and other artisans directly employed in producing the metal. The author has a very high opinion of the Chinese miners, who are described as sober, regular in work, and accustomed to cooperative enterprises, against which, however, must be set the defects of being addicted to excess in opium and gambling, besides being very quarrelsome and exceedingly superstitious. The latter failing is, however, of interest as reproducing the old European legends of guardian genii of the mine, the "Kobads" of Germany and "Knockers" of Cornwall, who require to be propitiated by sacrifices and kept in good humour by orderly behaviour on the part of the miners. Infractions of the last rules are punished by the withdrawal of the guardian gnome, who takes all the unwrought ore in the mine away with him.

The execution of the work, both as regards illustration and typography, are exceedingly good, and reflect great credit upon the French National Printing Office.

H. B.

THE SIZE OF ATOMS[1]

FOUR lines of argument founded on observation have led to the conclusion that atoms or molecules are not inconceivably, not immeasurably small. I use the words "inconceivably" and "immeasurably" advisedly. That which is measurable is not inconceivable, and therefore the two words put together constitute a tautology. We leave inconceivableness in fact to metaphysicians. Nothing that we can measure is inconceivably large or inconceivably small in physical science. It may be difficult to understand the numbers expressing the magnitude, but whether it be very large or very small there is nothing inconceivable in the nature of the thing because of its greatness or smallness, or in our views and appreciation and numerical expression of the magnitude. The general result of the four lines of reasoning to which I have referred, founded respectively on the undulatory theory of light, on the phenomena of contact electricity, on capillary attraction, and on the kinetic theory of gases, agrees in showing that the atoms or molecules of ordinary matter must be something like the 1/10,000,000, or from the 1/10,000,000 to the 1/100,000,000 of a centimetre in diameter. I speak somewhat vaguely, and I do so, not inadvertently, when I speak of atoms and molecules. I must ask the chemists to forgive me if I even abuse the words and apply a misnomer occasionally. The chemists do not know what is to be the atom; for instance, whether hydrogen gas is to consist of two pieces of matter in union constituting one molecule, and these molecules flying about; or whether single molecules each indivisible, or at all events undivided in chemical action, constitute the structure. I shall not go into any such questions at all, but merely take the broad view that matter, although we may conceive it to be infinitely divisible, is not infinitely divisible without decomposition. Just as a building of brick may be divided into parts, into a part containing 1000 bricks, and another part containing 2500 bricks, and those parts viewed largely may be said to be similar or homogeneous; but if you divide the matter of a brick building into spaces of nine inches thick, and then think of subdividing it farther, you find you have come to something which is atomic, that is, indivisible without destroying the elements of the structure. The question of the molecular structure of a building does not necessarily involve the question, Can a brick be divided into parts, and can those parts be divided into much smaller parts? and so on. It used to be a favourite subject for metaphysical argument amongst the schoolmen whether matter is infinitely divisible, or whether *space* is infinitely divisible, which some maintained, whilst others maintained only that *matter* is not infinitely divisible, and demonstrated that there is nothing inconceivable in the infinite subdivision of space. Why, even time was divided into moments (time-atoms!), and the idea of continuity of time was involved in a halo of argument, and metaphysical—I will not say absurdity—but metaphysical word-fencing, which was no doubt very amusing for want of a more instructive subject of study. There is in sober earnest this very important thing to be attended to, however, that in chronometry as in geometry, we have absolute continuity, and it is simply an inconceivable absurdity to suppose a limit to smallness whether of time or of space. But on the other hand, whether we can divide a piece of glass into pieces smaller than the 1/100,000 of a centimetre in diameter, and so on without breaking it up, and making it cease to have the properties of glass, just as a brick has not the property of a brick wall, is a very practical question, and a question which we are quite disposed to enter upon.

I wish in the beginning to beg you not to run away from the subject by thinking of the exceeding smallness of atoms. Atoms are not so exceedingly small after all. The four lines of argument I have referred to make it perfectly certain that the molecules which constitute the air we breathe are not very much smaller, if smaller at all, than 1/10,000,000 of a centimetre in diameter. I was told by a friend just five minutes ago that if I give you results in centimetres you will not understand me. I do not admit this calumny on the Royal Institution of Great Britain; no doubt many of you as Englishmen are more familiar with the unhappy British inch; but you all surely understand the centimetre, at all events it was taught till a few years ago in the primary national schools. Look at that diagram (Fig. 1), as I want you all to understand an

One centimetre. One millimetre.

FIG. 1.

inch, a centimetre, a millimetre, the 1/10 of a millimetre, and the 1/100 of a millimetre, the 1/1,000 of a millimetre, and the 1/1,000,000 of a millimetre. The diagram on the wall represents the metre; below that the yard; next the decimetre, and a circle of a decimetre diameter, the centimetre and a circle of a centimetre, and the millimetre, which is 1/10 of a centimetre, or in round numbers 1/40 of an inch. We will adhere however to one simple system, for it is only because we are in England that the yard and inch are put before you at all, among the metres and centimetres. You see on the diagram then the metre, the centimetre, the millimetre, with circles of the same diameter. Somebody tells me the millimetre is not there; I cannot see it, but it certainly is there, and a circle whose diameter is a millimetre, both accurately painted in black. I say there is a millimetre and you cannot see it. And now imagine *there* is 1/10 of a millimetre, and *there* 1/100 of a millimetre and 1/1000 of a millimetre, and *there* is a round atom of oxygen 1/1,000,000 of a millimetre in diameter. You see them all.

Now we must have a practical means of measuring, and optics supply us with it for thousandths of a millimetre. One of our temporary standards of measurement shall be the wave-length of light; but the wave-length is a very indefinite measurement, because there are wave-lengths for different colours of light, visible and invisible, in the ratio of 1 to 16. We have, as it were—borrowing an analogy from sound—four octaves of light that we know of. How far the range in reality extends above and below the range hitherto measured, we cannot even guess in the present state of science. The table before you (Table I.) gives you an idea of magnitudes of length,

[1] A lecture delivered by Sir William Thomson at the Royal Institution, on Friday, February 2. Revised by the Author.

TABLE I.—*Data for Visible Light.*

Line of Spectrum.		Wave-length in Centimetres.		Wave Frequency, or number of periods per second.
A	...	$7·604 \times 10^{-5}$	...	$395·0 \times 10^{12}$
B	...	6·867 ,,	...	437·3 ,,
C	...	6·562 ,,	...	457·7 ,,
D_1	...	5·895 ,,	...	509·7 ,,
D_2	...	5·889 ,,		
E	...	5·269 ,,	...	570·0 ,,
b	...	5·183 ,,	...	
F	...	4·861 ,,	...	617·9 ,,
G	...	4·307 ,,	...	697·3 ,,
H_1	...	3·968 ,,	...	756·9 ,,
H_2	...	3·933 ,,	...	763·6 ,,

and again of small intervals of time. In the column on the left you have the wave-length of light in fractions of a centimetre; the unit in which these numbers to the left is measured is the 1/100,000 (or 10^{-5}) of a centimetre. We have then, of visible light, wave-lengths from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 nearly, or 3·9. You may say then roundly, that for the wave-lengths of visible light, which alone is what is represented on that table, we have wave-lengths of from 4 to 8 on our scale of 1/100,000 of a centimetre. The 8 is invisible radiation a little below the red end of the spectrum. The lowest, marked by Fraunhofer with the letter *A*, has for wave-length $7\frac{1}{2}$/100,000 of a centimetre. On the model before you I will now show you what is meant by a "wave-length;" it is not length along the crest, such as we sometimes see well marked in a breaking wave of the sea, on a long straight beach; it is distance from crest to crest of the waves. [This was illustrated by a large number of horizontal rods of wood connected together and suspended bifilarly by two threads in the centre hanging from the ceiling;[1] on moving the lowermost rod, a wave was propagated up the series.] Imagine the ends of those rods to represent particles. The rods themselves let us suppose to be invisible, and merely their ends visible, to represent the particles acting upon one another mutually with elastic force, as if of india-rubber bands, or steel spiral springs, or jelly, or elastic material of some kind. They do act on one another in this model through the central mounting. Here again is another model illustrating waves (Fig. 2).[2] The white circles on the wooden rods represent pieces of matter—I will not say molecules at present, though we shall deal with them as molecules afterwards. Light consists of vibrations transverse to the line of propagation, just as in the models before you.

Now in that beautiful experiment well known as Newton's rings we have at once a measure of length in

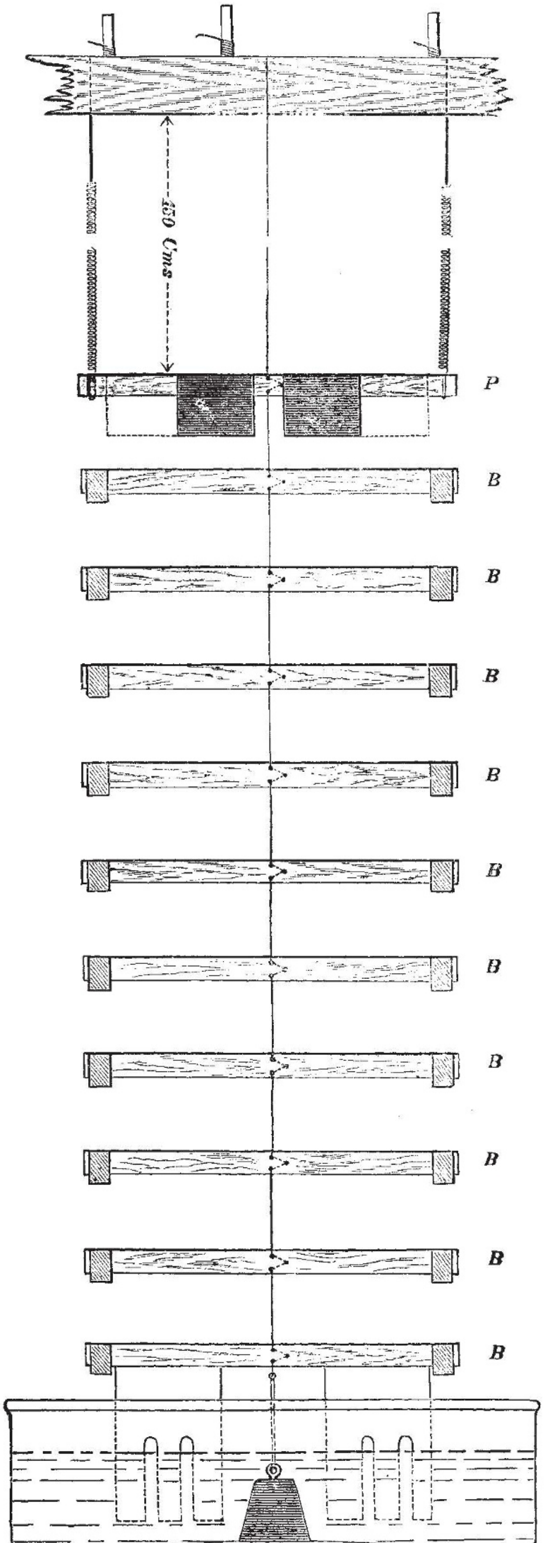

FIG. 2.

the distance between two pieces of glass to give any par-

[1] The details of this bifilar suspension need not be minutely described, as the new form, with a single steel pianoforte wire to give the required mutual forces, described below and represented in Fig. 2, is better and more easily made.

[2] This apparatus, which is represented in the woodcut, Fig. 2, is of the following dimensions and description. The series of equal and similar bars (B) of which the ends represent molecules of the medium, and the pendulum bar (P), which performs the part of exciter of vibrations, or of kinetic store of vibrational energy, are pieces of wood each 50 centimetres long, 3 centimetres broad, and 1·5 centimetres thick. The suspending wire is steel pianoforte wire No. 22 B.W.G. (·07 of a cm. diameter), and the bars are secured to it in the following manner. Three brass pins of about ·4 of a centimetre diameter are fitted loosely in each bar in the position as indicated; *i.e.* forming the corners of an isosceles triangular figure, with its base parallel to the line of the suspending wire, and about 1 mm. to one side of it. The suspending wire, which is laid in grooves cut in the pins, is passed under the upper pin, outside the pin at the apex of the triangle, over the upper side of the lower pin, and thence down to the next bar. The upper end of this wire is secured by being taken through a hole in the supporting beam and several turns of it put round a pin placed on one side of the hole, as indicated in the diagram. To each end of the pendulum bar is made fast a steel spiral spring as shown; the upper ends of these springs being secured to short cords which pass up through holes in the supporting beam, and are fastened by two or three turns taken round the pins. These steel springs serve as potential stores of vibrational energy alternating in each vibration with the kinetic store constituted by the pendulum bar. The ends of the vibrating bars (B) are loaded with masses of lead attached to them. The much larger masses of lead seen on the pendulum bar, which are adjustable to different positions on the bar, are, in the diagram, shown at the smallest distance apart. The lowermost bar carries two vanes of tin projecting downwards, which dip into viscous liquid (treacle diluted with water) contained in the vessel (*c*). A heavy weight resting on the bottom of this vessel, and connected to the lower end of the suspending wire by a stretched indiarubber band, serves to keep the lower end of the apparatus in position. The period of vibration of the pendulum bar is adjustable to any desired magnitude by shifting in or out the attached weights, or by tightening or relaxing the cords which pull the upper ends of the spiral springs.

ticular tint of colour. The wave-length you see, in the distance from crest to crest of the waves travelling up the long model when I commence giving a simple harmonic oscillation to the lowest bar. I have here a convex lens of very long focus, and a piece of plate glass with its back blackened. When I press the piece of glass against the glass blackened behind, I see coloured rings; the phenomenon will be shown to you on the screen by means of the electric light reflected from the space of air between the two pieces of glass. This phenomenon was first observed by Sir Isaac Newton, and was first explained by the undulatory theory of light. [Newton's rings are now shown on the screen before you by reflected electric light.] If I press the glasses together, you see a dark spot in the centre; the rings appear round it, and there is a dark centre with irregularities. Pressure is required to produce that spot. Why? The answer generally given is, because glass repels glass at a distance of two or three wave-lengths of light; say at a distance of 1/5,000 of a centimetre. I do not believe that for a moment. The seeming repulsion comes from shreds or particles of dust between them. The black spot in the centre is a place where the distance between them is less than a quarter of a wave-length. Now the wave-length for yellow light is about 1/17,000 of a centimetre. The quarter of 1/17,000 is about 1/70,000. The place where you see the middle of that black circle corresponds to air at a distance of less than 1/70,000 of a centimetre. Passing from this black spot to the first ring of maximum light, add half a wave-length to the distance, and we can tell what the distance between the two pieces of glass is at this place; add another half wave-length, and we come to the next maximum of light again; but the colour prevents us speaking very definitely because we have a number of different wave-lengths concerned. I will simplify that by reducing it all to one colour, red, by interposing a red glass. You have now one colour, but much less light altogether, because this glass only lets through homogeneous red light, or not much besides. Now look at what you see on the screen, and you have unmistakable evidence of fulcrums of dust between the glass surfaces. When I put on the screw, I whiten the central black spot by causing the elastic glass to pivot, as it were, round the innumerable little fulcrums constituted by the molecules of dust; and the pieces of glass are pressed not against one another, but against these fulcrums. There are innumerable—say thousands—of little particles of dust jammed between the glass, some of them of perhaps 1/3,000 of a centimetre in diameter, say 5 or 6 wave-lengths. If you lay one piece of glass on another, you think you are pressing glass on glass, but it is nothing of the kind; it is glass on dust. This is a very beautiful phenomenon, and my first object in showing this experiment was simply because it gives us a linear measure bringing us down at once to 1/100,000 of a centimetre.

Now I am just going to enter a very little into detail regarding the reasons that those four lines of argument give us for assigning a limit to the smallness of the molecules of matter. I shall take contact electricity first, and very briefly. If I take these two pieces of zinc and copper and touch them together at the two corners, they become electrified, and attract one another with a perfectly definite force, of which the magnitude is ascertained from absolute measurements in connection with the well-established doctrine of contact electricity. I do not feel it, because the force is very small. You may do the thing in a measured way; you may place a little metallic knob or projection on one of them of 1/100,000 of a centimetre, and lean the other against it. Let there be three such little metal feet put on the copper; let me touch the zinc plate with one of them, and turn it gradually down till it comes to touch the other two. In this position, with an air-space of 1/100,000 of a centimetre between them, there will be positive and negative electricity on the zinc and copper surfaces respectively, of such quantities as to cause a mutual attraction amounting to 2 grammes weight per square centimetre. The amount of work done by the electric attraction upon the plates while they are being allowed to approach one another with metallic connection between them at the corner first touched, till they come to the distance of 1/100,000 of a centimetre, is 2/100,000 of a centimetre-gramme, supposing the area of each plate to be one square centimetre.

(*To be continued.*)

DEATH OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY

IT is with the profoundest regret that we announce the death of Mr. Spottiswoode, the President of the Royal Society, at 11.15 yesterday morning. The bulletin issued on Tuesday to the effect that although there was no hemorrhage, still that there was no improvement in Mr. Spottiswoode's condition, boded ill because those who knew him best feared that a reserve of strength, which might perhaps have made way against the further progress of the fever through its later stages, was wanting.

As the sad news reaches us just as we are going to press, and as indeed we so recently entered at some considerable length into the lifework of him who is now no more, there is no necessity for us on the present occasion to do more than make the above announcement. This, however, must be said: that there is hardly a man of science in this country, and there are very many in other countries, who will not feel that they have lost a true friend, and one of whose friendship any man might have been proud. There is little doubt too that if he had been more sparing of himself in the various duties which were incumbent upon him as President of the Royal Society, if he had not so freely given all his thoughts and all his exertions to any scientific question which was going on, there might have been more time for relaxation, and there might have been strength to have tided over the illness which has now laid him low.

NOTES

WE regret to have to announce the death of General Sir Edward Sabine, K.C.B., which occurred on the 26th inst. at Richmond, where he had been residing for the last twelve months. He was in his ninety-fifth year, having been born October 14, 1788.

AT the meeting of the Paris Academy of Sciences on Monday last week the following message concerning the eclipse observations from M. Janssen, dated San Francisco, was read:—"*Janssen:* discovery of the Fraunhofer spectrum and the dark lines of the solar spectrum in the corona, showing cosmical matter around the sun. Large photographs of the corona and the circumsolar regions to a distance of 15°, in search for intra-Mercurial planets. *Palisa* and *Trouvelot:* Exploration of the circumsolar regions; no intra-Mercurial planets found. *Trouvelot:* Sketch of the corona. *Tacchini:* Polarisation of the corona and streamers; spectrum of the streamers, showing analogy