

Energy and Empire
A biographical study of Lord Kelvin





Lord Kelvin caricatured by Vanity Fair Album in 1897. Classing him as one of its 'Statesmen', Vanity Fair published the accompanying eulogy of the seventy-two-year-old peer.



LORD KELVIN

His father was Professor of Mathematics at Glasgow. Himself was born in Belfast seventy-two years ago, and educated at Glasgow University and at St Peter's, Cambridge; of which College, after making himself Second Wrangler and Smith's Prizeman, he was made a Fellow. Unlike a Scotchman, he presently returned to Glasgow - as Professor of Natural Philosophy; and since then he has invented so much and, despite his mathematical knowledge, has done so much good, that his name - which is William Thomson - is known not only throughout the civilised world but also on every sea. For when he was a mere knight he invented Sir William Thomson's mariner's compass as well as a navigational sounding machine, that is, unhappily, less well known. He has also done much electrical service at sea: as engineer for various Atlantic cables, as inventor of the mirrorgalvanometer and siphon recorder, and much else that is not only scientific but useful. He is so good a man, indeed, that four years ago he was ennobled as Baron Kelvin of Largs; yet he is still full of wisdom, for his Peerage has not spoiled him.

He has been President of the Royal Society once, and of the Royal Society of Edinburgh three times. He has been honoured by nine universities—from Oxford to Bologna; he is the modest wearer of German, Belgian, French, and Italian Orders; and he has been twice married. He knows all there is to know about Heat, all that is yet known about Magnetism, and all that he can find out about Electricity. He is a very great, honest, and humble Scientist who has written much and done more.

With all his greatness, he remains a very modest man of very charming manner.

[Vanity Fair Album (1897)]



Energy and Empire

A biographical study of Lord Kelvin

Crosbie Smith

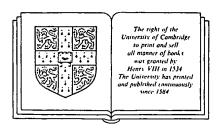
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and

M. Norton Wise Professor, Department of History, University of California, Los Angeles

Any one may commence the writing of a book, but what may be its extent, or the time of its completion, no one can tell . . .

Dr James to William Thomson, 9th April, 1843.



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Contents

List of illustrations	
Preface	
Footnote abbreviations	xxvi
I The making of the natural philosopher	
 1 From the ashes of revolution Ireland in rebellion: 1798 The Battle of Ballynahinch and a dissenter's education fixed the liberal values of James Thomson. The Belfast Academical Institution: 1814–32 	3 4 9
While professor of mathematics at this radical, latitudinarian institution, James Thomson developed his views on progressive, practical, democratic education.	
2 Clydeside	20
Glasgow and the Clyde Between 1800 and 1840 Glasgow changed from a commercial town to an industrial city, where modernizing entrepreneurs and progressive university professors met in the Glasgow Philosophical Society.	21
The University of Glasgow Only gradually did the forces of change, symbolized by new regius	25
professorships, overcome the conservative College oligarchy. The new mathematics professor Dr Thomson brought with him from Belfast in 1832 his reform programme	32
for mathematics education. John Pringle Nichol: the education of the people As a brilliant astronomy lecturer, latitudinarian radical, and close friend of the Thomsons, Nichol added excitement and daring to the whig values of the	37
family. Dr James Thomson: 'latitudinarian' and university reformer Dr Thomson led the movement of the whig faction to abolish the 'tests' in the 1840s.	41
Dr Thomson's family Raised and educated by their father, the Thomson children made his values and goals their own.	49
3 A Cambridge undergraduate Of a liberal education	56 58

vii



At Cambridge, 'liberal education' did not carry the democratic, practical, and

viii Contents

	professional emphasis of Glasgow liberalism. Father and son Economy in all things, avoidance of waste and dissipation, epitomize the moral and social virtues that Dr Thomson constantly stressed. Towards graduation	68 76
1	William concluded his Cambridge training as winner of the Silver Sculls, Second Wrangler, and First Smith's Prizeman.	02
4	The changing tradition of natural philosophy The laws of nature Scottish tradition in natural philosophy emphasized God's active agency in	83 84
	nature and the intimate relation of knowledge and power. Politics and progression A changing context for both natural and social philosophy in the 1830s	89
	demanded a new accommodation between liberal ideology and natural law. Politics and pedagogy: the campaign for succession William Thomson's election to the chair of natural philosophy marked a major victory for the whig reformers of Glasgow College.	99
5	Professor William Thomson The practice of natural philosophy The new professor treated precision measurement and mathematical	117 120
	expression as the refined instruments of a practical art. Early years of the physical laboratory The first physical research labratory in a British university would serve	128
	simultaneously the needs of natural philosophy and of industrial development. Human fragility From 1847 to 1852 William Thomson's secure family life was wracked by death, religious turmoil, emigration, unrequited love, and a problematic marriage.	135
	II The transformation of classical physics	
6	The language of mathematical physics Reformers of the first generation Mathematical reformers of Dr Thomson's generation originally idealized Lagrange's algebraic analysis and Laplace's static solar system as symbols of progress and order in systems governed by natural law, both physical and political.	149 151
	Opposing styles and a skewed reception During the 1830s the reformers recaptured traditional British emphases on geometrical analysis, non-hypothetical theory, and practicality, which they recognized in the methods of Fourier and Fresnel.	155
	Whig mathematicians of the second generation At Cambridge William Thomson joined a younger group of reformers who	168



	Contents	ix
	created a new mathematics – the operational calculus – and a newly professionalized consciousness. Progression and kinematics Two concerns closely related to the operational calculus circulated in the Cambridge network: a progressionist view of the earth and solar system; and a separation of the geometry of physical motions from their causes, or kinematics from dynamics.	192
7	The kinematics of field theory and the nature of electricity Electrostatics: the analogy to heat flow Geometrical analogy allowed mathematical theorems about electrostatic force to be proved from physical reasoning about the motion of heat.	203 203
	Mathematical theorist meets experimental theorist: Thomson and Faraday Disparagement turned to admiration as mathematical power bowed to physical insight.	212
	Inductive capacity and the quantity—intensity distinction Thomson's attempt to reconcile contiguous action with action at a distance through the analogy with heat flow reveals enduring differences between Thomson's and Faraday's (also Maxwell's) views on the nature of electricity and propagated action.	219
	The latitudinarian theorist and the practical imperative The kinematics of field theory exhibits methodological and ideological commitments typical of the Thomson family in its Glasgow context.	228
8	The dynamics of field theory: work, ponderomotive force, and extremum conditions What makes an electrified body move? From 1843 Thomson developed the idea that the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is an extremulation of the research line size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is an extremulation of the research line size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is an extremulation of the research line size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is an extremulation of the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size as least the ponderomotive force on an electrified body is a size	237 238
	electrified body is an action of the surrounding air—ether. Mechanical effect, mathematically and practically: the steam engine as metaphor Conceiving an electrostatic system as an engine made capacity for work its defining feature, radically transforming ideas of ponderomotive force, absolute measurement, and force distribution.	240
	Field theory proper Magneto-optic rotation, understood by mathematical analogy with the straining of an elastic solid, and diamagnetism, understood through conduction of lines of force, made a reality of fields containing work.	257
	The hydrodynamic analogy The dynamics of fields, as a dynamics of extremum conditions, emerged from interaction with Stokes over a fluid-flow analogy to magnetism.	263
	Practical considerations and 'positive' theory Magnetic field theory exhibits the ideal of unity of theory and practice that would dominate Thomson's career.	276
9	Thermodynamics: the years of uncertainty Prelude to 'the dynamical theory of heat': the Thomson brothers	282 285

Long-time puzzlement about losses of available work in engines and a



x Contents

	sophisticated elaboration of Carnot's theory of the motive power of heat preceded William's and James's reception of Joule's researches. The Joule-Thomson debates: 1847-50 Conservation posed no problem; interconversion did, because it violated the directionality of natural processes.	302
10	Thermodynamics: the years of resolution The beginnings of thermodynamics: Rankine, Clausius, and Thomson Tentative acceptance of the dynamical nature of heat, and of the	317 318
	interconvertibility of heat and work, depended on interaction with Rankine. The establishment of classical thermodynamics Full acceptance of interconvertibility required a new understanding of	327
	directionality through a religiously grounded dissipation axiom. The dynamical theory of heat	333
	The assertion that if heat is not matter it must be motion reveals the character of Thomson's mechanical philosophy and recasts the problem of heat as the problem of molecular force.	
	The watershed: molecular energy physics The dynamical theory of heat brought with it a new programme of unified physical theory based on energy relations.	341
11	T & T' or Treatise on Natural Philosophy The collaboration	348 349
	In five impassioned years Thomson (T) and Tait (T') produced a <i>Principia</i> to replace Newton's, based on energy not force, continuum mechanics not hard atoms, and practical abstractions not microscopic models.	
	Kinematics Geometry of motion and practical mechanisms for generating motion form a	360
	unified subject in the kinematics of T & T'. The background to dynamics Little agreement existed in mid-century on the fundamental concepts and	372
	laws of dynamics, especially concerning the relation of statics to dynamics. Revisionist dynamics – work, energy, and Newton's laws Reading 'action' and 'reaction' as rates of doing work, T & T' reinterpreted	380
	Newton's 3rd law as conservation of energy and attempted to derive all of dynamics from it.	200
	Extremum principles Energy-based, as opposed to force-based, dynamics obtained a rigorous foundation through the principle of least action and other extremum conditions.	390
12	The hydrodynamics of matter General relations of ether and matter	396 397
	By the early 1850s Thomson was seeking a unified theory of air—ether, or 'aer', which would allow a continuous transition between molecules of matter and ether and between waves of sound and light.	



	Contents	хi
	Magnetic rotations The theory centred on the rotational character of magnetism and on the consequent probability that molecules consisted of electrical 'fluid' in rotational motion, or vortices.	402
	Engineering and economy The vortices had a powerful practical foundation in James Thomson's vortex turbines and vortex pumps.	412
	Vortex atoms From 1867, drawing on Helmholtz's mathematical work and Tait's experimental demonstrations, Thomson turned his full powers to vortex atoms.	417
	Gravity	425
	The vortex atoms suggested a revival of Le Sage's kinetic theory of gravity. Kinetic theory of gases	427
	The atoms seemed ideal for simple thermodynamic systems. Extrema and dissipation: the problem of stability If vortex motion were quasi-stable it might meet simultaneously the	431
	requirements of atomic permanence and of universal dissipation of energy, but stability remained conjectural.	
	Waves in the vortex ether and a restructured methodology To deal with refractive dispersion of light, Thomson separated off the analysis of waves in the ether, as a 'molar' problem, from the effects of matter on the waves, a 'molecular' problem. This molar-molecular distinction marked the end of 'aer'.	438
3	Telegraph signals and light waves: Thomson versus Maxwell Submarine telegraph theory	445 446
	Thomson's 1854 telegraph theory already suggests why he would later reject Maxwell's electromagnetic theory of light.	
	Measurements, units, and velocity Electrical measurements, interpreted on a fluid theory of electricity, suggested that telegraph signals in air lines propagated as longitudinal pressure waves travelling at a velocity near that of light.	454
	Longitudinal waves and light The practical success of his telegraph theory provided Thomson's ground, in his 1884 'Baltimore Lectures', for rejecting Maxwell's theory of light waves and for defending an elastic-solid theory.	458
	The methodology of 'look and see' The lectures articulate a methodology which insists on direct sensory perception as the guarantor of validity of theoretical entities.	463
	Confrontation with Maxwell's ghost Following Hertz's experiments, widely thought to have demonstrated electromagnetic waves, Thomson launched a direct attack on Maxwell's theory.	471
	Ether, electricity, and ponderable matter By 1890 he had attained considerable success with an alternative theory of a	482



••	C
X11	Contents

	Mephistopheles The decadent forces of mathematical nihilism, in Thomson's view, ultimately won out over his own practical realism.	488
	III The economy of nature: the great storehouse of creation	
14	The irreversible cosmos The universal dissipation of energy Thomson's belief in the principle expressed a deep theological commitment. Sources of energy: the nature of the sun's heat In 1854 he concluded that neither primitive heat nor chemical action could supply the sun's energy.	497 497 502
	The gravitation theory of the sun's heat He adopted instead a theory of a gravitationally driven meteoric vortex, strikingly similar to James's vortex turbine.	508
	The origins of the sun and solar system Gravitation, in fact, might have been the origin of all motion and of all condensed bodies in the universe, and would ultimately bring the end of the solar system.	518
15	The age of the sun controversies On the age of the sun's heat Switching by 1862 to a contraction theory of the sun's heat, Thomson estimated its age as probably less than 100 million years, severely constraining Darwin's theory of evolution.	524 526
	Thomson's cosmological vision He now reiterated his view of universal progression from an ordered beginning in potential energy to a chaotic end in kinetic energy uniformly distributed, and thus uniformly hot.	533
	The progress of solar dynamics Thomson's developing theory of the sun's heat, grounded in an engineering view of its machinery, yielded a reduced age estimate of less than 20 million years.	538
	Lord Kelvin and the age of the sun Controversy in the 1890s and even the discovery of radioactivity did not dissuade the new peer from his earlier estimate of the age of the sun's heat.	544
16	The secular cooling of the earth William Hopkins and the doctrine of central heat The progressionist doctrine of terrestrial cooling involved a vigorous research programme in defence of the earth's solidity.	552 553
	Thomson, Helmholtz, and the importance of terrestrial temperatures Thermal measurements in the earth's surface indicated a relatively short time period since the earth had been molten.	559



	Contents	xiii
	The secular cooling of earth In 1862 Thomson estimated the cooling period at between 20 and 400 million	561
	years The rigidity of earth On the basis of rotational phenomena he argued that the earth must be far more rigid than glass, and thus essentially solid and cooling by conduction.	573
17	The age of the earth controversies On geological and biological time Thomson's attack on uniformitarian geology, and his controversy with	579 580
	Huxley, heated up in the late 1860s. On the harmony of geology and physics Between 1870 and 1890 many geologists learned to live with Thomson's 100 million year age estimate, but rejected more radical reductions.	590
	The younger Darwin: a critique of tidal friction and secular cooling George Darwin offered telling critiques of the details of Thomson's theorizing, while agreeing with him in general.	597
	Lord Kelvin and the age of the earth: 1892-1907 As for the sun, the discovery of radioactivity did not alter Kelvin's view on the age of the earth.	602
18	The habitation of earth Mind over matter The 2nd law of thermodynamics highlighted the status of free will standing between laws and miracles.	612 612
	The demon Two factors, infinity and instability, removed the 2nd law, and physical dynamics generally, from the deterministic realm of abstract dynamics, allowing for the operation of mind on matter without violation of natural law.	621
	The origin and evolution of life on earth The strict distinction of mind from matter, which informed Thomson's view of free will, also lay behind his critique of Darwinian evolution.	633
	IV Energy, economy, and Empire: the relief of Man's estate	
19	The telegraphic art On the harmony of theory and practice in engineering: principles of economy The Glasgow Philosophical Society, in its membership and its programme, epitomized the mutual support of science and industry that accompanied the second industrial revolution.	649 652
	On the discord of theory and practice in telegraph engineering The Atlantic telegraph project made scientific engineering an economic necessity.	661
	The making of Sir William Thomson	667



xiv Contents

He contributed essential instruments, precision measurements, testing, and theory to the success of the cable enterprise.

20	Measurement and marketing: the economics of electricity Electrical units of measurement: the absolute system The interests of industry and science merged in a system of measurement based on units of work.	684 684
	Partnerships and patents Thomson and his partners prospered along with telegraphic industry through	698
	skilful marketing of patented instruments. Power and light: the economics of electricity Through knighthood and peerage he stood as a leading spokesman for science-based industry.	712
٠.	·	702
21	Rule, Britannia: the art of navigation	723 727
	The shipyard of Empire In Glasgow, centre of modern iron shipbuilding for Britain and the world, Thomson would perfect his navigational instruments.	121
	The Lalla Rookh	733
	Symbol of adventure, wealth, social advancement, and a new marriage, the schooner-yacht served from 1870 as a summer home and testing ground for	
	instruments. Sounding the deep sea	740
	Thomson quickly developed a prototype sounding machine using pianoforte wire.	740
	The navigational sounding machine	748
	A commercial version found an appreciative audience.	
22	The magnetic compass	754
	Archibald Smith and the magnetism of ships	755
	From the 1840s Thomson had interacted with Smith concerning the magnetism of iron ships and its effect on compasses.	
	The practical problems of compass correction	763
	Controversy and distrust surrounded the subject in the 1850s.	
	Sir William Thomson's patent compass	770
	From 1871 Thomson worked out ideal theoretical conditions for a magnetic compass and practical techniques for realizing them.	
	The commercial compass and sounding machine	776
	By 1880 his patented instruments had become the standard of the commercial fleet of the Empire.	
	Sir William Thomson and the British Admiralty	786
	His conquest of the Queen's fighting ships required a more extended campaign.	
23	Baron Kelvin of Largs	799
	The first 'scientific' peer	802



Contents	xv
Liberal Unionist politics, along with his contributions to knowledge, wealt and power, raised Sir William to the peerage in 1892. 'No time spent in idleness' Literally until his death, Kelvin maintained his full activity as the Lord British Science.	811
Bibliography	815
Index	838



Illustrations

Lord Kelvin caricatured by Vanity Fair Album	Frontispiece
Glasgow High Street	26
Glasgow College, inner quadrangle looking west	29
Glasgow College, inner quadrangle looking north-west	31
Dr James Thomson	42
The Firth of Clyde	51
James Thomson, aged 16	52
William Thomson, aged 16	54
St Peter's College, Cambridge	74
St Peter's College graduates, 1852	81
Archibald Smith	110
William Thomson, aged 22	115
The natural philosophy classroom	121
The physical laboratory	133
Sabina Smith	143
Professor William Thomson, aged 28	145
Attracted disc electrometer	251
Professor James Thomson	284
Model of Stirling hot-air engine	295
J.P. Joule	303
W.J.M. Rankine	319
P.G. Tait	350
Vortex turbine	413
Sir William Thomson, aged 64	476
G.G. Stokes	507
Hermann Helmholtz	527
Loading the Atlantic cable, 1858	651
Pulling a cable ashore in the Persian Gulf	653
Receiving telegraph messages on Valencia Island	671
Mirror-galvanometer	673
Specimens of Atlantic cable	679
The Great Eastern (or Leviathan)	680
The breaking of the 1865 Atlantic cable	681
Preparing to grapple the lost cable	682

xvi



Illustrations	xvii
The Great Eastern's return	683
Divided ring electrometer	695
Quadrant electrometer	696
Electrostatic voltmeter	697
Siphon recorder for telegraph signals	709
The Lalla Rookh	735
Sounding machine	745
Archibald Smith in the service of the Admiralty	764
Magnetic compass and binnacle	775
The White Star liner Oceanic	778
HMS Minotaur	789
Kelvin and his sister Elizabeth	800
Kelvin's last lecture, 1899	811
Lord and Lady Kelvin in formal attire	813
The new University of Glasgow, 1870	814



Preface

Addressing the British Association for the Advancement of Science from the presidential chair in 1871, Sir William Thomson expressed his enthusiasm for intellectual capitalism:

Scientific wealth tends to accumulation according to the law of compound interest. Every addition to knowledge of properties of matter supplies the naturalist with new instrumental means for discovering and interpreting phenomena of nature, which in their turn afford foundations for fresh generalizations, bringing gains of permanent value into the great storehouse of [natural] philosophy.¹

Literally as well as metaphorically, scientific knowledge meant wealth for Thomson. In his pioneering Glasgow physical laboratory he had united the pursuit of scientific and industrial wealth through precision measurements on the properties of matter, measurements which he judged equally fundamental to science-based industry and to science itself.

Twentieth-century commentators have not been generally sympathetic to William Thomson's industrial vision, which is so closely associated with his elevation to Lord Kelvin. In his Royal Society obituary notice, the Lucasian professor of mathematics at Cambridge, Sir Joseph Larmor, regarded Kelvin's commercial interests as distractions from the proper intellectual concerns of a natural philosopher, most notably the constitution of matter and ether.² Larmor's remarks reflect a traditional Oxbridge disdain for economic man, a disdain also manifest in the character of much twentieth-century British physics, as dominated by the Cavendish Laboratory in Cambridge.

An even less sympathetic, but better known, commentary on the Kelvin style is that of Pierre Duhem. Duhem found the evil of the industrial spirit pervading textbooks of British physics: 'It has penetrated everywhere,' he said, 'propagated by the hatreds and prejudices of the multitude of people who confuse science with industry, who, seeing the dusty, smoky, and smelly automobile, regard it as the triumphal chariot of the human spirit.' Sir William Thomson's Baltimore Lectures supplied Duhem with numerous illustrations of the factory mentality of British physics, epitomized, as he saw it, in the use of mechanical models.³

¹ PL, 2, 175-6. ² JL, iii, liv.

³ Pierre Duhem, The aim and structure of physical theory, P.P. Wiener (ed.) (New York, 1962), pp. 71, 93. Originally published in 1906 from articles of 1904–5.



xx Preface

J.G. Crowther also saw in Kelvin's commercial interests the contamination of his science, which he severely criticized in comparison to the purer pursuits of James Clerk Maxwell:

He [Kelvin] was the leading symbol of the scientific ideology of the British nineteenth-century governing class . . . He was an intellectual colossus who saw one-half of the aspects of material nature with unsurpassed clarity and power, but was blind to the other half. His great personality was an expression, in the realm of ideas, of the power and of the blindness of capitalism.⁴

Crowther maintained that physical nature is there to be discovered, finally and objectively, but that Kelvin's capitalist blinkers prevented him from grasping its deeper truths, despite his great scientific powers.

These three commentators approached Lord Kelvin's work from very different cultural and social perspectives: Larmor as elite Cambridge mathematician, heir to Isaac Newton, and staunch upholder of the political unity of Britain and Empire; Duhem as conservative French Catholic and apologetic defender of orthodox Christianity; Crowther as early twentieth-century Marxist, hostile to nineteenth-century capitalism but committed to knowledge as power. Nevertheless, in their common recognition of Kelvin's industrial orientation, his critics offered perceptive insights into the character of his activities.

To recognize that William Thomson related his physics to a vision of industry and empire, however, does not engage the question of how his science expressed that vision. In this biographical study our primary object has been not simply to recount the ideology and activities of a Victorian scientific entrepreneur, but rather to analyze the practices through which that ideology was realized in Thomson's best work, in his instruments and patents certainly, but also in his mathematical physics. By contrast to Larmor, who regarded Thomson's ventures as distractions from his science, we show that the scientific and industrial pursuits were essential to one another. It was therefore not merely a case of science applied to industry, but of industry applied to science, for Thomson's industrial vision thoroughly permeated his understanding of the natural world and the theoretical and experimental research which he pursued.

Again, Thomson's approach was not merely a matter of metaphysical predisposition, but of the making and doing of mechanics, thermodynamics, and electromagnetism, of problem solutions, models, measurements, and absolute values. We do not argue, however, that Thomson's social context determined the content of his science. Rather, we show that he drew extensively on conceptual and material resources available in his industrial culture and, with motivations structured by that culture, arrived at rational explanations of physical phenomena and at means of controlling those phenomena. Thus we

⁴ J.G. Crowther, British scientists of the nineteenth century (London, 1935), p. 256.



Preface xxi

seek to show, concretely and in detail, how the science that Thomson produced was inseparably integrated with the industrial culture that he represented.

Of overriding importance to his intellectual achievement were particular objects of the material culture. The steam-engine, electric telegraph, and vortex turbine, which he drew upon for model solutions of the most fundamental problems of natural philosophy, were constitutive of his thermodynamics, electrodynamics, and cosmology. And just as such artefacts served Thomson as generators of scientific theory, they also served him as guarantors of the reality, or validity, of theoretical entities. Machines, in short, represented the industrial culture to natural philosophy and natural philosophy to the industrial culture. By embodying the idea of work, for example, the steam-engine translated between the fundamental concept of labour value in political economy and the fundamental concept of energy in natural philosophy.

In analyzing Thomson's life and work we have employed a set of labels for interrelated aspects of his political, religious, and scientific ideology. The most general term is 'whig'. In the political sense it refers not to the Whig party as such, but to a liberal, progressive, reforming stance imagined to be above party affiliation. Its religious correlate is 'latitudinarian', connoting an anti-sectarian (if also anti-Catholic and anti-fundamentalist) point of view, and opposed to nothing so much as to perceived authority and dogma in theological matters.

In scientific methodology, the labels are 'non-hypothetical' and 'antimetaphysical'. As in the political and religious spheres, these words must not be understood to mean that Thomson succeeded in developing a science without hypotheses and without metaphysics. Metaphysics, for him, carried the odour of idealism and a priori knowledge, while hypotheses lacked what he regarded as direct empirical evidence. His proscription of both sources of error expressed his view that truth in natural philosophy is based on direct sensory perception rather than mental construction.

Finally, and most ubiquitously, we use the term 'practical'. Thomson himself employed it from the beginning to the end of his career. Though covering a wide spectrum of meanings, it suggests the all-pervasive spirit of engineering and industry that we elaborate in his life and work.

All of these terms together – whig, latitudinarian, non-hypothetical, antimetaphysical, and practical – label Thomson's commitments rather than any fully articulated or particularly consistent philosophy. They evoke the motivations which operated, sometimes implicitly and sometimes explicitly, in his everyday life. As such we use them, leaving their definitions somewhat elastic, subject to expansion and contraction in the specific contextual instances of their application. In Chapter 13, however, under 'The methodology of look and see' and 'Mephistopheles' we have attempted to articulate more fully the differences between metaphysical ideality, which he despised, and practical reality, which he worshipped.



xxii Preface

A problem of constant concern to us has been the fact that, although the major Kelvin archives in Cambridge and Glasgow contain many thousands of letters, very few of those letters reveal William Thomson's innermost thoughts or his emotional responses to major crises, such as the death of his father. His relation to his first wife, who was ill virtually from their marriage to her death over seventeen years later, remains obscure. Thus we have had to choose between psychological speculation on meagre evidence and restricting Thomson's personality largely to its professional and public side. We have chosen the public side, first because there is so much of it and because of its historical importance, and secondly because we suspect that many sources of a personal nature have been destroyed, leaving a distorted sample. From William's Cambridge diary of 1843, for example, small and large pieces have been excised, while his brother James's surviving papers in Belfast contain no family correspondence. In dramatic contrast, a few letters from William in a separate regional archive offer a glimpse of an intense but unrequited love, prior to his marriage. These letters are unlike anything in the 'official' archives, suggesting that the latter conceal what they do not reveal. The truly private Thomson must remain a veiled

Thomson's career covers a wide variety of subjects, each with a coherence of its own and each carrying an appeal to a different group of readers. We have therefore arranged our four-part study thematically rather than chronologically. In Part I we locate the young William and his close-knit family within their local context in the 1830s and 1840s. Pivotal is the dynamic city of Glasgow, destined to become, with its growing reputation for reliable and economic steamships, the shipyard of the Empire and its Second City during his maturer years. We explore Thomson's political, religious, and economic context in relation to the first major phase of his career, which saw him advance from Glasgow University student and Cambridge undergraduate to Cambridge Fellow and ultimately to Glasgow professor at the early age of twenty-two.

Part II concerns the development of Thomson's mathematical physics. Here we aim at portraying, through the activities of a single individual, one of the major 'revolutions' in the history of science. From 1840 to 1870 Thomson played a starring role in the birth-dramas of electromagnetic field theory and thermodynamics, as well as in the transformation of mechanics, such that classical physics could no longer bear the epithet 'Newtonian'. Energy and extremum principles replaced force as the foundation of dynamical explanation; temporal development became as essential to physical systems as to biological ones; and for the basis of material reality, British natural philosophers looked to structures of motion in a universal plenum, rather than to hard atoms. Thomson sometimes imagined himself the modern Newton. We attempt to show why, giving as much conceptual content as possible. A modicum of mathematics is



Preface xxiii

required. Later parts of our study can nevertheless be read without extensive reference to this one.

Thomson's construction of a system of the world is the subject of Part III. Concerned here with his cosmological and geological theories, we discuss them less in terms of their general scientific and popular impact through the question of the earth's age—the focus of previous studies—and more in relation to debates with his colleagues in natural philosophy, most notably G.G. Stokes and Hermann von Helmholtz. Drawing heavily on engineering systems, Thomson constructed his economy of nature in accordance with the laws of energy. These laws ruled the material world. But he also devoted much thought to the nature of mind, to free-will, and to the relation of mind to matter, as well as to the origin of life on earth. An analysis of the latter problems concludes Part III.

Part IV takes us from a study of Thomson's involvement in the grandest of all Victorian engineering projects, the Atlantic telegraph cable which earned him his knighthood, through his profitable business and industrial activities, to his elevation to the British peerage as Baron Kelvin of Largs. Part I located him within a developing Scottish city of heavy industry. Now we see the mature professor and entrepreneur reaping the social prestige and economic wealth of a physics perceived to serve the needs of all Britain. It was a physics which offered qualitative improvements to the new telegraphic and maritime communications so fundamental to the physical unity and political identity of the Empire on which the sun never set.

This book originated in a manuscript written by Crosbie Smith some ten years ago. At his invitation Norton Wise joined the project in 1980. In the drafting and redrafting that has gone on since then our individual contributions have become highly mixed. Although primary responsibility for Parts I, III, and IV (Thomson's early years, his system of the world, and his entrepreneurial activities) has rested with Crosbie Smith, and for Part II (Thomson's mathematical physics) with Norton Wise, many chapters (4, 5, 9, 10, 18, 19), and numerous sections of other chapters, are fully coauthored. Above all, the book's unifying themes are the product of frequent and lively discussion between us, leading to a full integration of our separate ideas and original expertise.

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xxiv

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XXV

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Crosbie Smith Canterbury M. Norton Wise Berlin



Footnote abbreviations

- BAAS Report Report of the British Association for the Advancement of Science.
- BL William Thomson, Notes of lectures on molecular dynamics and the wave theory of light (Baltimore, 1884).
- DNB Dictionary of national biography
- DSB Dictionary of scientific biography, C.C. Gillispie (ed.) (16 vols., New York, 1970-80).
- E&M William Thomson, Reprint of papers on electrostatics and magnetism (London, 1872).
- James Thomson, Papers James Thomson, Collected papers in physics and engineering, Sir Joseph Larmor and James Thomson (eds.) (Cambridge, 1912).
- JL Sir Joseph Larmor, 'William Thomson, Baron Kelvin of Largs. 1824–1907' (obituary notice), Proc. Royal Soc., [series A], 81 (1908), i-lxxvi.
- MPP William Thomson, Mathematical and physical papers (6 vols., Cambridge, 1882–1911).
- MSP W.J.M. Rankine, Miscellaneous scientific papers, W.J. Millar (ed.), (London, 1881).
- PL William Thomson, Popular lectures and addresses (3 vols., London, 1889-94).
- QUB Thomson papers, Queen's University Library, Belfast.
- SPT S.P. Thompson, The Life of William Thomson, Baron Kelvin of Largs (2 vols., London, 1910).
- ULC Kelvin Collection, Add. MS 7342, University Library, Cambridge. Kelvin letters in the Stokes Collection, Add. MS 7656, University Library, Cambridge are listed as Stokes correspondence, ULC.
- ULG Kelvin Collection, University Library, Glasgow.