IX. Experiments for investigating the Cause of the coloured concentric Rings, discovered by Sir Isaac Newton, between two Object-glasses laid upon one another. By William Herschel, LLD. F.R.S.

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The account given by Sir I. Newton, of the coloured arcs and rings which he discovered by laying two prisms or object-glasses upon each other, is highly interesting. He very justly remarks, that these phenomena are "of difficult consideration," but that "they may conduce to farther discoveries for "completing the theory of light, especially as to the constitution of the parts of natural bodies on which their colours "or transparency depend."*

With regard to the explanation of the appearance of these coloured rings, which is given by Sir I. Newton, I must confess that it has never been satisfactory to me. He accounts for the production of the rings, by ascribing to the rays of light certain fits of easy reflection and easy transmission alternately returning and taking place with each ray at certain stated intervals. But this, without mentioning particular objections, seems to be an hypothesis which cannot be easily reconciled with the minuteness and extreme velocity of the particles of which these rays, according to the Newtonian theory, are composed.

* Newton's Optics, 4th ed. p. 169. † Ibid. p. 256.

The great beauty of the coloured rings, and the pleasing appearances arising from the different degrees of pressure of the two surfaces of the glasses against each other when they are formed, and especially the importance of the subject, have often excited my desire of enquiring farther into the cause of such interesting phenomena; and with a view to examine them properly I obtained, in the year 1792, the two object-glasses of Huygens, in the possession of the Royal Society, one of 122, the other of 170 feet focal length, and began a series of experiments with them, which, though many times interrupted by astronomical pursuits, has often been taken up again, and has lately been carried to a very considerable extent. The conclusions that may be drawn from them, though they may not perfectly account for all the phoenomena of the rings, are yet sufficiently well supported, and of such a nature as to point out several modifications of light that have been totally overlooked, and others that have never been properly discriminated. It will, therefore, be the aim of this paper to arrange and distinguish the various modifications of light in a clear and perspicuous order, and afterwards to give my sentiments upon the cause of the formation of the concentric rings. The avowed intricacy of the subject,* however, requires, in the first place, a minute detail of experiments, and afterwards a very gradual developement of the consequences to be deduced from them.

As the word modification will frequently be used, it may not be amiss to say, that when applied to light, it is intended to stand for a general expression of all the changes that are made in its colours, direction, or motion: thus, by the modifi-

^{*} NEWTON's Optics, 4th ed. p. 288; end of Obs. 12.

cation of reflection, light is thrown back; by that of refraction, it is bent from its former course; by the modification of dispersion, it is divided into colours, and so of the rest.

I. Of different Methods to make one set of concentric Rings visible.

In the beginning of my experiments I followed the Newtonian example, and having laid the two object-glasses of Huygens upon one another I soon perceived the concentric rings. It is almost needless to say that I found all the Newtonian observations of these rings completely verified; but as his experiments seemed to be too much confined for drawing general conclusions, I endeavoured to extend them: and by way of rendering the methods I point out very clear, I have given one easy particular instance of each, with the addition of a generalization of it, as follows:

First Method. On a table placed before a window I laid down a slip of glass the sides of which were perfectly plain, parallel, and highly polished. Upon this I laid a double convex lens of 26 inches focal length, and found that this arrangement gave me a set of beautiful concentric rings.

I viewed them with a double convex eye lens of $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches focus mounted upon an adjustable stand, by which simple apparatus I could examine them with great ease; and as it was not material to my present purpose by what obliquity of incidence of light I saw the rings, I received the rays from the window most conveniently when they fell upon the lens in an angle of about 30 degrees from the perpendicular, the eye being placed on the opposite side at an equal angle of elevation to receive the reflected rays.

Generalization. Instead of a plain slip of glass, the plain side of a plano-concave, or plano-convex lens of any focal length whatsoever may be used: and when the convex side of any lens is laid upon it, whatever may be the figure of the other surface, whether plain, concave, or convex, and whatever may be its focal length, a set of concentric rings will always be obtained. I have seen rings with lenses of all varieties of focus, from 170 feet down to one quarter of an inch. Even a common watch glass laid upon the same plain surface will give them.

To insure success, it is necessary that the glasses should be perfectly well cleaned from any adhering dust or soil, especially about the point of contact; and in laying them upon each other a little pressure should be used, accompanied at first with a little side motion, after which they must be left at rest.

If the surface of the incumbent lens, especially when it is of a very short focal length, is free from all imperfection and highly polished, the adjustment of the focus of the above mentioned eye-glass, which I always use for viewing the rings, is rather troublesome, in which case a small spot of ink made upon the lens will serve as an object for a sufficient adjustment to find the rings.

Second Method. Instead of the slip of glass, I laid down a well polished plain metalline mirror; and placing upon it the same 26-inch double convex lens, I saw again a complete set of concentric rings.

It is singular that, in this case, the rings reflected from a bright metalline surface will appear fainter than when the same lens is laid on a surface of glass reflecting but little light; this may however be accounted for by the brilliancy of the metalline ground on which these faint rings are seen, the contrast of which will offuscate their feeble appearance.

Generalization. On the same metalline surface every variety of lenses may be laid, whatever be the figure of their upper surface, whether plain, concave, or convex, and whatever be their focal lengths, provided the lowest surface remains convex, and concentric rings will always be obtained; but for the reason mentioned in the preceding paragraph, very small lenses should not be used till the experimentalist has been familiarized with the method of seeing these rings, after which lenses of two inches focus, and gradually less, may be tried.

Third Method. Hitherto we have only used a plain surface upon which many sorts of glasses have been placed; in order therefore to obtain a still greater variety, I laid down a planoconvex lens of 15 inches focal length, and upon the convex surface of it I placed the 26-inch double convex lens, which produced a complete set of rings.

Fourth Method. The same lens placed upon a convex metalline mirror of about 15 inches focal length gave also a complete set of rings.

Generalization. These two cases admit of a much greater variety than the first and second methods; for here the incumbent glass may have not only one, but both its surfaces of any figure whatsoever; whether plain, concave, or convex; provided the radius of concavity, when concave lenses are laid upon the convex surface of glass or metal, is greater than that of the convexity on which they are laid.

The figure of the lowest surface of the subjacent substance, when it is glass, may also be plain, concave, or convex; and

the curvature of its upper surface, as well as of the mirror, may be such as to give them any focal length, provided the radius of their convexities is less than that of the concavity of an incumbent lens; in all which cases complete sets of concentric rings will be obtained.

Fifth Method. Into the concavity of a double concave glass of 8 inches focal length I placed a 7-inch double convex lens, and saw a very beautiful set of rings.

Sixth Method. Upon a 7 feet concave metalline mirror I placed the double convex 26-inch lens, and had a very fine set of rings.

Generalization. With these two last methods, whatever may be the radius of the concavity of the subjacent surface, provided it be greater than that of the convexity of the incumbent glass; and whatever may be the figure of the upper surface of the lenses that are placed upon the former, there will be produced concentric rings. The figure of the lowest surface of the subjacent glass may also be varied at pleasure, and still concentric rings will be obtained.

II. Of seeing Rings by Transmission.

The great variety of the different combinations of these differently figured glasses and mirrors will still admit of further addition, by using a different way of viewing the rings. Hitherto, the arrangement of the apparatus has been such as to make them visible only by reflection, which is evident, because all the experiments that have been pointed out may be made by the light of a candle placed so that the angle of incidence and of reflection towards the eye of the observer, may be equal. But Sir I. Newton has given us also an

Observation where he saw these rings by transmission, in consequence of which I have again multiplied and varied the method of producing them that way, as follows:

First Method. On a slip of plain glass highly polished on both sides place the same double convex lens of 26 inches, which had already been used when the rings were seen by reflection. Take them both up together and hold them against the light of a window, in which position the concentric rings will be seen with great ease by transmitted light. But as the use of an eye-glass will not be convenient in this situation, it will be necessary to put on a pair of spectacles with glasses of 5, 6, or 7 inches focus, to magnify the rings in order to see them more readily.

Second Method. It would be easy to construct an apparatus for viewing the rings by transmission fitted with a proper eyeglass; but other methods of effecting the same purpose are preferable. Thus, if the two glasses that are to give the rings be laid upon a hollow stand, a candle placed at a proper angle and distance under them will show the rings conveniently by transmitted light, while the observer and the apparatus remain in the same situation as if they were to be seen by reflection.

Third Method. A still more eligible way is to use daylight received upon a plain metalline mirror reflecting it upwards to the glasses placed over it, as practised in the construction of the common double microscope; but I forbear entering into a farther detail of this last and most useful way of seeing rings by transmission, as I shall soon have occasion to say more on the same subject.

Generalization. Every combination of glasses that has been explained in the first, third, and fifth methods of seeing rings

by reflection will also give them by transmission, when exposed to the light in any of the three ways that have now been pointed out. When these are added to the former, it will be allowed that we have an extensive variety of arrangements for every desirable purpose of making experiments upon rings, as far as single sets of them are concerned.

III. Of Shadows.

When two or more sets of rings are to be seen, it will require some artificial means, not only to examine them critically, but even to perceive them; and here the shadow of some slender opaque body will be of eminent service. To cast shadows of a proper size and upon places where they are wanted, a pointed penknife may be used as follows.

When a plain slip of glass or convex lens is laid down, and the point of a penknife is brought over either of them, it will cast two shadows, one of which may be seen on the first surface of the glass or lens, and the other on the lowest.

When two slips of glass are laid upon each other, or a convex lens upon one slip, so that both are in contact, the penknife will give three shadows; but if the convex lens should be of a very short focus, or the slips of glass a little separated, four of them may be perceived; for in that case there will be one formed on the lowest surface of the incumbent glass or lens; but in my distinction of shadows this will not be noticed. Of the three shadows thus formed the second will be darker than the first, but the third will be faint. When a piece of looking glass is substituted for the lowest slip the third shadow will be the strongest.

Three slips of glass in contact, or two slips with a lens

upon them, or also a looking glass, a slip and a lens put together, will give four shadows, one from each upper surface and one from the bottom of the lowest of them.

In all these cases a metalline mirror may be laid under the same arrangement without adding to the number of shadows, its effect being only to render them more intense and distinct.

The shadows may be distinguished by the following method. When the point of the penknife is made to touch the surface of the uppermost glass or lens, it will touch the point of its own shadow, which may thus at any time be easily ascertained: and this in all cases I call the first shadow; that which is next to it, the second; after which follows the third, and so on.

In receding from the point, the shadows will mix together, and thus become more intense; but which, or how many of them are united together, may always be known by the points of the shadows.

When a shadow is to be thrown upon any required place, hold the penknife nearly half an inch above the glasses, and advance its edge foremost gradually towards the incident light. The front should be held a little downwards to keep the light from the underside of the penknife, and the shadows to be used should be obtained from a narrow part of it.

With this preparatory information it will be easy to point out the use that is to be made of the shadows when they are wanted.

IV. Of two sets of Rings.

I shall now proceed to describe a somewhat more complicated way of observation, by which two complete sets of concentric rings may be seen at once. The new or additional set will furnish us with an opportunity of examining rings in situations where they have never been seen before, which will be of eminent service for investigating the cause of their origin, and with the assistance of the shadows to be formed, as has been explained, we shall not find it difficult to see them in these situations.

First Method. Upon a well polished piece of good looking-glass lay down a double convex lens of about 20 inches focus. When the eye glass has been adjusted as usual for seeing one set of rings, make the shadow of the penknife in the order which has been described, pass over the lens; then, as it sometimes happens in this arrangement that no rings are easily to be seen, the shadow will, in its passage over the surface, show where they are situated. When a set of them is perceived, which is generally the primary one, bring the third shadow of the penknife over it, in which situation it will be seen to the greatest advantage.

Then, if at the same time a secondary set of rings has not yet been discovered, it will certainly be perceived when the second shadow of the penknife is brought upon the primary set. As soon as it has been found out, the compound shadow, consisting of all the three shadows united, may then be thrown upon this secondary set, in order to view it at leisure and in perfection. But this compound shadow should be taken no farther from the point than is necessary to cover it; nor should the third shadow touch the primary set. The two sets are so near together, that many of the rings of one set intersect some of the other.

When a sight of the secondary set has been once obtained, it will be very easy to view it alternately with the primary one

by a slight motion of the penknife, so as to make the third shadow of it go from one set to the other.

Besides the use of the shadows, there is another way to make rings visible when they cannot be easily perceived, which is to take hold of the lens with both hands, to press it alternately a little more with one than with the other; a tilting motion, given to the lens in this manner, will move the two sets of rings from side to side; and as it is well known that a faint object in motion may be sooner perceived than when it is at rest, both sets of rings will by these means be generally detected together.

It will also contribute much to facilitate the method of seeing two sets of rings, if we receive the light in a more oblique angle of incidence, such as 40, 50, or even 60 degrees. This will increase the distance between the centers of the primary and secondary sets, and at the same time occasion a more copious reflection of light.

Instead of a common looking-glass a convex glass mirror may be used, on which may be placed either a plain, a concave, or a convex surface of any lens or glass, and two sets of rings will be obtained.

In the same manner, by laying upon a concave glass mirror a convex lens, we shall also have two sets of rings.

The generalizations that have been mentioned when one set of rings was proposed to be obtained, may be easily applied with proper regulations, according to the circumstances of the case, not only to the method by glass mirrors already mentioned, but likewise to all those that follow hereafter, and need not be particularized for the future. In the choice of the surfaces to be joined, we have only to select such as will form a

central contact, the focal length of the lenses and the figure of the upper surface being variable at pleasure.

Second Method. On a plain metalline mirror I laid a parallel slip of glass, and placed upon it the convex surface of a 17-inch plano-convex lens, by which means two sets of rings were produced.

Upon the same mirror the plain side of the plano-convex glass may be laid instead of the plain slip, and any plain, convex, or concave surface being placed upon the convexity of the subjacent lens, will give two sets of rings.

The plain side of a plano-concave glass may also be placed upon the same mirror, and into the concavity may be laid any lens that will make a central contact with it, by which arrangement two sets of rings will be obtained.

Third Method. Upon a small well polished slip of glass place another slip of the same size, and upon them lay a 39-inch double convex lens. This will produce two sets of rings; one of them reflected from the upper surface of the first slip of glass, and the other from that of the second.

Instead of the uppermost plain slip of glass we may place upon the lowest slip the plain side of a plano-convex or plano-concave lens, and the same variety which has been explained in the third method, by using any incumbent lens that will make a central contact, either with the convexity or concavity of the subjacent glass, will always produce two sets of rings.

Fourth Method. A more refined but rather more difficult way of seeing two sets of rings, is to lay a plain slip of glass on a piece of black paper, and when a convex lens is placed upon the slip, there may be perceived, but not without

particular attention, not only the first set, which has already been pointed out as reflected from the first surface of the slip, but also a faint secondary set from the lowest surface of the same slip of glass.

It will be less difficult to see two sets of rings by a reflection from both surfaces of the same glass, if we use, for instance, a double concave of 8 inches focus with a double convex of $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches placed upon it. For, as it is well known that glass will reflect more light from the farthest surface when air rather than a denser medium is in contact with it, the hollow space of the 8-inch concave will give a pretty strong reflection of the secondary set.

Fifth Method. The use that is intended to be made of two sets of rings requires that one of them should be dependent upon the other: this is a circumstance that will be explained hereafter, but the following instance, where two independent sets of rings are given, will partly anticipate the subject. When a double convex lens of 50 inches is laid down with a slip of glass placed upon it, and another double convex one of 26 inches is then placed upon the slip, we get two sets of rings of different sizes; the large rings are from the 50-inch glass, the small rings from the 26-inch one. They are to be seen with great ease, because they are each of them primary. By tilting the incumbent lens or the slip of glass these two sets of rings may be made to cross each other in any direction; the small set may be laid upon the large one, or either of them may be separately removed towards any part of the glass. This will be sufficient to show that they have no connection with each other. The phænomena of the motions, and of the various colours and sizes assumed by these rings,

when different pressures and tiltings of the glasses are used will afford some entertainment. With the assistance of the shadow of the penknife the secondary set belonging to the rings from the 26-inch lens will be added to the other two sets; but in tilting the glasses this set will never leave its primary one, while that from the 50-inch lens may be made to go any where across the other two.

V. Of three Sets of Rings.

To see three sets of concentric rings at once is attended with some difficulty, but by the assistance of the methods of tilting the glasses and making use of the multiplied shadows of a penknife we may see them very well, when there is a sufficient illumination of bright daylight.

First Method. A 26-inch double convex lens placed upon three slips of plain glass will give three sets of rings. The slips of glass should be nearly 2-tenths of an inch thick, otherwise the different sets will not be sufficiently separated. When all the glasses are in full contact the first and second sets may be seen with a little pressure and a small motion, and, if circumstances are favourable the third, which is the faintest, will also appear. If it cannot be seen, some of the compound shadows of the penknife must be thrown upon it; for in this case there will be five shadows visible, several of which will fall together and give different intensity to their mixture.

Second Method. When a single slip of glass, with a 34-inch lens upon it, is placed upon a piece of good looking-glass, three sets of rings may be seen: the first and third sets are pretty bright, and will be perceived by only pressing the lens a little upon the slip of glass; after which it will be easy to find the

second set with the assistance of the proper shadow. In this case four shadows will be seen; and when the third shadow is upon the first set, the fourth will be over the second set and render it visible.

Third Method. When two slips of glass are laid upon a plain metalline mirror, then a 26-inch lens placed upon the slips will produce three sets of rings; but it is not very easy to perceive them. By a tilting motion the third set will generally appear like a small white circle, which at a proper distance will follow the movement of the first set. As soon as the first and third sets are in view the third shadow of the penknife may be brought over the first set, by which means the fourth shadow will come upon the second set, and in this position of the apparatus it will become visible.

Fourth Method. On a plain metalline mirror lay one slip of glass, but with a small piece of wood at one end under it, so that it may be kept about one-tenth of an inch from the mirror, and form an inclined plane. A 26-inch lens laid upon the slip of glass will give three sets of rings. Two of them will easily be seen; and when the shadow of the penknife is held between them the third set will also be perceived. There is but one shadow visible in this arrangement, which is the third; the first and second shadows being lost in the bright reflection from the mirror.

Fifth Method. I placed a $6\frac{3}{4}$ -inch double convex upon an 8-inch double concave, and laid both together upon a plain slip of glass. This arrangement gave three sets of rings. They may be seen without the assistance of shadows, by using only pressure and tilting. The first had a black and the other two had white centers.

VI. Of four Sets of Rings.

The difficulty of seeing many sets of rings increases with their number, yet by a proper attention to the directions that are given four sets of concentric rings may be seen.

First Method. Let a slip of glass, with a 26-inch lens laid upon it, be placed upon a piece of looking-glass. Under one end of the slip, a small piece of wood one-tenth of an inch thick must be put to keep it from touching the looking-glass. This arrangement will give us four sets of rings. The first, third, and fourth may easily be seen, but the second set will require some management. Of the three shadows, which this apparatus gives, the second and third must be brought between the first and fourth sets of rings, in which situation the second set of rings will become visible.

Second Method. When three slips of glass are laid upon a metalline mirror, and a plano-convex lens of about 17 inches focus is placed with its convex side upon them, four sets of rings may be seen; but this experiment requires a very bright day, and very clean, highly polished slips of plain glass. Nor can it be successful unless all the foregoing methods of seeing multiplied sets of rings are become familiar and easy.

I have seen occasionally, not only four and five, but even six sets of concentric rings, from a very simple arrangement of glasses: they arise from reiterated internal reflections; but it will not be necessary to carry this account of seeing multiplied sets of rings to a greater length.

VII. Of the Size of the Rings.

The diameter of the concentric rings depends upon the

radius of the curvature of the surfaces between which they are formed. Curvatures of a short radius, cæteris paribus, give smaller rings than those of a longer; but Sir I. Newton having already treated on this part of the subject at large, it will not be necessary to enter farther into it.

I should however remark, that when two curves are concerned, it is the application of them to each other that will determine the size of the rings, so that large ones may be produced from curvatures of a very short radius. A double convex lens of $2\frac{1}{4}$ -inches focus, for instance, when it is laid upon a double concave which is but little more in focal length, gives rings that are larger than those from a lens of 26 inches laid upon a plain slip of glass.

VIII. Of Contact.

The size of the rings is considerably affected by pressure. They grow larger when the two surfaces that form them are pressed closer together, and diminish when the pressure is gradually removed. The smallest ring of a set may be increased by this means to double and treble its former diameter; but as the common or natural pressure of glasses laid upon any flat or curved surface is occasioned by their weight, the variations of pressure will not be very considerable when they are left to assume their own distance or contact. To produce that situation, however, which is generally called contact, it will always be necessary to give a little motion backwards and forwards to the incumbent lens or glass, accompanied with some moderate pressure, after which it may be left to settle properly by its own weight.

IX. Of measuring Rings.

It may be supposed from what has been said concerning the kind of contact, which is required for glasses to produce rings, that an attempt to take absolute measures must be liable to great inaccuracy. This was fully proved to me when I wanted to ascertain, in the year 1792, whether a lens laid upon a metalline surface would give rings of an equal diameter with those it gave when placed on glass. The measures differed so much that I was at first deceived; but on proper consideration it appeared that the HUYGENIAN object glass, of 122 feet focus, which I used for the experiment, could not so easily be brought to the same contact on metal as on glass; nor can we ever be well assured that an equal distance between the two surfaces in both cases has been actually obtained. The colour of the central point, as will be shown hereafter, may serve as a direction; but even that cannot be easily made equal in both cases. By taking a sufficient number of measures of any given ring of a set, when a glass of a sufficient focal length is used, we may however determine its diameter to about the 25th or 30th part of its dimension.

Relative measures, for ascertaining the proportion of the different rings in the same set to each other, may be more accurately taken, for in that case the contact with them all will remain the same, if we do not disturb the glasses during the time of measuring.

X. Of the Number of Rings.

When there is a sufficient illumination, many concentric rings in every set will be perceived; in the primary set we see MDCCCVII. Dd

generally 8, 9, or 10, very conveniently. By holding the eye in the most favourable situation I have often counted near 20, and the number of them is generally lost when they grow too narrow and minute to be perceived, so that we can never be said fairly to have counted them to their full extent. In the second set I have seen as many as in the first, and they are full as bright. The third set, when it is seen by a metalline mirror under two slips, will be brighter than the second, and almost as bright as the first: I have easily counted 7, 8, and 9 rings.

XI. Of the Effect of Pressure on the Colour of the Rings.

When a double convex object glass of 14 or 15 feet focus is laid on a plain slip of glass, the first colours that make their faintest appearance will be red surrounded by green; the smallest pressure will turn the center into green surrounded by red: an additional pressure will give a red center again, and so on till there have been so many successive alterations as to give us six or seven times a red center, after which the greatest pressure will only produce a very large black one surrounded by white.

When the rings are seen by transmission, the colours are in the same manner subject to a gradual alternate change occasioned by pressure; but when that is carried to its full extent, the center of the rings will be a large white spot surrounded by black.

The succession and addition of the other prismatic colours after the first or second change, in both cases is extremely beautiful; but as the experiment may be so easily made, a description, which certainly would fall short of an actual view of these phenomena, will not be necessary.

When the rings are produced by curves of a very short radius, and the incumbent lens is in full contact with the slip of glass, they will be alternately black and white; but by lessening the contact, I have seen, even with a double convex lens of no more than two-tenths of an inch focus, the center of the rings white, red, green, yellow, and black, at pleasure. In this case I used an eye-glass of one inch focus; but as it requires much practice to manage such small glasses, the experiment may be more conveniently made by placing a double convex lens of 2-inch focus on a plain slip of glass, and viewing the rings by an eye glass of $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches; then having first brought the lens into full contact, the rings will be only black and white, but by gently lifting up or tilting the lens, the center of the rings will assume various colours at pleasure.

XII. Of diluting and concentrating the Colours.

Lifting up or tilting a lens being subject to great uncertainty, a surer way of acting upon the colours of the rings is by dilution and concentration. After having seen that very small lenses give only black and white when in full contact, we may gradually take others of a longer focus. With a double convex lens of four inches the outward rings will begin to assume a faint red colour. With 5, 6, and 7, this appearance will increase; and proceeding with lenses of a larger focus, when we come to about 16, 18, or 20 inches, green rings will gradually make their appearance.

This and other colours come on much sooner if the center

of the lens is not kept in a black contact, which, in these experiments must be attended to.

A lens of 26 inches not only shows black, white, red, and green rings, but the central black begins already to be diluted so as to incline to violet, indigo, or blue. With one of 34, the white about the dark center begins to be diluted, and shows a kind of gray inclining to yellow. With 42 and 48, yellow rings begin to become visible. With 55 and 59, blue rings show themselves very plainly. With a focal length of 9 and 11 feet, orange many be distinguished from the yellow, and indigo from the blue. With 14 feet, some violet becomes visible. When the 122 feet HUYGENIAN glass is laid on a plain slip, and well settled upon it, the central colour is then sufficiently diluted to show that the dark spot, which in small lenses, when concentrated, had the appearance of black, is now drawn out into violet, indigo, and blue, with little admixture of green; and that the white ring, which used to be about the central spot, is turned partly green with a surrounding yellow, orange. and red-coloured space or ring; by which means we seem to have a fair analysis of our former compound black and white center.

One of my slips of glass, which is probably a little concave, gave the rings still larger when the 122 feet glass was firmly pressed against it. I used a little side motion at the same time, and brought the glasses into such contact that they adhered sufficiently to be lifted up together. With this adhesion I perceived a colour surrounding a dark center which I have never seen in any prismatic spectrum. It is a kind of light brown, resembling the colour of a certain sort of Spanish snuff. The 170 feet object glass showed the same colour also very clearly.

XIII. Of the Order of the Colours.

The arrangement of the colours in each compound ring or alternation, seen by reflection is, that the most refrangible rays are nearest the center; and the same order takes place when seen by transmission. We have already shown that when a full dilution of the colours was obtained their arrangement was violet, indigo, blue, green, yellow, orange, and red; and the same order will hold good when the colours are gradually concentrated again; for though some of them should vanish before others, those that remain will always be found to agree with the same arrangement.

If the rings should chance to be red and green alternately, a doubt might arise which of them is nearest the center; but by the method of dilution, a little pressure, or some small increase of the focal length of the incumbent lens, there will be introduced an orange tint between them, which will immediately ascertain the order of the colours.

In the second set of rings the same order is still preserved as in the first; and the same arrangement takes place in the third set as well as in the fourth. In all of them the most refrangible rays produce the smallest rings.

XIV. Of the alternate Colour and Size of the Rings belonging to the primary and dependent Sets.

When two sets of rings are seen at once, and the colour of the center of the primary set is black, that of the secondary will be white; if the former is white, the latter will be black. The same alternation will take place if the colour of the center of the primary set should be red or orange; for then the center of the secondary one will be green; or if the former happens to be green, the latter will be red or orange. At the same time there will be a similar alternation in the size of rings; for the white rings in one set will be of the diameter of the black in the other; or the orange rings of the former will be of equal magnitude with the green of the latter.

When three sets of rings are to be seen, the second and third sets will be alike in colour and size, but alternate in both particulars with the primary set.

The same thing will happen when four sets are visible; for all the sets that are formed from the primary one will resemble each other, but will be alternate in the colour and dimensions of their rings with those of the primary set.

XV. Of the sudden Change of the Size and Colour of the Rings in different Sets.

When two sets of rings are viewed which are dependent upon each other, the colour of their centers and of all the rings in each set, may be made to undergo a sudden change by the approach of the shadow of the point of a penknife or other opaque slender body. To view this phenomenon properly, let a 16-inch double convex lens be laid upon a piece of looking-glass, and when the contact between them has been made to give the primary set with a black center, that of the secondary will be white. To keep the lens in this contact, a pretty heavy plate of lead with a circular hole in it of nearly the diameter of the lens should be laid upon it. The margin of the hole must be tapering, that no obstruction may be made to either the incident or reflected light. When this is properly arranged, bring the third shadow of the penknife upon the

primary set, which is that towards the light. The real colours of this and the secondary set will then be seen to the greatest advantage. When the third shadow is advanced till it covers the second set, the second shadow will at the same time fall upon the first set, and the colour of the centers, and of all the rings in both sets, will undergo a sudden transformation from black to white and white to black.

The alternation of the colour is accompanied with a change of size, for as the white rings before the change were of a different diameter from the black ones, these latter, having now assumed a black colour, will be of a different size from the former black ones.

When the weight is taken from the lens the black contact will be changed into some other. In the present experiment it happened that the primary set got an orange coloured center and the secondary a green one. The same way of proceeding with the direction of the shadow being then pursued, the orange center was instantly changed to a green one, while at the same moment the green center was turned into orange. With a different contact I have had the primary set with a blue center and the secondary with a deep yellow one; and by bringing the second and third shadows alternately over the primary set, the blue center was changed to a yellow, and the yellow center to a blue one; and all the rings of both sets had their share in the transformation of colour and size.

If there are three sets of rings, and the primary set has a black center, the other two will have a white one; and when the lowest shadow is made to fall on the third set, the central colour of all the three sets will be suddenly changed, the first from black to white, the other two from white to black.

A full explanation of these changes, which at first sight

have the appearance of a magical delusion, will be found in a future article.

XVI. Of the Course of the Rays by which different Sets of Rings are seen.

In order to determine the course of the rays, which give the rings both by reflection and by transmission, we should begin from the place whence the light proceeds that forms them. In figure 1, we have a plano-convex lens laid upon three slips of glass, under which a metalline mirror is placed. An incident ray, 1, 2, is transmitted through the first and second surface of the lens, and comes to the point of contact at 3. Here the rings are formed, and are both reflected and transmitted: they are reflected from the upper surface of the first slip, and pass from 3 to the eye at 4: they are also transmitted through the first slip of glass from 3 to 5; and at 5 they are again both reflected and transmitted; reflected from 5 to 6, and transmitted from 5 to 7; from 7 they are reflected to 8, and transmitted to 9; and lastly they are reflected from 9 to 10. And thus four complete sets of rings will be seen at 4, 6, 8, and 10.

The most convenient way of viewing the same rings by transmission, is that which has been mentioned in the second article of this paper, when light is conveyed upwards by reflection. In figure 2, consisting of the same arrangement of glasses as before, the light by which the rings are to be seen comes either from 1, 2, or 3, or from all these places together, and being reflected at 4, 5, and 6, rises up by transmission to the point of contact at 7, where the rings are formed. Here they are both transmitted up to the eye at 8, and reflected down to 9; from 9 they are reflected up to 10 and transmitted down to 11; from 11 they are reflected to 12 and transmitted

to 13; and lastly, from 13 they are reflected to 14; so, that again four sets of rings will be seen at 8, 10, 12, and 14.

This being a theoretical way of conceiving how the rays of light may produce the effects, it will be required to show by experiments that this is the actual progress of the rays, and that all the sets of rings we perceive are really reflected or transmitted in the manner that has been pointed out; but as we have so many reflections and transmissions before us, it will be necessary to confine these expressions to one particular signification when they are applied to a set of rings.

When the center of the rings is seen at the point of contact, it is a primary set; and I call it reflected, when the rays which come to that point and form the rings undergo an immediate reflection. But I call it transmitted, when the rays after having formed the rings about the point of contact are immediately transmitted.

Thus in figure 3 and 4 the rays a b c, d e f, give reflected sets of rings; and the rays g h i, k l m, in figure 5 and 6, give transmitted sets.

In this denomination, no account is taken of the course of the rays before they come to a, d, g, k; nor of what becomes of them after their arrival at c, f, i, m: they may either come to those places or go from them by one or more transmissions or reflections, as the case may require; but our denomination will relate only to their course immediately after the formation of the rings between the glasses.

The secondary and other dependent sets will also be called reflected or transmitted by the same definition: and as a set of these rings formed originally by reflection may come to the eye by one or more subsequent transmissions; or being

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206

formed by transmission, may at last be seen by a reflection from some interposed surface, these subsequent transmissions or reflections are to be regarded only as convenient ways to get a good sight of them.

With this definition in view, and with the assistance of a principle which has already been proved by experiments, we may explain some very intricate phenomena; and the satisfactory manner of accounting for them will establish the truth of the theory relating to the course of rays that has been described.

The principle to which I refer is, that when the pressure is such as to give a black center to a set of rings seen by reflection, the center of the same set, with the same pressure of the glasses seen by transmission will be white.*

I have only mentioned black and white, but any other alternate colours, which the rings or centers of the two sets may assume, are included in the same predicament.

XVII. Why two connected Sets of Rings are of alternate Colours.

It has already been shown, when two sets of rings are seen, that their colours are alternate, and that the approach of the shadow of a penknife will cause a sudden change of them to take place. I shall now prove that this is a very obvious consequence of the course of rays that has been proposed. Let figure 7 and 8 represent the arrangement given in a preceding article, where a 16-inch lens was laid upon a looking-glass, and gave two sets of rings with centers of different colours: but let figure 7 give them by one set of rays, and figure 8 by another. Then, if the incident rays come in the direction which

^{*} See Article XI. of this Paper.

is represented in figure 7, it is evident that we see the primary set with its center at 2 by reflection, and the secondary one at 4 by transmission. Hence it follows, in consequence of the admitted principle, that if the contact is such as to give us the primary set with a black center, the secondary set must have a white one; and thus the reason of the alternation is explained.

But if the rays come as represented in figure 8, we see the primary set by transmission, and the secondary one by reflection; therefore, with an equal pressure of the glasses, the primary center must now be white, and the secondary one black.

Without being well acquainted with this double course of rays, we shall be liable to frequent mistakes in our estimation of the colour of the centers of two sets of rings; for by a certain position of the light, or of the eye, we may see one set by one light and the other set by the other.

XVIII. Of the Cause of the sudden Change of the Colours.

Having thus accounted for the alternation of the central colours, we may easily conceive that the interposition of the penknife must have an instantaneous effect upon them. When it stops the rays of figure 7, which will happen when its second shadow falls upon the primary set, the rings will then be seen by the rays 1, 2, 3, 4, and 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, of figure 8. When it stops the rays of figure 8, which must happen when the third shadow falls upon the primary set, we then see both sets by the rays 1, 2, 3, and 1, 2, 4, 5, of figure 7. When the penknife is quite removed both sets of rays will come to the point of contact, and in some respects interfere with each

208

other; but the strongest of the two, which is generally the direct light of figure 7, will prevail. This affords a complete explanation of all the observed phenomena: by the the rays of figure 7 the centers will be black and white; by those of figure 8 they will be white and black; and by both we shall not see the first set so well as when the third shadow being upon it, has taken away the rays of figure 8: indeed we can hardly see the secondary set at all, till the shadow of the penknife has covered either the rays of figure 7 or of figure 8.

As soon as we are a little practised in the management of the rays, by knowing their course, we may change the colour so gradually as to have half the center white while the other half shall still remain black; and the same may be done with green and orange, or blue and yellow centers. The rings of both sets will also participate in the gradual change; and thus what has been said of the course of rays in the 16th article will again be confirmed.

XIX. Of the Place where the different Sets of Rings are to be seen.

By an application of the same course of the rays, we may now also determine the situation of the place where the different sets of rings are seen: for according to what has been said in the foregoing article, the situation of the primary set should be between the lens and the surface of the looking-glass: and the place of the secondary one at the metalline coating of the lowest surface. To try whether this be actually as represented, let us substitute a metalline mirror with a slip of glass laid upon it in the room of the piece of looking-glass; and let there be interposed a short bit of wood, one-tenth of

an inch thick, between the slip of glass and the mirror, so as to keep up that end of the slip which is towards the light. This arrangement is represented in figure 9, where both sets of rays are delineated. Then if we interpose a narrow tapering strip of card, discoloured with japan ink, between the slip of glass and the mirror, so as to cover it at 7, we do not only still perceive the primary set, but see it better than before: which proves that being situated above the slip of glass the card below cannot cover it. If on the contrary we insert the strip of card far enough, that it may at the same time cover the mirror both at 4 and at 7, we shall lose the secondary set, which proves that its situation was on the face of the mirror.

When several sets of rings are to be perceived by the same eye-glass, and they are placed at different distances, a particular adjustment of it will be required for each set, in order to see it well defined. This will be very sensible when we attempt to see three or four sets, each of them situated lower than the preceding; for without a previous adjustment to the distance of the set intended to be viewed we shall be seldom successful; and this is therefore a corroborating proof of the situation that has been assigned to different sets of rings.

XX. Of the Connection between different Sets of Rings.

It will now be easy to explain in what manner different sets of rings are connected, and why they have been called primary and dependent. When the incident rays come to the point of contact and form a set of rings, I call it the primary one: when this is formed some of the same rays are continued by transmission or reflection, but modified so as to convey an image of the primary set with opposite colours forward

through any number of successive transmissions or reflections; whenever this image comes to the eye, a set of rings will again be seen, which is a dependent one. Many proofs of the dependency of second, third, and fourth sets of rings upon their primary one may be given; I shall only mention a few.

When two sets of rings are seen by a lens placed upon a looking-glass, the center of the secondary set will always remain in the same plane with the incident and reflected rays passing through the center of the primary one. If the point of contact, by tilting is changed, the secondary set will follow the motion of the primary set; and if the looking-glass is turned about, the secondary will be made to describe a circle upon that part of the looking-glass which surrounds the primary one as a center. If there is a defect in the center or in the rings of the primary set there will be exactly the same defect in the secondary one; and if the rays that cause the primary set are eclipsed, both sets will be lost together. If the colour of the primary one is changed, that of the secondary will also undergo its alternate change, and the same thing will hold good of all the dependent rings when three or four sets of them are seen that have the same primary one.

The dependency of all the sets on their primary one may also be perceived when we change the obliquity of the incident light; for the centers of the rings will recede from one another when that is increased and draw together when we lessen it, which may go so far that by an incidence nearly perpendicular we shall bring the dependent sets of rings almost under the primary one.

XXI. To account for the Appearance of several Sets of Rings with the same coloured Centers.

It has often happened that the colour of the centers of different sets was not what the theory of the alternation of the central colours would have induced me to expect: I have seen two, three, and even four sets of rings, all of which had a white center. We are however now sufficiently prepared to account for every appearance relating to the colour of rings and their centers.

Let an arrangement of glasses be as in figure 9. When this is laid down so as to receive an illumination of day light, which should not be strong, nor should it be very oblique, the reflection from the mirror will then exceed that from the surface of glass; therefore the primary set will be seen by the rays 6, 7, coming to the mirror at 7, and going through the point of contact in the direction 7, 2, 3, which proves it to be a set that is seen by transmission, and it will therefore have a white center. The rays 1, 2, 4, passing through the point of contact, will also form a transmitted set with a white center, which will be seen when the reflection from 4 to 5 conveys it to the eye. But these two sets have no connection with each other; and as primary sets are independent of all other sets, I have only to prove that this secondary set belongs not to the primary one which is seen, but to another invisible one. This may be done as follows.

Introduce the black strip of card that has been mentioned before, till it covers the mirror at 7; this will take away the strong reflection of light which overpowers the feeble illumination of the rays 1, 2, 3; and the real hitherto eclipsed pri-

mary set belonging to the secondary one with a white center, will instantly make its appearance with a black one. We may alternately withdraw and introduce again the strip of card, and the center of the primary set will be as often changed from one colour to its opposite; but the secondary set, not being dependent on the rays 6, 7, will not be in the least affected by the change.

If the contact should have been such as to give both sets with orange centers, the introduction of the strip of card will prove that the set which is primary to the other has really a green center.

Another way of destroying the illusion is to expose the same arrangement to a brighter light, and at the same time to increase the obliquity of the angle of incidence; this will give a sufficient reflection from the surface of the glass to be no longer subject to the former deceptive appearance; for now the center of the primary set will be black, as it ought to be.

XXII. Of the reflecting Surfaces.

The rays of light that form rings between glasses, must undergo certain modifications by some of the surfaces through which they pass, or from which they are reflected; and to find out the nature of these modifications, it will be necessary to examine which surfaces are efficient. As we see rings by reflection and also by transmission, I shall begin with the most simple, and show experimentally the situation of the surface that reflects, not only the primary, but also the secondary sets of rings.

Upon a slip of glass, the lowest surface of which was deprived of its polish by emery, I laid an object-glass of 21 feet focal length, and saw a very complete set of rings. I then put the same glass upon a plain metalline mirror, and saw likewise a set of them. They were consequently not reflected from the lowest surface of the subjacent glass or metal.

It will easily be understood, that were we to lay the same object glass upon a slip of glass emeried on both sides, or upon an unpolished metal, no rings would be seen. It is therefore neither from the first surface of the incumbent object-glass, nor from its lowest, that they are reflected; for if they could be formed without the modification of reflection from the upper surface of a subjacent glass or metal, they would still be seen when laid on rough surfaces; and consequently, the efficient reflecting surface, by which we see primary sets of rings, is that which is immediately under the point of contact.

To see a secondary set of rings by reflection, is only an inversion of the method of seeing a primary one. For instance, when a lens is laid upon a looking-glass, the course of the rays represented in figure 8, will show that the rays 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, by which a secondary set is seen, are reflected about the point of contact at 3, and that the lowest surface of the incumbent lens is therefore the efficient reflecting one; and thus it is proved, that in either case of seeing reflected rings, one of the surfaces that are joined at the point of contact contributes to their formation by a certain modification of reflection.

XXIII. Of the transmitting Surfaces

It would seem to be almost self-evident, that when a set of rings is seen by transmission, the light which occasions them must come through all the four surfaces of the two glasses which are employed; and yet it may be shown that this is not

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necessary. We may, for instance, convey light into the body of the subjacent glass through its first surface, and let it be reflected within the glass at a proper angle, so that it may come up through the point of contact, and reach the eye, having been transmitted through no more than three surfaces. To prove this I used a small box, blackened on the inside, and covered with a piece of black pasteboard, which had a hole of about half an inch in the middle. Over this hole I laid a slip of glass with a 56-inch lens upon it; and viewed a set of rings given by this arrangement very obliquely, that the reflection from the slip of glass might be copious. Then guarding the point of contact between the lens and the slip of glass from the direct incident light, I saw the rings, after the colour of their center had been changed, by means of an internal reflection from the lowest surface of the slip of glass; by which it rose up through the point of contact, and formed the primary set of rings, without having been transmitted through the lowest surface of the subjacent glass. The number of transmitted surfaces is therefore by this experiment reduced to three; but I shall soon have an opportunity of showing that so many are not required for the purpose of forming the rings.

XXIV. Of the Action of the first Surface.

We have already shown that two sets of rings may be seen by using a lens laid upon a slip of glass; in which case, therefore, whether we see the rings by reflection or by transmission, no more than four surfaces can be essential to their formation. In the following experiments for investigating the action of these surfaces I have preferred metalline reflection, when glass was not required, that the apparatus might be more simple. Upon a plain metalline mirror I laid a double convex lens, having a strong emery scratch on its uper surface. When I saw the rings through the scratch, they appeared to have a black mark across them. By tilting the lens, I brought the center of the rings upon the projection of the scratch, so that the incident light was obliged to come through the scratch to the rings, and the black mark was again visible upon them, but much stronger than before. In neither of the situations were the rings disfigured. The stronger mark was owing to the interception of the incident light, but when the rings had received their full illumination the mark was weaker, because in the latter case the rings themselves were probably complete, but in the former deficient.

I placed a lens that had a very scabrous polish on one side, but was highly polished on the other, upon a metalline mirror. The defective side being uppermost, I did not find that its scabrousness had any distorting effect upon the rings.

I splintered off the edge of a plain slip of glass; it broke as it usually does with a waving striated, curved slope coming to an edge. The splintered part was placed upon a convex metalline mirror of 2-inch focus, as in figure 10. The irregularity of the striated surface through which the incident ray 1, 2, was made to pass had very little effect upon the form of the rings; the striæ appearing only like fine dark lines, with hardly any visible distortion; but when, by tilting the returning ray, 2, 3, was also brought over the striated surface, the rings were much disfigured. This experiment therefore seems to prove that a very regular refraction of light by the first surface is not necessary; for though the rings were much disfigured when the returning light came through the

splintered defect, this is no more than what must happen to the appearance of every object which is seen through a distorting medium.

I laid the convex side of a plano-convex lens of 2,8-inch focus with a diameter of 1,5 upon a plain mirror, and when I saw a set of rings I tilted the lens so as to bring the point of contact to the very edge of the lens, both towards the light and from the light, which, on account of the large diameter of the lens, gave a great variety in the angle of incidence to the rays which formed the rings; but no difference in their size or appearance could be perceived. This seems to prove that no modification of the first surface in which the angle of incidence is concerned, such as refraction and dispersion, has any share in the production of the rings, and that it acts merely by the intromission of light; and though even this is not without being influenced by a change of the angle, it can only produce a small difference in the brightness of the rings.

A more forcible argument, that leads to the same conclusion, is as follows. Laying down three 54-inch double convex lenses, I placed upon the first the plain side of a plano-convex lens of $\frac{5}{8}$ inch focus; upon the second, a plain slip of glass; and upon the third, the plain side of a plano-concave lens also $\frac{5}{8}$ inch focus. I had before tried the same experiment with glasses of a greater focal length, but selected these to strengthen the argument. Then, as nothing could be more different than the refraction of the upper surfaces of these glasses, I examined the three sets of rings that were formed by these three combinations, and found them so perfectly alike that it was not possible to perceive any difference in their size and colour. This shows that the first surface of the incum-

bent glasses merely acts as an inlet to the rays that afterwards form the rings.

To confirm the idea that the mere admission of light would be sufficient, I used a slip of glass polished on one side but roughened with emery on the other; this being laid upon a 21-feet object-glass, I saw a set of rings through the rough surface; and though they appeared hazy, they were otherwise complete in figure and colour. The slip of glass when laid in the same manner upon the letters of a book made them appear equally hazy; so that the rings were probably as sharply formed as the letters.

Having now already great reason to believe that no modification, that can be given by the first surface to the incident rays of light, is essential to the formation of the rings, I made the following decisive experiment.

Upon a small piece of looking-glass I laid half a double convex lens of 16-inches focus, with the fracture exposed to the light, as represented in figure 11. Under the edge of the perfect part of the lens was put a small lump of wax, soft enough to allow a gentle pressure to bring the point of contact towards the fractured edge, and to keep it there. In this arrangement it has already been shown that there are two different ways of seeing two sets of rings: by the rays 1, 2, 3, we see a primary set; and by 1, 2, 4, 5, the secondary set belonging to it: by the rays 6, 7, 2, 3 we see a different primary set; and by 6, 7, 2, 4, 5, we see its secondary one. That this theory is well founded has already been proved; but if we should have a doubt remaining, the interposition of any small opaque object upon the looking-glass near the fracture will instantly stop the latter two sets of rings, and show

the alternate colours of the two sets that will then be seen by the rays 1, 2, 3, and 1, 2, 4, 5. Remove in the next place the stop from the looking-glass, and bring the second shadow of the penknife over the primary set, and there will then only remain the two sets of rings formed by incident rays which come from 6, and which have never passed through the upper surface of the lens. Now, as both sets of rings in this case are completely formed by rays transmitted upwards from the coated part of the looking-glass without passing through the first surface of the incumbent lens, the proof that the modifying power of that surface is not required to the formation of the rings is established.

It can hardly be supposed that the first surface of the lens should have any concern in the formation of the rings when the rays are reflected from the looking-glass towards the eye; but the same experiment, that has proved that this surface was not required to be used with incident rays, will show that we may do without it when they are on their return. We need only invert the fractured lens, as in figure 12, when either the rays 1, 2, 4, 5, or 6, 7, 2, 4, 5, will convey the image of the rings after their formation to the eye without passing through any part of the lens.

XXV. Of the Action of the second Surface.

As rings are formed when two glasses are laid upon each other, it is but reasonable to expect that the two surfaces at least which are placed together should have an immediate effect upon them, and so much the more, as it has been ascertained that the first surface assists only by permitting light to pass into the body of the glass. Some of the experiments

that have been instituted for examining the action of the first surface will equally serve for investigating that of the second.

The lens already used with a strong emery scratch being again placed on the mirror, but with the injured side downwards, I found that the rings, when brought under the scratch, were not distorted; they had only a black mark of the same shape as the scratch across them.

The lens with a scabrous side was also placed again upon the mirror, but with the highly polished side upwards. In this position the scabrousness of the lowest surface occasioned great irregularity among the rings, which were indented and broken wherever the little polished holes that make up a scabrous surface came near them; and if by gently lifting the lens a strong contact was prevented, the colours of the rings were likewise extremely disfigured and changed.

As we have now seen that a polished defect upon the second surface will affect the figure of the rings that are under them, it will remain to be determined whether such defects do really distort them by some modification they give to the rays of light in their passage through them, or whether they only represent the rings as deformed, because we see them through a distorted medium. For although the scabrousness did not sensibly affect the figure of the rings when it was on the first surface, we may suppose the little polished holes to have a much stronger effect in distorting the appearance of the rings when they are close to them. The following experiment will entirely clear up this point.

Over the middle of a 22-inch double convex lens I drew a strong line with a diamond, and gave it a polish afterwards that it might occasion an irregular refraction. This being:

prepared, I laid a slip of glass upon a plain metalline mirror, and placed the lens with the polished line downwards upon the slip of glass. This arrangement has been shown to give two sets of rings. When I examined the primary set, a strong disfiguring of the rings was visible; they had the appearance of having been forced asunder, or swelled out, so as to be much broader one way than another. The rings of the secondary set had exactly the same defects, which being strongly marked, could not be mistaken. The centers of the two sets, as usual, were of opposite colours, the first being black, the second white; and all those defects that were of one colour in the first set, were of the opposite colour in the second. When, by the usual method, I changed the colours of the centers of the rings, making that of the primary white and of the secondary black, the defects in both set were still exactly alike, and as before; except that they had also undergone the like transformation of colour, each having assumed its opposite. It remains now only to show that this experiment is decisive; for by the established course of the rays we saw the secondary set of rings when it had a white center by the transmitted rays marked 1, 2, 4, 5, in figure 13; and when it had a black one, by the reflected rays 6, 7, 2, 4, 5, of the same figure; but in neither of these two cases did the rays come through the defective part of the lens in their return to the eye.

This experiment proves more than we might at first be aware of; for it does not only establish that the second surface, when properly combined with a third surface, has a modifying power whereby it can interrupt the regularity of the rings, but also one whereby it contributes to their formation;

for, if it can give an irregular figure to them by transmitting its irregularly modified rays, it follows, that when these rays are regularly modified it will be the cause of the regular figure of the rings. Nay, it proves more; for if it modifies the figure of the rings by transmission, it modifies them no less by reflection; which may be seen by following the course of the rays 6, 7, 2, 4, 5; for as they do not pass through the defective place of the lens, they can only receive their modification from it by reflection. This opens a field of view to us that leads to the cause of all these intricate phænomena, of which in a second part of this paper I shall avail myself.

XXVI. Of the Action of the third Surface.

When a double convex lens is laid upon a plain metalline mirror that happens to have an emery scratch in its surface, we see it as a black line under the rings that are formed over them. This shows, that when a defect from want of polish has not a power to reflect light in an irregular manner, it cannot distort the rings that are formed upon it.

When I laid a good 21-feet object glass upon a plain slip that had some defects in its surface, the rings, in every part of the object glass that was brought over them, were always disfigured; which proves that a reflection from a defective third surface has a power of forming distorted rings, and that consequently a reflection from one that is perfect must have a power of forming rings without distortion, when it is combined with a proper second surface.

When the defective slip of glass, with a perfect lens upon it, was placed upon a metalline mirror, I saw the secondary set affected by distortions of the rings that were perfectly like MDCCCVII.

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222

those in the primary set; which proves that a polished defect in the third surface will give modifications to the rays that form the rings by transmission as well as by reflection.

XXVII. The Colour of the reflecting and transmitting Surfaces is of no consequence.

I laid seven 54-inch double convex lenses upon seven coloured pieces of plain glass. The colours of the glasses were those which are given by a prism, namely, violet, indigo, blue, green, yellow, orange, and red. The rings reflected from each of these glasses were in every respect alike; at least so far that I could have a black, a white, a red, an orange, a yellow, a green, or a blue center with every one of them, according to the degree of pressure I used. The lenses being very transparent, it may be admitted that the colours of the glasses seen through them would in some degree mix with the colours of the rings; but the action of the cause that gives the rings was not in the least affected by that circumstance.

I saw the rings also by direct transmission through all the coloured glasess except a dark red, which stopped so much light that I could not perceive them. The colour of the glasses, in this way, coming directly to the eye, gave a strong tinge to the centers of the rings, so that instead of a pure white I had a bluish-white, a greenish white, and so of the rest; but the form of the rings was no less perfect on that account.

XXVIII. Of the Action of the fourth Surface.

We have already seen that a set of rings may be completely formed by reflection from a third surface, without the introduction of a fourth; this, at all events, must prove that such a surface is not essential to the formation of rings, but as not only in direct transmission, but also when two sets of rings are to be seen, one of which may be formed by transmission this fourth surface must be introduced; I have ascertained by the following experiments how far the same has any share in the formation of rings.

In direct transmission, where the light comes from below, the fourth surface will take the part which is acted by the first, when rings are seen reflected from a metalline mirror. Its office therefore will be merely to afford an entrance to the rays of light into the substance of the subjacent glass; but when that light is admitted through the first, second, and third surfaces, the fourth takes the office of a reflector, and sends it back towards the point of contact. It will not be required to examine this reflection, since the light thus turned back again is, with respect to the point of contact, in the same situation in which it was after its entrance through the first surface when it proceeded to the same point; but when two sets of rings are to be formed by rays, either coming through this point directly towards the fourth surface, or by reflection from the same point towards the place where the secondary rings are to be seen, it will then be necessary to examine whether this surface has any share in their formation, or whether these rings, being already completely formed, are only reflected by it to the eye. With a view to this, I selected a certain polished defect in the surface of a piece of coachglass, and when a 26-inch lens was laid upon it, the rings of the set it produced were much distorted. The lens was then put upon a perfect slip of glass, and both together were laid

upon the defective place of the coach-glass. The rings of the secondary set reflected by it were nevertheless as perfect as those of the primary set. It occurred to me that these rings might possibly be reflected from the lowest surface of the perfect slip of glass, especially as by lifting it up from the coach-glass I still continued to see both sets. To clear up this point, therefore, I took away the slip, and turning the defective place of the coach-glass downwards, produced a set of perfect rings between the lens and the upper surface of the coach-glass, and brought it into such a situation that a secondary set must be reflected from the defective place of the lowest surface. This being obtained, the rings of this set were again as well formed and as free from distortions as those of the primary set.

Upon a plain metalline mirror I laid down two lenses, one a plano-convex, the other a plano concave, both of 2,9 inches focus, and having the plain side upwards. When two 21-inch double convex glasses were laid upon them, the secondary sets of both the combinations were of equal size, and perfectly like their primary sets; which proves that the refraction of the fourth surface is either not at all concerned, or at least has so little an effect in altering the size of the rings that it cannot be perceived.

The result of the foregoing experiments, relating to the action of the several surfaces, is,

- I. That only two of them are essential to the formation of concentric rings.
- II. That these two must be of a certain regular construction, and so as to form a central contact.
 - III. That the rays from one side or the other, must either

pass through the point of contact, or through one of the surfaces about the same point to the other to be reflected from it.

IV. And that in all these cases a set of rings will be formed, having their common center in the place where the two surfaces touch each other.

XXIX. Considerations that relate to the Cause of the formation of concentric Rings.

It is perfectly evident that the phænomena of concentric rings must have an adequate cause, either in the very nature or motion of the rays of light, or in the modifications that are given to them by the two essential surfaces that act upon them at the time of the formation of the rings.

This seems to reduce the cause we are looking for to an alternative that may be determined; for if it can be shown that a disposition of the rays of light to be alternately reflected and transmitted cannot account for the phænomena which this hypothesis is to explain, a proposition of accounting for them by modifications that may be proved, even on the very principles of Sir I. NEWTON to have an existence, will find a ready admittance. I propose, therefore, now to give some arguments, which will remove an obstacle to the investigation of the real cause of the formation of the concentric rings; for after the very plausible supposition of the alternate fits, which agrees so wonderfully well with a number of facts that have been related, it will hardly be attempted, if these should be set aside, to ascribe some other inherent property to the rays of light, whereby we might account for them; and thus we shall be at liberty to turn our thoughts

to a cause that may be found in the modifications arising from the action of the surfaces which have been proved to be the only essential ones in the formation of rings.

XXX. Concentric Rings cannot be formed by an alternate Reflection and Transmission of the Rays of Light.

One of the most simple methods of obtaining a set of concentric rings is to lay a convex lens on a plain metalline mirror; but in this case we can have no transmission of rays, and therefore we cannot have an alternate reflection and transmission of them. If to get over this objection it should be said that, instead of transmission, we ought to substitute absorption; since those rays which in glass would have been transmitted will be absorbed by the metal, we may admit the elusion; it ought however to have been made a part of the hypothesis.

XXXI. Alternate Fits of easy Reflection and easy Transmission, if they exist, do not exert themselves according to various Thicknesses of thin Plates of Air.

In the following experiment, I placed a plain well polished piece of glass 5,6 inches long, and 2,3 thick, upon a plain metalline mirror of the same length with the glass; and in order to keep the mirror and glass at a distance from each other, I laid between them, at one end, a narrow strip of such paper as we commonly put between prints. The thickness of that which I used was the 640th part of an inch; for 128 folds of them laid together would hardly make up two-tenths. Upon the glass I put a 39-inch double convex lens; and having

exposed this combination to a proper light, I saw two complete sets of coloured rings.

In this arrangement, the rays which convey the secondary set of rings to the eye must pass through a thin wedge of air, and if these rays are endowed with permanent fits of easy reflection, and easy transmission, or absorption, their exertion, according to Sir I. NEWTON, should be repeated at every different thickness of the plate of air, which amounts to the 188952 part of an inch, of which he says "Hæc est erassitudo aeris in primo annulo obscuro radiis ad perpendiculum incidentibus exibito, qua parte is annulus obscurissimus est." The length of the thin wedge of air, reckoned from the line of contact, to the beginning of the interposed strip of paper, is 5,2 inches, from which we calculate that it will have the above mentioned thickness at $\frac{1}{27}$ of an inch from the contact; and therefore at $\frac{1}{54}$, $\frac{3}{54}$, $\frac{5}{54}$, $\frac{7}{54}$, $\frac{9}{54}$, $\frac{1}{54}$, &c. we shall have the thickness of air between the mirror and glass, equal to 178000, $\frac{3}{178000}$, $\frac{5}{178000}$, $\frac{7}{178000}$, &c. of which the same author says that they give " crassitudines Aeris in omnibus Annulis lucidis, qua parte illi lucidissimi sunt." Hence it follows that, according to the above hypothesis, the rings of the secondary set which extended over a space of ,14 of an inch, should suffer more than seven interruptions of shape and colour in the direction of the wedge of air.

In order to ascertain whether such an effect had any existence, I viewed the secondary set of rings upon every part of the glass-plate, by moving the convex lens from one end of it gradually to the other; and my attention being particularly directed to the 3d, 4th, and 5th rings, which were extremely

228

distinct, I saw them retain their shape and colour all the time without the smallest alteration.

The same experiment was repeated with a piece of plain glass instead of the metalline mirror, in order to give room for the fits of easy transmission, if they existed, to exert themselves; but the result was still the same; and the constancy of the brightness and colours of the rings of the secondary set, plainly proved that the rays of light were not affected by the thickness of the plate of air through which they passed.

XXXII. Alternate Fits of easy Reflection and easy Transmission, if they exist, do not exert themselves according to various Thicknesses of thin Plates of Glass.

I selected a well polished plate of coach glass 17 inches long, and about 9 broad. Its thickness at one end was 33, and at the other 31 two-hundredths of an inch; so that in its whole length it differed $\frac{1}{100}$ of an inch in thickeness. By measuring many other parts of the plate I found that it was very regularly tapering from one end to the other. This plate, with a double convex lens of 55 inches laid upon it, being placed upon a small metalline mirror, and properly exposed to the light, gave me the usual two sets of rings. In the secondary set, which was the object of my attention, I counted twelve rings, and estimated the central space between them to be about $1\frac{1}{3}$ times as broad as the space taken up by the 12 rings on either side; the whole of the space taken up may therefore be reckoned equal to the breadth of 40 rings of a mean size: for the 12 rings, as usual, were gradually contracted in breadth as they receded from the center, and,

by a measure of the whole space thus taken up, I found that the breadth of a ring of a mean size was about the 308th part of an inch.

Now, according to Sir I. Newton's calculation of the action of the fits of easy reflection and easy transmission in thick glass plates, an alternation from a reflecting to a transmitting fit requires a difference of $\frac{1}{137545}$ part of an inch in thickness;* and by calculation this difference took place in the glass plate that was used at every 80th part of an inch of its whole length; the 12 rings, as well as the central colour of the secondary set, should consequently have been broken by the exertion of the fits at every 80th part of an inch; and from the space over which these rings extended, which was about 13 inch, we find that there must have been more than ten such interruptions or breaks in a set of which the 308th part was plainly to be distinguished. But when I drew the glass plate gently over the small mirror, keeping the secondary set of rings in view, I found their shape and colour always completely well formed.

This experiment was also repeated with a small plain glass instead of the metalline mirror put under the large plate. In this manner it still gave the same result, with no other difference but that only six rings could be distinctly seen in the secondary set, on account of the inferior reflection of the subjacent glass.

* Newton's Optics, p. 277.

XXXIII. Coloured Rings may be completely formed without the Assistance of any thin or thick Plates, either of Glass or of Air.

The experiment I am now to relate was at first intended to be reserved for the second part of this paper, because it properly belongs to the subject of the flection of the rays of light, which is not at present under consideration; but as it particularly opposes the admission of alternate fits of easy reflection and easy transmission of these rays in their passage through plates of air or glass, by proving that their assistance in the formation of rings is not required, and also throws light upon a subject that has at different times been considered by some of our most acute experimentalists, I have used it at present, though only in one of the various arrangements, in which I shall have occasion to recur to it hereafter.

Sir I. Newton placed a concave glass mirror at double its focal length from a chart, and observed that the reflection of a beam of light admitted into a dark room, when thrown upon this mirror, gave "four or five concentric irises or rings of colours like "rainbows."* He accounts for them by alternate fits of easy reflection and easy transmission exerted in their passage through the glass-plate of the concave mirror.

The Duke De CHAULNES concluded from his own experiments of the same phenomena, "that these coloured rings depended upon "the first surface of the mirror, and that the "second surface, or that which reflects them after they had "passed the first, only served to collect them and throw them

^{*} NEWTON'S Optics, p. 265.

[†] Ibid, p. 277.

" upon the pasteboard, in a quantity sufficient to make them "visible."*

Mr. Brougham, after having considered what the two authors I have mentioned had done, says, "that upon the whole "there appears every reason to believe that the rings are "formed by the first surface out of the light which, after re-"flection from the second surface, is scattered, and passes on "to the chart."

My own experiment is as follows. I placed a highly polished 7 feet mirror, but of metal instead of glass, that I might not have two surfaces, at the distance of 14 feet from a white screen, and through a hole in the middle of it one-tenth of an inch in diameter I admitted a beam of the sun into my dark room, directed so as to fall perpendicularly on the mirror. In this arrangement the whole screen remained perfectly free from light, because the focus of all the rays which came to the mirror was by reflection thrown back into the hole through which they entered. When all was duly prepared, I made an assistant strew some hair-powder with a puff into the beam of light, while I kept my attention fixed upon the screen. As soon as the hair-powder reached the beam of light the screen was suddenly covered with the most beautiful arrangement of concentric circles displaying all the brilliant colours of the rainbow. A great variety in the size of the rings was obtained by making the assistant strew the powder into the beam at a greater distance from the mirror; for the rings contract by an increase of the distance, and dilate on a nearer approach of the powder.

^{*} PRIESTLEY'S History, &c. on the Colours of thin Plates, p. 515.

[†] Phil. Trans. for 1796, p. 216.

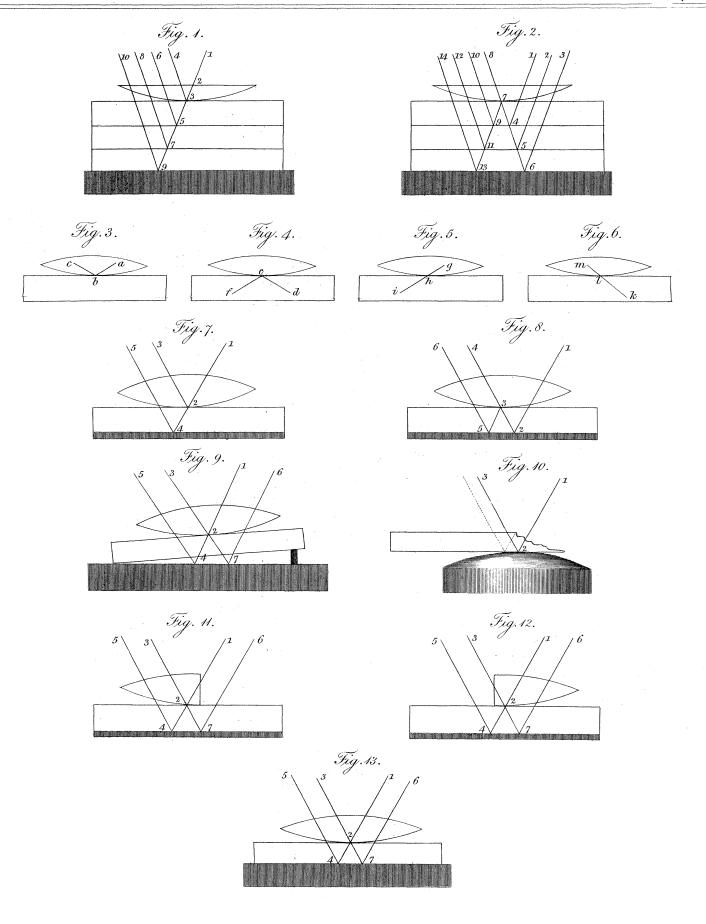
This experiment is so simple, and points out the general causes of the rings which are here produced in so plain a manner, that we may confidently say they arise from the flection of the rays of light on the particles of the floating powder, modified by the curvature of the reflecting surface of the mirror.

Here we have no interposed plate of glass of a given thickness between one surface and another, that might produce the colours by reflecting some rays of light and transmitting others; and if we were inclined to look upon the distance of the particles of the floating powder from the mirror as plates of air, it would not be possible to assign any certain thickness to them, since these particles may be spread in the beam of light over a considerable space, and perhaps none of them will be exactly at the same distance from the mirror.

I shall not enter into a further analysis of this experiment, as the only purpose for which it is given in this place is to show that the principle of thin or thick plates, either of air or glass, on which the rays might alternately exert their fits of easy reflection and easy transmission, must be given up, and that the fits themselves of course cannot be shown to have any existence.

XXXIV. Conclusion.

It will hardly be necessary to say, that all the theory relating to the size of the parts of natural bodies and their interstices, which Sir I. Newton has founded upon the existence of fits of easy reflection and easy transmission, exerted differently, according to the different thickness of the thin plates of which he supposes the parts of natural bodies to consist, will remain unsupported; for if the above mentioned fits have no existence,



the whole foundation on which the theory of the size of such parts is placed, will be taken away, and we shall consequently have to look out for a more firm basis on which a similar edifice may be placed. That there is such a one we cannot doubt, and what I have already said will lead us to look for it in the modifying power which the two surfaces, that have been proved to be essential to the formation of rings, exert upon the rays of light. The Second Part of this Paper, therefore, will enter into an examination of the various modifications that light receives in its approach to, entrance into, or passage by, differently disposed surfaces or bodies; in order to discover, if possible, which of them may be the immediate cause of the coloured rings that are formed between glasses.