarily magnetized; since the introduction of this would, in some cases, interfere with the action, and render the results more complex.

SECTION II.

Conditions which influence the production of Secondary Currents.

26. The secondary currents, as it is well known, were discovered in the induction of magnetism and electricity, by Dr Faraday, in 1831. But he was at that time urged to the exploration of new, and apparently richer veins of science, and left this branch to be traced by others. Since then, however, attention has been almost exclusively directed to one part of the subject, namely, the induction from magnetism, and the perfection of the magneto-electrical machine. And I know of no attempts, except my own, to review and extend the purely electrical part of Dr Faraday's admirable discovery.

27. The energetic action of the flat coil, in producing the induction of a current on itself, led me to conclude that it would also be the most proper means for the exhibition and study of the phenomena of the secondary galvanic currents.

28. For this purpose coil No. 1 was arranged to receive the current from the small battery, and coil No. 2 placed on this, with a plate of glass interposed to insure perfect insulation; as often as the circuit of Fig. 3.

29. When the ends of the second coil were rubbed together, a spark was produced at the opening. When the same ends were joined by
the magnetizing spiral (11), the inclosed needle became strongly magnetic. Also when the secondary current was passed through the wires of the iron horseshoe (12), magnetism was developed; and when the ends of the second coil were attached to a small decomposing apparatus, of the kind which accompanies the magneto-electrical machine, a stream of gas was given off at each pole. The shock, however, from this coil is very feeble, and can scarcely be felt above the fingers.

30. This current has therefore the properties of one of moderate intensity, but considerable quantity.

31. Coil No. 1 remaining as before, a longer coil, formed by uniting Nos. 3, 4 and 5, was substituted for No. 2. With this arrangement, the spark produced when the ends were rubbed together, was not as brilliant as before; the magnetizing power was much less; decomposition was nearly the same, but the shocks were more powerful, or, in other words, the intensity of the induced current was increased by an increase of the length of the coil, while the quantity was apparently decreased.

32. A compound helix, formed by uniting Nos. 1 and 2, and therefore containing two thousand six hundred and fifty yards of wire, was next placed on coil No. 1. The weight of this helix happened to be precisely the same as that of coil No. 2, and hence the different effects of the same quantity of metal in the two forms of a long and short conductor, could be compared. With this arrangement the magnetizing effects, with the apparatus before mentioned, disappeared. The sparks were much smaller, and also the decomposition less, than with the short coil; but the shock was almost too intense to be received with impunity, except through the fingers of one hand. A circuit of fifty-six of the students of the senior class, received it at once from a single rupture of the battery current, as if from the discharge of a Leyden jar weakly charged. The secondary current in this case was one of small quantity, but of great intensity.

33. The following experiment is important in establishing the fact of a limit to the increase of the intensity of the shock, as well as the power of decomposition, with a wire of a given diameter. Helix No. 5, which consists of wire only \( \frac{1}{12} \) th of an inch in diameter, was placed
on coil No. 2, and its length increased to about seven hundred yards. With this extent of wire, neither decomposition nor magnetism could be obtained, but shocks were given of a peculiarly pungent nature; they did not however produce much muscular action. The wire of the helix was further increased to about fifteen hundred yards; the shock was now found to be scarcely perceptible, in the fingers.

34. As a counterpart to the last experiment, coil No. 1 was formed into a ring of sufficient internal diameter to admit the great spool of wire (11), and with the whole length of this (which, as has before been stated, is five miles) the shock was found so intense as to be felt at the shoulder, when passed only through the forefinger and thumb. Sparks and decomposition were also produced, and needles rendered magnetic. The wire of this spool is \( \frac{1}{4} \) th of an inch thick, and we therefore see from this experiment, that by increasing the diameter of the wire, its length may also be much increased, with an increased effect.

35. The fact (33) that the induced current is diminished by a further increase of the wire, after a certain length has been attained, is important in the construction of the magneto-electrical machine, since the same effect is produced in the induction of magnetism. Dr Goddard of Philadelphia, to whom I am indebted for coil No. 5, found that when its whole length was wound on the iron of a temporary magnet, no shocks could be obtained. The wire of the machine may therefore be of such a length, relative to its diameter, as to produce shocks, but no decomposition; and if the length be still further increased, the power of giving shocks may also become neutralized.

36. The inductive action of coil No. 1, in the foregoing experiments, is precisely the same as that of a temporary magnet in the case of the magneto-electrical machine. A short thick wire around the armature gives brilliant deflagrations, but a long one produces shocks. This fact, I believe, was first discovered by my friend Mr Saxton, and afterwards investigated by Sturgeon and Lentz.

37. We might, at first sight, conclude, from the perfect similarity of these effects, that the currents which, according to the theory of Ampere, exist in the magnet, are like those in the short coil, of great
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quantity and feeble intensity; but succeeding experiments will show that this is not necessarily the case.

38. All the experiments given in this section have thus far been made with a battery of a single element. This condition was now changed, and a Cruickshank trough of sixty pairs substituted. When the current from this was passed through the riband coil No. 1, no indication, or a very feeble one, was given of a secondary current in any of the coils or helices, arranged as in the preceding experiments. The length of the coil, in this case, was not commensurate with the intensity of the current from the battery. But when the long helix, No. 1, was placed instead of coil No. 1, a powerful inductive action was produced on each of the articles, as before.

39. First, helices No. 2 and 3 were united into one, and placed within helix No. 1, which still conducted the battery current. With this disposition a secondary current was produced, which gave intense shocks but feeble decomposition, and no magnetism in the soft iron horseshoe. It was, therefore one of intensity, and was induced by a battery current also of intensity.

40. Instead of the helix used in the last experiment for receiving the induction, one of the coils (No. 3) was now placed on helix No. 1, the battery remaining as before. With this arrangement the induced current gave no shocks, but it magnetized the small horseshoe; and when the ends of the coil were rubbed together, produced bright sparks. It had therefore the properties of a current of quantity; and it was produced by the induction of a current, from the battery, of intensity.

41. This experiment was considered of so much importance, that it was varied and repeated many times, but always with the same result; it therefore establishes the fact that an intensity current can induce one of quantity, and, by the preceding experiments, the converse has also been shown, that a quantity current can induce one of intensity.

42. This fact appears to have an important bearing on the law of the inductive action, and would seem to favour the supposition that the lower coil, in the two experiments with the long and short secon-
dary conductors, exerted the same amount of inductive force, and that in one case this was expended (to use the language of theory) in giving a great velocity to a small quantity of the fluid, and in the other in producing a slower motion in a larger current; but in the two cases, were it not for the increased resistance to conduction in the longer wire, the quantity multiplied by the velocity would be the same. This, however, is as yet a hypothesis, but it enables us to conceive how intensity and quantity may both be produced from the same induction.

43. From some of the foregoing experiments we may conclude, that the quantity of electricity in motion in the helix is really less than in the coil, of the same weight of metal; but this may possibly be owing simply to the greater resistance offered by the longer wire. It would also appear, if the above reasoning be correct, that to produce the most energetic physiological effects, only a small quantity of electricity, moving with great velocity, is necessary.

44. In this and the preceding section, I have attempted to give only the general conditions which influence the galvanic induction. To establish the law would require a great number of more refined experiments, and the consideration of several circumstances which would affect the results, such as the conduction of the wires, the constant state of the battery, the method of breaking the circuit with perfect regularity, and also more perfect means than we now possess of measuring the amount of the inductive action; all these circumstances render the problem very complex.

SECTION III.

On the Induction of Secondary Currents at a distance.

45. In the experiments given in the two preceding Sections, the conductor which received the induction, was separated from that which transmitted the primary current by the thickness only of a pane of glass; but the action from this arrangement was so energetic, that I was naturally led to try the effect at a greater distance.

46. For this purpose coil No. 1 was formed into a ring of about two
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Fig. 4.

47. With a little reflection, it will be evident that this arrangement is not the most favourable for exhibiting the induction at a distance, since the side of the ring, for example, at $c$, tends to produce a current revolving in one direction in the near side of the helix, and another in an opposite direction in the farther side. The resulting effect is therefore only the difference of the two, and in the position as shown in the figure; this difference must be very small, since the opposite sides of the helix are approximately at the same distance from $c$. But the difference of action on the two sides constantly increases as the helix is brought near the side of the ring, and becomes a maximum when the two are in the position of internal contact. A helix of larger diameter would therefore produce a greater effect.

48. Coil No. 1 remaining as before, helix No. 1, which is nine inches in diameter, was substituted for the small helix of the last experiment, and with this the effect at a distance was much increased. When coil No. 2 was added to coil No. 1, and the currents from two small batteries sent through these, shocks were distinctly perceptible through the tongue, when the distance of the planes of the coils and the three helices, united as one, was increased to thirty-six inches.
49. The action at a distance was still further increased by coiling the long wire of the large spool into the form of a ring of four feet in diameter, and placing parallel to this another ring, formed of the four ribands of coils No. 1, 2, 3 and 4. When a current from a single battery of thirty-five feet of zinc surface was passed through the riband conductor, shocks through the tongue were felt when the rings were separated to the distance of four feet. As the conductors were approximated, the shocks became more and more severe; and when at the distance of twelve inches, they could not be taken through the body.

50. It may be stated in this connection, that the galvanic induction of magnetism in soft iron, in reference to distance, is also surprisingly great. A cylinder of soft iron, two inches in diameter and one foot long, placed in the centre of the ring of copper riband, with the battery above mentioned, becomes strongly magnetic.

51. I may perhaps be excused for mentioning in this communication that the induction at a distance affords the means of exhibiting some of the most astonishing experiments, in the line of physique amusante, to be found perhaps in the whole course of science. I will mention one which is somewhat connected with the experiments to be described in the next section, and which exhibits the action in a striking manner. This consists in causing the induction to take place through the partition wall of two rooms. For this purpose coil No. 1 is suspended against the wall in one room, while a person in the adjoining one receives the shock, by grasping the handles of the helix, and approaching it to the spot opposite to which the coil is suspended. The effect is as if by magic, without a visible cause. It is best produced through a door, or thin wooden partition.

52. The action at a distance affords a simple method of graduating the intensity of the shock in the case of its application to medical purposes. The helix may be suspended by a string passing over a pulley, and then gradually lowered down towards the plane of the coil, until the shocks are of the required intensity. At the request of a medical friend, I have lately administered the induced current precisely in this way, in a case of paralysis of a part of the nerves of the face.

53. I may also mention that the energetic action of the spiral con-
ductors enables us to imitate, in a very striking manner, the inductive operation of the magneto-electrical machine, by means of an uninterrupted galvanic current. For this purpose it is only necessary to arrange two coils to represent the two poles of a horseshoe magnet, and to cause two helices to revolve past them in a parallel plane. While a constant current is passing through each coil, in opposite directions, the effect of the rotation of the helices is precisely the same as that of the revolving armature in the machine.

54. A remarkable fact should here be noted in reference to helix No. 4, which is connected with a subsequent part of the investigation. This helix is formed of copper wire, the spires of which are insulated by a coating of cement instead of thread, as in the case of the others. After being used in the above experiments, a small discharge from a Leyden jar was passed through it, and on applying it again to the coil, I was much surprised to find that scarcely any signs of a secondary current could be obtained.

55. The discharge had destroyed the insulation in some part, but this was not sufficient to prevent the magnetizing of a bar of iron introduced into the opening at the centre. The effect appeared to be confined to the inductive action. The same accident had before happened to another coil of nearly the same kind. It was therefore noted as one of some importance. An explanation was afterwards found in a peculiar action of the secondary current.

SECTION IV.

On the Effects produced by interposing different Substances between the Conductors.

56. Sir H. Davy found, in magnetizing needles by an electrical discharge, that the effect took place through interposed plates of all substances, conductors and nonconductors.* The experiment which I have given in paragraph 51 would appear to indicate that the inductive action which produces the secondary current might also follow the same law.

* Philosophical Transactions, 1821.
To test this the compound helix was placed about five inches above coil No. 1, Fig. 5, and a plate of sheet iron, about $\frac{1}{8}$th of an inch thick, interposed. With this arrangement no shocks could be obtained; although, when the plate was withdrawn, they were very intense.

It was at first thought that this effect might be peculiar to the iron, on account of its temporary magnetism; but this idea was shown to be erroneous by substituting a plate of zinc of about the same size and thickness. With this the screening influence was exhibited as before.

After this a variety of substances was interposed in succession, namely, copper, lead, mercury, acid, water, wood, glass, &c.; and it was found that all the perfect conductors, such as the metals, produced the screening influence; but nonconductors, as glass, wood, &c., appeared to have no effect whatever.

When the helix was separated from the coil by a distance only equal to the thickness of the plate, a slight sensation could be perceived even when the zinc of $\frac{1}{10}$th of an inch in thickness was interposed. This effect was increased by increasing the quantity of the battery current. If the thickness of the plate was diminished, the induction through it became more intense. Thus a sheet of tinfoil interposed produced no perceptible influence; also four sheets of the same were attended with the same result. A certain thickness of metal is therefore required to produce the screening effect, and this thickness depends on the quantity of the current from the battery.

The idea occurred to me that the screening might, in some way, be connected with an instantaneous current in the plate, similar to that in the induction by magnetic rotation, discovered by M. Arago. The ingenious variation of this principle by Messrs Babbage and Herschell, furnished me with a simple method of determining this point.

A circular plate of lead was interposed, which caused the induction in the helix almost entirely to disappear. A slip of the metal
was then cut out in the direction of a radius of the circle, as is shown in Fig. 6. With the plate in this condition, no screening was produced; the shocks were as intense as if the metal were not present.

63. This experiment however is not entirely satisfactory, since the action might have taken place through the opening of the lead; to obviate this objection, another plate was cut in the same manner, and the two interposed with a glass plate between them, and so arranged that the opening in the one might be covered by the continuous part of the other. Still shocks were obtained with undiminished intensity.

64. But the existence of a current in the interposed conductor was rendered certain by attaching the magnetizing spiral by means of two wires to the edge of the opening in the circular plate, as is shown in Fig. 7. By this arrangement the latent current was drawn out, and its direction obtained by the polarity of a needle placed in the spiral at b.

65. This current was a secondary one, and its direction, in conformity with the discovery of Dr Faraday, was found to be the same as that of the primary current.

66. That the screening influence is in some way produced by the neutralizing action of the current thus obtained, will be clear, from the following experiment. The plate of zinc before mentioned, which is nearly twice the diameter of the helix, instead of being placed between the conductors, was put on the top of the helix, and in this position, although the neutralization was not as perfect as before, yet a great reduction was observed in the intensity of the shock.

67. But here a very interesting and puzzling question occurs. How does it happen that two currents, both in the same direction, can neutralize each other? I was at first disposed to consider the phenomenon as a case of real electrical interference, in which the impulses succeed each other by some regular interval. But if this were true the effect should depend on the length and other conditions of the current in the interposed conductor. In order to investigate this, several modifications of the experiments were instituted.
68. First a flat coil (No. 3) was interposed instead of the plates. When the two ends of this were separated, the shocks were received as if the coil were not present; but when the ends were joined, so as to form a perfect metallic circuit, no shocks could be obtained. The neutralization with the coil in this experiment was even more perfect than with the plate.

69. Again, coil No. 2, in the form of a ring, was placed not between the conductors, but around the helix. With this disposition of the apparatus, and the ends of the coil joined, the shocks were scarcely perceptible, but when the ends were separated, the presence of the coil has no effect.

70. Also when helix No. 1 and 2 were together submitted to the influence of coil No. 1, the ends of the one being joined, the other gave no shock.

71. The experiments were further varied by placing helix No. 2 within a hollow cylinder of sheet brass, and this again within coil No. 2 in a manner similar to that shown in Fig. 12, which is intended to illustrate another experiment. In this arrangement the neutralizing action was exhibited, as in the case of the plate.

72. A hollow cylinder of iron was next substituted for the one of brass, and with this also no shocks could be obtained.

73. From these experiments it is evident that the neutralization takes place with currents in the interposed or adjoining conductors of all lengths and intensities, and therefore cannot, as it appears to me, be referred to the interference of two systems of vibrations.

74. This part of the investigation was, for a time, given up almost in despair, and it was not until new light had been obtained from another part of the inquiry, that any further advances could be made towards a solution of the mystery.

75. Before proceeding to the next Section, I may here state that the phenomenon mentioned, paragraph 54, in reference to helix No. 4, is connected with the neutralizing action. The electrical discharge having destroyed the insulation at some point, a part of the spires would thus form a shut circuit, and the induction in this would counteract the action in the other part of the helix; or, in other words, the helix
was in the same condition as the two helices mentioned in paragraph 70, when the ends of the wire of one were joined.

76. Also the same principle appears to have an important bearing on the improvement of the magneto-electrical machine: since the plates of metal which sometimes forms the ends of the spool containing the wire, must necessarily diminish the action, and also from experiment of paragraph 72 the armature itself may circulate a closed current which will interfere with the intensity of the induction in the surrounding wire. I am inclined to believe that the increased effect observed by Sturgeon and Calland, when a bundle of wire is substituted for a solid piece of iron, is at least in part due to the interruption of these currents. I hope to resume this part of the subject, in connection with several other points, in another communication to the Society.

77. The results given in this Section may, at first sight, be thought at variance with the statements of Sir H. Davy, that needles could be magnetized by an electrical discharge with conductors interposed. But from his method of performing the experiment, it is evident that the plate of metal was placed between a straight conductor and the needle. The arrangement was therefore similar to the interrupted circuit in the experiment with the cut plate (62), which produces no screening effect. Had the plate been curved into the form of a hollow cylinder, with the two ends in contact, and the needle placed within this, the effect would have been otherwise.

SECTION V.

On the Production and Properties of induced Currents of the Third, Fourth and Fifth order.

78. The fact of the perfect neutralization of the primary current by a secondary, in the interposed conductor, led me to conclude that if the latter could be drawn out, or separated from the influence of the former, it would itself be capable of producing a new induced current in a third conductor.
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79. The arrangement exhibited in Fig. 8 furnishes a ready means of testing this. The primary current, as usual, is passed through coil No. 1, while coil No. 2 is placed over this to receive the induction, with its ends joined to those of coil No. 3. By this disposition the secondary current passes through No. 3; and since this is at a distance, and without the influence of the primary, its separate induction will be rendered manifest by the effects on helix No. 1. When the handles $a$, $b$ are grasped a powerful shock is received, proving the induction of a tertiary current.

80. By a similar but more extended arrangement, as shown in Fig. 9, shocks were received from currents of a fourth and fifth order; and with a more powerful primary current, and additional coils, a still greater number of successive inductions might be obtained.

81. The induction of currents of different orders, of sufficient intensity to give shocks, could scarcely have been anticipated from our previous knowledge of the subject. The secondary current consists, as it were, of a single wave of the natural electricity of the wire, disturbed but for an instant by the induction of the primary; yet this has the power of inducing another current, but little inferior in energy to itself, and thus produces effects apparently much greater in proportion to the quantity of electricity in motion than the primary current.

82. Some difference may be conceived to exist in the action of the induced currents, and that from the battery, since they are apparently different in nature; the one consisting, as we may suppose, of a single impulse, and the other of a succession of such impulses, or a continuous action. It was therefore important to investigate the properties of these currents, and to compare the results with those before obtained.

83. First, in reference to the intensity, it was found that with the
small battery a shock could be given from the current of the third order to twenty-five persons joining hands; also shocks perceptible in the arms were obtained from a current of the fifth order.

84. The action at a distance was also much greater than could have been anticipated. In one experiment shocks from the tertiary current were distinctly felt through the tongue, when helix No. 1 was at the distance of eighteen inches above the coil transmitting the secondary current.

85. The same screening effects were produced by the interposition of plates of metal between the conductors of the different orders, as those which have been described in reference to the primary and secondary currents.

86. Also when the long helix is placed over a secondary current generated in a short coil, and which is therefore, as we have before shown, one of quantity, a tertiary current of intensity is produced.

87. Again, when the intensity current of the last experiment is passed through a second helix, and another coil is placed over this, a quantity current is again produced. Therefore in the case of these currents, as in that of the primary, a quantity current can be induced from one of intensity, and the converse. By the arrangement of the apparatus as shown in Fig. 9, these different results are exhibited at once. The induction from coil No. 3 to helix No. 1 produces an intensity current, and from helix No. 2 to coil No. 4 a quantity current.

Fig. 9.

88. If the ends of coil No. 2, as in the arrangement of Fig. 8, be united to helix No. 1 instead of coil No. 3, no shocks can be obtained; the quantity current of coil No. 2 appears not to be of sufficient intensity to pass through the wire of the long helix.

89. Also, no shocks can be obtained from the handles attached to
helix No. 2, in the arrangement exhibited in Fig. 10. In this case the quantity of electricity in the current from the helix appears to be too small to produce any effect, unless its power is multiplied by passing it through a conductor of many spires.

90. The next inquiry was in reference to the direction of these currents, and this appeared important in connection with the nature of the action. The experiments of Dr Faraday would render it probable, that at the beginning and ending of the secondary current, its induction on an adjacent wire is in contrary directions, as is shown to be the case in the primary current. But the whole action of a secondary current is so instantaneous, that the inductive effects at the beginning and ending cannot be distinguished from each other, and we can only observe a single impulse, which, however, may be considered as the difference of two impulses in opposite directions.

91. The first experiment happened to be made with a current of the fourth order. The magnetizing spiral (11) was attached to the ends of coil No. 4, Fig. 9, and by the polarity of the needle it was found that this current was in the same direction with the secondary and primary currents. By a too hasty generalization, I was led to conclude, from this experiment, that the currents of all orders are in the same direction as that of the battery current, and I was the more confirmed in this from the results of my first experiments on the currents of ordinary electricity. The conclusion, however, caused me much useless labour and perplexity, and was afterwards proved to be erroneous.

92. By a careful repetition of the last experiment, in reference to

* It should be recollected that all the inductions which have been mentioned were produced at the moment of breaking the circuit of the battery current. The induction at the formation of the current is too feeble to produce the effects described.
each current, the important fact was discovered, that there exists an alternation in the direction of the currents of the several orders, commencing with the secondary. This result was so extraordinary, that it was thought necessary to establish it by a variety of experiments. For this purpose the direction was determined by decomposition, and also by the galvanometer, but the result was still the same; and at this stage of the inquiry I was compelled to the conclusion that the directions of the several currents were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current Order</th>
<th>Direction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary current</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary current</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current of the third order</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current of the fourth order</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current of the fifth order</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

93. In the first glance at the above table, we are struck with the fact that the law of alternation is complete, except between the primary and secondary currents, and it appeared that this exception might possibly be connected with the induced current which takes place in the first coil itself, and which gives rise to the phenomena of the spiral conductor. If this should be found to be minus, we might consider it as existing between the primary and secondary, and the anomaly would thus disappear. Arrangements were therefore made to fully satisfy myself on this point. For this purpose the decomposition of dilute acid and the use of the galvanometer were resorted to, by placing the apparatus between the ends of a cross wire attached to the extremities of the coil, as in the arrangement described by Dr Faraday (ninth series); but all the results persisted in giving a direction to this current the same as stated by Dr Faraday, namely, that of the primary current. I was therefore obliged to abandon the supposition that the anomaly in the change of the current is connected with the induction of the battery current on itself.

94. Whatever may be the nature or causes of these changes in the direction, they offer a ready explanation of the neutralizing action of the plate interposed between two conductors, since a secondary current is induced in the plate; and although the action of this, as has been shown, is in the same direction as the current from the battery, yet it
tends to induce a current in the adjacent conducting matter of a contrary direction. The same explanation is also applicable to all the other cases of neutralization, even to those which take place between the conductors of the several orders of currents.

95. The same principle explains some effects noted in reference to the induction of a current on itself. If a flat coil be connected with the battery, of course sparks will be produced by the induction, at each rupture of the circuit. But if in this condition another flat coil, with its ends joined, be placed on the first coil, the intensity of the shock is much diminished, and when the several spires of the two coils are mutually interposed by winding the two ribands together into one coil, the sparks entirely disappear in the coil transmitting the battery current, when the ends of the other are joined. To understand this, it is only necessary to mention that the induced current in the first coil is a true secondary current, and it is therefore neutralized by the action of the secondary in the adjoining conductor; since this tends to produce a current in the opposite direction.

96. It would also appear from the perfect neutralization which ensues in the arrangement of the last paragraph, that the induced current in the adjoining conductor is more powerful than that of the first conductor; and we can easily see how this may be. The two ends of the second coil are joined, and it thus forms a perfect metallic circuit; while the circuit of the other coil may be considered as partially interrupted, since to render the spark visible the electricity must be projected, as it were, through a small distance of air.

97. We would also infer that two contiguous secondary currents, produced by the same induction, would partially counteract each other. Moving in the same direction, they would each tend to induce a current in the other of an opposite direction. This is illustrated by the following experiment: helix No. 1 and 2 were placed together, but not united, above coil No. 1, so that they each might receive the induction; the larger was then gradually removed to a greater distance from the coil, until the intensity of the shock from each was about the same. When the ends of the two were united, so that the shock would pass through the body from the two together, the effect was apparently less than with one helix alone. The result, however, was
not as satisfactory as in the case of the other experiments; a slight difference in the intensity of two shocks could not be appreciated with perfect certainty.

SECTION VI.

The production of induced Currents of the different Orders from ordinary Electricity.

98. Dr Faraday, in the ninth series of his researches, remarks, that "the effect produced at the commencement and the end of a current (which are separated by an interval of time when that current is supplied from a voltaic apparatus) must occur at the same moment when a common electrical discharge is passed through a long wire. Whether if it happen accurately at the same moment they would entirely neutralize each other, or whether they would not still give some definite peculiarity to the discharge, is a matter remaining to be examined."

99. The discovery of the fact that the secondary current, which exists but for a moment, could induce another current of considerable energy, gave some indication that similar effects might be produced by a discharge of ordinary electricity, provided a sufficiently perfect insulation could be obtained.

100. To test this a hollow glass cylinder, Fig. 11, of about six inches in diameter, was prepared with a narrow riband of tinfoil, about thirty feet long, pasted spirally around the outside, and a similar riband of the same length, pasted on the inside; so that the corresponding spires of the two were directly opposite each other. The ends of the inner spiral passed out of the cylinder through a glass tube, to prevent all direct communication between the two. When the ends of the inner riband were joined by the magnetizing spiral (11), containing a needle, and a discharge from a half gallon jar sent through
the outer riband, the needle was strongly magnetized in such a manner as to indicate an induced current through the inner riband in the same direction as that of the current of the jar. This experiment was repeated many times, and always with the same result.

101. When the ends of one of the ribands were placed very nearly in contact, a small spark was perceived at the opening, the moment the discharge took place through the other riband.

102. When the ends of the same riband were separated to a considerable distance, a larger spark than the last could be drawn from each end by presenting a ball, or the knuckle.

103. Also if the ends of the outer riband were united, so as to form a perfect metallic circuit, a spark could be drawn from any point of the same, when a discharge was sent through the inner riband.

104. The sparks in the two last experiments are evidently due to the action known in ordinary electricity by the name of the lateral discharge. To render this clear, it is perhaps necessary to recall the well known fact, that when the knob of a jar is electrified positively, and the outer coating in connection with the earth, then the jar contains a small excess of positive electricity beyond what is necessary to perfectly neutralize the negative surface. If the knob be put in communication with the earth, the extra quantity, or the free electricity, as it is sometimes called, will be on the negative side. When the discharge took place in the above experiments, the inner riband became for an instant charged with this free electricity, and consequently threw off from the outer riband, by ordinary induction, the sparks described. It therefore became a question of importance to determine, whether the induced current described in paragraph 100 was not also a result of the lateral discharge, instead of being a true case of a secondary current analogous to those produced from galvanism. For this purpose the jar was charged, first with the outer coating in connection with the earth, and again with the knob in connection with the same, so that the extra quantity might be in the one case plus and in the other minus; but the direction of the induced current was not affected by these changes; it was always the same, namely, from the positive to the negative side of the jar.
105. When, however, the quantity of free electricity was increased, by connecting the knob of the jar with a globe about a foot in diameter, the intensity of magnetism appeared to be somewhat diminished, if the extra quantity was on the negative side; and this might be expected, since the free electricity, in its escape to the earth through the riband, in this case would tend to induce a feeble current in the opposite direction to that of the jar.

106. The spark from an insulated conductor may be considered as consisting almost entirely of this free or extra electricity, and it was found that this was also capable of producing an induced current, precisely the same as that from the jar. In the experiment which gave this result, one end of the outer riband of the cylinder (100) was connected with the earth, and the other caused to receive a spark from a conductor fourteen feet long, and nearly a foot in diameter. The direction of the induced current was the same as that of the spark from the conductor.

107. From these experiments it appears evident that the discharge from the Leyden jar possesses the property of inducing a secondary current precisely the same as the galvanic apparatus, and also that this induction is only so far connected with the phenomenon of the lateral discharge as this latter partakes of the nature of an ordinary electrical current.

108. Experiments were next made in reference to the production of currents of the different orders by ordinary electricity. For this purpose a second cylinder was prepared with ribands of tinfoil, in a similar manner to the one before described. The two were then so connected that the secondary current from the first would circulate around the second. When a discharge was passed through the outer riband of the first cylinder, a tertiary current was induced in the inner riband of the second. This was rendered manifest by the magnetizing of a needle in a spiral joining the ends of the last mentioned riband.

109. Also by the addition, in the same way, of a third cylinder, a current of the fourth order was developed. The same result was likewise obtained by using the arrangement of the coils and helices shown in Fig. 9. For these experiments, however, the coils were furnished
with a double coating of silk, and the contiguous conductors separated by a large plate of glass.

110. Screening effects precisely the same as those exhibited in the action of galvanism were produced by interposing a plate of metal between the conductors of different orders, Figures 8 and 9. The precaution was taken to place the plate between two frames of glass, in order to be assured that the effect was not due to a want of perfect insulation.

111. Also analogous results were found when the experiments were made with coils interposed instead of plates, as described in paragraph 68. When the ends of the interposed coils were separated, no screening was observed, but when joined, the effect was produced. The existence of the induced current, in all these experiments, was determined by the magnetism of a needle in a spiral attached to one of the coils.

112. Likewise shocks were obtained from the secondary current by an arrangement shown in Fig. 12. Helices No. 2 and No. 3 united are put within a glass jar, and coil No. 2 is placed around the same. When the handles are grasped, a shock is felt at the moment of the discharge, through the outer coil. The shocks, however, were very different in intensity with different discharges from the jar. In some cases no shock was received, when again, with a less charge, a severe one was obtained. But these irregularities find an explanation in a subsequent part of the investigation.

113. In all these experiments, the results with ordinary and galvanic electricity are similar. But at this stage of the investigation there appeared what at first was considered a remarkable difference in the action of the two. I allude to the direction of the currents of the different orders. These, in the experiments with the glass cylinders, instead of exhibiting the alternations of the galvanic currents (92), were all in the same direction as the discharge from the jar, or, in other words, they were all plus.
114. To discover, if possible, the cause of this difference, a series of experiments was instituted; but the first fact developed, instead of affording any new light, seemed to render the obscurity more profound. When the directions of the currents were taken in the arrangement of the coils (Fig. 9) the discrepancy vanished. *Alternations were found the same as in the case of galvanism.* This result was so extraordinary that the experiments were many times repeated, first with the glass cylinders, and then with the coils; the results, however, were always the same. The cylinders gave currents all in one direction; the coils in alternate directions.

115. After various hypotheses had been formed, and in succession disproved by experiment, the idea occurred to me that the direction of the currents might depend on the distance of the conductors, and this appeared to be the only difference existing in the arrangement of the experiments with the coils and the cylinders.* In the former the distance between the ribands was nearly one inch and a half, while in the latter it was only the thickness of the glass, or about $\frac{1}{30}$th of an inch.

116. In order to test this idea, two narrow slips of tinfoil, about twelve feet long, were stretched parallel to each other, and separated by thin plates of mica to the distance of about $\frac{1}{30}$th of an inch. When a discharge from the half gallon jar was passed through one of these, an induced current in the same direction was obtained from the other. The ribands were then separated, by plates of glass, to the distance of $\frac{1}{30}$th of an inch; the current was still in the same direction, or *plus.* When the distance was increased to about $\frac{1}{7}$th of an inch, no induced current could be obtained; and when they were still further separated the current again appeared, but was now *found to have a different direction, or to be minus.* No other change was observed in the direction of the current; the intensity of the induction decreased as the ribands were separated. The existence and direction of the current, in this experiment, were determined by the polarity of the needle in the spiral attached to the ends of one of the ribands.

* This idea was not immediately adopted, because I had previously experimented on the direction of the secondary current from galvanism, and found no change in reference to distance.
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117. The question at this time arose, whether the direction of the current, as indicated by the polarity of the needle, was the true one, since the magnetizing spiral might itself, in some cases, induce an opposite current. To satisfy myself on this point a series of charges, of various intensity and quantity, from a single spark of the large conductor to the full charge of nine jars, were passed through the small spiral, which had been used in all the experiments, but they all gave the same polarity. The interior of this spiral is so small, that the needle is throughout in contact with the wire.

118. The fact of a change in the direction of the induced current by a change in the distance of the conductors, being thus established, a great number and variety of experiments were made to determine the other conditions on which the change depends. These were sought for in a variation of the intensity and quantity of the primary discharge, in the length and thickness of the wire, and in the form of the circuit. The results were, however, in many cases, anomalous, and are not sufficiently definite to be placed in detail before the Society. I hope to resume the investigation at another time, and will therefore at present briefly state only those general facts which appear well established.

119. With a single half gallon jar, and the conductors separated to a distance less than \(\frac{1}{10}\)th of an inch, the induced current is always in the same direction as the primary. But when the conductors are gradually separated, there is always found a distance at which the current begins to change its direction. This distance depends certainly on the amount of the discharge, and probably on the intensity; and also on the length and thickness of the conductors. With a battery of eight half gallon jars, and parallel wires of about ten feet long, the change in the direction did not take place at a less distance than from twelve to fifteen inches, and with a still larger battery and longer conductors, no change was found, although the induction was produced at the distance of several feet.

120. The facts given in the last paragraph relate to the inductive action of the primary current; but it appears from the results detailed in paragraphs 110 and 114, that the currents of all the other orders also change the direction of the inductive influence with a change of
the distance. In these cases, however, the change always takes place at a very small distance from the conducting wire; and in this respect the result is similar to the effect of a primary current from the discharge of a small jar.

121. The most important experiments, in reference to distance, were made in the lecture room of my respected friend Dr Hare of Philadelphia, with the splendid electrical apparatus described in the Fifth Volume (new series) of the Transactions of this Society. The battery consists of thirty-two jars, each of the capacity of a gallon. A thick copper wire of about \( \frac{1}{10} \) th of an inch in diameter and eighty feet in length, was stretched across the lecture room, and its ends brought to the battery, so as to form a trapezium, the longer side of which was about thirty-five feet. Along this side a wire was stretched of the ordinary bell size, and the extreme ends of this joined by a spiral, similar to the arrangement shown in Fig. 13.

The two wires were at first placed within the distance of about an inch, and afterwards constantly separated after each discharge of the whole battery through the thick wire. When a break was made in the second wire at \( a \), no magnetism was developed in a needle in the spiral at \( b \), but when the circuit was complete, the needle at each discharge indicated a current in the same direction as that of the battery. When the distance of the two wires was increased to sixteen inches, and the ends of the second wire placed in two glasses of mercurv, and a finger of each hand plunged into the metal, a shock was received. The direction of the current was still the same, but the magnetism not as strong as at a less distance.

122. The second wire was next arranged around the other, so as to enclose it. The magnetism by this arrangement appeared stronger than with the last; the direction of the current was still the same, and continued thus, until the two wires were at every point separated to the distance of twelve feet, except in one place where they were obliged to be crossed at the distance of seven feet, but here the wires were
made to form a right angle with each other, and the effect of the approximation was therefore (46) considered as nothing. The needle at this surprising distance was tolerably strongly magnetized, as was shown by the quantity of filings which would adhere to it. The direction of the current was still the same as that of the battery. The form of the room did not permit the two wires to be separated to a greater distance. The whole length of the circuit of the interior large wire was about eighty feet; that of the exterior one hundred and twenty. The two were not in the same plane, and a part of the outer passed through a small adjoining room.

123. The results exhibited in this experiment are such as could scarcely have been anticipated by our previous knowledge of the electrical discharge. They evince a remarkable inductive energy, which has not before been distinctly recognized, but which must perform an important part in the discharge of electricity from the clouds. Some effects which have been observed during thunder storms, appear to be due to an action of this kind.

124. Since a discharge of ordinary electricity produces a secondary current in an adjoining wire, it should also produce an analogous effect in its own wire; and to this cause may be now referred the peculiar action of a long conductor. It is well known that the spark from a very long wire, although quite short, is remarkably pungent. I was so fortunate as to witness a very interesting exhibition of this action during some experiments on atmospheric electricity made by a committee of the Franklin Institute, in 1836. Two kites were attached, one above the other, and raised with a small iron wire in place of a string. On the occasion at which I was present, the wire was extended by the kites to the length of about one mile. The day was perfectly clear, yet the sparks from the wire had so much projectile force (to use a convenient expression of Dr Hare) that fifteen persons joining hands and standing on the ground, received the shock at once, when the first person of the series touched the wire. A Leyden jar being grasped in the hand by the outer coating, and the knob presented to the wire, a severe shock was received, as if by a perforation of the glass, but which was found to be the result of the sudden and intense induction.
125. These effects were evidently not due to the accumulated intensity at the extremities of the wire, on the principles of ordinary electrical distribution, since the knuckle required to be brought within about a quarter of an inch before the spark could be received. It was not alone the quantity, since the experiments of Wilson prove that the same effect is not produced with an equal amount of electricity on the surface of a large conductor. It appears evidently therefore a case of the induction of an electrical current on itself. The wire is charged with a considerable quantity of feeble electricity, which passes off in the form of a current along its whole length, and thus the induction takes place at the end of the discharge, as in the case of a long wire transmitting a current of galvanism.

126. It is well known that the discharge from an electrical battery possesses great divellent powers; that it entirely separates, in many instances, the particles of the body through which it passes. This force acts, in part, at least, in the direction of the line of the discharge, and appears to be analogous to the repulsive action discovered by Ampere, in the consecutive parts of the same galvanic current. To illustrate this, paste on a piece of glass a narrow slip of tinfoil, cut it through at several points, and loosen the ends from the glass at the places so cut. Pass a discharge through the tinfoil from about nine half gallon jars; the ends, at each separation, will be thrown up, and sometimes bent entirely back, as if by the action of a strong repulsive force between them. This will be understood by a reference to Fig. 14; the ends are shown bent back at $a, a, a$. In the popular experiment of the pierced card, the bur on each side appears to be due to an action of the same kind.

127. It now appears probable, from the facts given in paragraphs 119 and 120, that the table in paragraph 92 is only an approximation to the truth, and that each current from galvanism, as well as from electricity, first produces an inductive action in the direction of itself, and that the inverse influence takes place at a little distance from the wire.

128. To test this the compound helix was placed on coil No. 1, to
receive the induction, and its ends joined to those of the outer riband of tinfoil of the glass cylinder, while the magnetizing spiral was attached to the ends of the inner riband. A feeble tertiary current was produced by this arrangement, which in two cases gave a polarity to the needle indicating a direction the same as that of the primary current. In other cases the magnetism was either imperceptible or minus. With an arrangement of two coils of wires around two glass cylinders, one within the other, the same effect was produced. The magnetism was less when the distance of the two sets of spires was smaller, indicating, as it would appear, an approximation to a position of neutrality. These results are rather of a negative kind, yet they appear to indicate the same change with distance in the case of the galvanic currents, as in that of the discharge of ordinary electricity. The distance however at which the change takes place would seem to be less in the former than in the latter.

129. There is a perfect analogy between the inductive action of the primary current from the galvanic apparatus and of that from the larger electrical battery. The point of change, in each, appears to be at a great distance.

130. The neutralizing effect described in Section IV. may now be more definitely explained by saying that when a third conductor is acted on at the same time by a primary and secondary current (unless it be very near the second wire) it will fall into the region of the plus influence of the former, and into that of the minus influence of the latter; and hence no induction will be produced.

131. This will be rendered perfectly clear by Fig. 15, in which a represents the conductor of the primary current, b that of the secondary, and c the third conductor. The characters + +, +, –, &c., beginning at the middle of the first conductor and extending downwards, represent the constant plus influence of the primary current, and those + 0 — —, &c., beginning at the second conductor, indicate its inductive influence as changing with the distance. The third conductor, as is shown by the figure, falls in the plus region of the primary current, and in the minus region of the secondary, and
hence the two actions neutralize each other, and no apparent result is produced.

132. Fig. 16 indicates the method in which the neutralizing effect is produced in the case of the secondary and tertiary currents. The wire conducting the secondary current is represented by \( b \), that conducting the tertiary by \( c \), and the other wire, to receive the induction from these, by \( d \). The direction of the influence, as before, is indicated by \(+0—−, &c.,\) and the third wire is again seen to be in the plus region of the one current, and in the minus of the other. If, however, \( d \) is placed sufficiently near \( c \), then neutralization will not take place, but the two currents will conspire to produce in it an induction in the same direction. A similar effect would also be produced were the wire \( c \), in Fig. 15, placed sufficiently near the conductor \( b \).

133. Currents of the several orders were likewise produced from the excitation of the magneto-electrical machine. The same neutralizing effects were observed between these as in the case of the currents from the galvanic battery, and hence we may infer that also the same alternations take place in the direction of the several currents.

134. In conclusion, I may perhaps be allowed to state, that the facts here presented have been deduced from a laborious series of experiments, and are considered as forming some addition to our knowledge of electricity, independently of any theoretical considerations. They appear to be intimately connected with various phenomena, which have been known for some years, but which have not been referred to any general law of action. Of this class are the discoveries of Savary, on the alternate magnetism of steel needles, placed at different distances from the line of a discharge of ordinary electricity,* and also the magnetic, screening influence of all metals, discovered by Dr Snow Harris of Plymouth.† A comparative study of the phenomena observed by these distinguished savants, and those given in this paper, would probably

* * Annales de Chimie et de Physique, 1827.
† Philosophical Transactions, 1831.
lead to some new and important developments. Indeed every part of the subject of electro-dynamic induction appears to open a field for discovery, which experimental industry cannot fail to cultivate with immediate success.

NOTE.

On the evening of the meeting at which my investigations were presented to the Society, my friend, Dr Bache of the Girard College, gave an account of the investigations of Professor Ettingshausen of Vienna, in reference to the improvement of the magneto-electric machine, some of the results of which he had witnessed at the University of Vienna about a year since. No published account of these experiments has yet reached this country, but it appears that Professor Ettingshausen had been led to suspect the development of a current in the metal of the keeper of the magneto-electric machine, which diminished the effect of the current in the coil about the keeper, and hence to separate the coil from the keeper by a ring of wood of some thickness, and afterwards, to prevent entirely the circulation of currents in the keeper, by dividing it into segments, and separating them by a non-conducting material. I am not aware of the result of this last device, nor whether the mechanical difficulties in its execution were fully overcome. It gives me pleasure to learn that the improvements, which I have merely suggested as deductions from the principles of the interference of induced currents (76), should be in accordance with the experimental conclusions of the above named philosopher.