SCIENCE

NEW YORK, OCTOBER 16, 1891.

CELESTIAL PHYSICS.[1]

I DO not purpose to attempt a survey of the progress of spectroscopic astronomy from its birth at Heidelberg in 1859, but to point out what we do know at present, as distinguished from what we do not know, of a few only of its more important problems, giving a prominent place, in accordance with the traditions of this chair, to the work of the last year or two.

In the spectroscope itself advances have been made by Lord Rayleigh by his discussion of the theory of the instrument, and by Professor Rowland in the construction of concave gratings.

Lord Rayleigh has shown that there is not the necessary connection, sometimes supposed, between dispersion and resolving power, as, besides the prism or grating, other details of construction and of adjustment of a spectroscope must be taken into account.

The resolving power of the prismatic spectroscope is proportional to the length of path in the dispersive medium. For the heavy flint glass used in Lord Rayleigh's experiments, the thickness necessary to resolve the sodium lines came out 1.02 centimetres. If this be taken as a unit, the resolving power of a prism of similar glass will be in the neighborhood of the sodium lines equal to the number of centimetres of its thickness. In other parts of the spectrum the resolving power will vary inversely as the third power of the wave-length, so that it will be eight times as great in the violet as in the red. The resolving power of a spectroscope is therefore proportional to the total thickness of the dispersive material in use, irrespective of the number, the angles, or the setting of the separate prisms into which, for the sake of convenience, it may be distributed.

The resolving power of a grating depends upon the total number of lines on its surface and the order of spectrum in use, about 1,000 lines being necessary to resolve the sodium lines in the first spectrum.

As it is often of importance in the record of observations to state the efficiency of the spectroscope with which they were made, Professor Schuster has proposed the use of a unit of purity as well as of resolving power, for the full resolving power of a spectroscope is realized in practice only when a sufficiently narrow slit is used. The unit of purity also is to stand for the separation of two lines differing by one-thousandth of their own wave-length, about the separation of the sodium pair at D.

A further limitation may come in from the physiological fact that, as Lord Rayleigh has pointed out, the eye, when its full aperture is used, is not a perfect instrument. If we wish to realize the full resolving power of a spectroscope, therefore, the emergent beam must not be larger than about one-third the opening of the pupil.

Up to the present time the standard of reference for nearly all spectroscopic work continues to be Angstrom's map of the solar spectrum, and his scale based upon his original determinations of absolute wave-length. It is well known, as was pointed out by Thalén in his work on the spectrum of iron, in 1884, that Angstrom's figures are slightly too small, in consequence of an error existing in a standard metre used by him. The corrections for this have been introduced into the tables of the wave-lengths of terrestrial spectra collected and revised by a committee of this association from 1885 to 1887. Last year the committee added a table of corrections to Rowland's scale.

The inconvenience caused by a change of standard scale is, for a time at least, considerable; but there is little doubt that in the near future Rowland's photographic map of the solar spectrum, and his scale based on the determinations of absolute wave-length by Pierce and Bell, or the Potsdam scale based on original determinations by Müller and Kempf, which differs very slightly from it, will come to be exclusively adopted.

The great accuracy of Rowland's photographic map is due chiefly to the introduction by him of concave gratings, and of a method for their use by which the problem of the determination of relative wave-lengths is simplified to measures of coincidences of the lines in different spectra by a micrometer.

The concave grating and its peculiar mounting, in which no lenses or telescope are needed, and in which all the spectra are in focus together, formed a new departure of great importance in the measurement of spectral lines. The valuable method of photographic sensitizers for different parts of the spectrum has enabled Professor Rowland to include in his map the whole visible solar spectrum, as well as the ultra-violet portion as far as it can get through our atmosphere. Some recent photographs of the solar spectrum, which include A, by Mr. George Higgs, are of great technical beauty.

During the past year the results of three independent researches have appeared, in which the special object of the observers has been to distinguish the lines which are due to our atmosphere from those which are truly solar — the maps of M. Thollon, which, owing to his lamented death just before their final completion, have assumed the character of a memorial of him; maps by Dr. Becker; and sets of photographs of a high and a low sun by Mr. McClean.

At the meeting of this association in Bath, M. Janssen gave an account of his own researches on the terrestrial lines of the solar spectrum which owe their origin to the oxygen of our atmosphere. He discovered the remarkable fact that, while one class of bands varies as the density of the gas, other diffuse bands vary as the square of the density. These observations are in accordance with the work of Egoroff and of Olszewski, and of Liveing and Dewar on condensed oxygen. In some recent experiments Olszewski, with a layer of liquid oxygen thirty millimetres thick, saw, as well as four other bands, the band coincident with Fraunhofer's A, a remarkable instance of the persistence of absorption through a great range of temperature. The light which passed through the liquid oxygen had a light blue color resembling that of the sky.

[1] Inaugural address at the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, at Cardiff, August, 1891, by William Huggins, president of the association (Nature, Aug. 20).

Of not less interest are the experiments of Knut Angstrom, which show that the carbonic acid and aqueous vapor of the atmosphere reveal their presence by dark bands in the invisible infra-red region, at the positions of bands of emission of these substances.

It is now some thirty years since the spectroscope gave us for the first time certain knowledge of the nature of the heavenly bodies, and revealed the fundamental fact that terrestrial matter is not peculiar to the solar system, but is common to all the stars which are visible to us.

In the case of a star such as Capella, which has a spectrum almost identical with that of the sun, we feel justified in concluding that the matter of which it is built up is similar, and that its temperature is also high, and not very different from the solar temperature. The task of analyzing the stars and nebulæ becomes, however, one of very great difficulty when we have to do with spectra differing from the solar type. We are thrown back upon the laboratory for the information necessary to enable us to interpret the indications of the spectroscope as to the chemical nature, the density and pressure, and the temperature of the celestial masses.

What the spectroscope immediately reveals to us are the waves which were set up in the ether filling all interstellar space, years or hundreds of years ago, by the motions of the molecules of the celestial substances. As a rule, it is only when a body is gaseous and sufficiently hot that the motions within its molecules can produce bright lines and a corresponding absorption. The spectra of the heavenly bodies are, indeed, to a great extent absorption spectra, but we have usually to study them through the corresponding emission spectra of bodies brought into the gaseous form and rendered luminous by means of flames or of electric discharges. In both cases, unfortunately, as has been shown recently by Professors Liveing and Dewar, Wüllner, E. Wiedemann, and others, there appears to be no certain direct relation between the luminous radiation as shown in the spectroscope and the temperature of the flame, or of the gaseous contents of the vacuum tube — that is, in the usual sense of the term as applied to the mean motion of all the molecules. In both cases the vibratory motions within the molecules to which their luminosity is due are almost always much greater than would be produced by encounters of molecules having motions of translation no greater than the average motions which characterize the temperature of the gases as a whole. The temperature of a vacuum tube through which an electric discharge is taking place may be low, as shown by a thermometer, quite apart from the consideration of the extreme smallness of the mass of gas, but the vibrations of the luminous molecules must be violent in whatever way we suppose them to be set up by the discharge: if we take Schuster's view that comparatively few molecules are carrying the discharge, and that it is to the fierce encounters of these alone that the luminosity is due, then if all the molecules had similar motions, the temperature of the gas would be very high.

So in flames where chemical changes are in progress, the vibratory motions of the molecules which are luminous may be, in connection with the energy set free in these changes, very different from those corresponding to the mean temperature of the flame.

Under the ordinary conditions of terrestrial experiments, therefore, the temperature or the mean *vis viva* of the molecules may have no direct relation to the total radiation, which, on the other hand, is the sum of the radiation due to each luminous molecule.

These phenomena have recently been discussed by Ebert from the standpoint of the electro-magnetic theory of light.

Very great caution is therefore called for when we attempt to reason by the aid of laboratory experiments to the temperature of the heavenly bodies from their radiation, especially on the reasonable assumption that in them the luminosity is not ordinarily associated with chemical changes or with electrical discharges, but is due to a simple glowing from the ultimate conversion into molecular motion of the gravitational energy of shrinkage.

In a recent paper, Stas maintains that electric spectra are to be regarded as distinct from flame spectra, and, from researches of his own, that the pairs of lines of the sodium spectrum other than D are produced only by disruptive electric discharges. As these pairs of lines are found reversed in the solar spectrum, he concludes that the sun's radiation is due mainly to electric discharges. But Wolf and Diacon, and later, Watts, observed the other pairs of lines of the sodium spectrum when the vapor was raised above the ordinary temperature of the Bunsen flame. Recently, Liveing and Dewar saw easily, besides D, the citron and green pairs, and sometimes the blue pair and the orange pair, when hydrogen charged with sodium vapor was burning at different pressures in oxygen. In the case of sodium vapor, therefore, and presumably in all other vapors and gases, it is a matter of indifference whether the necessary vibratory motion of the molecules is produced by electric discharges or by flames. The presence of lines in the solar spectrum which we can only produce electrically is an indication, however, as Stas points out, of the high temperature of the sun.

We must not forget that the light from the heavenly bodies may consist of the combined radiations of different layers of gas at different temperatures, and possibly be further complicated to an unknown extent by the absorption of cooler portions of gas outside.

Not less caution is needed if we endeavor to argue from the broadening of lines and the coming in of a continuous spectrum as to the relative pressure of the gas in the celestial atmospheres. On the one hand, it cannot be gainsaid that in the laboratory the widening of the lines in a Plücker's tube follows upon increasing the density of the residue of hydrogen in the tube, when the vibrations are more frequently disturbed by fresh encounters, and that a broadening of the sodium lines in a flame at ordinary pressure is produced by an increase of the quantity of sodium in the flame; but it is doubtful if pressure, as distinguished from quantity, does produce an increase of the breadth of the lines. An individual molecule of sodium will be sensibly in the same condition, considering the relatively enormous number of the molecules of the other gases, whether the flame is scantily or copiously fed with the sodium salt. With a small quantity of sodium vapor the intensity will be feeble except near the maximum of the lines; when, however, the quantity is increased, the comparative transparency on the sides of the maximum will allow the light from the additional molecules met with in the path of the visual ray to strengthen the radiation of the molecules farther back, and so increase the breadth of the lines.

In a gaseous mixture it is found, as a rule, that at the same pressure or temperature, as the encounters with similar molecules become fewer, the spectral lines will be affected as if the body were observed under conditions of reduced quantity or temperature.

In their recent investigation of the spectroscopic behavior of flames under various pressures up to forty atmospheres, Professors Liveing and Dewar have come to the conclusion that, though the prominent feature of the light emitted by flames at high pressure appears to be a strong continuous spectrum, there is not the slightest indication that this continuous spectrum is produced by the broadening of the lines of the same gases at low pressure. On the contrary, photometric observations of the brightness of the continuous spectrum, as the pressure is varied, show that it is mainly produced by the mutual action of the molecules of a gas. Experiments on the sodium spectrum were carried up to a pressure of forty atmospheres without producing any definite effect on the width of the lines which could be ascribed to the pressure. In a similar way the lines of the spectrum of water showed no signs of expansion up to twelve atmospheres; though more intense than at ordinary pressure, they remained narrow and clearly defined.

It follows, therefore, that a continuous spectrum cannot be considered, when taken alone, as a sure indication of matter in the liquid or the solid state. Not only, as in the experiments already mentioned, such a spectrum may be due to gas when under pressure, but, as Maxwell pointed out, if the thickness of a medium, such as sodium vapor, which radiates and absorbs different kinds of light, be very great, and the temperature high, the light emitted will be of exactly the same composition as that emitted by lamp-black at the same temperature, for the radiations which are feebly emitted will be also feebly absorbed, and can reach the surface from immense depths. Shuster has shown that oxygen, even in a partially exhausted tube, can give a continuous spectrum when excited by a feeble electric discharge.

Compound bodies are usually distinguished by a banded spectrum; but, on the other hand, such a spectrum does not necessarily show the presence of compounds,— that is, of molecules containing different kinds of atoms,— but simply of a more complex molecule, which may be made up of similar atoms, and be, therefore, an allotropic condition of the same body. In some cases — for example, in the diffuse bands of the absorption spectrum of oxygen — the bands may have an intensity proportional to the square of the density of the gas, and may be due either to the formation of more complex molecules of the gas with increase of pressure, or it may be to the constraint to which the molecules are subject during their encounter with one another.

It may be thought that at least in the coincidences of bright lines we are on the solid ground of certainty, since the length of the waves set up in the ether by a molecule, say of hydrogen, is the most fixed and absolutely permanent quantity in nature, and is so of physical necessity, for with any alteration the molecule would cease to be hydrogen.

Such would be the case if the coincidence were certain; but an absolute coincidence can only be a matter of greater or less probability, depending on the resolving power employed, on the number of the lines which correspond, and on their characters. When the coincidences are very numerous, as in the case of iron and the solar spectrum, or the lines are characteristically grouped, as in the case of hydrogen and the solar spectrum, we may regard the coincidence as certain; but the progress of science has been greatly retarded by resting important conclusions upon the apparent coincidence of single lines in spectroscopes of very small resolving power. In such cases, unless other reasons supporting the coincidence are present, the probability of a real coincidence is almost too small to be of any importance, especially in the case of a heavenly body which may have a motion of approach or of recession of unknown amount.

But even here we are met by the confusion introduced by multiple spectra, corresponding to different molecular groupings of the same substance; and, further, to the influence of substances in vapor upon each other; for when several gases are present together, the phenomena of radiation and reversal by absorption are by no means the same as if the gases were free from each other's influence, and especially is this the case when they are illuminated by an electric discharge.

I have said as much as time will permit, and I think indeed sufficient, to show that it is only by the laborious and slow process of most cautious observation that the foundations of the science of celestial physics can be surely laid. We are at present in a time of transition, when the earlier, and, in the nature of things, less precise, observations are giving place to work of an order of accuracy much greater than was formerly considered attainable with objects of such small brightness as the stars.

The accuracy of the earlier determinations of the spectra of the terrestrial elements are in most cases insufficient for modern work on the stars as well as on the sun. They fall much below the scale adopted in Rowland's map of the sun, as well as below the degree of accuracy attained at Potsdam by photography in a part of the spectrum for the brighter stars. Increase of resolving power very frequently breaks up into groups, in the spectra of the sun and stars, the lines which had been regarded as single, and their supposed coincidences with terrestrial lines fall to the ground. For this reason many of the early conclusions, based on observation as good as it was possible to make at the time with the less powerful spectroscopes then in use, may not be found to be maintained under the much greater resolving power of modern instruments.

The spectroscope has failed as yet to interpret for us the remarkable spectrum of the Aurora Borealis. Undoubtedly in this phenomenon portions of our atmosphere are lighted up by electric discharges: we should expect, therefore, to recognize the spectra of the gases known to be present in it. As yet we have not been able to obtain similar spectra from these gases artificially, and especially we do not know the origin of the principal line in the green, which often appears alone, and may have, therefore, an origin independent of that of the other lines Recently the suggestion has been made that the aurora is a phenomenon produced by the dust of meteors and falling stars, and that near positions of certain auroral lines or flutings of manganese, lead, barium, thallium, iron, etc., are sufficient to justify us in regarding meteoric dust in the atmosphere as the origin of the auroral spectrum. Liveing and Dewar have made a conclusive research on this point, by availing themselves of the dust of excessive minuteness thrown off from the surface of electrodes of various metals and meteoroites by a disruptive discharge, and carried forward into the tube of observation by a more or less rapid current of air or other gas. These experiments prove that metallic dust, however fine, suspended in a gas will not act like gaseous matter in becoming luminous with its characteristic spectrum in an electric discharge similar to that of the aurora. Professor Schuster has suggested that the principal line may be due to some very light gas which is present in too small a proportion to be detected by chemical analysis or even by the spectroscope in the presence of the other gases near the earth, but which at the height of the auroral discharges is in a sufficiently greater relative proportion to give a spectrum. Lemström, indeed, states that he saw this line in the silent discharge of a Holtz machine on a mountain in Lapland. The lines may not have been obtained in our laboratories from the atmospheric gases on account of the difficulty of reproducing in tubes with sufficient nearness the conditions under which the auroral discharges take place.

In the spectra of comets the spectroscope has shown the presence of carbon presumably in combination with hydrogen, and also sometimes with nitrogen; and in the case of comets approaching very near the sun, the lines of sodium, and other lines which have been supposed to belong to iron. Though the researches of Professor H. A. Newton and of Professor Schiaparelli leave no doubt of the close connection of comets with corresponding periodic meteor-swarms, and therefore of the probable identity of cometary matter with that of meteorites, with which the spectroscopic evidence agrees, it would be perhaps unwise at present to attempt to define too precisely the exact condition of the matter which forms the nucleus of the comet. In any case the part of the light of the comet which is not reflected solar light can scarcely be attributed to a high temperature produced by the clashing of separate meteoric stones set up within the nucleus by the sun's disturbing force. We must look rather to disruptive electric discharges, produced probably by processes of evaporation due to increased solar heat, which would be amply sufficient to set free portions of the occluded gases into the vacuum of space. May it be that these discharges are assisted, and indeed possibly increased, by the recently discovered action of the ultra-violet part of the sun's light? Lenard and Wolfe have shown that ultra-violet light can produce a discharge from a negatively electrified piece of metal, while Hallwachs and Righi have shown further that ultra-violet light can even charge positively an unelectrified piece of metal. Similar actions on cometary matter, unscreened as it is by an absorptive atmosphere, at least of any noticeable extent, may well be powerful when a comet approaches the sun, and help to explain an electrified condition of the evaporated matter which would possibly bring it under the sun's repulsive action. We shall have to return to this point in speaking of the solar corona.

A very great advance has been made in our knowledge of the constitution of the sun by the recent work at the Johns Hopkins University by means of photography and concave gratings, in comparing the solar spectrum, under great resolving power, directly with the spectra of the terrestrial elements. Professor Rowland has shown that the lines of thirty-six terrestrial elements at least are certainly present in the solar spectrum, while eight others are doubtful. Fifteen elements, including nitrogen as it shows itself under an electric discharge in a vacuum tube, have not been found in the solar spectrum. Some ten other elements, inclusive of oxygen, have not yet been compared with the sun's spectrum.

Rowland remarks that of the fifteen elements named as not found in the sun, many are so classed because they have few strong lines, or none at all, in the limit of the solar spectrum as compared by him with the arc. Boron has only two strong lines. The lines of bismuth are compound and too diffuse. Therefore even in the case of these fifteen elements there is little evidence that they are really absent from the sun.

It follows that if the whole earth were heated to the temperature of the sun, its spectrum would resemble very closely the solar spectrum.

Rowland has not found any lines common to several elements, and in the case of some accidental coincidences, more accurate investigation reveals some slight difference of wavelength or a common impurity. Further, the relative strength of the lines in the solar spectrum is generally, with a few exceptions, the same as that in the electric arc, so that Rowland considers that his experiments show "very little evidence" of the breaking up of the terrestrial elements in the sun.

Stas, in a recent paper, gives the final results of eleven years of research on the chemical elements in a state of purity, and on the possibility of decomposing them by the physical and chemical forces at our disposal. His experiments on calcium, strontium, lithium, magnesium, silver, sodium, and thallium show that these substances retain their individuality under all conditions, and are unalterable by any forces that we can bring to bear upon them.

Professor Rowland looks to the solar lines which are unaccounted for as a means of enabling him to discover such new terrestrial elements as still lurk in rare minerals and earths, by confronting their spectra directly with that of the sun. He has already resolved yttrium spectroscopically into three components, and actually into two. The comparison of the results of this independent analytical method with the remarkable but different conclusions to which M. Lecoq de Boisbaudran and Mr. Crookes have been led respectively, from spectroscopic observation of these bodies when glowing under molecular bombardment in a vacuum tube, will be awaited with much interest. It is worthy of remark that, as our knowledge of the spectrum of hydrogen in its complete form came to us from the stars, it is now from the sun that chemistry is probably about to be enriched by the discovery of new elements.

In a discussion of the Bakerian lecture for 1885 of what we knew up to that time of the sun's corona, I was led to the conclusion that the corona is essentially a phenomenon similar in the cause of its formation to the tails of comets — namely, that it consists for the most part probably of matter going from the sun under the action of a force, possibly electrical, which varies as the surface, and can therefore in the case of highly attenuated matter easily master the force of gravity even near the sun. Though many of the coronal particles may return to the sun, those which form the long rays or streamers do not return; they separate and soon become too diffused to be any longer visible, and may well go to furnish the matter of the zodiacal light, which otherwise has not received a satisfactory explanation. And further, if such a force exist at the sun, the changes of terrestrial magnetism may be due to direct electric action as the earth moves through lines of inductive force.

These conclusions appear to be in accordance broadly with the lines along which thought has been directed by the results of subsequent eclipses. Professor Schuster takes an essentially similar view, and suggests that there may be a direct electric connection between the sun and the planets. He asks further whether the sun may not act like a magnet in consequence of its revolution about its axis. Professor Bigelow has recently treated the coronal forms by the theory of spherical harmonics, on the supposition that we see phenomena similar to those of free electricity, the rays being lines of force, and the coronal matter discharged from the sun, or at least arranged or controlled by these forces. At the extremities of the streams for some reason the repulsive power may be lost, and gravitation set in, bringing the matter back to the sun. The matter which does leave the sun is persistently transported to the equatorial plane of the corona; in fact, the zodiacal light may be the accumulation at great distances from the sun along this equator of such like material. Photographs on a larger scale will be desirable for the full development of the conclusions which may follow from this study of the curved forms of the coronal structure. Professor Schaeberle, however, considers that the coronal phenomena may be satisfactorily accounted for on the supposition that the corona is formed of streams of matter ejected mainly from the spot zones with great initial velocities, but smaller than 382 miles per second; further, that the different types of the corona are due to the effects of perspective on the streams from the earth's place at the time relatively to the plane of the solar equator.

Of the physical and the chemical nature of the coronal matter we know very little. Schuster concludes, from an examination of the eclipses of 1882, 1883, and 1886, that the continuous spectrum of the corona has the maximum of actinic intensity displaced considerably towards the red when compared with the spectrum of the sun, which shows that it can only be due in small part to solar light scattered by small particles. The lines of calcium and of hydrogen do not appear to form part of the normal spectrum of the corona. The green coronal line has no known representative in terrestrial substances, nor has Schuster been able to recognize any of our elements in the other lines of the corona.

(To be continued.)

NOTES AND NEWS.

RECENT additions to the stock of Geo. L. English & Co., the well-known mineralogists, have been so extensive that they have been compelled to issue a supplement to their "Catalogue of Minerals." "Supplement A" contains 20 pages well filled with descriptions of new specimens procured in different parts of the world by the three collectors who have been at work during the summer.

— "As I went to the train one morning," writes a correspondent of *Nature*, "I saw a brown retriever dog coming full speed with a letter in his mouth. He went straight to the mural letter box. The postman had just cleared the box, and was about twenty or thirty yards off when the dog arrived. Seeing him, the sagacious animal went after him, and had the letter transferred to the bag. He then walked home quietly."

— Dr. Loewenberg of Paris discusses the influence of sex in what he calls the "lateralization" of ear disease. After referring to the view generally held by otologists that the left ear is more liable to be attacked alone, or to be attacked first and to suffer more severely when both ears are affected, he says, according to the *British Medical Journal*, that he has for a long time past been struck with the fact that, while deafness is more common on the left side in men, the same does not hold good in the case of women. From statistics of 3,000 cases (not including diseases of the concha and external meatus) which have come under his own notice, he shows, in the first place, that the male sex is more subject to ear disease than the female, there having been 1,790 of the former to 1,210 of the latter. Among those in whom only one ear was affected there were 478 men and 311 women. The right ear alone was affected in 212 men and 167 women; the left alone in 266 men and 144 women. Deafness existed in both ears in 1,074 men and 737 women. Among this number the right ear was the more deaf of the two in 427 men and 340 women, the left in 647 men and 397 women. Deafness was equal on both sides in 238 men and 162 women.

— The Ohio State University opened the fall term on Sept. 16, with a more than usual increase of attendance. In the agricultural and veterinary departments the number is over thirty per cent larger than last year, and the increase of the various departments together is much larger than any previous year. This is probably due to the passage of the Hysell bill last year, which brought the institution before the minds of the people, and also put it beyond financial embarrassment. In addition to the nine buildings now in use, the ground will be broken this fall for two more large buildings,— one for the manual training school and the other for the museum and library. Several full professors have been added to the faculty, besides a number of assistants. The School of Law, which is a new department, opened its first session on Oct. 1, at the Franklin County Court House in Columbus, where students will have unusual facilities for observing the organization and working of courts, the actual progress of trials, etc. The new school starts out in a way that promises prosperity. The biological club held its first meeting of the term on Sept. 22, when interesting reports of the summer's work were submitted by the members. Several new members were elected, among them W. A. Kellerman, professor of botany in the university, and Professor F. M. Webster, entomologist at the Experiment Station. Both are valuable acquisitions to the club, each having travelled and done biological work both at home and abroad.

— The monthly report of the State Geologist of Missouri states that during September detailed mapping has been continued in Henry and St. Francois counties, and, in the former, most excellent progress has been made. In all, some one hundred and fifteen square miles have been covered. The mapping of the crystalline rocks in the south-east, and of the other geological formations in Webster, Greene, and Christian Counties has been actively pushed, and nearly two hundred square miles have been completed during the month. Inspections of iron ore deposits have been made in Reynolds, Texas, Wright, Douglas, Christian, Taney, Greene, Lawrence, Franklin, Gasconade, Howell, Jasper, and Laclede Counties. The results of this work so far indicate that the extent of the limonite ores of the southern part of the State is much greater than has been anticipated, and that there is a promising outlook for the development of manganese ores in this region. Inspections of lead and zinc deposits have been made in Polk, Dade, Taney, Laclede, Phelps, Douglas, Marion, and Franklin Counties. The quaternary deposits have been studied in Cape Girardeau, St. Louis, Franklin, Marion, Pike, Lincoln, St. Charles, Livingston, Chariton, Daviess, and Buchanan Counties. Good progress has been made in the preparation of the report on the paleontology of the State. Some two hundred and forty pages of manuscript are already written, and arrangements are about completed for the engraving of the plates to accompany the volume. The preliminary reports on the coal deposits of the State is nearly completed, and much time has been spent during the past month on the preparation of the manuscript and illustrations for it, and the draughting of detailed maps and sections preparatory to engraving has continued uninterruptedly.

— Queen & Co., Philadelphia, will, in a short time, transfer their entire plant, now located at 924 Chestnut Street, to the larger building, 1010 Chestnut Street. The public of Philadelphia speak of Queen's as "opticians," and comparatively few outside of the professional world are aware of the magnitude of their business. A brief description of each department may be of interest. Department No. 1 is devoted to spectacles, eye-glasses, opera glasses, field and marine glasses, and apparatus for oculists, including ophthalmoscopes, trial glasses, perimeters, etc. Department No. 2 is devoted to instruments of precision required by engineers, architects, draughtsmen, students, and others. No. 3 is for microscopes and all instruments which are allied to the microscope. From this department comes the *Microscopical Bulletin*. No. 4 is one of the most extensive and interesting. Here are to be found the various apparatus required in the physical laboratories of schools and colleges. No. 5 is devoted to magic lanterns, or, in scientific terms, apparatus for luminous projection, views, and accessory apparatus. Spy-glasses, astronomical telescopes, and solar transits are also included. No. 6 includes meteorological instruments. This department recently supplied the United States War Department with the Boulangé chronographs for determining the velocity of projectiles. No. 7 is the photographic department. Every effort will be made to have this department attractive in the new building. Dark rooms for developing, etc., will be provided, and com-