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INDEX

- ABBADIE (Antoine d'), the Micromillimetre, 438
 Abel (Sir Frederick, F.R.S.), Accidents in Mines, 111
 Abercromby (Hon. Ralph): Electrical Condition of the Peak of Teneriffe, 31; Weather, 101; the Forms of Clouds, 129; Physical Geography of the Sea, 315; the Monsoons, 469
 Abney (Captain, F.R.S.), Treatise on Photography, 461
 Accidental Errors, Theory of, M. Faye, 527; M. J. Bertrand, 527
 Accidents in Mines, Sir Frederick Abel, F.R.S., 111
 Accumulators, Management of, Sir D. Salomons, 485
 Acetylacetone, on the Metallic Derivatives of, 72
 Acids, Action on Taste of, J. Corin, 308
Acipenser ruthenus, Structure of the, M. Zograff, 399
 Actiniae in French Mediterranean Waters, the Geographical Distribution of, P. Fischer, 192
 Actinometric Observations, on the, at Montpellier, A. Crova, 528
 Adams (Dr. H. B.), College of William and Mary, 352
 Adenin, Prof. Kossel, 168
 Aéronautics: Electric Balloon Signalling Experiments, 34
 Africa: Austral, John Mackenzie, 5; Montagu Kerr's Expedition to cross Africa by a New Route, 115; Lieut. Wissmann's Preliminary Account of his Journey across Africa, 159; Natural History Collection from Central Africa, at the British Museum, 207; Changes of Level in the African Lakes, Dr. Robt. Sieger, 354; the Akkas, a Pygmy Race from Central Africa, Prof. W. H. Flower, F.R.S., 395; Geology and Natural History of the Congo, Edouard Dupont, 421; Emin Pasha in Central Africa, 436; Exploration of Africa, Edouard Dupont, 496; Injuries caused by Lightning in Africa, Dr. Emin Pasha, 582
 Agate Pebbles from the Soudan, Prof. V. Ball, F.R.S., 574
 Agriculture: in some of its Relations with Chemistry, F. H. Storer, 100; U.S. Commission of Agriculture, Prof. John Wrightson, 188; Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society, Prof. John Wrightson, 211; the New York Agricultural Station, 524
Ailurus anglecus, Prof. W. B. Dawkins, F.R.S., 359
 Aino Idea of an Eclipse, 36; Aino Tales and Legends, Prof. Chamberlain, 351; the Gods of the Ainos, 329; the Ainos, Rev. J. Batchelor, 380
 Air, Electrification of the, C. Michie Smith, 274
 Air, Humidity of the, Dr. Assmann's Experiments on the, Dr. R. von Helmholtz, 215
 Air, Mean Temperature of the, at Greenwich, 214
 Air, Outflow of, Theory of the, under Falling Rain, H. Allen, 18
 Air-Currents, M. Garrigou-Lagrange's Apparatus for Registering the Ascending and Descending, 18
 Aitken (John): Formation of Hoar Frost, 138; on the Number of Dust Particles in the Atmosphere, 428
 Akkas, the, a Pygmy Race from Central Africa, Prof. Flower, 395
Alca impennis, Egg of, 474
 Alcohol, Deleterious Influence on Offspring of, MM. A. Mairet and Combemale, 528
Alcyonidium gelatinosum, the Reproductive Organs of, Prof. W. A. Herdman, 213
 Aldis (Prof. W. Steadman), a Text-book of Algebra, 27; Balbin's Quaternions, 535
 Alexipharmic Plants, D. Morris, 257
 Algæ, Three New Marine, E. A. Batters, 526
 Algebra Examples, Class-book of, John Cook, 102
 Algebra, a New Treatise on, Charles Smith, 232; Capt. P. A. MacMahon on, 508
 Algebra, a Text-book of, W. Steadman Aldis, 27
 Algebraic Equations, on a Source of, whose Roots are all Real, 624
 Algebraic Surfaces, Generation of, M. de Jonquières, 214
 Algeria, Earthquakes in, 186, 329
 Algol: Period of, S. C. Chandler, 544; the New Algol-Variable, γ Cygni, 37; S. C. Chandler, 90; and R Canis Majoris, S. C. Chandler, 140
 Alkaline Sulphides, Mineralizing Action of the, 407
 Allen (H.): Theory of the Outflow of Air under Falling Rain, 18; on Behaviour of Pressure and Temperature in High and Low Pressure Systems, 91
 Allen (Dr. T. F.), the Characæ of America, 443
 Alloys, Mechanical Properties of Certain, Prof. Roberts-Austen, 497
 Alpine Journal, 90
 Aluminium, Electro-deposition of, 355
 Amadeo (Dr. Antonio J.), Dispersion of Seeds and Plants, 535
 Amagat (E. H.), on the Expansion of Compressed Fluids, 167
 America: American Journal of Science, 38, 47, 162, 358, 500, 623; American Journal of Psychology, 64; on the Decorative Ideas of the Ancient Inhabitants of Central America, J. S. Newberry, 64; American Journal of Mathematics, 71; China in America, Stewart Culin, 88; American Observatories, 89, 330; American Meteorological Journal, 91, 595; Principal Characters of American Jurassic Dinosaurs, 163; American Association for Advancement of Physical Education, 186; American Lake-Trout (*S. namaycush*) at South Kensington, 208; American Forms of Fresh-water Sponges, Edward Potts, 209; Earthquakes in North America, 300; Devonian System in North America, H. S. Williams, 358; American National Geographical Society, 379; American Society of Naturalists, 300; American Folk-Lore Society, 349; Exploration for a Collection of Skeletons and Skins of American Bison or Buffalo, 351; American Ornithology, 351; American Nautical Almanac Office, Prof. Newcomb, 381; American Anthropologist, 398; the Characæ of America, Dr. T. F. Allen, 443; Manufactures from American Wood, C. R. Dodge, 473; International Congress of Americanists, 492; American Philosophical Society, Proposal to perfect a New Language for Learned and Commercial Purposes, 614. *See also* United States.
 Ammonia, Phosphites of, 48
 Amphibian and Reptilian Structures found in the Skulls of Birds, on Remnants or Vestiges of, by W. K. Parker, F.R.S., 501
 Amsterdam: Royal Academy of Sciences, 552
 Amylene, 142
 Anæsthetics (Local), Prof. Liebreich on, 480
 Anatomical Society of Great Britain and Ireland, Papers to be read at the Second Meeting of, 63

- Anatomy and Physiology, the Coming of Age of the Journal of, 441
- Ancient Monuments Act, 91
- Andaman Islands, Exploration of, 330
- André (M.), Influence of Altitude on Temperature, 282
- André (G.) and M. Berthelot, on Phosphorus and Phosphoric Acid in Vegetation, 504; on the Absorption of Saline Substances by Plants, 527
- Andrews (Thos.), Heat Dilatation of Modern Steels from Low Temperatures, 308
- Anemometers and Wind Force at Sea, W. G. Black, 321
- Angara, Vertical Section of the, at its Issue from Lake Baikal, 354
- Angling in India (Tank), by H. Sullivan Thomas, 518
- Aniline, on some Salts of, 48
- Animal Biology, by C. Lloyd Morgan, 484
- Animals from the Life, by H. Leutemann, 176
- Animals, the Sense and Senses of, Sir John Lubbock, 210
- Annalen der Hydrographie und Maritimen Meteorologie, 137
- Annales of the French Central Meteorological Office for 1885, M. L. Teisserenc de Bort on High Barometric Pressure of Asia, 422
- Annam, M. Navelle's Account of his Journey in, 16
- Annelid, a Freshwater, F. E. Beddard, 526
- Annuaire of the Bureau des Longitudes, 1888, 329
- Annuaire de l'Observatoire Royal de Bruxelles, 380
- Antagonism, Right Hon. Sir William R. Grove, F.R.S., 617
- Antarctic Exploration, the Proposed, 299
- Antedon rosacea*, Development of, H. Bury, 287
- Antennarius marmoratus*, on the Nest of the, M. L. Vaillant, 208
- Anthropods, Researches on the Sense of Vision in the, Felix Plateau, 118; Experiments on Visual Sense in, Felix Plateau, 308, 525
- Anthropology: Anthropological Institute, 88, 120, 360, 479, 624; Anthropology in England and America, 112; L'Homme avant l'Histoire, Ch. Debiere, 126; on the Stature of the Ancient Inhabitants of the Canary Islands, Dr. R. Verneau, 163; on Criminal Anthropology, Dr. R. Topinard, 163; Contributions to the Sociology of the Australians, M. Elisée Reclus, 163; on Lacustrine and Lake Villages, and Pile Dwellings, M. Pompeo Castelfranco, 163; on the Polynesians, their Origin, Migrations, &c., MM. Lesson and Martinet, 164; the Akkas, a Pygmy Race from Central Africa, Prof. W. H. Flower, F.R.S., 395; American Anthropologist, 398; E. B. Tylor's Hand-book of, translated into Spanish, 398; Folk-Lore of Ireland, Jeremiah Curtin, 473; Japanese "Go-hei," 479; Chins and Nagas, some Account of, 544; Criminal Anthropology, 596
- Antipyrine as a Remedy for Sea-sickness, Eugène Dupuy, 96
- Antiquities of Turkistan, M. Krasnof, 283
- Ants, Bees, Dragon-flies, Earwigs, Crickets, and Flies, Young Collector's Hand-book of, W. Harcourt Bath, 127
- Ants, Bees, and Wasps, the Habits of, Sir John Lubbock, 138; Anura, Carpus and Tarsus of the, Prof. G. B. Howes and W. Ridewood, 503
- Apparatus for Experiments at a High Temperature in Gas under High Pressure, L. Cailletet, 470
- Archæology: Important Additional Collections to the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, 15; Return of the Expedition sent by the Finnish Archæological Society to the Upper Yenisei, 15; Archæological Explorations near Reichenhall, 112; Archæological Discoveries in India, 138; Discovery of a Runic Stone with Inscription in Sweden, 283; Gold Armlet with Runic Inscription discovered on the Island of Fredöen, 283; Antiquities of Turkistan, M. Krasnof, 283; Stone with Drawings and Runic Inscriptions discovered on the South-West Coast of Sweden, 399; Archæological Congress at Moscow, 398; Archæological Remains, Norway, 445
- Arctic Seal Fisheries, Meeting at Tönsberg, in Norway, of those interested in, 399
- Argentine Republic, Inter-diurnal Variability of Temperature at Places in the, Dr. Oscar Doering, 39
- Argyll (Duke of, F.R.S.): on Darwin's Theory, 25; Conspiracy of Silence, 53, 246, 293; his Charges against Men of Science, Prof. John W. Judd, 317; Prof. T. H. Huxley, F.R.S., 342
- Arithmetic, Note on a Proposed Addition to the Vocabulary of Ordinary, Prof. J. J. Sylvester, F.R.S., 152
- Arithmetic and Elementary Mensuration, P. Goyen, 232
- Armlet, Ancient Gold, Discovered in a Field at Tjöring, in Denmark, 138
- Armstrong (Prof. Henry H., F.R.S.): a Note on Valency, especially as defined by Helmholtz, 303; on the Origin of Colour and the Constitution of Colouring Matter, 502
- Army Medical School, Sir Henry W. Acland, 113
- Army Regulations, the New, Henry Palin Gurney, 365
- Arnaud, Analysis of Somali Arrow Poison, 575
- Arnaudeau (M.), Supposed Method of Erecting Egyptian Monoliths, 65
- Arnold (Matthew), Death of, 594
- Arsenic, New Compound of, Dr. Schneider, 258
- Art of Computation for the Purposes of Science, Prof. W. Ramsay and Dr. Sydney Young, 294
- Art, Early Christian, in Ireland, Margaret Stokes, 341
- Arterial Arches in Vertebrates, Models illustrating the Modification of the, Prof. W. N. Parker, 499
- Asia, Central, Result of General Przewalski's Fourth Journey in, 38
- Asia Minor, Ethnological Results of M. A. Eliséeff's Journeys in, 38
- Asiatic Society of Calcutta, E. T. Atkinson's Presidential Address, 422
- Asiatic Society of Japan, Transactions of, 35
- Asia, Through Central, Rev. Dr. Henry Lansdell, 221
- Asker, in Nerice, Sweden, Meteor seen at, 614
- Assmann (Dr.), Experiments on the Humidity of the Air, 215
- Asteroids, the, Prof. Daniel Kirkwood, 233
- Astronomy: Astronomical Phenomena for the Week, 17, 37, 66, 90, 114, 140, 158, 188, 210, 234, 259, 285, 302, 330, 353, 381, 400, 423, 446, 475, 495, 520, 545, 569, 597, 616; Astronomical Column, 36, 66, 89, 114, 140, 158, 233, 259, 284, 302, 330, 353, 381, 400, 424, 446, 475, 495, 520, 544, 569, 596, 616; Reports from Various Parts of Norway respecting the Great Meteor, 36; Variable Star U Ophiuchi, S. C. Chandler, 36; the New Algol-Variable, Y Cygni, 37; Olbers' Comet, 1887, 37; Astronomical Society of France, 66; Lick Observatory, 66; American Observatories, 89; U Ophiuchi, S. C. Chandler, 90; the New Algol-Variables, S. C. Chandler, 90; Probable New Variables, John Tebbutt, Dr. Bauschinger, 114; Names of Minor Planets, 114; Spectra of Oxygen and Carbon compared with that of the Sun, Prof. Trowbridge and Hutchins, Dr. Henry Draper, Prof. J. C. Draper, 114; Olbers' Comet, 1887, Herr Tetens, 114; on the Mass of the Planet Saturn, L. de Ball, 118; Report on Total Solar Eclipse of 1887, Prof. David P. Todd, 474; Total Solar Eclipse of August 19, 1887, L. Niesten, 118; the New Algol-Variables, Y Cygni and R Canis Majoris, S. C. Chandler, 140; Minor Planet No. 271, 140; Natal Observatory, Report for 1886, 158; Olbers' Comet, 1887, 158; Probable New Class of Variable Stars, Rev. T. E. Espin, 158; M. Bertram's Note on Errors of Observation, M. Faye, 166; the Star of Bethlehem, 169; John T. Nicolson, 221; Prof. Wm. Pengelly, F.R.S., 221; E. Coatham, 221; the Planet Mercury, W. F. Denning, 178; Meteor of November 15, J. Lloyd Bowzard, 178; on the Law of Errors of Observation, J. Bertrand, 191; Total Solar Eclipse of October 29, 878; Rev. C. S. Taylor, 223; Brazilian Results from the Transit of Venus, M. Cruls, 233; the Asteroids, Prof. Daniel Kirkwood, 233; Olbers' Comet, Dr. Krueger and Dr. E. Lampy, 233; the Clinton Catalogue, 234; Occultations of Stars by Planets, Herr A. Berberich, 234; Dunér on Stars with Spectra of Class III., 234, 260; O'Gyalla Spectroscopic Catalogue, 259; Astronomical Prizes of the Paris Academy of Sciences, 259; New Observatory in Vienna, 259; M. Charlois on Olbers' Comet, 263; Mauritius Observatory, 284; Occultations of Stars by Planets, 284; Olbers' Comet, 285; Total Eclipse of the Moon, January 28, 286, 306, 495; the Cape Observatory, 302; Parallax of Mars, C. G. Stromeyer, 302; Longitude of Odessa, Dr. E. Becker and Prof. Block, 302; Winkler Observatory, Herr Winkler, 302; Royal Astronomical Society's Memoirs, 353; Publications of Dun-sink Observatory, 353; Rousdon Observatory, 353; B Delphinii, 353; New Minor Planets, 353, 495; Melbourne Observatory, 381; American Nautical Almanac Office, Prof. Newcomb, 381; J. Tebbutt's Observatory, Windsor, New South Wales, 400; Pulkowa Observatory, 400; Wolsingham Observatory, Rev. T. E. Espin, 400; Variability of Saturn's Rings, 407;

- Solar Activity in 1887, 423; Wolf's Relative Numbers, 423; Astronomy for Amateurs, J. A. Westwood Oliver, 437; a Green Sun, D. Pidgeon, 440; Meteor at Venersborg, Sweden, 445; Photographs of Lunar Eclipse, January 28, 445; Astronomical Society, Paris, 455; on the Appearances presented by the Satellites of Jupiter during Transit, 468; Annals of Harvard College Observatory, 475; Washington Naval Observatory, 475; the Fog Bow, James C. McConnel, 487; Spectroscopic Determination of the Rotation Period of the Sun, 495; Comet *a* 1888 (Sawerthal), T. W. Backhouse, 536; Period of Algol, S. C. Chandler, 544; Observations of Variable Stars, 545; Paris Catalogue of Stars, 569; Navigation and Nautical Astronomy, W. R. Martin, 582; Harvard College Observatory, 596; Comet 1888 *a* (Sawerthal), Dr. L. Becker, 597; the Pulkowa Catalogue of 3542 Stars for 1855, Dr. Backlund, 520; the Constant of Precession and the Proper Motion of the Solar System, 520; Comet 1888 *a* (Sawerthal), 520; Report on the Total Solar Eclipse of August 29, 1886, H. H. Turner, 525; on a Point in the Theory of the Moon, F. Tisserand, 527; Astronomical Society, 575; M. Delauney's Astronomical Communications, 600; Photography in the Determination of the Motions of Stars in the Line of Sight, Dr. Huggins, 616; Total Lunar Eclipse of January 28, Dr. E. Lindemann, 616; New Minor Planets, 616
- Athenæum Club, New Members, 378, 472
- Atlantic, North: Globular Lightning in, 187; Waterspouts in, 187, 567; Pilot Chart of, 444
- Atlantic Weather, British and, R. H. Scott, 350
- Atlas der Pflanzenverbreitung, 362
- Atmosphere: Crepuscular Tints in Connection with the Hygro-metric State of the, Prof. Constantino Rovelli, 404; Number of Dust Particles in the, John Aitken, 428; Atmospheric Effects at Sunset, Chas. Croft, 273; Atmospheric Electricity, Dr. W. Marcet, F.R.S., 526; on the Relations of Atmospheric Nitrogen with Vegetable Humus, Th. Schloesing, 528, 551, 624; Atmospheric Pressure, Dr. J. Hann, 231; Instruments for Measuring, 398
- Atoll of Diego Garcia and the Coral Formations of the Indian Ocean, Prof. G. C. Bourne, 546
- Attar of Roses, Production of, in Bulgaria, 616
- Auditory Nerve, Origin and Course of the, Dr. Baginski, 480
- Audubon, Proposed Monument for, 34
- Auriferous Deposit lately found West of Te Aroha, Sir James Hector, 16
- Auriferous Sands, Treatment of, by Amalgamation in Ancient Times, 551
- Aurora, Spectrum of, Notes on, J. Norman Lockyer, F.R.S., 358
- Aurora Borealis at Throntjem, 595
- Auroral Phenomenon in Sweden, Remarkable, Dr. Ekholm, 186
- Austral Africa, John Mackenzie, 5
- Australia: Contributions to the Sociology of the Australians, M. Elisée Reclus, 163; Giant Lepidopterous Larvæ in, Sidney Olliff, 232; Medusæ of the Australian Seas, Dr. R. von Lendenfeld, 399; Australian Rabbits Plague, and M. Pasteur, 421; M. Ernest Favenc's Exploration of, 493; Education in, 566; Limits of Use of the Boomerang in, 568; Monthly Meteorological Notes and Rainfall Statistics for South, C. Todd, 615; Australasian Geographical Society, 354
- Austria, Forests of, 543
- Aveling (Rev. F. W.), Light and Heat, 176
- Ayrton (Prof. W. E.) and Prof. J. Perry, on the Magnetic Circuit in Dynamo Machines, 502
- Bacillus butylicus*, Formation of Normal Amylic Alcohol in the Fermentation of Glycerine set up by, 48
- Backhouse (T. W.), Comet *a* 1888 (Sawerthal), 536
- Bacteria, Lectures on, A. De Bary, 75
- Bacteria, Reducing Action of Certain, 215
- Bacteriological Laboratory, the Proposed Batavian, 379
- Baginski (Dr.), Origin and Course of the Auditory Nerve, 480
- Bagnères de Bigorre, Proposed Establishment of a Meteorological Station at, 156
- Bagshots, the Highclere, Rev. A. Irving, 128
- Bagshot Beds, R. S. Herries, 104
- Bagshot Beds of the London Basin, Stratigraphy of, 335
- Bahamas, Earthquake at the, Robert H. Scott, F.R.S., 54; G. R. McGregor, 54; Byron N. Jones and Cornelius S. E. Lotman, 54
- Bahamas, Flora of the, W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., Baron Eggers, 565
- Bailey (E. H. S.) and E. L. Nicols, Delicacy of the Sense of Taste, 557
- Baker (J. G., F.R.S.), Hand-book of the Fern Allies, Prof. W. R. McNab, 4
- Balachany, Naphtha Spring at, 88
- Balance, Hughes's Induction, Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 6
- Balbin (Valentin), Elementos de Calculo de los Cuaterniones, &c., Gustave Plarr, 145
- Balbin's Quaternions, Prof. W. Steadman Aldis, 535
- Bale (M. Powis), Hand-book for Steam Users, 30
- Balfour (Prof. Isaac Bayley), elected Professor of Botany at Edinburgh, 421
- Ball (L. de), on the Mass of the Planet Saturn, 118
- Ball (Prof. V., F.R.S.), Eroded Agate Pebbles from the Soudan, 574
- Balloon Signalling Experiments, Electric, 34
- Ballot (Dr. Buys), Presentation of a Gold Medal to, 156
- Baltic Amber Coast in Prehistoric Times, Dr. A. Lissauer, Arthur J. Evans, 531
- Baltic, Scientific Research in the, of the German Fishery Association, 156
- Baltimore, Maryland, U.S.A., Proposed Sanitary Reforms in Public Schools at, 379
- Baltzer (Dr. R.), Death of, 89
- Barometer, at Observatories of Europe, Comparison of, A. F. Sundell, 258
- Barometers and Thermometers, Experiments with, 72
- Barometric Pressures of Asia, 422
- Bary (Anton de), Obituary Notice of, Prof. H. Marshall Ward 297
- Basset (A. B.), on the Motion of a Sphere in a Viscous Liquid, 164
- Bassot (L.), Meridian of Laghwat, 528
- Bastian (A.), Die Welt in ihren Spiegelungen unter dem Wandel des Völkergedankens: Prolegomena zu einer Gedanken-statistik, 387
- Basuto Land, Sir Marshall Clarke's Tour in, 617
- Batavia Bacteriological Laboratory, Proposed, 379
- Batchelor on the Supposed Disappearance of the Aino's, 380
- Bateson (W.) awarded the Balfour Memorial Studentship in Animal Morphology, 63
- Bath (W. Harcourt), Young Collector's Hand-book of Ants, Bees, Dragon-flies, Earwigs, Crickets, and Flies, 127
- Bathymetrical Range of Deep-sea Fishes, A. R. Hunt, 321
- Bathymetrical Survey of Perthshire Lochs, J. S. Grant Wilson, 527
- Batters (E. A.), Three New Marine Algae, 526
- Battershall (J. P.), Food Adulteration and its Detection, 411
- Bauschinger (Dr.), Probable New Variables, 114
- Bay of Bengal, Monthly Weather Charts of the, 137
- Baynes (Robert E.), Dynamical Units and Nomenclature, 465
- Beaches, Raised, *versus* High Level Beaches, A. R. Hunt, 275
- Beagle*, the, and Charles Darwin, 443
- Bear, Polar, a Tame, 301
- Beard (Dr. J.), the Old Mouth and the New, a Study in Vertebrate Morphology, 224; on the Teeth of the Myxinoid Fishes, 499
- Beaver Colony at Amlid, in Norway, Flourishing Condition of the, 140
- Beccari (Odoardo), and Malesia, 421
- Beck (Herr), Habits of a Running Spider, 283
- Becker (Dr. E.) and Prof. Block, Longitude of Odessa, 302
- Becker (Dr. L.), Comet 1888 *a* (Sawerthal), 597
- Beddard (F. E.), the Nephridia of Perichæta, 309; a Fresh-water Annelid, 526
- Belgium: Mine-Shaft successfully sunk by M. Poetsch's Method in, 208; System of Commercial and Technical Training in, 284; Meteorology of Belgium in 1887, 328
- Bell (Alfred), Post-Glacial Insects, 232
- Bell (Louis), the Absolute Wave-Length of Light, 623
- Bellesme (Jousset de), on Transportation of Live Fish, 444
- Ben Nevis Observatory, Cases of St. Elmo's Fire recorded at, 112
- Benda (Dr.): the Structure of Ganglion-Cells, 576; Researches on the Development of Spermatozoa, 264
- Bengal, Pisciculture in, 494

- Benoist (M.), a Toy Panorama, 89
 Bentham Trustees and Odoardo Beccari's Researches as published in Malesia, 421
 Bentley (Prof. Robert), Text-book of Organic Materia Medica, 460
 Benzil, Isomeric Series of Derivatives of (Prof. Victor Meyer), 443
 Benzylthiourethane, Dr. A. E. Dixon, 503
 Berberich (A.), Occultations of Stars by Planets, 234
 Bergeron (Jules), First Discovery of Trilobites of Primordial Fauna in France, 360
 Berlin Meteorological Society, 72, 552
 Berlin Ornithological Exhibition, Proposed, 88
 Berlin: Physical Society, 48, 167, 311, 408, 528, 576; Physiological Society, 144, 168, 215, 264, 336, 576
 Berliner (Dr. A.), Cause of Emission of Solid Particles by Platinum under Electric Current, 378
 Bernard (Rev. Henry), Shadow of a Mist, 392
 Bernicle Geese on Coniston Lake, William R. Melly, 585
 Berthelot (M.), on the Transformation of the Nitrates into Nitrous Organic Compounds, 479
 Berthelot and André (MM.): on the State of the Potassa in Plants, 71; on the Absorption of Saline Substances by Plants, 527, 551; on Phosphorus and Phosphoric Acid in Vegetation, 504
 Bertrand (J.): Note on Errors of Observation in Astronomy, M. Faye, 166, 191; on the Combination of Measures of the same Magnitude, 504; on the Probable Value of the Smallest Errors in a Series of Observations, 527; Geometrical Curves, M. G. Demartres on, 600
 Best (Geo. Payne), Morality and Utility, Prof. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 290
 Bethlehem, the Star of, 169; John T. Nicolson, 221; Prof. Wm. Pengelly, F.R.S., 221; E. Coatham, 221
 Bibliography of Russian Books on Chemistry, 525
 Billwiller (Dr.), Permanent Observatory on the Summit of the Santis, 350
 Biology: Liverpool Biological Society, 113; Huxley and Martin's Biology, 187; the Geographical Distribution of Actinæ in French Mediterranean Waters, F. Isambert, 192; M. L. Vaillant on the Nest of the *Antennarius marmoratus*, 208; the Relations between Geology and the Biological Sciences, Prof. John W. Judd, F.R.S., 401, 424; Animal Biology, C. Lloyd Morgan, 484; Elementary Instruction in Practical Biology, T. H. Huxley, F.R.S., and H. N. Martin, F.R.S., 505
 Bird-Lime, Composition of, 406
 Birds: the Tweeddale Collection, R. Bowdler Sharpe, 13; New Species of, from Guadalcanar, R. Bowdler Sharpe, 503; Curious Discovery about, Prof. W. P. Trowbridge, 139; Autumnal Migration of, in Ireland, Allan Ellison, 232; W. K. Parker, F.R.S., on the Secondary Carpals of Carinate Birds, 333; Flight of, M. Marey, 474; the Soaring of, by the late William Froude, 527; Birds of Wiltshire, Rev. Alfred Charles Smith, 601; Bird's-Nest or Elephant Islands of the Mergui Archipelago, Alfred Carpenter, 348
 Birdwood (Hon. H. M.), Catalogue of the Fish of Matheran and Mahableswar, 126
 Birkbeck (Sir Edward), the Carriage of Fish, 423
 Bismutosphærite from Willimantic and Portland, Connecticut, H. L. Wells, 47
 Bisulphide of Carbon, 142
 Bivalve Mollusks, by D. McAlpine, 527
 Black (W. G.), Wind Force at Sea, 321; Water Supplies and Reservoirs, 439
 Blackie (C.), a Dictionary of Place Names, 151
 Blake (Rev. J. F.), the Monian System, 526
 Blakesley (T. H.), Geometrical Method of determining the Conditions of Maximum Efficiency in the Transmission of Power by alternating Currents, 119
 Blakesley (T. E.), Electro-dynamometer and Harmonic Currents of Electricity, 502
 Bleiburg, Earthquake at, 113
 Blind and Deaf Child, Education of, 615
 Blizzard, the, H. Faye, 575
 Blondlot (B.), Double Dielectric Refraction, 360
 Blümcke (Herr), Experiments on the Resistance of Materials to Frost, 209
 Bodö, Earthquake at, 138
 Boedicker (Otto), Total Eclipse of the Moon, 318
 Bogdanoff (Prof.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 567
 Bohemia, Crustacean Fauna of the Chalk of, Prof. Dr. Anton Fritsch and Jos. Kafka, 51
 Bollettino of the Italian Geographical Society for September, 17
 Bolton (Thos.), Death of, 34
 Bombay Presidency, Meteorology of the, S. Chambers, 378
 Bombay Technical Institute, 378
 Bonney (Prof. T. G., F.R.S.): a Conspiracy of Silence, 25, 77; Life and Letters of Chas. Darwin, 73; Notes on a Part of the Huronian Series in the Neighbourhood of Sudbury (Canada), 143; Prof. Rosenbusch's Work on Petrology, 556
 Bonus (Albert), the Mist-Bow, 273
 Boomerang in Australia, Limits of Use of, 568
 Borates and Borosilicates, Analysis of some Natural, 47
 Borda (Sig. A.), on the Geography, History, and Present Social Conditions of the Republic of Columbia (New Grenada), 211
 Borneo, Expedition into, John Whitehead, 349
 Bornholm in the Baltic, Curious Christmas Customs observed in, 352
 Börnstein (Prof.), Preparation discovered by Chance, 408
 Boswell (Dr. J. T. I.), Death of, 327
 Botany: Hand-book of the Fern Allies, J. G. Baker, F.R.S.; Prof. W. R. McNab, 4; Practical Botany, F. O. Bower and Sydney H. Vines, 28; Botanical Gazette, 163, 308; Geo. Massee, on the Growth and Origin of Multicellular Plants, 163; Botanical Results of the Cruise of the *Dijumphna*, 173; a Flora of Hertfordshire, 187; Alexipharmic Plants, D. Morris, 257; Discovery of *Juncus tenuis* in Sweden, 258; Royal Botanic Garden of Calcutta, 283; Report of Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta, 476; Manual of British Discomycetes, William Phillips, 340; Atlas der Pflanzenverbreitung, 362; Botanists and the Micromillimetre, Prof. Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 388; Odoardo Beccari's Malesia and the Bentham Trustees, 421; Prof. Bayley Balfour and Edinburgh University, 421; Frank Smart Studentship of Botany, Cambridge, 430; Lund University Botanical Museum, 442; Dr. Robert Fries on the Fungus Flora of Sweden, 445; *Botryocytinus*, by E. G. Baker, 478; Sig. A. N. Berlese on the Genus of Fungi Pleospora, 500; Prof. A. Beccari on New Species of Palmæ, New Guinea, 500; Endosperm, by G. S. Boulger, 500; *Polypodium Annabelleæ*, 500; Tillandsiæ, 500; Botanical Department, the, Northern India, 522; Flora of the Bahamas, Baron Eggers, W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., 565; A. Johnston's Botanical Plates, 582; List of New Garden Plants, 595; Additional Records of Scottish Plants for the Year 1887, 615
Botryocytinus, by E. G. Baker, 478
 Bottone, S. R., Electrical Instrument-making for Amateurs, 412
 Bouchard (Ch.), Naphthol as an Antiseptic, 24
 Boulenger (G. A.), Classification of the Ranidae, 526
 Bourne (Prof. G. C.): Coral Formations, 415; the Atoll of Diego Garcia and Coral Formations of the Indian Ocean, 546
 Bouty (M. E.), on the Electric Conductibility of Concentrated Nitric Acid, 479
 Bow, Fog, and Ulloa's Ring, Dr. H. Mohn, 391
 Bower (F. O.) and Sydney H. Vines, Practical Botany Part II., 28
 Bozward (J. Lloyd), Meteor of November 15, 178
 Brady (Henry B., F.R.S.), "Soapstone" of Fiji, 142
 Brain, Monkey's, Functions of the, Dr. Sanger Brown and Prof. E. A. Schäfer, F.R.S., 214
 Brazilian Expedition, Dr. von Steinen's, 570
 Brazilian Results from the Transit of Venus, M. Cruls, 233
 Brazza (Giacomo di), Death of, 492
 Breath of Man and other Mammals, 288
 Brillouin (M.), Note on Permanent Deformations and Thermodynamics, 384
 Brinton (Dr. R. G.), Ancient Foot-prints in Nicaragua, 474
 Bristol, University College, 87
 British Association: and Local Societies, 91; Section A—Temperature Variation in Lakes, Rivers, and Estuaries, 92; Section C—Erratic Blocks Committee, 92; Sea-Coasts Erosion Committee, 93; Earth Tremors Committee, 93; Section D—Life-Histories of Plants, 93; Section H—Ancient Monuments Act, 93; Prehistoric Remains Committee, 94; Work of the Corresponding Societies Committee, 94
 British and Atlantic Weather, R. H. Scott, 350
 British Discomycetes, Manual of, William Phillips, 340
 British Empire, Annual Table of the Climate of the, 38

- British and Irish Salmonidæ, Francis Day, 242, 296, 366
 British Islands, Unusual Storms in the, 67
 British Museum, Natural History Collection from Central Africa at, 207
 British North Borneo, D. D. Daly's Explorations in, 159
 Brittle-Starfish, a Troublesome Parasite of a, J. Walter Fewkes, 274
 Brown (Prof. Crum), Apparatus for Exhibiting the Action of Semicircular Canals, 479
 Brown (E.), Swifts, 6
 Brown (John Croumbie), Management of Crown Forests at the Cape of Good Hope, 198
 Brown (Dr. Sanger) and Prof. E. A. Schäfer, F.R.S., Functions of the Monkey's Brain, 214
 Browne (A. J. Jukes), the Ffynnon Beuno and Cae Gwyn Caves, 224
 Brown-Séquad (M.), Cerebral Dualism in Voluntary Motions, 71
 Bruce (G. B.), Engineering Fifty Years ago and now, 119
 Brussels International Exhibition, Proposed Geographical Section at, 90
 Brussels Observatory, Barometric Observations, 350
 Buchanan (J. Y., F.R.S.), on Tidal Currents in the Open Ocean, 452
 Budd (C. O.), the Mist-Bow, 273
 Budde (Dr.), Recalculation of Clausius's Fundamental Law of Electro-dynamics, 408
 Bulgaria, Production of Attar of Roses in, 616
 Bulletin de l'Académie Royale de Belgique, 23, 118, 308, 477, 525
 Bulletin de l'Académie des Sciences de St. Pétersbourg, 404
 Bulletin of the American Geographical Society, 37
 Bulletin de la Société des Naturalistes de Moscou, 71
 Bunge and Toll (MM.), Return of, 67
 Burck (Dr.), Remedy for Coffee Leaf Disease, 351
 Burrows (Sir Geo., F.R.S.), Death of, 155
 Burton (W. K.), Practical Guide to Photographic and Photo-Mechanical Processes, 485
 Bury (H.), Development of *Antedon rosacea*, 287
 Butaine (M.), Celluloid as Ship-sheathing, 89
 Butterflies from Central China, J. H. Leech, 503
 Butterfly, Early Development of a, 321
- Cable-laying in the African Tropics, On a Surf-bound Coast, or, Archer P. Crouch, 147
 Cadell (Henry M.), Experiments in Mountain Building, 488
 Cadmium, on the Colloidal Sulphuret of, Eug. Prost, 23
 Cae Gwyn Caves, Ffynnon Beuno and : G. H. Morton, 32 ; Worthington G. Smith, 7, 105, 178; Dr. Henry Hicks, F.R.S., 129, 202 ; Prof. T. McKenny Hughes, 166 ; A. J. Jukes Browne, 224
 Cailletet (L.), Apparatus for Experiments at a High Temperature in Gas under High Pressure, 470 ; a New Gas-thermometer, 600
 Calabria, Earthquake in, 138
 Calcium Chloride, S. U. Pickering, 551
 Calculus, a Treatise on the Integral, Ralph A. Roberts, 75
 Calcutta, Royal Botanic Garden of, 283
 Calibration of an Electrometer, D. W. Shea, 500
 California, the Insular Flora of, in Relation to Physical Geography, 358
 Cambridge : Parliamentary Representation of Cambridge University, 15 ; and Degrees to Women, 443 ; Local Examinations and Lectures Syndicate Report, 492 ; Celebration of the Bi-Centenary of the Publication of Newton's "Principia," 614
 Campbell (Albert), the Change in Thermo-electric Properties of Tin at its Melting-point, 384
 Canada, Meteorology in, 39
 Canadian Geological Survey, 87
 Canals, Apparatus for Exhibiting the Action of Semicircular, Prof. Crum Brown, 479
 Canary Islands : Ethnology of the, Dr. Verneau, 90 ; on the Stature of the Ancient Inhabitants of the, Dr. R. Verneau, 163 ; Olivia M. Stone, 201
 Canestrini (Prof. E.), on some Effects produced by Induction-Sparks, 525
 Cape Colony, Forestry in the, 598
 Cape of Good Hope, Management of Crown Forests at the, John Croumbie Brown, 198
 Cape Observatory, 302
 Capillary Constants of Drops and Bubbles, Dr. Sieg, 167
 Carbon Atoms : Prof. Victor Meyer on, 327 ; New Properties of, Profs. Meyer and Riecke, 567
 Carbon, Bisulphide of, 142
 Carbon in the Sun, on the Existence of, 162
 Carbonate, Double, of Silver and Potassium, on the Production of the, 48
 Carbonate of Lime, Solution of, in Sea-Water, W. G. Reid, 479
 Carbonates of Soda, Natural, Part played by the Soil in the Formation of the, 407
 Carbonic Acid Gas, Effect of, Dr. Goldschneider, 144
 Carboxy-Derivatives of Quinone, Dr. J. U. Nef, 551
 Carey (A. D.), Description of his Journey around and across Turkistan, 115
 Carinthia and Styria, Earthquake at, 113
 Carles (W. R.), Life in Corea, 581
 Carlier (Dr.) and Prof. Haycraft, on Morphological Changes in the Blood during Coagulation, 527
 Carpenter (Alfred), Bird's-Nest or Elephant Islands of the Mergui Archipelago, 348
 Carpmæl (Prof. Chas.), Meteors, 273
 Carpus and Tarsus of the Anura, Prof. G. B. Howes and W. Ridewood, 503
 Carus-Wilson (Cecil) : Is Hail so Formed?, 295, 365 ; the Movements of Scree-Material, 488
 Cashmere, Coal discovered in, 301
 Caspian Sea, Winds and Pressure of, Captain Rykatschew, 257
 Castelfranco (M. Pompeo), Lacustrine and Lake-Villages and Pile-Dwellings, 163
 Caterpillars, the Vision of, 525
Catharina undulata, J. Reynolds Vaizey, 79
 Caucasus : Vascular Plants of the, 71 ; the Glaciers of the, 89 ; the Orography, Glaciation, and Ethnology of the, Douglas W. Freshfield, 496
 Cavaillon and St. Saturnin-lès-Avignon, Earthquake at, 113
 Caves : Discovery of a Stalactite, near Steinbach, in the Upper Palatinate, 16 ; the Ffynnon Beuno and Cae Gwyn, Worthington G. Smith, 7, 105, 178 ; G. H. Morton, 32 ; Dr. Henry Hicks, F.R.S., 129, 202 ; Prof. T. McKenny Hughes, 166 ; A. J. Jukes Browne, 224
 Cayley (Prof. F.R.S.), Proposed Collected Edition of his Mathematical Papers, 329
 Celluloid as Ship-sheathing, M. Butaine, 89
 Cements, Hydraulic, Experimental Researches on, M. H. Le Chatelier, Prof. W. N. Hartley, F.R.S., 554
 Centre of Water-Pressure, Geo. M. Minchin, 275
 Cerebral Dualism in Voluntary Motions, M. Brown-Séquad, 71
 Ceylon Trigonometrical Survey, Completion of, 258
 Ceylon Rainfall, 187
 Chaffanjon (M.), Journey up the Orinoco, 286
 Challenger Expedition, Zoological Results of the, 1 ; Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of the, during the Years 1873-76, 219
 Chalk of Bohemia, Crustacean Fauna of the, Prof. Dr. Anton Fritsch and Jos. Kafka, 51
 Chamberlain (Prof. Basil Hall) : Aino Tales and Legends, 351 ; Japanese "Go-hei," 479
 Chambers (F.), Meteorology of the Bombay Presidency, 378
 Chambers's Encyclopædia, 604
 Chandler (S. C.) : the New Algal Variables Y Cygni and R Canis Majoris, 140 ; Period of Algol, 544 ; U Ophiuchi, 90 ; the New Algal Variables, 90 ; Variable Star U Ophiuchi, 36
 Chaney (H. J.), the Micromillimetre, 437
 Chapin (F. H.), Ascent of a Glacier on Mummy Mountain, Northern Colorado, 354
 Char, American, Spawning at Delaford of, 89
 Characeæ of America, the, Dr. F. Allen, 443
 Chardonnnet (M. de), Artificial Silk, 595
 Charlois (M.), on Olbers' Comet, 263
 Chartres (R.), Note on a Problem in Maxima and Minima, 320
 Chatelier (M. H. Le), Recherches Expérimentales sur la Constitution des Mortiers Hydrauliques, Prof. W. N. Hartley, F.R.S., 554
 Chaumont (Surgeon-Major F. B. François de, F.R.S.), Death of, 614
 Cheltenham, Water-Supply of, 210
 Chemistry : Synthesis of Glucose, A. E. Tutton, 7 ; Chemical Society, 71, 166, 191, 310, 335, 495, 453, 502, 551, 623 ;

- Annual Meeting, 517; List of Grants made from the Research Fund, 231; Agriculture in some of its Relations to, F. H. Storer, 100; Tridimensional Formulæ in Organic, Dix Année dans l'Histoire d'une Théorie, J. H. Van 't Hoff, Prof. F. R. Japp, F.R.S., 121; New Naphthalene Derivatives, M. Roux, 156; Exercises in Quantitative Chemical Analysis, W. Dittmar, 174; Isolation of Fluorine, A. E. Tutton, 179; Compressibility of the Solution of Ethylamine in Water, F. Isambert, 192; Dr. B. Franke, on the Preparation and Constitution of the Hydrates of Manganic Oxide and Peroxide, 209; Lehrbuch der Allgemeinen Chemie, Dr. Wilh. Ostwald, M. M. Pattison Muir, 241; Practical Chemistry, by M. M. Pattison Muir and Douglas Carnegie, 265, 318; Elementary Chemistry, M. M. Pattison Muir and Charles Slater, 265, 318; Synthesis of Glucose, Drs. Emil Fischer and Tafel, 283; Elements of Chemistry, Ira Remsen, 317; Prof. Victor Meyer, on Carbon Atoms, 327; Experimental Chemistry for Junior Students, J. Emerson Reynolds, 388; the Teaching of Elementary, 389; Institute of Chemistry, Boverton Redwood and Alf. Gordon Salomon, 393; Chemical Equilibria, M. P. Duhem, 407; New Fluorides of Potassium, M. Moissan, 422; a Treatise on, by Sir H. E. Roscoe, F.R.S., and C. Schorlemmer, F.R.S., Vol. III., 460; the Teaching of Elementary, M. M. Pattison Muir, 466; Tetrasulphide of Benzene, Dr. Otto, 473; on Cinchoniline, by E. Jungfleisch and E. Léger, 479; on the Electric Conductibility of Concentrated Nitric Acid, by M. E. Bouty, 479; Products of the Oxidation of the Hydronitrocamphenes, by M. C. Tanret, 479; Nitrocamphene (*azocamphène*), M. C. Tanret, 479; on Terpinol, G. Bouchardat and R. Voiry, 479; on the Transformation of the Nitrates into Nitrous Organic Compounds, M. Berthelot, 479; the Teaching of Elementary, 487; Bibliography of Russian Books and Articles on, 525; Reactions of Direct Addition, on the Laws presiding at, J. Kabloutkoff, 525; on the Speed of Formation of Acetic Ethers of Monatomic Alcohols, by N. Menshutkin, 525; Elements and Meta-Elements, Prof. W. Crookes, F.R.S., 540; Experiments on Saturation Weights of Salts, M. Umoff, 542; Calcium Chloride, S. W. Pickering, 551; Carboxy-Derivatives of Quinone, Dr. J. U. Nef, 551; New Properties of Carbon Atoms, Profs. Meyer and Riecke, 567; Modern Chemistry, Prof. C. M. Tidy, 596; Sesquichloride of Rhodium, 600; Action of the Cyanide of Zinc on some Chlorides, 600; Action of the Tetrachloride of Carbon on Oxygenated Mineral Compounds free of Hydrogen, 600
- China in America, Stewart Culin, 88; Cause of September Typhoons in Hong Kong, Dr. W. Doberck, 439; Crepuscular Rays in China, Dr. W. Doberck, 464; China, its Social, Political, and Religious Life, G. Eug. Simon, 268; Telegraphs in China, 564; Chinese Arithmetical Notation, Local Value in, Dr. Edkins, 65; Chinese Scientific Book Depot Report, 423
- Chloride, Calcium, S. U. Pickering, 551
Chloride of Gold, a New, Prof. Julius Thomsen, 398
Chloride of Nitrogen, Explosive Nature of, Prof. Victor Meyer, 349; Dr. Gattermann, 350
Chlorophosphide of Nitrogen, Ward Couldridge, 596
Chloridops koua, Scott Barchard Wilson, 526
Cholic Acid, on the Empirical Formula of, P. Latchinoff, 525
Chorley, Lancashire, Earthquake Shock at, 138
Christiania: Brilliant Meteor seen in, December 11, 231; Snow falling from a perfectly Clear Sky in, 282
Christmas Custom, Curious, observed in Bornholm, in the Baltic, 352
Christmas Island: J. J. Lister, 203; Captain W. J. L. Wharton, F.R.S., 203; Dr. H. B. Guppy, 222
Chromorganic Salts, E. A. Werner, 503
Chromosphere, the, John Evershed, 79
Chronic Intoxication by Alcohol, on the Effects of, MM. Mairet and Combemale, 528
Church (Prof. A. H.), on Colour, 437
Churchill (Lord Randolph), the Bath Lane Science and Art School at Newcastle-on-Tyne, 15
Ciders; Congelation of, 24
Cinchonamine, on the Crystalline Form of, 120
Cinchonigine, E. Jungfleisch and E. Léger on, 360
Cinchoniline, on, E. Jungfleisch and E. Léger, 479
Cinchonine, on some Derivatives of, 264
Circulars of Information, issued by the United States Bureau of Education, 352
- Cirri, on the Movement of, and their Relation to Cyclones, M. H. Faye, 143
Clarke (Sam. F.), Conspiracy of Silence, 200
Class Experiments, Magnus Maclean, 612
Classification of Clouds, Rev. W. Clement Ley, 177
Classification of the Gasteropoda, H. de Lacaze-Duthiers, 504
Classification of the Various Species of Heavenly Bodies, Suggestions on the, J. Norman Lockyer, F.R.S., 585, 606
Clausius's Fundamental Law of Electro-dynamics, Recalculation of, Dr. Budde, 408
Climate of the British Empire, Annual Table of the, 38
Climatological Dictionary, Universal, 542
Clinton Catalogue, 234
Clodd (Edward), Story of Creation, 388
Cloud Movements in the Tropics, and Cloud Classification, Captain David Wilson-Barker, 129
Clouds: the Forms of, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 129; Classification of, Rev. W. Clement Ley, 177; Constitution of Clouds and Fogs, Prof. F. Palagi, 404
Cloué (Vice-Admiral G.), Le Filage de l'Huile, 435
Coal discovered in Cashmere, 301
Coatham (E.), Star of Bethlehem, 221
Cockran (William), Pen and Pencil in Asia Minor, 126
Cod, Iceland, to Norway, Importation of Live, 258
Coelum, the, and the Vascular System of the Mollusca and Arthropoda, Prof. Ray Lankester, 498
Coffee-Leaf Disease, Remedy for, Dr. Burck, 351
College of William and Mary, Dr. H. B. Adams, 352
Coleman (J.), on a New Diffusimeter, 527
Coleoptera, W. Champion, 503
Collins (F. Howard), on some Unapparent Contradictions at the Foundations of Knowledge, 294
Colombo Museum, Effects of Climate on Specimens in, 16
Colonies, British, Fruit-growing in, 257
Colour: A. H. Church, 437; Origin of, and the Constitution of Colouring Matters, Prof. H. E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 502; Perception of, C. E. Stromeier, 79
Colour-blindness, Cause of, Prof. W. Ramsay, 65
Colour-hearing, on, Tito Vignoli, 500
Columbia, Republic of, New Grenada, Geography, History, and Present Social Conditions of the, Signor A. Borda, 211
Colza Oil, 142
Combemale (M.) and M. Mairet on the Chronic Effects of Intoxication by Alcohol, 528
Combination of Measures of the same Magnitude, M. J. Bertrand on the, 504
Comet: a New, 424; a New Historic?, Prof. Cargill G. Knott, 344; W. H. S. Monck, 393; Olbers' (1887), 37, 158, 285; Herr Tetens, 114; Dr. Krueger, 233; Dr. Lamp, 233; M. Charlois, 263; Comet a 1888 (Sawerthal), T. W. Backhouse, 536; Dr. L. Becker, 597
Commercial Certificates Examinations, 492
Commercial Products Collection, the Forbes Watson, 379
Common (A. Ainslie, F.R.S.), Making Glass Specula by Hand, 382
Comparative Anatomy, Pineal Gland in the Walrus, Sir W. Turner, 239
Comparative Morphology and Biology of the Fungi, Mycetozoa, and Bacteria, A. De Bary, 436
Compressibility of Glass at Different Temperatures, Prof. Tail, 527
Composition of Water, Prof. T. E. Thorpe, F.R.S., 313; Dr. Sydney Young, 390, 417
Computation, the Art of, for the Purposes of Science, Sydney Lupton, 237, 262; Prof. W. Ramsay and Dr. Sydney Young, 294; E. Erskine Scott, 319; George King, 319
Congelation of Ciders, 24
Congo: Geology and Natural History of, Edouard Dupont, 421; Dr. Schwerin's Discovery of the Mouth of the River, 65; Proposed Swedish Colony at the, 65
Congress, International Geological, 87
Coniothyrium diplodiella, on the Invasion of, in 1887, 72
Coniston Lake, Bernice Geese on, William R. Melly, 585
Conspiracy of Silence, a, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 25, 77; the Duke of Argyll, F.R.S., 53, 246, 293; Samuel F. Clarke, 200; an Old Pupil of Wyville Thomson's, 200; Prof. John W. Judd, F.R.S., 272
Constant P in Observations of Terrestrial Magnetism, on the, Prof. Wm. Harkness, 127, 272; Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 127, 272

- Consumptive Patients, Importance of, breathing Pure Air, 143
 Contact Phenomena of Scottish Olivine Diabases, by Dr. Ernst Stecher, 527
 Convergence, on a General Theorem of, by J. L. Jensen, 504
 Cook (John), Class-book of Algebra Examples, 102
 Cooper's Hill, Forestry School at, 529
 Copeland (Ralph), an Incorrect Foot-note and its Consequences, 343, 445; Demonstratio Eliminationis Cramerianæ, Dr. Thomas Muir, 438
 Copper Minerals from Utah, 623
 Copper Sphere, on the Rotation of a, Dr. R. C. Shettle, 166
 Copper, Thermal Conductivity of, 328
 Coral Formations: Captain W. J. L. Wharton, F.R.S., 393; John Murray, 414, 438; Prof. G. C. Bourne, 415, 546; Robert Irvine, 461, 509, 605; James G. Ross, Dr. H. B. Guppy, 462, 604; T. Mellard Reade, 535, 488; James G. Ross, 584; Captain David Wilson-Barker, 604
 Coral Reefs and Islands, Theories of the Origin of, T. Mellard Reade, 54
 Corea, Life in, W. R. Carles, 581
 Corin (J.), Actions of Acids on Taste, 308
 Correction, a, Prof. J. J. Sylvester, F.R.S., 179
 Cory (F. W.), the Use of the Spectroscope as a Hygrometer, 143
 Cotes (E. C.) and Colonel C. Swinhoe, Catalogue of the Moths in India, H. J. Elwes, 386
 Cotton Tree in Russia, 595
 Couldridge (Ward), Chlorophosphide of Nitrogen, 596
 Cow-Pox and Vaccinal Syphilis, by Dr. C. Creighton, 483
 Craigie (Major), Twenty Years' Changes in our Foreign Meat Supply, 212
 Craters, History of the Changes in the Mount Loa, 163; James D. Dana, 500
 Creation, the Method of, W. H. Dallinger, F.R.S., 270
 Creation, Story of, Edward Clodd, 388
 Credner (Prof. R.), Reliktenseen, 496
 Creighton (Dr. C.), on Cow-Pox and Vaccinal Syphilis, 483
 Crepuscular Phenomena of 1883-84, Prof. Annibale Riccò, 118
 Crepuscular Tints in Connection with the Hygrometric State of the Atmosphere, Prof. Costantino Rovelli, 404
 Cretaceous, Texas Section of the American, 47
 Crew (Henry), Spectroscopic Determination of the Rotation Period of the Sun, 495
 Criminal Anthropology, M. Topinard, 163
 Croft (Chas.), Atmospheric Effects at Sunset, 273
 Crookes (W., F.R.S.): and the Transformation of Heat Radiations into Matter, Hugh Gordon, 536; Elements and Meta-Elements, 540
 Crouch (Archer P.), on a Surf-Bound Coast, or Cable-laying in the African Tropics, 147
 Crova (A.), on the Actinometric Observations at Montpellier, 528
 Crown Forests at the Cape of Good Hope, Management of, John Croumbie Brown, 198
 Cruls (M.), on the Value of the Solar Parallax, 215; Brazilian Results from the Transit of Venus, 233
 Crustacean Fauna of the Chalk of Bohemia, Prof. Dr. Anton Fritsche and Jos. Kafka, 51
 Crystalline Form of Polianite, on the, by E. S. Dana and S. L. Penfield, 500
 Crystals of Pyroxene, 47
 Crystals, Snow, 343
 Cuboni (Prof. G.), on the Peronospora of the Grape Vine, 525
 Culin (Stewart), China in America, 88
 Cultivation of Oysters, 572
 Culture, English, Goschen and Huxley on, 337
 Cumming (L.), Density and Specific Gravity, 584
 Currents, Vapour, Experiments on, Dr. Robert von Helmholtz, 48
 Cyanide of Zinc, Action of the, on some Chlorides, 600
 Cyclone at Mount Vernon, Illinois, 399
 Cyclone Reports of the Meteorological Department of India, 595
 Cyclones and Anticyclones, Pressure and Temperature in, Prof. H. A. Hazen, 214
 Cyclones, on the Movement of Cirri and their Relation to, M. H. Faye, 143
 Cytinaceæ, New Genus of (*Botryocytinus*), E. G. Baker, 478
 Dallinger (Dr. W. H., F.R.S.): the Microscope in Theory and Practice, Prof. S. Schwendener and Prof. Carl Naegeli, 171; the Creator, and what we may know of the Method of Creation, 270; Annual Address to the Royal Microscopical Society, 448
 Dalmatia, Earthquakes in, 186
 Dalton's Law, Prof. G. Guglielmo and V. Musina, 47
 Daly (Mrs. Dominic D.), Digging, Squatting, and Pioneering Life in the Northern Territory of South Australia, 363
 Daly's (D. D.) Explorations in British North Borneo, 159
Dammara robusta, Scars occurring on the Stem of, S. G. Shattock, 119
 Dana (E. S.) and S. L. Penfield, on the Crystalline Form of Polianite, 500
 Dana (James), Volcanoes of Hawaii, 120
 Danish Government and Geographical Research, 17
 Danish Polar Expedition, Results of the Cruise of the *Dijumphna*, 173
 Darien, on the Use of Metals among the Ancient Inhabitants of, W. H. Holmes, 568
 Darwin Free Public Library, 350
 Darwin (Charles), Life and Letters of, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 73
 Darwin, Wyville Thomson's Views on, 200
 Darwin and the *Beagle*, 443
 Darwin's Theory, Duke of Argyll on, 25
 Darwinism and the Christian Faith, 397
 Darwinism, Ethical Import of, Jacob Gould Schurman, Prof. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 290
 Darwinism in Paris, the Chair of, 256
 Daubrée (M.), Fumat Safety Lamp, 528
 Davidson (George), Submarine Valleys off the Pacific Coast of the United States, 38
 Davidson (Dr. Thomas, F.R.S.), Memorial to, 210, 397
 Davidson's Discovery of Records of the Magnetic Declination, A. D. 1714, C. A. Schott, 379
 Davison (William), appointed to the Curatorship of the Singapore Museum, 112
 Dawkins (Prof. W. B., F.R.S.), *Ailurus anglicus*, 359
 Dawson (Dr. George M.), Notes and Observations on the Kwakiol People of Vancouver Island, 518
 Dawson (Sir J. Wm., F.R.S.), Microsauria and Dendrerpeton, 393
 Day (Dr. Francis), British and Irish Salmonidæ, 242, 296, 321, 366
 De Bary (A.), Lectures on Bacteria, 75; Comparative Morphology and Biology of the Fungi, Mycetozoa, and Bacteria, 436
 De Bort, M. L. Teisserenc, on High Barometric Pressures of Asia, 422
 Debierre (Ch.), L'Homme avant l'Histoire, 126
 Decaying Wood, Green Colouring-Matter of, Henry Robinson, 536
 Decimal Places, Too many, J. Rayner Edmonds, 466
 Decimal System, a Practicable, by R. T. Rohde, 493
 Deep-sea Fishes, the Bathymetrical Range of, A. K. Hunt, 321
 Deer, Rabies among, 440
 Definition, the, of Force, and Newton's Third Law, 511
 Degrees to Women, Cambridge University, 443
 Delaford, Spawning of American Char at, 89
 Delauney's (M.) Astronomical Communications, 600
 Delphini, β , J. E. Gore, 353
 Delta of the Nile, Borings in the, 64
 Dendrerpeton, Microsauria and, Sir J. Wm. Dawson, F.R.S., 393
 Denmark, Remarkable Meteorite in, 258
 Denning (W. F.): October Meteor-Shower of 1887, 69; the Planet Mercury, 178; Meteors, 273
 Density and Specific Gravity, L. Cumming, 584
 Denslow (Van Buren) and Jane M. Parker, Thomas A. Edison and Samuel F. B. Morse, 199
 Dependence of the Colour of Bodies on the Angle of Incidence of the Rays of Light, W. Rosenberg, 525
 Derby (Earl of), on Education, 34
 Derham (Dr.), on the Revenue Method of estimating and charging the Duty on Spirits, 481
 Derham's (Dr.) Hydrometer, 497
 Dermenpthesis, 569
 Deslandres (H.), Determination in Wave-Lengths of the Two Red Rays of Potassium, 504
 Desmaux (Emile), Mattie's Secret, 76

- Determination of Mean Temperature, Dr. Müller-Erbach, 528
 Determination in Wave-Lengths of the Two Red Rays of Potassium, by H. Deslandres, 504
 Deutsche Geographische Blätter, 38
 Deutsche Seewarte, Meteorological Observations for 1° Squares of the North Atlantic Ocean, 398
 Devonian System in North America, H. S. Williams, 358
 Dewar (Profs. Liveing and), the Spectrum of the Oxyhydrogen Flame, 383
 Diamonds, Discovery of, in a Meteoric Stone, 110
 Dickson (Prof. Alexander), Obituary Notice of, 229
 Dictionary of Place-Names, C. Blackie, 151
 Diego Garcia, the Atoll of, and the Coral Formations of the Indian Ocean, Prof. G. C. Bourne, 546
 Diet, Influence of, on the Interchange of the Gases in Respiration, 408
 Dieterici (Dr.), on the Determination of the Mechanical Equivalent of Heat by the Indirect Electrical Method, 48
 Differential Calculus, Key to Todhunter's, by H. St. J. Hunter, 412
 Differential Mass-Motion, the Effect of, on the Permeability of Gas, Prof. Tait, 527
 Diffusimeter, J. J. Coleman, on a New, 527
Dijumphna, the Cruise of the, Zoological and Botanical Results of the, 173
 Dinner Table, Electric Railway for the, 65
 Dinosaurs, American Jurassic, Principal Characters of, 163
 Dismycetes, British, Manual of, by William Phillips, 340
 Diseases of the Dog, a Treatise on, by Dr. John Henry Steel, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 485
 Diseases, Timber and some of its, Prof. H. Marshall Ward, 182, 204, 227, 251, 275
 Dispersion of Seeds and Plants, Dr. Antonio J. Amadeo, 535
 Distribution of Plants, Atlas of the, 362
 Dittmar (W.), Exercises in Quantitative Chemical Analysis, 174
 Dixon (Dr. A. E.), Benzylidithiourethane, 503
 Doberck (Dr. W.): Cause of September Typhoons in Hong Kong, 439; Crepuscular Rays in China, 464
 Doering (Dr. Oscar), on the Inter-diurnal Variability of Temperature at Places in the Argentine Republic and South America generally, 39
 Döderlein (Dr. L.), the Echinoidea, Prof. P. Martin Duncan, F.R.S., 243
 Dog, a Treatise on Diseases of the, by Dr. John Henry Steel, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 485
 Donders (Prof. F. C.), Memorial Fund, 397
 Donnezan (Dr.), Discovery of a Fossil Turtle, 215
 Drammen, Earthquake at, 595
 Draper (Prof. J. C.) and Dr. H. Draper, Spectra of Oxygen and Carbon compared with that of the Sun, 114
 Dreyer (J. L. E.), Obituary Notice of Prof. H. C. F. C. Schjellerup, 154
 Drift-Ice in the Arctic Seas, Dr. Karl Pettersen on the State of, 16
 Drift-Ice, Stations for the Observation of, on the Coast of Finland, 399
 Dublin Science and Art Museum, 186
 Dufour (M.), Waterspout on the Lake of Geneva, 208
 Duhem (P.), on the Theory of Magnetism, 96
 Duncan (Prof. P. Martin, F.R.S.), Die Japanischen Seeigel, Dr. L. Döderlein, 243
 Dunér on Stars with Spectra of Class III., 234, 260
 Dunsink Observatory, Publications of, 353
 Dupont (Edouard): and the Geology and Natural History of the Congo, 421; African Exploration, 496
 Dupuy (Eugène), Antipyrine as Remedy for Sea-sickness, 96
 Duration of Life, Dr. August Weismann, P. Chalmers Mitchell, 541
 Durham (Herbert E.): Amœboid Corpuscles in, 334; Madreporite of *Cribrella ocellata*, 334
 Dust Particles in the Atmosphere, John Aitken, on the Number of, 428
 Dutch East Indies, Measure of Rainfall, 351
 Dutch Society of Naturalists, First Congress of the, 15
 Duter (E.), on the Passage of the Electric Current through Sulphur, 528
 Dyer (W. T. Thiselton, F.R.S.): Politics and the Presidency of the Royal Society, 103; Flora of the Bahamas, Baron Eggers, 565
 Dynamical Units and Nomenclature, Robert E. Baynes, 465
 Dynamics and Hydrostatics, by R. H. Pinkerton, 412
 Dynamics, Kinematics and, Elementary Treatise on, James Gordon MacGregor, Prof. A. G. Greenhill, 361
 Dynamo Machines, on the Magnetic Circuit in, by Prof. W. E. Ayrton and Prof. J. Perry, 502
 Dynamos, on the Analogies of Influence-Machines and, Prof. S. P. Thompson, 165
 Earth, Distribution of Heat over the Surface of the, Dr. Zenker, 552
 Earth, Infusorial, T. V. Lister, 30
 Earth Knowledge: a Text-book of Elementary Physiography, W. J. Harrison and H. R. Wakefield, 150
 Earth, on the Relative Motion of the, and Luminiferous Ether, 162
 Earth Shadows, Distorted, in Eclipses, Capt. Henry Toynbee, 202
 Earth Tremors: Prof. Lebour, 91; and the Wind, Prof. John Milne, F.R.S., 214; in Central Japan, Prof. Milne, 399
 Earthquakes: at the Bahamas, Robert H. Scott, F.R.S., 54; G. R. McGregor, 54; Byron N. Jones and Cornelius S. E. Lotman, 54; at Florence, 88; Proposed Commission to observe Earthquakes in Russia, 88; at Carinthia and Styria, 113; at Klagenfurt, 113; at Bleiburg, 113; at Graz and Saldenhofen, 113; at Cavaillon and St. Saturnin-lès-Avignon, 113; in Iceland, 113; the Recent, Th. Thoroddsen, 201; in England, 138, 186, 350; Worthington G. Smith, 127; H. George Fordham, 151; in Scotland, 350; C. A. Stevenson, 527; at Bodö, 138; in Calabria, 138; in Dalmatia and Algeria, 186; at Algiers, 329; at Prinpolje and Plewlje, in Bosnia, 231; at Werny, in Turkistan, 231; at Geneva, 231; at Mexico, 231; Model of an Earthquake, Prof. Sekiya, 297; Earthquakes in North America, 300; at Solum, Norway, 329; Speed of Charleston Earthquake, Newcomb and Dutton, 358; Earthquake in Grenada (Island), 378; at Örebro, Central Sweden, 399; Reports on Earthquakes in Sweden, 543; Earthquakes in the West Indies, 421; Central Norway, 421; in the Levant, 523; at Drammen, 595; at Linthol, 595; in North Wales, 595; at Oldenburg, 614; Earthquake Sounds, Prof. Milne, 543
 Echinoidea, the, Dr. L. Döderlein, Prof. P. Martin Duncan, F.R.S., 243
 Eclipse, Aino Idea of an, 36
 Eclipse, Total, of the Moon, 286, 306, 333, 495; Otto Boedicker, 318; Dr. E. Lindemann, 616
 Eclipse, Total Solar, of August 19, 1887, L. Niesten, 118; Japanese Photographs, 300; Prof. Vogel, 311
 Eclipse, Total Solar, of October 29, 878, Rev. C. S. Taylor, 223
 Eclipses, Distorted Earth Shadows in, Captain Henry Toynbee, 202
 Edinburgh: Royal Physical Society, 120, 284; Royal Society, 214, 239, 335, 383, 454, 479, 488, 527; Proceedings of, 518; University, Prof. Bayley Balfour and the Chair of Botany, 421
 Edison (Thomas A.) and Samuel F. B. Morse, Van Buren Denslow and J. M. Parker, 199
 Edkins (Dr.), Local Value in Chinese Arithmetical Notation, 65
 Edmonds (J. Rayner), Too many Decimal Places, 466
 Education, Earl of Derby on, 34
 Education: in Australia, 566; Chinese, 269; in Scotland, 349; Report of the U.S. Commission on, 1885-86, 422; Existing System of Elementary, 542; Medical, at Oxford, George J. Wilson, 5; Physical, American Institution for Advancement of, 186; Practical Education, Chas. G. Leland, 562; Education, Technical, 34, 186, 374; Prof. Hele Shaw, 43; Sir John Lubbock, 284; in France, 329; in Manchester, 121; in Russia, 566; Bill to Provide for, in England and Wales, 614; in the Colony of Victoria, 614
 Educational List and Directory, W. Stephen, 16
Egeria, the, Deep-Sea Soundings in the Indian Ocean, 327
 Eggers (Baron H.): Excursion into the Interior of San Domingo, 545; Flora of the Bahamas, W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., 565
 Egyptian Monoliths, Supposed Manner of Erection of the, M. Arnaudeau, 65

- Ekholm (Dr.), Remarkable Auroral Phenomenon in Sweden, 186
- Elasmotherium, the, Albert Gaudry, 72, 575
- Elastic Solids, a Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of Perfectly, W. J. Ibbetson, 97
- Electricity: Electrical Inertia, 8; Condition of the Medium near a Circuit, 8; Energy of the Current, 9; Phenomena peculiar to a Starting, or Stopping, or Varying Current, 9; Voltaic Battery, 11; Thermo-electric Pile, 11; Passage of Electricity through a Gas, 12; a Current regarded as a Moving Charge, 12; Modern Views of, Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 8, 105, 322, 344, 366; Electrical Condition of the Peak of Teneriffe, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 31; Electric Balloon Signalling Experiments, 34; Storage of Electrical Energy, Gaston Planté, Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., 50; Experiments on the Transmission of Electrical Energy, 382; Electric Railway for the Dinner-table, 65; Loss of Electricity by Conductors in Damp Air, Guglielmo, 88, 382; Determination of Electrical Resistance of Tubes of Mercury, Dr. Weinstein, 167; Development of Feeble Currents, Dr. C. R. Alder Wright, F.R.S., and C. Thompson, 213; Electricity for Public Schools and Colleges, W. Larden, 217; Electrification of the Air, C. Michie Smith, 274; Electrical Notes, 303, 382, 570; Impossibility of separating Elements of Alloys by means of Electric Currents, Prof. Roberts-Austen, 303; Prof. J. J. Thomson's Discovery that Sparks in Tubes dissociate Iodine, Bromine, and Chlorine, 303; on the Heating of Metallic Points when discharging their Electricity, Prof. Eugenio Semmola, 308; Explosion of a Mixture of Hydrogen and Oxygen obtained by Electrolysis, Prof. Oettingen, 311; Electrical Column, 331, 354, 447, 497; Welding Metal by Electricity, 331; Fusing Wires by Currents, 331; Improvements in Platinum Batteries, 354; Sir William Thomson, Electrical Measuring Instruments, 355; Hertz's Experiments on Influence of Ultra-Violet Rays on Passage of Sparks, 355; Magnetic Qualities of Metals under Heat, 355; Treatment by Electricity of Sewage, 355; Iron for Lightning Conductors, 355; Electro-deposition of Aluminium, 355; Cause of Emission of Solid Particles by Platinum under Electric Current, Dr. A. Berliner, 378; Electric Lamps, Subaqueous, 382; the Distribution of Electricity for Lighting Purposes by means of Secondary Generators, 382; Transition-Resistance and Polarization at Platinum Surfaces, W. Peddie, 383; the Change in Thermo-electric Properties of Tin at its Melting-point, Albert Campbell, 384; Interference of Electrical Vibrations produced by the Electrical Oscillations discovered by Peddersen during the Spark Discharge, Prof. Oettingen, 408; Electro-dynamics, Recalculation of Clausius's Fundamental Law of, Dr. Budde, 408; Electrical Instrument-Making for Amateurs, by S. R. Bottone, 412; on the Optical Demonstration of Electrical Stress, Prof. A. W. Rücker, F.R.S., and C. V. Boys, 407; Electrical Rules and Tables, Munro and Jamieson, 443; Calibration of an Electrometer, D. W. Shea, 500; Electro-dynamometer and Harmonic Currents of Electricity, T. H. Blakesley, 502; Researches into the Oscillations of Electrical Force in Electrolytes, by A. Sokoloff, 525; Researches on the Influence of Magnetism and Temperature on Electric Resistance of Bismuth and its Alloys with Lead and Tin, Ed. van Aubel, 525; on New Determinations of the Electric Resistance of Liquids, W. Peddie, 527; Passage of Electric Current through Sulphur, E. Duter, 528; Voltaic Electricity, T. P. Treglohan, 533; the Influence of Rays of High Refrangibility on Electrical Discharges, 570; Experiments on Questions of Counter Electromotive Force of Arc Lamps, Lecher, 570; Experiments on Wire-Temperature under varying Air-Pressure, Bottomley and Cailletet, 570; Measurements of Various Constituents of Voltaic Cells, 570; Influence of Magnetism on Electric Resistance of Solid Conductors, Dr. Faè, 573; Various Related Forms of Electromotors, C. R. A. Wright, F.R.S., and C. Thompson, 573; Electromotive Properties of the Electrical Organ of *Torpedo marmorata*, Francis Gotch, 623; Electromotive Force of Magnetization, 623; on a Regulator of Electric Light, 624
- Elements and Meta-Elements, 540
- Elephant Islands of the Mergui Archipelago, Alfred Carpenter, 348
- Elephant and Mastodon, Were the, Contemporary in Europe?, H. P. Malet, 488
- Eliséeff's (M. A.) Ethnological Results of Journeys in Asia Minor since 1881, 38
- Elk shot in Galicia, 301
- Ellison (Allan), Autumnal Migration of Birds in Ireland, 232
- Elson (S. R.), the Sailor's Sky Interpreter, 5
- Elwes (H. J.), Catalogue of the Moths of India, E. C. Cotes, and Colonel C. Swinhoe, 386
- Embryology, a Text-book of, by Prof. Oscar Hertwig, 506
- Emin Pasha in Central Africa, R. W. Felkin, 436
- Emin (Dr., Pasha): Injuries caused by Lightning in Africa, 582; Letter from, 595
- Encyclopædia, Chambers's, 604
- Encyclopædic Dictionary, Vol. VI., 30
- Engineering now and Fifty Years since, G. B. Bruce, 119
- England, Foreign Fruits available for Acclimatization in, F. T. Mott, 35
- England: Earthquakes in, 138, 186, 350; Worthington G. Smith, 127; H. George Fordham, 151
- England and Wales, Bill to provide for Technical Education in, 614
- English Culture, Goschen and Huxley on, 337
- Enock's Autocopyist Sketches of Insects, 187
- Ensilage, Experiments upon, 212
- Entomology: Introduction of the Hessian Fly into Great Britain, 23; Entomological Society, 23, 95, 191, 310, 431, 503, 575; an Account of New Zealand Scale Insects, W. M. Maskell, 125; Enock's Autocopyist Sketches of Insects, 187; the Post-embryonic Development of *Fulus terrestris*, H. G. Heathcote, 190; Giant Lepidopterous Larvæ in Australia, Sidney Olliff, 232; Post-Glacial Insects, Alfred Bell, 232; a Year's Insect-Hunting at Gibraltar, J. J. Walker, 300; Unusually Insect Development, John Morison, 321; Butterflies from Central China, J. H. Leech, 503
- Eocene Strata in the Tertiary Basins of England, Belgium, and North of France, Prof. Joseph Prestwich, F.R.S., 287
- Eolipyle, a New, M. Paquelin, 504
- Equations: Linear Differential, Invariants, Covariants, and Quotient Derivatives associated with, A. R. Forsyth, F.R.S., 309; Immediate Solution of, by Electricity, Felix Lucas, 479
- Equatorial *Coudé* and Equatorials in general, M. Lœwy and P. Puiseux, 504, 527
- Espin (Rev. T. E.), Probable New Class of Variable Stars, 158
- Etard (A.), on the Decreasing Solubility of the Sulphates, 504
- Ether, 142; on the Relative Motion of the Earth and Luminiferous Ether, 162
- Ethical Import of Darwinism, Jacob Gould, Prof. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 290
- Ethnography: Internationales Archiv für Ethnographie, 398
- Ethnology: Results of M. A. Eliséeff's Journeys in Asia Minor since 1881, 38; Ethnology of Canary Islands, Dr. Verneau, 90; Gospel Ethnology, S. R. Pattison, 293; Ethnology of the Ainos, Rev. J. Bachelor, 380; Ethnological Objects, Baron von Schwerin's Collection, 442; W. H. Holmes, on the Use of Metals among the Ancient Inhabitants of Darien, 568; Mound Exploration, Cyrus Thomas, 615
- Ethylamine in Water, Compressibility of the Solution of, F. Isambert, 192
- Euclid, the Harpur, E. M. Langley and W. S. Phillips, 271
- Europe, Northern, Highest Peaks in, 37
- Evans (Arthur J.), Baltic Amber Coast in Prehistoric Times, Dr. A. Lissauer, 531
- Evershed (John), the Chromosphere, 79
- Ewing (Prof.), Illimitability of Magnetization of Iron, 303
- Excursions et Reconnaissances of Saigon, 16
- Explanation Explained, an, Prof. John W. Judd, F.R.S., 363
- Eye, the Photography of the Pupil when in Darkness, Dr. C. du Bois-Reymond, 576
- Fachner (Dr. Gustav Theodor), Death of, 111
- Faè (Dr.), Influence of Magnetism on Electric Resistance of Solid Conductors, 573
- Fairy Rings, 61; J. Sargeant, 151
- Farm, Tenants of an Old, Henry C. McCook, 363
- Farmer's Friends and Foes, Theodore Wood, 388
- Farre (Dr. Arthur), Death of, 186
- Favenc (M. Ernest), and Exploration in Australia, 493
- Favorsky (A.), Isomery, 525
- Fawcett (W.), the Shadow of a Mist, 224

- Faye (H.): M. Colladon's Recent Note on Waterspouts and Tornadoes, 120; on the Movement of Cirri and their Relation to Cyclones, 143; M. Bertram's Note on Errors of Observation, 166; Theory of Accidental Errors, 527; the Blizzard, 575
- Feeble Currents, Development of, by Physical Action, Dr. C. R. Alder Wright, F.R.S., and C. Thompson, 213
- Feistmantel (Dr. Ottokar), Die Theekultur in Britisch-Ost-Indien, im funfzigsten Jahre ihres Bestandes, Historisch, Naturwissenschaftlich, und Statistisch, 409
- Fern Allies, Hand-book of the, J. G. Baker, F.R.S., Prof. W. R. McNab, 4
- Fernando Noronha, Island of, Rev. T. S. Lea, 617
- Ferric Chloride, Vapour Density of, Drs. Grünewald and Victor Meyer, 518
- Fewkes (J. Walter), a Troublesome Parasite of a Brittle-Starfish, 274
- Ffynnon Beuno and Cae Gwyn Caves, the: Worthington G. Smith, 7, 105, 178; Caves, G. H. Morton, 32; Dr. Henry Hicks, F.R.S., 129, 202; A. J. Jukes Browne, 224
- Fibres and Fibrous Substances, Indian, 443
- Fiji, "Soapstone" of, Henry B. Brady, F.R.S., 142
- Finck (H. T.), Romantic Love and Personal Beauty, F. T. Richards, 149
- Finland, Stations for the Observation of Drift Ice along the Coast of, 399
- Finnish Archeological Society, Return of Expedition to the Upper Yenisei, 15
- Fire, the Origin of, E. Tregear, 518
- Fischer (Dr. Emil), Synthesis of Glucose, 283
- Fishes: on some of the Affinities between *Ganoidei chondrostei* and other, Dr. Nicholas Zograf, 70; Imports of Frozen Fish into France, 89; Fish Culture, 89; Curious Proof of the Enduring Capacity of Salmonidæ Ova, 208; Fifth Annual Report of the Fishery Board for Scotland, 132; Arctic Seal, and Scottish Fishery Board, 399; German Fishery Association Scientific Research in the Baltic, 156; M. L. Vaillant on the Nest of the *Antennarius marmoratus*, 208; United States Fish Commission, 316; the Bathymetrical Range of Deep-Sea Fishes, A. R. Hunt, 321; Transport of Fish, Sir Edward Birkbeck on the, 423; Jousset de Bellesme, 444; Fish Supply of Bengal, Nidhiram Mookerjee, 494; Report on Fisheries of New South Wales, 494; the Teeth of the Myxinoïd, by Dr. J. Beard, 499
- Fitzgerald (Mrs. P. F.), a Treatise on the Principle of Sufficient Reason, 30
- Flamingo, the Nest of the, E. J. Dunn, 465
- Flammariion (Camille), L'Atmosphère—Météorologie Populaire, 580
- Flight (Walter, F.R.S.), a Chapter in the History of Meteorites, 30
- Flood, and the Mammoth, 343; Henry H. Howorth, 123, 200, 295
- Flora of the Bahamas, W. T. Thielson Dyer, F.R.S., Baron Eggers, 565
- Flora of Howth, H. C. Hart, 245
- Flora of Matheran and Mahableshwar, Catalogue of the, Hon. H. M. Birdwood, 126
- Flora of Nova Zembla, Herr Holm's Report of the, 173
- Florence, Earthquake at, 88
- Flour Manufacture, F. Kick, 316
- Flower (Prof. W. H., F.R.S.), the Akkas, a Pygmy Race from Central Africa, 395
- Fluids, on the Expansion of Compressed, E. H. Amagat, 167
- Fluorescences, New, with well-defined Spectral Rays, 47
- Fluorhydric Acid, the Influence on Tuberculosis of, 187
- Fluorides of Potassium, New, discovered by M. Moissan, 422
- Fluorine, Isolation of, A. E. Tutton, 179
- Fluorine, the Physical Nature of, Drs. Wallach and Heusler, 301
- Fly, the Hessian, 23; Prof. Lindeman on the, 157; Charles Whitehead, 212
- Fog: Observation of, M. Renon, 282; Extraordinary Fog in January 1888 at Shirenewton Hall, Chepstow, E. J. Lowe, F.R.S., 294
- Fog-Bow: James C. McConnel, 487; and Ulloa's Ring, Dr. H. Mohn, 391
- Fog Signal, Proposed Establishment of a, near Halland's Wäderö Lighthouse, 231
- Fog and Smoke in London, Increase of, Sir Douglas Galton, 208
- Fogs and Clouds, Constitution of, Prof. F. Palagi, 404
- Folk-Lore: the Folk-Lore Journal, 64, 351; Rev. J. Batchelor on the Gods of the Ainos, 329; Jeremiah Curtin on the Folk-Lore of Ireland, 473
- Food Adulteration and its Detection, J. P. Battershall, 411
- Food of the Japanese, Dr. Kellner and M. Mori, 445
- Footprints, Ancient, in Nicaragua, Dr. R. G. Brinton, 474
- Foote (Dr. A. E.), Gems and Ornamental Stones of the United States, 68
- Foraminifer, a New, J. Kunstler, 504
- Foraminifera, an "Instructive" Bibliography of the, Chas. Davies Sherborn, 583
- Forbes (H. O.): Letters from, 111; and Exploration of New Guinea, 421
- Forbes-Watson Commercial Products Collection, the, 379
- Forcrand (M. de) and M. Villard, on the Hydrate of Sulphurated Hydrogen, 528
- Force: the Definition of Force, and Newton's Third Law, 511; Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 558
- Fordham (H. George), the Supposed Earthquake in England, 151
- Forel (Prof. F. A.): Experiments on Penetration of Light into Water, 88; Photographic Experiments on Penetration of Light in Lake of Geneva, 575
- Forestry: Forest Meteorological Observations of Germany, 113; Destruction of Forests in Norway, 352; Forests of Austria, 543; Management of Crown Forests at the Cape of Good Hope, J. Croumbie Brown, 198; Forestry School for England, 327; at Cooper's Hill, 529; Forestry in the Cape Colony, 598
- Forms of Clouds, the Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 129
- Forster (W. G.), Seismology, 523
- Forsyth (A. R., F.R.S.): Invariants, Covariants, and Quotient Derivatives associated with Linear Differential Equations, 309; a Class of Functional Invariants, 550
- Forth, Firth of, as a Nursery for Fish, 133
- Fossil Mammalia in the British Museum, Catalogue of, Richard Lydekker, 461
- Fossil Pterodactyl Skull found in the Yorkshire Lias, 598
- Fossil Turtle, Discovery of a, by Dr. Donnezan, 215
- Foster (Prof. M., F.R.S.), Obituary Notice of Rev. Coutts Trotter, 153
- Foundations of Knowledge, on some Unapparent Contradictions at the, F. Howard Collins, 294
- Fowler (G. Herbert), Prof. A. Weismann's Theory of Polar Bodies, 134
- Fowler (Dr. G. H.), the Anatomy of the Madreporia, 572
- Fowler (W. Warde), Migration of Swallows along the Southern Coast, 6
- Fox (Howard), Gneissic Rocks off the Lizard, 526
- France: Rewards for killing Wolves in, 65; Astronomical Society of, 66; Imports of Frozen Fish into, 89; Increase of Oyster Cultivation in, 139; a New Magnetic Survey of, 275; Prof. T. E. Thorpe, F.R.S., 247; Technical Education in, 329; French Association for the Advancement of Science, 378; Meeting at Oran, 542; French Meteorological Society, 568; Missions approved by French Ministry of Public Instruction, 614; Exact Superficial Area of France calculated by the Planimetric Method, 624
- Franke (Dr. B.), on the Preparation and Constitution of the Hydrates of Manganic Oxide and Peroxide, 209
- Fresnel's Wave Surface, on the most General Equations of Double Refraction Compatible with, Maurice Lévy, 143
- Friedel and Crafts, and New Naphthalene Derivatives, 156
- Fries Dr. Robert, on the Fungus-Flora of Sweden, 445
- Fritsch (Prof. Dr. Anton): and Jos. Kafka, Die Crustaceen der Böhmischen Kreideformation, 51; Fauna der Gaskohle und der Kalksteine der Permformation Bohmens, 244
- Frogs, Weasel (*Mustela vulgaris*) seen destroying Frogs, 208; M. S. Pembrey, 321
- Frost, Experiments on the Resistance of Materials to, Herr Blümcke, 209
- Froude (the late William), on the Soaring of Birds, 527
- Fruit, Capabilities of our Colonies to grow and export, F. T. Mott, 35; Fruits, Foreign, available for Acclimatization in England, 257
- Fry (Right Hon. Lord Justice Edward, F.R.S.), 463

- Fumate Safety Lamp, M. Daubrée, 528
 Functional Invariants, a Class of, A. R. Forsyth, F.R.S., 550
 Fungi, Mycetozoa, and Bacteria, Comparative Morphology and Biology of the, A. De Bary, 436
 Fungus-Flora of Sweden, Dr. Robert Fries, 445
 Fusel Oil, New Instrument, Stalagmometer, for determining the Amount of, in Spirituous Liquors, Herr Traube, 209
- Gad (Prof.), the Chewing Movements in Rats, 576; Sawyer's Experiments as to Existence and Separation of Irritability and Conducting Power in Nerves, 576
 Galicia, Elk shot in, 301
 Gallaudet (Thos. Hopkins), Meeting at Philadelphia to celebrate Centenary of, 232
 Galton (Francis, F.R.S.), Lectures on Heredity and Nurture at South Kensington Museum, 112
 Galvanometer, Reflecting, G. L. Addenbrooke, 502
 Gamble (J. G.), Rainfall on and around Table Mountain, 143
 Ganglion-Cells, the Structure of, Dr. Benda, 576
Ganoidei chondrostei, on some of the Affinities between, and other Fishes, Dr. Nicholas Zograf, 70
 Garden Plants, List of New, 595
 Garrett (Andrew), Death of, 282
 Garrigou-Lagrange (M.), Apparatus for registering the Ascending and Descending Air-Currents, 18
 Gas Analysis, Short Treatise on, W. Dittmar, 174
 Gas-Burners, Siemens's, 136
 Gas-Thermometer, a New, M. L. Cailletet, 600
 Gases, Interchange of, in Respiration, Influence of Diet on, 408
 Gases, New Method for Measurement of Magnetism of, Prof. Töppler, 576
 Gases, on the Part played by the Stomata in the Inspiration and Expiration of, 72
 Gases, Specific Heat of, Dr. Pringsheim, 216
 Gasteropods: *Aplysia* type, *A. depilans* and *A. fasciata*, on the Nervous System of the, 120; Classification of the, by H. de Lacaze-Duthiers, 504
 Gattermann (Dr.): Researches as to the Nature of Chloride of Nitrogen, 350; and Trichloride of Nitrogen, 494
 Gaudry (Albert), on the Elasmotherium, 73, 575
 Geese, Bernicle, on Coniston Lake, William R. Melly, 585
 Geikie (Dr. Archibald, F.R.S.), the Age of the Altered Limestones of Strath, Skye, 191
 Gelatinous State, on the, of Albuminoid Bodies, W. Mikhailoff, 525
 Gems and Ornamental Stones of the U.S., Dr. A. E. Foote, 68
 Gems and Vitrifications Phosphorescent, on an Ancient Process for Rendering, M. Berthelot, 407
 Geneva, Earthquake in, 231
 Geneva, Lake of, Waterspout on the, M. Dufour, 208
 Geography: Decision of the Danish Government upon Hydrographically measuring and charting Guldborg Sound, the New Harbour at Odense, and the Randers and Mariager Fjords in Jutland, Proposed Expedition to Iceland, 17; Signor E. Modigliani on Nias, 17; Geographical Notes, 17, 37, 66, 89, 115, 158, 211, 285, 302, 330, 381, 447, 496, 545, 570, 597, 617; Scottish Geographical Magazine, 37; Highest Peaks in Northern Europe, 37; Mittheilungen of the Vienna Geographical Society, 37; Bulletin of the American Geographical Society, 37; Account of R. E. Peary's Journey into the Interior of Greenland, 37; Deutsche Geographische Blätter, 38; Proposed Research in Icelandic Waters, 38; Exploration in New Guinea, 38; Submarine Valleys of the Pacific Coast of the U.S., 38; Latest Communication from H. M. Stanley, 38; Izvestia of the Russian Geographical Society, 38; Result of General Przewalski's Fourth Journey in Central Asia, 38; Ethnological Results of M. A. Eliséeff's Journeys in Asia Minor since 1881, 38; Ascent of Owen Stanley Range of New Guinea, by E. H. Martin, 66; Return of Herr Krause from his Journey from Salaga through Dahomey, 66; J. McCarthy on Siam, 66; Return of MM. Bunge and Toll, 67; Geographical Section at Brussels, International Exhibition, Proposed, 90; Examination of Existing Charts of Ocean Currents Contiguous to the Coast of California, 115; Montagu Kerr's Attempt to cross Africa by a New Route, 115; A. D. Carey's Journey across and around Turkistan, 115; Medals awarded by the Paris Geographical Society, 211; News from Herr Gottlob Adolf Krause, 211; Geography, History, and Social Conditions of the Republic of Columbia, New Grenada, Signor A. Borda, 211; Rio Dôce and its Northern Tributaries, Brazil, W. J. Steains, 285; Dr. Meyer's Ascent of Kilimanjaro, 285; Petermann's Mittheilungen, 286; Scottish Geographical Society, 286; Height of the Land and Depth of the Ocean, John Murray, 286; M. Chaffanjon's Journey up the Orinoco, 286; Physical Geography of the Sea, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 315; Return of M. Thouar, 354; Ascent of a Glacier on Mummy Mountain, Northern Colorado, E. H. Chapin, 354; Dr. H. Meyer's Ascent of Mount Kilimanjaro, 354; Australasian Geographical Society, 354; Height of Mount Obree, 354; Vertical Section of the Angara at its Issue from Lake Baikal, 354; Changes of Level in African Lakes, Dr. Robert Sieger, 354; History of the Ocean, Prof. Euard Süß, 354; J. F. Needham engaged to conduct an Expedition to Hukeng Valley, 354; Exploration of the Sierra Nevada of Santa Marta, Dr. W. Sievers, 354; Dr. Zintgraff's Start for Rio del Rey, 354; Practical Geography for Schools, Alfred Hughes, 412; African Exploration, Edouard Dupont, 496; Baron Egger's Excursions into the Interior of San Domingo, 545; Recent Journeys along the Coast of Greenland, 546; Solomon Islands, C. N. Woodford, 546; Death of Nicolas von Miklucho-Maclay, 597; Death of Herr Anton Stecker, 597; Founder's Medal of the Royal Geographical Society awarded to Clements R. Markham, C.B., F.R.S., 617; Royal Medal awarded to Lieut. Wissmann, 617; Island of Fernando Noronha, Rev. T. S. Lea, 617; Basuto Land, Sir Marshall Clarke, 617
- Geology: the Ffynnon Beuno and Cae Gwyn Caves, Worthington G. Smith, 7, 105, 178; G. H. Morton, 32; Dr. Henry Hicks, F.R.S., 129, 202; Prof. T. McKenny Hughes, 166; A. J. Jukes Browne, 224; the Work of the International Congress of Geologists, G. K. Gilbert, 19, 40; Geologists' Association, 71; Fifty Years' Progress in British, 71; International Geological Congress, 87; Canadian Geological Survey, 87; a Sketch of Geological History, being the Natural History of the Earth and its Pre-Human Inhabitants, Edward Hull, F.R.S., 103; Note on the so-called "Soapstone" of Fiji, Henry B. Brady, F.R.S., 142; Notes on a Part of the Huronian Series in the Neighbourhood of Sudbury (Canada), Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 143; Geological Society, 142, 166, 191, 287, 335, 359, 431, 526, 574; Medals and Funds, 327; Annual Meeting of, 478; Post-Glacial Time, T. Mellard Reade, 478; the Age of the Altered Limestone of Strath, Skye, Dr. Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., 191; Eocene Strata in the Tertiary Basins of England, Belgium, and North of France, Prof. Joseph Prestwich, F.R.S., 287; Devonian System in North America, H. S. Williams, 358; Primordial Fauna in France, First Discovery of Trilobites of, Jules Bergeron, 360; Retirement of Prof. Prestwich from the Chair of Geology at Oxford, 397; the Relations between Geology and the Biological Sciences, Prof. John W. Judd, F.R.S., 401, 424; Tertiary Formations near Cape La Mortola in Liguria, North Italy, Prof. T. Taramelli, 404; Griesbach on Geology in Afghanistan, 421; Geology of Congo Coast and Kassai, Edouard Dupont, 421; Geological Record for 1879, 422; Mr. Warren Upham on Lake Agassiz, 473; Were the Elephant and Mastodon Contemporary in Europe?, Henry H. Howorth, M.P., 480; on Chemical, Physical, and Stratigraphical, Prof. Prestwich, F.R.S., 482; the Movements of Scree Material, Cecil Carus-Wilson, 488; Geological Chart of the River Surinam, 552; a Manual of the Geology of India, F. R. Mallet, 556; Geology of the Taconic Area, 623
- Geometry: Geometric Form of the Effects of Radiation in the Diurnal Motion of the Stars, M. Gruey, 72; Solutions to Problems contained in a Treatise on Plane Co-ordinate Geometry, I. Todhunter, F.R.S., 75; Greek Geometry, 78; Geometrical Method of determining the Conditions of Maximum Efficiency in the Transmission of Power by Alternating Currents, T. H. Blakesley, 119; a Primary Geometry, S. E. Warren, 317; on the Division of the Sum of a Geometrical Series whose First Term is Unity and Common Ratio any Positive or Negative Integer, Prof. J. J. Sylvester, F.R.S., 417; Geometry in Space, 603
- German Fishery Association Scientific Research in the Baltic, 156
 German Geographical Society, 186

- German Society of Analytical Chemists, 186
 German Universities, Number of Students at the, 352
 Germany, Forest Meteorological Observations of, 113
 Gilbert (G. K.), the Work of the International Congress of Geologists, 19, 40
 Girard (Jules), Probable Temperature of Pole, 91
 Glaciers : on the Internal Temperature of, 72 ; of the Caucasus, 89 ; Greenland Glaciers, Prof. Joseph Prestwich, F.R.S., 200
 Glasgow, Mitchell Library, 596
 Glass Specula, Making, by Hand, A. Ainslie Common, F.R.S., 382
 Globus, Change in the Editorship of, 232
 Glucose, Synthesis of, A. E. Tutton, 7 : Drs. Emil Fischer and Tafel, 283
 Gluteal Region, Dr. Virchow, 480
 Glycerine, *Bacillus butylicus* and, 48
 Gneissic Rocks off the Lizard, by Howard Fox, 526
 Gobi, East, and East Tibet, M. Potanin's Journeys in, 141
 Godwin (George, F.R.S.), Death of, 327
 Gold Armet with Runic Inscription discovered on the Island of Fredöen, 283
 Gold, a New Chloride of, Prof. Julius Thomsen, 398
 Gold, Sulphides of, 34
 Goldschneider (Dr.), Carbonic Acid Gas and Rise of Temperature, 144
 Golf, Toeing and Heeling at, T. Mellard Reade, 31
 Goodwin (W. L.), Music in Nature, 151
 Gordon (Hugh), Mr. Crookes and the Transformation of Heat Radiations into Matter, 536
 Gore (J. E.), β Delphini, 353
 Gore's Railway, Prof. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 128
 Gorgeu (Alex.), Action of Washing on Several Oxides and Salts of Manganese, 504
 Goschen and Huxley on English Culture, 337
 Gospel Ethnology, S. R. Pattison, 293
 Gotch (Francis), Electromotive Properties of the Electrical Organ of *Torpedo marmorata*, 623
 Göttenburg, Chemical Society of, 327
 Govi (G.), Newton's Chromatic Circle, 24
 Goyen (P.), Higher Arithmetic and Mensuration, 232
 Graber (Dr. Vitus), Leitfaden der Zoologie für die oberen Classen der Mittelschulen, 604
 Gravity, Specific, Density and, L. Cumming, 584
 Gray (Dr. Asa) : Illness of, 155 ; Death of, 327 ; Obituary Notice of, 375 ; by James D. Dana, 472 ; Last Publicly-spoken Words of, 594
 Graz and Saldenhofen, Earthquake at, 113
 Greek Geometry, 78
 Green Colouring-matter of Decaying Wood, Henry Robinson, 536
 Greenhill (Prof. A. G.) : the Mechanics of Machinery, Alex. B. W. Kennedy, 195 ; Elementary Treatise on Kinematics and Dynamics, by James Gordon MacGregor, 361
 Greenland : R. E. Peary's Account of his Journey into the Interior of, 37 ; Dr. Fridtjof Nansen's Proposal to cross the Interior of, on "Ski," 138 ; Dr. F. Nansen's Proposed Journey across, 423 ; Recent Journeys along the Coast of, 546
 Greenland Glaciers, Prof. Joseph Prestwich, F.R.S., 200
 Greenwich, Mean Temperature of the Air at, 214
 Grenada Island, Earthquake in, 378
 Gresham Lectures, 257
 Griesbach (M.), and Afghanistan, 421
 Griffiths (Dr. A. B.), Researches on the Problematical Organs of the Invertebrata, 518
 Grossmann (Dr.), Meteorologische Divisionstafeln, 18
 Ground-Movements, Plantamour's Observations of, 258
 Grove (Right Hon. Sir William R., F.R.S.), Antagonism, 617
 Grubb (Sir Howard, F.R.S.), a Photographic Objective, 439
 Grünwald (Dr.) and Dr. Victor Meyer, on Vapour Density of Ferric Chloride, 518
 Guglielmo (Prof. G.) : Loss of Electricity by Conductor in Damp Air, 88 ; on the Loss of Electricity through Moist Air round Aërial Wire, 382
 Guglielmo (Prof. G.) and V. Musina, on the Pressure of Mixtures of Gases and Vapours, and on Dalton's Law, 47
 Gulf Stream, Remarks on the, 72
 Gumlich (Dr.), on Newton's Rings, 528
 Gunnery, Text-book of, 1887, Major G. Mackinlay, 148
 Guppy (Dr. H. B.) : Volcanic and Coral Islands of the Solomon Group, 98 ; the Solomon Islands and their Natives, 196 ; Christmas Island, 222 ; an Explanation, 342 ; Coral Formations, 461, 604
 Gurney (Henry Palin) : the New Army Regulations, 365 ; Natural Science and Woolwich Examinations, 415
 Haast (Sir Julius von, F.R.S.), Obituary Notice of, 87
 Hadfield (Mr.), on Manganese Steel, 497
 Hail, Is it so formed? Cecil Carus-Wilson, 295, 365 ; Dr. J. Rae, F.R.S., 344
 Hall (Dr. Marshall) Fund, Awards, 594
 Hand, Making Glass Specula by, A. Ainslie Common, F.R.S., 382
 Hann (Dr. J.), Atmospheric Pressure, 231
 Harding (Chas.), Threatened Scarcity of Water, 375
 Harkness (Prof. Wm.), on the Constant P in Observations of Terrestrial Magnetism, 127, 272
 Harpur Euclid, the, E. M. Langley and W. S. Phillips, 271
 Harrison (W. J.) and H. R. Wakefield, Earth Knowledge, a Text-book of Elementary Physiography, 150
 Hart (H. C.), the Flora of Howth, 245
 Hartley (Prof. W. N., F.R.S.) : Course of Quantitative Analysis for Students, 271 ; Experimental Researches on Hydraulic Cements, M. H. Le Chatelier, 554
 Harvard College Observatory, 596
 Harvie-Brown (J. A.) and T. E. Buckley, Vertebrate Fauna of Sutherland, Caithness, and West Cromarty, 292
 Hatch (F. H.), Rosenbusch's Petrography, 458
 Hawaii, Volcanoes of, James Dana, 120
 Hawaii Craters, History of Changes in, J. D. Dana, 358
 Haycraft (Prof.), the Objective Cause of Sensation, 518
 Haycraft (Prof.) and Dr. Carlier, on Morphological Changes in the Blood during Coagulation, 527
 Hayden (Prof. F. V.) : Death of, 282 ; Obituary Notice of, 325
 Hayward (Robert B., F.R.S.), the Micromillimetre, 437
 Hazen (Prof. H. Allen), Relation between Wind-Velocity and Pressure, 39, 47 ; Pressure and Temperature in Cyclones and Anticyclones, 214
 Heart, Mammalian, Prof. Martin's Method of isolating the, 215
 Heat : Light and, Rev. F. W. Aveling, 176 ; Sound, Light, and, Mark R. Wright, 199 ; on the Determination of the Mechanical Equivalent of Heat, by the Indirect Electrical Method, 48 ; Mechanical Equivalent of Heat, Alfred Lodge, 320, 364 ; Heat Radiations, Crookes and Transformation of, into Matter, Hugh Gordon, 536 ; Distribution of Heat over the Surface of the Earth, Dr. Zenker, 552 ; New Method of measuring Heat of Evaporation of Liquefied Gases, 624
 Heathcote (H. G.), the Post-Embryonic Development of *Julus terrestris*, 190
 Heavenly Bodies, Suggestions on the Classification of the Various Species of, J. Norman Lockyer, F.R.S., 585, 606
 Hector (Sir James), on the Auriferous Deposit lately found West of Te Aroha, 16
 Hedgehog, Blastodermic Vesicle of the, 552
 Heeling and Toeing at Golf, T. Mellard Reade, 31
 Heer (Prof. Oswald), Monument to, 89
 Height of T'ai Shan, Prof. Silvanus P. Thompson, 224
 Height and Volume of the Dry Land and the Depth and Volume of the Ocean, John Murray, 239, 286
 Hellmann (Dr.) : Rainfall of Spain, 312 ; Meteorology of the Iberian Peninsula, 312 ; Snow-fall of the Past Winter, 552
 Helmholtz (Dr. Robert von) : Experiments on Vapour Currents, 48 ; Humidity of the Air, 215 ; a Note on Valency, especially as defined by Helmholtz, Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 303
 Henry (Louis), Volatility of the Carbon Compounds, 525
 Herdman (Prof. W. A.), the Reproductive Organs of *Aleyonidium gelatinosum*, 213
 Herries (R. S.), Bagshot Beds, 104
 Herring, Expected Rush of, under the West Coast of Norway, 64
 Hertfordshire, a Flora of, 187
 Hertwig (Prof. Oscar), a Text-book of Embryology, 506
 Hertz's Experiments on Influence of Ultra-Violet Rays on Passage of Sparks, 355
 Hesehus (N.), on the Measuring of Specific Heat, 525
 Hessian Fly : Period of Introduction of, into Great Britain, 23 ; Prof. Lindeman on the, 157 ; Charles Whitehead, 212

- Heusler and Wallach (Drs.), the Physical Nature of Fluorine, 301
- Hicks (Dr. Henry, F.R.S.), Ffynnon Beuno and Cae Gwyn Caves, 129, 202
- Hickson (Dr. Sydney), the Sexual Reproduction of *Millepora plicata*, 164
- Highclere Bagshots, the, Rev. A. Irving, 128
- Hip-Region, Dr. Virchow on the, 480
- Hirondelle*, Scientific Voyage of the, 24
- Historic Comet, a New, W. H. S. Monck, 393
- Hiittites, with Special Reference to Very Recent Discoveries, Thomas Tyler, 511, 536, 559, 590, 609
- Hoar Frost, Formation of, John Aitken, 138
- Hoff (J. H. Van 't), Dix Années dans l'Histoire d'une Théorie, Prof. F. R. Japp, F.R.S., 121
- Hofmann (Prof.), his Seventieth Birthday, 566
- Holder (C. F.), Living Lights, a Popular Account of Phosphorescent Animals and Vegetables, 411
- Holm's Report of the Flora of Nova Zembla, 173
- Holmes (R. F.), Explorations of Labrador, 381
- Holmes (W. H.), on the Use of Metals among the Ancient Inhabitants of Darien, 568
- Holub's (Dr. E.) Proposed South African Exhibition, 566
- Home Experiments in Science, T. O'Connor Sloane, 556
- Homeopathy, Discussions regarding, 289
- Hooper (David), the Mineral Concretion of the Teak Tree, 523
- Hopkinson (J., F.R.S.), Specific Inductive Capacity, 142
- Horns of the Red Deer found in the Duddon Estuary, 543
- Horticultural Society, 145, 550
- Horticulture: the Royal Horticultural Society, Dr. Maxwell T. Masters, F.R.S., 176
- Howes (Prof. G. B.) and W. Ridewood, on the Carpus and Tarsus of the Anura, 503
- Howorth (Henry H.), the Mammoth and the Flood, 123, 200, 295
- Howth, the Flora of, H. C. Hart, 245
- Huggins (Dr. W., F.R.S.), Photography in the Determination of the Motions of Stars in the Line of Sight, 616
- Hughes (Alfred), Geography for Schools, 412
- Hughes (Prof. T. McKenny), on the Cae Gwyn Cave, 166
- Hughes's Induction Balance, Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 6
- Hukeng Valley, J. F. Needham engaged to conduct an Expedition to, 354
- Hull (Edward, F.R.S.), a Sketch of Geological History—being the Natural History of the Earth, and of its Pre-Human Inhabitants, 103
- Humidity of the Air, Experiments on, Dr. Assmann, 215; Dr. Robert von Helmholtz, 215
- Humpidge (Prof.), Death of, 155
- Hunt (A. R.), Raised Beaches *versus* High-Level Beaches, 275; the Bathymetrical Range of Deep-Sea Fishes, 321
- Hunt (Robert, F.R.S.), Obituary Notice of, 14
- Hunter (H. St. J.), Key to Todhunter's Differential Calculus, 412
- Huronian Group, is there a?, R. D. Irving, 47, 163
- Huronian Series in the Neighbourhood of Sudbury (Canada), Notes on a Part of the, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 143
- Hutchins (C. C.): John Trowbridge and, Oxygen in the Sun, 47; New Instrument for Measurement of Radiation, 358
- Hutchins (D. E.), Vegetation and Moonlight, 275
- Huxley (Prof. T. H., F.R.S.): the Duke of Argyll's Charges against Men of Science, 342; a Course of Elementary Instruction in Practical Biology, 505
- Huxley and Goschen on English Culture, 337
- Huxley and Martin's Practical Biology, 187
- Hydrate of Sulphurated Hydrogen, on the, by MM. de Forcrand and Villard, 528
- Hydrates of Manganic Oxide and Peroxide, on the Preparation and Constitution of the, Dr. B. Franke, 209
- Hydraulic Cements, Experimental Researches on, M. H. Le Chatelier, Prof. W. N. Hartley, F.R.S., 554
- Hydrocarbons and their Derivatives, Sir H. E. Roscoe, F.R.S., and C. Schorlemmer, F.R.S., 460
- Hydrogen and Oxygen, Explosion of a Mixture of, obtained by Electrolysis, Prof. Oettingen, 311
- Hydrogen and Oxygen, Relative Densities of, Lord Rayleigh, F.R.S., 418
- Hydrographic Office of the United States, New Forms for Reports of Storms, &c., issued by the, 67
- Hydrometer, Dr. Derham's, 497
- Hydrostatics, Dynamics and, by R. II. Pinkerton, 412
- Hygiene, School, Proposed Sanitary Reforms at Baltimore, United States, America, 379
- Hygrometer, the Use of the Spectroscope as a, F. W. Cory, 143
- Hygrometric Methods, Report on, W. N. Shaw, 404
- Hygrometric State of the Atmosphere, Crepuscular Hints in connection with the, Prof. Costantino Rovelli, 404
- Ibbetson (W. J.), a Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of Perfectly Elastic Solids, 97
- Ice Drift, in the Arctic Seas, Dr. Karl Pettersen on the State of, 16
- Ice Machines, Prof. Pictet's Experiments with his, 167
- Ice in Norway, Late, 186
- Iceland, Harvest in, 65; Unusual Weather in, 16; Earthquake in, 113; Importation of Live Iceland Cod to Norway, 258; Curious Archæological Discoveries in, 140; the Recent Earthquakes in, Th. Thoroddsen, 201; Proposed Research in Icelandic Waters, 38
- Ichthyology: the Fish Fauna of Ráméswaram Island, Edgar Thurston, 380
- Illegitimacy in the Parish of Marnoch, by George Seton, 527
- Impact, Duration of, by Prof. P. G. Tait, 527
- Incorrect Footnote and its Consequences, an, Thos. Muir, 246; Ralph Copeland, 343
- Index Catalogue to the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, United States Army, A. T. Myers, 292
- India: Meteorology of, 18; Report of Meteorological Department, 444; Proposed New Meteorological Observatories in India, 187; Survey of India, 35; Catalogue of the Moths of India, E. C. Cotes and Colonel C. Swinhoe, H. J. Elwes, 386; Report on Indian Fibres and Fibrous Substances, 443; the Public Gardens of British India, 476; Tank Angling in India, H. Sullivan Thomas, 518; Payment by Results in Primary Schools in India, 519; Tea Cultivation in India, 409; Rain-fall of India, 472; a Manual of the Geology of India, F. R. Mallet, 556
- Indian Ocean: Soundings in the, 302; the *Egeria* Deep-Sea Soundings in the, 327; the Atoll of Diego Garcia and Coral Formations of the, Prof. G. C. Bourne, 546
- Indo-China and the Indian Archipelago, Miscellaneous Papers Relating to, 218
- Induction Balance, Hughes's, Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 6
- Induction Sparks, Some Effects Produced by, Prof. E. Canestrini, 525
- Influence-Machines and Dynamos, on the Analogies of, Prof. S. P. Thompson, 165
- Infusorial Earth, T. V. Lister, 30
- Injuries caused by Lightning in Africa, Dr. Emin Pasha, 582
- Insect Development, Untimely: John Morison, 321; John Morison's Letter on, Edward Buckell, 350
- Insects, Scale, New Zealand, an Account of, W. M. Maskell, 125
- Insects, Post-Glacial, Alfred Bell, 232
- Instability of Freshly Magnetized Needles, Prof. Francis E. Nipher, 392
- Institute of Chemistry, Boverton Redwood and Alfred Gordon Salamon, 393
- Institution of Civil Engineers, 119
- Institution of Electrical Engineers, 303
- Institution of Mechanical Engineers, 299, 355
- "Instructive" Bibliography of the Foraminifera, Charles Davies Sherborn, 583
- Inter-Diurnal Variability of Temperature at Places in the Argentine Republic and South America generally, Dr. Oscar Doering, 39
- International Geological Congress, 87
- International Tables, Robert H. Scott, F.R.S., 415
- Internationales Archiv für Ethnographie, 568
- Invariants, Functional, a Class of, A. R. Forsyth, F.R.S., 550
- Invertebrata, Researches on the Problematical Organs of the, Dr. A. B. Griffiths, 518
- Invertebrates, Mucous Cells in, Dr. Rawitz, 168
- Ireland: Autumnal Migration of Birds in, Allan Ellison, 232; Early Christian Art in, Margaret Stokes, 341; Facts about, A. B. Macdonald, 474

- Irish Education Directory and Scholastic Guide, 579
 Irish Salmonidæ, British and: Dr. Francis Day, 242, 296; Dr. Francis Day, Your Reviewer, 366
 Iron: on the Recalescence of, H. Tomlinson, 165; Effects of Temperature on the Thermo-electric Properties of Iron when under Stress or Strain, Herbert Tomlinson, 165; Behaviour of Passive Iron towards Nitric Acid, 231; Influence of Temperature on a Magnetic State of Iron, M. P. Ledebor, 288; the Temporary Thermo-Current in, Fred. T. Trouton, 321; Iron, Copper, and German Silver, on the Thermal Conductivity of, A. Crichton Mitchell, 328; Iron for Lightning Conductors, 355
 Iron Meteorite from St. Croix, County Wisconsin, Description of an, 163
 Irvine (Robert), Coral Formations, 461, 509, 605
 Irving (Rev. A.), Vitreous State of Water, 104; the Highclere Bagshots, 128; Natural Science and the Woolwich Examinations, 389; Green Colouring-matter of Decaying Wood, 511
 Irving (R. D.), Is there a Huronian Group?, 47, 163
 Isambert (F.), Compressibility of the Solution of Ethylamine in Water, 192
 Islands, Theories of the Origin of Coral Reefs and, T. Mellard Reade, 54
 Isolation of Fluorine, A. E. Tutton, 179
 Isomery in the Series C_nH_{2n-2} , by A. Favorsky, 525
 Italian Meteorology, 18
 Izvestia of the Russian Geographical Society, 38, 308, 404
- J, Note on the Dimensions and Meaning of, Alfred Lodge, 320
 Jackson (F. J.), Interesting Collection presented to the Natural History Museum by, 33
 Jacquemin (M. Georges), on *Saccharomyces ellipsoideus*, 479
 James (Henry A.), Hand-book of Perspective, 509
 Janssen (M. J.), Spectra of Oxygen, 624
 Japan: the Japanese Language, E. H. Parker, 157; Die Japanischen Seeigel, Dr. L. Döderlein, Prof. P. Martin Duncan, F.R.S., 243; Earth Tremors in Central Japan, Prof. Milne, 399; Japanese Bird-lime, 406; Food of the Japanese, Dr. Kellner and M. Mori, 445; Calendar of Imperial University, Japan, 473, 519; Exhibition of Japanese Engravings and Pictures, 474; "Go-hei," or Paper Offerings, Basil Hall Chamberlain, 479
 Japp (Prof. F. R., F.R.S.), Dix Années dans l'Histoire d'une Théorie, J. H. Van 't Hoff, 121
 Jellett (Rev. John, D.D.), Obituary Notice, 396
 Jenkin (Prof. Fleeming): Papers by, and Memoir of, 433; on Scientific and General Education, 435; Life of, Robert Louis Stevenson, 559
 Jensen (J. L.), on a General Theorem of Convergence, 504
 Joannis (M.), Experiments upon the so-called Alloy between the Metals Sodium and Potassium, 112
 Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, 473, 544
 Johnstone (Laurence), a Short Introduction to the Study of Logic, Alfred Sidgwick, 175
 Jones (Byron N.), Earthquake at the Bahamas, 54
 Jonquières (M. de), on the Generation of Algebraic Surfaces, 214
 Jordan (David Starr), Science Sketches, 535
 Joubin (P.), on the Measurement of Magnetic Fields by Diamagnetic Bodies, 504
 Journal of Anatomy and Physiology, the Coming of Age of the, 441
 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 351
 Journal of Botany, 163, 308, 500
 Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society, Prof. John Wrightson, 211
 Journal of the Russian Chemical and Physical Society, 525
 Judd (Prof. John W., F.R.S.), Conspiracy of Silence, 272; the Duke of Argyll's Charges against Men of Science, 317; an Explanation Explained, 363; the Relations between Geology and the Biological Sciences, 401, 424
Julus terrestris, the Post-embryonic Development of, F. G. Heathcote, 190
Juncus tenuis in Sweden, Discovery of, 258
 Jungfleisch, E., on Cinchoniline, 479
 Junker (Dr. Wilhelm), Vega Gold Medal awarded to, 546
- Jupiter, on the Appearances presented by the Satellites during Transit, Edmund J. Spitta, 468
- Kabloukoff (J.), on the Laws presiding at Reactions of Direct Addition, 525
 Kansas Academy of Science, 186
 Kappler (Herr August), Death of, 16
 Kay (Thos.), the Mist-Bow, 273
 Kelland (the late Prof.), Memorial of, 517
 Keller (Helen), Blind and Deaf, Education of, 615
 Kennedy (Alex. B. W.), the Mechanics of Machinery, Prof. A. G. Greenhill, 195
 Kerr (Montagu), Attempt to cross Africa by a New Route, 115
 Kew Gardens; November Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, 35; December Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, 156; February Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, 350
 Kew Museum No. 2, 470
 Kew Observatory, Work of the, in 1887, 306
 Key (Admiral Sir Astley Cooper), Death of, 442
 Khotan-daria of East Turkistan, General Przewalski on, 38
 Kick (F.), Flour Manufacture, 316
 Kilimanjaro, Dr. Hans Meyer's Ascent of, 158, 285
 Kina Balu, John Whitehead's Proposed Visit to, 349
 Kinematics and Dynamics, an Elementary Treatise on, James Gordon MacGregor, Prof. A. G. Greenhill, 361
 Kinematics and Dynamics, Prof. J. G. MacGregor, 487
 King (Charles), Who was? 152
 King (George), the Art of Computation for the Purposes of Science, 319
 King (Dr. George, F.R.S.), Report of Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta, 476
 King's College, 186
 Kirkwood (Prof. Daniel), the Asteroids, 233
 Klagenfurt, Earthquake at, 113
 Klein (Dr. E., F.R.S.), on Steel's Treatise on Diseases of the Dog, 485
 Knowledge, on some Apparent Contradictions at the Foundations of, S. Tolver Preston, 221; on Some Unapparent Contradictions at the Foundations of, F. Howard Collins, 294
 Köppen (Dr. W.), on the Distribution of Cloud over the Eastern Part of the North Atlantic, 67
 Kossel (Prof.), Adenin, 168
 Krasnoff (M.), Antiquities of Turkistan, 283
 Krause (Herr Gottlob Adolf): Return of, from his Journey from Salaga through Dahomey, 66; News from, 211
 Krueger (Dr.), Olbers' Comet, 233
 Krimmel (Prof. O.), Surface Temperature of the Ocean, 156
 Kuesenoff (M.), the Vagueles, 258
 Kunstler (J.), a New Foraminifer, 504
 Kunz (George F.), on the Meteoric Iron which fell near Cabin Creek, Johnson County, Arkansas, March 27, 1886, 159
 Kwakiol People of Vancouver Island, Dr. George M. Dawson, 518
- Labrador, Holme's Explorations of, 381
 Lacaze-Duthiers (H. de) Classification of the Gasteropods, 504
 Lacustrine and Lake Villages and Pile-Dwellings, M. Pompeo Castelfranco, 163
 Laffon (M.), New Remedy for Phylloxera, 353
 Laghwat, Meridian of, L. Bassot, 528
 Lake of Geneva, Waterspout on the, M. Dufour on, 208
 Lake Villages and Pile-Dwellings, Lacustrine and, M. Pompeo Castelfranco, 163
 Lakes near the Village of Mazuren (Prussia), Peculiar Phenomenon noticed in the, 139
 Lamb, Vegetable, of Tartary, Henry Lee, 176
 Lamination of Sandstone, a Mechanical Cause of the, not hitherto noticed, T. Mellard Reade, 222
 Lamp, Fumat Safety, M. Daubrée, 528
 Lamp (Dr.), Olbers' Comet, 233
 Lancaster (A.), Meteorology of Belgium in 1887, 328
 Land, Height of, and Depth of the Ocean, John Murray, 286
 Länderkunde des Erdteils Europa, 157
 Lang (Dr. C.), Method of predicting Night-Frost, 18
 Langer (Carl), Death of, 186
 Langley (Edward M.), Note on a Problem in Maxima and Minima, 605

- Langley (Edward M.) and W. S. Phillips, the Harpur Euclid, 271
- Language, Reason and, Dr. St. George Mivart, F.R.S., 364; Prof. F. Max Müller, 323, 412
- Lankester (Prof. Ray, F.R.S.), on the Cœlom and the Vascular System of the Mollusca and Arthropoda, 498
- Lansdell (Rev. Dr. Henry), Through Central Asia, 221
- Larden (W.), Electricity for Public Schools and Colleges, 217
- Latchinoff (P.), on the Empirical Formula of Cholic Acid, 525
- Law, Periodic, Donald Murray, 247
- Layard (Mrs. Granville), Through the West Indies, 199
- Lea (Carey), Photography in Colours, 88
- Lea (Rev. T. S.), Island of Fernando Noronha, 617
- Leaps of Lepus, R. W. Shufeldt, 247
- Ledeboer (M. R.), Influence of Temperature on a Magnetic State of Iron, 288
- Lee (Henry), the Vegetable Lamb of Tartary, 176
- Leech (J. H.), Butterflies from Central China, 503
- Lees (Edwin), Death of, 34
- Léger (E.), on Cinchoniline, 479
- Lehrbuch der Entwickelungsgeschichte des Menschen und der Wirbelthiere, by Prof. Oscar Hertwig, 506
- Lehrbuch der Histologie, Dr. Philipp Stohr, 461
- Leipzig: Ethnological Museum, 301; Psychological Laboratory of, 64
- Leland (Chas. G.), Practical Education, 562
- Lemmings in Southern Norway, 283
- Lendenfeld (Dr. R. von), Medusæ of the Australian Seas, 399
- Léotard (M.), and Peaks of the Pyrenees, 493
- Lepus, the Leaps of, R. W. Shufeldt, 247
- Less (Dr.), Meteorological Conditions of February and March 1888, 552
- Lesseps (M. de), the Isthmus of Panama, 310
- Lesson and Martinet (MM.), on the Polynesians, their Origin, Migrations, &c., 164
- Leutemann (H.), Animals from the Life, 176
- Levasseur (E.), Statistique de la Superficie et de la Population des Contrées de la Terre, 24
- Level, Changes of, in the African Lakes, Dr. Robert Sieger, 354
- Ley (Rev. W. Clement), Classification of Clouds, 177
- Lick Observatory, 66, 330
- Liebreich (Prof.), on Local Anæsthetics, 480
- Life, Animals from the, H. Leutemann, 176
- Life Contingencies, 457
- Life in Corea, W. R. Carles, 581
- Life, Duration of, Dr. August Weismann, P. Chalmers Mitchell, 541
- Light, the Absolute Wave-length of, Louis Bell, 623
- Light and Heat, Rev. F. W. Aveling, 176
- Light, and Heat, Sound, Mark R. Wright, 199
- Light, Penetration into Water of, Prof. Forel, 88
- Light, Photographic Experiments on Penetration of, F. A. Forel, 575
- Light, Velocity of, 328
- Lightning Conductors, Iron for, 355
- Lightning, Farm at Mors in Denmark struck by, 64
- Lightning, Globular, in North Atlantic, 187
- Lightning, Injuries caused by, in Africa, Dr. Emin Pasha, 582
- Lightning Protectors, Prof. Oliver Lodge, 497
- Lightning-rods, on the Price of the Factor of Safety in, 407
- Limestone of Strath, Skye, the Age of the Altered, Dr. Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., 191
- Lindelöf (M.), Trajectory of a Body moving over the Earth's Surface under the Influence of Terrestrial Rotation, 543
- Lindeman (Prof.), the Hessian Fly, 157
- Lindemann (Dr. E.), Total Lunar Eclipse of January 28, 616
- Linnean Society, 118, 142, 166, 299, 431, 453, 478, 526, 623
- Lintal, Earthquake at, 595
- Lipetsk Mineral Springs, 71
- Lissauer (Dr. A.), Die Prähistorischen Denkmäler der Provinz Westpreussen und der angrenzenden Gebiete, Arthur J. Evans, 531
- Lister (J. J.), Christmas Island, 203
- Lister (T. V.), Infusorial Earth, 30
- Little (A. J.), Through the Yang-tse Gorges, 556
- Livinge (Prof.) and Prof. Dewar: on the Ultra-Violet Spectra of the Elements, 526; the Spectrum of the Oxyhydrogen Flame, 383
- Liverpool Biological Society, 113
- Living Lights, a Popular Account of Phosphorescent Animals and Vegetables, C. F. Holder, 411
- Lockyer (J. Norman, F.R.S.): Researches on Meteorites, 55, 80; Notes on Spectrum of Aurora, 358; Suggestions on the Classification of the Various Species of Heavenly Bodies, 585, 606
- Lodge (Alfred): Note on the Dimensions and Meaning of J, usually called the Mechanical Equivalent of Heat, 320; Mechanical Equivalent of Heat, 364
- Lodge (Dr. Oliver J., F.R.S.): Hughes's Induction Balance, 6; Modern Views of Electricity, 8, 105, 322, 344, 366; Gore's Railway, 128; Weight and Mass, 416; on Lightning Protectors, 497; Force, and Newton's Third Law, 558; Self-Induction, 605
- Loess, Potanin's Observations on the Mobility of, 89
- Loewy (M.) and P. Poiseux, on Equatorial *coudé* and Equatorials in general, 504, 527
- Logic, a Short Introduction to the Study of, Lawrence Johnstone, Alfred Sidgwick, 175
- London Geological Field Class, 519
- London, Increase of Fog and Smoke in, Sir Douglas Galton, 208
- London, Proposed Teaching University for, 331, 339; Sir Philip Magnus, 393
- Longitude of Odessa, Dr. E. Becker and Prof. Block, 302
- Lotman (Cornelius S. E.), Earthquake at the Bahamas, 54
- Lovén (Prof. Sven), and Catalogue of Lovisa Ulrika Museum, 445
- Lowe (E. J., F.R.S.), Extraordinary Fog in January 1888 at Shirenewton Hall, Chepstow, 294
- Lubbock (Sir John, F.R.S.): the Habits of Ants, Bees, and Wasps, 138; Sense and Senses of Animals, 210; Technical Education, 284; and Woolwich Examinations in Physical Science, 409
- Lucas (Felix), Immediate Solution of Equations by Electricity, 479
- Lunar Eclipse of January 28, Total, Dr. E. Lindemann, 616
- Lund University, Botanical Museum, 442
- Lunge (G.), Vitriol-chamber Process, 335
- Lupton (Sydney), the Art of Computation for the Purposes of Science, 237, 262
- Luther (Dr. E.), Death of, 16
- Lydekker (Richard), Catalogue of the Fossil Mammalia in the British Museum, 461
- M. P., P. R. S., 49
- McAlpine (D.), on Bivalve Mollusks, 527
- McCarthy (J.) Siam, 66
- McConnel (James C.), Effect of Snow on the Polarization of the Sky, 177; the Fog-Bow, 487
- McCook (Henry C.), Tenants of an Old Farm, 363
- McCoy (Prof. F.), Prodomus of the Zoology of Victoria, 533
- McGregor (G. R.), Earthquake at the Bahamas, 54
- MacGregor (James Gordon), Elementary Treatise on Kinematics and Dynamics, Prof. A. G. Greenhill, 361
- Machinery, Mechanics of, Alex. B. W. Kennedy, Prof. A. G. Greenhill, 195
- Mackenzie (John), Austral Africa, 5
- Mackinlay (Major G.), Text-book of Gunnery, 1887, 148
- Mackinnon (Rev. Donald), Death and Obituary Notice of, 256
- Maclean (Magnus), Class Experiments, 612
- McNab (Prof. W. R.), Hand-book of the Fern Allies, J. G. Baker, F.R.S., 4
- McVail (Dr. J. C.), Vaccination Vindicated, 483
- Madan (H. G.), Optical Properties of Phenyl-thio-carbimide, 165
- Madras Micrococcus, Note on a, Edgar Thurston, 79
- Madras Presidency, Storm Signals at the Ports of the, 208
- Madrepore, on the Anatomy of the, 23; Dr. G. H. Fowler, 572
- Madrepore of *Cribrella ocellata*, 334
- Madsen (H. F.), Making Glass Specula by Hand, A. Ainslie Common, F.R.S., 382
- Magnesium, Electro-positive Character of, Heim, 497
- Magnetism: on the Magnetic Circuit in Dynamo Machines, Prof. W. E. Ayrton and Prof. J. Perry, 502; Davidson's Discovery of Records of Magnetic Declination, A.D. 1714, C. A. Schott, 379; on the Measurement of Magnetic Fields by Diamagnetic Bodies, by F. Joubin, 504; Proposed Magnetic

- Observatory at Potsdam, 88; Magnetic Qualities of Metals under Heat, 355; Influence of Temperature on the Magnetic State of Iron, M. P. Ledebor, 288; a New Magnetic Survey of France, Prof. T. E. Thorpe, F.R.S., 247, 275; the Destruction of Passivity of Iron in Nitric Acid by Magnetization, E. L. Nicols and W. S. Franklin, 358; Instability of Freshly-Magnetized Needles, G. M. Whipple, 128; Thermo-magnetic Machines, 33; Instability of Freshly-Magnetized Needles, Prof. Francis E. Nipher, 77, 392; Prof. Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 77; on the Theory of Magnetism, M. P. Duhem, 96; on the Constant P in Observations of Terrestrial Magnetism, Prof. Wm. Harkness, 127, 272; Prof. Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 127, 272; Influence of Magnetism on Electric Resistance of Solid Conductors, Dr. Faé, 573; New Method for Measurement of Magnetism of Gases, Prof. Töpler, 576; Electromotive Force of Magnetization, 623; Illimitability of Magnetization of Iron, Prof. Ewing, 383
- Magnus (Sir Philip), Proposed Teaching University for London, 393
- Maine (Sir Henry, F.R.S.), Death of, 349
- Mainoff (V. N.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 567
- Mairet (M.) and M. Combemale, on the Effects of Chronic Intoxication by Alcohol, 528
- Malesia, Signor Odoardo Beccari and the Bentham Trustees, 421
- Malet (H. P.), Were the Elephant and Mastodon Contemporary in Europe?, 488
- Mallet (F. R.), a Manual of the Geology of India, 556
- Mammoth and the Flood, 343; Henry H. Howorth, F.R.S., 123, 200, 295
- Mammoth, Fossil Head of a, found in Paris, 329
- Mammoth's Tusk, Discovery of a, at Vitry-en-Artois, 408
- Man, Breath of, and other Mammals, 288
- Manchester, Meeting in Support of the National Association for the Promotion of Technical Education at, 111
- Manchester, Technical Education in, 121
- Manganese, Action of Roasting on Several Oxides and Salts of, by Alex. Gorgeu, 504
- Manganese Steel, Mr. Hadfield, 497
- Manganic Oxide and Peroxide, on the Preparation and Constitution of the Hydrates of, Dr. B. Franke, 209
- Marcet (Dr. W.), Atmospheric Electricity, 525
- Marey (M.), Flight of Birds, 474
- Marine Biological Laboratory, the Proposed New England, 379
- Markham (Clements R., C.B., F.R.S.), Founder's Medal of the Royal Geographical Society awarded to, 617
- Marlborough College Natural History Society, 568
- Mars, Parallax of, C. E. Stromeyer, 302
- Marshall (C. F.), Observations on the Structure and Distribution of Striped and Unstriped Muscle in the Animal Kingdom, and a Theory of Muscular Contraction, 23
- Martin (H. N., F.R.S.), and Prof. T. H. Huxley, F.R.S., a Course of Elementary Instruction in Practical Biology, 505
- Martin's (Prof.) Method of Isolating the Mammalian Heart, 215
- Maskell (W. M.), an Account of New Zealand Scale Insects, 125
- Mason Science College, Birmingham, 543
- Massee (Geo.): on the Growth and Origin of Multicellular Plants, 163; a Monograph of the Thelophoreæ, 525
- Massowah, Report on Climate of, 493
- Masters (Dr. Maxwell T., F.R.S.), the Royal Horticultural Society, 176
- Mastodon avernensis*, *Elephas meridionalis*, 488
- Mathematics: Mathematical Optics and Thermo-dynamics, by M. H. Resal, 504; Mathematical Society, 71, 166, 310, 383, 479, 599; a Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of Perfectly Elastic Solids, W. J. Ibbetson, 97; Theory of Reciprocants, Prof. Sylvester, 71; American Journal of Mathematics, 71; a New Treatise on Algebra, by Charles Smith, 232; the Art of Computation for the Purposes of Science, Sydney Lupton, 237, 262; Invariants, Covariants, and Quotient Derivatives associated with Linear Differential Equations, A. R. Forsyth, F.R.S., 309
- Mattie's Secret, Emile Desmaux, 76
- Mauritius, Meteorological Society of, 18
- Mauritius Observatory, 284
- Maw (M. H.), Meteor, 151
- Mawer (W.), Physiography, Elementary Text-book, 341
- Maxima and Minima, Note on a Problem in: R. Chartres, 320; Edward M. Langley, 605
- Mayet's New Artificial Serum, 96
- Mean Free Path, and the Number of Collisions per Particle per Second in a Group of Equal Spheres, by Prof. Tait, 527
- Measurement, on the, of Magnetic Fields by Diamagnetic Bodies, by P. Joubin, 504
- Measurement of Power given to Transformer, E. C. Rimington, 502
- Measuring of Specific Heat, on the, by N. Heschus, 525
- Measures of the same Magnitude, on the Combination of, by M. J. Bertrand, 504
- Measuring Instruments, Electrical, Sir William Thomson, 354
- Meat Supply, Foreign, Twenty Years' Changes in our, Major Craigie, 212
- Mechanical Engineers, Institution of, 355
- Mechanical Equivalent of Heat, Experiments on the Determination of the, by the Indirect Electrical Method, Dr. Dieterici, 48
- Mechanical Equivalent of Heat, Prof. Alfred Lodge, 364
- Mechanics of Machinery, Alex. B. W. Kennedy, Prof. A. G. Greenhill, 195; J. Venn, 510
- Medical Education at Oxford, George J. Wilson, 5
- Medusæ of the Australian Seas, Dr. K. von Lendenfeld, 399
- Melbourne Observatory, 381
- Melly (William R.), Bernice Geese on Coniston Lake, 585
- Men of Science, the Duke of Argyll's Charges against: Prof. John W. Judd, F.R.S., 317; Prof. T. H. Huxley, F.R.S., 342
- Mendenhall (T. C.), Weight and Mass, 416
- Menshutkin (N.), on the Speed of Formation of Acetic Ethers of Monatomic Alcohols, 525
- Mercier (Charles), the Nervous System and the Mind, a Treatise on the Dynamics of the Human Organism, 578
- Mercuric Salts as Antiseptic Surgical Lotions, Dr. G. Sims Woodhead, 527
- Mercury, Determination of Electrical Resistance of Tubes of, Dr. Weinstein, 167
- Mercury, the Planet, 151; W. F. Denning, 178
- Mercury-Bath, New, for the Observation of the Nadir, 551
- Mergui Archipelago, Bird's-Nest or Elephant Islands of the, Alfred Carpenter, 348
- Meridian of Laghwat, by L. Bassot, 528
- Merrill (Geo. P.), Salt Industry in the United States, 558
- Messurier (Colonel Le), Game, Shore, and Water Birds of India, 398
- Metal, Welding, by Electricity, 331
- Metals, Magnetic Qualities of, under Heat, 355
- Metaphosphoric Acid, Transformation of, Paul Sabatier, 264
- Meteor, Large, seen in Norway, 36; Meteor-Shower of October 1887, W. F. Denning, 69; Meteor, B. Truscott, 105; Magnificent Meteor seen on the West Coast of Norway, 138; Meteor, M. H. Maw, 151; Meteor of November 15, J. Lloyd Bozward, 178; Meteor observed in Norway, 186; Brilliant Meteor seen in Christiania, December 11, 231; Meteor seen at Asker, in Nerice, Sweden, 614; Remarkable Meteors in Norway and Sweden, 258, 329; W. F. Denning on, 273; Prof. Charles Carpmæl on, 273; Meteors in Central Sweden, 282
- Meteoric Iron, on the, which fell near Cabin Creek, Johnson County, Arkansas, March 27, 1886, Geo. F. Kunz, 159
- Meteoric Stone, Discovery of Diamonds in a, 110
- Meteorite, on the, which fell on August 18/30, 1887, at Taborg, 120
- Meteorite, Large, 544
- Meteorite, Northford, by F. C. Robinson, 500
- Meteorite, Remarkable, in Denmark, 258
- Meteorite, the Rockwood, 163
- Meteorite from St. Croix, County Wisconsin, Description of an Iron, 163
- Meteorites, a Chapter in the History of, Walter Flight, F.R.S., 30
- Meteorites, Researches on, J. Norman Lockyer, F.R.S., 55, 80
- Meteorology: of India, 18; Meteorological Notes, 18, 38, 67, 91; Meteorological Society, 312; Meteorological Society of Berlin, 456; Meteorological Society of France, 378; Meteorological Council, Observations published by, 300; Storm of October 30, 14; Unusual Weather in Iceland, 16; M-

- Garrigou-Lagrange's Apparatus for Registering the Ascending and Descending Air-Currents, 18; Storm Warnings Issued by the New York Herald, M. Seeman, 18; Method of predicting Night-Frost, Dr. C. Lang, 18; Meteorologische Divisionstafeln, Dr. Grossmann, 18; Italian Meteorology, 18; Meteorological Society of Mauritius, 18; Theory of the Outflow of Air under Falling Rain, H. Allen, 18; Meteorology in Russia, 19; Symon's Monthly Meteorological Magazine, 38; Annual Table of the Climate of the British Empire, 38; American Journal of Science, 39; H. Allen Hazen on the Relation between Wind Velocity and Pressure, 39; Publications of the Swedish Meteorological Office, 39; Meteorology in Canada, 39; United States Monthly Weather Review, 39; Unusually High Mean Temperature in Parts of the United States, 39; Inter-diurnal Variability of Temperature at Places in the Argentine Republic and South America generally, 39; Unusual Storms in the British Islands, 67; Hourly Readings for 1885, 67; Hydrographic Office of the United States Reports of Storms, &c., 67; Distribution of Cloud over the Eastern Part of the North Atlantic, Dr. W. Köppen, 67; Disastrous Storm at Orissa, 68; Journal of the Scottish Meteorological Society, 68; H. Allen, on Behaviour of Pressure and Temperature in High and Low Pressure Systems, 91; Radcliffe Observatory at Oxford, 91; Meteorology of Oxford, 94; Weather, a Popular Exposition of the Nature of Weather Changes from Day to Day, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 101; Observations of St. Elmo's Fire, 112; Forest Meteorological Observations of Germany, 113; Synoptic Charts of the North Atlantic Ocean, 137; Monthly Weather Charts of the Bay of Bengal, 137; the Use of the Spectroscope as a Hygrometer, F. W. Cory, 143; Rainfall on and around Table Mountain, J. G. Gamble, 143; Meteorology in the United States, 156; French Meteorological Society, 156; Proposed New Meteorological Observatories in India, 187; Meteorological Observations on Russian Men-of-war, 187; Storm Signals at the Ports of the Madras Presidency, 208; Mean Temperature of the Air at Greenwich, 214; Phenological Observations for the Year 1887, 214; Earth Tremors and the Wind, Prof. John Milne, F.R.S., 214; Pressure and Temperature in Cyclones, and Anticyclones, Prof. H.A. Hazen, 214; Dr. Assmann's Experiments on the Humidity of the Air, 215; Dr. Robert von Helmholtz's Experiments on the Humidity of the Air, 215; Atmospheric Pressure, Dr. J. Hann, 231; Issue of Daily Meteorological Charts in the United States, 231; Winds and Pressure of the Caspian Sea, Capt. Rykatschew, 257; Daily Synchronous Weather Charts of the North Atlantic, 282; Influence of Altitude on Temperature, M. André, 282; Observation of Fog, M. Renon, 282; Snow Falling from a perfectly Clear Sky in Christiania, 282; Movements of High Barometer Areas over North Atlantic for 1885, 300; Non-Instrumental Meteorology of England, Wales, and Ireland, G. M. Whipple, 309; Meteorology of the Iberian Peninsula, Dr. Hellmann, 312; Rainfall of America, 328; Meteorology of Belgium in 1887, 328; Perpignan Observatory, 328; Report of the Tokio Observatory, 328; R. H. Scott on British and Atlantic Weather, 350; Meteorology of the Bombay Presidency, F. Chambers, 378; Meteorological Observations for 1° Squares of the North Atlantic Ocean, 398; American Meteorological Journal, 398; Constitution of Fogs and Clouds, Prof. F. Palagi, 404; Meteorological International Tables, 415; the Austrian Meteorological Office, and Jahrbuch for 1886, 422; Cyclonic Storms, Scinde to Vienna, 422; M. L. Teisserenc de Bort, on High Barometric Pre-sure of Asia, 422; Cause of September Typhoons in Hong Kong, Dr. W. Doberck, 439; Report of Hamburg Meteorological Office, 444; Report of Indian Department, 444; Pilot Chart of North Atlantic Ocean, 444; Instructions to Observers of the Signal Service, Washington, 444; Crepuscular Rays in China, Dr. W. Doberck, 464; an Unusual Rainbow, H. M. Andrew, 464; the Gale of March 11, C. E. Peek, 466, 472; Rainfall of India, 472; French Meteorological Society, 473; Temperature and Currents in Scottish Lochs, John Murray, 479; Royal Meteorological Society's Exhibition, 521; Storm on Atlantic Coast, 493; Scottish Meteorological Society, 517; the Poet Cowper on the Climate of England, 517; Prof. Wm. Ferrel's Work in Meteorology, 517; Rainfall in East Indian Archipelago, 517; in the Russian Empire, 518; the Salinity and Temperature of the Moray Firth, and the Firths of Inverness, Cromarty, and Dornoch, by Dr. H. K. Mill, 518; Glories, Halos, and Corona, by R. T. Omond, 518; on Glories, by Prof. Tait, 518; Rectilinear Motion of Viscous Fluid between Two Parallel Planes, by Sir W. Thomson, 518; the Thermal Windrose at the Ben Nevis Observatory, by A. Rankine, 518; the Royal Meteorological Society's Exhibition, by William Marriott, 521; Report of the Meteorological Council for the Year ending March, 1887, 542; Proposed Universal Climatological Dictionary, 542; Distribution of Heat over the Surface of the Earth, Dr. Zenker, 552; Meteorological Conditions of February and March 1888, Dr. Less, 552; Snow-fall of the Past Winter, Dr. Hellmann, 552; L'Atmosphère—Météorologie Populaire, Camille Flammarion, 580; Cyclone Reports of the Meteorological Department of India, 595; American Meteorological Society, 595; Monthly Meteorological Notes and Rainfall Statistics for South Australia, C. Todd, 615
- Mexico, Earthquake in, 231
- Meyer (Dr. Hans), Ascent of Kilimanjaro, 158, 285, 354
- Meyer (Prof. Lothar), Oxygen Carriers, 138
- Meyer (Prof. Victor): on Carbon Atoms, 327; Experiment exhibiting the Explosive Nature of Chloride of Nitrogen, 349; Molecular Weights of Substances, 443; and Dr. Grünwald on Vapour Density of Ferric Chloride, 518
- Meyer and Riecke (Profs.), New Properties of Carbon Atoms, 567
- Micro-organisms in Air, a New Method of determining the Number of, by Prof. Carnelley and Thos. Wilson, 478
- Micro-Radiometer, a Very Sensitive, Prof. Weber, 157
- Microbes, on Certain Processes capable of increasing the Resistance of the Organism to the Action of, 24
- Micrococcus, Madras, Note on a, Edgar Thurston, 79
- Micromillimetre, Botanists and the, Prof. Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 388
- Micromillimetre, the, Robert B. Hayward, F.R.S., 437; H. J. Chaney, 438; Antoine d'Abbadie, 438
- Microsauria and Dendropereton, Sir J. Wm. Dawson, F.R.S., 393
- Microscopy: Student's Hand-book to the Microscope, 102; the Microscope in Theory and Practice, Prof. Carl Naegeli and Prof. S. Schwendener, Dr. W. H. Dallinger, F.R.S., 171; Recent Improvements in, E. M. Nelson, 166; Elementary Microscopical Examinations, T. Charters White, 555; the Photosphæria of *Nyctiphanes norvegica*, Rupert Vallentin and J. T. Cunningham, 572; the Anatomy of the Madreporia, G. H. Fowler, 572
- Migration, Autumnal, of Birds in Ireland, Allan Ellison, 232
- Migration of Swallows along the Southern Coast, W. Warde-Fowler, 6
- Mikhailoff (W.), on the Gelatinous State of Albuminoid Bodies, 525
- Miklucho-Maclay (Nicolas von), Death of, 597
- Milk, Action of Micro-organisms on, Dr. P. Vieth, 211
- Mill (Dr. H. R.), on the Salinity and Temperature of the Scottish Firths, 518
- Mill for pulverizing Minerals for Analysis, 65
- Millepora plicata*, Sexual Reproduction of, Dr. Sydney J. Hickson, 164
- Milne (Prof. John), Earth Tremors and the Wind, 214; Earth Tremors in Central Japan, 399; Earthquake Sounds, 543; Pendulum Seismometers, 570
- Minchin (Geo. M.), Centre of Water Pressure, 201, 275
- Mind, 569
- Mind, Nervous System and the, Charles Mercier, 578
- Mine-Shaft successfully sunk by the Poetsch Method in Belgium, 208
- Mineralizing Action of the Alkaline Sulphides, 407
- Mineral Springs, Lipetsk, 71
- Mineral Wax, Remarkable Variety of, 48
- Mineralogical Society, 23, 310
- Mineralogy, Frank Rutley, 245
- Mineralogy, Manual of, and Petrography, &c., James D. Dana, 53
- Mineralogy, Proposed Museum of, at Redruth, 299
- Mines, Accidents in, Sir Fred. Abel, 111
- Minima and Maxima, Note on a Problem in, R. Charters, 320
- Minor Planet No. 271, 140
- Minor Planets, Names of, 114
- Minor Planets, New, 353, 616

- Minot (Dr. C. S.), and Elizabeth Thompson Science Fund, 492
- Minusinsk Museum, 65
- Mist, the Shadow of a, W. Fawcett, 224; Rev. Henry Bernard, 392
- Mist-Bow, Albert Bonus, 273; Thomas Kay, 273; C. O. Budd, 273
- Mitchell (A. Crichton), on the Thermal Conductivity of Iron, Copper, and German Silver, 328
- Mitchell (P. Chalmers), Duration of Life, 541
- Mitchell Library, Glasgow, 596
- Mittheilungen of Hamburg Geographical Society, 303
- Mittheilungen of the Vienna Geographical Society, 37
- Mivart (Dr. St. George, F.R.S.), Reason and Language, 364; Language = Reason, 412
- Mobangi and the Welle, Lieut. Van Gèle, 496
- Model of an Earthquake, Prof. Sekiya, 297
- Models illustrating the Modification of the Arterial Arches in Vertebrates, by Prof. W. N. Parker, 499
- Modern Views of Electricity, Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 8, 105, 322, 344, 366
- Modigliani (E.), on Nias, 17
- Mohn (Dr. H.), Fog Bow and Ulloa's Ring, 391
- Mohn and Hildebrandsson (MM.), Thunderstorms of Scandinavia, 614
- Moissan (M.), New Fluorides of Potassium, 422
- Molecular Forces, the Range of, Prof. A. W. Rücker, F.R.S., 405
- Molecular Weights of Substances, Prof. Victor Meyer, 443
- Mollusca and Arthropoda, the Coelom and the Vascular System of, Prof. Ray Lankester, F.R.S., 498
- Monck (W. H. S.), a New Historic Comet? 393
- Mongolian Epics of Hesser-Khan, Discovery of a Manuscript containing a Tibetan Version of the, 209
- Monian System, the, by Rev. J. F. Blake, 526
- Monkey's Brain: Functions of the, Dr. Sanger Brown and Prof. E. A. Schäfer, F.R.S., 214; on Electrical Excitation of, Prof. Schäfer, F.R.S., 574
- Monocotyledonous Products, Museum of, 470
- Monsoons, by Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 469
- Mookerjee (Nidhiram), and Pisciculture in Bengal, 494
- Moon, Total Eclipse of the, 286, 306, 333, 495; Otto Boedicker, 318
- Moonlight, Vegetation and, D. E. Hutchins, 275
- Morality and Utility, Geo. Payne Best, Prof. Geo. J. Romanes, 290
- Morgan (C. Lloyd), on Animal Biology, 484
- Morison (John), Untimely Insect Development, 321
- Morphological Changes in Blood during Coagulation, Prof. Haycraft and Dr. Carlier, 527
- Morphology, Vertebrate, a Study in, Dr. J. Beard, 224
- Morris (D.): Alexipharmic Plants, 257; the Dispersion of Seeds and Plants, 466
- Mors, in Denmark, Farm struck by Lightning at, 64
- Morse (Samuel F. B.) and Thomas A. Edison, Van Buren Denslow and Jane M. Parker, 199
- Morton (G. H.), Ffynnon Beuno and Cae Gwyn Caves, 32
- Moths of India, Catalogue of the, E. C. Cotes and Colonel C. Swinhoe, H. J. Elwes, 386
- Mott (F. T.), on Foreign Plants available for Acclimatization in England, 35
- Mound-Exploration, Cyrus Thomas, 615
- Mount Kilimanjaro, Dr. H. Meyer's Ascent of, 354
- Mount Loa Craters, History of the Changes in the, 163; James D. Dana, 500
- Mount Obree, Height of, 354
- Mount Vernon, Illinois, Cyclone at, 399
- Mountain Building, Experiments in, Henry M. Cadell, 488
- Moureaux (Th.), a New Magnetic Survey of France, Prof. T. E. Thorpe, F.R.S., 247
- Mouth, the Old, and the New, a Study in Vertebrate Morphology, Dr. J. Beard, 224
- Muir (M. M. Pattison): Lehrbuch der Allgemeinen Chemie, Dr. Wilh. Ostwald, 241; and Douglas Carnegie, Practical Chemistry, 265, 318; and Charles Slater, Elementary Chemistry, 265; the Teaching of Elementary Chemistry, 466
- Muir (Thos.), an Incorrect Footnote and its Consequences, 246, 438
- Müller (Prof. F. Max), Language=Reason, 323, 412
- Müller-Erbach (Dr.), on Determination of Mean Temperature, 528
- Multicellular Plants, on the Growth and Origin of, Geo. Massee, 163
- Munro and Jamieson, Electrical Rules and Tables, 443
- Murray (Donald), Periodic Law, 247
- Murray (John): Height and Volume of the Dry Land and the Depth and Volume of the Ocean, 239, 286; Coral Formations, 414, 438; Temperature and Currents in Scottish Lochs, 479
- Muscle, Striped and Unstriped in the Animal Kingdom, Structure and Distribution of, C. F. Marshall, 23
- Museum, Colonial, of New Zealand, 568
- Museum, Dublin Science and Art, 186
- Museum of Mineralogy at Redruth, Proposed, 299
- Music in Nature, W. F. Goodwin, 151
- Mussels, Dr. Rawitz on the Eyes of, 480
- Mussulman Women, Consulting Hospital for, at Tashkend, 64
- Muzzling of Oysters, W. Mattieu Williams, 585
- Myers (A. T.), Index-Catalogue to the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, United States Army, 292
- Myxinoid Fishes, the Teeth of, Dr. J. Beard, 499
- Nadir, New Mercury-Bath for the Observation of the, 551
- Nægeli (Prof. Carl), and Prof. S. Schwendener, the Microscope in Theory and Practice, Dr. W. H. Dallinger, F.R.S., 171
- Nansen (Dr. Fridtjof), Proposal to cross the Interior of Greenland on "Ski" = Snow-runners, 138, 423
- Naphtha Spring near Balachany, 88
- Naphthalene Derivatives, New, Léon Roux, 156
- Naphthol as an Antiseptic, Ch. Bouchard, 24
- Natal Observatory Report for 1886, 158
- National Smoke Abatement Institution, 356
- Natural Gas, Paper by J. D. Weeks, issued by the U.S. Geological Survey, 422
- Natural History Museum, Interesting Collection presented to, by F. J. Jackson, 33
- Natural History: H. N. Ridley's Natural History Collection in Fernando Noronha, 119; Natural History Collection from Central Africa at the British Museum, 207; Catalogue of the Fossil Mammalia in the British Museum, Richard Lydekker, 461; Prize for Researches in Natural History, 348; the Nest of the Flamingo, E. J. Dunn, 465; Egg of Great Auk (*Alca impennis*), 474; *Pinus sylvestris*, by J. Clayton, 474; Photographing Flight of Birds, M. Marey, 474; Butterfly, Summer, 492; Mango Weevil, 492; Natural History in Southern Germany, by E. E. Austen, 519; Report of Rugby School Society, 519; in Southern Germany, 519; Natural History of Victoria, 533
- Natural Law of Relation between Rainfall and Vegetable Life and its Application to Australia, F. A. Velschow, 519
- Natural Philosophy, Class Experiments, Magnus Maclean, 612
- Natural Science and the Woolwich Examinations, Rev. A. Irving, 389; Henry Palin Gurney, 415
- Nature, Music in, W. L. Goodwin, 151
- Nautical Almanac Office, American, Prof. Newcomb, 381
- Navelle (M.), Account by, of a Journey in Annam, 16
- Navigation and Nautical Astronomy, W. R. Martin, 582
- Nebulæ, New, discovered in the Pleiades by means of Photography, 551
- Needles, Instability of Freshly-Magnetized, Prof. Francis E. Nipher, 77, 392; Prof. Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 77; G. M. Whipple, 128
- Nef (Dr. J. U.), Carboxy-derivatives of Quinone, 551
- Nelson (E. M.), Recent Improvements in Microscopy, 166
- Nerves, Sawyer's Experiments as to Existence of Separation of Irritability and Conducting Power in, Prof. Gad, 576
- Nervous System and the Mind, a Treatise on the Dynamics of the Human Organism, Charles Mercier, 578
- Nest of the *Antennarius marmoratus*, on the, M. L. Vaillant, 208
- New England Marine Biological Laboratory, the Proposed, 379
- New Guinea: Exploration in, 38; Mr. Strachan's Explorations of, 302
- New South Wales: Tebbutt's Observatory, Windsor, 400; Report on Fisheries of, 494
- New York Academy of Sciences, 494
- New York, the, Agricultural Station, 524
- New York, Teachers employed in the State of, 398
- New Zealand, Museum of, 568

- New Zealand Scale-Insects, an Account of, W. M. Maskell, 125
- Newberry (J. S.), on the Decorative Ideas of the Ancient Inhabitants of Central America, 64
- Newcastle-on-Tyne: Bath Lane Science and Art School, 15; Public Library of, 140
- Newcomb (Prof.), American Nautical Almanac Office, 381
- Newton (E. T.), on the Skull, Brain, and Auditory Organ of a New Species of Pterosaurian (*Scaphognathus Purdoni*) from the Upper Lias near Whitby, Yorkshire, 598
- Newton's Chromatic Circle, G. Govi on, 24
- Newton's "Principia": Prof. A. Stoletow, 273; Celebration at Cambridge of the Bi-Centenary of the Publication of, 614
- Newton's Rings, Dr. Gumlich, 528
- Newton's Third Law, Force and, Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 558
- Nias, E. Modigliani on, 17
- Niblock (Lieut., U.S.N.), Return of, 379
- Nice Observatory, 47
- Nichols (Prof.), Tables of European History, Literature, Science, and Art from A.D. 200 to 1888, 399
- Nicols (E. L.): and W. S. Franklin, the Destruction of Passivity of Iron in Nitric Acid by Magnetization, 358; E. H. S. Bailey and, on Delicacy of the Sense of Taste, 557
- Nicolson (John T.), Star of Bethlehem, 221
- Nielsen (L.), Total Solar Eclipse of August 19, 1887, 118
- Night-Frost, Method of predicting, Dr. C. Lang, 18
- Nipher (Prof. Francis E.), Instability of Freshly-Magnetized Needles, 77, 392
- Nitric Acid: Behaviour of Passive Iron towards, 231; on the Electric Conductibility of Concentrated, by M. E. Bouty, 479
- Nitrogen Atmospheric, Relations of, with Vegetable Humus, Th. Schloësing, 551, 624
- Nitrogen, Chloride of: Explosive Nature of, Prof. Victor Meyer, 349; Researches as to the Nature of, Dr. Gattermann, 350
- Nitrogen, Trichloride of, 494
- Nordenskjöld (A. E.), on a Simple Relation between the Wavelengths of Spectra, 120
- North American Taconic System, by Charles D. Walcott, 500
- North Atlantic Ocean: Daily Synoptic Charts of the, 137; Results of Meteorological Observations for 1° Squares of the, 398
- Norway: Meteors seen in, 36, 186, 258, 329; First Appearance of Nut-Crow in, 258; Expected Rush of Herring under the West Coast of, 64; Lemmings in, 283; Earthquake at Solum, 329; Deforestation in, 352; Animals of Prey killed in, 616
- Nova Zembla, Flora of, Herr Holm's Report of, 173
- Nuovo Giornale Botanico Italiano, 163, 500
- Nut-Crow in Northern Norway, First Appearance of, 258
- Nutritive Function, Importance of the, in determining the Distinction between Plants and Animals, 144
- Nyctiphanes norvegica*, the Photosphæria of, Rupert Vallentin and J. T. Cunningham, 572
- Oberhausen, Earthquake at, 210
- Observatories: Nice Observatory, 47; Lick, 66; Proposed Magnetic Observatory at Potsdam, 88; American Observatories, 89; Radcliffe Observatory, 91; Cases of St. Elmo's Fire recorded at Ben Nevis, 112; Report for 1886 of Natal, 158; *The Observatory*, 187; Proposed New Meteorological Observatories in India, 187; St. Petersburg Central Physical Observatory, 231; New Observatory in Vienna, 259; Mauritius Observatory, 284; the Cape Observatory, 302; Winkler Observatory, 302; American Observatories, 330; Barometric Observations at Brussels Observatory, 350; Permanent Observatory on the Summit of the Santis, 351; Publications of Dunsink Observatory, 353; Rousdon Observatory, 353; Melbourne Observatory, 381; Pulkowa, Observatory, 400; Wolsingham Observatory, 400; Tebbutt's Observatory, Windsor, New South Wales, John Tebbutt, 400; Harvard College, 596
- Occultations of Stars by Planets, 284
- Occultations of Stars by Planets, Herr A. Berberich, 234
- Ocean Currents, Contiguous to the Coast of California, Existing Charts of, 115
- Ocean, History of the, Prof. Eduard Süß, 354
- Ocean, Surface Temperature of the, Prof. O. Kriimmel, 156
- Ochsenius (Dr. Carl), Die Bildung des Natronsalt-peters aus Mutterlangensalzen, 220
- Odessa, Longitude of, Dr. E. Becker and Prof. Block, 302
- Oidium Medicum, 289
- Oettingen (Prof.): Explosion of a Mixture of Hydrogen and Oxygen obtained by Electrolysis, 311; Interference of Electrical Vibrations produced by the Electrical Oscillations discovered by Feddersen during the Spark Discharge, 408
- O'Gyalla Spectroscopic Catalogue, 259
- Oil: Colza, Olive, 142; the Effects of Oil on Troubled Waters, 435; Le Filage de l'Huile, le Vice-Amiral G. Cloué, Captain W. J. L. Wharton, F.R.S., 435; Right Hon. Lord Justice Edward Fry, F.R.S., 463
- Olbers' Comet, 1887, 37, 158, 285; Herr Tetens, 114; Dr. Krueger, Dr. Lamp, 233
- Oldenburg, Earthquake at, 614
- Olive Oil, 142
- Oliver (J. A. Westwood), Astronomy for Amateurs, 437
- Olivier (Louis), on the Radiograph, 528
- Olliff (Sidney), Giant Lepidopterous Larvæ in Australia, 232
- Omond (R. T.), Glories, Halos, and Coronæ, 518
- Optical Demonstration of Electrical Stress, Prof. A. W. Rücker, F.R.S., and C. V. Boys, 407
- Optics: Velocity of Light, 328
- Orchids, Semi-double and other, 550
- Örebro, Central Sweden, Earthquake Shock at, 399
- Organic Materia Medica, a Text-Book of, Prof. Robert Bentley, 460
- Orientalists, International Congress of, 327
- Origin of Coral Reefs and Islands, the Theories of the, T. Mellard Reade, 54
- Origin of Species, Prof. George J. Romanes, F.R.S., 486
- Orinoco, M. Chaffanjon's Journey up the, 286
- Orissa, Disastrous Storm at, Prof. A. Pedler, 68
- Ornithology: the Tweeddale Collection, R. Bowdler Sharpe, 13; Geographical Distribution of the Charadriidæ, Henry Seebohm, 35; Proposed Ornithological Exhibition at Berlin, 88; First Appearance of Nut-Crow in Northern Norway, 258; W. K. Parker, F.R.S., on the Secondary Carpals of Carinate Birds, 333; American Ornithology, 351; Birds of Wiltshire, Rev. Alfred Chas. Smith, 601
- Ornithorhynchus paradoxus*, the Teeth in the Young, E. B. Poulton, 383
- Oscillations, Minute, of a Uniform Flexible Chain, Dr. E. Lang, 518
- Ostrau-Witkowitz, Earthquake at, 113
- Ostwald (Dr. Wilh.), Lehrbuch der Allgemeinen Chemie, M. M. Pattison Muir, 241
- Owen Stanley Range, New Guinea, ascended by E. H. Martin, 66
- Owen Stanley Range, New Guinea, and H. O. Forbes, 421
- Oxford: Medical Education at, George J. Wilson, 5; Meteorology of, 94; Retirement of Prof. Prestwich from the Chair of Geology at, 397
- Oxidation under Voltaic Influence of Metals not ordinarily regarded as Spontaneously Oxidizable, Note on the Development of Feeble Currents by Purely Physical Action, and on the, Dr. C. R. Alder Wright, F.R.S., and C. Thompson, 213
- Oxides and Salts of Manganese, Action of Roasting on several, by Alex. Gorgeu, 504
- Oxygen and Carbon, Spectra of, compared with that of the Sun, Prof. Trowbridge and Hutchins, Dr. H. Draper, Prof. J. C. Draper, 114
- Oxygen Carriers, Prof. Lothar Meyer, 138
- Oxygen and Hydrogen, Relative Densities of, Lord Rayleigh, F.R.S., 418
- Oxygen, Spectra of, M. J. Janssen, 624
- Oxygen in the Sun, John Trowbridge and C. C. Hutchins, 47
- Oxygenated Mineral Compounds free of Hydrogen, Action of the Tetrachloride of Carbon on, 600
- Oxyhydrogen Flame, the Spectrum of the, Profs. Liveing and Dewar, 383
- Oyster Bank, Proposed, in the Limfjord in Jutland, 352; Increase of Oyster Cultivation in France, 139; Oyster-Fisheries on the Tasmanian Coast-line, Saville Kent, 139; Cultivation of Oysters, 572; Muzzling of Oysters, W. Mattieu Williams, 585
- Oceanographie, Handbuch der, 315

- Paget, Sir James, Scientific Study, 442
 Palæontology: Fauna der Gaskohle und der Kalksteine der Permformation Bohmens, Dr. Ant. Fritsch, 244
 Palagi (Prof. F.), Constitution of Fogs and Clouds, 404
 Palawan, Return of John Whitehead from, 111
 Panama Canal, M. de Lesseps, 310
 Panorama, a Toy, M. Benoist, 89
 Paquelin, (M.), a New Eolipyle, 504
 Parallax of Mars, C. E. Stromeyer, 302
 Parallax, Solar, on the Value of, M. Cruls, 215
 Parameters, on the Number of, which determine the Displacement of a Kinematic Chain, P. Somoff, 525
 Paraxanthin, Physiological Action of, Dr. Salomon, 215
 Paris: Paris Academy of Sciences, 22, 47, 71, 96, 120, 143, 166, 191, 214, 239, 263, 288, 310, 335, 360, 384, 407, 432, 455, 479, 504, 527, 551, 575, 600, 624; List of Successful Competitors for the Annual Prizes, 239; Astronomical Prizes of the, 259; Paris Observatory, Observations of the Minor Planets made with the Great Meridian of, 47; Medals awarded by the Paris Geographical Society, 211; Proposed New Professorship at the Paris Faculty of Sciences, 230; Proposed Museum of Religions in Paris, 233; Paris Astronomical Society, 240; Distribution of Prizes, 240; Paris Catalogue of Astronomy, 569; the Chair of Darwinism in Paris, 256; Defective Distribution of Waterpipes in the Paris Medical School, 258; Rainfall of Paris, M. Renon, 542
 Parker (E. H.), the Japanese Language, 157
 Parker (W. K., F.R.S.), on Secondary Carpals of Carinate Birds, 333
 Parker (Prof. W. N.), Models illustrating the Modification of the Arterial Arches in Vertebrates, 499
 Pasteur (M.): Bressa Prize awarded to, 327; and Australian Rabbit Plague, 421
 Pattison (S. R.), Gospel Ethnology, 293
 Patton (Dr. F. L.) appointed President of Princeton College, 421
 Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology, Important Additional Collections to the, 15
 Peaks of the Pyrenees, M. Léotard, 493
 Peary (R. E.), Account of his Journey into the Interior of Greenland, 37
 Peddie (W.): Transition-Resistance and Polarization at Platinum Surfaces, 383; on Transition-Resistance at the Surface of Platinum Electrodes, and the Action of Condensed Gaseous Films, 578; on New Determinations of the Electric Resistance of Liquids, 527
 Pedler (Prof. A.), Disastrous Storm at Orissa, 68
 Pembry (M. S.), Weasels killing Frogs, 321
 Pen and Pencil in Asia Minor, William Cockran, 126
 Pendulum, Note on the Oscillations of a, produced by the Displacement of the Axis of Suspension, E. Ronkar, 23
 Pendulum Seismometers, Prof. John Milne, 570
 Penfield (S. L.) and E. B. Dana, on the Crystalline Form of Polianite, 500
 Pengelly (Prof. Wm., F.R.S.), Star of Bethlehem, 221
 People's Lectures, Success of, 139
 People's Palace, Exhibition of the Work of London Apprentices at the, 156
 Perception of Colour, C. E. Stromeyer, 79
 Perichæta, the Nephridia of, F. E. Beddard, 309
 Period of Algol, S. C. Chandler, 544
 Periodic Law, Donald Murray, 247
 Peronospora of the Grape Vine, Prof. G. Cuboni, 525
 Perpetual Motion, Prof. Hele Shaw, 254
 Perpignan Meteorological Observatory, 328
 Perrier (Edmond), Star-fish, 504
 Perrier (General), Death of, 397
 Perry (Prof. John, F.R.S.), Storage of Electrical Energy, Gustav Planté, 50; and Prof. W. E. Ayrton, on the Magnetic Circuit in Dynamo Machines, 502
 Perspective, Hand-book of, Henry A. James, 509
 Perthshire Society of Natural Science, 380
 Petermann's Mitteilungen, 286
 Petrography, Prof. Von H. Rosenbusch, F. H. Hatch, 458
 Petroleum as Fuel for Marine Engines, 89
 Petrology, Prof. Rosenbusch's Work on, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 509, 556
 Petterson (Dr. Karl), on the State of Drift-Ice in the Arctic Seas, 16
 Phenological Observations for 1887, 214
 Phenyl-thio-carbimide, Optical Properties of, H. G. Madan, 165
 Phillips' Handy Volume Atlas of the British Empire, 126
 Phillips (William), Manual of British Discomycetes, 340
 Phosphites of Ammonia, 48
 Phosphorescent, on an Ancient Process for rendering Gems and Vitrifications, M. Berthelot, 407
 Phosphorescent Animals and Vegetables, C. F. Holder, 411
 Phosphorus and Phosphoric Acid in Vegetation, MM. Berthelot and G. André, 504
 Photography: Experiments on Penetration of Light into Water, Prof. F. A. Forel, 88, 575; Photography in Colours, Carey Lea, 88; Proposed Photographic Exhibition, 187; Proposed Lectures on Photographic Chemistry, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 231; the British Journal, Photographic Almanac, and Photographer's Daily Companion for 1888, 293; Photograph of the Solar Eclipse of August 19, 311; Photography Simplified, 363; a Photographic Objective, Sir Howard Grubb, F.R.S., 439; a Treatise on Photography, Captain Abney, F.R.S., 461; Photographing the Flight of Birds, M. Marey, 474; Photographic and Photo-mechanical Printing Processes, W. K. Burton, 485; New Nebulæ discovered in the Pleiades by means of Photography, 551; the New Photographic Objective, Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 558; Photography in the Determination of the Motions of Stars in the Line of Sight, Dr. Higgins, 616
 Phylloxera, New Remedy for, 353
 Physical Chemistry, Dr. Wilh. Ostwald, M. M. Pattison Muir, 241
 Physical Geography: Height and Volume of the Dry Land and the Depth and Volume of the Ocean, John Murray, 239; the Insular Flora of California in Relation to Physical Geography, J. Le Conte, 358; Recent Journeys along the Coast of Greenland, 546
 Physical Science and the Woolwich Examinations, 296, 319, 385, 409, 433
 Physical Society, 119, 165, 216, 407, 453, 502
 Physical Society of Berlin, 455
 Physiography, Elementary, by J. Thornton, 485
 Physiography, Elementary Text-book, W. Mawer, 341
 Physiology: Adenin, Prof. Kossel, 168; Mucous Cells in Invertebrates, Dr. Rawitz, 168; Prof. Martin's Method of isolating the Mammalian Heart, 215; Mr. Seebohm on Physiological Selection, Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 246; Physiological Society of Berlin, 336, 480; on Electrical Excitation of the Monkey's Brain, Prof. Schäfer, F.R.S., 574; Comparison of Latency Periods of Ocular Muscles on Excitation of Brain, Prof. Schäfer, F.R.S., 574
 Pickering (Prof. Edward C.), the New Photographic Objective, 558
 Pickering (S. U.), Calcium Chloride, 551
 Pictet's (Prof.), Experiments with his Ice Machines, 167
 Pidgeon (D.), a Green Fern, 440
Pieris rapæ, on Colour-relation between the Pupæ of, and their Immediate Surroundings, by W. White, 503
 Pile-Dwellings, Lacustrine and Lake Villages and, M. Pompeo Castelfranco, 163
 Pinkerton (R. H.), Dynamics and Hydrostatics, 412
Pinus insignis, Dispersal of the Seed in, 550
 Pioneer of Allahabad and Cyclonic Storms, 422
 Pisciculture in Bengal, by Nidhiram Mookerjee, 494
 Pisciculture: the Black Boss, 569
 Place-Names, Dictionary of, C. Blackie, 151
 Planets, Occultations of Stars by, 284; A. Berberich, 234; the Planet Mercury, 151; W. F. Denning, 178; Observations of the New, Peter's (270), 47; Names of Minor, 114; New Minor, 140, 353, 616
 Plantamour's Observations of Periodic Ground Movements, 257
 Planté (Gaston), Storage of Electrical Energy, Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., 50
 Planting Waste Saline Tracts, M. Maries, 493
 Plants: and Animals, Importance of the Nutritive Function in determining the Distinction between, 144; on the Growth and Origin of Multicellular, Geo. Masee, 163; Alexipharmic Plants, D. Morris, 257; on the Anæsthesia and Poisoning of Plants, Dr. Flaminio Tassi, 308; Atlas of the Distribution of Plants, 362; on the Absorption of Saline Substances by, Berthelot and André, 527, 551; Dispersion of Seeds and, Dr. Antonio J. Amadeo, 535

- Plarr (Gustave), Elementos de Calculo de los Cuaterniones, &c., Valentin Balbin, 145
- Plateau (Felix), Researches on the Sense of Vision in the Anthropods, 118, 308, 525
- Platinum Batteries, Improvements in, 354
- Platinum under Electric Currents, Cause of Emission of Solid Particles by, Dr. A. Berliner, 378
- Platinum, the Existence of, in the Solar Atmosphere, 358
- Pleiades, New Nebulæ discovered in the, by means of Photography, 551
- Pleospora*, Signor A. N. Berlese on the Genus of Fungi, 500
- Plesiosaurus, Discovery of Bones of the, at Pitchery Creek, Central Queensland, 65
- Poetsch's (M.) Method, Mine-Shaft successfully sunk in Belgium by, 208
- Poison, Arrow, Analysis of Somali, Arnaud, 575
- Poison, Native Method of obtaining, from the *Strophanthus*, 113
- Polar Bear, Tame, 301
- Polar Bodies, Prof. A. Weismann's Theory of, G. Herbert Fowler, 134
- Polarization of the Sky, Effect of Snow on the, James C. McConnel, 177
- Pole, Probable Temperature of, Jules Girard, 91
- Polianite, on the Crystalline Form of, E. S. Dana and S. L. Penfield, 500
- Politics and the Presidency of the Royal Society, Prof. Balfour Stewart, F.R.S., 76; Prof. Alex. W. Williamson, F.R.S., 76; W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., 103
- Pollen, Resistance of, to External Influences, 494
- Polynesians, on the, their Origin, Migrations, &c., MM. Lesson and Martinet, 164
- Population of the Earth, 24
- Portman (Maurice), Explorations of the Andaman Islands, 330
- Post-Glacial Insects, Alfred Bell, 232
- Potantin's Observations on the Mobility of Loess, 89
- Potantin's (M.) Journeys in East Tibet and East Gobi, 141; Pension to, 567
- Potassa in Plants, on the State of the, MM. Berthelot and André, 71
- Potassium, Determination in Wave-lengths of the Two Red Rays of, H. Deslandres, 504
- Potsdam, Proposed Magnetic Observatory at, 88
- Potts (Edward), American Forms of Fresh-water Sponges, 209
- Poulton (E. B.): Colour-Susceptibility of Silkworms, 95; True Teeth in the Young *Ornithorhynchus paradoxus*, 383
- Practical Education, Chas. G. Leland, 562
- Preece (W. H., F.R.S.), Coefficient of Self-Induction of Iron and Copper Telegraph Wire, 303
- Prehistoric Animals, Discovery of Bones of, in the Harz Mountains, 329
- Prehistoric Remains Committee, 91
- Prehistoric Times, the Baltic Amber Coast in, Dr. A. Lissauer, Arthur J. Evans, 531
- Pressure of Mixtures of Gases and Vapours, and on Dalton's Law, Prof. G. Guglielmo and V. Musina, 47
- Preston (S. Tolver), on some Apparent Contradictions at the Foundations of Knowledge, 221
- Prestwich (Prof. Joseph, F.R.S.): Greenland Glaciers, 200; Eocene Strata in the Tertiary Basins of England, Belgium, and North of France, 287; Retirement of Prof. Prestwich from the Chair of Geology at Oxford, 397; on Geology—Chemical, Physical, and Stratigraphical, 482
- Princeton College and President F. L. Patton, 421
- "Principia," Newton's, Prof. A. Stoleto, 273
- Pringsheim (Dr.), Specific Heat of Gases, 216
- Prodromus of the Zoology of Victoria, Prof. F. McCoy, 533
- Prolegomena to the Statistics of Thought, A. Bastian, 387
- Prost (Eug.), on the Colloidal Sulphuret of Cadmium, 23
- Pryer (Henry), Death and Obituary Notice of, 567
- Przewalski (General), Results of his Fourth Journey to Central Asia, 38
- Psychology, Experimental, 113
- Psychology, M. Ribot, Collège de France, 442
- Pterodactyl Skull, Fossil, found in the Yorkshire Lias, 598
- Puiseux (P.) and M. Lœwy, on Equatorial *condé* and Equatorials in general, 504, 527
- Pulkowa Observatory, 400
- Pulverizing Minerals for Analysis, Mill for, 65
- Pygmy Race from Central Africa, the Akkas, a, Prof. W. H. Flower, F.R.S., 395
- Pyrenees, Peaks of the, 493
- Pyroxene, Crystals of, 47
- Quantitative Analysis for Students, Course of, W. N. Hartley, F.R.S., 271
- Quantitative Chemical Analysis, Exercises in, W. Dittmar, 174
- Quarterly Journal of Microscopical Science, 22, 572
- Quaternions: Balbin's, Gustave Plarr, 145; Prof. W. Steadman Aldis, 535
- Quinone, Carboxy-derivatives of, Dr. J. U. Nef, 551
- Rabbits, Australian, and M. Pasteur, 421
- Rabies: Persistence of Virus in Dead Bodies of, V. Galtier, 360; Experiments on Inoculation against, 624; among Deer, 440
- Rack-Railway at Langres, France, 328
- Radcliffe, Oxford, Observatory, 91
- Radiation, New Instrument for the Measurement of, C. C. Hutchins, 358
- Radiograph, on the, by Louis Olivier, 528
- Rae (Dr. J., F.R.S.), is Hail so Formed? 344
- Raft, Logs of Abandoned, 492
- Railway: Gore's, Prof. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 128; Rack, at Langres, France, 328
- Rain, Falling, Theory of the Outflow of Air under, H. Allen, 18
- Rainbow, an Unusual, H. M. Andrew, 464
- Rainfall on and around Table Mountain, J. G. Gamble, 143; of Ceylon, 187; of Spain, Dr. Hellmann, 312; of the American Plains, 328; Measure of, in Dutch East Indies, 351; of Paris, M. Renon, 542
- Ramsay (Prof. W.), Cause of Colour-Blindness, 65
- Rámésaram Island, the Fish-Fauna of, Edgar Thurston, 380
- Range of Molecular Force, the, Prof. A. W. Rücker, F.R.S., 405
- Ranidæ, Classification of the, by G. A. Boulenger, 526
- Rankine (A.), the Thermal Windrose at the Ben Nevis Observatory, 518
- "Raphides," on the Significance of those Excreta of Plants known as, Herr Stahl, 209
- Rats, the Chewing Movements in, Prof. Gad, 576
- Rawitz (Dr.): Mucous Cells in Invertebrates, 168; on the Eyes of Mussels, 480
- Rayleigh (Lord, F.R.S.), on the Relative Densities of Hydrogen and Oxygen, 418
- Reade (T. Mellard): Theories of the Origin of Coral Reefs and Islands, 54; Coral Formations, 488, 535; a Mechanical Cause of the Lamination of Sandstone not hitherto noticed, 222; an Estimate of Post-Glacial Time, 478; Toeing and Heeling at Golf, 31
- Reale Istituto Lombardo, 572
- Reason, a Treatise on the Principle of Sufficient, Mrs. P. T. Fitzgerald, 30
- Reason and Language, Dr. St. George Mivart, F.R.S., 364, 462
- Reason = Language, Prof. F. Max Müller, 412
- Recalcence of Iron, H. Tomlinson, 165
- Reciprocal Influence of Organs of Sense, Experiments on the, Herr Urbanschitsch, 157
- Reciprocants, Theory of, Prof. J. J. Sylvester, F.R.S., 717
- Reclus (M. Elisée), Contributions to the Sociology, of the Australians, 163
- Red After-Glow observed in the Vicinity of Stockholm, 399
- Red Deer, Horns of the, found in the Duddon Estuary, 543
- Redruth, Proposed Museum of Mineralogy at, 299
- Redwood (Boverton) and Alfred Gordon Salamon, Institute of Chemistry, 393
- Refraction Double Dielectric, R. Blondlot, 360
- Reichenhall, Archaeological Explorations near, 112
- Reid (W. G.), Solution of Carbonate of Lime in Sea-Water, 479
- Relations, the, between Geology and the Biological Sciences, Prof. John W. Judd, F.R.S., 424
- Reliktensee, Prof. R. Credner, 496
- Remnants or Vestiges of Amphibian and Reptilian Structures found in the Skulls of Birds, W. K. Parker, F.R.S., 501

- Remsen (Ira), Elements of Chemistry, 317
 Rendiconti del Reale Istituto Lombardo, 404, 500
 Renon (M.): Observations of Fog, 282; Rainfall of Paris, 542
 Resal (M. H.), *Traité de Physique Mathématique*, 504
 Researches on the Influence of Magnetism and Temperature on the Electric Resistance of Bismuth and its Alloys with Lead and Tin, Ed. van Aubel, 525
 Respiratory Combustions; Influence of Sleep on, L. de Saint Martin, 167
 Revenue Method of Estimating and Charging the Duty on Spirits, 481
 Revue d'Anthropologie, 163, 477
 Reymond (Dr. C. du B.), Photography of the Pupil of the Eye when in Darkness, 576
 Reynolds (J. Emerson), Experimental Chemistry for Junior Students, 388
 Rhodium, on the Sesquichloride of, 600
 Ribot (T.), and the Chair of Psychology at the Collège de France, 421, 442
 Riccò (Prof. Annibale), on the Crepuscular Phenomena of 1883-84, 118
 Richards (F. T.), Romantic Love and Personal Beauty, H. T. Finck, 149
 Richthofen (Ferdinand Freiherr von), Führer für Forschungsreisende—Anleitungen zu Beobachtungen über Gegenstände der Physischen Geographie und Zoologie, 603
 Ridewood (Mr.) and Prof. G. B. Howes, on the Carpus and Tarsus of the Anura, 503
 Ridley's (H. N.) Natural History Collection in Fernando Noronha, 119
 Riecke (Profs. Mayer and), New Properties of Carbon Atoms, 567
 Riggs (R. B.), Tourmaline, 358
 Rimington (E. C.), Measurement of Power given to Transformer, 502
 Rings, Fairy, J. Sargeant, 151
 Rio de Janeiro, Imperial Observatory of, Annuario published by, 399
 Rio del Rey, Dr. Zintgraff's Start for, 354
 Rio Dôce and its Northern Tributaries, Brazil, W. J. Steains, 285
 Rittinghaus (Herr), on the Resistance of Pollen to Various External Influences, 494
 Rivista Scientifico-Industriale, 47, 118, 308, 404, 525, 573
 Roberts (Ralph A.), a Treatise on the Integral Calculus, 75
 Roberts-Austen (Prof. Chandler): on the Impossibility of separating Elements of Alloys by means of Electric Currents, 303; Mechanical Properties of Certain Alloys, 497
 Robinson (F. C.), Northford Meteorite, 500
 Robinson (Henry), Green Colouring-matter of Decaying Wood, 536
 Rockwood Meteorite, the, 163
 Rohde (R. T.), a Practicable Decimal System, 493
 Romanes (Geo. J., F.R.S.): Mr. Seebohm on Physiological Selection, 246; elected Fullerian Professor of Physiology at the Royal Institution, 282; Morality and Utility, Geo. Payne Best, 290; Ethical Import of Darwinism, Jacob Gould Schurman, 290; Dr. Whewell's Origin of Species, 486
 Romantic Love and Personal Beauty, H. T. Finck, F. T. Richards, 149
 Ronkar (E.), Note on the Oscillations of a Pendulum produced by the Displacement of the Axis of Suspension, 23
 Roscoe (Sir Henry, F.R.S.): and Woolwich Examinations in Physical Science, 409; a Treatise on Chemistry, 460
 Rosenberg (W.): Dependence of the Colour of Bodies on the Angle of Incidence of the Rays of Light, 525
 Rosenbusch (Prof. von H.): Petrography, by F. H. Hatch, 458; Work on Petrology, 509; Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 556
 Roses, Attar of, Production of, in Bulgaria, 616
 Rosicrucians, the Real History of the, Arthur Edward Waite, 193
 Ross (James G.), Coral Formations, 461, 584
 Rousdon Observatory, 353
 Rousseau (Emile), Death of, 378
 Roux (Léon), New Naphthalene Derivatives, 156
 Rovelli (Prof. Costantino), Crepuscular Hints in connection with the Hygrometric State of the Atmosphere, 404
 Royal Asiatic Society, Straits Branch, 257
 Royal Geographical Society, 285; Douglas W. Freshfield on a Visit to the Caucasus, 496; Founder's Medal awarded to Clements R. Markham, F.R.S., 617; Royal Medal awarded to Lieut. Wissmann, 617
 Royal Horticultural Society, 161, 378, 550; Dr. Maxwell T. Masters, F.R.S., 176
 Royal Institution, 87, 257; G. J. Romanes elected Fullerian Professor of Physiology at the, 282; Right Hon. Sir William R. Grove, F.R.S., Lecture on Antagonism, 617
 Royal Meteorological Society, 143, 257, 309, 378, 454, 526; Presidential Address, 310; Proposed Exhibition of Apparatus connected with Atmospheric Electricity, 349
 Royal Microscopical Society, 166, 359, 431, 574; President's Annual Address, Rev. Dr. Dallinger, F.R.S., 448
 Royal Society, 142, 164, 186, 190, 213, 287, 308, 333, 358, 383, 404, 430, 452, 478, 501, 525, 550, 573, 598, 623; Politics and the Presidency of the Royal Society, Prof. Balfour Stewart, F.R.S., 76; Prof. Alexander W. Williamson, F.R.S., 76; W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., 103; Anniversary Meeting of, Address by the President, 115; List of Names for Election, 33
 Royal Society of New South Wales, 301
 Royal University of Ireland, Calendar, 473; Examination Papers, 519
 Rücker (Prof. Arthur W., F.R.S.): Instability of Freshly-Magnetized Needles, 77; on the Constant P in Observations of Terrestrial Magnetism, 127, 272; Botanists and the Micromillimetre, 388; the Range of Molecular Forces, 405; and C. V. Boys, on the Optical Demonstration of Electrical Stress, 407
 Runic Inscription, Discovery of Gold Armlet with, on the Island of Fredöen, 283
 Runic Stone with Inscription, Discovery of, in Sweden, 283
 Russia: Meteorology in, 19; Tigers found in Parts of Asiatic and European Russia, 36; Proposed Commission to observe Earthquakes in, 88; Storm-Signals in, 91; Meteorological Observations on Russian Men-of-war, 187; Russian Geographical Society, 570; Russian Zoological Station at Villafranca, 566; Technical Education in, 566; Cultivation of the Cotton Tree in, 595
 Ruthenium, Researches on, 288
 Rutin and Quercitrin, Supposed Identity of, Dr. E. Schunck, F.R.S., 406
 Rutley (Frank), Mineralogy, 245
 Rykatschew (Capt.), Winds and Pressure of Caspian Sea, 257
Saccharomyces ellipsoideus, on, by M. Georges Jacquemin, 479
 Sailor's Sky Interpreter, the, S. R. Elson, 5
 St. Elmo's Fire, Cases of, recorded at Ben Nevis Observatory, 112
 Saint-Martin (L. de), Influence of Sleep on Respiratory Combustion, 167
 St. Petersburg, Central Physical Observatory, 231
 Salamon (Alfred Gordon), and Boverton Redwood, Institute of Chemistry, 393
 Saline Deposits, Dr. Carl Ochsenius, 220
 Saline Substances, on the Absorption of, by Plants, MM. Berthelot and André, 527, 551
 Saline Tracts, Planting Waste, 493
 Salmonidæ, British and Irish: Dr. Francis Day, 242, 296, 366, 321; Your Reviewer, 366
 Salomon (Dr.), Physiological Action of Paraxanthin, 215
 Salomons (Sir D.), Management of Accumulators, 485
 Salt Industry in the United States, Geo. P. Merrill, 558
 Salts of Aniline, on some, 48
 Salts of Cobalt, Action of Sulphuretted Hydrogen on, 24
 Salts, Experiments on Saturation Weights of, M. Umoff, 542
 San Domingo, Excursion into the Unknown Interior of, Baron H. Eggers, 545
 Sandstone, a Mechanical Cause of the Lamination of, not hitherto noticed, T. Mellard Reade, 222
 Sanitary Assurance Association, 380
 Sanitary Institute of Great Britain, Transactions of the, 535
 Sanitation, Sociological Aspects of, 232
 Santis, Permanent Observatory on the Summit of the, 351
 Sargeant (J.), Fairy Rings, 151
 Saturn: on the Mass of the Planet, L. de Ball, 118; Physical Observations on, Paul Stroobant, 308
 Saturn's Rings, Variability of, 407

- Saville-Kent, Oyster Fisheries on the Tasmanian Coast-line, 139
 Sawyer, on the New Algal-Variable, Y Cygni, 37
 Sawyer (Edwin), Observations of Variable Stars, 545
 Sawyer's Experiments as to Existence of Separation of Irritability and Conducting Power in Nerves, Prof. Gad, 576
 Scandinavia, Thunderstorms of, MM. Mohn and Hildebrandsson, 614
 Scarcity of Water, Threatened, Chas. Harding, 375
 Schäfer (Prof., F.R.S.): Comparison of Latency Periods of Ocular Muscles on Excitation of Brain, 574; on Electrical Excitation of the Monkey's Brain, 574
 Scharff, Dr. R. F., 186
 Schjellerup (Prof. H. C. F. C.), Obituary Notice of, J. L. E. Dreyer, 154
 Schlagintweit (Adolf), Memorial to, 64
 Schlessing (Th.): on the Relations of Atmospheric Nitrogen with Vegetable Humus, 528, 551; Relations of Atmospheric Nitrogen to Vegetable Soil, 624
 Schmidt (Dr. Maximilian), Death of, 378
 Schmidt (Prof. Oscar) Method of Artificial Propagation of Sponges, 595
 Schneider (Dr.), a New Compound of Arsenic, 258
 School Boards of England and Wales and Technical Instruction Bill, 421
 Schools: Electricity for, W. Larden, 217; Science in Elementary, 279; Proposed Sanitary Reforms in Public Schools at Baltimore, U.S.A., 379
 Schorlemmer (C., F.R.S.), a Treatise on Chemistry, 460
 Schott (C. A.), Davidson's Discovery of Records of the Magnetic Declination, A.D. 1714, 379
 Schurman (Jacob Gould), Ethical Import of Darwinism, Prof. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 290
 Schuster (Dr. Max), Death of, 111
 Schwendener (Prof. S.) and Prof. Carl Naegeli, the Microscope in Theory and Practice, Dr. W. H. Dallinger, F.R.S., 171
 Schwerin (Baron von), Ethnographical Objects, 442
 Schwerin (Dr.), Discovery at the Mouth of the River Congo, 65
 Science: Scientific Voyage of the *Hirondelle*, 24; Prof. Stokes's Speech on, 111; the Art of Computation for the Purposes of Science, Sydney Lupton, 237, 262; Prof. W. Ramsay and Dr. Sydney Young, 294; Science in Elementary Schools, 279; the Duke of Argyll's Charges against Men of Science, Prof. John W. Judd, F.R.S., 317; Physical Science and the Woolwich Examinations, 296, 319, 385, 389, 409, 415, 433; Natural Science and the Woolwich Examinations, Rev. A. Irving, 389; Scientific and General Education, Prof. Fleeming Jenkin on, 435; Scientific Study, Sir James Paget, 442; Science Fund, Elizabeth Thompson, 492; Science Sketches, David Starr Jordan, 535; Science Teaching at South Kensington, 553; Home Experiments in Science, T. O'Connor Sloane, 556; Scientific Progress in Elementary Schools, 577
 Scotland: Scottish Geographical Magazine, 37, 286; Scottish University Extension Scheme, 64; Journal of the Scottish Meteorological Society, 68; Fishery Board for Scotland, Fifth Annual Report of, 132; Scottish Fishery Board, and Arctic Seal Fisheries, 399; Technical Education in, 349; Earthquake in, 350
 Scott (Alexander), the Composition of Water by Volume, 439
 Scott (E. Erskine), the Art of Computation for the Purposes of Science, 319
 Scott (Robert H., F.R.S.): Earthquake at the Bahamas, 54; British and Atlantic Weather, 350; International Tables, 415
 Scyphomedusæ, Dr. von Lendenfeld, 399
 Sea: Wind Force at, Capt. David Wilson-Barker, 274; Physical Geography of, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 315
 Sea-sickness, Antipyrine a Remedy for, Eugène Dupuy, 96
 Seebohm (M.), on Physiological Selection, Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 246
 Seeds and Plants, the Dispersion of, by D. Morris, 466; Dr. Antonio J. Amadeo, 535
 Seeman (M.), on Storm Warnings issued by the New York Herald, 18
 Seismology: Earth Tremors and the Wind, Prof. John Milne, F.R.S., 214; Plantamour's Observations of Periodic Ground-Movements, 257; Model of an Earthquake, Prof. Sekiya, 297; Speed of Charleston Earthquake, Newcomb and Dutton, 358; Earth Tremors in Central Japan, Prof. Milne, 399; a Paper on Earthquakes in general, together with a New Theory of their Origin, developed by the Introduction of Submarine Telegraphy, by W. G. Forster, 523; Reports on Earthquakes in Sweden, 543; Earthquake Sounds, Prof. Milne, 543
 Seismometers, Pendulum, Prof. John Milne, 570
 Sekiya (Prof.), Model of an Earthquake, 297
 Self-Induction, Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 605
 Semmola (Prof. Eugenio), on the Heating of Metallic Points when discharging, 308
 Semsey (Herr Andor), and Natural Science Society of Budapest, 492
 Sensation, the Objective Cause of, by Prof. Haycraft, 518
 Sense, Organs of, Experiments on the Reciprocal Influence of, Herr Urbanschtsch, 157
 Sense and Senses of Animals, Sir John Lubbock, 210
 Sense of Taste, Delicacy of the, E. H. S. Bailey and E. L. Nicols, 557
 Serum, a New Artificial, Mayet, 96
 Sesquichloride of Rhodium, 600
 Seton (George), on Illegitimacy in the Parish of Marnoch, 527
 Sewage, Treatment by Electricity of, 355
 Sexual Reproduction of *Millepora plicata*, the, Dr. Sydney J. Hickson, 164
 Shadow of a Mist: W. Fawcett, 224; Rev. Henry Bernard, 392
 Sharpe (R. Bowdler): the Tweeddale Collection, 13; New Species of Birds from Guadalcanar, 503
 Sbattock (S. G.), Scars occurring on the Stem of *Dammara robusta*, 119
 Shaw (Prof. Hele): Technical Education, 43; Perpetual Motion, 254
 Shaw (W. N.), Report on Hygrometric Methods, 404
 Shea (D. W.), Calibration of an Electrometer, 500
 Sheat-Fish, the Detent Joint of, 336
 Shells, New Species of, by G. B. Sowerby, 526
 Sherborn (Chas. Davies), an "Instructive" Bibliography of the Foraminifera, 583
 Shettle (Dr. R. C.), on the Rotation of a Copper Sphere, 166
 Shirenewton Hall, Chepstow, Extraordinary Fog in January 1888 at, E. J. Lowe, F.R.S., 294
 Shufeldt (R. W.), the Leaps of Lepus, 247
 Siam, J. McCarthy on, 66
 Siberia, Eastern, Creation of Provincial Museums in, 65
 Siberian Islands, the New, 522
 Sidgwick (Alfred), a Short Introduction to the Study of Logic, Lawrence Johnstone, 175
 Sieg (Dr.), Capillary Constants of Drops and Bubbles, 167
 Sieger (Dr. Robert), Changes of Level in the African Lakes, 354
 Siemens's Gas-Burners, 136
 Sierra Nevada of Santa Marta, Exploration of the, Dr. Sievers, 354
 Sievers (Dr. W.), Exploration of the Sierra Nevada of Santa Marta, 354
 Silence, a Conspiracy of: the Duke of Argyll, F.R.S., 53, 246, 293; Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 25, 77; Rev. John W. Judd, F.R.S., 272; Samuel F. Clarke, 200; an Old Pupil of Wyville Thomson's, 200
 Silk: Artificial, 595; Industries of the United Kingdom, 595
 Silkworms, Colour-Susceptibility of, E. B. Poulton, 95
 Silver and Potassium, on the Production of the Double Carbonate of, 48
 Simon (G. Eug.), China, its Social, Political, and Religious Life, 268
 Singapore Museum, William Davison appointed Curator, 112
 Skull, Fossil Pterodactyl, found in the Yorkshire Lias, 598
 Sky, Effect of Snow on the Polarization of the, James C. McConnel, 177
 Sky Interpreter, the Sailor's, S. R. Elson, 5
 Sleep, Influence of, on Respiratory Combustion, L. de Saint Martin, 167
 Sloane (T. O'Connor), Home Experiments in Science, 556
 Smith (Rev. Alfred Chas.), Birds of Wiltshire, 601
 Smith (Charles): a New Treatise on Algebra, 232; a Treatise on Algebra, Capt. P. A. MacMahon, 508
 Smith (C. Michie), Electrification of the Air, 274
 Smith (Worthington G.): Ffynnon Beuno and Cae Gwyn Caves, 7, 105, 178; Earthquake in England, 127
 Smoke: Abatement, the National Institution, 356; in London, Increase of Fog and, Sir Douglas Galton, 208
 Snow Crystals, 343

- Thermal Conductivity of Iron, Copper, and German Silver, A. Crichton Mitchell, 328
- Thermic Voltaic Cell, W. Case on, 331
- Thermo-Current in Iron, the Temporary, Fred. T. Trouton, 321
- Thermodynamics, Prof. Pictet's Experiments with his Ice Machines, 167
- Thermodynamics, Note on Permanent Deformations and, Marcel Brillouin, 384
- Thermodynamics and Mathematical Optics, M. H. Resal, 504
- Thermo-magnetic Machines, 33
- Thermometer, a New Gas-, M. L. Cailletet, 600
- Thermometers and Barometers, Experiments with, 72
- Thermometry: Dr. Staff's Measurements of the Temperature of the Earth in South Africa, 167
- Thomas (Cyrus), Mound Exploration, 615
- Thomas (H. Sullivan), Tank-Angling in India, 518
- Thompson (C.) and C. R. A. Wright, F.R.S., Voltaic Circles producible by Mutual Neutralization of Acid and Alkaline Fluids and Various Related Forms of Electromotors, 573
- Thompson (Elizabeth) Science Fund, 492
- Thompson (Prof. Silvanus P.): on the Analogies of Influence-Machines and Dynamos, 165; Height of Tai Shan, 224
- Thomsen (Prof. Julius), a New Chloride of Gold, 398
- Thomson (Sir William, F.R.S.): Electrical Measuring-Instruments, 355; Rectilinear Motion of Viscous Fluid between Two Parallel Planes, 518
- Thomson's (Prof. J. J.) Discovery that Sparks in Tubes dissociate Iodine, Bromine, and Chlorine, 303
- Thornton (J.), Elementary Physiography, 485
- Thoroddsen (Th.), the Recent Earthquakes in Iceland, 201
- Thorpe (Prof. T. E., F.R.S.): a New Magnetic Survey of France, 247; Composition of Water, 313
- Thouars (M.): Safety of, 302; Return of, 354
- Thought, Prolegomena to the Statistics of, A. Bastian, 387
- Throndtjem, *Aurora Borealis* at, 595
- Thunderbolts, on Non-Existence of, G. J. Symons, F.R.S., 527
- Thunderstorms of Scandinavia, MM. Mohn and Hildebrandsson, 614
- Thurston (Edgar): Note on a Madras Micrococcus, 79; the Fish-Fauna of Ráméswarem Island, 380
- Tibet, East, and East Gobi, M. Potanin's Journeys in, 141
- Tibetan Version of the Mongolian Epics of Hesser-Khan, Discovery of a Manuscript containing a, 209
- Tidal Currents (on), in the Open Ocean, J. Y. Buchanan, F.R.S., 452
- Tidy (Prof. C. M.), Modern Chemistry, 596
- Tierra del Fuego, Recent Explorations in, 159
- Tigers found in Parts of Asiatic and European Russia, 36
- Timber, and some of its Diseases, Prof. H. Marshall Ward, 182, 204, 227, 251, 275, 516
- Timepieces, Synchronizing of, 288
- Tisserand (F.), on a Point in the Theory of the Moon, 527
- Tjöring in Denmark, Ancient Gold Armet discovered in a Field at, 138
- Todd (C.), Monthly Meteorological Notes and Rainfall Statistics for South Australia, 615
- Todhunter (I., F.R.S.), Solutions in Problems contained in a Treatise on Plane Co-ordinate Geometry, 75
- Todhunter's Differential Calculus, Key to, H. St. J. Hunter, 412
- Toeing and Heeling at Golf, T. Mellard Reade, 31
- Tokio, Report of the Meteorological Observatory, 328
- Tomlinson (Herbert), on the Recalescence of Iron, 165; Effects of Temperature on the Thermo-electric Properties of Iron when under Stress or Strain, 165
- Tondini (M.), on Unification of the Calendar, 528
- Topinard (M.), on Criminal Anthropology, 163
- Töpler (Prof.), New Method of Measurement of Magnetism of Gases, 576
- Torpedo marmorata*, Electromotive Properties of the Electrical Organ of, Francis Gotch, 623
- Total Eclipse of the Moon, January 28, 286, 306
- Tourmaline, R. B. Riggs, 358
- Toynbee (Captain Henry), Distorted Earth Shadows in Eclipses, 202
- Traité de Physique Mathématique, by M. H. Resal, 504
- Trajectory of a Body moving over the Earth's Surface under the Influence of Terrestrial Rotation, M. Lindelöf, 543
- Transactions of the New Zealand Institute, 572
- Transition Resistance at the Surface of Platinum Electrodes, and the Action of Condensed Gaseous Films, by W. Peddie, 518
- Traube (Herr), New Instrument, Stalagmometer, for determining the Amount of Fusel Oil in Spirituous Liquors, 209
- Travellers, a Hand-book for, Ferdinand Freiherr von Richthofen, 603
- Tregear (E.), the Origin of Fire, 518
- Triglohan (T. P.), Voltaic Electricity, 533
- Trichloride of Nitrogen, 494
- Tridimensional Formulæ in Organic Chemistry, Prof. F. R. Japp, F.R.S., 121
- Trigonometrical Survey, Completion of Ceylon, 258
- Tribolites of Primordial Fauna in France, First Discovery of, Jules Bergeron, 360
- Tropics, Cloud Movements in the, and Cloud Classification, Captain David Wilson-Barker, 129
- Trotter (Rev. Counts), Death of, 137; Obituary Notice of, by Prof. M. Foster, F.R.S., 153
- Trout, American Lake (*S. namaycush*), at South Kensington, 208
- Trouton (Fred. T.), the Temporary Thermo-Current in Iron, 321
- Trowbridge (Prof. John) and Hutchins, Spectra of Oxygen and Carbon compared with that of the Sun, 47, 114
- Trowbridge (Prof. W. P.), Interesting Discovery about Birds, 139
- True Average of Observations?, Prof. Robert H. Smith, 464
- Tubercular Virus, on the Neutralizers of, Prof. Giuseppe Sormani, 404
- Tuberculosis, the Influence of Fluorhydric Acid on, 187
- Turkistan: A. D. Carey's Journey around and across, 115; Antiquities of, M. Krasnof, 283
- Turner (H. H.), Report on Total Solar Eclipse of August 29, 1886, 525
- Turner (Sir W.), the Pineal Gland in the Walrus, 239
- Turtle, Fossil, Discovery of, by Dr. Donnezan, 215
- Tutton (A. E.): Synthesis of Glucose, 7; Isolation of Fluorine, 179
- Tweeddale Collection, the, R. Bowdler Sharpe, 13
- Tyler (Thomas), the Hittites, with Special Reference to very Recent Discoveries, 511, 536, 559, 590, 609
- Typhoons in Hong Kong, Cause of September, Dr. W. Doberck, 439
- U Ophiuchi, Variable Star, S. C. Chandler, Jun., 36, 90
- Ulloa's Ring, Fog Bow and, Dr. H. Mohn, 391
- Ultra-Violet Rays, Hertz's Experiments on Influence of, on Passage of Sparks, 355
- Umbria's* Wave, the, C. E. Stromeyer, 151
- Umoff (M.), Experiments on Saturation Weights of Salts, 542
- Unification of the Calendar, by M. Tondini, 528
- United States: National Museum, Proceedings of the, 15; Submarine Valleys off the Pacific Coast of the United States, George Davidson, 38; Meteorology in the United States, 39; Report from the Chief Signal Officer on, 156; Unusually High Mean Temperature in Parts of the, 39; Six Bulletins of the Geological Survey of the, 64; New Forms for Reports of Storms, &c., issued by the Hydrographic Office of the United States, 67; Gems and Ornamental Stones of the United States, Dr. A. E. Foote, 68; Commission of Agriculture, Prof. John Wrightson, 188; Monthly Weather Review, 39, 208, 300; United States Fish Commission, 316; Salt Industry in the, Geo. P. Merrill, 558
- University College, Bristol, 87
- University Intelligence, 22, 95, 162, 189, 287, 307, 430, 500, 622
- University, Proposed Teaching for London, 331, 339; Sir Philip Magnus, 393
- Upsala, University of, Presentation of a Fossil Skeleton of a Whale to, 329
- Urbanschtsch (Herr), Experiments on the Reciprocal Influence of Organs of Sense, 157
- Utah, Copper Minerals from, 623

- Vaccination, Dr. Robert Cory, 483
 Vaccination Vindicated, Dr. J. C. McVail, 483
 Vagueles, the, M. Kuesenoff, 258
 Vaillant (M. L.), on the Nest of the *Antennarius marmoratus*, 208
 Vaizey (J. Reynolds), *Catharina undulata*, 79
 Valency, a Note on, especially as defined by Helmholtz, Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 303
 Van Aubel (Ed.), Researches on the Influence of Magnetism and Temperature on the Electric Resistance of Bismuth and its Alloys with Lead and Tin, 525
 Van Gèle (Lieut.), Connection between the Mobangi and the Wellé, 496
 Vapour Currents, Experiments on, Dr. Robert von Helmholtz, 48
 Variable Stars: Probable New, John Tebbutt, Dr. Bauschinger, 114; Class of, Rev. T. E. Espin, 158; Observations of, Edwin Sawyer, 545; U Ophiuchi, S. C. Chandler, Jun., 36; the New Algol, S. C. Chandler, 90; Y Cygni and R Canis Majoris, S. C. Chandler, 140
 Vegetable Humus, Relations of Atmospheric Nitrogen with, Th. Schloesing, 551
 Vegetable Lamb of Tartary, the, Henry Lee, 176
 Vegetable Soil, Relations of Atmospheric Nitrogen to, Th. Schloesing, 624
 Vegetation and Moonlight, D. E. Hutchins, 275
 Velschow (F. A.), on the Natural Law of Relation between Rainfall and Vegetable Life, and its Application to Australia, 519
 Ventriloquism, Herr Meyer on, 264
 Venus: Brilliancy of, 169; Brazilian Results from the Transit of, M. Cruls, 233
 Verhandlungen of Berlin Geographical Society, 90
 Verneau (Dr. R.): Ethnology of Canary Islands, 90; on the Stature of the Ancient Inhabitants of the Canary Islands, 163
 Vertebrate Fauna of Sutherland, Caithness, and West Cromarty, J. A. Harvie-Brown and T. E. Buckley, 292
 Vertebrate Morphology, a Study in, the Old Mouth and the New, Dr. J. Beard, 224
 Ververs (C. C.), Practical Amateur Photography, 518
 Victoria: Prodomus of the Zoology of, Prof. F. McCoy, 533; Technical Education in the Colony of, 614
 Victoria Hall Science Lectures, 257
 Victoria University, 32
 Vieth (Dr. P.), Action of Micro-organisms on Milk, 211
 Villafranca, Russian Zoological Station at, 566
 Villary (M.) and M. de Forcrand, on the Hydrate of Sulphurated Hydrogen, 528
 Virchow (Dr.), on Hip-Region, 480; on Striæ Medullares Acusticæ, 480
 Viscous Liquid, on the Motion of a Sphere in a, A. B. Basset, 164
 Vitreous State of Water, Rev. A. Irving, 104
 Vitriol-chamber Process, G. Lunge, 335
 Vocabulary of Ordinary Arithmetic, Note on a Proposed Addition to the, Prof. J. J. Sylvester, F.R.S., 152
 Vogel (Prof.): and Astronomical Prizes of the Paris Academy of Sciences, 259; Solar Eclipse of August 19, 311
 Volatility of the Carbon Compounds, Louis Henry, 525
 Volcanic and Coral Islands of the Solomon Group, Dr. H. B. Guppy, 98
 Volcanic Eruptions, Elverum, Central Norway, 421
 Volcanoes of Hawaii, James Dana, 120
 Volcanoes: History of Changes in Hawaii Craters, J. D. Dana, 358
 Voltaic Cell, Thermal, W. Case on, 331
 Voltaic Circles producible by Mutual Neutralization of Acid and Alkaline Fluids, C. R. A. Wright, F.R.S., and C. Thompson, 573
 Voltaic Electricity, T. P. Treglohan, 533
 Voltmeters, Capacities of, A. Sokoloff, 525
 Wagner (Dr. August), Death of, 400
 Waite (Arthur Edward), the Real History of the Rosicrucians, 193
 Walcott (Charles D.), the Taconic System of Emmons, 500
 Wales, North, Earthquakes in, 595
 Walker (J. J.), a Year's Insect-hunting at Gibraltar, 300
 Wallach and Heusler (Drs.), the Physical Nature of Fluorine, 301
 Walrus, Pineal Gland in the, Sir W. Turner, 239
 Ward (Prof. H. Marshall): Timber, and some of its Diseases, 182, 204, 227, 251, 275, 516; Obituary Notice of Anton de Bary, 297
 Warren (S. E.), a Primary Geometry, 317
 Warsaw, Proposed Exhibition of Textile Goods and Machinery at, 15
 Water, Composition of, Prof. T. E. Thorpe, F.R.S., 313; Dr. Sydney Young, 390, 417; Alexander Scott, 439
 Water, Compressibility of, Prof. P. G. Tait, 239
 Water Pressure, Centre of, Geo. M. Minchin, 201, 275
 Water Supplies and Reservoirs, W. G. Black, 439
 Water Supply of Cheltenham, 210
 Water, Threatened Scarcity of, Chas. Harding, 375
 Water, Vitreous State of, Rev. A. Irving, 104
 Waterhouse (G. R.), Death of, 327
 Waterspout on the Lake of Geneva, M. Dufour on, 208
 Waterspout in North Atlantic, 187, 567
 Waterspouts and Tornadoes, M. Colladon's Recent Note on, M. Faye, 120
 Wave, the *Umbria's*, C. E. Stromeyer, 151
 Wave-Length of Light, the Absolute, Louis Bell, 623
 Wave-Lengths of Spectra, on a Simple Relation between the, A. E. Nordenskjöld, 120
 Waves, Baracoa, Cuba, 421
 Wax, Mineral, Remarkable Variety of, 48
 Weasel (*Mustela vulgaris*) seen destroying Frogs, 208
 Weasels killing Frogs, M. S. Pembrey, 321
 Weather Changes and High Barometric Pressure of Asia, 422
 Weather Charts of the Bay of Bengal, 137
 Weather, Popular Exposition of the Nature of Weather Changes from Day to Day, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 101
 Weber (Prof.), a very Sensitive Micro-Radiometer, 157
 Weeks (J. D.), Paper on Natural Gas, 422
 Weight and Mass, T. C. Mendenhall, 416; Oliver J. Lodge, 416
 Weights and Measures, 189
 Weinstein (Dr.), Determination of Electrical Resistance of Tubes of Mercury, 167
 Weismann (Prof. A.): Theory of Polar Bodies, G. Herbert Fowler, 134; Duration of Life, P. Chalmers Mitchell, 541
 Wellington College Natural Science Society Report, 473
 Wellington (N.Z.), Philosophical Society, 518
 Wells (H. L.), Bismutosphærite from Willimantic and Portland, Connecticut, 47
 Welsh Coal, Specimen of, 215
 Werner (E. A.), Chromorganic Salts, 503
 West Indies, through the, Mrs. Granville Layard, 199
 Whale Fisheries, Spitzbergen, 301
 Whale Fishery in the Greenland Seas and Davis Strait, 543
 Whale, Fossil Skeleton of, from Sweden, 329
 Wharton (Capt. W. J. L., F.R.S.): Christmas Island, 303; Coral Formations, 393; Oil on Troubled Waters, 435
 Whewell (Dr. W.), on the Origin of Species, Prof. George J. Romanes, F.R.S., 486
 Whipple (G. M.): Instability of Freshly-Magnetized Needles, 128; the Non-Instrumental Meteorology of England, Wales, and Ireland, 309
 White (T. Charters), Elementary Microscopical Examinations, 555
 White (W.), Experiments upon the Colour-Relation between the Pupæ of *Pieris rapæ* and their Immediate Surroundings, 503
 Whitehead (Charles), the Hessian Fly, 212
 Whitehead (John): Return of, from Palawan, 111; Proposed Visit to Kina Balu, 349
 Williams (W. Mattieu), Muzzling of Oysters, 585
 Williamson (Prof. Alex. W., F.R.S.), Politics and the Presidency of the Royal Society, 76
 Wilson (George J.), Medical Education at Oxford, 5
 Wilson (J. S. Grant), on Bathymetrical Survey of Perthshire Lochs, 527
 Wilson (Scott Barchard), Description of Chloridops, 526
 Wilson-Barker (Capt. David): Cloud Movements in the Tropics and Cloud Classification, 129; Wind Force at Sea, 274; Coral Formations, 604
 Wiltshire, Birds of, Rev. Alf. Chas. Smith, 601
 Wind, Earth-Tremors and the, Prof. John Milne, F.R.S., 214

- Wind Force at Sea : Capt. David Wilson-Barker, 274 ; W. G. Black, 321
- Wind Velocity and Pressure, Relation between, H. Allen Hazen, 39, 47
- Winds, Proposed Classification of, 595
- Winkler Observatory, Herr Winkler, 302
- Wissmann (Lieut.), Preliminary Account of his Journey across Africa, 159
- Witchell (C. B.), Swifts, 79
- Wolf's Relative Numbers, 423
- Wolpert (Prof.), Apparatus for measuring the Amount of Carbonic Acid, 157
- Wolsingham Observatory, Rev. T. E. Espin, 400
- Wolves in France, Rewards for killing, 65
- Wolves nurturing Children, 444
- Wood, Green Colouring-matter of Decaying : Rev. A. Irving, 511 ; Henry Robinson, 536
- Wood, Manufactures from American, C. R. Dodge, 473
- Wood (Theodore), Farmer's Friends and Foes, 388
- Woodford (C. M.), Exploration of the Solomon Islands, 331, 546
- Woodhead (Dr. G. Sims), on Mercuric Salts as Antiseptic Surgical Lotions, 527
- Woodward (Harry Page), appointed Government Geologist for Western Australia, 139
- Woolwich Cadets, Science Training of, 566
- Woolwich Examinations, Science and the, 296, 319, 385, 409, 433 ; Rev. A. Irving, 389 ; Henry Palin Gurney, 415
- Woolwich Regulations, the, and the House of Commons, 576
- Wright (Dr. C. R. Alder, F.R.S.) and C. Thompson : Note on the Development of Feeble Currents by purely Physical Action, and the Oxidation under Voltaic Influences of Metals not ordinarily regarded as Spontaneously Oxidizable, 213 ; Voltaic Circles producible by Mutual Neutralization of Acid and Alkaline Fluids, and Various Related Forms of Electromotors, 573
- Wright (Mark R.), Sound, Light, and Heat, 199
- Wrightson (Prof. John) : United States Commission of Agriculture, 188 ; Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society, 211 ; on Report of the New York Agricultural Station, 524
- Y Cygni, the New Algol-Variable, Sawyer, 37
- Y Cygni and R Canis Majoris, the New Algol-Variables, Chandler, 140
- Yang-tse Gorges, through the, A. J. Little, 556
- Year-book of the Scientific and Learned Societies of Great Britain and Ireland, 615
- Yorkshire Lias, Fossil Pterodactyl Skull found in the, 598
- Young (Dr. Sydney), the Composition of Water, 390, 417
- Zenker (Dr.), Distribution of Heat over the Surface of the Earth, 552
- Zintgraff (Dr.), Start for Rio del Rey, 354
- Zograff (Dr. Nicholas) : on Some Affinities between *Ganoidei chondrostei* and other Fishes, 70 ; Structure of *Acipenser ruthenus*, 399
- Zoological and Botanical Results of the Cruise of the *Dijumphna*, 173
- Zoological Gardens, Additions to, 17, 36, 66, 89, 113, 140, 158, 187, 210, 233, 259, 284, 301, 330, 353, 380, 400, 423, 445, 475, 495, 519, 544, 569, 596, 616
- Zoological Record, 187, 300
- Zoological Results of the *Challenger* Expedition, 1, 219
- Zoological Society, 119, 190, 239, 334, 431, 454, 503, 526, 569
- Zoological Station at Villafranca, Russian, 566
- Zoology : M. Zograff on the Structure of *Acipenser ruthenus*, 399 ; Wolves nurturing Children, 444 ; Prodomus of the Zoology of Victoria, Prof. F. McCoy, 533 ; Leitfaden der Zoologie für die oberen Classen der Mittelschulen, Dr. Vitus Graber, 604



NATURE

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“To the solid ground
Of Nature trusts the mind which builds for aye.”—WORDSWORTH.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 3, 1887.

THE ZOOLOGICAL RESULTS OF THE “CHALLENGER” EXPEDITION.

Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of H.M.S. “Challenger” during the Years 1873-76 under the Command of Capt. G. S. Nares, R.N., F.R.S., and of the late Capt. F. T. Thomson, R.N. Prepared under the Superintendence of the late Sir C. Wyville Thomson, Kt., F.R.S., &c., and now of John Murray, one of the Naturalists of the Expedition. Zoology—Vols. XX. and XXI. (Published by Order of Her Majesty’s Government, 1887.)

THE twentieth volume of the “Zoological Reports of the Voyage of H.M.S. *Challenger*” contains three memoirs, of which the first is “On the Monaxonida,” by Stuart O. Ridley, M.A., and Arthur Dendy, B.Sc. The collection of this group of the Sponges was, in the first instance, intrusted to Mr. Ridley, who, to hasten the completion of the work, was afterwards joined by Mr. Dendy.

When about ten years ago Prof. Zittel gave the name Monactinellidæ to an order of Sponges, the position of this group became for the first time clearly defined. Prof. Sollas, some five years later, pointed out that Zittel’s name implied a wrong idea, for that the characteristic spicules of the group were just as often “diactinal” as “monactinal,” and suggested that, as both these forms were, however, “monaxonid,”—that is, having only one axis, which, in the case of the diactinal forms, passed through both the rays—the group should be called Monaxonidæ. As this group represents a division higher than that of a family, for which the termination “idæ” stands, all subsequent writers have adopted the name “Monaxonida.” This group Sollas now regards as a tribe of the sub-class Demospongiæ, but the authors of this Report consider it with Zittel as one of the orders of the class.

The classifications of Gray, Bowerbank, Schmidt, or Carter, have now little but historic interest, while as for the more recent writers it would even seem as if each new

series of novelties described necessitated a fresh shuffling of the orders, sub-orders, and families.

In the chapter on the anatomy and histology of the group the subject of the spicules is fully treated. It appears to us that no apology was needed for passing over the writings of Bowerbank on these forms; and when the authors too modestly refer us for further details as to the nature, &c., of siliceous spicules to, among other volumes, those of this author, we prefer, without meaning the slightest reflection on his great labours, to turn instead to the pages of the present Report.

The very difficult subject of a nomenclature for the spicules is treated at some length. Those of this order are divided into the two classes of “mega-” and “micro-” “sclera.” In each of these there is a very numerous series of forms, all of which get separate names, founded on some prominent distinguishing character of the spicule. Let us hope that the majority of these names may find acceptance with writers on this group of Sponges, so that one difficulty in its study may be removed.

Passing over the descriptions of the spongin, the arrangement of the skeleton, and those of the ectosome and choanosome, we must briefly notice a very remarkable structure, which would appear to be quite unique, and which is found in a Sponge (*Cladorhiza tridentata*, sp. n.) from a depth of 1600 fathoms. The little Sponge in which this occurs is in shape somewhat like a miniature watch-stand. Embedded in the soft tissues, all around the upper margin of the concavity, a large number of small yellow globular bodies are found. Each globular body consists of a central, more deeply staining and granular portion, surrounded by and embedded in a matrix of faintly staining, perfectly hyaline ground substance. The granular appearance of the central mass is owing to very numerous embedded cells; these are irregular in shape and nucleated. Other peculiar cup-shaped bodies occur towards the periphery of the Sponge, embedded in the matrix. The authors think it probable that the cup-shaped bodies are aggregations of glandular cells similar to those met with in the ectosome of some other Sponges, and hint that the whole structure may be phosphorescent, and serve to attract minute organisms upon which the Sponge feeds. In regard to the canal-

system the authors' general conclusions are quite in accord with those of Vosmaer and Polejaeff. In the classification adopted the order is divided into two sub-orders, Halichondrina and Clavulina. The first of these is divided into four families: I. Homorrhaphidæ, II. Heterorrhaphidæ, III. Desmacidonidæ, and IV. Axinellidæ; the second into I. Suberitidæ, and II. Spirastrellidæ.

Over 200 species or well-marked varieties are described from the *Challenger's* dredgings, but all the new species were first diagnosed in the *Annals and Magazine of Natural History* during the course of last year (1886).

In reference to the geographical distribution, the authors remark that one cannot fail to notice the small number of stations at which these Sponges were found. Out of a total of 277 distinct stations, only 50 are represented as stations for these Monaxonids, and these are supplemented by 20 localities to which no station-number is attached; and these latter were not, it is to be assumed, deep-sea stations. We cannot agree with the suggestion that these forms were overlooked amongst the "rubbish" in sorting out the contents of the trawls and dredges; or with the idea that owing to their fragility they may have been destroyed. Doubtless the true explanation is that "the Monaxonida are not, on the whole, a predominant group in deep water."

While not a predominant group in deep water, still no less than 24 species were found at depths between 1000 and 2000 fathoms, while 46 occurred between depths of 200-1000 fathoms, and 140 species, or exactly double the previous number, were found at depths of from 0-200 fathoms.

The scarcity of Monaxonid Sponges at very great depths is somewhat compensated for by the unusual interest attaching to the species which do occur. Among other facts we find that, while the shallow-water forms are characteristically more or less shapeless in their external form or at the very most digitate or ramose, those from below the 1000-fathom depth have almost without exception beautifully symmetrical and definite shapes.

One of the most beautiful and extraordinary of the species described and figured is *Eспериopsis challengerii*, Ridley: it was taken in some quantity off the east of Celebes Island from a depth of 825 fathoms. From a slightly expanded attached base a slightly curved stem arises, which is composed of densely packed and firmly united stylote spicules: this stem is compressed laterally; numerous short simple branches arise from the concave edge at gradually increasing intervals, the longest of the internodes being at the top; the main stem and each of these branches terminate in fleshy sponge lamellæ, of which there may be six or seven in an apparently full-grown specimen. Each lamella presents the form of a deeply concave, transversely elongated cup: the oscula are confined to the convex surfaces of the lamellæ; the pores are found on the concave surfaces. This species is figured on Plate XVIII. Fifty-one plates accompany this Report.

The second Report in this volume is a supplement to Dr. L. von Graff's Report on the Myzostomida. It includes the description of seven new forms besides fourteen previously described species, all received from Dr. P. Herbert Carpenter; these were found by him while investigating the *Challenger* Crinoids. The author refers

to the so-called cysts of *Antedon rosacea*, but declares that in no one case did he find therein any trace of a Myzostoma or any other encysted organism. On the contrary, both in the various pinnule deformities and in the arm swellings, he found a roundish brown foreign body, which was apparently the cause of the deformity. As to the nature or origin of this body nothing has been determined. Three plates of the new species and one of the cysts of *Antedon rosacea* accompany this Report.

The third Report is on *Cephalodiscus dodecalophus*, McInt., by Prof. W. C. McIntosh. This very remarkable newtype of Polyzoon was dredged in the Strait of Magellan, and was, when first found, placed among the Compound Ascidiæ. The late Mr. Busk, Prof. Allman, and Prof. McIntosh, referred it to the Polyzoa. At first sight the flexible cœnœcium might easily be taken for a sea-weed, but it would seem to spread over the surface of the ground and not to grow erect. Of the numerous branches many anastomose; the general surface is spiny or fimbriated; the interior of the stem and branches contains an irregular series of wide canals. The Polypides are described as being perfectly free and at liberty to wander anywhere along the chambers, or even externally through the apertures. Each adult Polypide measures, from the extremity of the cephalic plumes to the tips of the pedicel, about 2 millimetres. Large buds in various stages of development arise from the Polypides. The twelve branchial plumes are very conspicuous. The author thinks that *Cephalodiscus* approaches *Rhabdopleura*. In an important appendix, by Mr. Sidney F. Harmer, the affinities of this form to *Balanoglossus* are ably pointed out, and he thinks that this genus (and perhaps *Rhabdopleura* also), must be removed from the Polyzoa and placed in Bateson's group of the Hemichordata. Seven plates and numerous woodcuts illustrate this Report.

Volume XXI. contains but one Report, that on the Hexactinellida, by Prof. F. E. Schulze, of the University of Berlin. This volume is issued in two parts, the first that of the text, comprising over 500 pages, and the second consisting of an atlas of 104 plates.

This is one of the most important of the fifty-three Reports hitherto published. This group of Sponges early attracted the special attention of the late Sir Wyville Thomson; and it was his intention to describe the Hexactinellids of the *Challenger* Expedition, but the work had scarcely been seriously commenced at the time of his death. It was fortunate that the services of Prof. Schulze were secured for the writing of this monograph, which is a most acceptable and welcome addition to our literature of this group.

In this Report, besides the collection made by the *Challenger*, the results of the previous cruises of the *Lightning*, *Porcupine*, *Knight Errant*, and *Triton* are also detailed, and the material has been further increased by a collection made at Japan by Dr. Döderlein.

The Hexactinellids are those forms of the Sponges in which the siliceous spicules belong to the triaxial type. Omitting the eighteenth century reference to a Sponge belonging to the genus *Dactylocalyx*, Dr. Gray was the first in the present century to describe some peculiar "glass rope-like" structures in the British Museum under the name of *Hyalonema*; though without recognizing until long afterwards their real affinities. This was in

1832, and in the following year Quoy and Gaimard figured and described their *Alcyonellum speciosum*. During the next twenty years only five more species were added to the list, the beautiful *Euplectella aspergillum*, Owen, being the most remarkable of these. The last twenty-five years have, however, witnessed an ever-advancing progress in our knowledge of these Sponges, thanks to the labours of Gray, Bowerbank, Wyville Thomson, Schmidt, Kent, Carter, Marshall, Sollas, and, above all, of Zittel, which labours have now culminated in the present Report.

It is scarcely to be wondered at that the beautiful glassy frame-work and the charmingly diversified spicules which form their "skeletons" have always attracted attention to these Sponges—an attraction that will be greatly intensified by the publication of this volume.

The Report opens with a general historical introduction, and then passes on to details of the forms and structures to be met with in the group: herein we find the nomenclature adopted for the spicules. This is followed by the description of the genera and species. It is pleasant to find in the synonymy and specific details that great pains have been taken to mention the work of all previous labourers in the field, and the author shows a due and kindly appreciation of what has been done by those who often had but little light to guide them on their way.

It is not easy to give any analysis of so elaborate a memoir, in which twenty new genera and sixty-five new species are described; while with scarcely an exception the numerous species already described are not only alluded to, but many fresh details are given about them. When it is recollected that but fourteen years ago only thirty species of this group of Sponges were known, the progress of our knowledge of them, it will be recognized, has been great.

These Sponges seem to be widely distributed in all the oceans; the largest number of forms—fifty-seven—being found in the Pacific Ocean; next comes the Atlantic Ocean, in which twenty-four species were found; while only sixteen were found in the South Indian Ocean; but it must not be forgotten that the South Indian Ocean has been very slightly investigated.

As to the bathymetrical distribution of the Hexactinellida, they would appear to be met with in depths of between 95 and 3000 fathoms, being more numerous between the depths of 100 and 900 fathoms, decreasing somewhat between those of 900 and 2500 fathoms, and again markedly diminishing between the depths of 2500 and 3000 fathoms, while below this depth no Hexactinellida Sponges have been found. Euplectellids seem to have a wide range, being met with at the moderate depth of 95 fathoms, and then being pretty evenly distributed down to a depth of 2750 fathoms. The four species of the new genus *Holascus* frequent great depths, varying from 1375 to 2650 fathoms. The maximum depth as yet known for any of these Sponges is that of 2900 fathoms, at which depth *Bathydorus fimbriatus* was found in the middle of the North Pacific Ocean.

It would be obviously impossible to give even a brief summary of the very remarkable new forms described in this splendid memoir of Prof. Schulze, and it is difficult to convey a correct notion of the beauty of the illustrations forming the large atlas of plates which accompanies the

text. The diagnoses of the genera and the descriptions of the species are what one would expect from the well-known skill of the author.

We do not altogether agree with him when he writes that, "after a detailed investigation of a group of animals, it is incumbent on every naturalist who accepts the evolution theory to attempt the appreciation of his results in their relation to the phylogeny of the group." Looking at his array of facts, is it not possible for the thoughtful worker to bear in mind the incompleteness of the phylogenic record, and reverently to wait for more light? There may be nothing to object to in the stately genealogical tree of the Hexactinellida represented on p. 495, but is it not built up on but an incomplete and scanty framework?

One departure in this Report from the ordinary custom in the description of species we notice with regret—viz. that there is no synonymic list affixed to the species, neither are we referred, in connection with each form, to the place or places where it has been previously described. It seems scarcely necessary to point out the inconveniences attending such a style, or the great uncertainty it may on occasions give rise to. The volume opens at the description of *Rosella antarctica*, Carter. To find where it was first described by Mr. Carter we are obliged to refer to the synonymy affixed to the diagnosis of the genus; but here we get no certain information as to how many of the quotations given refer to this species; and this is of course much more confusing when we come to investigate a genus abounding with species, like, for example, *Hyalonema*. Indeed, by this method an author is very apt to overlook the fact that several writers may refer to the same species under quite different names, and a curious case of this nature, we suspect, occurs under *Hyalonema*. Dr. Gray, wrongly trusting to a Museum label, replaced the name *Hyalonema sieboldii*, which he had given to the first known species of this genus in 1835, by that of *H. mirabile*, under the impression that he had so named it in the "Synopsis of the Contents of the British Museum," 1832 (misprinted 1830), the year he had got the analysis of its glassy fibres from Mr. Pearsall. Depending on the accuracy of Dr. Gray, many authors referred to the species under this latter name; and further, for some time after the discovery of the Setubal species by Prof. Barboza du Bocage, this species, now known as *H. lusitanicum*, passed as the same species as *H. mirabile* = *H. sieboldii*. Even from the details given by Prof. Schulze, this seems clear; but in the description of Bocage's species (p. 225) no synonymic list is given, and not only does the before-mentioned fact not appear, but we find *H. lusitanicum* placed among those species "the upper end of which was not sufficiently preserved for deciding the question whether there is a sieve-plate or not." It is added that "neither on this specimen (the one figured in the Proc. Zool. Soc. Lond.) nor on others which Bocage afterwards obtained from the same locality could any portion of the sponge body be detected." But on p. 186 we find it stated that *H. lusitanicum* had been dredged from a depth of 480 fathoms south-west of Setubal, "bearing a sponge body with several oscular openings"; and again on the same page that among the *Hyalonema* found off the coast of Portugal by Barboza du Bocage and others, and named *H. mirabile*, there was one specimen

with an oval cup-shaped body about 8 inches in length and 4 inches in breadth, with a sieve-net on the upper truncated surface of the sponge body, extending evenly over the oscular opening and over the layer of the "spiculate cruciform spicules" in the net beams. We may further add that there were to be found in the Museum at Lisbon nearly a dozen specimens of *Hyalonema* which were taken at Setubal. "Most of them were preserved in spirits of wine; they were certainly the very finest collection of this remarkable Sponge in Europe. The largest had a stem about 18 inches in height; there were no parasites of any kind on it, and it was furnished with a sponge mass some 8 inches in diameter, and nearly as much in height. A second specimen was very curious, for here two apparently distinct individuals had become matted together: the two glass ropes were interlaced, and the two sponge masses had grown together" (Proc. Dublin Nat. Hist. Soc., vol. v., 1869). It would have been most important to have had the opinion of such an authority as Prof. Schulze as to whether all these specimens from Setubal are referable to Bocage's species; and whether, as we venture to think, Marshall's *H. thomsoni* may not be only a well-marked variety thereof. It is possible that by thus calling attention to the subject we may yet learn more of the treasures of the Museum of Lisbon, and nothing in these remarks can in the very slightest degree detract from the merits and importance of this splendid contribution to our knowledge of the vitreous Sponges.

E. P. W.

THE FERN-ALLIES.

Hand-book of the Fern-Allies: A Synopsis of the Genera and Species of the Natural Orders Equisetaceæ, Lycopodiaceæ, Selaginellaceæ, Rhizocarpeæ. By J. G. Baker, F.R.S., F.L.S., First-Assistant in the Herbarium of the Royal Gardens, Kew. (London: George Bell and Sons, York Street, Covent Garden, 1887.)

AS the author states in the preface, "The present Hand-book is planned upon the same lines as Hooker and Baker's 'Synopsis Filicum,' and the two, taken in connection, cover the whole series of the Vascular Cryptogamia." The total number of species described in the "Hand-book" is 566, and as we may now place the number of known ferns at about 3000, the fern-allies may be taken to represent about one-seventh of the recent Vascular Cryptogams. The fern-allies include only eleven genera, and about four-fifths of the species belong to the two genera *Selaginella* (335 species) and *Lycopodium* (94 species). The eleven genera are placed by Mr. Baker in four "natural orders," while the Filices form a fifth: three of these, Filices, Equisetaceæ, and Lycopodiaceæ, being isosporous; and two, Selaginellaceæ and Rhizocarpeæ, being heterosporous. In this way the relationship of the Rhizocarpeæ to the ferns is quite lost sight of; the Selaginellas and Lycopods are separated more widely than is desirable, and no place is left for the fossil heterosporous Equisetinæ. The arrangement adopted by Mr. Baker is very good for herbarium work; but for classificatory purposes it ignores certain palæontological facts which we cannot at the present day afford to overlook. Mr. Baker, however, does not deal with the fossil types, and now that we have such a complete account of the recent forms, let us hope that before long we may have as

complete a synopsis of the fossil forms; a work which would be of the greatest interest and importance.

In regard to the geographical distribution of the fern-allies it is interesting to notice that *Equisetum*, *Isoetes*, and *Pilularia* predominate in the North Temperate Zone. *Lycopodium*, *Psilotum*, *Selaginella*, *Salvinia*, and *Marsilea* are eminently tropical; and *Phylloglossum* is peculiar to the South Temperate Zone. Like the ferns, the fern-allies are best developed in the Tropics; and in the Tropics we also find the greatest number of peculiar species. Thus, out of the 566 species, 484 are met with in the Tropics of the Old and New World; and no less than 402, or 83 per cent., of these are peculiar to the Tropics. As with the ferns so also with the fern-allies, tropical America is richest in species, including 237 species, of which 212 are peculiar. The Southern Temperate Zone yields only 83 species, of which 42, or 51 per cent., are peculiar, the fern-allies being thus much less numerous than the ferns in the southern flora. In the North Temperate Zone 150 species are met with, and of these 48, or 32 per cent., are peculiar. The North Temperate Zone is thus, like the South, deficient in fern-allies as compared with ferns, and this is apparently due to the small number of fern-allies as yet reported from temperate Asia. Only 6 species occur in the Frigid Zone, and, like the ferns, represent about 1 per cent. of the whole, none of the species being peculiar.

It is difficult to realize the amount of labour and research that must have been spent upon the production of this book; but anyone who has attempted to study the genus *Selaginella* will appreciate the masterly manner in which Mr. Baker has dealt with the 335 species of the genus, more than one-fourth of which he has himself described for the first time. Most of the species of Selaginellaceæ and Rhizocarpeæ have been described by Mr. Baker in his papers on the subject which have appeared from time to time, since 1883, in the *Journal of Botany*, but several new species are described in "Fern-Allies" for the first time, recent additions to the rich treasures of Kew. It is to be regretted that Mr. Baker does not more particularly refer to his papers in the *Journal of Botany*, and it is hard to understand why, in the descriptions of *Marsilea concinna* and *M. condensata*, he has omitted the references to the *Journal of Botany*, 1886, pp. 179 and 281 respectively. Then in transferring the matter from the *Journal of Botany* he has altogether dropped out the habitat of *Azolla nilotica*. There are also in the book not a few misprints, and a want of care is shown in numbering and lettering the sections of *Selaginella*. The index is also not quite up to the mark, as in *Marsilea*, with numerous synonyms omitted, and the misprints in *Pilularia* and *Psilotum*. As the index of the "Synopsis Filicum" was published separately as a catalogue of ferns, we may perhaps be permitted to express a hope that this index will not be so published until it is carefully revised. All that is wanting, however, is only a little more careful editing, and the few faults in no way detract from the sterling value of the work.

As the only modern synopsis of the group, it is a work that must be in the hands of every botanist who deals with the Vascular Cryptogams, and it will be a lasting monument to Mr. Baker's critical accuracy and great power of dealing with a difficult set of plants. W. R. MCNAB.

OUR BOOK SHELF.

The Sailor's Sky Interpreter. By S. R. Elson. (Calcutta : Thacker, Spink, and Co., 1879.)

THIS little book, which is written in verse, is a practical storm guide, dealing especially with the October cyclones in the Bay of Bengal. Many years of experience as pilot in the dangerous waters of the bay have made the author familiar with the phenomena of the weather in this part of the world. The details convey many a hint to students of Nature, and above all to navigators interested in the very violent storms which occur periodically at the change of the monsoons, and more especially about October at the close of the summer monsoon. The concluding stanza deals with the rules for avoiding the centre of a cyclone, and on this head the advice is both good and sound, and is at the same time put in a very concise form. Sailors are very familiar with rhymes for the "Rules of the Road," but we can scarcely hope that the author's verse will be similarly mastered and remembered. Probably the author himself never contemplated such a use of his work; but yet there are couplets and triplets of Admiral FitzRoy's which have lived for a quarter of a century, and are still valuable aids. In the last volume of the "Indian Meteorological Memoirs" full credit is given to Mr. Elson for his valuable observations on the False Point cyclone, and especial mention is made of the high value of his observations bearing on the movement of the clouds. The author possesses just that local knowledge which in a recent issue of the "Fishery Barometer Manual" the Meteorological Office lamented the want of among its observers around our coasts for the further perfecting of our "Weather Forecasts;" and in the twenty stanzas which he has written he has pithily handed down his experiences for the benefit of his fellow-sailors.

Austral Africa. By John Mackenzie. Two Vols. (London: Sampson Low, 1887.)

THIS work, written by one who understands his subject thoroughly, ought to be cordially welcomed by all who have given any attention to the questions which have caused, during the last few years, so much trouble in South Africa. Mr. Mackenzie is convinced that these questions are not nearly so complicated and difficult as they are generally believed to be, and he has taken great pains to expound clearly and forcibly the policy which, in his opinion, would open up new markets for our commerce in South Africa, and secure the highest and best interests of the natives. The book is addressed rather to politicians than to persons interested in science, but students of the early forms of social institutions will find some statements worthy of their attention in Mr. Mackenzie's account of those native tribes with which he himself has come into contact. Archæologists will be interested, too, in what he has to say about the remarkable stone structures which are found over an extensive district to the east and north-east of Shoshong. These buildings, in the neighbourhood of which are the remains of ancient gold-mines, he compares with Persian towers of refuge and with the ancient round towers of Ireland and Britain.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

[The Editor does not hold himself responsible for opinions expressed by his correspondents. Neither can he undertake to return, or to correspond with the writers of, rejected manuscripts. No notice is taken of anonymous communications.]

Medical Education at Oxford.

THE problem, how far the older Universities should undertake special training for the professions, is fast finding its own solution. A degree is no longer any evidence that its possessor

has been through any course of wide general culture preparatory to his technical education. Recent legislation, both at Oxford and Cambridge, has all tended in the direction of enabling the undergraduate to specialize at the earliest possible point in his career. Whether advisable or not, some such movement seemed inevitable if, in the midst of the daily increasing pressure of competition, the Universities were to retain any hold on the educational development of the country. Even Prof. Freeman's articles in the *Contemporary Review* are marked by a tone of querulous despair, rather than by any hope that the tide of innovation may be checked. For knowledge as a luxury or an ornament there is neither leisure nor inclination. Cambridge was the first to yield; but the multitudinous statutes which are every day promulgated at Oxford prove that the latter University is eagerly hurrying along the same path. New schools, new Boards of Faculties have been established; old restrictions have been removed. Large sums of money have been expended on new buildings, in which new professors may give instruction in arts and sciences unheard of by the last generation. All this has been done in order that the student may proceed as speedily as possible to those special researches which are to arm him for the battle of life.

The ordinary curriculum at Oxford is now so modified and subdivided that a Bachelor of Arts may have no more extensive general education than that smattering of school-boy knowledge required for the examination called Responsions. It is hardly realized by those who are chiefly responsible for this movement how much the whole life of the University must be altered by so radical a change in its methods and its aims. The statute-book, indeed, is in such a state of chaos that there are few, even among the officials, who can unravel the intricacies of any one Faculty. In the department of medicine an attempt has recently been made, in a pamphlet issued by the Clarendon Press, to afford concise and accurate information to the hitherto bewildered undergraduate. By means of this publication it is possible to trace out the curriculum of an Oxford medical student and to contrast the present with the older system of education. Responsions, or some equivalent test, can be passed while the candidate is still at school, and at the same time he can take an extra subject which will exempt him from the First Public Examination. After reaching the University, only an elementary pass examination in divinity will stand between him and his scientific work. He may then give himself up to preparation for one of the Honour Schools of natural science. For this he will have to pass various "preliminaries," for which there are schedules of differing proportions. Physiology and chemistry are suggested as the most suitable schools, as by their means exemption is gained from portions of the First M.B. Whichever he may select, two years of the most severe application are necessary in order to gain a satisfactory position in the Class List. He will then, in his third or fourth year, be enabled to take his B.A. degree. The study of human anatomy will next absorb his energies. The amplest opportunities are now afforded to those who desire to take up this subject while residing at Oxford. The ideal candidate depicted in this pamphlet is supposed to spend but one academical year in this department. Extraordinary, indeed, must be the powers of the teacher who could impart, and of the pupil who could receive, a sufficiently deep impression of so important a science in so brief a time. After the first examination for the M.B., residence in Oxford would come to an end, and the student would migrate probably to London. With everything in his favour he might be able to obtain his degree in six or seven years from the date of his matriculation. There are other ways in which the course of study might be arranged, but the details are of small consequence. It matters little to the public whether the degree can be obtained in five years or seven. In either case the professional acquirements will be above the average. The eminence of the examiners and the reputation of the University will be a sufficient guarantee that tests are applied of sufficient stringency to exclude the ignorant and incompetent. It is well, however, that the real state of affairs should be fairly recognized and understood by those who have been accustomed to attribute some special virtues to a University degree. It is important also to consider whether in leaving the older methods and yielding, however reluctantly, to the pressure of the hour, a retrograde step has not been taken in the history of medical education. It is always a loss when something even distantly approaching to an ideal is degraded to the level of every-day life.

The older Oxford system, if antiquated and imperfect, had

at least aims of a high and noble character—aims which could not fail to have an elevating effect on those by whom they were entertained. In former times to have taken a degree in arts, as a necessary preliminary to the beginning of a student's purely professional career, may not have meant, and, as a matter of fact, did not in the majority of cases mean, any very high standard of learning or culture. It did, however, carry with it some inestimable advantages which can never be attained under the existing system of specialization. It meant that a young man, while his mind was still plastic to all surrounding influences, was brought into contact with and joined in the same pursuits as fellow-students whose tastes would lead them to different pleasures, and whose circumstances would lead them to a variety of destinations. The physician or surgeon of the future became the companion of those who were afterwards to become clergymen, barristers, or schoolmasters. He read the same books, played the same games, belonged to the same clubs. In this way, however little actual knowledge he may have acquired, he gained an invaluable acquaintance with men's lives and habits. He formed friendships with men destined to follow very different careers. These associations could not fail to be of the greatest value to him in the pursuit of his special profession. I do not mean mere monetary advantage, but that derived from intercourse with men in other walks of life—that interchange of ideas so necessary to a healthy mind. Such a training must have been beneficial to all, but to the student of medicine it was an incalculable boon. Much of his success and much of the good he can hope to do depend on an intimate knowledge of mankind. Without that, no matter how highly trained he may be as a man of science, his acquirements will be of little avail, and his skill can never be used to the highest purpose.

How is the existing system likely to work in this direction? The student is advised and encouraged to enter at once on his special pursuits. He is to apply himself without delay to scientific study, associated with men like himself, plodding along the same track. If he aims at taking honours in natural science, he must curtail his exercise to the limits of a short "constitutional" and cut himself off from the common pleasures of the cricket-field and the river. His very social gatherings tend to consist more and more exclusively of men working in his own department. The Union and other such Clubs are given up for scientific Societies, where he thinks he can combine business with amusement. Such a life can hardly fail to narrow the most sympathetic mind, to hamper and confine the most commanding intellect; it is most unlikely to turn out a practitioner of the highest and most useful type. To live in a clique where priggishness is fostered by the worst kind of mutual admiration is hardly the ideal of University education. Fortunately the curriculum indicated in the pamphlet to which I have referred is not compulsory, and an intending medical student might not be altogether unwise if he decided to pass the first three years of his career in the ordinary pursuits of the University before turning his attention to more technical studies. Even the delay of a year or two would be more than counterbalanced to some by the benefits which such a course would undoubtedly confer.

Oxford.

GEORGE I. WILSON.

Migration of Swallows along the Southern Coast.

THE following notes were made by me during a short stay at Lulworth, twelve miles east of Weymouth, from September 16 to 26. They may be of interest to some of your readers, as I have not been able to find the facts I observed recorded in any work on British birds.

When I arrived at Lulworth on the 16th, swallows and house-martins were about, but in no great numbers. On the 19th, in the course of a walk, I observed a few swallows apparently moving eastwards; and this caused me to spend the next morning on the top of a high and narrow ridge of down (Bindon Hill), running parallel with the sea—an admirable position for observation, as the movements of all birds were discernible from it at a long distance. The wind was east-north-east, and the air cold and very clear.

In half-an-hour it became clear to me that a general migration of swallows and martins was taking place along the coast in an easterly direction. The air would be thick with birds over my head for two or three minutes; then for a considerable interval hardly a bird would be visible. An ordinary glance at these dense parties was not enough to prove that they were travelling, or to show in which direction they were going; but by keeping

the eye steadily upon them for some little time, and bringing the field-glass to bear on them when the eye failed, it became obvious that they were going east at a steady rate of speed, and apparently following the long spine of chalk down on which I stood, which extends from near Weymouth as far as Poole Harbour. The migration on this large scale lasted during the whole of that morning; in the afternoon the parties did not seem so large.

The next day (the 21st) a strong east wind was blowing, and the birds were not travelling high in air, but creeping steadily along the flanks of the down, and on the lower ground north and south of it. They were continually tacking, but every individual that I followed with my glass was moving swiftly towards the east. Those that were on the southern or seaward side of the down would come upon the sea at one point where the coast turns sharply northwards for a short distance; they did not attempt, however, to leave the land, but turned northwards with the coast, and pursued their way along the heights. On the 22nd and 23rd the same thing went on, but the numbers of the birds seemed to diminish, and they no longer went in parties that were plainly discernible. All this time there were a very few stationary swallows in one or two warm corners by the seaside.

From Dorset I went to Devonshire on the 26th. At Crediton and at Bideford (both warm and sheltered towns), I did not see a dozen swallows or martins in the course of a week; but I learnt that they had gathered for departure a few days before. I have since been informed that the gatherings had been noticed in Cornwall in the first week of the month. I infer that the migration I saw at Lulworth was that of the extreme West-of-England birds, who were proceeding along the coast to the point at which they cross the Channel. I should be glad to know where that point is.

I had reason to believe that one or two other species were moving up regularly in the same direction. The well-known migration of the pied wagtail was apparently over; but the large number of gray wagtails in a district almost destitute of water was very striking, and, as far as I could see, these also were passing eastwards. But I hope to make further observations next year.

I may add that, on returning to my home in Oxfordshire in the first week of October, I found swallows and martins passing over my village in parties during the earlier hours of each day; but, owing to the want of a convenient elevated position for watching, it was much more difficult to follow their movements than it had been at Lulworth.

W. WARDE FOWLER.

Swifts.

THOUGH I cannot add anything to the interesting and valuable evidence given by your correspondent, in your last issue, with regard to swifts remaining on the wing during the dark hours of a summer night, it reminds me of a most beautiful exhibition of their flight which I witnessed at Moscow this last summer. It was on August 2, as the last rays of the setting sun were lighting up the domes and cupolas of that wonderful city, which we gazed upon from the heights of the Kremlin for the first time, that we noticed hundreds of these birds wheeling round their summits or darting hither and thither in every direction. At the same time the matchless Russian bells were pealing forth from every bell-tower in honour of the Empress's birthday, which was to be celebrated on the morrow, and it was surely difficult to believe that the swifts were not revelling in the music like ourselves, especially as I cannot remember ever seeing them again in such numbers, though our visit to Moscow was prolonged for ten days, and we frequently visited the Kremlin at the same hour.

E. BROWN.

Further Barton, Cirencester, October 29.

Hughes's Induction Balance.

THE points noted by Mr. Cook on page 605 (vol. xxxvi.), are merely the well-known facts that a magnetic body has most effect when presented to the coils end-ways, *i.e.* with its greatest dimension along their axis, whereas a substance which acts mainly by conduction has most effect when presented flat-ways, or parallel to their face. Any possible effect due to diamagnetism is far too small to be thus easily noticed.

OLIVER J. LODGE.

The Ffynnon Beuno and Cae Gwyn Caves.

I THINK it would be well for geologists and anthropologists to allow the age of the deposits and stone instruments found at these caves to remain an open question for the present. At present I have had no opportunity of seeing any papers on the subject, and I know of no opinions other than the one expressed by Dr. Hicks, NATURE, vol. xxvi. p. 599. I am however fairly well acquainted with the glacial deposits of North Wales and with Palæolithic implements, and I have seen the caves and the tools found at and in them. My quite unbiased opinion is and will so remain,—unless I get very convincing proof to the contrary,—that the drift at the caves has been without doubt re-laid; and is no more a true glacial deposit than the valley gravels of the Thames. As for the tools—one in the British Museum (South Kensington), and one in Denbighshire—they belong to the *very latest* of Palæolithic times, and might be passed for Neolithic; the Denbighshire example seen by me is a knife-flake with fine secondary chipping up one edge.

Dunstable.

WORTHINGTON G. SMITH.

SYNTHESIS OF GLUCOSE.

ANOTHER important acquisition to our store of knowledge has recently been made. Glucose, commonly called grape-sugar, has been artificially prepared by Drs. Emil Fischer and Julius Tafel in the chemical laboratory of the University of Würzburg. This happy achievement, which is announced in the number of the *Berichte* just received, is one which has long been looked forward to, and which cannot fail to give deep satisfaction in chemical circles all over the world. As is generally the case in syntheses of this description, not only has the sugar itself been actually prepared, but, what is at least quite as important, considerable light has been thrown upon that much-discussed question—the constitution of sugars. A most remarkable, and yet only to be expected, attribute of this artificial sugar is that it is found to be entirely incapable of rotating a beam of polarized light. As is well known, there are several naturally-occurring varieties of glucose, all of which may be expressed by the same empirical constitution $C_6H_{12}O_6$, and all possessing the power of rotating the plane of polarization: dextrose, or grape-sugar, the best-known of these varieties, as its name implies deviates the plane of polarization to the right, as do several other less important varieties; while lævulose, or fruit-sugar, rotates the plane to the left. But in artificially preparing a glucose of the composition $C_6H_{12}O_6$ there is just as much tendency for one kind to be formed as another, and the probability is that both dextro and lævo are simultaneously formed, and thus neutralize each other, producing a totally inactive mixture. It may be that, as in the case of racemic acid, the two kinds are formed side by side and neutralize each other in the solution; or it may even be that, as is the case with truly inactive tartaric acid, there is a true neutralization within the molecule itself; which of these hypotheses is correct is a question for further work to decide.

The substance employed as the base of operations was acrolein, $CH_2=CH-CHO$, the aldehyde derived by oxidation of allyl alcohol. The acrolein was first converted to its dibromide, $CH_2Br.CHBr.CHO$, which was then treated with cold baryta water, whereupon the bromine was removed by the barium leaving the artificial sugar in solution. The real difficulty was found to be in the isolation of the sugar, but this was eventually overcome by the use of phenyl hydrazine, $C_6H_5.NH.NH_2$, which forms a hydrazine compound of the formula $C_{18}H_{22}N_4O_4$ with the new sugar, very similar to the compounds formed by phenyl hydrazine with ordinary dextrose and lævulose. This phenyl hydrazine compound was then found to yield by reduction a base $C_6H_{13}NO_5$, which, on treatment with nitrous acid, parted with its nitrogen and left a syrupy substance, possessing all the properties of sugars, and distinguished only from ordinary grape-sugar by its optical inactivity.

The actual operations were performed briefly as follows:—

Seventy-five grammes of pure crystallized barium hydrate were dissolved in a little over a litre of water, and 50 grammes of previously redistilled acrolein dibromide added drop by drop, the flask being continuously agitated, surrounded by ice-cold water, for about an hour. In a similar manner eight successive quantities were treated until in all about 400 grammes of acrolein dibromide had been converted into sugar. These eight separate portions were then mixed, slightly acidified with sulphuric acid, and the barium precipitated with a solution of sodium sulphate. After removal of all the barium by filtration the solution was neutralized with soda and evaporated down to $1\frac{1}{2}$ litres. On cooling, a solution of 50 grammes of the hydrochloride of phenyl hydrazine and 50 grammes of crystallized sodium acetate in 100 cubic centimetres of water were added; after standing twelve hours a reddish-brown resin separated out and was removed by filtration. 150 grammes more of phenyl hydrazine hydrochloride and the same quantity of sodium acetate were then added, and the solution warmed upon a water-bath; after again standing some time the solution became turbid, and in course of four hours a dark-coloured precipitate, partly crystalline and partly resinous, separated out. After washing and drying, and subsequent agitation with ether and trituration with alcohol to remove organic impurities, and extraction of the inorganic salts by hot water, the phenyl hydrazine compound was finally isolated.

Analysis of the recrystallized compound indicates that its composition is $C_{18}H_{22}N_4O_4$, and its properties are very similar to those of the phenyl hydrazine compound of ordinary grape-sugar, the melting-points of the two bodies being identical, $205^\circ C$. It is almost insoluble in water, ether, and benzene, and only with difficulty soluble in hot alcohol; it is more soluble in glacial acetic acid, but the solution soon becomes dark red. It crystallizes from hot alcohol in pretty little prism aggregates, while the ordinary grape-sugar compound crystallizes in spherical aggregates of fine needles. It is further distinguished from the latter compound inasmuch as a layer 20 cubic centimetres thick, is without action upon a beam of polarized light.

When reduced by means of zinc dust and acetic acid, a base was produced analogous to the one formed by the reduction of the corresponding phenyl hydrazine compound of grape-sugar. This base was difficult to isolate, owing to the non-crystallizable nature of its acetate; the fact was fortunately discovered, however, that its oxalate was crystalline, and readily obtained pure. Hence its analysis has been effected, and the numbers found point to the composition $(C_6H_{13}NO_5)_2.C_2H_2O_4$. This base reduces Fehling's solution strongly on warming, and with phenyl hydrazine regenerates the parent compound; but, once again, is optically inactive.

Finally, by the action of nitrous acid, nitrogen at once began to be evolved, and when the evolution ceased the liquid was neutralized with soda, evaporated *in vacuo*, and the residue extracted with alcohol. On evaporation of the alcohol the sugar was left as a bright brown syrup, free from nitrogen and ash, of sweet taste, and capable of instantly reducing Fehling's solution.

Up to the present time two hypotheses as to the constitution of sugars have pretty evenly balanced each other. According to one, sugars are considered, in virtue of their power of reducing ammoniacal silver solutions, as aldehydes containing also alcohol groups; on these lines grape-sugar would be formulated, $CH_2OH-(CHOH)_4-CHO$. But it has since been shown that the property of reducing ammoniacal silver solutions is not confined to aldehydes, for the series of bodies known as ketone alcohols also possess it; hence grape-sugar may also be written $CH_2OH-(CHOH)_3-CO-$

CH₂OH. Both theories account for most of the hitherto known reactions of the glucoses, hence the matter has remained an open question. Drs. Fischer and Tafel, however, consider that their synthesis from acrolein, which is itself an aldehyde, points to the probability of the former hypothesis being the correct one. The action of baryta water upon the dibromide evidently causes a simple exchange of bromine for hydroxyl, and the first product of the reaction is almost as certainly glycerine aldehyde, CH₂OH—CHOH—CHO. This latter substance, however, appears to polymerize at once under the influence of the baryta water into sugar, two molecules of glycerine aldehyde uniting to form a molecule of glucose.

In consideration of the fact of its derivation from acrolein, the name *acrose* has been applied to the sugar which has been, with so much skill and steady determination, synthetically formed and isolated; and there can be no doubt that this name will stand as a memento of the progress made in organic chemistry during the year 1887.

A. E. TUTTON.

MODERN VIEWS OF ELECTRICITY.¹

PART II.—CURRENT ELECTRICITY (*continued*).

IV.

Electrical Inertia.

RETURNING now to the general case of conduction, without regard to the special manner of it, we must notice that, if a current of electricity is anything of the nature of a material flow, there would probably be a certain amount of inertia connected with it, so that to start a current with a finite force would take a little time; and the stoppage of a current would also have either to be gradual or else violent. It is well known that if water is stagnant in a pipe it cannot be quite suddenly set in motion; and again, if it be in motion, it can only be suddenly stopped by the exercise of very considerable force, which jars and sometimes bursts the pipe. This impetus of running water is utilized in the water-ram. It must naturally occur, therefore, to ask whether any analogous phenomena are experienced with electricity; and the answer is, they certainly are. A current does not start instantaneously: it takes a certain time—often very short—to rise to its full strength; and when started it tends to persist, so that if its circuit be suddenly broken, it refuses to stop quite suddenly, and bursts through the introduced insulating partition with violence and heat. It is this ram or impetus of the electric current which causes the spark seen on breaking a circuit; and the more sudden the breakage the more violent is the spark apt to be.

The two effects—the delay at making circuit, and the momentum at breaking circuit—used to be called “extra-current” effects, but they are now more commonly spoken of as manifestations of “self-induction.”

We shall understand them better directly; meanwhile they appear to be direct consequences of the inertia of electricity; and certainly if electricity were a fluid possessing inertia it would behave to a superficial observer just in this way.

But if an electric current really possessed inertia, as a stream of water does, it would exhibit itself not only by these effects but also mechanically. A conducting coil delicately suspended might experience a rotary kick every time a current was started or stopped in it; and if a steady current were maintained in such a coil it should behave like a top or gyrostat, and resist any force tending to deflect its plane.

Clerk Maxwell has carefully looked for this latter form of momentum effect, and found none. One may say, in fact, that nothing like momentum has yet been observed

in an electric current by any *mechanical* mode of examination. A coil or whirl of electricity does not behave in the least like a top.

Does this prove that a current has no momentum? By no means necessarily so. It might be taken as suggesting that an electric current consists really of two equal flows in contrary directions, so that mechanically they neutralize one another completely, while electrically—*i.e.* in the phenomena of self-induction or extra-current—they add their effects. Or it may mean merely that the momentum is too minute to be so observed. Or, again, the whole thing—the appearance of inertia in some experiments and the absence of it in others—may have to be explained in some altogether less simple manner, to which we will proceed to lead up.

Condition of the Medium near a Circuit.

So far we have considered the flow of electricity as a phenomenon occurring solely inside conductors; just as the flow of water is a phenomenon occurring solely inside pipes. But a number of remarkable facts are known which completely negative this view of the matter. Something is no doubt passing along conductors when a current flows, but the disturbance is not *confined* to the conductor; on the contrary, it spreads more or less through all surrounding space.

The facts which prove this have necessarily no hydraulic analogue but must be treated *suorum generum*, and they are as follows:—

(1) A compass needle anywhere near an electric current is permanently deflected so long as the current lasts.

(2) Two electric currents attract or repel one another, according as they are in the same or opposite directions.

(3) A circuit in which a current is flowing tends to enlarge itself so as to inclose the greatest possible area.

(4) A circuit conveying a current in a magnetic field tends either to enlarge or to shrink or to turn half round according to the aspect it presents to the field.

(5) Conductors in the neighbourhood of an electric circuit experience momentary electric disturbances every time the current is started or stopped or varied in strength.

(6) The same thing happens even with a steady current if the distance between it and a conductor is made to vary.

(7) The effects of self-induction, or extra-currents, can be almost abolished by twisting the covered wire conveying the current closely on itself, or even by laying the direct and return wire side by side; whereas they may be intensified by making the circuit inclose a large area, more by coiling it up tightly into close coil, and still more by putting a piece of iron inside the coil so formed.

Nothing like any of these effects is observable with currents of water; and they prove that the phenomena of the current, so far from being confined to the wire, spread out into space and affect bodies at a considerable distance.

Nearly all this class of phenomena were discovered by Ampère and by Faraday, and were called by the latter “current-induction.” According to his view the dielectric medium round a conducting circuit is strained, and subject to stresses, just as is the same medium round an electrically charged body. The one is called an electrostatic strain, the other an electro-magnetic or electro-kinetic strain.

But whereas electrostatic phenomena occur *solely* in the medium—conductors being mere breaks in it, interrupters of its continuity, at whose surface charge-effects occur but whose substance is completely screened from disturbance—that is not the case with electro-kinetic phenomena. It would be just as erroneous to conceive electro-kinetic phenomena as occurring solely in the insulating medium as it would be to think of them as occurring solely in the conducting wires. The fact is, they occur in

¹ Continued from vol. xxxvi. p. 585.

both—not only at the surface of the wires like electrostatic effects, but all through their substance. This is proved by the fact that conductivity increases in simple proportion with sectional area; it is also proved by every part of a conductor getting hot; and it is further proved in the case of liquids by their decomposition.

But the equally manifest facts of current attraction and current induction prove that the effect of the current is felt throughout the surrounding medium as well, and that its intensity depends on the nature of that medium; we are thus wholly prevented from ascribing the phenomenon of self-induction or extra-current to simple and straightforward inertia of electricity in a wire like that of water in a pipe.

We are thus brought face to face with another suggestion to account for these effects, viz. this: Since the molecules of a dielectric are inseparably connected with electricity, and move with it, it is possible that electricity itself has no inertia at all, but that the inertia of the atoms of the displaced dielectric confer upon it the appearance of inertia. Certainly they do sometimes confer upon it this appearance, as we see in the oscillatory discharge of a Leyden jar. For a displaced thing to overshoot its mean position and oscillate till it has expended all its energy, is a proceeding eminently characteristic of inertia; and so, perhaps, the phenomena of self-induction are similarly, though not so simply, explicable.

Further consideration of this difficult part of the subject is however best postponed to Part III.

Energy of the Current.

I have now called attention to the fact that the whole region surrounding a circuit is a field of force in which many of the most important properties of the current (the magnetic, to wit) manifest themselves. But directly we begin thus to attend to the whole space, and not only to the wires and battery, a very curious question arises. Are we to regard the current in a conductor as propelled by some sort of end-thrust, like water or air driven through a pipe by a piston or a fan, or are we to think of it as propelled by side forces, a sort of lateral drag, like water driven along a trough by a blast of air or by the vanes of paddle-wheels dipping into it? Or, again, referring to the cord models, Figs. 5, 6, and 13, were we right in picturing the driving force of the battery as located and applied where shown in the diagrams, or ought we to have schemed some method for communicating the power of the battery by means of belts or other mechanism to a great number of points of the circuit?

Prof. Poynting has shown that, on the principles developed by Maxwell, the latter of these alternatives, though apparently the more complicated, is the true one; and he has calculated the actual paths by which the energy is transmitted from the battery to the various points of a circuit, for certain cases.

We must learn, then, to distinguish between the flow of *electricity* and the flow of *electric energy*: they do not occur along the same paths. Hydraulic analogies, at least hydraulic analogies of a simple kind, break down here. When hydraulic power or steam power is conveyed along pipes, the fluid and its energy travel together. Work is done at one end of the tube in forcing in more water, and this is propagated along the tube and reappears at the distant end as the work of the piston. But in electricity it is not so. Electric energy is not to be regarded as pumped in at one end of a conducting wire, and as exuding in equal quantities at the other. The *electricity* does indeed travel thus—whatever the travel of electricity may ultimately be found to mean—but the energy does not. The battery emits its energy, not to the wire direct, but to the surrounding medium; this is disturbed and strained, and propagates the strain on from point to point till it reaches the wire and is dissipated. This, Prof.

Poynting would say, is the function of the wire: it is to dissipate the energy crowding into it from the medium, which else would take up a static state of strain and cease to transmit any more. It is by the continuous dissipation of the medium's energy into heat that continuous propagation is rendered possible.

The energy of a dynamo does not therefore travel to a distant motor through the wires, but through the air. The energy of an Atlantic cable battery does not travel to America through the wire strands, but through the insulating sheath. This is a singular and apparently paradoxical view, yet it appears to be well founded.

Think of a tram-car drawn by an underground rope, like those in the streets of Chicago or Hampstead Hill. A contact piece of iron protrudes from the bottom of the car and grips the moving rope, which is thus enabled to propel the car. How does the energy of the distant stationary engine reach the car? *Viâ* the rope and the iron connector, undoubtedly. They both have to be strong, and are liable to be broken by the transmitted stress.

Next, think of an electric tram-car driven by means of a current taken up from an underground conductor, like that of Mr. Holroyd Smith at Manchester, or at the late Inventions Exhibition. A contact piece of wire rope protrudes from the bottom of the car and drags a little truck along the conductor, which is thus enabled to supply electricity to the electro-magnetic motor geared to the wheels. How does the energy of the distant dynamo reach the car in this case? *Not viâ* the wire connector; not even *viâ* the underground conductor. It travels from the distant dynamo through the general insulating medium between cable and earth, some little enters the conductor and is dissipated, but the great bulk flows on and converges upon the motor in the car, which is thus propelled. All the energy of the conducting wire is dissipated and lost as heat: it is the energy of the insulating medium which is really transmitted and utilized.

Phenomena peculiar to a Starting, or Stopping, or Varying Current.

There is a remarkable fact concerning electric currents of varying strength, which has been lately brought into prominence by the experimental skill of Prof. Hughes, viz. that a current does not start or stop equally and simultaneously at all points in the section of a conductor, but starts at the outside first. This fact is naturally more noticeable with thick wires than with thin, and it is especially marked in *iron* wires, for reasons which in Part III. will become apparent; but the general cause of it in ordinary copper wires can very easily be perceived in the light of the views of Prof. Poynting just mentioned.

For, remember that a current in a wire is not pushed along by a force applied at its end, so as to be driven over obstacles by its own momentum combined with a *vis a tergo*; but it is urged along at every point of its course by a force just sufficient to make it overcome the resistance there, and no more, the force being applied to it through the medium of the dielectric in which the wire is immersed. A lateral force it is which propels the electricity; and it naturally acts first on the outer layers of the wire or rod, only acting on the interior portions through the medium of the outside.

To illustrate this matter further, rotate a common tumbler of liquid steadily for some time and watch the liquid; dusting powder perhaps over it to make it more visible. You will see first the outer layer begin to participate in the motion, and then the next, and then the next, and so on, until at length the whole is in rotation. Stop the tumbler, and the liquid also begins gradually to stop by a converse process.

If the liquid sticks together pretty well, like treacle, the motion spreads very rapidly: this corresponds to a

poor conductor. If the liquid be very mobile, the propagation of motion inward is slow: this corresponds to a very good conductor. If the liquid were perfectly non-viscous, it would correspond to a perfect conductor, and no motion would ever be communicated to it deeper than its extreme outer skin.

Think now of a long endless tube full of water, say the hollow circumference of a wheel, and spin it: the liquid is soon set in rotation, especially if the tube be narrow or the liquid viscous; but it is set in motion by a lateral not an end force, and its outer layers start first.

Just so is it with a current starting in a metal wire. If the wire be fine, or its substance badly conducting, it all starts nearly together; but if it be made pretty thick, and of well conducting substance, its outer layers may start appreciably sooner than the interior. And if it were infinitely conducting, no more than the outer skin would ever start at all.

In actual practice the time taken for all the electricity in an ordinary wire to get into motion is excessively short—something like the thousandth of a second—so that the only way to notice the effect is to start and reverse the current many times in succession.

If the hollow-rimmed wheel above spoken of were made to oscillate rapidly, it is easy to see that only the outer layers of water in it would be moved to and fro; the innermost water would remain stationary; and accordingly it would appear as if the tube contained much less water than it really does. The virtual bore of the pipe would, in fact, for many purposes be diminished. So is it also with electricity; the sectional area of a wire to a rapidly alternating current is virtually lessened so far as its conducting power is concerned; and accordingly its apparent resistance is slightly higher for alternating than for steady currents. The effect is however too small to notice in practice except with thick wires and very rapid alternations.

By splitting up the conductor into a bundle of insulated wires, thus affording the dielectric access to a considerable surface of conductor, the force is applied much more thoroughly, and so the effect spoken of is greatly lessened. The same thing is achieved by rolling out the conducting-rod into a flat thin bar. Making the conductor hollow instead of solid offers no particular advantage, because no energy travels *viâ* the hollow space, it still arrives only from the outside; *unless*, indeed, the return part of the circuit is taken along the axis of the hollow like a telegraph cable. In this last arrangement all the energy travels *viâ* the dielectric between the two conductors, and none travels outside at all. It will be perceived therefore that, as in static electricity, the term "outside" must be used with circumspection: it really means that side of a conductor which faces the opposite conductor across a certain thickness of dielectric.

We learn from all this that, whereas in the case of steady currents the sectional area and material of a conductor are all that need be attended to, the case is different when one has to deal with rapidly alternating currents, such as occur in a telephone, or, again, such as are apt to occur in a Leyden-jar discharge (see Part I., p. 560), or in lightning.

In all these cases it is well to make the conductor expose considerable surface to the propelling medium—the dielectric—else will great portions of it be useless.

Hence, a lightning-conductor should not be a round rod, but a flat strip, or a strand of wires, with the strands as well separated as convenient: and though I have not yet mentioned the special effect of iron, I may as well say here that iron is about 90,000 times worse than copper for the purpose of a lightning-conductor in respect of the phenomenon just described, seven times as bad on account of its inferior conducting power, and about twice as good as copper because of its higher melting-point and specific heat.

The Question of Electrical Momentum again.

We are now able to return to the important question whether an electric current has any momentum or not, as it would have if it were a flow of material liquid. Referring to Part I. (p. 535), a hint will be found that the laws of flow of a current in conductors—the shape of the stream-lines, in fact—are such as indicate no inertia, or else no friction. Now Ohm's law shows that at any rate *friction* is not absent from a current flowing through a metal; hence it would appear at first sight as if *inertia* must be absent.

The stream-lines bear upon the question in the following kind of way. If an obstacle is interposed in the path of a current of water, the motion of the water is unsymmetrical before and behind the obstacle. The

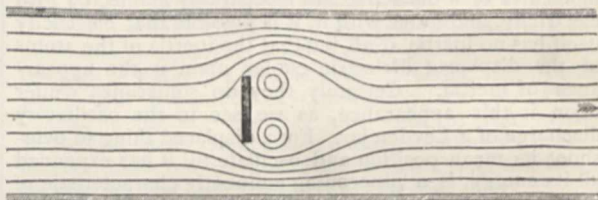


FIG. 14.—Stream-lines of water flowing through a pipe with an obstruction in it.

stream-lines spread out as the water reaches the obstacle, and then curl round it, leaving a space full of eddies in its wake (Fig. 14).

But if one puts an obstacle in the path of an electric current—say by cutting a slit in a conducting strip of tinfoil—the stream-lines on either side of it are quite symmetrical, thus—

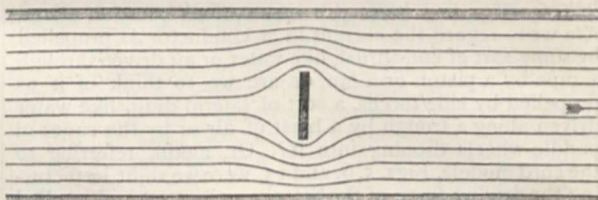


FIG. 15.—Electrical stream-lines past an obstacle.

And this is exactly what would be true for water also, if only it were devoid either of friction or of inertia, or of both.

Is not this fact conclusive, then? Does it not prove the absence of momentum in electricity?

Plainly the answer must depend on whether there is any other possible mode of accounting for this kind of flow. And there is.

For suppose that water, instead of being urged by something not located at or near the obstacle—instead of being left to its own impetus to curl round or shoot past as it pleases—suppose it were propelled by a force acting at every point of its journey, a force just able to drive it at any point against the friction existing at that point and no more; then the flow of water would take place according to the electrical stream-lines shown in Fig. 15.

An illustration of such a case is ready to hand. Take a spade-shaped piece of copper wire or sheet, heat it a little, and fix it in quiescent smoky air; looking along it through a magnifier in a strong light you will see the warmed air streaming past the metal according to the stream-lines of Fig. 15; and this just because the moving force has its location at the metal surface, and not in some region below it. (See Lord Rayleigh, NATURE, vol. xxviii. p. 139). One cannot indeed say that it is propelled at every

point of its course, but it is propelled at the critical points where the special friction occurs, and this comes to sufficiently the same thing.

We learn, therefore, that stream-lines like Fig. 15 prove one of three things, not one of two; and the three things are: (1) that the fluid has no friction; or (2) that it has no inertia; or (3) that it is propelled at every point of its course.

If any one of these is true of electricity, there is no need to assume either of the others in order to explain the actual manner of its flow. Now we have just seen that, according to Prof. Poynting's interpretation of Maxwell's theory, the third of the above is true—electricity is propelled at every point of its course; consequently, as said in Part I. (p. 533), the question of its inertia so far remains completely open.

Voltaic Battery.

Leaving this singular mode of regarding the subject for the present, to return to it perhaps after Part III., let us proceed to ask how it comes about that a common battery or a thermopile is able to produce a current.

If we allow ourselves to assume the existence of an unexplained chemical attraction between the atoms of different substances, an explanation of the action of an ordinary battery cell is easy. You have first the liquid containing, let us say, hydrogen and oxygen atoms, free or potentially free—that is, either actually dissociated or so frequently interchanging at random from molecule to molecule that the direction of their motion may be guided by a feeble directive force. Each of these atoms in the free state possesses a charge of electricity—the hydrogen all a certain amount of positive electricity, the oxygen twice that amount of negative. Into this liquid you then plunge a couple of metals which attract these atoms differently: for instance, zinc and copper, which both attract oxygen, but zinc more than copper; or, better, zinc and platinum, the latter of which hardly attracts it at all; or, better still, zinc and peroxide of lead, one of which attracts oxygen, the other hydrogen.

Immediately, the free oxygen atoms begin moving up to the zinc, the free hydrogen atoms to the other plate.

When one speaks of the plates attracting the atoms, it is not necessary to think of their exerting a force on all those in the liquid, distant and near: all that is necessary is to assume a force acting on those which come within what is called "molecular range" of its surface—a distance extremely minute, and believed to be about the ten-millionth part of a millimetre. If the zinc plate removes and combines with all the oxygen atoms which come within this range, they will be speedily replaced by others from the next more distant layer by diffusion, and these again by others, and so on. And thus there will be a gradual procession of oxygen atoms all through the liquid towards the zinc, the rate of the procession being regulated by the force acting, and by the rate of diffusion possible in the particular liquid used. All the atoms which reach the zinc neutralize a certain portion of its electricity by means of the positive charge they carry, and thus very soon it would become positively electrified enough to neutralize its attractive power on the similarly charged oxygen atoms, and everything would stop. But if a channel for the escape of its electricity be provided by leading a wire from it to the copper plate, the circuit is completed, the electricity streams back by the wire, and the procession goes steadily on. The electricity thus imparted to the copper, or platinum, neutralizes any repulsion it exerted on the negatively charged hydrogen atoms, and makes them in a similar way begin a procession towards it, deliver up their charges to it, combine with each other, and escape as gas.

Without going into all the niceties possible, this mode of thinking of the matter at least calls attention to some of the more salient features of a battery.

If, instead of two different plates, plates of the *same* metal be immersed, they will need to be oppositely electrified by some means before they are able to cause the two opposite processions, and so maintain a current in the liquid. This plainly corresponds to a voltmeter.

Taking advantage of the known fact that the atoms are charged, Helmholtz avoids the necessity for postulating any chemical (non-electrical) force between zinc and oxygen, by imagining that all substances have a specific attraction for electricity itself, and that zinc exceeds copper and the other common metals in this respect.

He would thus think of the zinc attracting, not the oxygen itself, but its electric charge; and so would liken a battery cell still more completely to a voltmeter. The polarization or opposition force acting at the hydrogen-evolving plate he would account for by the attraction of hydrogen for negative electricity, and the consequent repugnance of the hydrogen atoms to part with their charges.

Thermo-electric Pile.

A thermopile may be thought of in the following way, but in trying to understand the nature of these actions at present one must admit that some speculation and vagueness exist.

We have seen that when electricity is propelled through or among the molecules of a metal it experiences a certain resistance or opposition force which is exactly proportional to the speed of its motion. In other words, there is a connexion between matter and electricity in many respects analogous to fluid friction but varying accurately as the first power of the relative velocity. Hence, if an atom of matter be vibrating about a fixed point, it will tend to drive electricity to and fro with it; but if it be only one of a multitude, all quivering in different phases, they will none of them achieve any propulsion. This may be considered the state of an ordinary warm solid. But if from any cause a set of atoms could be made to move faster in one direction than in the reverse direction—to move forwards quickly and backwards slowly—then such an unsymmetrically-moving set *will* exert a propulsive tendency and tend to drive a current of electricity forwards, simply because the force exerted is proportional to the velocity, and so is greater on the forward journey than on the return.

Wherever conduction of heat is going on along a substance the atoms are in this condition. They are driven forward infinitesimally quicker, by the more rapidly moving atoms at the hot end, than they are driven back by the less rapidly moving atoms in front. And hence such a slope of temperature exerts a propulsive tendency: there is an electromotive force in a substance unequally heated.

This fact was discovered theoretically and verified experimentally by Sir William Thomson.

But not only is there such a force at a junction of a hot and cold substance, there is also a force at the junction of two substances of different kinds, even though the temperature be uniform. It is not quite so easy to explain how it now comes about that the atoms at this kind of junction are moving faster one way than the other; nevertheless, such a thing is not unlikely, considering the state of constraint and accommodation which must necessarily exist at the boundary surface of two different media. However it be caused, there is certainly an E.M.F. at such a junction.

Thus, then, in a simple circuit of two metals, with their junctions at different temperatures, there are altogether four electromotive forces—one in each metal, from hot to cold or *vice versa*, and one at each junction; and the current which flows round such a circuit is propelled by the resultant of these four.

But the contact force at a junction is by no means confined to metals. It occurs between insulators also, and it is to it that the striking effects produced by all frictional electric machines are due.

By thus noticing that the connexion between matter and electricity, known as resistance and defined by Ohm's law, is competent to produce contact electromotive forces, we may perceive how it comes to pass that in good conductors such forces are so weak, while in insulators they are so strong. Electricity slips through the fingers of a metal as it were, and the driving force it can exert is very feeble; while an insulator gets a good grip and thrusts it along with violence.

The metals differ in their gripping power, and, roughly speaking, the best conductor makes the worst thermo-electric substance. A bad conductor, like antimony, or, still better, galena, or selenium, or tellurium, makes a far more effective thermo-electric element than a well-conducting metal. Not that specific resistance is all that has to be considered in the matter; there is also a specific relation between each metal and the two kinds of electricity. Thus, iron is a metal whose atoms have a better grip of positive than of negative electricity, and so a positive current gets propelled in iron from hot to cold. Copper, on the other hand, acts similarly on negative electricity, and it is a negative current which is driven from hot to cold in copper. And all the metals can be classed with one or other of these two, except perhaps lead, which appears to grip both equally, and so to exert no differential effect upon either.

Passage of Electricity through a Gas.

There remains to be said something about the way in which electricity can be conveyed by *gases*.

The first thing to notice is that there is no true conduction through either gases or vapours; in other words, a substance in this condition seems to behave as a perfect insulator—perhaps the only perfect insulator there is. Not even mercury vapour is found to conduct in the least. This shows that mere bombardment of molecules, such as is known to go on in gases, is not sufficient either to remove or to impart any electric charge.

The commonest way in which electricity makes its way through a gas, setting aside the mere mechanical conveyance by solid carrier, is that of disruptive discharge. Let us try and look into the manner of this a little more closely, if possible.

First of all, since locomotion is possible to the molecules of a gas the same as of any other fluid, it is natural to ask why electrolysis does not go on as in a liquid. Now, for electrolysis in a liquid two conditions seemed necessary: first, that the atoms or radicles in a molecule should be oppositely charged with electricity; second, that they should be in such a condition (whether by dissociation or otherwise) that interchanges of atoms from molecule to molecule, or, in some other way, a procession of atoms, could be directed in a given direction by a very feeble or infinitesimal force.

Since a gas does *not* act as an electrolyte, one of these conditions, or perhaps both, must fail. Either the atoms of a gas-molecule are not charged, which is a plausible hypothesis for elementary gases, or else the atoms belonging to a gas-molecule remain individually belonging to it, and are not readily passed on from one to another.

When one says that a gas does not act as a common electrolyte, the experimental grounds of the statement are that a finite electrostatic stress certainly is possible in its interior—a stress of very considerable amount; and when this stress does overstep the mark and cause the electrode to yield, the yielding is evidently not a quiet and steady glide or procession, but a violent breaking down and collapse, due to insufficient tenacity of something. One may therefore picture the molecules of a gas, between two opposite electrodes or discharge terminals maintained at some great difference of potential, as arranged in a set of parallel chains from one to the other, and strained nearly up to the verge of being torn asunder. In making this picture one need not sup-

pose any fixture of individual molecules: there may be a wind blowing between the plates; but all molecules as they come into the field must experience the stress, and be relieved as they pass out.

If the applied slope of potential overstep a certain limit, fixed by observation at something like 33,000 volts per linear centimetre for common air, the molecules give way, the atoms with their charges rush across to the plates, and discharge has occurred. The number of atoms thus torn free and made able to convey a charge by locomotion is so great that there has never been found any difficulty in conveying any amount of electricity by their means. In other words, *during* discharge the gas becomes a conductor, and, being a conductor by reason of locomotion of atoms, it may be called an electrolytic conductor.

But whether the charge then possessed by each carrier atom intrinsically belonged to it all the time, or whether it was conferred upon the components of the molecules during the strain and the disruption, is a point not yet decided.

What is called "the dielectric strength" of a gas—that is, the strain it can bear without suffering disruption and becoming for the instant a conductor—depends partly on the nature of the gas, and very largely on its pressure. Roughly, one may say that a gas at high pressure is very strong, a gas, at low pressure very weak. An ordinary electrolyte might be called a dielectric of zero strength.

One reason why pressure affects the dielectric tenacity of a gas readily occurs to one: it is certainly not the only one, but it can hardly help being at least partially a *vera causa*; and that is, the fact that in a rare gas there are fewer molecules between the plates to share the strain between them.

Thus if 40,000 volts per centimetre break down ordinary air, 40 volts per centimetre ought to be enough to effect discharge through air at a pressure of about $\frac{1}{4}$ millimetre of mercury; and at a pressure of 50 atmospheres 2,000,000 volts per centimetre should be needed.¹

A Current regarded as a Moving Charge.

To review the ground we have covered so far. We first tried to get some conception of the nature of electrostatic charge, and the function of a dielectric medium in static electricity. We next proceeded to see how far the phenomena of current electricity could be explained by reference to electrostatics. For a current, being merely electricity in locomotion, need consist of nothing but a charged body borne rapidly along.

Charge a sphere with either positive or negative electricity, and throw it in some direction: this constitutes a positive or a negative current in that direction. There is nothing necessarily more occult than that. And a continuous current between two bodies may be kept up by having a lot of pith balls, or dust particles, oscillating from one to the other, and so carrying positive electricity one way, and negative the other way. But such carriers, as they pass each other with their opposite charges, would be very apt to cling together and combine. They might be torn asunder again electrically, or they might be knocked asunder by collision with others. Unless they were one or other, the current would shortly have to cease, and nothing but a polarized medium would result.

Instead of pith balls, picture charged atoms as so acting, and we have a rough image of what is going on in an electrolyte on the one hand, and a dielectric on the other. The behaviour of metals and solid conductors is more obscure. Locomotive carriage is not to be thought of in them; but, inasmuch as no new phenomenon appears in their case, it is natural to try and

¹ It is true that tension per unit area, or energy per unit volume, is proportional to the *square* of the potential-slope, and I attach no special importance to the simple proportion assumed in the text. There is a great deal more to be said on these subjects, but this is scarcely the proper place to say it.

picture the process as one not wholly dissimilar; and this is what in one place we tried to do; with, however, but poor success.

I have said that an electric current need be nothing more occult than is a charged sphere moving rapidly; and a good deal has been made out concerning currents by minutely discussing all that happens in such a case. But, even so, the problem is far from being a simple one. One has to consider not only the obviously moving charge, but also the opposite induced charge tied to it by lines of force (or tubes of induction, as they are sometimes called), and we have this whole complicated system in motion. And the effect of this motion is to set up a new phenomenon in the medium altogether—a spinning kind of motion that would not naturally have been expected; whereby two similarly charged spheres in motion repel one another less than when stationary, and may even begin to attract, if moving fast enough; whereby also a relation arises between electricity and magnetism, and the moving charged body deflects a compass needle. Of which more in the next Part. OLIVER J. LODGE.

(To be continued.)

THE TWEEDDALE COLLECTION.

THE great collection of birds formed by the late Marquess of Tweeddale has now safely arrived in London, and has been deposited in the Natural History Museum at South Kensington. It is sufficient to say that it equals in extent the valuable donation of American birds presented by Mr. Osbert Salvin and Mr. F. Du Cane Godman, numbering about 27,000 specimens; and though inferior in number of individual skins to the great Hume collection, which reached the phenomenal number of 63,000 specimens, it is not inferior in interest to either of these wonderful collections. Mr. Hume thoroughly worked the territory of the British Asian Empire from Scinde to Assam and Manipur, from Khatmandu to Ceylon, and from Tenasserim to Singapore; but to the eastward of these countries the work had been continued by other naturalists, and the results of their labours are largely represented in the Tweeddale collection, which now forms part of the British Museum.

On the death of the late Marquess, his entire collection and library were bequeathed by him to his nephew, Capt. R. G. Wardlaw Ramsay, of Whitehill, a naturalist of high promise and performance; and in the moment of satisfaction at receiving his magnificent donation one cannot help feeling great regret that the many cares and duties incident upon his succession to the family estates at Whitehill have temporarily deprived him of the leisure necessary for the working out of the great collection left to him by his uncle. The facilities for ornithological study, however, at the Natural History Museum, are now rapidly becoming so perfect that one may reasonably hope that he will, in common with all ornithologists, be able to work in that institution with the same comfort as in his own museum in Scotland. If in future years the student of birds finds that at South Kensington the work he loves can be done more expeditiously and with command of a larger series of specimens than in any other Museum in the world, his gratitude will be largely due to the four naturalists we have mentioned—Mr. Allan Hume, Messrs. O. Salvin and F. D. Godman, and Capt. Wardlaw Ramsay—for the unexampled generosity which has led them to present to the British nation the wonderful collections which will make our Ornithological Museum famous for all time.

Many naturalists who read this article will remember how, twelve years ago, the entire collection of bird-skins in the British Museum was contained in a few book-cases in a dingy cellar at Bloomsbury, where all the skins were kept in wooden boxes—a barbarous method, which was not only clumsy, but actually harmful to the

specimens themselves. The development of the collection since that era is one which any English naturalist may consider with pride. Not only is the invaluable series of skins in the British Museum now well cared for and properly housed, but the *raison d'être* of the large collections in private hands has been removed. It is admitted on all sides that had the facilities of study in the old days been such as they now are in the Natural History Museum, there would have been no need for ornithologists to devote their private means to the formation of the collections which have, however, now become the foundation of the greatest Ornithological Museum in the whole world.

The three great collections which have enriched the British Museum during the last two years have each been, in their way, of supreme importance for zoological science. The Hume collection was a perfect marvel in the way of complete series of specimens. Not only are the various plumages of the Indian birds exemplified in a manner hitherto unheard of, but even the geographical ranges of most of the species are illustrated in a perfect way by the series of specimens contained in the collection. The Salvin-Godman donation consisted of American birds, and added hundreds of species to the British Museum which were desiderata to that collection. Though not so rich in series of various plumages as the Hume collection, the number of gaps in the quota of American birds which their donation filled was simply enormous, and from being one of the most backward in regard to its neotropical collection of birds, the British Museum is now one of the foremost as regards the value of its American series.

The Tweeddale collection "takes up the running," so to speak, where Mr. Hume left off, and it must not be supposed that the donation now made by Capt. Wardlaw Ramsay is merely the collection of skins left to him by his uncle. To imagine this would be but a poor appreciation of the energy which has led him during the last few years to develop and greatly increase the collection by the addition of a large number of birds obtained during his military career in the East, and by hundreds of other valuable specimens acquired since his uncle's death. Thus the skins from the Kurrum Valley in Afghanistan, and from the Karen Hills in Burmah, obtained by Capt. Ramsay himself, are supplementary additions of the highest value to the Hume collection, inasmuch as Mr. Hume never had correspondents in these parts, and the specimens from the Andamans and Nicobars are also of great importance; but of course the interest of the Tweeddale collection centres round the expedition to the Philippine Archipelago made by Mr. Alfred Everett for the late Marquess. Mr. Everett visited several islands on which no zoologist had previously trod, and as a natural result he discovered some beautiful new species of birds which are still unrepresented in any other collection but that of Capt. Ramsay. Altogether Mr. Everett furnished material for twelve important memoirs by the Marquess of Tweeddale, and the number of Philippine types now presented to the British Museum adds immensely to the wealth of the donation. Lord Tweeddale was also greatly interested in an obscure family of birds—the Drogos, or Crow-shrikes (*Dicruridae*)—and possessed a wonderful collection of these birds, although it may be stated that there is scarcely a family of Oriental birds which is not strongly and completely represented in the collection.

Ornithologists will understand the nature of this noble gift of Capt. Ramsay when they learn that in addition to the collection of birds he has also presented the whole of the splendid Tweeddale library (nearly 3000 volumes) to the British Museum, to be placed in the Bird-Room, alongside of the collection of skins, for the benefit of students of ornithology. The Tweeddale library is one of the best in the world, containing many rare volumes which

we have not seen elsewhere, and this donation alone is worth several thousands of pounds. With a series of bird-skins now numbering nearly a quarter of a million, and with the best ornithological library in the world, it will be strange if the work done at the British Museum in future be not rendered an easy and an enjoyable task, though it must be remembered that the very magnitude of the collection contributes to the difficulty of its exact study. The writer may be excused an expression of deep gratitude to the ornithologists who have enriched the collection under his charge, so that from a series of (at the most) 40,000 skins, the number of bird-skins has been raised in fifteen years to more than 200,000, and he merely adds a hope that he may see the British Museum become the repository of all the work of English ornithologists, not only from this country, but from all parts of the Empire.

This article has dealt merely with the three great donations which have been received during the last two years, and has not recorded the many other collections, of almost equal importance, which have been acquired by the Trustees of the British Museum since 1872, the results of the life-work of such naturalists as Sclater, Wallace, Gould, and others of whom the country is proud, the acquisition of whose collections also is a source of the greatest encouragement to the writer.

R. BOWDLER SHARPE.

THE STORM OF OCTOBER 30.

THE gale which swept over the southern part of England on the morning of Sunday the 30th was both sudden and severe. On the previous day the weather was exceptionally fine over the country generally, and in many places it was a truly "pet" day. The Meteorological Office, in their morning report referring to the barometric rise which was going on in the south and west, remarked that "some improvement in the weather is therefore likely in the south." In the afternoon of Saturday, however, there were signs of approaching bad weather, and by six o'clock a disturbance was shown to be situated off Scilly, the barometer reading 29·4 inches. The Meteorological Office considered the situation sufficiently menacing for the issue of storm signals, and the south cone was hoisted in the south and south-west districts. During the night the storm passed in an east-north-east direction over the southern counties of England, travelling at the rate of about thirty miles an hour. The centre passed almost directly over London at about five o'clock in the morning, when the wind changed suddenly about 180°, the barometer at the time registering 28·86 inches, and in the next two hours the mercury rose 0·4 of an inch. At Greenwich Observatory the anemometer recorded 17·2 lbs on the square foot at 7·5 a.m., which is equivalent to an hourly velocity of about sixty miles. By 8 a.m. the centre of the disturbance had passed to the eastward of our islands and was situated a short distance off Yarmouth. The storm afterwards travelled in a north-easterly direction, maintaining somewhat its former rate of movement, and on Monday morning the central area was in the neighbourhood of Stockholm. The gale was rather severe on our southern coasts, but its principal violence was felt in the English Channel and on the French and Danish coasts. The *Paris Bulletin* shows that at many of the stations the wind reached the full force of a hurricane, and the sea was terrific. The amount of rain which fell during the storm was unusually heavy, 1·59 inches being registered at Scilly, and upwards of an inch at other stations in the south of England and also in the north of France. As is commonly the case with these quick-travelling and rapidly-developing storms, the disturbance was a "secondary" to a larger disturbance which was passing from off the Atlantic to the northward of our islands.

ROBERT HUNT, F.R.S.

MR. ROBERT HUNT, whose death we have already briefly announced, was born at Devonport, then called Plymouth Dock, on September 6, 1807. His father was a naval officer who perished, with all the crew, in H.M.S. *Moucheron*, in the Grecian Archipelago. Robert Hunt, left to his mother's care, was destined for the medical profession; and, having been placed with a surgeon in London, he attended the anatomical lectures of Joshua Brooks; but his studies were interrupted by failing health, and his medical training was never completed. In 1840, Mr. Hunt became secretary to the Royal Cornwall Polytechnic Society at Falmouth. His earliest contributions to science were in connection with photography—a subject to which he applied himself with assiduity immediately on the announcement of Daguerre's discovery in 1839. Mr. Hunt's investigations led to the discovery of several new processes, which were either described in the *Philosophical Magazine* or announced to the British Association: His experimental researches on the chemical activity of the highly refrangible rays of the solar spectrum, his work with the actinograph, and his study of the influence of light upon the germination of seeds and the growth of plants, formed the subject of numerous papers between 1840 and 1854. Mr. Hunt's "Researches on Light" appeared in 1844. His "Manual of Photography," which was the first general work on the subject published in this country, passed through six editions.

While Mr. Hunt was in Cornwall he undertook some interesting inquiries, conjointly with the late Mr. Robert Were Fox, into the electrical phenomena of mineral veins; and he also entered upon an examination of the air in some of the Cornish mines. In 1845 he came to London, at the invitation of Sir H. T. De la Beche, to succeed Mr. Thomas Jordan, as Keeper of Mining Records at the Museum of Economic Geology, then recently established in Craig's Court. On the establishment of the Government School of Mines in 1851, he was appointed Lecturer on Mechanical Science, and opened his course with an address on the importance of cultivating habits of observation. After holding this position for two sessions he resigned it to the late Prof. Willis, and undertook for a short time the duties of Lecturer on Physics. In 1854 Mr. Hunt was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society.

For the last thirty years Mr. Hunt's energies have been mainly directed to the collection and collation of statistical information relating to British mining and metallurgy. From 1853 until the abolition of the Keepership of Mining Records he published regularly the annual volumes of "Mineral Statistics," containing a vast mass of voluntary returns obtained by his personal influence. As a member of the Royal Coal Commission of 1866, he undertook the statistical part of the inquiry, and published detailed information on the coal resources of the country.

The technical education of the metal-mining population of the West of England was a subject that Mr. Hunt always had at heart. He was an earnest advocate for the establishment of local mining schools, and should be regarded practically as the founder of the Miners' Association of Cornwall and Devon—a body now amalgamated with the Mining Institute. In 1883, Mr. Hunt published a voluminous work on "British Mining." After the death of Dr. Ure he consented to edit the "Dictionary of Arts," and brought out successively the fifth (1860), sixth (1867), and seventh (1875) editions of this work. At the same time Mr. Hunt possessed great literary taste, which found scope in several lighter works, such as his "Poetry of Science," "Panthea, or the Spirit of Nature," and the "Romances of the West of England." Mr. Hunt's long, busy, and useful life was closed on the 17th ult. His remains were interred in Brompton Cemetery.

NOTES.

THE vacancy in the representation of Cambridge University, caused by the death of Mr. Beresford Hope, raises again the question of the desirability that the Universities should be represented in Parliament by men of distinguished culture, whether literary or scientific. Men of science will be glad to hear that a movement is on foot in Cambridge to induce the President of the Royal Society to allow himself to be nominated as a candidate for the membership of the University. A meeting will be held on Saturday for the purpose of considering the question of the representative. It is believed that Prof. Stokes, if he finds the feeling to be strong in favour of his acceptance, will regard it as his duty to place his services at the disposal of the electors. A more distinguished representative never offered himself for the suffrages of any University in this country. His presence in the House of Commons would be another pledge that questions involving the interests of science would be discussed with adequate knowledge in that assembly.

IN presenting the prizes to the successful students of the Bath Lane Science and Art School at Newcastle-on-Tyne, Lord Randolph Churchill expressed the opinion that when "the State has laid the foundation by freely contributing to elementary education, localities ought to come in and ought to build on that foundation whatever edifice may be necessary for the further and higher technical education of the artisan." "This school," he continued, "is essentially the result of pure local effort, pure local energy, and pure local pride. You have, I understand, carried on the whole work of this school without the smallest assistance from Government of any sort or kind. Now, I was saying that technical education is supposed to be a great requirement of the present day, and I was using the illustration of your school to show that localities can if they wish, if they have the energy and the determination, supply that technical education for themselves." In a letter to the *Times* a writer signing himself "Y." has exposed the ignorance displayed by Lord Randolph Churchill in this astonishing statement. The Newcastle school, instead of being carried on simply by means of "local effort," has been largely aided by the Government. As "Y." points out, the last Report of the Science and Art Department shows that in 1886 the payments on results made to the school were for science £1212 10s., and for art £238 10s., while the students' fees for instruction in science were £1228, and in art £150. It is discreditable that a man in Lord Randolph Churchill's position should be capable of making such a mistake as this. The incident is important, for it indicates the spirit in which too many of those who talk wildly about "economy" approach the consideration of the grave question as to the duty of the State with regard to education. Lord Randolph Churchill has been Chancellor of the Exchequer, and may some day be Chancellor of the Exchequer again. With his crude notions and inaccurate information, the injury he might do in this position to our educational system is simply incalculable.

THE College of State Medicine, lately incorporated, ought to be a remarkably successful institution, if we may judge from the names of its officers. The Chairman of Council is Sir Joseph Fayrer, K.C.S.I., F.R.S. The following are the members of the Council:—Sir John Watt Reid, K.C.B., Sir Thomas Crawford, K.C.B., Sir William Guyer Hunter, K.C.M.G., M.P., Sir Henry Roscoe, F.R.S., Sir Douglas Maclagan, Surgeon-General William Robert Cornish, C.I.E., Richard Quain, F.R.S., Edward Klein, F.R.S., Robert Brudenell Carter, and Arthur Trehern Norton. The following are *ex-officio* members:—The President of the Sanitary Institute, the President of the Society of Medical Officers of Health, the President of the Public Health Medical Society, the Professor of Public Health to the College. Mr. James Cantlie is the honorary secretary.

THE first Congress of the Dutch Society of Naturalists lately met at Amsterdam under the presidency of Dr. Stoknis, who delivered an address on nationality and natural science. Among the other addresses were the following: on Martinus of Marum, who made a large electric machine at the end of the last century, by Prof. Bosscha (Delft); and on the education of future naturalists, by Prof. Spruyt (Amsterdam).

AN Exhibition of Textile Goods and Machinery will be held at Warsaw about the middle of December next. It will be open to all countries.

THE expedition which the Finnish Archæological Society despatched to the Upper Yenisei last summer, to prosecute archæological researches in that locality, has just returned to Helsingfors. It has brought back drawings of about thirty stone figures, and copies of a large number of inscriptions, hitherto not deciphered, on a rock, on nine raised stone slabs, and on many stones along the upper course of the Yenisei. The expedition has also gathered a vast collection of objects belonging to the Siberian Bronze Age.

IN his latest Annual Report, Mr. Putnam, Curator of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, says that during the past year several large collections of special interest have been added to the Museum. The most important is the Bucklin collection from ancient graves in Peru, principally at Ancon. This collection is particularly rich in textiles and in ornaments and implements made of silver and bronze; and among the objects in pottery there are many new forms and styles of ornamentation. Another collection of over 300 specimens of pottery obtained from the province of Piura, Peru, has also been purchased, and nearly every vessel adds some important feature to the already instructive Peruvian collection in the Museum. A third collection consists of 337 pottery vessels, a number of whistles and other objects made of pottery, 245 stone implements, and several large carved stones, some circular, and others resembling animals, supposed by some archæologists to be seats, and by others to be metates. This collection has been catalogued and placed in the exhibition cases with the other objects from the ancient graves in Chiriqui. It was obtained from the well-known collector of antiquities in Chiriqui, Mr. J. A. McNeil, who has resided in the State of Panama for many years. Mr. Putnam expresses much regret that Mr. McNeil has not been able to keep together the contents of each grave. He is dependent on the sale of the specimens for the means to carry on his work, so that many of the objects he obtained are now widely scattered, and archæologists have no means of tracing the development of the arts of the people, which could have been done had the collection been kept together and the associations of every object carefully noted.

WE have received the Proceedings of the U.S. National Museum during the year 1886. This is the ninth volume of the series. It contains many interesting and valuable papers, some by members of the scientific corps of the National Museum, others by writers who have made portions of the collections of the Museum subjects of special study. The volume opens with a list of fishes collected in Arkansas, the Indian Territory, and Texas, in September 1884, with notes and descriptions, by Mr. D. S. Jordan and Mr. C. H. Gilbert. Among the other papers are: notes on fulgurites, by Mr. G. P. Merrill; a review of Japanese birds, by Mr. L. Stejneger; a catalogue of animals collected by the Geographical and Exploring Commission of the Republic of Mexico, by Mr. F. Ferrari-Perez; a description of six new species of fishes from the Gulf of Mexico, with notes on other species, by Mr. D. S. Jordan and Mr. B. W. Evermann; and Norsk naval architecture, by Mr. G. H. Boehmer. At the end of the volume there are twenty-five plates, each accompanied by its explanation.

SOME of the difficulties with which the curator of a museum in tropical climates has to contend are described in the last report on the Colombo Museum. Mr. Haly states that naphthaline is not so powerful a protection against the effects of climate as was anticipated. It seems to prevent the attacks of mites, but it is powerless against fungus. It is hoped that it will ward off the attacks of the fish insect on the labels. As an instance of the rapidity with which this pest works, it is mentioned that one case was re-painted, and the objects rearranged and labelled. No naphthaline was procurable at the time, and in a fortnight several labels had been defaced and several numbers lost. Carbolic acid and corrosive sublimate have both been mixed with the gum, but their use is objectionable, as they discolour the labels, and do not afford permanent protection. Every object in a tropical climate, Mr. Haly says, ought to be exhibited on its own stand, and that stand labelled by hand in black or white paint. The Museum has also been attacked lately by a fungus. Not only have the specimens themselves been attacked, but the wood of the teak cases, and even the glass, has been covered. In one case the insects were absolutely rolled round and connected together by its fine filaments—filaments so fine as to be invisible through the glass. Naphthaline, benzine, cyanide of potassium, carbolic acid, and other substances have all been tried in vain: the only check to its growth was citronella oil.

THE "Educational List and Directory of the United Kingdom for 1887-88" (Sampson Low), edited by Mr. William Stephen, has just been published. This is the second issue of the work. The editor's aim is to concentrate within reasonable space the names of the chief educational institutions of the Kingdom. Besides being a guide for the use of parents and guardians, and a directory for all who give attention to educational matters, the volume is interesting, as Mr. Stephen claims, on account of the fact that it is the first methodical effort to unite for practical purposes the designations of our educational institutions, from the Universities downwards, in England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland. No "descriptive matter" has been introduced.

THE Cardiff Naturalists' Society have issued a valuable descriptive list of the indigenous plants found in the neighbourhood of Cardiff, with a list of the other British and exotic species found on Cardiff Ballast Hills. The compiler is Mr. John Storrie, Curator of the Cardiff Museum.

A STALACTITE cave has been discovered near Steinbach in the Upper Palatinate. It can only be approached by a shaft 1 square metre in diameter and 40 metres deep. The cave is divided into several compartments, through one of which a stream of water slowly flows. The numerous stalactites are of great beauty. Another stalactite cavern, equalling the celebrated Dechen cavern, both in extent and peculiarity of form, has been discovered in the so-called Billstein, between Hirschberg and Warstein (Westphalia). The interior consists of several chambers. Numerous animal remains (probably prehistoric) have been found in the cave.

THE death is announced of Herr August Kappler, whose excellent book on Dutch Guiana is well known. He died at Stuttgart, aged seventy-one.

WE regret to announce the death of Dr. E. Luther, Professor of Astronomy at the Königsberg University, also Director of the Observatory. He was born February 24, 1816.

THE weather in Iceland during the summer has been very unusual. The ice did not leave the north and east coast till the middle of September, or quite a month later than usual. Storms and fogs have been very frequent. The last mail brings news that the weather was then (the middle of October) dry and fine. Frost had, however, set in in several parts. This is the last news we shall have from the island until next spring.

AT a recent meeting of the Wellington (New Zealand) Philo-sophical Society, Sir James Hector exhibited samples of trachyte tuff and breccia, constituting the auriferous deposit lately found in the level ground west of Te Aroha. The material, which appeared to be somewhat of the nature of an infiltrated quartz reef which had been decomposed and then distributed as a surface deposit, was found to contain gold at a rate varying from two ounces to fourteen ounces to the ton. The gold occurs in twisted angular flakes and grains, and is associated in a light feldspar sand with heavier grains of quartz mica and titanite iron. Sir James Hector is of opinion that it will probably prove to be the outcrop of an important reef, from which the sulphides have been removed by decomposition, so that gold is left in its free state. The gold is the usual alloy of the district—consisting of gold 80·47 per cent., silver 16·91, loss 2·62, previous assays having varied from 77 to 84 per cent.

THE last number of the *Excursions et Reconnaissances* of Saigon contains an account by M. Navelle of a journey which he made in Annam from the port of Thi-Nai, commonly called Quin-hon, to Bia. The route lay through the great town of Binh-Dinh, and by the ruins of Quin-hon, at one time the capital of the Chams or Ciampoïs. This leads the traveller to narrate the vicissitudes of the once powerful kingdom of Ciampa, which was overthrown in the fifteenth century, after seven centuries of contest with Annam. The narrative is mainly interesting from the circumstance that the traveller visited a number of important towns hitherto unseen by Europeans. At the town of Dong-pho, he met an official who at one time performed curious functions. The Kinh-li was an Annamite official appointed to reside beyond the frontiers to organize Annamites who fled from their native country, and to direct their raids against neighbouring States. These vagabonds, thus directed, acted as the van-guards of regular Annamite invasion. M. Landes, in the same number, continues his researches into the folk-lore of the races of French Indo-China. In the present instance he gives the tales and legends of the Tjames, Chams, or Ciampoïs, above-mentioned. They have long been subjugated, and are now divided into two groups, one inhabiting the Bin-thuan province, the other Cambodia. Until recently they were amongst the most unknown peoples of the peninsula, but M. Aymonier's accounts of his long exploration in Binh-thuan, which were published in recent numbers of *Excursions*, have thrown much light on the subject. The stories published by M. Landes were collected from the mouth of a Cham, and are mostly fairy tales.

DR. KARL PETERSEN, Director of the Tromsø Arctic Museum, has lately written a pamphlet on the state of the drift-ice in the Arctic seas during the last few years. In this pamphlet he offers some suggestions as to the way in which attempts to reach the North Pole should be made. "It seems to me," he says, "that every year shows more and more clearly that it is a sheer waste of life and money to despatch casual and erratic expeditions to the North Pole. In my opinion the result would be attained most easily, surely, and cheaply by despatching every year, for a period of ten or eleven years, a certain number of well-equipped steamers from certain suitable spots towards the Pole. As the ice-masses in the Polar Basin are, without doubt, in a constant but varying motion, this plan would enable one or another of the expeditions to seize the right moment for a dash northward. We could not, of course, be absolutely certain of success, for experience has proved that the state of the ice in a particular locality at a particular time does not enable us to predict what it will be in the same locality in the following year. Still, the opportunity to reach a high latitude would present itself sooner or later. The expeditions of past years having almost conclusively demonstrated that it will be

impossible to reach the North Pole along the west coast of Greenland, the *point d'appui* for the journeys on the plan advocated would be confined to the European and Asiatic Polar seas. The routes I should recommend are four: viz. one along East Spitzbergen to Franz Josef Land, and northwards, starting from the north of Norway; one east of Franz Josef Land, starting from the Yenisei or Obi; one *via* Franz Josef Land, starting from the New Siberian Islands or the Lena; and one from a suitable spot in Behring Strait. I have every reason to believe that if four such expeditions were in readiness in these localities every year during a period of eleven years, we should by the end of that time, by one or another of the routes, have solved the problems which still face us around the Pole. Probably the scheme might be carried out most advantageously by international co-operation, as in the case of the Polar Research Expeditions of 1882-83. In any case, I venture to think that the plan of any expeditions should not be finally formed before July, or, if possible, August. By that time many of the huntsmen have returned from their first voyage to several parts of the Arctic Sea, and the expeditions would be in possession of a fair knowledge of the state of the ice in each. I believe that, should the route chosen be *via* Spitzbergen or Novaya Zemlya, a careful study of the weather and wind in North Norway during the spring and early summer would benefit Polar expeditions immensely, showing whether the route to the north or east of Spitzbergen should be followed, or the more eastern one by Novaya Zemlya."

THE additions to the Zoological Society's Gardens during the past week include a Grand Eclectus (*Eclectus voratus*) from Moluccas, presented by Miss P. Lockwood; a Goffin's Cockatoo (*Cacatua goffini*), habitat uncertain, presented by Miss Barton; a Water Rattlesnake (*Crotalus adamanteus*), a Water Viper (*Cenchrus piscivorus*), two American Black Snakes (*Coluber constrictor*), a Chicken Snake (*Coluber quadrivittatus*), two Moccasin Snakes (*Coluber fasciatus*) from Florida, presented by the Natural History Society of Toronto; two Green Lizards (*Lacerta viridis*), twelve Spotted Salamanders (*Salamandra maculosa*), two Common Snakes (*Tropidonotus natrix*) from Italy, presented by Messrs. Paul and Sons; an Algerian Tortoise (*Testudo mauritanica*) from Algeria, deposited; an Aye-Aye (*Chiromys madagascariensis*) from Madagascar, purchased; six Painted Terrapins (*Clemmys picta*), two Corn Snakes (*Coluber guttatus*), two Milk Snakes (*Coluber eximius*), two Moccasin Snakes (*Tropidonotus fasciatus*), two Ribbon Snakes (*Tropidonotus saurita*), two Hog-nosed Snakes (*Heterodon platyrhinos*), two Grass Snakes (*Cyclophis vernalis*), six Dekay's Snakes (*Ischnognathus dekayi*), nine American Green Frogs (*Rana halecina*), ten Noisy Frogs (*Rana clamata*), a Wood Frog (*Rana sylvatica*), a Changeable Tree Frog (*Hyla versicolor*), nine Red-backed Salamanders (*Plethodon erythronotus*) from Canada, received in exchange; a Blood-breasted Pigeon (*Phlogoenas cruentata*), bred in the Gardens.

ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA FOR THE WEEK 1887 NOVEMBER 6-12.

(FOR the reckoning of time the civil day, commencing at Greenwich mean midnight, counting the hours on to 24, is here employed.)

At Greenwich on November 6

Sun rises, 7h. 4m.; souths, 11h. 43m. 44'.2s.; sets, 16h. 24m.; right asc. on meridian, 14h. 45'.2m.; decl. 15° 59' S. Sidereal Time at Sunset, 19h. 26m.
Moon (at Last Quarter November 8, 17h.) rises, 19h. 50m.*; souths, 3h. 54m.; sets, 11h. 58m.; right asc. on meridian, 6h. 54'.4m.; decl. 20° 14' N.

Planet.	Riser.	Souths.	Sets.	Right asc. and declination on meridian.	
	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.
Mercury..	9 9 ...	13 3 ...	16 57 ...	16 4'7 ...	23 21 S.
Venus ...	2 57 ...	8 59 ...	15 1 ...	11 59'6 ...	0 22 S.
Mars ...	1 16 ...	8 0 ...	14 44 ...	11 1'4 ...	7 59 N.
Jupiter ...	7 12 ...	11 53 ...	16 34 ...	14 54'4 ...	15 44 S.
Saturn ...	21 48* ...	5 35 ...	13 22 ...	8 35'5 ...	19 0 N.
Uranus... 4 17 ...	9 54 ...	15 31 ...	12 55'4 ...	5 14 S.	
Neptune. 17 7* ...	0 49 ...	8 31 ...	3 49'1 ...	18 16 N.	

* Indicates that the rising is that of the preceding evening.

Occultations of Stars by the Moon (visible at Greenwich).

Nov.	Star.	Mag.	Disap.		Reap.	Corresponding angles from vertex to right for inverted image.
			h. m.	h. m.		
6 ...	γ Geminorum ...	5½ ...	22 34 ...	22 51 ...	338	302
8 ...	7 Leonis ...	6½ ...	22 30 ...	23 8 ...	90	182
9 ...	ψ Leonis ...	6 ...	1 52 ...	2 42 ...	78	181

Nov. 7 ... 8 ... Mercury stationary.
8 ... 0 ... Saturn in conjunction with and 1° 1' north of the Moon.
9 ... 2 ... Jupiter in conjunction with the Sun.
12 ... 1 ... Venus in conjunction with and 3° 42' south of the Moon.

Saturn, November 6.—Outer major axis of outer ring = 42".2; outer minor axis of outer ring = 13".5; southern surface visible.

Variable Stars.

Star.	R.A.		Decl.		h. m.
	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.	
U Cephei ...	0 52'3 ...	81 16 N. ...	Nov. 7,	2 49 m	
U Monocerotis ...	7 25'4 ...	9 33 S. ...	,, 12,	2 29 m	M
U Ophiuchi ...	17 10'8 ...	1 20 N. ...	,, 7,	3 9 m	
and at intervals of 20 8					
U Sagittarii...	18 25'2 ...	19 12 S. ...	,, 7,	0 0 m	
R Scuti ...	8 41'5 ...	5 50 S. ...	,, 7,	0 m	
β Lyrae...	18 45'9 ...	33 14 N. ...	,, 6,	3 0 M	
S Vulpeculæ ...	19 43'8 ...	27 0 N. ...	,, 8,	m	
η Aquilæ ...	19 46'7 ...	0 43 N. ...	,, 8,	5 0 m	
S Sagittæ ...	19 50'9 ...	16 20 N. ...	,, 6,	1 0 m	
δ Cephei ...	22 25'0 ...	57 50 N. ...	,, 10,	3 0 M	

M signifies maximum; m minimum.

Meteor-Showers.

	R.A.	Decl.	
Near the Pleiades ...	60 ...	20° N. ...	Bright; rather slow.
From Camelopardalis ...	102 ...	73° N. ...	Very swift.
Near η Leonis ...	149 ...	22° N. ...	Swift; streaks.

GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES.

THE Danish Government has decided upon hydrographically measuring and charting the Guldborg Sound, the new harbour at Odense, in the Island of Funen, and the Randers and Mariager fjords in Jutland. Two vessels will also be engaged in preparing a naval chart of the coast around Denmark. It has also been decided to despatch an Expedition—the cost being estimated at £4000—to Iceland next summer, for the purpose of effecting hydrographical measurements around that island. Great fjords and waterways are here still unmeasured—a danger to navigation and a loss to science. It is believed that these researches may lead to important scientific discoveries, principally as regards zoology, meteorology, and geography. Moreover, they would probably be of great benefit to the Iceland fisheries, which are far from being thoroughly developed on account of the ignorance of existing fishing-banks, the temperature of the sea, &c. The researches, which will be similar to those carried out around Norway for some years past, will be effected with the Government schooner *Ingolf*, a vessel particularly adapted for the purpose. It is intended to employ the months of May, June, July, and August in this work, which, it is estimated, will be fully accomplished in five years.

IN the *Bollettino* of the Italian Geographical Society for September Signor E. Modigliani concludes his series of papers on Nias, with a detailed account of the physical features, natural history, and social condition of that island. The hilly surface is

relieved in some places by extensive open plains covered with tall grasses, and the forest vegetation is rapidly disappearing, owing largely to the wasteful habits of the natives. The accompanying seismic tables contain records of the earthquakes that occurred between the years 1843-86, some of which were very violent and attended by marine disturbances destructive to shipping, and driving boats and barges hundreds of yards inland. But there are no active volcanoes, and the prevailing formation appears to be a much-weathered compact limestone resting on gray or bluish Miocene marls and other argillaceous clays. The geological as well as the zoological conditions show that Nias, like the other islands running parallel to the west coast of Sumatra, must have formerly been connected with the mainland; and as Sumatra itself at one time certainly formed part of the Malay Peninsula, this chain of insular groups would appear to mark the original line of the Asiatic seaboard in this direction. Signor Modigliani's collections include 178 birds, representing 62 species, of which 8 are described as new, but allied to corresponding species in Sumatra; consequently the separation must have taken place at a very remote period—a conclusion also confirmed by other considerations. His rich zoological collection, comprising over 7000 specimens, has been presented to the Museum of Genoa.

METEOROLOGICAL NOTES.

THE Report on the Meteorology of India in 1885, being the eleventh year of the series, has just been published, and contains an immense mass of valuable information. The accumulation of Indian statistics during the last ten years may be best shown by a comparison of the following figures:—The number of stations at which the mean temperature is recorded has increased from 51 to 127, and the rainfall stations from 134 to 471. From this huge volume of 516 large quarto pages we can only note here a very few general remarks. Considerable attention is paid to solar radiation, the chief feature of which is found to be that the maximum intensity generally occurs during the winter half of the year (October to March), when the sun is in southern declination, and the thickness of the absorbing atmosphere traversed by the sun's rays is at a maximum. This is said to be apparently due to the fact that over a large part of India the atmosphere is most cloudy in the summer and autumn months. It would appear from the mean result of the sun-thermometer readings in all parts of India that the average intensity of solar heat had reached a minimum in 1884, and in 1885 underwent an appreciable increase. The duration of bright sunshine is now regularly recorded at four stations, and Mr. Blanford considers that the sunshine-recorder promises to be even more important than the sun-thermometer, since the duration of sunshine is a more direct measure of the amount of solar heat reaching the earth's surface than the registry of its mean maximum intensity. Anemometers are in use at nearly all the stations, and fourteen of them are large anemographs of the Kew pattern. The resultant direction of the winds is, however, computed by Lambert's old formula, which is based on the assumption that the force of all winds is equal, an assumption which is obviously often very misleading. The work is accompanied by maps showing the positions of the meteorological observatories and the mean distribution of temperature, pressure, and wind.

M. GARRIGOU-LAGRANGE describes, in the *Annuaire de la Société Météorologique de France*, his apparatus for registering the ascending and descending air-currents. The experimental anemometer is fixed on a mast at Limoges, and consists of four small fans moving round a vertical axis, and recording, by electrical arrangements, on a drum covered with ruled forms. The curves obtained by this method show plainly the upward or downward movement of the air, and the velocity is easily read off. The experiments show that ascending winds are generally stronger and more frequent than the descending, owing no doubt to the eddies caused by obstacles met with by the currents.

IN *Das Wetter* M. Seemann discusses the results of the storm-warnings issued by the *New York Herald* between September 1886 and January 1887, and finds that out of twelve warnings only three were quite successful, and three partially so. The wording of the telegrams is not so absolute as formerly; many of the depressions pass to the northward of our islands, and our weather is *disturbed*, although the gales do not always strike our coasts; judged in this light, the warnings may be more successful than when actual storms are predicted. On pp. 83-87 of

the same journal Dr. C. Lang describes his method of predicting night-frost, from the position of the dew-point. From the Munich observations for 1879-86 he finds that 441 predictions of night-frost could be given, of which 89 per cent. were successful. In 8 per cent. of the cases, night-frost did not follow, and in 3 per cent. frost occurred unexpectedly. This method may be of considerable benefit to agriculturists; reference to this subject has been made by Mohn, Buchan, and others.

DR. GROSSMANN has published "*Meteorologische Divisions-tafeln*" (Hammerich and Lesser, Altona), which will be very useful to meteorological observers in the calculation of monthly means, and daily means from hourly observations. For a dividend of four figures the quotient is given by simple inspections, and for more figures by interpolation by means of a table of proportional parts. The principle of construction is due to Dr. Köppen, and some of the tables were printed in *Aus dem Archiv der Deutschen Seewarte*, vol. i. 1878. Dr. Crelle's well known "*Tables de Calcul*" (Reimer, Berlin, 1869) are equally useful, but being in a large volume are not easily accessible to observers generally. The chief merit of Dr. Grossmann's tables lies in their publication in a form specially suitable to the wants of meteorological observers, and at the low price of about sixpence for single copies. They extend to four pages only, and are intended to be pasted on cardboard.

THE Italian Central Meteorological Office has published its *Annali* for the year 1884, in three thick folio volumes, containing a mass of meteorological, magnetical, and astronomical data. The meteorological services of Italy are very complicated, as in addition to the Central Office there are many large and independent establishments from which we possess long series of observations, some of them dating from the middle of last century. The Government established a Committee for Weather Telegraphy in 1863, under M. Matteuci, and in 1865 the Meteorological Section of the Ministry of Agriculture commenced the issue of the *Meteorologia Italiana*; from this originated the present office in 1877, located at the Collegio Romano. The service is now under the able superintendence of M. Tacchini, and includes 135 stations of the second order, some of which, e.g. those of Stelvio, Valdobbia, Cimone, and Etna are important mountain observatories; in addition to which there are 515 rainfall stations, and stations at the military settlements of Assab and Massowah. The work contains valuable discussions on thunderstorms, evaporation, and on the microscopical examination of atmospheric dust.

A SPECIAL meeting of the Meteorological Society of Mauritius, in honour of the Queen's Jubilee, was held on August 6, on which occasion Dr. Meldrum gave an interesting sketch of the origin and labours of the Society, and of the Royal Alfred Observatory. Charts were exhibited showing the tracks of the cyclones in the Southern Indian Ocean in each year from 1856 to 1886, also magnetograms showing simultaneous disturbances at Zi-ka-wei and Mauritius on January 9, 1886; and curves showing the apparent connection between solar, magnetical, and auroral phenomena, and also between solar phenomena and the frequency of cyclones, rainfall, and the depth of water in rivers, together with other articles of interest. Dr. Meldrum stated, with reference to the history of meteorology in the island, that a memorial was presented to the Governor in April 1851, suggesting the desirability of systematic observations, and the Meteorological Society was consequently founded on August 1 of that year. Shortly afterwards the office of Government Meteorological Observer was created, to which office Mr. Meldrum succeeded in 1862, and the two institutions, although distinct, have co-operated with each other. Regular observations were commenced at the new Observatory (*see* NATURE, vol. xxxvi. p. 546) in November 1874. We cannot enumerate here the many useful works which have been carried on, but the Hydrographer to the Admiralty has expressed the wish that the track charts should be published, and Mr. Meldrum has been informed that the Meteorological Council would probably publish them. He also states that tide-gauges will soon be erected at two points on the coast, and expresses a desire for the establishment of a high mountain station.

IN the *American Meteorological Journal* for September, Mr. H. Allen discusses the theory of the outflow of air under falling rain. It has been assumed by some meteorologists that the rain, drops carry with them and compress the air, which, flowing out-produces at times a considerable wind velocity (*see* article on

"Lightning" in Johnson's Encyclopædia). Several hypothetical cases are considered, and the author concludes that, although his computations may need some modification after further study, we can safely say that no appreciable velocity of air is produced by compression from falling rain. The same journal contains a long paper on the theory of the wind-vane by Prof. G. E. Curtis, reprinted from the *American Journal of Science* for July last. He discusses the relative stability of a straight vane, and that with a double or spread tail. The first reference to the latter is apparently in *Voigt's Magazin*, 1797, and this form has been in common use in England since about 1840. The formulæ show that for a frictionless bearing (1) that the oscillations of both vanes are smaller as the vanes are longer and larger; (2) that the spread vane is always more stable than the straight vane; and (3) that this advantage in stability is greater for long vanes than for short vanes, and is independent of the wind velocity. The author finds that, with equal friction, a spread vane is the more sensitive, and that consequently for two vanes of equal sensitiveness the spread vane will have the greater friction and will come to rest more quickly.

THE *Jahresbericht* of the Central Physical Observatory of St. Petersburg for 1885 and 1886, and the *Annalen* for the year 1885, have recently been published. The Russian system is very important, not only as being the most extensive on the globe, but on account of the great climatic contrasts and the completeness of the observations. The present Director, Dr. H. Wild, of Berne, was appointed in 1867, and under his able superintendence the number of stations has greatly increased and the quality of the observations has much improved. The central Observatory is situated about a mile from the sea, on the island of Wassili-Ostrow; the principal observing department has been transferred since 1878 to Pawlowsk, about four miles distant, and is placed under the superintendence of Dr. E. Leyst. The observations for 1885 are contained in two quarto volumes of about 700 pages altogether. In addition to the first class observatories, the number of stations of the second order amounts to 255, and of these the monthly and yearly results of 208 are published on the international scheme; from 38 of the stations the observations are published *in extenso*. Many new stations have been added recently, especially in Siberia, and in newly-acquired territories, e.g. Merv, Batoum, &c. One of the Siberian stations, viz. Werchojansk (lat. $67^{\circ} 34'$, long. $133^{\circ} 51'$) is stated by Dr. Köppen to be the coldest known point of the earth. The mean temperature there for the year was $-2^{\circ} 9$ F. The mean for January and December was $-62^{\circ} 9$, and the minimum in January $-88^{\circ} 6$ (far beyond the range of the usual tables). The mean temperature of July rose to $60^{\circ} 6$, and the minimum for that month was $39^{\circ} 2$. The number of rainfall stations for which the observations are given is 650, against 252 in the previous year; the data published are the monthly values, the maximum fall in 24 hours, and the number of days of rain and snow. A complete catalogue of the meteorological observations in Russia and Finland, by Dr. E. Leyst, giving the life-history of each station, has been published in the *Repertorium für Meteorologie* this year. This work also contains many valuable discussions of the vast amount of materials available for the purpose. The index of the *Annalen*, being mostly in Russian, is difficult to refer to.

THE WORK OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF GEOLOGISTS.¹

I.

ELEVEN years ago the Association met at Buffalo. It was the year of the Centennial Exhibition, and we were honoured by the presence of a number of European geologists. This naturally opened the subject of the international relations of geology, and the proposition to institute a Congress of Geologists of the world took form in the appointment by the Association of an International Committee. The project thus initiated found favour elsewhere, and there resulted an international organization, which up to the present time has held three meetings. It was convened first at Paris in 1878, then at Bologna in 1881, and at Berlin in 1885. Its next meeting will be held

in London next year, and an endeavour will be made to secure for the United States the honour of the fifth meeting. The original Committee of the Association has been continued, with some change of membership, and has sent representatives to each session of the Congress.

The work of the Congress, as originally conceived and as subsequently undertaken, has for its scope geologic nomenclature and classification, and the conventions of geologic maps. The particular classifications attempted are the establishment of the major divisions used in historic and stratigraphic geology and the subdivision of volcanic rocks. In nomenclature three things are undertaken: (1) the determination of the names of historic and stratigraphic divisions, (2) the formulation of rules for nomenclature in palæontology and mineralogy, and (3) the establishment and definition of the taxonomic terms of chronology (period, epoch, &c.) and of stratigraphy (system, series, &c.). The map conventions most discussed are colours, but all signs for the graphic indication of geologic data are considered. The Congress has also undertaken the preparation of a large map of Europe, to be printed in forty-nine sheets.

The work was for the most part planned at the Paris meeting, and Committees were appointed to formulate subjects for action by the Congress at subsequent sessions. Briefly stated, the work accomplished to the present time is as follows. Agreement has been reached as to the rank and equivalence of the taxonomic terms employed in chronology and stratigraphy, a set of rules for palæontologic nomenclature has been adopted, and many sheets of the map of Europe have been prepared for the engraver. A partial classification of stratified rocks has been agreed to, and also a partial scheme of map colours, but the reports of proceedings indicate that action in these matters is tentative rather than final.

It is understood that both of these subjects will have prominent place in the proceedings at the London meeting, and the American Committee is endeavouring to prepare itself for representative action at that meeting by ascertaining the opinions of all American geologists on the various subjects. It has asked this Section to set apart a day for the discussion of some of the more important questions, and it can hardly be doubted that the Section will realize the mutual advantage of thus assigning the time requested. I am personally so impressed with the importance of the possible work of the Congress that I shall devote the present hour also to its consideration.

The first thing the Congress did was to select names for a set of categories to express the taxonomic rank of stratigraphic divisions on the one hand, and of chronologic divisions on the other. In the terminology of zoology and botany the words kingdom, class, order, family, genus, species, and so forth, however difficult of definition they may severally be, nevertheless are used always in the same order of inclusion. No systematist in those sciences would think of grouping orders together and calling them a family, or of styling a group of families a genus. But in geology there is no such uniformity of usage. With some writers a group is larger than a series, with others it is smaller. With some an age includes several periods, with others a period includes several ages. There are even writers who ignore the distinction between stratigraphy and chronology; and among the classifications submitted to the Congress is one in which an age is subdivided into systems. There is a manifest advantage in bringing order out of this chaos, and so great is the utility of uniformity and perspicuity that the decisions of the Congress in this regard will unquestionably be followed by future authors. The terms and the order adopted by the Congress are as follows. Of stratigraphic divisions, that with the highest rank is *group*, then *system*, *series*, and *stage*. The corresponding chronologic divisions are *era*, *period*, *epoch*, and *age*. This order of rank is strange to most English readers and writers, and so is one of the terms—*stage*; but the strangeness is only a temporary disadvantage, and will not seriously retard the adoption of the convention. The fact that we have previously used the words in a different sense, or that their etymology might warrant a different meaning, need not deter us, for we know from frequent experience that the connotations of a word transferred from one use to another quickly disappear from consciousness, leaving it purely denotative. The introduction of the word *stage*, which can hardly be said to have had an English status heretofore, or at least the introduction of some new word for that part of the column, was necessitated by the restriction of the word *formation* to a special meaning—the designation of mineral masses with reference to their origin.

¹ Vice-Presidential Address read to Section E of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, August 10, 1887, by Mr. G. K. Gilbert.

The same restriction vacated another office that had been filled by formation, and to this office no appointment was made. I refer to the use of the word to denote indefinitely an aggregate of strata—as in saying, this formation should be called a series rather than a system. This is an important function, for which some provision must be made. I suggest that we may advantageously enrich our language by the permanent adoption of *terrane*, a word whose English meaning has not been well established.

The fixation of the chronologic terms creates a similar difficulty. We have crystallized out of our magma the terms *era*, *period*, *epoch*, and *age*, and there remain in the ground-mass only *eon*, *cycle*, and *time*. Of these, *eon* has a poetic connotation which seems to unfit it for this particular use; *cycle* implies repetition or recurrence; and *time* has been so generally applied to unlimited duration that it is difficult to apply it also to limited duration, even though the nature of the limitation be indefinite. On the whole, *time* seems open to the least objection, but I cannot help regretting that either *period* or *age*, both of which have heretofore passed current in the indefinite sense, was not reserved by the Congress for that function. With English-speaking peoples the word *eon* could have been better spared for the definite series.

But while the terms selected by the Congress are not beyond criticism, the benefits to be derived from an agreement in an orderly system are so great that I for one shall unhesitatingly adopt them as they stand—provided, of course, that the Congress makes no effort to improve its selection. A small reform of this nature yields its profit to this as well as future generations, and I hold it a duty to favour even those reforms which involve so much effort and pains that their blessings cannot be realized by those who initiate them. Such are the exchange of our English spelling for a rational system, and the exchange of decimal notation in arithmetic for a binary notation. My application of the new nomenclature begins with this address, in the preparation of which I have experienced its utility. That you may have no difficulty in interpreting my reformed language, I have placed the taxonomic legend on the wall, with the addition of the complementary indefinite terms—*terrane* and *time*.

Terranes.	...	Times.
Group.	...	Era.
System.	...	Period.
Series.	...	Epoch.
Stage.	...	Age.

There are propositions before the Congress to distinguish the names of individual groups, systems, series, and stages by means of terminations, those of the same rank having the same termination. Thus it is proposed by a Committee that every name of a group shall end in *ary*—Tertiary, Primary, Archeary; it is proposed that names of systems end in *ic*—Cretacic, Carbonic, Siluric; it is proposed that names of series end in *ian*—Eifelian, Laramian, Trentonian; and it is proposed that stage names terminate with *in*. Another Committee suggests that *ic* be used for stages instead of systems. The adoption of such a plan would enable a writer or speaker to indicate the taxonomic rank of a terrane without adding a word for that purpose. If he regarded a certain terrane taking its name from Cambria as a system, he would call it the Cambric; if he esteemed it only a series, he would say Cambrian; and there would be no need of adding the word system or series in order to express his full meaning. Conversely, the reader or hearer would always learn its taxonomic rank, or supposed rank, whenever a terrane was mentioned. These I conceive to be the advantages derivable from the change, but they would not be the only effects. It would become impossible for a geologist to name or allude to a terrane without declaring its rank, and the consequences of this would be evil in many ways. In the first place, one could not discuss terranes from any point of view without expressing an opinion as to their taxonomy, and the change would thus contravene one of the most important rights of opinion—namely, the right to reserve opinion. Again, geologists who differed as to the rank of a terrane would necessarily terminate its title differently, and a needless synonymy would thus be introduced. In the third place, the created necessity for taxonomic discrimination on all occasions would tend to direct undue attention to taxonomic problems. Taxonomy would be conceived by many geologists as an end instead of a means, just as correlation has been conceived, and energy would be wasted in taxonomic

refinement and taxonomic controversy. It is convenient for purposes of description and comparison to classify the strata that constitute a local columnar section in phalanges of various magnitude or rank, but the criteria on which we depend for discrimination are in the nature of things variable, and offer ground for endless difference of opinion; and it would be extremely unfortunate to have such differences perpetually brought to the foreground.

Another subject considered by the Congress is the nomenclature of palæontology. A Committee appointed for the purpose formulated rules for the establishment of the names of genera and species, and their report was adopted by the Congress. I have no opinion to express as to the wisdom of the rules, but it is a matter of surprise that a body of geologists assumed to speak with authority on the subject. From one point of view palæontology is a part of geology; from another point of view it is a part of biology. In so far as it names genera and species it is purely biologic, and it would seem proper that the students of fossils unite with the students of living animals and living plants in the adoption of rules of nomenclature.

A similar remark applies to the nomenclature of mineralogy, in regard to which no action has yet been taken. The most intimate relations of systematic mineralogy are with chemistry.

Yet another projected work of the Congress is the classification of eruptive rocks. Up to the present time action has been deferred, and it may reasonably be hoped that no scheme of classification will be adopted. If there existed a system of classification which gave general satisfaction and had stood the test of time, there would be little harm—and little or no advantage—in giving it the official stamp of approval. If the main features of a classification were well established and the residuary discrepancies were recognized as unessential, it is conceivable that some benefit might be derived from the submission of the matter to an assembly of specialists. But the actual case is far different. Not only is there wide difference as to the classification of volcanic rocks, but there is no agreement as to the fundamental principles on which their classification should be based, for we still lack an accepted theory of volcanism. At the same time observation is being pushed with great vigour, and with the aid of new and important methods. With the rapid growth of knowledge and ideas, classifications are continually remodelled, and the best is in danger of becoming obsolete before it has been printed and circulated. Should the Congress enter the lists, one of two things would occur. Either its classification would be treated like that of an individual, and ignored as soon as a better one was proposed; or it would be regarded as more authoritative, and new facts would for a time be warped into adjustment with it. In either case the reputation of the Congress would eventually suffer, and in one case science would suffer also.

There remain to consider the two most important undertakings of the Congress, the classification of terranes and the unification of map colours. The Congress is attacking these subjects indirectly by means of a third undertaking, the preparation of a geologic map of Europe, and this method of approach has had the effect of making it difficult properly to interpret its action. There can be no doubt that those who originally organized the work contemplated the enactment of a stratigraphic classification to be applied to the entire earth, and the selection of a colour scheme for use either in all geologic maps or in all general geologic maps. But at the Berlin session the Committee in charge of work on the map of Europe pressed the Congress for the determination of questions on which hung the completion of the map, and many hasty decisions were reached, while not a few disputed points were referred to the Map Committee. The debates indicate that much or all of this work was provisional or of merely local application, but the resolutions adopted show little qualification. It should be added that the official minutes of the meeting are still unpublished. In view of the uncertainty thus occasioned I shall not attempt to characterize the attitude of the Congress on the subject of classification, but shall merely develop my individual view.

It is the opinion of many who have discussed the general classification of terranes by convention of geologists that the smallest unit of such classification should be the stratigraphic system. What is a stratigraphic system? The Congress implies a definition in saying that a system includes more than a series and less than a group, and that the Jurassic is a system; but this gives only a meagre conception, and we need a full one. As the problem of classification demands a true conception of a system, and as there is reason to believe that a false conception is

abroad, it is proper that in seeking the true one we begin with the elements.

The surface of the land is constantly degraded by erosion, and the material removed is spread on the floor of the ocean, forming a deposit. This process has gone on from the dawn of geologic history, but the positions and boundaries of land and ocean have not remained the same. Crust movements have caused the submergence of land, and the emergence of ocean bottom, and these movements have been local and irregular, districts here and there going up while other districts went down. The emergence of ocean bottom exposes the deposit previously made on it, and subjects it to erosion. In this way every part of the known surface of the globe has been the scene of successive deposition and erosion, and in many districts the alternations of process have been numerous. It is manifestly impossible that either erosion or deposition should ever have prevailed universally, and it has been established by the study of stratigraphic breaks that a time of erosion has often interrupted deposition in one region while deposition was uninterrupted in another.

In transportation from its region of erosion to its place of deposition detritus is assorted, and it results that the simultaneous deposits on the bottom of an ocean are not everywhere the same. Equal diversity is shown in the ancient deposits constituting geologic formations. It is a general fact that synchronous formations have not everywhere the same constitution.

Many of the variations in deposits are correlated with depth of water and distance from shore, and it results that elevation and subsidence in regions of continuous deposition produce changes in the nature of the local deposit.

The animals and plants of the earth are not universally distributed, but are grouped in provinces. In the geologic past similar provinces existed, but their boundaries were different, shifting in harmony with the varying geography of the surface. From time to time the barriers separating contiguous provinces have been abolished, suffering them to coalesce; and conversely new barriers have arisen, creating new provinces. From the earliest Palæozoic to the present time the species of animals and plants have been progressively modified, the nature of the modification depending on local conditions. The faunas and floras of different provinces thus become different, and the longer the provinces remain distinct the greater is the divergence of life. The removal of a barrier either produces a new fauna by the fusion of the two previously separated, or else obliterates one and extends the area of the other. In either case there is a change toward the unification of life, and in either case there is an abrupt change in a local fauna. Thus the secular evolution of species, combined with the secular and kaleidoscopic revolution of land areas, leads to two antagonistic tendencies, one toward diversity of life on different parts of the globe, the other toward its uniformity. The tendency toward uniformity affords the basis for the correlation of terranes by comparison of fossils; the tendency toward diversity limits the possibilities of correlation.

If now we direct attention to some limited area and study its geology, we find that under the operation of these general processes it has acquired a stratigraphic constitution of a complex nature. Its successive terranes are varied in texture. Breaks in the continuity of deposition are marked by unconformities. The fossils at different horizons are different, and when they are examined in order from the lowest to the highest, the rate of change is found to vary, being in places nearly imperceptible and elsewhere abrupt. It is by means of such features as these—that is, by lithologic changes, by unconformities, and by life changes—that the stratigraphic column is classified into groups, systems, series, and stages. A system is a great terrane separated from terranes above and below by great unconformities or great life breaks or both. Smaller unconformities, smaller life changes, and lithologic changes are used for the demarcation of series and stages; and, on the other hand, exceptionally great unconformities and life breaks are used to delimit groups. As the same criteria determine groups, systems, and series, differing only in degree, the precise definition of the term system is impossible, and in many cases the gradation of a terrane as a group, a system, or a series is largely a matter of convenience. From this point of view a system is somewhat artificial, but there is a more important sense in which it is natural. It is limited by stratigraphic or paleontologic breaks above and below, and these breaks are natural. The taxonomist is not warranted in dividing systems where no such break exists.

Transferring now our attention to some other area, distant

from the first, and studying its stratigraphy, we find that the same principles enable us to divide it independently into stages, series, systems, and groups. Its fossils are not the same, but they are to a certain extent similar, and the sequence of life is approximately parallel. We cannot compare stage with stage, nor series with series perhaps, but we can compare system with system, and making the comparison we discover that the breaks are at different places. While one area was upraised and subjected for a time to erosion, the other received continuous deposition. While life in one area, enjoying constant conditions, was almost unchanged for long ages and even epochs, it was revolutionized in the other by the irruption across some obsolescent barrier of strong and aggressive faunas and floras. The systems of one area, therefore, do not coincide with the systems of the other in their beginning and ending. They may differ in number, and they may differ greatly in magnitude, and in the duration they represent. They are, in fact, a different set of systems.

The case I have described is ideal, but not false. It represents the common experience of those who have developed the geologic histories of remote districts, and attempted to correlate them with the geologic history of Europe. There does not exist a world-wide system nor a world-wide group, but every system and every group is local. The classification developed in one place is perfectly applicable only there. At a short distance away some of its beds disappear and others are introduced; further on, its stages cannot be recognized; then its series fail, and finally its systems and its groups.

If I have properly characterized stratigraphic systems—if they are both natural and local—it goes without saying that the classification of the strata of all countries in the dozen or so systems, as proposed by some of the members of the Congress, is impossible.

I hasten to add that from the point of view of these gentlemen what they advocate is not necessarily impossible, for they have a different conception of a system. They regard it not as local but as universal. It is their privilege to define their terms as they please, and we will not dispute about mere words, but I cannot too strongly or too earnestly insist that a system which is universal is artificial. It may be natural in one geologic province, but it is artificial in all others. Take for example the Jurassic. It is a natural system in Europe. In the eastern United States no strata are called Jurassic with confidence, and at the west the rocks called Jurassic merge with those called Triassic. In India, Medicott tells us, a Jurassic fauna occurs at the summit of a great natural system containing a Permian fauna near its base. In New Zealand, according to Hutton, a continuous rock-system, discovered by great unconformities from other systems, bears at top fossils resembling those of the lower Jurassic, and lower down fossils of Triassic facies. To establish a Jurassic system in either of these countries it is necessary to divide a natural system, and a Jurassic system thus established would be necessarily artificial.

This is the sort of classification implied by the assumption that systems are world-wide. It is not impossible, but it is highly inadvisable. It is classification for the sake of uniformity, and its uniformity is Procrustean. The natural systems of a region are the logical chapters of its geologic history. If you group its strata artificially according to the natural divisions of another region, you mask and falsify its history. The geologic history of the earth has as great local diversity as its human history. As in human history, there are inter-relations and harmonies and a universal progress, but these are perceptible only in the general view, and the student whose preconceptions lead him to exaggerate the harmonies and ignore the discrepancies perverts the meaning of every page.

I prefer, therefore, my own definition of system, making it natural and consequently local, and I earnestly oppose any attempt to coerce the geology of one country in a rigid matrix formed over and shaped by the geology of another country.

The ideas I oppose have arisen in connection with the work of correlation. Some geologists appear to regard correlation as the determination in distant localities of identities; the more philosophic regard it as the determination of the actual relations, whether they be of identity or difference. With the former the basis of correlation is the universality of geologic systems; with the latter it may be said to be the universality of geologic time.

Now in the comparative study of local geologic histories, just as in the comparative study of local human histories, it is a

matter of convenience to have a common scale of time. It is not essential, but it is highly convenient. In human history we use an astronomic scale of equal parts, designating each unit by a number. In geology no scale of equal parts is available, and we employ the eras and periods, and to some extent the epochs, of the local geologic history first deciphered—that of Europe. These time-divisions bear the same names as the groups, systems, and series of strata whose deposition occurred within them.

So far as the science of geology is concerned the selection of Europe as its first field of study was a matter of chance, and the adoption of the European time scale as a general standard may therefore be said to have been accidental. Though the local rock scheme on which it is based is natural, the time scale, considered as universal, is arbitrary. Another locality would have afforded a different scale, but its authority would neither be greater nor less. The scale being recognized as arbitrary, and a mere matter of convenience, it is legitimate to modify and fix it by formal convention. The Congress can do good service to geologic technology by putting it in the best possible shape and giving it an official status. In my judgment only a small number of divisions should be admitted, not more than the number of periods of the European scheme. In a general way the durations represented by the co-ordinate divisions should be as nearly equal as practicable, but a certain concession might be made to chronologic perspective on account of our superior opportunities for studying the later history. Some of the shorter periods might perhaps be united under new names. Each line of division between periods should be defined by means of a stratigraphic plane of division, and this can be done with precision if a locality is made part of the definition.

Especially should pains be taken to declare the arbitrary nature of the scale. Even with this precaution it will be misconstrued by many, for there is a tendency of the mind to attach undue weight to classification. Wherever we draw lines of separation, we lose to a certain extent the power to recognize continuity. When, for example, the clock strikes twelve on New Year's Eve, time seems to stop and begin again. We speak of the achievements of the nineteenth century—and despite ourselves we think of them too—as though a new industrial epoch began in A.D. 1800. And so it is easy for the beginner in geology to accept as discontinuous the eras and periods of which his text-book treats, and it is hard for him afterward to unlearn the lesson.

There is reason to believe that confusion of ideas in regard to geologic classification has been fostered by the employment of the same set of names for the divisions of the time scale and for the local terranes on which they are founded. It might be well to furnish the time scale with names suggesting times—such names as the brothers Rogers applied to the terranes of Pennsylvania; but so radical a change is hardly feasible, especially as we should thus lose the mnemonic connection of times with corresponding terranes. I propose, as a means of accomplishing the end with the least inconvenience, that a set of time words be derived from the terrane names by modifying the final syllables. The time words should all have the same termination, and that should differ from any terminations occurring in the terrane names. I suggest for the ending of time words the syllable *al*. With such a nomenclature, Jurassic and Devonian would denote only certain European rock systems, while Jural and Devonal would denote periods of the standard time scale; and we could speak of the Chico-Tejon series as partly Eocene and partly Cretaceous without seeming to imply the existence in California of the Eocene and Cretaceous systems of Europe.

A few minutes ago I opposed the differentiation of words by terminations because it abrogated the power of indefinite expression; I now favour it for the same reason. It is well to be indefinite as to the taxonomic rank of terranes while their characters are imperfectly known, but it is not well to confuse terranes with times.

It is not to be assumed that a time scale adopted now as the best possible will continue indefinitely to be the best possible; the day will inevitably come when it can be improved. In the fuller light of the future we may recognize as very unequal periods that we now deem equivalent, and the possibilities of defining pre-Cambrian periods are unlimited. Even now there are announced beneath the lowest fossil-bearing terrane of the Lake Superior region two systems of clastic rocks limited above and below by great unconformities, and Irving demands their recognition as a group, distinct from the Archæan. If his voice is heard, the time scale will include an era between the Palæo-

zoal and the Archæal, and this era will supply the needs of the systematist until great additions have been made to our present knowledge of the older rocks.

(To be continued.)

UNIVERSITY AND EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

OXFORD.—The resignation of Prof. Prestwich and the continued illness of Prof. Moseley have produced two gaps in the scientific professoriate this term. Though the Professor of Geology has left Oxford, his successor will not be appointed until after Christmas. In Prof. Moseley's absence the work of the morphological department is being carried on by Mr. Hatchett Jackson and Mr. G. C. Bourne, who has just been elected to a Fellowship at New College.

In the department of physics, Prof. Clifton is giving no honour lectures, but has an elementary course on mechanics and acoustics. Mr. Selby is lecturing on elasticity and on electrostatics, both treated mathematically. At Christ Church, Mr. Baynes gives lectures and practical instruction in electricity and magnetism. Sir John Conroy and Rev. F. J. Smith are lecturing on elementary physics at Balliol and Trinity.

The chemical department at the Museum has been strengthened by the addition of Mr. V. H. Veley to the staff; the usual courses of lectures are being given by Mr. Fisher and Dr. Watts, and Prof. Odling is lecturing on glycerine and its derivatives. At Christ Church, Mr. Vernon Harcourt has a class for quantitative analysis, and lectures on elementary chemistry. Sir John Conroy is lecturing on chemical physics at Balliol.

The Physiological Laboratory is continuing its usual work with little alteration. Prof. Burdon Sanderson's lectures are on circulation, respiration, and bodily motion.

Prof. Balfour, besides lecturing on extinct plants for the Professor of Geology, is giving a course on general morphology. Dr. Tylor continues to expound the Pitt-Rivers Collection, a fresh portion which will shortly be rearranged and opened to the public.

Mr. Primrose McConnell is lecturing on the principles of agriculture, mainly for the benefit of India Civil Service candidates.

During this term there will be an examination for Scholarships in Natural Science at Balliol, Exeter, Christ Church, and Trinity jointly, beginning on November 17.

A pamphlet has just been issued from the Clarendon Press giving full information as to the methods of obtaining medical degrees in Oxford, and the instruction in medicine provided by the University.

CAMBRIDGE.—The Museum and Lecture Rooms Syndicate have issued another report pressing for new accommodation for Pathology and Physiology, and suggesting that the department of Pathology, including its Museum, could be located in the old chemistry buildings when the new laboratory is completed. They recommend the building of new rooms for Human Anatomy and Physiology on the Corn Exchange site at the northern end of the Museum site. It is an important feature of this scheme that it would leave free the present Human Anatomy Schools and Museum to be added to the frontage available in Downing Street for a Geological Museum.

Messrs. W. H. Macaulay and W. B. Allcock have been appointed Moderators for the year beginning May 1, 1888. Messrs. J. Larmor and W. Welsh are appointed Examiners in Part I. of the Mathematical Tripos for the same year.

Dr. Smith's prizes for the present year have been adjudged as follows:—(1) Mr. Augustus Edward Hough Love, St. John's College, for an essay on "Small Free Vibrations and Deformation of a thin Elastic Shell," and on "The Force and Forced Vibrations of an Elastic Spherical Shell containing a Given Mass of Liquid." (2) Mr. Arthur Berry, King's College, for an essay on "Joint Reciprocants."

SCIENTIFIC SERIALS.

The *Quarterly Journal of Microscopical Science* for August 1887, vol. xxviii, part 1, contains the following papers:—On the anatomy of the Madrepora, part 3, by Dr. G. Herbert Fowler, (plates i. and ii.) In this memoir the author deals with the

anatomy of *Turbinaria mesenterina* (?), of *Lophohelia prolifera*, of *Seriatopora subulata*, and of *Pocillopora*, with a note on the skeleton of *Flabellum*.—On the anatomy of *Mussa corymbosa*, and *Euphyllia glabrescens*, and on the morphology of the Madreporian skeleton, by G. C. Bourne (plates iii. and iv.).—On the intra-ovarian egg of some osseous fishes, by Dr. Robert Scharff (plate v.).—Observations on the structure and distribution of striped and unstriped muscle in the animal kingdom, and a theory of muscular contraction, by C. F. Marshall (plate vi.). The author concludes that in all muscles which have to perform rapid and frequent movements a certain portion of the muscle is differentiated to perform the function of contraction, and this portion takes on the form of a very regular and highly modified intracellular network. This network, by its regular arrangement, gives rise to certain optical effects, which cause the peculiar appearances of striped muscle; the contraction of the striped muscle-fibre is probably caused by the active contraction of the longitudinal fibrils of the intracellular network; the transverse networks appear to be passively elastic, and by their elastic rebound cause the muscle to rapidly resume its relaxed condition when the longitudinal fibrils have ceased to contract; they are possibly also paths for the nervous impulse.—On the fate of the muscle-plate and the development of the spinal nerves and limb plexuses in birds and mammals, by Dr. A. M. Paterson (plates vii. and viii.).—On the ciliated pit of Ascidians and its relation to the nerve-ganglion and so-called hypophysial gland, and an account of the anatomy of *Cynthia rustica* (?), by Lilian Sheldon, Bathurst Student, Newnham College (plates ix. and x.). Suggests that the original function of the ciliated pit was the aëration of the brain, with which it communicates in the case of *Clavellina*; where also its posterior part acts as a reservoir to carry off the secretion of the gland.—On the tongue and gustatory organs of *Mephitis mephitis*, by Dr. Frederick Tuckerman (plate xi.). This memoir is preceded by an interesting account of the literature relating to the position and structure of the taste organs of vertebrates.—On the quadrate in the Mammalia, by Dr. G. Baur. He thinks that there is little doubt but that the quadrate of the lower vertebrates is contained in the syzygomatic process of the mammals.—On the hæmoglobin crystals of rodents' blood, and on an easy method of obtaining methæmoglobin crystals for microscopic examination, by Dr. W. D. Halliburton.

Bulletin de l'Académie Royale de Belgique, August.—Note on the oscillations of a pendulum produced by the displacement of the axis of suspension, by E. Ronkar. The object of these researches is to ascertain the possibility of recording the slight oscillations in the crust of the earth by means of a freely suspended pendulum. It is shown that the pendulum retains a movement imparted by a certain number of horizontal undulating impulses, whenever the duration of the oscillation of the pendulum is the same as that of the axis, but not otherwise. From this may be deduced an experimental process for determining the periodical irregularities in the movement of diurnal rotation.—On the colloidal sulphuret of cadmium, by Eug. Prost. To the colloidal solutions of arsenious, stannic, and other sulphurets already determined, the author here adds the sulphuret of cadmium, which was hitherto known only in the insoluble state. He obtains a colloidal solution of this compound by passing hydrosulphuric acid through water holding in suspension freshly precipitated cadmic sulphur, and afterwards eliminating by the action of heat the hydrosulphuric acid dissolved in the liquid. A spectroscopic study of this clear yellowish liquid shows that the cadmic sulphur is really in a state of solution, the solution presenting all the characters hitherto ascribed to all dissolved colloidal substances.—Description of some new Cucurbitaceæ, by M. Alfred Cogniaux. This paper contains an account of fourteen new species and of several varieties, forming an important addition to the author's general monograph of this family published in De Candolle's "Monographie Phanerogamum."

SOCIETIES AND ACADEMIES.

LONDON.

Entomological Society, October 5.—Dr. Sharp, President, in the chair.—Mr. Jacoby exhibited a specimen of *Aphthonoides beccarii*, Jac., a species of *Haltica* having a long spine attached to

the posterior femora; also a specimen of *Rhagiosoma madagascariensis*.—Mr. Stevens exhibited a very dark specimen of *Crambus perlellus* from the Hebrides, which its captor supposed to be a new species. Mr. Porritt remarked that this brown form of *Crambus perlellus* occurred at Hartlepool with the ordinary typical form of the species, and was there regarded as only a variety of it.—Mr. Slater exhibited a specimen of *Gonepteryx cleopatra*, which was stated to have been taken in the North of Scotland. Mr. Jenner Weir remarked that although the genus *Rhamnus*—to which the food-plant of the species belonged—was not a native of Scotland, some species had been introduced, and were cultivated in gardens.—Mr. South exhibited about 150 specimens of *Boarmia repandata*, bred from larvæ collected on bilberry in the neighbourhood of Lynmouth, North Devon, including strongly marked examples of the typical form, extreme forms of the var. *conversaria*, Hübn., a form intermediate between the type and the variety last named, and examples of the var. *destrigaria*, Haw. Mr. South said that an examination of the entire series would show that the extreme forms were connected with the type by intermediate forms and their aberrations.—Mr. Poulton exhibited young larvæ of *Apatura iris*, from the New Forest; also eight young larvæ of *Sphinx convolvuli* reared from ova laid on the 29th of August last. He said the life-history of the species was of extreme interest, throwing much light upon that of *Sphinx ligustri*, as well as upon difficult points in the ontogeny of the species of the allied genera *Acherontia* and *Smerinthus*. Mr. Stainton said he was not aware that the larvæ of *Sphinx convolvuli* had ever before been seen in this country in their early stages. Mr. McLachlan remarked that females of this species captured on former occasions, when the insect had been unusually abundant, had been found upon dissection to have the ovaries aborted.—Mr. R. W. Lloyd exhibited specimens of *Elater pomona*, and of *Mesosa nubila*, recently taken in the New Forest.—Mr. Porritt exhibited a series of melanic varieties of *Diurnea fagella*, from Huddersfield, and stated that the typical pale form of the species had almost disappeared from that neighbourhood.—Mr. Goss exhibited, for Mr. J. Brown, a number of puparia of *Cecidomyia destructor* (Hessian Fly), received by the latter from various places in Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Wiltshire. He also exhibited a living larva of *Cephus pygmaeus*, Lat. (the Corn Sawfly), which had been sent to Mr. Brown from Swaffham Prior, Cambridgeshire, where, as well as in Burwell Fen, the species was stated to have been doing considerable damage to wheat crops. Mr. Verrall, in reply to a question by Mr. Enoch, said he believed that the Hessian Fly was not a recent introduction in Great Britain, but had been here probably for hundreds of years. He admitted that he was unable to refer to any but recent records of its capture. Prof. Riley said he was unable to agree with Mr. Verrall, and believed that the Hessian Fly had been recently introduced into this country. Its presence here had not been recorded by Sir Joseph Banks, by Curtis, by Prof. Westwood, by the late Mr. Kirby, or by any other entomologist in this country who had given especial attention to economic entomology. It seemed highly improbable, if this insect had been here so many years, that its presence should have so long remained undetected both by entomologists and agriculturists. Prof. Riley said it had been stated that the insect was introduced into America by the Hessian troops in 1777, but this was impossible, as its existence at that date was unknown in Hesse. Mr. McLachlan, Capt. Elwes, Mr. Verrall, Mr. Jacoby, and Dr. Sharp continued the discussion.—Mr. J. Edwards communicated the second and concluding part of his "Synopsis of British Homoptera-Cicadina."—Prof. Westwood contributed "Notes on the life-history of various species of the Neuropterous genus *Ascalaphus*."—Capt. Elwes read a paper "On the Butterflies of the Pyrenees," and exhibited a large number of species which he had recently collected there. Mr. McLachlan said he spent some weeks in the Pyrenees in 1886, and was able to confirm Capt. Elwes' statements as to the abundance of butterflies in that part of the world. The discussion was continued by Mr. Distant, Mr. White, Dr. Sharp, and others.

Mineralogical Society, October 25.—Anniversary Meeting.—Mr. L. Fletcher, President, in the chair.—After the reading of the Report, the following were elected Officers and Council for the ensuing session:—President: L. Fletcher. Vice-Presidents: Rev. S. Houghton, F.R.S., W. H. Hudleston, F.R.S. Council (in place of Messrs. Burghardt, Danby, Dobbin, and Lewis, the retiring Members): Prof. A. H. Church, Townshend

M. Hall, Colonel C. A. M'Mahon, J. Stuart Thomson. Treasurer: Rev. Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S. General Secretary: R. H. Scott, F.R.S. Foreign Secretary: T. Davies. Auditors: B. Kitto, F. W. Rudler.—The following papers were read:—On a meteoric iron, containing crystallized chromite, found in Greenbrier Co., West Virginia, about the year 1880, by L. Fletcher, President.—On the nature and origin of clays, by J. H. Collins.—Note on the occurrence of what may prove to be a new mineral resin, by J. Stuart Thomson.—On a variety of glaucophane from the Val Chivone (Cottian Alps), by Rev. Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S.—On the discovery of leucite in Australia, by Prof. J. W. Judd, F.R.S.—On proustite containing antimony, by H. A. Miers and G. T. Prior.—Description of a new student's goniometer, by H. A. Miers.—On rutile needles in clays, by J. J. H. Teall.

PARIS.

Academy of Sciences, October 24.—M. Janssen in the chair.—On naphthol as an antiseptic, by M. Ch. Bouchard. From the experiments here described it is shown that naphthol, hitherto limited to the local treatment of certain cutaneous diseases, may with perfect safety be applied inwardly. Its antiseptic and toxic properties have been accurately determined, with the result that, owing to its slight solubility, it is to be preferred in certain cases to all known antiseptic medicines.—Remarks on the physical principle on which is based M. Clausius's new theory of steam-motors, by M. G. A. Hirn. The view here contested is that the cylinder may be regarded as impermeable to heat, and consequently that the exchange of heat between its walls and the steam at each stroke of the piston is a factor which may be neglected by the practical mechanician. M. Hirn claims that most English and American engineers have adopted his views in the "Hirn-Zeuner controversy."—On the congelation of ciders, by M. G. Lechartier. The author's experiments make it evident that the fermentation of ciders is not destroyed but only diminished even after being kept for nine days at a temperature of 18° C. below freezing-point.—Remarks accompanying the presentation of the "Statistique de la Superficie et de la Population des Contrées de la Terre," by M. E. Levasseur. This work, which appeared originally in the *Bulletin de l'Institut international de Statistique* for 1886-87, comprises 103 tables, in three parts—the first devoted to Europe, the second to the other divisions of the globe, the third to general conclusions and comparative details for the whole earth. In this part the area and population of the various divisions of the world are thus tabulated for the year 1886:—

	Area in millions of square kilometres.	Population.		
		In millions.	Density per square kilometre.	Ratio to the whole population of the world.
Europe	10'0 ...	347 ...	34 ...	23'4
Africa	31'4 ...	197 ...	6 ...	13'3
Asia	42'0 ...	789 ...	19 ...	53'2
Oceania	11 ...	38 ...	3'5 ...	2'6
North America	23'4 ...	80 ...	3'4 ...	5'4
South America	18'3 ...	32 ...	1'7 ...	2'1
	136'1	1483	10'9	100'0

It is pointed out in the introduction that nearly two-thirds of mankind are concentrated in a relatively small space, about 11 millions of square kilometres, or one-twelfth of all the dry land, divided into three great groups: West, Central, and South Europe (245 millions of inhabitants, and 3'5 millions of kilometres); the Anglo-Indian Empire (254 and 3'6); and China, with Manchuria and Japan (430 and 4).—On the third scientific voyage of the *Hirondelle*, by Prince Albert of Monaco. Besides many hundreds of floats sent adrift between the Azores and Newfoundland, several captures were made from great depths with the sounding-gear, which worked easily down to 3000 metres from the surface. Amongst the prizes were several undescribed fishes, Gorgons, siliceous Sponges of the Hexactinellid family, a soft Urchin (*Phormosoma*), numerous Amphipod and Isopod Crustaceans, Solasters, Ophiures, and Hyas of great size, besides a moon-fish weighing nearly 300 kilogrammes, and furnished with a true caudal appendage.—On Newton's chromatic circle, by M. G. Govi. It is shown that this law, of which Newton himself offered no demonstration, is often at fault,

because it expresses no certain theoretic principle, nor any rigorously observed theoretic fact. Nevertheless it may still yield approximately correct useful results when it is required to express the complex sensations experienced by the organ of sight.—Positions of Brooks's Comet (January 22, 1887) measured with the 8-inch equatorial of the Observatory of Besançon, by M. Gruy. The positions are calculated for the period ranging from February 24 to April 29.—On magnetizing by influence, by M. P. Duhem. The author communicates the chief results of some studies based on the principles of thermodynamics, and undertaken for the purpose of removing some of the difficulties presented by Poisson's theory.—Action of sulphureted hydrogen on the salts of cobalt, by M. H. Baubigny. Some years ago the author showed that all the salts of nickel are transformed to sulphides when their solutions are treated with hydrosulphuric acid at the ordinary temperature. He now shows that a like treatment of the salts of cobalt yields very similar results.—On the quantitative analysis of titanic acid, by M. Lucien Lévy. A new method of analysis is described, which is more rapid and yields more accurate results than that hitherto in use.—On certain processes capable of increasing the resistance of the organism to the action of microbes, by M. Charrin. It is shown, by experiments carried out on rabbits, that under specified conditions the resisting power of the animal may be greatly increased and rendered more or less complete and lasting by inoculating or injecting the soluble products of the cultivated virus of certain microbes.

BOOKS, PAMPHLETS, and SERIALS RECEIVED.

Philip's Handy Volume Atlas of the British Empire (Philip).—Practical Chemistry: Muir and Carnegie (Clay).—Elementary Chemistry: Muir and Slater (Clay).—Essays relating to Indo-China, 2nd series, 2 vols. (Trübner).—On a Surf-bound Coast: A. P. Crouch (Low).—The Mammoth and the Flood: H. H. Howorth (Low).—The Natural History of Commerce, 3rd ed.; The Technical History of Commerce, 3rd edition; The Growth and Vicissitudes of Commerce, 3rd edition; Recent and Existing Commerce, 3rd edition; Dr. J. Yeats (Philip).—Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, December 1886 to May 1887 (Boston).—Bulletin de la Société Impériale des Naturalistes de Moscou, 1887, No. 3 (Moscou).—Zeitschrift für Wissenschaftliche Zoologie, xlv. Band, 4 Heft (Williams and Norgate).—Morphologisches Jahrbuch, Eine Zeitschrift für Anatomie und Entwicklungsgeschichte, xiii. Band, 1 Heft (Engelmann, Leipzig).—Encyclopædie der Naturwissenschaften. Zweite Abth. 44 and 45 Lief. Handwörterbuch der Chemie; Erste Abth. 52 and 53 Lief. Handwörterbuch der Zoologie, Anthropologie, und Ethnologie (Williams and Norgate).—Journal of the Scottish Meteorological Society, 3rd series, No. iv. (Blackwood).—Animals from the Life, edited by A. B. Buckley (Stanford).

CONTENTS.

PAGE

The Zoological Results of the "Challenger" Expedition	1
The Fern Allies. By W. R. McNab	4
Our Book Shelf:—	
Elson: "The Sailor's Sky Interpreter"	5
Mackenzie: "Austral Africa"	5
Letters to the Editor:—	
Medical Education at Oxford.—George I. Wilson	5
Migration of Swallows along the Southern Coast.—W. Warde Fowler	6
Swifts.—E. Brown	6
Hughes's Induction Balance.—Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S.	6
The Fynnon Beuno and Cae Gwyn Caves.—Worthington G. Smith	7
Synthesis of Glucose. By A. E. Tutton	7
Modern Views of Electricity. Part II.—IV. (Illustrated). By Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S.	8
The Tweeddale Collection. By R. Bowdler Sharpe	13
The Storm of October 30	14
Robert Hunt, F.R.S.	14
Notes	15
Astronomical Phenomena for the Week 1887	
November 6-12	17
Geographical Notes	17
Meteorological Notes	18
The Work of the International Congress of Geologists. By G. K. Gilbert	19
University and Educational Intelligence	22
Scientific Serials	22
Societies and Academies	23
Books, Pamphlets, and Serials Received	24