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*"To the solid ground
Of Nature trusts the mind which builds for aye."*—WORDSWORTH.



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INDEX.

NAME INDEX.

- Abbot (Dr. C. G.), Solar Radiation, 212; The Number of the Stars, 903
- Abbott (W. J. Lewis), The Microscopical Examination of Flint Surfaces, 747
- Abelous and Argaud, The Different Vicariant Modalities in Animals without the Spleen, 303
- Achard (C.), L. Binet, and A. Leblanc, Death in a Super-oxygenated Atmosphere, 658
- Achard (M.), The First British Locomotives of the St. Etienne-Lyon Railway, 402
- Adam (N. K.), The Polishing of Surfaces, 162, 279
- Adams, Joy, and Humason, Spectroscopic Parallaxes, 331
- Adcock (F.), Dr. M. L. V. Gayler, and N. P. Tucker, The Production of Pure Chromium, Manganese, and Silicon, 833
- Addenbrooke (G. L.), Rotation of Bodies with Dielectric Surfaces in Electrostatic Fields, 389
- Addison (Col. G. H.), The Work of the Royal Engineers in the European War, 1914-1918. Miscellaneous, 811
- Adler (Dr. S.), and O. Theodor, The Behaviour of Cultures of *Leishmania tropica*, *L. infantum*, and *L. braziliense* in the Sandfly, *Phlebotomus papatasi*, 48; The Behaviour of Cultures of *Leishmania* sp. in *Phlebotomus papatasi*, 565
- Aiyer (T. V. Ramakrishna), Some Indian Lepidoptera with Abnormal Habits, 146
- Allan (Dr. G. E.), Tuning-Forks with Parallel Prongs, 281
- Allen (Grant), The Story of the Plants. New edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10
- Allen (Dr. G. M.), Birds and their Attributes, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
- Allen (Prof. H. S.), New Quantum Theories, 77; Spinning Electrons and Protons, 237; and I. Sandeman, Bands in the Secondary Spectrum of Hydrogen, 412
- Allen (Prof. P. W.), Industrial Fermentations, 741
- Altchidjian (Y.), The Utilisation of Liquid Fuels containing a High Proportion of Organic Sulphur Compounds as a Source of an Antidetonating Combustible, 71
- Amar (J.), Oxygen-carbon Dioxide Antagonism, 106; The Origin and Evolution of Cancer, 878
- Ambrohn (H.), and A. Frey, Das Polarisationsmikroskop: seine Anwendung in der Kolloidforschung und in der Färberei, Mar. 5, Suppt., 5
- Amery (Mr.), Speech to the Colonial Conference, 755
- Ames (Dr. J. S.), elected chairman of the U.S. National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, 900
- Amirthalingam (C.), Structure of Pearls, 854
- Amos (A.), reappointed director of the Farm of Cambridge University, 411
- Andrade (Prof. E. N. da C.), Light and Electricity, 101; The Structure of the Atom. Third edition, 554
- André (E.), and H. Canal, The Oil of *Mesopodion bidens*, 106
- André (Prof. G.), [death], 933
- André (H.), The Electrical Properties of Some Metallic Compounds, 658
- Andrew (G.), Petrographic Notes on Specimens in the 'David Forbes' Collection of Rocks in the Manchester Museum, 767
- Andrews (Dr. R. C.), On the Trail of Ancient Man: a Narrative of the Field Work of the Central Asiatic Expeditions, 521
- Andrieux, A Method of High-temperature Electrolysis of Oxygen Compounds, 302
- Annis (L. G.), The Geology of the Saltern Cove Area (Torbay), 545
- Antoniadi (E. M.), Changes observed on the planet Jupiter, 146
- Appleton (Prof. E. V.), Eclipse Phenomena, 898; Wireless Transmission and the Upper Atmosphere, 679
- Appleyard (E. T. S.), Action of Magnetic Fields on the Refractive Index of Carbon Dioxide Gas, 353
- Armellini (G.), Horizontal Diameter of the Sun in 1925 and 1926, 690
- Armstrong (Dr. E. F.), The Romance of the Organic Chemical Industry, 289
- Armstrong (Prof. H. E.), Carbon Monoxide Poisoning in the Absence of Hæmoglobin, 460; Oxygen = 17. O_φ, 51; The Horace Brown Memorial Lecture, 399; Prof. Ira Remsen, 608; Prof. E. H. Rennie, 431
- Arnall (Dr. F.), and F. W. Hodges, Theoretical Organic Chemistry. Part 1, Mar. 19, Suppt., 16
- Asdell (S. A.), and F. H. A. Marshall, Effect of the Ovarian Hormone in producing Pro-œstrous Development in the Dog and Rabbit, 220
- Ashby (E.), Biological Fact and Theory, 456; The Flora of the Grampian Mountains of Victoria, Australia, 104
- Ashworth (Prof. J. H.), Distribution of Anopheline Mosquitoes in Scotland, 513, 760
- Aston (Dr. F. W.), A New Mass-spectrograph and the Whole-number Rule (Bakerian Lecture), 945; The Constitution of Mercury derived from Coal Tar, 489
- Astruc (A.), and M. Mousseron, The Various Soluble Ferments contained in Black Mustard (*Brassica nigra*), 303
- Atkin (W. R.), Development of the Sørensen Equation for the Isoelectric Points of Ampholytes, 338
- Atkins (Dr. W. R. G.), The Soluble Silicate Content of Soils, 803
- van Aubel (E.), The Calculation of the Refractive Indices of Mixtures and the Formulæ of Dieterici and Lichteneker, 414; The Thermoelectric Power of Alloys, 414; The Viscosity of Liquid Chlorine, 373
- Aurousseau (M.), Analyses of Three Australian Rocks, 263
- Austin (Prof. J. H.), and Prof. G. E. Cullen, Hydrogen Ion Concentration of the Blood in Health and Disease, 742
- Awbery (J. H.), and Dr. Ezer Griffiths, Further Experiments with the Ewing Ball-and-Tube Flowmeter, 105; A Ball and Tube Flowmeter suitable for Pressure Circuits, 657
- Back (E. A.), and R. T. Cotton, The Biology of the Saw-toothed Grain Beetle, 368
- Baglioni (S.), L. Bracaloni, and A. Galamini, Investigation on the Physiological Action of Alcohol, 414, 479
- Baglioni (S.), and A. Galamini, Physiological Action of Alcohol (iii), 767
- Bahl (Prof. Karm Narayan), The Indian Zoological Memoirs on Indian Animal Types. 1: Pheretima (The Common Indian Earthworm), 557
- Baikie (Rev. J.), The Amarna Age: a Study of the Crisis of the Ancient World, 851
- Bailey (E. B.), Granite Domes of Vreddefort and Arran, 214; James Hutton: Father of Modern Geology, 1726-1797, 582

- Bailey (M. A.), and T. Trought, Field Trials with Cotton, 214; The Cotton Plant, 869
- Baird (J. L.), Television, 73, 101, 161, 865
- Baize (P.), The Orbit of 61 Cygni, 403
- Baker (C.), List of Second-hand Scientific Instruments, 25; Microscopes and Accessories, 172
- Baker (Dr. E. A.), Density of the Photographic Image, 685; Measurement of Radiation Intensity by Photographic Methods, 707; The Law of Blackening of the Photographic Plate at Low Density (second paper), iv., 105
- Baker (G. S.), The Value of Tank Testing, 296
- Baker (Prof. H. B.), Experiments on Molecular Complexity, 510; and H. L. Riley, The Atomic Weight of Silver, 348, 703
- Baker (T. Thorne), Wireless Pictures and Television: a Practical Description of the Telegraphy of Pictures, Photographs, and Visual Images, 887
- Balavoine (P.), The Refractive Estimation of Alcohol in Fermentation Products, 587
- Baldwin (J. M.), The Technique of the Nanson Preferential Majority System of Election, 35
- Balfour (F. R. S.), Juniper in Norway, 214
- Balfour (H.), Archæology in South Africa, 226; Coup-de-Poing, 490
- Balfour (Lord), The Pollution of Rivers and Estuaries, 327
- Ball (Prof. N. G.), Transmission of Stimuli in Plants, 638
- Ballantyne (Miss Frances M.), Air-bladder and Lungs: a Contribution to the Morphology of the Air-bladder of Fish, 181
- Balls (Dr. W. L.), appointed director of the Botanical Section of the Egyptian Ministry of Agriculture, 402
- Bamber (Ruth C.) (Mrs. Bisbee), A Simple Method of Demonstrating the Anatomy of Trematodes, 766
- Bannister (C. O.), Crystallisation of Silver Beads and Detection of Platinum Metals by the Microscope, 766
- Banta (Dr.), Genetics at the Carnegie Institution of Washington, 904
- Banting (Prof. F. G.), awarded the Cameron prize of Edinburgh University, 258
- Barber (D. R.), A New Type of Primary Cell, 892
- Barbieri (U.), Determination of Astronomical Latitude carried out at Andrate in August 1926, 623
- Barclay (D.), H. M. L. Bolus, and E. J. Steer, A Book of South African Flowers, 557
- Barfield (R. H.), Effect of a Large Number of Receiving Aerials on the Propagation of Wireless Waves, 195
- Barkla (Prof. C. G.), Modified Scattered X-Radiation due to Super-Position, 778; and Dr. G. A. Carse, Notes on Practical Physics: for Junior Students, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15
- Barnard (C.), A Dicotyledonous Fossil Wood from Ulladulla, N.S.W., 948
- Barnard (J.), [death], 754
- Barnard (J. E.), J. Smiles, and F. V. Welch, The Morphology of Filterable Viruses, 583
- Barnard (J. E.), and F. V. Welch, Practical Photomicrography. Second edition, 313
- Barnes (Prof. H. T.), Destruction of Icebergs, 761
- Barr (G.), and Isabel Hadfield, Effect of Sunlight on Cotton, 255
- Barré, A New Method of Preparing α -ketonic Acids, 690
- Barrett (Sir William), and T. Besterman, The Divining-Rod: an Experimental and Psychological Investigation, 310
- Barritt (N. W.), The Occurrence of Branched Lint Hairs in Egyptian Cotton, 392
- Barry (T. H.), Arsenic in Printing Ink, 413
- Bartholomew (Miss E. M.), and G. J. Burrows, The Preparation of certain Iodo-bismuthates, 222
- Bartlett (E. P.), Compressibility of Hydrogen and Nitrogen, 797; Concentration of Water Vapour in Compressed Gases, 440
- Bartlett (Prof. H. B.), elected president of the Botanical Society of America, 171
- Barton (H. A.), Ionisation in Hydrogen Chloride Vapour, 197
- Bartorelli (A.), A Demonstration of the Interdependence between Curie's and Haiüy's Laws, 623
- Bartsch (Dr. P.), and Mary E. Quick, Mollusc as Agent in the Sugar-cane Root Disease, 295
- Barus (Dr. C.), Pinhole Probe Experiments with Massive Air Columns, 838
- Bastings (L.), Temperature Coefficient of γ -Ray Absorption, 51
- Bate (S. C.), The Synthesis of Benzene Derivatives, 520
- Bateson (Dr. W.), an appreciation of, 828
- Bather (Dr. F. A.), Amphipneustes, 460; Biological Classification, 329; elected president of the Geological Society of London, 330; The Development of Natural History Museums, 639
- Batschinski (Prof. A.), A New Pressure-Temperature Formula for Vapours, 198
- Bauer (Dr. L. A.), Atmospheric Electricity, 457
- Baxter (G. P.), and H. W. Starkweather, The Density of Oxygen and its Compressibility below One Atmosphere (ii), 339
- Bayard (F. Campbell), [death], 326
- Bayne (C. S.), Exploring England: an Introduction to Nature-craft, 668
- Bayol (J.), P. Marcelin, and L. Mayet, A Cave with Drawings on the Walls of the Reindeer Age in the Valley of Gardon, 910
- Beacall (T.), Dr. F. Challenger, Dr. G. Martin, and Dr. H. J. S. Sand, Dyestuffs and Coal-Tar Products: their Chemistry, Manufacture and Application. Fourth edition, Mar. 9, Suppt., 17
- Beard (J. R.), Electricity Supply, 542
- Beasley (H. C.), A Crystal Mask from Tibet, 174
- Beaufoy (Mark), centenary of the death of, 792
- Beaver (Prof. J. L.), Elements of Alternating Currents and Alternating-current Apparatus, Mar. 9, Suppt., 18
- Beck (C.), Measuring Zonal Aberrations, 440; The Best Method of Illuminating Metallurgical Specimens, 766
- Beckett (Dorothy), The Influence of Separation and Pasteurisation on the Size and Distribution of Fat Globules in Milk and Cream, 658
- Becquerel (Prof. J.), Cours de physique à l'usage des élèves de l'enseignement supérieur et des ingénieurs, Tome 2, 850; L'Art musical dans des rapports avec la physique, Mar. 5, Suppt., 8
- Bedford (G. A. H.), Three New Species of Anoplura from South African mammals, 838
- Bedford (T. G.), appointed lecturer in physics in Cambridge University, 835
- de Beer (G. R.), An Introduction to Experimental Embryology, 114
- Bélař (Dr. K.), Der Formwechsel der Protistenkerne: eine vergleichend-morphologische Studie, Mar. 5, Suppt., 4
- Bell (A.), The Free Place Scholarships Examination, 1926, in Kent, 219
- Bell (F. A.), appointed secretary of the Faraday House Electrical Engineering College, 619
- Belling (Dr. J.), Multiple Chromosomes and Reduction Division in Flowering Plants, 122; The Nodes at the Reduction Division in Bivalents of Hyacinthus, 527; The Nomenclature of Chromosome Groups, 926
- Belloc (Hilaire), A Companion to Mr. Wells's "Outline of History," 75; Mr. Belloc still objects to Mr. Wells's "Outline of History," 75; Is Darwinism Dead? 277, 427, 526
- Benedict (Dr. F. G.), and E. G. Ritzman, The Fasting of Large Ruminants; The Basal Metabolism of Steers; The Metabolic Stimulus of Food in the Case of Steers, 839
- Benndorf (H.), Contributions to our Knowledge of Atmospheric Electricity (No. 68), 911
- Bennett (A. L.), awarded the Frank Smart prize in zoology of Cambridge University, 943
- Bennett (Prof. E.), and Dr. H. M. Crothers, Introductory Electrodynamics for Engineers, 595
- Benson (Prof. W. N.), Tectonics and Petrogenesis, 761
- Bentivoglio (M.), The Rate of Growth of Crystals in Different Directions, 337
- Beresovski-Chestov (T.), Statistique intellectuelle de la France, 345
- Berkeley (C. J.), 'Hard Seeds' in Leguminosæ, 198
- Bernhard (Dr. O.), Light Treatment in Surgery, 701
- Berrill (N. J.), The Control of the Beat of the Fan Segments in *Chaetopterus variopedatus*, 564
- Berry (Dr.), Fused Quartz, 250

- Berry (Sir James), elected a member of the Athenæum Club, 538
- Bersa (E.), Radio-biological Investigations: the Question of Röntgen Radiation of Seedlings, 222
- Berthelot (Prof. D.), [death], 432; [obituary], 645
- Bertrand (G.), and J. Perietzeanu, The Presence of Sodium in Plants, 621
- Besicovitch (A. S.), appointed lecturer in mathematics in Cambridge University, 943
- Best (E.), The Maori Canoe, 297; Maori Games, 795
- Bews (Prof. J. W.), resignation of the chair of botany in Armstrong College, 765
- Bhatia (D.), The Ciliated Cells of the Gill of Mytilus, 405
- Bigiavi (D.), Reactions of Nitroxyl with Aromatic Nitro-derivatives and with Azoxy-compounds, 222
- Bijl (Prof. P. A. van der), Landmarks in the Development of the Science of Plant Pathology and Disease Control, 67
- Bindra (S. S.), Fauna of Karachi, 905
- Birdwood (Field-Marshal Sir William), elected an honorary fellow of Peterhouse, Cambridge, 544
- Birkhoff (G. D.), A Theory of Matter and Electricity; The Hydrogen Atom and the Balmer Formula, 839
- Birmingham (Bishop of), The Bicentenary of Newton's Death, Mar. 26, Suppt., 21
- Bisbee (Mrs.), and Miss Catherine Herdman, Tortoiseshell Cats, 795
- Bisson de la Roque (F.), Archaeological Discoveries by, 825
- Biswas (Prof. S. C.), Ionisation Potential of Hydrogen Fluoride, 707
- Blackett (P. M. S.), The Limits of Classical Scattering, 657
- Blackie (R. C.), The Geology of the Country between Llanellidan and Bryneglwy, 878
- Blair (D. MacC.), appointed professor of anatomy at King's College, London, 799
- Bligh (N. M.), The Evolution and Development of the Quantum Theory, 193
- Bloch (L. and E.), The Spark Spectra of Bromine, 373
- Blow (T. B.), The Alleged Larvicidal Qualities of Charophyta, 945
- Blunt (H. S.), Gum Arabic: with Special Reference to its Production in the Sudan, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11
- Blyth (Miss J. S. S.), The Manoilov Reaction for the Identification of Sex and its Application to the Case of the Sexually Abnormal Fowl, 261
- Board (P.), Economic and Social Values in Education, 29
- de Boer (G. M.), X-ray Evidence for the Existence of Different Modifications of Fatty Acids, 50; X-ray Investigation of the Polymorphism of Fatty Acids, 634
- Boggild (O. B.), The Meteoric Iron Block from Savik at Cape York, 262
- Bogitch (B.), Concerning the Granulation of Scoria, 183
- Bogoiavlensky (L. N.), and A. A. Lomakin, Experiments on Highly Penetrating Radiation from the Earth, 525
- Bohr (Prof. N.), Atomic Theory and Wave Mechanics, 262
- Bolton (E. R.), elected president of the Society of Public Analysts, 436; The New Preservatives Regulations, etc., 546
- Bonacina (L. C. W.), Polar Pressures, 124
- Bond (Dr. C. J.), Pollination Experiments with Pears, 541
- Bone (Prof. W. A.), The Centenary of the Friction Match, 495; The Supposed Law of Flame Speeds, 922; and A. Forshaw, Studies upon Catalytic Combustion. Part 5, 259; R. P. Fraser, and D. A. Winter, The Initial Stages of Gaseous Explosions. Parts 1 and 2, 259; R. P. Fraser, and F. Witt, The Initial Stages of Gaseous Explosions. Part 3, 545; and D. M. Newitt, Gaseous Combustion at High Pressures. Part 7, 802; Fraser and Winter, and Fraser and Witt, Gaseous Explosions, 763
- Bonner (G. H.), The Advantages of a Classical Education, 168
- Booth (E. H.), The Microphone as a Detector of Small Vibrations; Surface Waves due to Small Artificial Distributions of the Ground, 303
- Borley (J. O.), Distribution of Food Fishes in the North Sea, 540
- Born (Prof. M.), Physical Aspects of Quantum Mechanics, 354; Probleme der Atomdynamik. Erster und Zweiter Teil, 77
- van den Bos (W. H.), Southern Double Stars, 505
- Bose (Sir J. C.), Plant Autographs and their Revelations, 919; presidential address to the Indian Science Congress, 209; Transmission of Excitation in Plants, 48
- Boswell (Prof. P. G. H.), The Salopian Rocks and Tectonics of the District South-west of Ruthin, 878
- Boubier (Dr. M.), Les oiseaux: l'ornithologie et ses bases scientifiques, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2; L'Évolution de l'ornithologie, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
- Bouglé (Prof. C.), et J. Raffault, Éléments de sociologie: textes choisis et donnés, Mar. 5, Suppt., 1
- Bourne (Dr. G.), the title of emeritus professor conferred upon, by Oxford University, 258
- Bowen (Dr. R. H.), The Problem of Secretion, 30
- Bower (Prof. F. O.), The Ferns (Filicales): Treated Comparatively with a View to their Natural Classification. Vol. 2, 191
- Bower (S. M.), Report on Winter Thunderstorms in the British Islands from January 1 to March 31, 1926, 837
- Bowie (W.), Isostasy in Spain, 27
- Bowman (E.), presented with the bronze medal of the Zoological Society of London, 790
- Boycott (Prof. A. E.), and C. Diver, The Origin of an Albino Mutation in *Limnaea peregra*, 9
- Boyd (O. C.), Copper Dusts and Sprays for Potatoes, 761
- Boyland (E.), awarded the Hill prize of Manchester University, 476
- Boyle (Hon. Robert), The Three Hundredth Anniversary of the Death of, 133
- Boys (Prof. C. V.), Progressive Lightning, 279, 816
- Bozorth (R. M.), Structure of Iron Oxide Coatings, 832
- Bozza (G.), and G. Devoto, Calculation of Chemical Affinity on the Basis of Entropy (ii), 767
- Bradford (Dr. S. C.), The Decimal Classification of Melvil Dewey and its Extension by the Brussels Institute of Bibliography, 429
- Bradley (A. J.), and J. Thewlis, The Crystal Structure of α -manganese, 877
- Bragg (Prof. W. L.), elected president of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, 794; The Structure of Phenacite, Be_2SiO_4 , 181; and J. West, The Structure of certain Silicates, 412, 477
- Bragg (Sir William), Fine Structure of Animal and Vegetable Substances as revealed by the X-rays, 66; nominated as president of the British Association for 1928, 436; Old Trades and New Knowledge: Six Lectures delivered before a 'Juvenile Auditory' at the Royal Institution, Christmas 1925, 272; Tyndall's Experiments on Magne-crystalline Action, May 7, Suppt., 61, 170
- Brambell (Dr. W. R.), Dr. A. S. Parkes, and Una Fielding, Changes in the Ovary of the Mouse following Exposure to X-rays, 2 parts, 144; and Dr. A. S. Parkes, Changes in the Ovary of the Mouse following Exposure to X-rays, 445
- Bramley (A.), Maxwell's Equations and Atomic Dynamics, 338
- Bramhall (A.), and H. F. Harwood, The Temperature-Range of Formation for Tourmaline, Rutile, Brookite, and Anatase in the Dartmoor Granite, 260
- Brauner (Prof. B.), The Atomic Weight of Silver, 348, 526
- Brazier (C. E.), The Periodicity of the Magnetic Disturbances observed at Parc Saint-Maur and at Val-Joyeux, 547
- Breasted (Prof. J. H.), The Conquest of Civilisation, 591
- Breit (Dr. G.), The Length of Light Quanta, 280
- Bresslau (Prof. E.), and Prof. H. E. Ziegler, Zoologisches Wörterbuch: Erklärung der zoologischen Fachausdrücke; zum Gebrauch beim Studium zoologischer, anatomischer, entwicklungsgeschichtlicher und naturphilosophischer Werke. Dritte Auflage, 632
- Bridgman (P. W.), The Transverse Thermo-electric Effect in Metal Crystals, 730
- Briggs (D. B.), Classified Problems in Chemistry, 668
- Briggs (G. H.), The Decrease in Velocity of α -particles from Radium C, 301; The Straggling of α -particles from Radium C, 301
- Briggs (H.), Rock-faulting from the Engineering Standpoint, 302
- Bright (Sir Charles), Electrification and the Electricity Act, 207
- Brightmore (Dr. A. W.), [death], 678

- Brillouin (L.), Is it Possible to Detect Directly the Magnetic Moment of the Electron? 302
- Brillouin (M.), Oceans and Continents, 730
- Briner (E.), and O. Agathon, On the Combinations of the Phenols with Ammonia, and the Formation of Higher Ammoniates, 262; G. Lunge, and A. Mirimanoff, The Reaction of Peroxide Nitrogen with Sulphurous Anhydride, 262; and A. Schidlof, The Ebullioscopic Paradox, 587
- Brioux (C.), and J. Pien, The Lime Requirements of Acid Soils, 183
- Briscoe, Robinson, and Smith, Density of Boron Trichloride, 727
- Bristowe (W. S.), and G. H. Locket, Courtship in Spiders, 294
- Britton (Dr. W. E.), Classification of Hemiptera, 540
- Brough (T.), Artificial Silk, 140
- Brown (D.), and Prof. R. Whiddington, Electron 'Reflection' *in Vacuo*, 427
- Brown (Prof. E. W.), Changes in the Length of the Day, 200
- Brown (G. T.), Sugar Beet in England, 795
- Brown (Dr. R. N. Rudmose), Dug-out Canoe in Algoa Bay, 856
- Brown (Prof. T. Graham), The Theory of Perception, 773
- Brown (Dr. W.), Mind and Personality: an Essay in Psychology and Philosophy, 630
- Brown (W. H.), Two-way Communication with the Antarctic, 238, 289
- Browne (Prof. E. G.), bequest to Cambridge University, 258
- Browne (W. R.), The Geology of the Gosforth District, N.S.W. Part 1, General Geology, 222; and H. P. White, On the Hypersthene-andesite of Blair Duguid, near Allandale, N.S.W., 303
- Brownlee (Dr. J.), [obituary article], 573
- Bruce (C. E. R.), and W. B. Whitney, A Convenient and Rapid Method of Sampling, 892
- Brückner (Prof. E.), [obituary article], 862
- Bruhats (G.), and M. Pauthenier, The Surface Tension of Insulating Liquids Submitted to the Electric Field, 182
- Brühl (Prof. P.), A Guide to the Orchids of Sikkim, 851
- de Bruin (T. L.), The Spectrum of Ionised Neon (Ne II), 925
- Brun (P.), The Surface Tension of Liquid Mixtures in the Neighbourhood of the Critical State, 837; The Surface Tensions of Water-alcohol Mixtures, 622
- Brunet (Prof. P.), Les physiciens hollandais et la méthode expérimentale en France au XVIII^e siècle, 812
- Brunetti (R.), Existence of the Element of Atomic Number 61, 374; Identification of the Element with Atomic Number 61, 374
- Bruylants (P.), and A. Dewael, The Action of Organomagnesium Compounds on Nitriles, 414
- Bryan, Jr. (E. H.), and others, The Insect Fauna of the Lesser-known Hawaiian Islands, 579
- Bryan (K.), Pedestal Rocks formed by Erosion, 684
- Brylinski (E.), The Relative Velocity of the Earth and the Neighbouring Ether, 373
- von Bubnoff (Prof. Serge), Geologie von Europa. Band 1: Einführung, Osteuropa, Baltischer Schild, 232
- Buchanan (D.), Periodic Orbits of the Second Genus near the Straight-line Equilibrium-points in the Problem of Three Bodies, 180
- Buckland (Lord), promised contribution to the National Museum of Wales, 97
- Buddington (A. F.), Recent Lowering of Sea-Level, 254
- Buer (Mabel C.), Health, Wealth and Population in the Early Days of the Industrial Revolution, 379; The Industrial Revolution, 671
- Bulloch (Prof. W.), Some Aspects of Lister's Scientific Work, 531
- Burch (C. R.), and N. R. Davis, Magnetic Induction in Continuous Media, 353
- Burgers (W. G.), An X-ray Investigation of Optically Anomalous Crystals of Racemic Potassium Chlorosulphoacetate, 180
- Burk (R. E.), The Thermal Decomposition of Ammonia upon the Surface of a Molybdenum Wire, 731
- Burkitt (M. C.), Our Early Ancestors: an Introductory Study of Mesolithic, Neolithic, and Copper Age Cultures of Europe and Adjacent Regions, 889; Siberian Bronze Age Cultures, 775
- Burmah Oil Company, gift to Burma University, 908
- Burnett (D.), awarded a Rayleigh Prize of Cambridge University, 444
- Burrows (G. J.), The Salinity of the Water of the Gulf of Carpentaria, 222; The Solution Volume of a Solute in Liquid Mixtures, 222
- Bury (Prof. J. B.), [obituary], 897
- Buss (A. A.), The Spectroheliograph and Direct Telescopic View of Solar Prominences, 780
- Butler (C. P.), Eclipse Photography, June 18, Suppt., 82
- Butler (Hon. Capt. R. P.), Popular Long-Range Weather Forecasts, 164
- Buttenbach (H.), A Mineral from Katanga, 910
- Butterworth (E.), A New Method of Electro-conductivity Titration, 621
- Butterworth (W.), re-elected president of the Society of Glass Technology, 827
- Butt-Thompson (Capt. F. W.), Sierra Leone: its History and Tradition, 849
- Buwalda (Dr. J. P.), Earthquake Prediction in California, 684
- Buxton (L. H. Dudley), and H. Field, Pre-Sumerian Man in Arabia, 651
- Buxton (Dr. P. A.), Haviland's Forest, Steppe and Tundra, 385; The Empty Quarter, 381
- Bywaters (H. W.), F. T. Maggs, and C. J. Pool, The Determination of Illipé Butter in Chocolate, 546
- Cabannes (J.), and P. Daure, The Absolute Measurement of the Intensity of the Light diffused by Benzene in the Liquid State, 546
- Cadman (Sir John), Petroleum in Persia, 762
- Calder (A.), A Case of Partial Sex-transformation in Cattle, 946; Rôle of Interbreeding in the Development of the Clydesdale Breed of Horses, 621
- Calderwood (W. L.), Salmon of the River Grand Cascapea, Canada, 513
- Callendar (Prof. H. L.), and others, Dopes and Detonations, 542
- Callendar (L. H.), The Influence of Boundary Films on Corrosive Action, 877
- Calman (Dr. W. T.), appointed Keeper of Zoology in the British Museum (Natural History), 398; elected president of the Quekett Microscopical Club, 330; The Giant Tereido, 104
- Cambi (L.), and Ada Clerici, Ferroso-ferric Cyanides, 622; and L. Szegő, Constitution and Absorption Spectra of the Iron Nitrososulphides, 374
- Cameron (Prof. A. T.), Designation of Thyroxine, 925
- Cameron (Sir Hector Clare), Centenary of Lord Lister, 1827-1927. Reminiscences of Lister and of his Work in the Wards of the Glasgow Royal Infirmary, 1860-1869, 570
- Campardou (J.), The General Preparation of Hydrocarbons by the Reduction of Organic Substances, 690
- Campbell (A.), A Capacitance Bridge of Wide Range and a New Inductometer, 221
- Campbell (Prof. C. M.), Delusion and Belief, 487
- Campbell (Dr. D. H.), An Outline of Plant Geography, 701
- Campbell (Dr. Norman R.), Philosophical Foundations of Quantum Theory, 779
- Campbell (Dr. T. D.), and Dr. A. J. Lewis, Anthropometry of the Aborigines of South Australia, 138
- Cannon (Prof. H. G.), awarded the Crisp medal of the Linnean Society, 649; On the Feeding Mechanism of *Nebalia bipes*, 803; presented with the Crisp award and medal of the Linnean Society, 866; and Miss S. M. Manton, On the Feeding Mechanism of a Mysid Crustacean (*Hemimysis larmornæ*), 105; The Segmental Excretory Organs of Crustacea, 301
- Canti (R. G.), and M. Donaldson, The Effect of Radium on Mitosis *in vitro*, 144
- Canu (F.), gift to the Smithsonian Institution of his Collection of Fossil Invertebrates, 291
- Carhart (Dr. D.), [death], 132
- Carobbi (G.), New Researches on Noteworthy Vesuvian Sublimates, 107
- Carpenter (Dr. G. H.), Further Records of Collembola from Spitsbergen, 413
- Carpenter (Prof. H. C. H.), Some Recent Services of Metallurgy to Engineering (James Forrest Lecture), 927; and S. Tamura, The Formation of Twin Metallic Crystals, 120

- Carr (Lieut. C. R.), and Lieut. L. E. M. Gillman, a Long-distance Aeroplane Flight, 792
- Carr (Prof. H. Wildon), Relativity and the Observer, 199
- Carrelli (Prof. A.), The Paramagnetism of the Elements between Calcium and Zinc, 414; The Spinning Electron in Wave Mechanics, 492
- Carr-Saunders (Prof. A. M.), appointed Herbert Spencer lecturer of Oxford University for 1928, 907
- Carson (J. R.), Electric Circuit Theory and the Operational Calculus, Mar. 19, Suppt., 18
- Carter (Dr. P. G.), appointed lecturer in organic chemistry in Sydney University, 656
- Casale (Dr. L.), [obituary], 609
- Casanowicz (I. M.), Oriental Seals, 294
- Case (Prof. E. C.), Climate and Animal Evolution, 940
- Castan (Dr. P.), La chimie des matières colorantes organiques, Mar. 5, Suppt., 7
- Cathcart (Prof. E. P.), Efficiency or Effectivity? 599; The Physique of Women employed in Industry, 299
- Cathcart (G. L.), [death], 609
- Catlin (Prof. G. E. G.), The Science and Method of Politics, 519
- Cave (Capt. C. J. P.), Pinholes in Photographic Negatives, 852; Popular Long-Range Weather Forecasts, 52, 167
- Cavendish (Henry), The work of, and proposed memorial to, 899
- Chadwick (Dr. J.), reappointed lecturer in physics and assistant director of radio-active research in Cambridge University, 943
- Challenger (Dr. F.), V. Subramaniam, and Dr. T. W. Walker, Formation of Organic Acids from Sugars by *Aspergillus niger*, 674
- Chalmers (D.), Worm Parasites of Common Marine Fishes, 546
- Chamberlain (Neville), speech at the unveiling of a memorial plaque to Sir Patrick Manson, 468; speech at opening of new laboratories of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, 724
- Chamberlin (C.), and Mr. Levine, A Record Non-stop Aeroplane Flight, 865
- Chamberlin (F.), The Prehistoric Monuments of Minorca, 61
- Chandler (Dr. A. C.), Animal Parasites and Human Disease. Third edition, 885
- Chandler (Prof. W. H.), Fruit Growing, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11
- Chapman (A. Chaston), The Growth of the Profession of Chemistry during the Past Half-century (1877-1927), 913
- Chapman (E. A.), Four Peculiar Pearl Shells, 864
- Chapman (F.), A Silurian Jellyfish, 514; On a Limestone containing *Lepidocyclina* and other Foraminifera from the Cape Range, Exmouth Gulf, Western Australia, 514
- Chapman (Dr. F. M.), The Distribution of Bird-Life in Ecuador, 336
- Chapman (G. B.), purchase of an estate for a public zoological gardens, 502
- Chapman (Sir Sydney), elected a member of the Athenæum Club, 364
- Chapman (Prof. S.), The Sun, the Earth's Atmosphere, and Radio Transmission, 428; and A. E. Ludlam, Elastic Constants of Calcite and Crystalline Sodium Nitrate, 877
- Charlesworth (Prof. J. K.), The Glacial Origin of Drumlins, 727
- Chatterji (M. M.), Brahmanism in Bengal; a Study of Some Bengali Customs, 146
- Chaturvedi (M. D.), Measurements of the Cubical Contents of Forest Crops: being a Critical Investigation into the Methods of Measuring Sample Plots, with special reference to the Liability to Error, 192
- Chaudhuri (A. C.), The Erythrocyte Count in Sexually Normal and Abnormal Fowls, 145
- Chauvenet (W. M.), [death], 168
- Cheesman (Major R. E.), In Unknown Arabia, 381
- Cherbuliez (E.), The Destruction of Organic Matter with the Aid of Perchloric Acid, 514; and P. Rosenberg, Researches on the Silicates, 587; and R. Wahl, The Hydrofluoric Hydrolysis of the Proteids, 262
- Chesters (C. G. C.), appointed assistant lecturer in botany in Birmingham University, 32
- Chevallier (R.), A New Ferromagnetic Ferric Oxide, 622
- Chevenard (P.), and A. Portevin, The Influence of Carbon and Silicon on Graphite Formation in White Cast Irons, 182
- Chhibber (H. L.), The Serpentine Belt of Burma, 726
- Childe (V. Gordon), appointed Abercromby professor of archæology in Edinburgh University, 511
- Chippindale (H. G.), appointed research assistant in mycology in Manchester University, 372
- Chittenden (R. J.), and Caroline Pellew, A Suggested Interpretation of Certain Cases of Anisogony, 10
- Chladni (E. F. F.), centenary of the death of, 503
- Chodat (F.), The Importance of Isoelectric Points in the Preparation and Activity of Ferments, 587
- Chree (Dr. C.), Atmospheric Electricity, 458; Wireless Communication and Terrestrial Magnetism, 82
- Christy (Miller), The Bryant and May Museum of Fire-making Appliances: Catalogue of the Exhibits, 777
- Chubb (L. J.), The Geology of the Austral or Tubuai Islands, Southern Pacific, 261; and W. Campbell Smith, The Geology of Maiao (Society Islands), 585
- Church (Major A. G.), East Africa, a New Dominion: a Crucial Experiment in Tropical Development and its Significance to the British Empire, 917
- Claparède (E.), The Greatness of Pestalozzi and its Numerical Evaluation, 514
- Clapham (A. R.), appointed Frank Smart student in botany in Cambridge University, 143
- Clark (Dr. L. H.), The Scattering of Gamma Rays, 121
- Clark (Dr. R. J.), appointed lecturer, etc., in the Department of Natural Philosophy of Edinburgh University, 372
- Clark (W. E. Le Gros), appointed professor of anatomy at St. Bartholomew's Medical College, 511
- Clarke (S. G.), The Separation of Vanadium and Tungsten, 836
- Claude (G.), and P. Boucherot, The Utilisation of the Thermal Energy of the Sea, 70, 106
- Clay (Dr. R. S.), elected president of the Optical Society, 365
- Claye (H.), appointed an assistant registry of Cambridge University, 69
- Clinton (Lord), Small Holdings and Forestry, 175
- Close (Sir Charles), Population and Migration, 142
- Clough (F. H.), The Stability of Large Power Systems, 364
- Clowes (G. S. Laird), Dug-out Canoe in Algoa Bay, 856
- Coates (W. H.), The Mystery of Money, 47
- Cobb (Prof. J. W.), Some Properties of Coke, 751
- Cobbold (E. S.), The Stratigraphy and Geological Structure of the Cambrian Area of Comley (Shropshire), 620
- Cockerell (Prof. T. D. A.), Larger Aspects of Natural Selection, 564; Scientific Achievement and Aptitude, 84
- Cohen (Prof. E.), The Kamerlingh Onnes Memorial Lecture, 288
- Colange (G.), The Influence of Temperature on Photographic Impressions, 946; The Mechanism of the Electrolytic Interrupter, 182
- Coleclough (J. E.), Steers's Map Projections, 888
- Coleman (Prof. A. P.), dinner and presentation to, 504
- Coleman (Dr. G. S.), and G. M. Flood, Civil Engineering Specifications and Quantities, 701
- Coleman (J. B.), and Dr. F. Arnall, The Preparation and Analysis of Organic Compounds, 851
- Colin (H.), and Mlle. A. Chaudin, The Law of Hydrolysis of Saccharose by Acids, 182; Mutarotation and the Alkalinity of the Medium, 658
- Collet (Mlle. P.), Paramagnetism independent of Temperature, 106
- Collingridge (Dr. W.), [death], 678; [obituary article], 789
- Collins (S. H.), and G. Redington, Plant Products, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11
- Collins (W. D.), Water and Industrial Development, 796
- Colvin (Sir Sidney), [death], 754
- Comel (M.), The Influence of the Hydrogen Ion Concentration on the Respiratory Exchanges of the Tissues, 767
- Comrie (Dr. L. J.), Computing Machines, 870; The Prediction of Eclipses, June 18, Suppt., 73
- Constable (Dr. F. H.), A New Method of Measuring the Absolute Surface Area of a Metallic Catalyst, 349; Effect of the Addition of Successive Small Quantities of Poisonous Substances on the Velocity of Catalytic Gas Reactions in Closed Vessels, 945; Surface Adsorption and the Velocity of Chemical Action at Gas-solid Interfaces, 445; The Cause of the Colours shown during the Oxidation of Metallic Copper, 877

- Constantinides (P. A.), Ionisation Phenomena in Active Nitrogen, 163
- Conway (Prof. A. W.), Undulatory Theory of Two Electron Orbits, 878
- Cook (Surg.-Genl. H.), [death], 933
- Cook (O. F.), and J. W. Hubbard, New Cotton Species, 796
- Cook (W. R. I.), The Genus *Ligniera*, 33; Influence of Environment on *Ligniera Juncei*, 657
- Cooke (W. E.), and C. F. Hill, Pneumokoniosis due to Asbestos Dust, 766
- Coolidge (Dr. W. D.), awarded the Edison medal of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, 251
- Coombs (F. A.), W. McGlynn, and M. B. Welch, Notes on Wattle Barks. Part 2, 303
- Cooper (A. R.), The Electrical Equipment of the Track of London Underground Railways, 95
- Cooper (Sybil), D. E. Denny-Brown, and Sir Charles S. Sherrington, Interaction between Ipsilateral Spinal Reflexes acting on the Flexor Muscles of the Hind-limb, 512
- Copeman (Dr. M.), Rev. Stephen Hales, 936
- Copeman (Dr. S. M.), and Dr. M. Greenwood, Diet and Cancer, with special reference to the Incidence of Cancer upon Members of Certain Religious Orders, 297
- Corbino (O. M.), The Electronic Theory of the Voltaic Cell, 622; The Volta Effect and the Mechanism of the Voltaic Pile, 622
- Cork (J. M.), C. James, and H. C. Fogg, The Concentration and Identification of the Element of Atomic Number 61, 339
- Corless (R.), Meteorological Conditions in Relation to Eclipse Observations, June 18, Suppt., 79
- Corner (E. J. H.), awarded the Frank Smart prize in botany of Cambridge University, 943
- Corner (Prof. G. W.), Medieval Anatomical Texts, 939
- Corrie (F. E.), Lime in Agriculture. 1: in Plant Nutrition, 2: in Animal Nutrition; a Handbook for Practical Farmers, Students, and others, 313
- Cotsworth (M. B.), Calendar Reform, 613
- Cottesloe (Lord), The Radcliffe Science Library, Oxford, 350
- Couder (A.), A New Type of Photographic Telescope, 182; A. Danjon, and A. Dufay, The Astronomical Quality of the Sky of Haute-Provence, 221
- Coupin (H.), The Influence of Calcium on *Penicillium glaucum*, 658
- la Cour (Dr. D.), The Pycnosonde, 369
- Coursey (P. R.), and H. Andrewes, Apparatus required to operate Radio-receiving Sets from Electric-lighting Mains, 610
- Coverlid (Alice M.), The Leaves of *Grewia polygama*, 838
- Cowan (T.), gifts to Edinburgh University, 372, 907
- Coward (H. F.), and G. W. Jones, The Propagation of Flame, 581; and E. G. Meiter, Ignition of Methane by Spark Discharge, 616
- Cowdry (Dr. E. V.), Micro-organisms in Ticks, 507
- Cox (Catherine Morris), and others, The Early Mental Traits of Three Hundred Geniuses, 695
- Craib (Prof. W. G.), *Floræ Siamensis Enumeratio*: a List of the Plants known from Siam, with Records of their Occurrence. Vol. 1, Parts 1 and 2, 633
- Crandall (Dr. I. B.), [obituary], 933
- Crawford (O. G. S.), Prehistoric Archaeology in Yorkshire, 494
- Crew (Dr. F. A. E.), The Laying Hen with Cock's Plumage (iii.), 877
- Crommelin (Dr. A. C. D.), Comets and the Law of Gravitation, 464; Future Total Solar Eclipses in the British Isles, June 18, Suppt., 77; retirement from the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, 790
- Crompton, The centenary of the death of, 899
- Cross (C. F.), Lignin and Lignification, 5
- Crossland (Dr. C.), Recession of the Tahitian Coral Reefs, 597
- Crossley (Dr. A. W.), [death], 397; [obituary article], 498
- Crow (Dr. W. B.), Phylogeny and Classification, 26
- Culpin (Dr. M.), Behind the Divining Rod, 783
- Cumming (C.), Reinvestigation of the Eye of the Mole, 546
- Cunningham (G. H.), Gasteromycetes of Australasia (vi.), 263
- Cunningham (J. T.), Biological Fact and Theory, 563; Natural Ambicoloration and the Production of Pigment in Flat-fishes, 513
- Curie (Mme.), elected an honorary member of the Russian Academy of Sciences, 793
- Currie (Ethel D.), Jurassic and Eocene Echinoidea from Somaliland, 946
- Cusmano (G.), New Process of Dehydrogenation of Menthol, 107
- Cussons, Ltd. (G.), List of Apparatus for Technical Schools and Colleges, 828; List of Mathematical Models, 905; The Scholes Bomb Calorimeter, 296
- Crivić (Prof. Y. Tzvyitch), [death], 432
- Da Fano (Dr. C.), [obituary article], 534
- Dakin (Prof. W. J.), Four Peculiar Pearl Shells, 864; The Elements of General Zoology: a Guide to the Study of Animal Biology, correlating Function and Structure; with Notes on Practical Exercises, 631
- Dale (Dr. H. H.), nominated a member of the General Council of Medical Education, etc., 681
- Dall (Prof. W. H.), [death], 678; New Species of Mollusca in the U.S. National Museum, 869
- Daly (Dr. I. de Burgh), appointed professor of physiology in Birmingham University, 875
- Dammerman (Dr. K. W.), The Fauna of Durian and the Rhio-Lingga Archipelago, 371
- D'Ancona (U.), Growth of the Tiber Shad, 691
- Daniel (R. J.), Method of Staining and Cleaning Crustacea, 766
- Danjon (A.), The Interferential Study of Scintillation and the Conditions of Stability of Telescopic Images, 106
- Darbishire (O. V.), *Isidia* and *Soralia* of Lichens, 33
- Darlington (C. D.), The Behaviour of Polyploids, 390
- Darwin (Prof. C. G.), The Electron as a Vector Wave, 282; The Zeeman Effect and Spherical Harmonics, 801; and W. H. Watson, The Constants of the Magnetic Dispersion of Light, 412
- Darzens (G.), A Method of Preparation of α substituted Valerolactones, 146; and A. Heinz, *p*-Xylyl-allyl-acetic Acid and its Conversion into Cyclic Tetrahydronaphthalene derivatives, 262
- Das (S.), Estimation of Phosphates in Calcareous Silos, 176
- Davidson (J.), On the Occurrence of Intermediates in *Aphis rumicis* L., 546
- Davies (G. McDonald), conferment upon, of the title of reader in geology in London University, 219
- Davies (Sir H. Walford), elected a member of the Athenæum Club, 538
- Davies (J. Griffiths), The Chromosome Number in *Dactylis glomerata* (Cocksfoot), 236
- Davies (J. H.), and A. E. Trueman, A Revision of the Non-marine Lamellibranchs of the Coal Measures, and a Discussion of their Zonal Sequence, 105
- Davies (L. M.), The Ranikot Beds of Thal (N.W.P. of India), 105
- Davies (Mrs. N. de Garis), Copies of Frescoes from Theban Tombs in the British Museum, 723
- Davis (R. A.), Citrus Growing in South Africa, 776
- Davison (Dr. C.), The Japanese Earthquake of Mar. 7, 1927, 443
- Davisson (C.), and L. H. Germer, The Scattering of Electrons by a Single Crystal of Nickel, 558
- Dawber (E. G.), elected a member of the Athenæum Club, 211
- Dawson (H. M.), and C. R. Hoskins, Isohydric Solutions and the Velocity of Chemical Change, 35; and L. H. Angus, The Nature of Solutions of the Strong Acids from the Standpoint of the Salt Effect: the System Nitric Acid, Sodium Nitrate, 35
- Dawson (L. H.), Piezo-electricity of Quartz, 870
- Dawson (W. Bell), Icebergs in Relation to Water-Temperature, 236
- Deacon (A. B.), [obituary article], 609
- Deans (Isobel), The Genus *Hicksonia*, an Account of a New Species, 546
- Debenham (F.), appointed reader in geography in Cambridge University, 835
- Debye (Prof. P.), The Scattering of X-Rays, 474; and C. Manneback, The Symmetrical Top in Wave Mechanics, 83

- De Carli (F.), Additive Compounds of Sulphur Dioxide and Aromatic Hydrocarbons, 222; Additive Products of Sulphur Dioxide with Aromatic Hydrocarbons, 374; Anhydrous Borates of Silver, Barium, and Zinc, 479; Reactivity of Manganese Dioxide in the Solid State, 414
- Defant (Prof. A.), Wetter und Wettervorhersage (Synoptische Meteorologie), Zweite Auflage, 843
- Déjardin (G.), The Spark Spectrum of Mercury in the Extreme Ultra-violet, 221
- Delafosse (M.), [obituary article], 206
- Delaplace (R.), and N. Marinesco, Some Physico-chemical Properties of Cæsium Eosinate, 146
- Delépine (M.), The Oxidation with Permanganate of Pyridine and the Pyridine Nucleus, 373
- De Lorenzo (G.), The *Elephas antiquus* of Pignataro, 333
- Delsman (Dr. H. C.), Freshwater Eels in Java, 579; The Eggs and Young of Halobates, 651
- De Luc (J. A.), The bicentenary of the birth of, 207
- Demerec (M.), Miniature-a—a Second Frequently Mutating Character in *Drosophila virilis*, 338
- Deming (Prof. H. G.), and Prof. S. B. Aronson, Exercises in General Chemistry and Qualitative Analysis. Second edition, 702
- Denigès (G.), A New Method for the Volumetric Estimation of Molybdenum, 446
- Denne (M. T.), A New Apparatus for Casting Paraffin Embedding Blocks, 70
- Denning (W. F.), A Fireball on June 10, 938; Brilliant Fireball on Feb. 25, 366; Fireball of Mar. 1, 471; The Fireball of Feb. 25, 403
- Dennison (D. M.), Wave Mechanics and the Rotation of Homopolar Molecules, 316
- Deodhar (G. B.), Electricity of Dust Clouds, 586
- Descamps (R.), The Anomalous Rotatory Dispersion in the Ultra-violet of Three Aqueous Solutions of Tartaric Acid containing Boric Acid, 513
- Des Coudres (Prof.), [obituary], 645
- Desgrez (A.), L. Lescœur, and Mlle. S. Manjean, The Influence of the Ionic Reaction on the Decomposition of Sulphide Waters by a Current of Inert Gas: Hydrological Applications, 182
- Deslandres (Dr. H.), The Law of Distribution of Magnetic Storms and of their Elements, 221
- Devaux (H.), and E. Aubel, The Absorption of Ions by Glass, 587
- Devries and Rodebush, Thermal Dissociation of Iodine and Bromine, 797
- Dickinson (H. W.), The Industrial Revolution, 818
- Dickinson (R. E.), Electric Trains, Mar. 19, Suppt., 19
- Dickinson (R. G.), and A. C. G. Mitchell, Decomposition of Ammonia by Optically Excited Mercury Atoms, 339
- Dickinson (S.), Experiments on the Physiology and Genetics of the Smut Fungi: Hyphal Fusion, 220
- Diels (Prof. L.), und Prof. G. Samuelsson. Herausgegeben von Prof. E. Hannig und Prof. H. Winkler. Die Pflanzenareale. 1 Reihe. Heft 1 und 2, Mar. 5, Suppt., 5
- Dimpleby (Violet), S. English, Prof. W. E. S. Turner, and F. Winks, The Properties of Some Soda-lead Oxide Glasses, 621
- Dines (W. H.), Meteorology: Ancient and Modern, 915
- Dingle (Prof. H.), Astrophysical Eclipse Problems, June 18, Suppt., 88; The Double Normal State of the Arc Spectrum of Fluorine, 86
- Dinsdale (A.), Television (Seeing by Wire or Wireless), 887; The Activities of the National Broadcasting Company of America, 901
- Dirac (P. A. M.), The Quantum Theory of Dispersion, 802; The Physical Interpretation of the Quantum Dynamics, 181; The Quantum Theory of the Emission and Absorption of Radiation, 338
- Dive (P.), The Impossibility of an Ellipsoidal Stratification of the Planets, 622
- Dixey (Dr. F.), The Tertiary and Post-tertiary Lacustrine Sediments of the Nyasan Rift-valley, 181
- Dixon (Prof. H. B.), and W. F. Higgins, The Burning of Gases in Nitrous Oxide, 296
- Dixon (Prof. H. H.), and T. A. Bennet-Clark, Electric Currents and Plant Tissues, 580; The Electrical Stimulation of Plant Tissues, 105
- Dixon (M.), On the Mechanism of Oxidation-reduction Potential, 145
- Dobson (Dr. G. M. B.), D. N. Harrison, and J. Lawrence, Measurements of Ozone in the Earth's Atmosphere and its Relation to Other Geophysical Conditions, Pt. 2, 337; and I. O. Griffith, Measurements of Absorption Coefficients of Light Filters, 585
- Doering (C. R.), The Death Rate from Diphtheria in Massachusetts for 51 Years, 1875-1925, 659
- Donnan (Prof. F. G.), elected a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Amsterdam, 902
- Dorfman (J.), The Intrinsic Fields in Ferromagnetic Substances, 353
- Dörr (Dr. J. N.), Tafeln zur Bestimmung des Wasserdampfgehaltes der Luft mittelst eines Haarhygrometers und Thermometers gerechnet und erläutert. Anleitung zur Behandlung eines Haarhygrometers und zur Verwertung für die lokale Wettervorhersage. Von Dr. A. Schlein, 116
- Double (I. S.), The Microscopic Characters of Certain Horizons of the Upper Chalk, 766
- Douglas (A. V.), Spectroscopic Parallaxes, 331
- Douglas (C. K. M.), presented with the Buchan prize of the Royal Meteorological Society, 169
- Doumer (E.), The Electrolysis of Aqueous Solutions of Pure Oxalic Acid, 658
- Douris (R.), and G. Giquel, A Method of Differentiation of Pathological Sera (Cancer, Syphilis, Tuberculosis), 587
- Dove (W. E.), and G. F. White, Creeping Eruption in America, 367
- Dovey (E. R.), The Rapid Determination of Opium in Stomach Contents, 34
- Dowson (W. J.), An Unusual Species of Botrytis attacking Narcissus, 33
- Drechsel (Kommandør C. F.), [death], 432
- Driberg (J. H. P.), to conduct an Anthropological Investigation among the Tribes of the South Abyssinian Frontier, 248
- Drinker (C. K.), and E. D. Churchill, A Graphite Suspension for Intravital Injection of Capillaries, 878
- Druce (Dr. G. C.), elected a fellow of the Royal Society, 755
- Druce (Dr. J. G. F.), Reymond's History of the Sciences in Greco-Roman Antiquity, 776
- Drysdale (Dr. C. V.), Moving Magnet Galvanometers, 941; Progress in Electrical Instrument Design and Construction, 101
- Dudeny (H.), Puzzle Crazes, 65
- Duerden (Prof. J. E.), The Coat of Sheep, 815
- Duerst (Dr. J. U.), The Growth of Horns, 472
- Duffendack (Prof. O. S.), and H. L. Smith, Simultaneous Ionisation and Excitation by Foreign Ions in a Gaseous Mixture, 743
- Dufraisse (C.), and P. Gailliot, Peculiarities of the Fractures of Acrolein Gels: Rhythmic Production of Ridges, 71
- Dufton (A. F.), Solar Radiation and Atherness, 14; Solar Radiation and Diathermancy, 460
- Dumanois (P.), Concerning the Use in Internal Combustion Motors of Slightly Inflammable Combustibles, 182
- Dumble (E. T.), [death], 678
- Dunkerley (H. M.), Refrigeration in the Chemical Industry, 23
- Dunn (G.), elected chairman of the U.S. National Research Council, 937
- Dunn (H. K.), The Photo-electric Properties of Mercury, 941
- Dunne (J. W.), An Experiment with Time, 847
- Dunniclif (H. B.), and Kishen Lal, The Determination of Free Mercury in Commercial Products, 690
- Dunsheath (P.), 33,000-volt Cables, 210
- Duparc (L.), An Amphibole of the Glaucofane Group, 767; The Tectonic of Abyssinia, 514
- Du Pasquier (Prof. L.-G.), Le calcul des probabilités: son évolution mathématique et philosophique, 921
- Dupouy (G.), A Direct Reading Apparatus for the Measurement of Magnetic Fields. A Gaussmeter, 478
- Durand (J. F.), and M. Banos, The Addition of Acetylene to Carbon Monoxide: the Synthesis of Quinone, 837
- Durand (Dr. P.), and T. Lavauden, Rock Paintings from the Central Sahara, 404

- Durell (C. V.), *Readable Relativity: a Book for Non-specialists*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14
- Du Toit (Dr. A. L.), *The Geology of South Africa*, 665
- Dutt (P. K.), *Anilopyrine and Antipyrine*, 35
- Dymond (Dr. E. G.), *Electron Scattering in Helium*, 581; *Excitation by High Velocity Electrons*, 945
- Dyson (Sir F. W.), *Conceptions of the Cosmos from the Times of Copernicus to Galileo*, 328; *elected president of the Institute of Physics*, 758; *Newton's Work in Astronomy*, Mar. 26, Suppt., 30
- East (E. M.), *Inheritance of Trimorphism in *Lythrum salicaria**, 839
- Eastman (G.), *awarded the Progress medal of the Royal Photographic Society*, 133
- Eccles (Dr. W. H.), *Wireless Communication and Terrestrial Magnetism*, 157
- Eckart (C.), *The Correspondence Principle in the New Quantum Theory*, 338
- Eckersley (T. L.), *A Quantum Relation in Large Scale Electric Wave Phenomena*, 234; *Short-wave Radio Telegraphy*, 401
- Eddington (Prof. A. S.), *The Gifford Lectures*, 170, 208, 249, 289, 328, 363, 399, 434, 468; *The Internal Constitution of the Stars*, 111
- Edgcombe (Lieut.-Col. K.), and F. E. J. Ockenden, *Instruments for Measuring Alternating Currents*, 334
- Edgell (Dr. Beatrice), *The title of professor of psychology conferred upon*, 258
- Edser (E.), *Science and Wonderland*, 435
- Edwardes (S. M.), [obituary article], 93
- Edwards (Prof. C. A.), *appointed principal of the University College of Swansea*, 765
- Egerton (A.), and S. F. Gates, *On Detonation of Gaseous Mixtures at High Initial Pressures and Temperatures* (2), 259; *On Detonation of Gaseous Mixtures of Acetylene and of Pentane* (1), 259; *The Action of 'Antiknocks'*, 427
- Eggleton (P. and M. G.), *The Significance of Phosphorus in Muscular Contraction*, 194
- Ehrenfest (Prof. P.), *Relation between the Reciprocal Impenetrability of Matter and Pauli's Exclusion Principle*, 196; *A Correction*, 602
- Eiffel (G. A.), *proposed memorial to*, 209
- Eigenmann (Prof. C. H.), [death], 862
- Einstein (Prof. A.), *elected an honorary member of the Russian Academy of Sciences*, 793
- Eisenhart (Prof. L. P.), *Riemannian Geometry*, 117
- Eismont (Dr. L.), *Studies on Sanguincola*, 580
- Elam (C. F.), *Tensile Tests on Alloy Crystals* (i., ii., iii.), 877
- Ellis (C. D.), and W. A. Wooster, *The Absolute Intensities of the γ -rays of Radium-B and Radium-C*, 657; *The Continuous Spectrum of β -rays*, 563; *The Photographic Action of β -rays*, 301; *The Relative Intensities of the Groups in the Magnetic β -ray Spectra of Radium B and Radium C*, 301
- Ellis (O. C. de C.), *Flame Movement*, 870
- Ells (S. C.), *Bituminous Sands of Northern Alberta*, 66
- Elmen (G. W.), *awarded the John Scott medal*, 24
- Elsdon (G. D.), and J. R. Stubbs, *The Immersion Refractometer and its Value in the Analysis of Milk*, 413
- Elton (C. S.), *The Nature and Origin of Soil-polygons in Spitsbergen*, 181
- Emel us (Dr. K. G.), and N. L. Harris, *The Geissler Discharge in Argon*, 602
- Emerson (Prof. P.), *Soil Characteristics: a Field and Laboratory Guide*, 596
- Emich (F.), *The Observation of 'Streaks' (Schlieren) in Chemical Experiments*, 659
- English Electric Co., *Electric Locomotives for Haulage Work in Factories*, 936
- Ephraim (Prof. F.), *English Edition by P. C. L. Thorne, A Text-book of Inorganic Chemistry*, 7
- Epstein (P. S.), *On the Evaluation of certain Integrals Important in the Theory of Quanta*, 147; *Schr dinger's Quantum Theory*, 838
- Errera (J.), *The Polarisation of a Medium and its Molecular Structure*, 373
- Estabrook (A. H.), and I. E. McDougale, *Mongrel Virgilians: The Win Tribe*, 812
- Evans (B. S.), *New Processes for the Determination of certain Elements in Lead*, 837
- Evans (Prof. C. Lovatt), *Recent Advances in Physiology*. Second edition, 596
- Evans (Dr. J. W.), *Regions of Compression*, 15, 55; *Radioactivity and the Heat of the Earth*, 424
- Evans (Dr. S.), *The Politician and Political Economy*, 67
- Evans (U. R.), *Corrosion of Metal Joints*, 941
- Eve (Prof. A. S.), and A. J. Fleming, *Rate of Work done by Athletes*, 86
- Ewart (Prof. A. J.), *Past, Present, and Future Development of Botanical Science*, 29; and L. R. Kerr, *Contributions to the Flora of Australia*, No. 32, 35; and Phyllis Jarrett, *Contributions to the Flora of Australia*, No. 33, 838
- Ewart (Prof. J. Cossar), *The Coat of Sheep*, 426
- Ewing (Sir J. Alfred), *The Steam-Engine and other Heat-Engines*. Fourth edition, 633
- Eyraud (Prof. H.), *Les  quations de la dynamique de l' ther*, 347
- Faber (H.), *The Warble-fly in Denmark*, 174
- Fair (T. K. W.), *appointed demonstrator in agricultural physiology in Cambridge University*, 835
- Fairweather (D. A.), and O. J. Walker, *Mechanism of Kolbe's Electrosynthesis*, 215
- Fantham (Prof. H. B.), *elected president of the South African Association*, 68
- Farmer (E.), and E. G. Chambers, *Individual Difference in Accident Rates*, 332
- Farmer (Sir J. B.), and Dr. H. Chaudhuri, *A Practical Introduction to the Study of Botany*. New edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10
- Farr (Prof. C. C.), *Science in Japan*, 407
- Farrington (A.), *The Topographical Features of the Granite-schist Junction in the Leinster Chain*, 145
- Fath (Prof. E. A.), *The Elements of Astronomy: a Non-Mathematical Textbook for use as an Introduction to the subject in Colleges, Universities, etc., for the General Reader*, 593
- Favre (J.), *The Presence of *Clyplina jurassica*, a Calcareous Siphon Alga, in the Portlandian at Various Points of the Southern Jura*, 767
- Fay (Erica), *A Road to Fairyland*, 313
- de Fazi (R.), *Alcoholic Fermentation of Glucose Solutions Exposed to the Action of Ultra-violet Rays*, 803
- Fearon (W. R.), *Colour Reactions Associated with Liver Oils*, 145
- Fenner (C. N.), *Magnetic Differentiation*, 295
- Fenning (R. W.), and H. T. Tizard, *The Dissociation of Carbon Dioxide at High Temperatures*, 877
- Fenton (E. W.), *Seed Mixtures and Incidence of Fungal Diseases*, 657
- Ferguson (E. W.), *Medical and Veterinary Entomology in Australia*, 947; *Revision of Australian Syrphidae (Diptera)*. Part ii, 107
- Ferguson (N.), *Chromosome Measurements*, 139
- Fernald (Miss Helen E.), *Chinese Frescoes from Honan*, 472
- Fernandes (L.), and F. Palazzo, *Investigations on Sulphosalts* (ii), 803
- Fernbach (A.), M. Schoen, and M. Mori, *The so-called Elective Fermentation*, 547
- Ferrar (W. L.), *On the Consistency of Cardinal Function Interpolation*, 946
- Ferri  (G.), and R. Jouaust, *A Free Pendulum Maintained by a Photo-electric Current and its Application to the Problem of Time*, 302
- Finch (G. I.), *An Improved Mercury Vapour Trap*, 856
- Findlay (Prof. A.), *Chemist and Philosopher*, 228
- Finnemore (H.), *The Essential Oils*, 920
- Firth (C.), *Discovery at Saqqara of a Tomb of the Third Dynasty*, 536
- Firth (Dr. J. B.), and H. A. Fells, *Behaviour of Silicic Acid Gel during the Drying-up Process*, 84
- Fischer (C.), *Craib's Flor  Siamensis Enumeratio*, 633
- Fish (Marie Poland), *The Hatching Out of Eggs of *Anguilla rostrata**, 290
- Fisher (W. J.), *The Apparition Dates of the Andromede (or Bielid) Meteor Swarms*, 339; *The Bielid Meteor Shower*, 539

- FitzGerald (Prof. M. F.), [death], 754; [obituary article], 823
 FitzSimons (F. W.), A Mawken Canoe in Algoa Bay, 746
 Fleming (Amy M.), The Peripheral Innervation of the Uterus, 946
 Fleming (Prof. J. A.), elected honorary fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, 411
 Flint (H. T.), and J. W. Fisher, Modern Ideas on the Quantum Theory, 477
 Florey (H. W.), appointed Huddersfield lecturer in special pathology in Cambridge University, 943
 Foëx (G.), and Mlle. A. Brunet, The Magnetic Properties of Manganese Pyrophosphate at Various Temperatures, 513
 Fontaine (M.), The Comparative Compressibility of the Serum and the Blood Globules of the Horse, 587
 Fortescue (C. L.), The Characteristics of Thermionic Rectifiers, 836
 Fosse (R.), The Presence of Allantoic Acid in *Phaseolus vulgaris*, 146
 Foster (Sir Gregory), "These Hundred Years," 300
 Fotheringham (Dr. J. K.), Changes in the Length of the Day, 318
 Fouard (E.), A General Method of Preparation of Metallic Colloids, 446
 Fournier (G.), A Relation between the Atomic Weights of Isotopic Radio-elements and the Velocity of the α -rays which they emit, 730
 Fournier (J. B.), and Fritsch-Lang, The Inalterability of Commercial Iron, Copper, and Zinc by Liquid Hydrogen Sulphide, 947
 Fowler (Prof. A.), Spectroscopic Observations during a Partial Eclipse of the Sun, June 18, Suppt., 91; and L. J. Freeman, The Spectrum of Ionised Nitrogen (N II), 801
 Fowler (R. H.), Matrix and Wave Mechanics, 239; Spinning Electrons, 90
 Fox (Sir Francis), [obituary article], 93
 Fox (H. Munro), appointed professor of zoology in Birmingham University, 32
 Fox (Dr. J. J.), and T. H. Bowles, The Analysis of Pigments, Paints, and Varnishes, 849
 Franck (Prof. J.), and Dr. P. Jordan, Anregung von Quantensprünge durch Stöße, Mar. 5, Suppt., 7
 Frankfort (H.), Excavations at Tell-el-Amarna, 574
 Frankland (Prof. P. F.), Carbon Monoxide Poisoning in the Absence of Haemoglobin, 491
 Fraser (R. G. J.), The Effective Cross-section of the Oriental Hydrogen-Atom, 260
 Frecheville (Prof. W.), awarded the Gold Medal of the Institution of Mining and Metallurgy, 505
 French (Dr. J. Weir), The Polishing of Surfaces, 527
 Frenkel (Prof. J.), Lehrbuch der Elektrodynamik. Erster Band, 851
 Freundlich (Prof. H.), New Conceptions in Colloidal Chemistry, 488
 Friend (Rev. H.), A Polymorphic Oligochæte, 281
 Friend (Dr. J. Newton), Helium or Helion? 199; Iron in Antiquity, 42; and W. E. Thornycroft, The Silver Contents of Roman Lead from Folkestone and Richboro' Castle, 585
 Fritch (Prof. F. E.), Heath-association on Hindhead Common, 620
 Fuchs (Dr. W.), Die Chemie des Lignins, 5
 Fujiwhara (S.), The Echelon Structure of Japanese Volcanoes, 473
 Gage (Lieut.-Col. A. T.), Plants Yielding Alkaloids, 909
 Gager (Dr. C. S.), and Dr. A. F. Blakeslee, A New Mutant in *Datura*, 940; Chromosome and Gene Mutations in *Datura* following Exposure to Radium Rays, 731; General Botany, with special reference to its Economic Aspects, with three chapters on Heredity and Variation in Plants, by Dr. O. E. White, 742
 Gale (W. F.), Discovery of a New Comet, 903
 Galibourg (J.), and F. Ryziger, The Röntgen Spectrography of Pearls, 71
 Gallenkamp and Co., Ltd., Catalogue of General and Industrial Apparatus, 828
 Galt (A. S.), The Principles and Practice of Horticulture, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11
 Gann (Dr. T. W.), Ancient Cities and Modern Tribes: Exploration and Adventure in Maya Lands, 631; Explorations in British Honduras, 536; Investigations of Maya Ruins in Yucatan, 723
 Gardiner (C. I.), and F. R. C. Reed, The Silurian Inlier of Woolhope, 585
 Gardiner (Julia), Miocene Mollusca from Florida, 139
 Gardner (Prof. E.), Conceptions of the Cosmos, according to Dante, 289
 Garner (Dr. W. E.), appointed professor of physical chemistry in Bristol University, 544
 Garnot (R. J.), A New Desensitiser for Photographic Plates, 100
 Garrett (M. W.), Experiments to test the Possibility of Transmutation by Electronic Bombardment, 260
 Garstang (Prof. J.), The Progress of Hittite Studies, 819, 860
 Gater (B. A. R.), A Tachinid Parasite of the Larvæ of Coconut Moths, 651
 Gates (Prof. R. R.), The Genetics of Wheat Species, 370; The Meiotic Phenomena in Pollen Development studied in *Lathræa squamaria* and *L. clandestina*, 766; The Tundra Vegetation of Russian Lapland, 301; and J. Latter, The Pollen Development of Two Species of *Lathræa*, 909
 Gaunt (J. A.), The Stopping Power of Hydrogen Atoms for α -particles according to the New Mechanics, 657
 Gaviola (E.), Decay of Fluorescence, 66
 Genders (R.), The Penetration of Mild Steel by Brazing Solder and Other Metals, 584; and R. A. F. Hammond, The Mechanism of Inverse Segregation in Alloys, 585
 Gheury de Bray (M. E. J.), The Planet Neptune, 293
 Giacobini, The Paris-Winnecke Comet, 879
 Gibb (Sir Alexander), elected a member of the Athenæum Club, 364
 Giblin (Major L. F.), Federation and Finance, 29
 Gibson (Dr. A. G.), The Radcliffe Infirmary, Mar. 19, Suppt., 20
 Gibson (Prof. G. A.), The Greek Conception of Theoretical Geometry, 152; the work of, 935
 Gibson (W.), bequest to University College, Dundee, 103
 Gifford (E. W.), and W. E. Schenk, Early Records of Californian Indians, 138
 Gilchrist (Prof. D. A.), resignation of, 411; [death], 609; [obituary article], 789
 Gillespie (T. H.), The Modern 'Zoo,' 747
 Ginsberg (Dr. M.), Miller's Types of Mind and Body, 702
 Girard (R.), The Action of Complex Saline Solutions on the Ferrous Metals, 690
 Glanville (S. R. K.), The Floods at Memphis, 813
 Glasspoole (J.), The Variability of Average Monthly Rainfall throughout the Year, 477
 Glazebrook (Sir Richard), appointed a member of the Advisory Council to the Committee of the Privy Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, 866; Newton's Work in Optics, Mar. 26, Suppt., 43
 Gleason (H. A.), and M. I. Cook, Plant Ecology of Porto Rico, 940
 Glenday (V. G.), and J. Parkinson, The Kateruk Series and Associated Rocks of the Northern Suk Hills, Kenya Colony, 689
 Glynn (Prof. E. E.), Dr. R. E. Roberts, and Mrs. Bigland, The Treatment of Syphilis, 65
 Gmelin's Handbuch der anorganischen Chemie. Achte Auflage. Bearbeitet von R. J. Meyer. System-Number 13; System-Number 5, 346
 Godbert (A. L.), Inflammability of Coal Dusts, 832
 Godchet (M.), and P. Bedos, The Action of Organomagnesium Compounds on the Oxide of Cycloheptene, 373
 von Goebel (Prof. K.), Organography of Plants, 931
 Gold (Lieut.-Col. E.), Water Vapour in the Atmosphere, 654; Weather and Weather Forecasting, 843
 Goldie (A. H. R.), The Structure and Movement of the Atmosphere as Affected by Diurnal Variations, 803
 Goldstein (S.), awarded a Smith's prize of Cambridge University, 444
 Gollancz (Sir Israel), elected a member of the Athenæum Club, 364
 Gomme (A.), Early British Patent Grants, 494

- Goodier (J. N.), awarded the Rex Moir prize and the Ricardo prize of Cambridge University, 943
- Goodrich (H. B.), The Development of Mendelian Characters in *Aplocheilus latipes*, 147
- Goodwin (H. B.), [death], 361
- Gorini (C.), Behaviour of *Bacterium typhi* in Milk, 107
- Goris (A.), and L. Lachaise, The Phylactic Action of Brucine towards Strychnine, 879
- Gortner (Prof. R. A.), A Plea for the Adoption of the Metric Units, 210
- Gould (Lt.-Commr. R. T.), The Landfall of Columbus, 368
- Grabham (Dr. M. C.), The Garden Interests of Madeira, 633
- Graebe (Prof. C.), [obituary], 500
- Grant (Prof. Kerr), Atomic Transmutation, 28
- Graves (B.), Microscopy of the Living Eye, 585
- Gray (H.), Anatomy: Descriptive and Applied. Twenty-third edition, edited by Prof. R. Howden. Notes on Applied Anatomy revised by J. Clay and Dr. J. D. Lickley, 921
- Gray (Dr. R. W.), The Sleep of Whales, 636; The Walrus, 923
- Gray (Prof. R. Whytlaw), and H. Whitaker, A New Method of Determining the Vapour Pressures of Aqueous Solutions, 35
- Green (H. N.), Artificial Light and Aerial Navigation, 434
- Green (J. R.), The Occurrence of Indium in Tin, 893
- Greenhill (Sir George), [death], 286; [obituary article], 323
- Greenwood (A. W.), Pterylosis in the 'Hackleless' Fowl, 261; and Dr. F. A. E. Crew, On the Quantitative Relation of Comb Size and Gonadic Activity in the Fowl, 803; The Relation of Gonadic Structure to Plumage Characterisation in the Domestic Fowl (ii), 877
- Greenwood (G.), Rotating Crystal X-ray Photographs, 586
- Gregory (Prof. J. W.), Geology of South Africa, 665; The American Mongolian Expedition, 521; The Origin of Fjords, 66
- Gregory (Dr. W. K.), Man's Place of Origin, 939; Teeth of Cretaceous Mammals, 762
- Griffith (Rev. John), Orientation of Churches, 506
- Griffith (R. O.), and K. McKeown, Thermal Decomposition of Ozone in the Presence of Hydrogen, 255
- Griffiths (Dr. Ezer), A Carbon Dioxide Measuring Instrument based on Sound Velocity Measurement, 836; Physical and Chemical Tables, 735; The Thermal and Electrical Conductivity of a Single Crystal of Aluminium, 545
- Griffiths (E. A.), and Dr. Ezer Griffiths, A Duplex Reversal Key with Mercury Contacts, 909
- Grogan (J. D.), Calcium in Aluminium containing Silicon, 685; and P. G. Ward, Influence of Calcium on Aluminium containing Silicon, 585
- Grossheim (A. A.), The Flora of the Talysh, 213
- Groves (J.), Charophyta from Madagascar, 945
- Guha (S. C.), The Preferential Electric Conductivity of the Pistil of Some Plants, 587
- Guillet (L.), The Addition of Nitrogen to Steel, 70; and A. Roux, The Gases contained in Brass, Aluminium and its Alloys, 658
- Gulati (A.), A New Species of Paragonimus, 580
- Gulat-Wellenburg (Dr. W. v.), Graf C. v. Klinckowstroem, und Dr. H. Rosenbusch, Der physikalische Mediumismus, 187
- Gundry (Prof. P. G.), The Problem of Atmospheric Electricity, 67
- Gunther (Miss Erna), The Khallam, 683
- Gunther (Dr. R. T.), The First Public Chemical Laboratory in England, 492
- Guntherschulze, A New Phenomenon in the Abnormal Discharge, 215
- Gurwitsch (Prof. A.), Das Problem der Zellteilung physiologisch betrachtet, 556
- Guth (E.), Spinning Electron and Wave Mechanics, 744
- Guthrie (F. B.), [death], 361
- Guyénot (E.), and O. Schotté, Graft of a Regenerated Member and Induced Differentiation, 622
- Haas (Dr. A.), The Creation of Matter, 296
- Haas (Dr. P.), and Barbara Russell-Wells, Irish Moss Mucilage and a Method for its Determination, 413
- Haddock (M. H.), The Location of Mineral Fields: Modern Procedure in the Investigation of Mineral Areas and the Subsequent Verification of their Extent, etc., Mar. 19, Suppt., 13
- Haddon (Dr. A. C.), The Peoples of Sarawak, 806; A. B. Deacon, 609; Dr. E. S. Hartland, 933
- Hadfield (Sir Robert), Alloys of Iron and Manganese of Low Carbon Content, 545; Thermal Changes in Iron manganese Alloys Low in Carbon, 801
- Haile (Fr. B.), A Manual of Navaho Grammar, 668
- von Halban (Prof. H.), Photo-electric Polarimetry, 86
- Haldane (J. B. S.), Biological Fact and Theory, 456; Carbon Monoxide Poisoning in the Absence of Hæmoglobin, 352
- Hale (Dr. G. E.), Beyond the Milky Way, 888; The Fields of Force in the Atmosphere of the Sun, 708
- Hales (Rev. Stephen), The 250th Anniversary of the Birth of, 936
- Hall (A.), E. C. Bower, and Miss E. A. Lamson, Satellites of Mars, 137
- Hall (A. J.), Textile Bleaching, Dyeing, Printing and Finishing Machinery, 700
- Hall (Sir Daniel), retirement of, from the Director-Generalship of the Intelligence Department of the Ministry of Agriculture, 866; The Work of, 899
- Hall (E. H.), Photo-electric Emission, Thermionic Emission, and Peltier Effect, 730
- Hall (H.), The Value of Technical Education, 876
- Hall (Miss Lesley D.), The Physiography and Geography of the Hawkesbury River between Windsor and Wiseman's Ferry, 262
- Hall (Miss M. P.), Zonation in Cultures of *Monilia fructigena*, 657
- Hall (P.), elected a fellow of King's College, Cambridge, 476
- Hambly (W. D.), Origins of Education among Primitive Peoples: a Comparative Study in Racial Development, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10; Tribal Dancing and Social Development, 488
- Hamilton-Grierson (Sir Philip James), [obituary], 678
- Hamy (M.), An Empirical Rule Concerning the Magnification of a Telescope, 946; Some Experimental Researches, 182
- Hanawalt (J. D.), and Prof. L. R. Ingersoll, Non-Magnetic Films of Iron, Nickel, and Cobalt, 234
- Hancock (G. C.), Glass Fragments in Preserved Foods, 614
- Handel-Mazzetti (Dr. H.), Naturbilder aus Südwest-China: Erlebnisse und Eindrücke eines österreichischen Forschers während des Weltkrieges, 667
- Hanot (Mlle. M.), The Enlargement of the Balmer Lines by the Intermolecular Electric Field, 413
- Hansen (Dr. G.), Hyperfine Structure in the Neon Spectrum, 237
- Hansen (Dr. M.), Magnesium-Copper Alloys, 653; The Magnesium-Rich Magnesium-Copper Alloys, 585
- Hanson (Prof. D.), and Grace W. Ford, Investigation of the Effects of Impurities on Copper. Part v., 584
- Hanson (Prof. D.), and others, The Influence of Impurities on Copper, 728
- Hansson (Prof. N.), Übersetzt von F. von Meissner, Fütterung der Haustiere: ihre theoretischen Grundlagen und ihre wirtschaftliche Durchführung, 486
- Harding (C.), [obituary], 132
- Hardy (G. H.), A Reclassification of the Australian Robberflies of the *Cerdistus-Neoitamus* Complex (Diptera-Asilidæ), 263
- Hargreaves (F.), The Application of Strain Methods to the Investigation of the Structure of Eutectic Alloys, 584; The Crystallisation of the Lead-tin Eutectic, 585
- Hargreaves (J.), awarded the Mayhew prize of Cambridge University, 943
- Harmer (Sir Sidney F.), Cetacea stranded on the British Coasts from 1913 to 1926, 687; elected president of the Linnean Society, 866; retirement of, from the directorship of the British Museum (Natural History), 246
- Harris (Prof. D. Fraser), Science and Preconceived Perfection, 330
- Harrison (G. E.), Intensity Distribution in the Fine Structure of the Balmer Lines, 393
- Harrison (Commr. H. T.), Public Lighting by Electricity, 433

- Harrison (Dr. J. W. Heslop.), appointed professor of botany at Armstrong College, 944; Experiments on the Egg-laying Instincts of the Sawfly *Pontania salicis* Christ., etc., 220; Hereditary Choice of Food Plants in the Lepidoptera and its Evolutionary Significance, 562; Melanism in the Lepidoptera and its Evolutionary Significance, 127, 318
- Harrison (Prof. L.), elected president of the Linnean Society of New South Wales, 827; The Composition and Origins of the Australian Fauna, with Special Reference to the Wegener Hypothesis, 29
- Hartland (Dr. E. S.), [obituary article], 933
- Hartley (Brig.-Gen. H.), The Ionic Theory, 102; Inter-ionic Forces in a completely Dissociated Electrolyte, 322
- Hartley (H. J.), The Attack of Molten Metals on certain Non-ferrous Metals and Alloys, 584
- Hartridge (Dr. H.), appointed professor of physiology at St. Bartholomew's Medical College, 511
- Hartshorn (L.), The Measurement of the Inductances of Four Terminal Resistance Standards, 909
- Harvey (H. W.), Fundamental Problems Relating to River Pollution, 463
- Harvey (J. W.), appointed professor of philosophy at Armstrong College, 765
- Harvey (L. A.), History of the Cytoplasmic Inclusions of the Egg of *Ciona intestinalis* (L.), during Oogenesis and Fertilisation, 220; The Oogenesis of *Lumbricus*, 14
- Haslam (Sir Alfred Seale), [obituary article], 245
- Hatschek (E.), Rigidity and other Anomalies in Colloidal Solutions, 469, 857
- Hatton (J. L. S.), the title of reader in geometry conferred upon, by London University, 411
- Hauduroy (P.), Diphtheric Toxins giving Rise to a Diphtherimorph Bacillus, 478
- Houghton (Dr. S. H.), Palæontology in South Africa, 652
- Haurowitz (Dr. F.), Biochemie des Menschen und der Tiere seit 1914, 233
- Hauschild (Dr. M. W.), Grundriss der Anthropologie, Mar. 5, Suppt., 1
- Haviland (Maud D.) (Mrs. H. H. Brindley), Forest, Steppe and Tundra: Studies in Animal Environment, 385
- Hawkes (A. J.), The Coming Total Solar Eclipse, 794
- Hawkins (H. L.), and Miss S. M. Hampton, The Occurrence, Morphology, and Affinities of the Silurian Echinoidea Echinocystis and Palæodiscus, 689
- Hawley (Commdr. J. H.), Hydrographic Surveying, 831
- Haworth (Miss F.), Lichen Dyes, 620
- Hay (Prof. D.), Kersopp's The Use of Power in Colliery Working, Mar. 19, Suppt., 19
- Heard (A.), On Lower Old Red Sandstone Plants showing Structure, from Brecon, South Wales, 34
- Heath (Sir Thomas), Conceptions of the Cosmos in the Classical Period, 247
- Heck (E. L. W.), Vitality of Young Animals, 760
- Heck (Commdr. N. H.), The Chinese Earthquake of May 22, 936
- Hedges (Dr. E. S.), and Dr. J. E. Myers, The Problem of Physico-Chemical Periodicity, 267
- Hegner (Prof. R. W.), Asexual Reproduction without Loss of Vitality in the Organism of Bird Malaria, 65
- Heigham (C.), appointed professor of agriculture at Armstrong College, 944
- Hell (Dr. K.), [death], 168
- de Hemptinne (M.), Latent Heats of Evaporation, 373; The Thermal Expansion of Metallic Combinations, 910
- Henderson and Kracek, Fractional Precipitation of Barium and Radium Chromates, 796
- Henne (A.), and G. L. Clark, The Spectrography of Flames in an Explosion Motor, 262
- Henry (Prof. A.), Plants and People of South-west China, 667
- Henry (Lady Charles), bequest for scholarships, 799
- Henry (D. C.), Some Recent Advances in Colloid Theory, 446
- Henry (Dr. T. A.), Progress in the Knowledge of Alkaloids, 909
- Henshaw (P. B.), Valve Steels, 616
- Herbert (W. H.), Compass Variation in Canada, 405
- Hering (Dr. M.), Die Ökologie der blattminierenden Insektenlarven, 232
- Hérissey (H.), and J. Cheymol, The Chemical Composition of Geine (Geoside), 183
- Heron-Allen (E.), and A. Earland, Foraminifera from the Suez Canal, 939
- Herrera (A. L.), New Imitations of Amœbæ in Motion, 767
- Herrera (L.), Appearances of Struggle and of Parasitism with Stimulations of Infusoria, 106
- Herskovits (M. J.), Colour Selection among Negroes in the United States, 213
- Hess (Prof. V. F.), Die elektrische Leitfähigkeit der Atmosphäre und ihre Ursachen, Mar. 5, Suppt., 6
- Hettwer (Dr. F.), Viscosity of Metals, 140
- Heurtly (E. S.), The Second Submarine Cable between Canada and Australasia, 538
- Hewlett (S. G.), Sale of the Collection of Prehistoric Stone Implements of, 501
- Hicks (Prof. G. Dawes), Benedictus de Spinoza, 357
- Highland and Agricultural Society, Grant to the Department of Research in Animal Breeding of Edinburgh University, 943
- Hill (Prof. A. V.), Lecturing in the U.S.A., 94; Nerves and Muscles: How We Feel and Move, 284
- Hill (G. F.), Termites (Isoptera) from South Sea and Torres Strait Islands, 514
- Hill (Prof. J. P.), and Dr. J. A. Murray, The Problem of Secretion, 163
- Hill (Prof. M. J. M.), Wallis's Axiom of Parallels, 727
- Hindle (E.), and Major W. S. Patton, Sand-flies and Chinese Kala-azar, 460
- Hinks (A. R.), Globular Clusters and Spiral Nebulæ, 725; Size and Figure of the Earth, 541
- Hinshelwood (C. N.), Quasi-unimolecular Reactions—the Decomposition of Diethyl Ether in the Gaseous State, 180; The Kinetics of Chemical Change in Gaseous Systems, 771; and P. J. Askey, Homogeneous Reactions involving Complex Molecules, 801
- Hirata (H.), and H. Komatsubara, Micro-crystals in Electrolytically Deposited Silver, 334
- Hirst (Dr. L. F.), Fleas and Plague, 540
- Hirst (S.), Development of *Allothrombium fuliginosum* Hermann, 260
- Hobson (A. D.), The Fertilisation Membrane in the Echinoderms, 513
- Hobson (G. V.), Mica and its International Relationships, 653
- Hocart (A. M.), The Divinity of the Guest, 540
- Hodge (W. V. D.), awarded a Smith's prize of Cambridge University, 444
- Hodgkinson (T. G.), Synchronous Alternating-current Motors and Mechanical Vibrating Systems, etc., 338
- Hodgson (Dr. H. H.), awarded the Dyers' research medal, 331
- Hofmayr (Father W.), Die Schilluk: Geschichte, Religion und Leben eines Niloten-Stammes. Nach P. Banholzers F.S.C. und eigenen Auszeichnungen dargestellt, 113
- Hogben (Prof. L.), Colorimetric Determination of the Oxidation of Hæmocyanin, 122
- Hogg (F. S.), and Cecilia H. Payne, The Calibration of Photographic Plates, 925
- Holborn (Dr. C. F. L.), [obituary], 678
- Holland (Sir Thomas H.), Proposed Review of the Mineral Resources of the British Empire, 640
- Holman (B. W.), The Fracture of Quartz by Heat, 295
- Holmes (J.), appointed lecturer in geography at Armstrong College, 944
- Hölzl (F.), Organic Acids and Bases in Non-aqueous Solution, 222
- Homès (G.), The Electrodeless Discharge and Active Nitrogen, 910
- Honda (K.), and H. Endo, Magnetic Analysis as a Means of Studying the Structure of Non-magnetic Alloys, 585
- Hone (Dr. F. S.), Notification and its Relation to the Prevention of Disease, 29
- Hooke (R.), An Experiment of, 647
- Hoover (Hon. H.), The U.S. Bureau of Standards, 134
- Hopkinson (A.), reappointed demonstrator of anatomy in Cambridge University, 764

- Hopkinson (Prof. B.), Dr. K. Lucas, and E. T. Busk, a memorial tablet to, at Cambridge, 757
- Hora (Dr. Sunder Lal), The Mechanism of the So-called 'Posterior Sucker' of a Simulium Larva, 599
- Hørring (R.), Fugle. 2: Lomfugle, Stormfugle, Vandhøns, Tranefugle og Vadefugle, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
- Horrocks (H.), Meteorological Perturbations of Tides and Currents in an Unlimited Channel Rotating with the Earth, 337
- Hose (Dr. C.), Natural Man: a Record from Borneo, 806
- Houston (W. V.), The Fine Structure of the Helium Arc Spectrum, 838
- Howard (Dr. L. O.), Insect Control in the United States, 473
- Howard (W. V.), Devonian Volcanic Rocks of New Brunswick, 99
- Howarth (W. O.), appointed to supervise research in mycology in Manchester University, 372
- Howe (Dr. H. A.), [death], 168
- Howe (J. Allen), The Stones of London, 537
- Hoyt (Prof. Elizabeth Ellis), Primitive Trade: its Psychology and Economics, 117
- Hrdlička (Dr. A.), The Peopling of the Earth, 253; Physical Types and Cultures in America, 294
- Huber (Dr. E.), Brewing in Babylon and Egypt, 404
- Hudson (C. S.), Rotatory Power and Structure of Sugars, 616
- Hulme (E. Wyndham), The Industrial Revolution, 671, 892
- Hulthén (Dr. E.), and S. Nakamura, The Spectra of NH Compounds, 235
- Hultzsch (Dr. E.), [obituary article], 286
- Humberstone (T. Ll.), University Government with special reference to the University of London, 444
- Hume (Capt. C. W.), Scientific Slaughtering, 481
- Hume (G.), The Archaeology of the City of London, 249
- Hume (G. S.), Oil Prospects of the Battle River Area, Alberta, 831
- Hund (Dr. F.), The Specific Heat of Hydrogen, 762
- Hunt (Dr. G. H.), foundation of a memorial medical travelling studentship in Oxford University, 764
- Hurrell (H. E.), The Ecology of the Fresh-water Polyzoa in East Anglia, 766
- Husain (Mian Tasdique), Yolk Formation in Some Arthropods, 817
- Huskins (C. L.), The Origin of Fatuoids in Cultivated Oats, 49
- Hutton, John, Father of Modern Geology, 1726-1797, 582
- Hutton (J. H.), A Naga Hills Celt, 374; Some Megalithic Work in the Jaintia Hills, 374; The Disposal of the Dead at Wakching, Assam, 683
- Huxley (Prof. J. S.), Biological Fact and Theory, 159, 350, 639; Essays in Popular Science, 848; On the Relation between Egg-weight and Body-weight in Birds, 513; resignation of the chair of zoology at King's College, 722; Variations in Earwigs, 507
- Hynd (A.), The Action of Glucosone on Normal Animals (Mice) and its Possible Significance in Metabolism, 445
- ibbs (T. L.), and L. Underwood, A Comparison of the Behaviour in Thermal Diffusion of Nitrogen and Carbon Monoxide, and of Nitrous Oxide and Carbon Dioxide, 585
- Illing (V. C.), The Geology of the Naparima Region of Trinidad, B.W.I., 302
- Imamura (Prof. A.), The Japanese Earthquake of Sept. 1, 1923, 139
- Ibmelloni (Prof. J.), La Esfinge Indiana: antiguos y nuevos aspectos del problema de los orígenes americanos, 3
- Imms (Dr. A. D.), The Recolonisation of Krakatau by Animal Life, 370
- Incheape (Lord), gift to St. Andrews University, 476
- Ingersoll (L. R.), and J. Bardeen, Transmission of Heat through a Brick Wall, 892
- Innes and van den Bos, Observations of Proxima, 25
- Inwards (R.), Early Suggestion as to the Vacuum Flask, 893
- Irving (D.), [death], 168
- Irwin (W.), The Presence and Distribution of Salt in the Air, Rain, and Rivers of this Country, 446
- Ishimoto (M.), Earthquakes and the Tilting of the Ground, 869
- Ivanow (W.), Mohammedan Child-killing Demons, 26
- Jack (D.), The Band Spectrum of Water Vapour, 801
- Jackson (Sir Herbert), Some Colouring Agents in Glasses and Glazes, 401
- Jackson (Dr. J.), The Recurrence of Solar Eclipses, June 18, Suppt., 75
- Jackson (J. W.), New Carboniferous Lamellibranchs, and Notes on other Forms, 766
- Jackson (Dr. L. C.), Non-magnetic Films of Iron, Nickel, and Cobalt, 426
- Jahoda (E.), Luminescence and Coloration of Alkali Chlorides when treated with Becquerel Rays, 107
- James (T. E.), Dwelling-places, Portraits, and Medallie Illustrations of Newton, 465
- Janssen (C. L.), La surface de la planète Jupiter, 1919-24, 29
- Jardé (Prof. A.), translated by M. R. Dobie, The Formation of the Greek People, Mar. 19, Suppt., 9
- Jarry-Desloges, The Planet Mars, 106
- Jaubert (G. F.), Origin of the Coloration of Beeswax and the Composition of Propolis, 910
- Jeans (Dr. J. H.), Isaac Newton, Mar. 26, Suppt., 28; The Genesis of the Great Nebulae, 315; The Survey of the Stars, 394; The work of Prof. F. Schlesinger, 287
- Jeffreys (Dr. H.), Atmospheric Circulation, 194; awarded the Adams prize for 1925-26, 436; Constitution of the Earth, 295; Cyclones and the General Circulation, 837; Modern Geophysics, 343; Numerical Solution of Algebraic Equations, 565; Wave Propagation in Strings with Continuous and Concentrated Loads, 945
- Jelstrup (H. S.), The Aurora of Oct. 15, 1926, in Norway and Sounds associated with it, 45
- Jenkin (T. J.), Hybrid Vigour in Grass, 683
- Jenkins (F. A.), H. A. Barton, and Dr. R. S. Mulliken, The β Bands of Nitric Oxide, 118
- Jepson (F. P.), and C. H. Gadd, The Shot-hole Borer of Tea, 760
- Jindal (Prof. S. L.), A Useful Electric Cell, 639
- Job (P.), The Cuprammonium Ion and its Stability, 373; The Substitution of Ethylenediamine for Ammonia in Complexes in Solution, 879
- Johannsen (Prof. W.), Dritte deutsche Auflage, Elemente der exakten Erblchkeitslehre: mit Grundzügen der biologischen Variationsstatistik, 523
- Johnson (Prof. D. W.), and W. E. Pratt, Local Coast Submergence, 175
- Johnson (J. B.), Thermal Agitation of Electricity in Conductors, 50
- Johnson (M. C.), Doppler Effects and Intensities of Lines in the Molecular Spectrum of Hydrogen Positive Rays, 412
- Johnson (N. K.), Some Meteorological Observations made at Sea, 145; and E. L. Davies, Some Measurements of Temperature near the Surface in Various Kinds of Soil, 145
- Johnson (R. C.), Active Nitrogen, 9
- Johnson (T. H.), Intensities of Molecular Beams, 745
- Johnstone (Prof. J.), Biological Fact and Theory, 319
- Jolibois (P.), The Constitution of the Organo-magnesium Compounds, 71; and Chassevent, An Apparatus for the Thermal Analysis of Plaster, 373; H. Lefebvre, and P. Montagne, The Chemical Yield in the Decomposition of Carbon Dioxide under Small Pressure by the Condensed Spark, 546
- Jolley (L. B. W.), Alternating Current Rectification and Allied Problems: Mathematical and Practical Treatment from the Engineering View-Point. Second edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 18
- Joly (Prof. J.), and Dr. J. H. J. Poole, The Origin of the Earth's Surface Structure, 524, 674
- Jones (Prof. E. Taylor), Television, 896
- Jones (Prof. F. Wood), presented with the Mueller medal of the Australasian Association, 28; The Flight of Sea-birds, 31; The Preservation of Australian Aborigines, 29

- Jones (H.), and Prof. R. Whiddington, The Passage of Electrons through Gases, 338
- Jones (J.), retirement of, from the Imperial College of Science and Technology, 826
- Jones (J. D. R.), The Need of a Scientific Basis for South African Native Policy, 67
- Jones (J. M.), and T. McLachlan, The Determination of Moisture by the Volatile Solvent Method, 836
- Jones (Neville), The Stone Age in Rhodesia, 226
- Jordan (Dr. P.), Philosophical Foundations of Quantum Theory, 566, 779
- Jorgensen (C. A.), Chromosomes of Dioecious Plants, 726
- Joseph (Dr. A. F.), and H. B. Oakley, The Anomalous Flocculation of Clay, 673
- Jucci (C.), Maternal and Paternal Heredity in the Capacity for Larval Development of the Reciprocal Crosses between Two Races of Silkworms, 623
- Juliard (A.), The Formation of Ozone by the Silent Electric Discharge in the Presence of Foreign Gases, 910
- Kabakjian (D. H.), Luminescence due to Radioactivity, 659
- van de Kamp (P.), The Sun's Motion derived from Faint Stars, 366
- Kapitza (Dr. P.), The Future of Magnetism, 809
- Karsten (Prof. R.), The Civilization of the South American Indians: with special reference to Magic and Religion, 921
- Kaye (Dr. G. W. C.), High Vacua, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15; The Acoustics of Buildings, 603; and Prof. T. H. Laby, Tables of Physical and Chemical Constants; and Some Mathematical Functions. Fifth edition, 193
- Keeble (Sir Frederick), elected a member of the Athenæum Club, 538
- Kefalas (A.), A Method of Staining Sections in Acetone, 260
- Keilin (D.), Influence of Carbon Monoxide and Light on Indophenol Oxidase of Yeast Cells, 670
- Keith (Sir Arthur), Human Skull from Kent's Cavern, Torquay, 614; Human Races, Old and New, 247; Is Darwinism Dead? 75, 277, 526
- Keltie (Sir John Scott), [obituary article], 130
- Kemp and Thomson, Radiographic Examination of Coal, 296
- Kendall (J.), E. R. Jette, and W. West, The Separation of Radioactive Substances, 296
- Kennedy (R. J.), Repetition of the Michelson-Morley Experiment, 64
- Kenner (Prof. J.), Some Aspects of the Problem of Molecular Structure, 28
- Kenneth (Dr. J. H.), Odours and Visual Imagery, 818
- Kent (Prof. N. A.), L. B. Taylor, and Hazel Pearson, Fine Structure of the Balmer Lines of Hydrogen, 163
- Kent-Jones (D. W.), and C. W. Herd, A Numerical Expression for the Colour of Flour, 690; The Washing of Gluten from Flour, 690
- Kenyon (A. S.), Australian Stone Implements, 939
- Kepner (Prof. W. A.), Animals looking into the Future, 233
- Kermack (W. O.), and W. T. H. Williamson, The Stability of Suspensions (ii.), 946
- Kerr (Dr. J.), The Fundamentals of School Health, 269
- Kerr (Prof. J. Graham), Evolutionary Philosophy, 307
- Kershaw (J. B. C.), Relationship between Atmospheric Impurity and Electricity Supply, 647
- Kersopp (J.), The Use of Power in Colliery Working: a Treatise on Mining Costs and Machinery Designs and Management, Mar. 19, Suppt., 19
- Kesteven (Dr.), Homology of the Ala Temporalis and Alisphenoid Bones, 99
- Keyes (F. G.), and M. J. Marshall, Heats of Adsorption on Charcoal, 406
- Keys (Dr. D. A.), The Auroral Green Line 5577, 162
- Kichlu (P. K.), Regularity in the Spectrum of Ionised Neon, 671
- Kidd (F.), C. West, and M. N. Kidd, Gas Storage of Fruit, 830
- Kidd (H.), British and American Methods of Slaughtering, 864
- Kidder (A. V.), Eskimos and Plants, 731
- Kieslinger (A.), Geological Petrographic Researches in the Southern Kor Alps of Styria, 587
- Kilduffe (Dr. R. A.), A Manual of Clinical Laboratory Procedure: for the Use of the General Practitioner, Mar. 19, Suppt., 17
- Kilpatrick (M. L.), O. M. Reiff, and F. O. Rice, Preparation of Hydrogen Peroxide, 334
- Kiplinger (W. C.), The Nuptial Pad of Kammerer's Water-bred Alytes, 635
- Kirmann (A.), A Method of Synthesis of α -bromoaldehydes, 547
- Kisser (T.), The Influence of Nutritive Salts on the Transpiration, Water Assimilation, Relative Shoot and Root Masses and Leaf Structure, Parts 1 and 2, 767
- Kistiakowsky (G. B.), The Activation of Gases by Adsorption, 659
- Kitson (Sir Albert Ernest), awarded the Lyell medal of the Geological Society, 169
- Kling (A.), and D. Florentin, The Hydrogenation of Naphthalene and of Anthracene at a High Temperature, etc., 690; The Transformation of the Phenols into Hydrocarbons in the Presence of Catalysts and Hydrogen under Pressure, 730
- Klopsteg (P. E.), An Unclaimed X-ray Spectrometer, 14
- Knapp (A. W.), J. E. Moss, and A. Melley, Cacao Butter Substitutes and their Detection, 546
- Kneeland (F. H.), Getting out the Coal: Stripping, Underground Mining, Loading Machines, Roof Support, 231
- Knibbs (Sir George), Occurrence of Triplets in Multiple Births, 303
- Knight (Capt. C. W. R.), Filming the Golden Eagle, 536
- Knowlton (Dr. F. H.), [death], 326
- Kobayasi (T.), The Mechanism of Cyclones, 832
- Koefoed (R.), and G. Haugaard, Water of the Dead Sea, 615
- Koehler (Prof. R.), Antarctic Echinoidea, 294
- Kohler (Dr.), Water Vapour in the Atmosphere, 654
- Kolthoff (Prof. I. M.), On the Volatility of Borax, 425; and Dr. N. H. Furman, Potentiometric Titrations: a Theoretical and Practical Treatise, 346
- Konow (Dr. S.), A European Parallel to the Durgāpūja, 99
- Kopaczewski (W.), Les ions d'hydrogène: signification, mesure, applications, données numériques, 346
- Kordylewski (K.), and Z. Eckstein, Weather Conditions in Norway for the Eclipse of June 29, 1927, 98
- Korff (S. A.), Hardness of Metals in Relation to Periodicity, 818
- Kottur (G. L.), A Mutant in Cotton, 747
- Kramp (Dr. P. L.), Medusæ of the Danish Ingolf-Expedition, 367
- Krieger (H. W.), Weapons and Armour of the Philippine Islands, 540
- Krishnan (K. S.), and Prof. C. V. Raman, The Magnetic Anisotropy of Crystalline Nitrates and Carbonates, 801
- Krishnan (M. S.), Igneous Rocks of Mount Girnar, 254
- Kroeber (A. L.), Arrow-release, 904
- Kühn (Prof. A.), Grundriss der allgemeinen Zoologie: für Studierende. Zweite Auflage, Mar. 5, Suppt., 4
- Kukenthal (Prof. W.), Herausgegeben von Dr. T. Krumbach. Handbuch der Zoologie: eine Naturgeschichte der Stämme des Tierreiches. Viertes Band. Erste Lief. Zweite Lief. Fünftes Band. Dritte Lief., Mar. 5, Suppt., 3
- Kunsmann (C. H.), Some Thermionic Experiments with a New Source of Positive Ions, 338
- L., Members and Correspondants of the Académie des Sciences, Paris, 459
- Lacroix (A.), and F. Blondel, Existence in the South of Annam of a Peperite resulting from the Intrusion of a Basalt into a Diatomaceous Sediment, 946
- Laird-Clowes (G. S.), Ancient Ships, 253
- Lake (R.), Contributions to the Art and Science of Otolaryngology. Lectures and Papers, 1892-1925, 233
- Lamb (Prof. H.), Newton's Work in Mechanics, Mar. 26, Suppt., 33
- Lamb (J.), A 15-ic Resolvent of the Sextic Equation, 338
- Lambrey (M.), and D. Chalonge, Use of the Discharge in Hydrogen as a Source of a Continuous Spectrum in the Ultra-violet, 879
- La Mer (V. K.), C. V. King, and C. F. Mason, Activity Coefficients of Electrolytes, 581

- Lamont (Augusta), The Species and Sex-Ratios of Raia, 651
 Lampitt (L. H.), E. B. Hughes, and L. H. Trace, On the Presence and Detection of Furfural in Vinegar, 34
 Lander (Dr. C. H.), Coal Carbonisation, 508
 Lang (Dr. W. D.), appointed a deputy keeper in the Department of Geology of the British Museum, 330; and S. Smith, A Critical Revision of the Rugose Corals described by W. Lonsdale in Murchison's "Silurian System," 545
 Lang (Prof. W. H.), The Old Red Sandstone Flora of Scotland (vi.), 946; and Isabel C. Cookson, Some Early Palaeozoic Plants from Victoria, 261
 Lange (M. E.), bequest to Cambridge University, 179
 Langer (R. M.), The Dispersion of Atomic Hydrogen, 147
 Langevin (P.), The Equilibrium between Matter and Radiation, 622
 Lankester (Sir E. Ray), The Future of the Natural History Museum, South Kensington, 314
 Laplace, Centenary of the death of, 362
 Larmor (Sir Joseph), awarded the James Scott prize of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, 902; Newtonian Time essential to Astronomy, April 9, Suppt., 49; What Determines the Resistance and Tilt of an Aeroplane? 445, 798
 Laski (Prof. H. J.), Politics as a Science, 519
 Latham (D. V.), Acclimatisation and High Altitudes, 65
 Latham (E.), Marine Works: a Practical Treatise for Maritime Engineers, Landowners and Public Authorities. Second edition, 741
 de Launay (L.), Some Geological Applications of Transmutation [of Elements], 221; The Possible Rôle of Transmutations in Geology, 182
 Laupper (G.), Spontaneous Combustion of Haystacks, 541
 Lawson (Prof. A. A.), [obituary article], 753
 Lawson (Dr. R. W.), Radioactivity and the Heat of the Earth, 277, 703
 Lea (A. M.), Australian Curculionidae of the Subfamily Gonipterides, 838
 Leake (Dr. H. Martin), Report of the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, 1925-26, 688
 Leakey (L. S.), A Human Skeleton found at Nakuru, 61; Discoveries on the Early Peoples of East Africa, 724
 Ledroit (Prof. J.), Frühschein der Kultur: Bilder aus Vorgeschichte und Urzeit, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
 Lee (A. B.), [obituary article], 432
 Lee (H. W.), The Hartmann Formula for the Dispersion of Glass, 657
 Leeson (Dr. J. R.), Lister as I Knew Him, 570
 Lehmann (G. D.), Fatigue of Metals in the Presence of Chemicals, 581
 Lejay (P.), The Synchronisation at a Distance of Precision Pendulums without Use of Any Contact, 446
 Lennard-Jones (Dr. J. E.), appointed professor of theoretical physics in Bristol University, 544; The Pressure of Gaseous Mixtures, 459; and W. R. Cook, The Equation of State of a Gaseous Mixture, 545; and B. M. Dent, Some Theoretical Determinations of the Structure of Carbonate Crystals. Part 1, 181
 Lerrigo (A. F.), and A. L. Williams, The Determination of Saccharin, 546
 Levaditi (C.), and A. Klarenbeek, The Prophylaxy of the Trypanosomiasis by Ingestion of Moranyl (309 Fourneau or 205 Bayer), 947
 Levi (G. R.), and A. Reina, Peptisation of 'Meta' Thorium Oxide, 691
 Levi-Civita (Prof. T.), e Prof. U. Amaldi, Lezioni di meccanica razionale. Vol. secondo, Parte prima, 485
 Levin (Dr. A.), [obituary article], 678; and J. Wyman, The Viscous Elastic Properties of Muscle, 445
 Levy (Prof. H.), Science and Psychic Behaviour, 484; Time and Perception, 847
 Lévy-Bruhl (Prof. L.), translated by Lilian S. Clare, How Natives Think (Les fonctions mentales dans les sociétés inférieures), 700
 Lewis (B.), Photochemical Decomposition of Hydrogen Iodide, 493
 Lewis (Major C. G.), Irrawaddy Delta Air Survey, 473
 Lewis (Prof. G. N.), The Anatomy of Science, 228
 Lindbergh (Capt. C.), A Long-distance Aeroplane Flight, 792
 Lindh (Dr. A. E.), X-ray Spectroscopy, 440
 Lindsay (K.), Social Progress and Educational Waste: being a Study of the 'Free-Place' and Scholarship System, 810
 Linnæus (Carl), the 220th anniversary of the birth of, 756
 Lipsett (S. G.), F. M. G. Johnson, and O. Maass, Heat of Solution of Sodium Chloride, 832
 Lister (J. J.), [death], 245; [obituary article], 360
 Lister (Lord), Centenary of the birth of, 535
 Liveing (Susan), A Nineteenth Century Teacher: John Henry Bridges, M.B., F.R.C.P., sometime Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, and late Medical Inspector to the Local Government Board, 116
 Livens (Prof. G. H.), The Theory of Electricity. Second edition, 385
 Lobo (F. da Costa), Two Interesting Prominences, 302
 Lochhead (Prof. W.), [death], 862
 Lockyer (Dr. W. J. S.), The Forms of the Solar Corona and their Origin, June 18, Suppt., 93; Total Solar Eclipses in the British Isles, 87
 Lodge (Sir Oliver), Clerk Maxwell and the Cavendish Laboratory, 46; Prof. Carl Runge, 565; Some Comments on Current Science, 387; The Possible Production of Protoplasm, 902
 Loeb (E. M.), Niue (Savage Island), 579
 Loeb (L. B.), Gas Ion Mobilities in Ether-hydrogen Mixtures, 146; Ionic Mobilities in Ammonia-hydrogen Mixtures and an Anomalous Effect of Ammonia, 338
 Lomax (J.), The Preparation and Examination of Coal Sections, 909
 Longchambon (L.), The Rotary Power of Tartaric Acid, 71
 Longley (Dr. W. H.), and C. Martin, Natural-colour Photography under the Sea, 365
 Lorenz (Prof. R.), und Prof. W. Eitel, Pyrosol: das kolloide Phänomen in der glühend Flüssigen Materie und seine Erstarrungszustände, Mar. 5, Suppt., 7
 Lo Surdo (A.), The Saturation Current of Thermionic Valves, 803
 Lotka (Dr. A. J.), Fluctuations in the Abundance of a Species considered Mathematically, 12
 Lotsy (Dr. J. P.), Evolution im Lichte der Bastardierung betrachtet. Aus dem Englischen übersetzt von H. N. Kooiman, Mar. 5, Suppt., 4
 Lotti (Dr. B.), Descrizione geologica dell' Umbria, 475
 Love (Prof. A. E. H.), elected an honorary fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, 411
 Low (Prof. D. A.), celebration of the seventieth birthday of, 251
 Lowe (Dr. P. R.), The Present Status of the Wild-Fowl of Europe, 209
 Lowry (Prof. T. M.), The Coefficient of Ionisation of a Fused Salt, 564
 Lowy (Prof. A.), and W. E. Baldwin, A Laboratory Book of Elementary Organic Chemistry, 777
 Lucas (A. H. S.), Australian Marine Algae (iii.), 263
 Ludford (Dr. R. J.), The Golgi Apparatus in the Cells of Tissue Cultures, 512; and Dr. W. Cramer, Secretion and the Golgi Apparatus of Islets of Langerhans, 144
 Lumière (A.), and F. Perrin, A New Organo-metallic Derivative of Gold, 414
 Luquet (G.-H.), L'Art et la religion des hommes fossiles, 8; New Caledonian Art, 760
 Lydall (F.), Electric Traction, 176
 Lyon (R.), G. Fron, and M. Fournier, The Characterisation of Old Wood as compared with Green Wood, 658
 McAdie (Prof. A.), Man and Weather, 274
 MacArdle (Prof. D. W.), The Use of Solvents in Synthetic Organic Chemistry, 520
 Macaulay (J. M.), The Polishing of Surfaces, 13
 McBain (Prof. J. W.), and W. B. Lee, Adhesives and Adhesions: True Chemical Compounds as Adhesives, 181
 MacBride (Prof. E. W.), Biological Fact and Theory, 160; The Nuptial Pad of Kammerer's Water-bred Alytes, 707
 McCallion (W. J.), The Geology of Gigha, 302
 MacCallum (G. A.), Nematode Eggs from Skin and Gills of Shark, 367
 McClelland (W.), The Applications of Electricity in Warships, 575

- Macdonald (Sir George), The Wall of Hadrian, 434
 McIntosh (Prof. W. C.), Observations and Experiments on *Carcinus mœnas*, Reprint of, 402
 Mackay (R. A.), awarded the Arthur Claudet students' prize of the Institution of Mining and Metallurgy, 505
 McKeehan (L. W.), Iron Crystals, 705; Magnetisation in Alloys, 140; The Formation of Twin Metallic Crystals, 120, 392
 McKenzie (T. C.), and A. A. King, Practical Ultra-Violet Light Therapy: a Handbook for the Use of Medical Practitioners, 80
 MacLaughlin (J.), Measurements of the Large Ions at Paris, 947
 MacLean (Prof. H.), Carbohydrate Metabolism and Insulin, 229
 McLeod (C. S.), awarded the Tyson medal of Cambridge University, 943
 Macleod (Prof. J. J. R.), Carbohydrate Metabolism and Insulin, 229
 Macmillan (W. E. F.), 'Sun Circles' in Ritual Dances, 14
 McOwan (Dr. G.), appointed reader in chemistry at Raffles College, Singapore, 143
 McPetrie (J. S.), and R. M. Wilmotte, Refraction of Electromagnetic Waves round the Earth's Surface, 317
 Macpherson (Dr. H.), Modern Astronomy: its Rise and Progress, Mar. 19, Suppt., 13
 Magnanini (G.), The Bohr Model and the Supposed Coloration of the Ions, 374
 Maiden (the late J. H.), and W. F. Blakely, Descriptions of Fifteen New Acacias, and Notes on Several Other Species, 222
 Maige (A.), Various Modes of Digestion of Starch Grains in Plant Cells, 478
 Mair (D. B.), The Continuity of Existence, 199
 Maitland (C. E.), awarded the John Bernard Seely prize of Cambridge University, 943
 Majorana (Q.), A Residual Thermal Phenomenon, 222
 Makarov (Prof. I. F.), Agricultural Map of Russia, 138
 Malcolm (J.), Agricultural Surveying, including Mensuration, Road Construction and Drainage, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12
 Malinowski (Dr. B.), Crime and Custom in Savage Society, 633; Diffusion or Invention in Culture, 65
 Mallett (E.), Acoustical Experiments with a Mechanical Vibrator, 657; A Vector Loci Method of treating Coupled Circuits, 412; Distortion of Resonance Curves of Electrically Driven Tuning-forks, 878
 Malloch (J. R.), Australian Diptera (No. ix.), 107; (No. x.), 947
 Mallock (A.), Hardness of Alloys, 669; Stresses involved in Tests of Hardness, and a Table of the Comparative Hardness of Certain Metallic Elements, 276
 Malmgrön and Běhounek, Measurement of the Electrical Conductivity of the Atmosphere in the Region of the North Pole, 947
 Malquori (G.), The System, $AlCl_3-KCl-H_2O$ at 25°, 911
 Manley (C. H.), A Rapid Method for the Sorting of Butters and Margarines, 34
 Manley (G.), Pendulum Observations on Sabine Island, 907
 Mann (E. E.), Coleman and Flood's Civil Engineering Specifications and Quantities, 701
 Mann (F. G.), and Sir W. J. Pope, A Novel Type of Optically Active Complex Metallic Salt, 351
 Mann (L. M'Lellan), A Vitrified Fort at Dunagoil, Bute-shire, 213
 Manouvrier (Dr. L. P.), [obituary article], 245
 Manson (Sir Patrick), a memorial tablet to the late, 400
 Marcelet (H.), The Heats of Combustion of Some Oils of Marine Animals, 587
 Marett (Dr. R. R.), Archæology of the Channel Islands, 20; The Diffusion of Culture (The Frazer Lecture), 410
 Marmar (H. A.), Coastal Currents along the Pacific Coast of the United States, 443
 Marsden-Jones (E. M.), and W. B. Turrill, An Improved Herbarium Method for Geneticists, Ecologists, and Taxonomists, 620
 Marshall (Dr. C. E.), [death], 678
 Marshall (C. E.), and H. J. Page, The Origin of Humic Matter, 393
 Marshall (Col. C. H. T.), [obituary article], 397
 Marshall (Dr. F. H. A.), Biological Fact and Theory, 563; Experimental Embryology, 114
 Marston (H. R.), Milk of the Monotreme, 295
 Martin (Dr. C. J.), Lister's Contribution to Preventive Medicine, 529; Prof. E. H. Starling, 715
 Martin (Dr. G.), The Laws of Air Elutriation, 23; The Modern Soap and Detergent Industry, including Glycerol Manufacture. In 3 vols. Vol. 3, 79
 Martin (H. M.), Convection of Heat in Fluid Flow through Pipes, 672
 Martin (T.), appointed secretary of the Institute of Physics, 96
 Martynov (Dr. A. V.), Fossil Permian Insects from European Russia, 440
 Marvin (F. S.), Newton's Place in Science, Mar. 26, Suppt., 24; The New Outlook in History, 591
 Masson (Prof. I.), The Chemistry of Rhythmic Actions, 267
 Masui (K.), Spermatogenesis in the Mouse and the Rabbit, 26
 Masumoto (H.), A New Transformation of Cobalt, 255
 Mathias (E.), The Study of Fulminating Material, 446
 Mathur (K. K.), V. S. Dubey, and N. L. Sharma, Igneous Rocks of Mount Girnar, 254
 Matignon (C.), and Mlle. G. Marchal, The Heat of Oxidation of Beryllium, 70; The Reducing Properties of Beryllium, 658; and M. Piettre, The Preparation of Beryllium Chloride, 730
 Matthews (E.), appointed demonstrator in the chemistry department of Guy's Hospital Medical School, 69
 Mattick (A. T. R.), The Production and Distribution of Clean Milk, 828
 Maubert (A.), The Influence of Thorium-X on Laccase, 658
 Maunder (Mrs. Annie S. D.), Naked-eye Observations of an Eclipse of the Sun, June 18, Suppt., 81
 Maurain (C.), The Distribution of Earthquakes in Latitude, 587
 Mawson (Sir Douglas), The Igneous Rocks of South Australia, 29
 Maxwell (Prof. J. Clerk), A Dynamical Theory of the Electromagnetic Field, 125
 Maxwell (R. S.), Tuning-Forks with Parallel Prongs, 124
 Mazza (F. P.), and G. D. Jojo, The Rotatory Dispersion of Certain Aspartic Esters, 767
 Mazza (L.), Products formed during the Action of Lead Accumulators (ii.), 623
 Meehan (F. T.), The Expansion of Charcoal on Sorption of Carbon Dioxide, 545
 Meinzer (O. E.), Botany and Hydrology, 254
 Meissner (K. W.), The Spectrum of Argon, 368
 Mellish (Lieut.-Col. H.), [death], 326
 Mellor (Dr. E. T.), Science in Relation to Mining and Other Industries in South Africa, 67
 Menzies (W. J. M.), River Pollution and the Acidity of Natural Waters, 638; Spey Salmon, 830; and P. R. C. Macfarlane, Scottish Salmon, 438
 Mercanton (P. L.), Reversal of Magnetic Dip in Geological Time, 580
 Meredith (C. A.), awarded a Rayleigh prize of Cambridge University, 444
 Merfield (Z. A.), Solar Radiation in the Lyman region, 514; Total Solar Eclipse of May 9, 1929, 514
 v. Merhart (Gero), Bronzezeit am Jenissei: ein Beitrag zur Urgeschichte Sibiriens, 775
 Merrill (G. P.), The Composition of Meteorites, 508
 Merton (T. R.), On Measurement of Intensity of Spectrum Lines, 181; On Temperature and Pressure Regulation in Prismatic Photographs, 181
 Mesnager, The Rectangular Beam loaded at a Point, 586; and Veyrier, The Determination of the Resistance of a Structure on a Reduced Model, 878
 Metcalf (M. M.), Larval Stages in a Protozoon, 339
 Metz (C. W.), Genetic Evidence of a Selective Segregation of Chromosomes in *Sciara* (Diptera), 338
 Meunier (J.), and Mlle. G. Saint-Laurens, Human Biliary Calculi containing a High Proportion of Copper, 183
 Meyer (G. M.), Early Water-mills in relation to Changes in the Rainfall of East Kent, 837
 Meyerhoff (H. A.), and J. F. Kemp, Physiography of the Virgin Islands, 214
 Meyrick (E.), Hereditary Choice of Food-plants in the Lepidoptera and its Evolutionary Significance, 388; Phytophagic or Biological Races in Insects, 782

- Michaelis (Prof. L.), Hydrogen Ion Concentration: its Significance in the Biological Sciences and Methods for its Determinations. Vol. 1: Principles of the Theory. Translated by Dr. W. A. Perlzweig, 346
- Michelson (Prof. A. A.), elected an honorary member of the Russian Academy of Sciences, 793; New Determinations of the Velocity of Light, 794
- Miers (Sir Henry A.), Growth of Crystals (May Lecture of the Institute of Metals), 758
- Miethe (Prof. A.), [obituary article], 754; and Stammreich, The Formation of Gold from Mercury, 474
- Migeod (F. W. H.), A View of Sierra Leone, 849; The Dinosaurs of Tendaguru, 320
- Mill (Dr. H. R.), Behind the Divining Rod, 310, 458; Sir John Scott Keltie, 130
- Miller (Dr. E.), Types of Mind and Body, 702
- Miller (H. J.), The Penetration of Brass by Tin and Solder, with a Few Notes on the Copper-Tin Equilibrium Diagram, 584
- Mitchell (Dr. A. Crichton), The Work of the British Geophysical Observatories, 663
- Mitchell (C. Ainsworth), and T. J. Ward, The Sequence of Strokes in Writing, 689
- Mitchell (J.), A New Deltopecten from the Illawarra District, N.S.W., 947; Shipbuilding and the Shipbuilding Industry, Mar. 19, Suppt., 20; The Fossil *Esteria* of Australia. Part I., 947
- Mitchell (Dr. P. Chalmers), Logic and Law in Biology (Huxley Memorial Lecture), 721, 748
- Mittag-Leffler (Prof. M. G.), elected an honorary member of the Russian Academy of Sciences, 793
- Moens (R.), and H. Steffens, The Thermionic Phenomena in a Magnetic Field, 414
- Mohendra (K. R.), Variation in *Sphaeropsis Malorum*, 657
- Mohler (F. L.), and P. D. Foote, Structure of the Molecule of Carbon Monoxide, 369
- Moir (J. Reid), A Rock of Unknown Origin from Glacial Gravel at Ipswich, 50; The Microscopical Examination of Flint Surfaces, 560
- Moncetz (A. G. de), The Chemical Actions of Radiations, 414
- Mondain-Monval (P.), The Heats of Mixing of Partially Miscible Pairs (of Liquids), 146
- Monod (T.), Marine Crustacea of the Antarctic, 294
- de Montmorency (H.), From Kant to Einstein, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14
- Moore (C. R.), Electro-Mechanical Oscillators, 616
- Moore (Dr. F. J.), [death], 132
- Moore (H.), and S. Beckinsale, The Manufacture and Properties of Hairsprings, 584
- Moore (R. L.), Concerning Paths that do not Separate a Given Continuous Curve, 339
- Mordell (Prof. L. J.), Newton's Work in Pure Mathematics, Mar. 26, Suppt., 40
- Moret (Prof. A.), and G. Davey, translated by V. Gordon Childe, From Tribe to Empire: Social Organisation among Primitives and in the Ancient East, 556
- Morgan (Prof. C. Lloyd), Evolutionary Advance: Emergent and Resultant, 786
- Morgan (Prof. T. H.), elected president of the U.S. National Academy of Sciences, 865
- Morison (Sir Theodore), The Training of Engineers, 225
- Morley (Dr. S. G.), Middle American Archaeological Research, 579
- Morris-Airey (H.), G. Shearing, and H. G. Hughes, Silica Valves, 757
- Mortensen (Dr. T.), An Apparatus for catching the Microfauna of the Sea-bottom, 138
- Moser (L.), and A. Bruki, Determination and Segregation of the Rare Metals from Other Metals (viii.), 107; and M. Niessner, The Determination and Separation of Rare Metals: (ix.) Beryllium from Aluminium, 691
- de Mottoni (G.), Control Experiments for a New Interferometric Method for the Measurement of Microscopic and Ultra-microscopic Objects by Means of Diffraction Gratings, 222
- Moullin (E. B.), The Theory and Practice of Radio Frequency Measurements: a Handbook for the Laboratory and a Textbook for Advanced Students, 155
- Moulton (Prof. F. R.), New Methods in Exterior Ballistics, 485
- Moureu (C.), C. Dufraisse, and R. Chauv, Autoxidation and Anti-oxygen Action (xxi.), 513
- Mouriquand (G.), and A. Leulier, Does Adrenaline exist in the Completely Free State in Fresh Suprarenal Capsules? 221
- Muir (Dr. E.), A Drug Treatment for Syphilitic Lepers, 362
- Muir (Prof. J.), The Polishing of Surfaces, 279; White Spot with Newton's Moving Water Rings, 781
- Muir (J. M.), and C. Drake, Pre-Columbian Huastec Mounds in the Tampico Region, Mexico, 726
- Muir (Sir Thomas), Note on Hyperorthogonants, 838
- Müller (Dr. A.), An X-ray Investigation of Certain Long-chain Compounds, 301
- Mund (W.), and J. d'Olieslager, The Kinetics of Ozone Formation under the Action of the α -particles, 373
- Murie (the late Dr.), Fishing Industries of the Thames Estuary, 726
- Murray (Dr. J. A.), elected president of the Royal Microscopical Society, 292; Nuclear Degenerations due to Multipolar Mitosis, 413
- Murray (Major J. R. Erskine), [obituary article], 361
- Musson (C. T.), and the late J. J. Fletcher, A Case of Natural Hybridism in the Genus *Grevillea* (Proteaceae), 948
- Myers (Dr. C. S.), Vocational Guidance and Selection, 62
- Nadson (G.), The Perforating Algæ of the Black Sea, 730; The Perforating Algæ, their Distribution and their Role in Nature, 838
- Nakamura (K.), and A. Shimomura, Ignition Temperatures of Solid Fuels, 215
- Nall (G. H.), Scottish Sea Trout, 404
- Nañagas (J. C.), and L. C. Santiago, The Physique of Filipinos, 868
- Nannei (B.), Cycles of Elastic Hysteresis in Bismuth Wires, 106
- Nasini (Prof.), The Conceptions of the Atom and Molecule due to Avogadro and Cannizzaro, 435
- Nasledov (D.), and P. Scharawsky, Irregular Emission of X-rays, 508
- Nath (Prof. Vishwa), and Dev Raj Mehta, Origin of Yolk in the Eggs of *Luciola gorhami*, 13
- NATURE (Editor of), Is Darwinism Dead? 427
- Nelson (Dr. T.), The After-Results of Spahlinger Treatment of Tuberculosis, 171
- Nernst (Prof. W.), elected an honorary member of the Russian Academy of Sciences, 793; translated by Dr. G. Barr, The New Heat Theorem: its Foundations in Theory and Experiment, 43
- Newbold (Miss E. M.), The Practical Application of the Statistics of Repeated Events with special reference to the Personal Factor in Industrial Accidents, 730
- Newman (H. A.), elected a lecturer in mathematics in Cambridge University, 875
- Newnham (E. V.), Tropical Cyclones of the Pacific, 218
- Niblack (Admiral), Ocean Currents, 831
- Nicholson (Prof. J. S.), [death], 754
- Nicolle (C.), and V. Lumbroso, Natural Granular Con-junctivitis of the Rabbit, 878
- Niggli (Prof. P.), Lehrbuch der Mineralogie I. und II. Zweite Auflage, 595
- Nimmo (R. R.), Relighting of a Neon Lamp when Momentarily Extinguished at Voltages below the Striking Potential, 586
- Noble (Dr. L. F.), The San Andreas Rift, 834
- Nolan (Prof. J. J.), and J. Enright, Distribution of Sizes among Rain-drops, 922; and G. P. de Sacy, Atmospheric Ionisation, 105
- Norden (H.), Byways of the Tropic Seas: Wanderings among the Solomons and in the Malay Archipelago, 777
- Norman (C.), Pimpinellas of Tropical Africa, 260
- Norman (J. R.), Ambicoloration and Associated Variations in Flat-fishes, 104
- Normand (A. R.), J. B. M. Ross, and E. Henderson, The Distribution of Intensity in the X-ray Spectra of the Normal Saturated Dicarboxylic Acids, their Diethyl and Mono-ethyl Esters, 302
- Norrish (Dr. R. G. W.), Decomposition of Nitrogen Pentoxide, 123
- North (Dr. F. J.), Coalfields of Wales, 581

- Northumberland (Duke of), elected president of the Royal Institution, 681
- Norton (Prof. J. F.), and Prof. I. S. Falk, Laboratory Outlines in Bacteriology and Immunology, Mar. 19, Suppt., 17
- Nottin (P.), The Deposit of Starch on the Tables of Starch Factories, 514; The Hydrolysis of Starch by Sulphuric Acid, 947
- Noüy (Dr. P. Lecomte du), Advantages of the Ring Method for the Study of the Surface Equilibria of Colloidal Solutions, 598; Surface Equilibria of Biological and Organic Colloids, 523
- Noyes (Prof. W. A.), ILLINIUM, 319
- Nuttall (Prof. G. H. F.), made a professor, *honoris causa*, of the University of Strasbourg, 612
- Nuttall (W. L. F.), Tertiary Foraminifera from the Naparima District of Trinidad, B.W.I., 302
- Nuttall (Mrs. Zelia), The Archæology of the Valley of Mexico, 472
- Nutting (Prof. C. C.), [death], 678
- Obrutschew (Prof. W. A.), Geologie von Siberien, 309
- O'Connor (P.), A Universal Growth Inhibitor in Living Tissue, 946
- Oddo (G.), and A. Casalino, Forms of Sulphur Thioxide, 508
- Ogilvie (L.), An Important Virus Disease of *Lilium longiflorum* and its Varieties, 528
- Oguma (K.), Chromosomes of Pigeons, 869
- Omura (Major-General H.), Land Movements during the Japanese Earthquake of Sept. 1, 1923, 254
- Ormsby-Gore (W. G. A.), Nigeria, 469; The Empire Marketing Board, 680
- Ornstein (L. S.), H. C. Burger, J. Taylor, and W. Clarkson, The Brownian Movement of a Galvanometer Coil and the Influence of the Temperature of the Outer Circuit, 802
- Orton (Dr. J. H.), Researches of Sex-change in the European Oyster, 177
- Orwin (C. S.), and H. W. Kersey, Estate Accounts, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12
- Osborn (Dr. H. F.), Discovery of Fossil Bone Implements in Nebraska, of Pliocene Age, 790
- Osborne (Prof. G. D.), Geology of the Country between Lamb's Valley and the Paterson River, 947
- Osborne (Prof. W. A.), The Study of the Reflex, 29
- Osgood (T. H.), Soft X-ray Spectra, 817
- Ostenfeld (C. H.), Phytogeography of Greenland, 761
- Ostwald (Prof. Wo.), with the collaboration of Dr. P. Wolski and Dr. A. Kuhn. Translated by Dr. I. N. Kugelmass and Dr. T. K. Cleveland, Practical Colloid Chemistry, 386
- Owen (Sir Isambard), [death], 132
- Owens (Dr. J. S.), Haze, 561; Review of Home Fires without Smoke, 812
- Oyler (Rev. D. S.), Shilluk Begging Customs, 651
- Page (H. J.), resignation from the Rothamsted Experimental Station, 827; The Term a 'Quarter of Wheat,' 210
- Pagliarulo (N. L.), Natural Refractive and Rotatory Dispersion of Aqueous Solutions of Monoethyl Aspartate, 911
- Palmer (A.), an honorary doctorate conferred upon, by Reading University, 300
- Palmer (W. G.), An Experimental Test of the Dipole Theory of Adsorption, 801
- Paneth (Prof. K.), The Transmutation of Hydrogen into Helium, 706
- Panichi (U.), Crystal Lattices, 623
- Pankhurst (E. Sylvia), Delphos: the Future of International Language, 889
- Pargiter (F. E.), [obituary], 397
- Paris (E. T.), On the Stationary-wave Method of Measuring Sound-absorption at Normal Incidence, 657
- Parker (R. G.), and D. N. Jackman, A New Form of Recording Torsion-Dynamometer, 23
- Parker (R. L.), The Utilisation of Pollen by the Honeybee, 507
- Parkes (Dr. A. S.), On the Occurrence of the Estrous Cycle after X-ray Sterilisation. Part II., 144; Una Fielding, and Dr. F. W. R. Brambell, Ovarian Regeneration in the Mouse after complete Double Ovariectomy, 445
- Parr (S. W.), and F. G. Straub, The Embrittlement of Boiler Plates, 686
- Pars (L. A.), elected a lecturer in mathematics in Cambridge University, 875
- Parsons (Hon. Sir Charles), The Scientific Papers of William Parsons, Third Earl of Rosse, 1800-67, 627; R. J. Walker, and S. Cook, Marine Steam Turbine Progress, 176
- Parsons (Prof. F. G.), The Hythe Skulls, 893
- Parsons (Sir John Herbert), An Introduction to the Theory of Perception, 773
- Parsons Optical Glass Company, Catalogue of Optical Glass, 100
- Partington (Prof. J. R.), Chinese Alchemy, 11
- Pasquini (P.), Investigations on the Experimental Embryology of the Echinoderms (i.), 803
- Paton (Prof. D. Noël), Biological Fact and Theory, 159; Submergence and Postural Apnoea in the Swan, 803
- Patten (Prof. C. J.), The Memory Factor in Biology: a Sketch of the Unity of Life, 741; The Unity of Life, 919
- Patterson (H. S.), and Prof. R. Whytlaw-Gray, Double-Image Effect in Transparent Microscopic Spheres, 199
- Paul (R. W.), The Financing of Research Associations, 673
- Pauling (L.), The Theoretical Prediction of the Physical Properties of many Electron Atoms and Ions, 260
- Pauly (Senor Antonio), Proposed Flying Expedition to the Antarctic, 364
- Payman (Dr. W.), and Prof. R. V. Wheeler, A supposed Law of Flame Speeds, 238, 747, 779; and W. C. F. Shepherd, The Shock-wave following Detonation of High Explosives, 27
- Payne (Cecilia H.), Some Applications of the Ionisation Formula, 339; and Dr. Shapley, The Distribution of Intensity in Stellar Absorption Lines, 98
- Peake (H. J. E.), The Beginning of Agriculture, 158, 894
- Pear (Prof. T. H.), Recent Studies of Skilled Performances, with reference to the Transfer of Training, 906
- Pearcey (F. G.), [obituary], 245
- Pearl (Prof. R.), Comparison of Prices charged for Scientific Books, 577; Graphic Comparison of Relative Variability, 904
- Pearse (Prof. A. S.), Animal Ecology, 193
- Pearson (Helga), On the Skulls of Early Tertiary Suidæ, etc., 877
- Pearson (Dr. J.), The Fisheries of Ceylon, 68
- Pearson (Prof. Karl), The Brain of Laplace, 560; Unauthorised Publication of the "Grammar of Science," 926
- Peczalski (T.), The Action of Salts on Metals, 946
- Peddie (Prof. W.), Magnetism and Temperature in Crystals, 621
- Penfold (A. R.), The Essential Oils of *Eriostemon Coxii* Mueller and *Phebalum dentalum* Smith, 303
- Pensa (Prof. A.), Ciliated Protozoa and Contractility, 439
- Pérard (A.), New Study of some Radiations of Mercury, Krypton, and Xenon from the Point of View of their Meteorological Applications, 622
- Percival (E.), and H. Whitehead, Biology of the Mayfly *Ephemera Danica*, Müll., 35
- Percival (Prof. J.), The Beginning of Agriculture, 157; Wheat in 3500 B.C., 280
- Perrakis (N.), The Specific Heats of a sufficiently Cooled Non-condensed Phase, 262
- Perrine (Dr. C. D.), Progressive Lightning, 278, 816
- Peterhans (E.), The Lias of the Median Pré-Alps, 940
- Petersen (M.), Persistent Lines of Hafnium, 352
- Petit (F.), The Reaction between the Organo-magnesium Compounds and the Nitriles, 910
- Petri (L.), The Method of applying Wood's Light in Investigations on Vegetable Pathology, 479; The Presence in Plants of a Substance which becomes Luminescent in Ultra-violet Light, 690
- Petrie (Sir Flinders), The Fayum Lakes, 238; Work of the School of Archæology in Egypt, 433
- Petterson (Prof. O.), and others, Oceanography of the Baltic and Fishery Research, 99

- Pézar, Sand, and Caridroit, The Relation of Gonad and Plumage in the Fowl, 99
- Philibert (M.), Further Observations on the Apparent Duplication of the Optic Axis of Calcite by Federow's Plate, 107
- Phillips (Major C. E. S.), Fluorescence of Sea Anemones, 747
- Phillips (F. C.), The Serpentine of the Shetland Islands, and the Associated Rocks and Minerals, 836
- Phillips (J.), Forestry Research in South Africa, 333
- Phillips (Prof. R. W.), [obituary article], 92
- Phillips (Rev. T. E. R.), elected president of the Royal Astronomical Society, 292
- Phipps (T. E.), and J. B. Taylor, The Magnetic Moment of Hydrogen, 474
- Piccard (A.), and E. Stahel, The Realisation of the Michelson Experiment in a Free Balloon, 414
- Piccardi (G.), Order Number, Excess Weight, and Atomic Structure, 691
- Pick (W. H.), A Short Course in Elementary Meteorology, 274
- Pickard (G. W.), Radio Reception and Solar Activity, 437
- Pickard (Dr. R. H.), appointed director of the British Cotton Industry Research Association, 679
- Picon, The Action of High Temperatures on some Metallic Sulphides, 302
- Pictet (A.), Synthesis of Lactose, 262
- Pierantoni (Prof. U.), Ultramicroscopic Organisms as Symbionts, 332
- Pigott (Sir Digby), [death], 206
- Pinoy (P. E.), and A. Nanta, The Frequent Existence of a Mycosis of the Spleen in Algeria, 446
- Pittard (E.), The Cranial Capacity of the Boschiman Hottentots, 622; The Weight of the Skull and of the Encephalon of the Boschimans-Hottentots, 767
- Plaskitt (F. J. W.), Microscopic Fresh-water Life, 117
- Plimmer (Prof. R. H. A.), Practical Organic and Biochemistry. New edition, 811
- Pödder (A.), Micromagnetic Oscillations at Zouy, 369
- Poetker (Dr. A. H.), The Infra-red Spectrum of Hydrogen, 123
- Podolsky (B.), On King's Classical Theory of Radiation, 838
- Ponder (E.), The Diameter of the Red Cells of Man before and after Exercise, 802; The Measurement of Percentage Hæmolysis (ii.), 220
- Ponte (G.), Temperature of Laval Percolations from Etna, 691
- Poole (C. E. Lane), Forestry and Land Settlement, 29
- Poole (Dr. H. H.), A Convenient Method of charging Electroscopes, 658
- Porter (Prof. A. W.), resignation of the honorary secretaryship of the Institute of Physics, 96
- Posternak (T.), A New Reaction of Pyruvic Acid, 622
- Potron (l'Abbé), Exercices de calcul différentiel et intégral. Premier volume, Mar. 5, Suppt., 8
- Potter (H. H.), and W. Sucksmith, Etch Planes in Metallic Single Crystals, 924
- Poullson (Prof. E.), Cocaine, 174
- Poulton (Prof. E. B.), Protective Mimicry in Insects, 102
- Power (Dr. F. B.), [obituary article], 573
- Pownall (J. F.), Organised Publication: a connected Series of Proposals relating to the Publication and Record of Scientific and Technical Information, Mar. 19, Suppt., 19
- Prandtl (Prof. L.), awarded the gold medal of the Royal Aeronautical Society, 724
- Preller (Dr. C. Du Riche), The Hydrography and Geology of Umbria, 475
- Preston (F. W.), The Polishing of Surfaces, 13
- Preston (G. D.), The Formation of Twin Metallic Crystals, 600
- Priestley (Prof. J. H.), The Relation of Cork Formation to the Endodermis in the Shoot of the Dicotyledon, 35
- Prior (Dr. G. T.), Alkaline Rocks from Nimrud Volcano, Armenia, 586; awarded the Murchison medal of the Geological Society, 169
- Pritchard (Capt. J. L.), The Book of the Aeroplane, Mar. 19, Suppt., 20
- Privault, The Action of the Antioxygens on Fluorescence, 910
- Proctor (Mary), Legends of the Sun and Moon, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14; The Romance of Comets, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14
- Pruthi (Dr. Hem Singh), Prothetely in Insects, 391
- Przibram (Prof. H.), Die anorganischen Grenzgebiete der Biologie (insbesondere der Kristallvergleich), 738; The Nuptial Pad of Kammerer's Water-bred Alytes, 635
- Pugliese (Prof. A.), Oxidising and Hæmatogenic Power of Bovine Fœtus, 616
- Pullar (Dr. L.), [death], 59
- Pupin (Prof. M.), Fifty Years' Progress in Electrical Communications, 249
- Purday (H. F. P.), Convection of Heat in Fluid Flow through Tubes, 527
- Purdie (H. A.), Electrical Contracting: a Guide and Handbook specially designed to meet the needs of all those engaged in Business as Electrical Contractors, 632
- Puri (A. N.), The Behaviour of Hair Hygrometers, 145
- Purser (G. L.), Nomenclature of the Vertebrate Gut, 855
- Purvis (J. E.), re-appointed University lecturer in chemistry and physics in their application to hygiene in Cambridge University, 764
- Putnam (G. P.), An Expedition to Baffin Island, 865
- Putnam (P. C.), Volcanic Rocks of Central America, 333
- Pycraft (W. P.), Restoration of the Left Innominate Bone of Rhodesian Man, 836
- Pyman (Prof. F. L.), appointed head of the research laboratories of Boots Pure Drug Company, Ltd., 612
- Quäck (E.), Interference of Radio-waves, 870
- Quelet (R.), Parabromobenzyl Chloride and the Grignard Reaction, 730
- de Quervain (Prof. A.), [obituary article], 205
- Radlkofer (Prof. L.), [obituary], 432
- Raistrick (Dr. A.), Lead Mining and Smelting in West Yorkshire, 537
- Ramage (H.), Gallium in Flue Dust, 783
- Raman (Prof. C. V.), Huyghens' Principle and the Phenomena of Total Reflection, 657; and K. S. Krishnan, The Constant of Magnetic Double Refraction of Benzene, 513; and J. Rama Krishna Rao, 528; and C. M. Sogani, X-ray Diffraction in Liquids, 601
- Ramart-Lucas (Mme.), and F. Salmon-Legagneur, The Action of Phenylmagnesium Bromide on the Tri-substituted Acetonitriles, 303
- Ramdas (L. A.), Oil Contamination as a Climatic Factor, 652
- Ramsauer (G.), The Fluorescence of Iodine Vapour, 334
- Ramsbottom (J.), The Society of Amateur Botanists, 104; and E. H. Ellis, Seedling Structure of Cultivated Orchids, 260
- Ramsden (W.), Surface Phenomena, 802
- Rand (Prof. H. W.), The Bermuda Biological Station, 143; and Amy Browne, Grafting in Planaria, 253
- Randoin (Mme. L.), and Mlle. A. Michaux, Comparative Variations in the Content of the Suprarenal Capsules in Water, Fatty Acids, and Cholesterol in the Normal Guinea-pig, etc., 106
- Rankine (Prof. A. O.), appointed honorary secretary of the Institute of Physics, 96; and J. W. Avery, Electrical Polarisation in Selenium Cells and the Effects of Desiccation, 338
- Raper (Prof. H. S.), appointed dean of the Medical School of Manchester University, 476
- Rathbun (Miss M. J.), Fossil Decapod Crustacea, 905
- Rây (Sir P. C.), Lengthened Chain Compounds of Sulphur, 124
- Rayleigh (Lord), Bands in the Absorption Spectrum of Mercury, 778; Ionisation Phenomena in Active Nitrogen, 163; Spectrographic Observations of the Second Green Line of the Auroral Spectrum, 525; Studies of the Mercury Band Spectrum of Long Duration, 801; The Band Spectrum of Mercury from the Excited Vapour, 387
- Rayner (Dr. E. H.), The Moon's Shadow in Relation to the Earth on June 29, June 18, Suppt., 97

- Read (H. H.), The Igneous and Metamorphic History of Cromar, Deeside, Aberdeenshire, 621
- Read (Prof. J.), A Text-book of Organic Chemistry: Historical, Structural, and Economic, 79; Research in Historical Chemistry, 451; Salaries of University Lecturers, 528; The Essential Oils of the Eucalypts, 784; and Dr. G. J. Robertson, Menthones and Derived Substances, 100
- Record (C.), Rotation of Dielectric Bodies in Electrostatic Fields, 319
- Redman (R. O.), elected to the Sheepshanks Exhibition in Astronomy at Trinity College, Cambridge, 544
- Regan (C. Tate), appointed director of the Natural History Departments of the British Museum, 398
- Reich (H. J.), Direction Changes and Fading in Radio Signals, 905
- Reid (Eleanor Mary), and Marjorie Elizabeth Jane Chandler, British Museum (Natural History): Catalogue of Cainozoic Plants in the Department of Geology. Vol. 1: The Bembridge Flora, with a Section on the Charophyta, by J. Groves, 887
- Reilly (Prof. J.), Martin's The Modern Soap and Detergent Industry, including Glycerol Manufacture. Vol. 3, 79; The Chemical Age Year Book, Diary, and Directory, 1927, 275
- Reisner (Dr.), An Archæological Discovery at Giza, 791
- Reith (Sir John), elected a member of the Athenæum Club, 211
- Remotti (E.), Phenomena accompanying the Crisis of Sexual Maturation of *Gambusia*, 414; Photo-reactive Behaviour in Tadpoles and Fry Fed with Thyroid, 107
- Remsen (Dr. I.), [death], 397; [obituary article], 608
- Rennie (Prof. E. H.), The Chemical Exploitation, Past, Present, and Future, of Australian Plants, 28; [death], 206; [obituary articles], 361, 431
- Reymond (Prof. A.), translated by Ruth Gheury de Bray, History of the Sciences in Greco-Roman Antiquity, 776
- Rhodin (J. G. A.), Kristofer Polhem, The Archimedes of the North, 22
- Ribeiro (J.), The Caves of Sewri, 374
- Richardson (Dr. L. F.), The Deferred Approach to the Limit, 181; and D. Proctor, Diffusion over Distances ranging from 3 km. to 86 km., 478
- Richardson (Prof. O. W.), A Connexion between the Visible and Ultra-violet Bands of Hydrogen, 801; Atomic Physics, 905; elected president of the Physical Society of London, 330; The Hydrogen Band Spectrum: New Band Systems in the Violet, 801; and M. Brotherton, Electron Emission under the Influence of Chemical Action at High Gas Pressures, and Some Photo-electric Experiments with Liquid Alloys, 802
- Richardson (Dr. S. W.), Rotation of Dielectric Bodies in Electrostatic Fields, 238; [death], 645
- Richet (Dr. C.), Death in a Superoxygenated Atmosphere, 658; The Conditions of Death in Electric Tetanus in Fishes, 910
- Riddell (Lord), The Business Climate, 411
- Rideal (Dr. E. K.), Electrometric Methods, 346
- Rigge (Father W. F.), [death], 933
- Rignano (Prof. E.), Man not a Machine: a Study of the Finalistic Aspects of Life, 738
- Rikovsky (Dr. Fr.), Rainfall of Moravia, 214
- Riou (P.), An Apparatus for Measuring the Rates of Absorption of Gases by Liquids, 373; and P. Cartier, The Influence of Some Organic Substances on the Velocity of Absorption of Carbon Dioxide by Solutions of Neutral Sodium Carbonate, 446
- Ritchie (Dr. J.), The Preservation of Nature, 265
- Rivet (Dr. P.), American-Indian Music and Musical Instruments, 614; Malayo-Polynesians in America, 332
- Roach (W. A.), On the Nature of Disease Resistance in Plants, with special reference to the Wart Disease of Potatoes, 33
- Robertson (Dr. G. J.), appointed lecturer in chemistry in the United College, St. Andrews, 656, 688
- Robertson (K. M.), awarded the Dunn exhibitions in anatomy and physiology of London University, 799
- Robertson (Sir R.), and Dr. J. J. Fox, Effect of Temperature on the Refractive Index of Rocksalt, 818
- Robinson (Prof. J. H.), The Ordeal of Civilisation: a Sketch of the Development and World-wide Diffusion of Our Present-day Institutions and Ideas, 591
- Rodd (E. Rennell), People of the Veil: being an Account of the Habits, Organisation, and History of the Wandering Tuareg Tribes which Inhabit the Mountains of Air or Asben in the Central Sahara, 551
- Rogers (F. H.), Madi Rainstones, 868
- von Rohr (Dr. M.), History of English Opticians in the First Half of the Nineteenth Century, 837
- Rolla and Fernandes, Isolation of Element 61, 27, 215; A New Element: Florentium, 374; Florentium or Illinium? 637
- Romieu (M.), A New Histochemical Reaction for the Lecithines, 947
- Rona (E.), and E. A. W. Schmidt, The Penetration of Polonium into Metals, 767
- Rose (Prof. H. J.), appointed professor of Greek in the United College, St. Andrews, 835; Primitive Culture in Italy, Mar. 19, Suppt., 9
- Rosenhain (Dr. W.), Tungsten, 884
- Rosenthal (Sir Charles), Nation Building, 29
- Ross (F. E.), Photographs of Mars in 1926, 252
- Ross (Dr. H. C.), [death], 59
- Ross (Principal J. F. S.), Some Problems of the Smaller (Technical) Institution, 411
- Rosseland (Prof. S.), The Interior of a Star, 111
- Rossi (G.), The Scintillation of the Stars, 691
- Ross-Mackenzie (J.), The Causes and Correction of Cloudiness in Malt Liquors, 802
- Rothmund (Prof. V.), [obituary], 862
- de Rothschild (Baron Edmond), gift for an institute for physical and chemical research, 725
- Rout (Ettie A.), Maori Symbolism: being an Account of the Origin, Migration, and Culture of the New Zealand Maori, as recorded in Certain Sacred Legends, 386
- Rovsing (Prof. T.), [death], 245
- Rowan (Prof. W.), Factors of Bird Migration, 405; Migration and Reproductive Rhythm in Birds, 351
- Ruark (Prof. A. E.), The Effect of Intense Light on the Energy Levels of Atoms, 389
- de Rubies (S. P.), The Arc Spectrum of Europium, 302; The Arc Spectrum of Gadolinium, 586
- Rudberg (E.), The Energy of Photo-electrons produced by Soft X-rays, 704
- Runge (Prof. C.), [death], 432; [obituary article], 533
- Rupp (E.), Polarisation of Light emitted by Positive Rays, 100
- Russell (Dr. A.), Television, 198
- Russell (A.), Occurrence of Nicolite and Ullmannite at the Settlingstones Mine, Fourstones, Northumberland, etc., 261
- Russell (A. D.), West Indian Stone Collars, 26
- Russell (Sir E. J.), Chinese Agriculture, 698; Plant Nutrition and Crop Production, 454; Science and Food Production, 636
- Russell (Prof. H. N.), Exploded Wires, 829; The Distant Companion of Castor, 25; The Minor Planets, 137
- Russell (Scott), The Preservation of Stone, 832
- Russi (G.), The Scintillation of the Stars, 414
- Ruston (Dr. A. G.), and C. V. Dawe, Farm Calculations and Accounts, including a thorough Treatment of Agricultural Calculations and of the Business Transactions of the Farm, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12; Farm Measurements: a Practical Treatment of Problems in Mensuration, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12
- Rutherford (Sir Ernest), The Guthrie Lecture, 363
- Ruud (B.), Norwegian Plankton Investigations, 472
- Ryder (D.), and T. C. Finlayson, The Control of Chemical-plant Operation, 23
- Saha, Sur, and Mazumdar, The Thermal Ionisation of Elements, 334
- Salaman (Dr. R. N.), Potato Varieties, 271
- Salant (E. O.), Absorption Bands of Liquid and Vapour Amines, 926
- Salmon (C. E.), Some Interesting British Plants, 104
- Salzman (L. F.), English Life in the Middle Ages, 275

- Sampson (H. C.), appointed economic botanist at the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, 577; visit to British Guiana, 866
- Sansom (G. S.), The Giant Cells in the Placenta of the Rabbit, 512
- Sargent (Prof. C. S.), [death], 609; [obituary article], 645
- Sargent (R. M.), Recovery from Vigorous Exercise of Short Duration, 144
- Sars (Prof. O.), [death], 609; [obituary article], 822
- Sasaki (J.), Helium Content of Japanese Minerals, 541
- Sass (H. R.), The Way of the Wild, 633
- Satina (Sophia), and A. F. Blakeslee, Biochemical Differences between Sexes in Plants, 838
- Savage (W. G.), Recent Advances in the Bacteriological Examination of Food and Water, 34
- Sayce (R. V.), appointed lecturer in material culture and physical anthropology in Cambridge University, 943
- Sazerac (R.), H. Nakamura, and Mme. N. Kitchevatz, Action of Bismuth on Hæmorrhagic Icterus, 478
- Scagliarini (G.), and G. Tartarini, Additive Compounds of Halides of Bivalent Metals with Organic Bases (iii.), 107
- Scales (Dr. F. S.), Practical Microscopy: an Introduction to Microscopical Methods. Third edition, 557
- Schenck (W. R.), The Emeryville Shell Mound, California, 438
- Schilt (J.), Statistical Properties of Galactic Cepheids, 212
- Schlesinger (Prof. F.), awarded the gold medal of the Royal Astronomical Society, 133
- Schmid (L.), and G. Bilowitzki, Insulin, 374
- Schmidt (Prof. J.), English edition by Dr. H. G. Rule, A Text-book of Organic Chemistry, 384
- Schmidt (S.), The Velocity of Flocculation and Velocity of Neutralisation of the Antitetanus Serum towards the Tetanus Toxin, 910
- Schoch (C.), Mercury, 252, 505
- Schoeller (W. R.), and C. Jahn, The Analytical Chemistry of Tantalum, Niobium, and their Mineral Associates (vii.), (viii.), 836
- Schonland (B. F. J.), and J. Craib, The Electric Fields of South African Thunderstorms, 260
- Schopfer (W. H.), The Molecular Concentration of the Liquids of Parasites, 514
- Schorstein (Dr. G. I.), establishment of a research fellowship in Oxford University in memory of, 476
- Schott (Prof. G. A.), Wave Mechanics and Classical Mechanics and Electrodynamics, 820
- Schreiber (Dr. G.), Should a Medical Examination before Marriage be Obligatory? 436
- Schröter (Carl), Festschrift, 153
- Schuster (Sir Arthur), Distinctive Colour Senses of Artists, 783
- Schwinner (R.), The Origin of Meteorites, 796
- Scialoja (Prof.), The Activities of the Reale Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei, 434
- Scopes (J. T.), Result of the Appeal against Fine for Teaching the Truth of Evolution, 134
- Scott (Prof. A. W.), [death], 432; bequests by, 682, 764
- Scott (Dr. D. H.), Devonian Flora, 368
- Scott (Prof. E.), The Discoveries of the Western Australian Coast, with especial reference to Dampier and D'Entrecasteaux, 29
- Scott (H.) Narrative of an Expedition to Abyssinia, 836
- Seares (F. H.), Some Systematic Features in the Distribution of Stars, 461
- Searle (A. B.), Cement, Concrete, and Bricks. Second edition, 455
- Searle (Dr. G. F. C.), reappointed University lecturer in experimental physics in Cambridge University, 799
- Sears (Prof. G. W.), A Systematic Qualitative Chemical Analysis: a Theoretical and Practical Study of Analytical Reactions of the more Common Ions of Inorganic Substances. Second edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 16
- Sedgwick (Mrs. W. T.), Acoma, the Sky City: a Study in Pueblo-Indian History and Civilization, 44
- Seeliger (Prof.), Conduction of Electricity through Gases, 653
- Seguin (M.), British Railways of 1825 as seen by Marc Seguin, 402
- Sekiguti (A.), Solar Radiation, 366
- Seligman (Mrs. B. Z.), The Life of a Nilotic Tribe, 113
- Seligman (Prof. C. G.), Rest Periods in New Guinea, 506
- Seljakow (Prof. N.), J. Kurdumoff, and N. Goodtzov, Tetragonal Structure of Carbon Steel, 494
- Sen (N. R.), On Fresnel's Convection Coefficient in General Relativity, 877
- Senderens (J. B.), The Catalytic Decomposition of Formic Acid, 730
- Seton (Dr. W.), [death], 206
- Sexton (Mrs. E. W.), and C. F. A. Pantin, Inheritance in *Gammarus chevreuxi* Sexton, 119
- Sharman (C. F.), The Application of the Method of the Magnetic Spectrum to the Study of Secondary Electronic Emission, 34
- Sharpey-Schafer (Sir E.), George Henry Lewes, 281
- Shaw (Dr. H. Knox), Proper Motions of Faint Stars, 471
- Shaw (Sir Napier), Thermodynamic Diagrams in the Study of the Upper Air, 118; with the assistance of Elaine Austin, Manual of Meteorology. Vol. 1. Meteorology in History, 915
- Sheehy (E. J.), The Correlation of Nutritive Value with Dry Matter Content of Pastures, 586; The Relative Food Values of Brown and White Wheat Flour, and their Comparative Potency for the Prevention of Xerophthalmia in Guinea-pigs, 803
- Sheldon and Estey, The Attempted Change of Mercury into Gold, 215
- Sheppard (Dr. S. E.), Adsorption of Dyes to Silver Halides: a Correction, 281; Electro-deposition of Rubber, 393
- Sheppard (T.), Prehistoric Archaeology in Yorkshire, 601
- Sherrin (G. C.), Apparatus for Demonstrating Popular Experiments in Dynamics, 25
- Sherrington (Sir Charles S.), Lister and Physiology, 606
- Shetelig (Dr. H.), Préhistorie de la Norvège, Mar. 5, Suppt., 1
- Shirmann (Mrs. M. A.), Vacuum Technique, 66
- Shirokogoroff (Dr. S. M.), Anthropology of Eastern China and Kwangtung Province, 231; Northern Tungus Migrations, 253
- Short (Major H. E.), Sand-flies and Kala-azar, 893
- Shotton (F. W.), elected to the Harkness scholarship in geology in Cambridge University, 943; The Conglomerates of the Enville Series of the Warwickshire Coalfield, 836
- Shoulejkin (Prof. W.), Measurement of Evaporation of Sea Water, 891
- Shrubsole (W. H.), [death], 862
- Shull (Prof. A. F.), Heredity, 156
- Shull (G. H.), Crossing over in the Third Linkage Group of *Oenothera*, 659
- Shurlock (F. W.), Herbert Spencer's Electrical Apparatus, 672
- Siegmund, An Aluminium Film Filter in Telephony, 797
- da Silva (M. A.), A New Determination of the Period of Polonium, 373
- Silvester (C. F.), and H. W. Fowler, New or Rare Fishes, 614
- Simon (A. W.), and J. M. Cage, Rotation of Dielectric Bodies in Electrostatic Fields, 816
- Simon (E.), Les arachnides de France. Tome sixième. Deux. partie, Mar. 5, Suppt., 3
- Simonsen (Dr. J. L.), presentation to, 251; elected president of the Indian Science Congress, 252
- Simpson (Dr. G. C.), The Mechanism of a Thunderstorm, 337
- Sinclair (Dr. St. C. O.), The Chemical Service of the Union of South Africa: its Organisation and Work, 67
- Siracusano (N.), A Noteworthy Deduction from Bohr's Theory, 623
- Sissons (A. T. S.), The Indebtedness of Pharmacy to Organic Chemistry, 28
- Skinner (Dr. H. W. B.), appointed a research fellow in physics in Bristol University, 544
- Slater (G.), The Structure of the Disturbed Deposits of Møens Klint and Lönstrup, Denmark, 182
- Slavenas (P.), A Possible Way to Discuss the Fundamental Principles of Relativity, 339
- Smart (Dr. W. M.), Proper Motions of Faint Stars, 471
- Smekal (A.), The Optical Proof of Lacunæ in the Molecular Structure of Actual Crystals, 222
- Smith (Miss A. Lorrain), A New Family of Lichens, 33

- Smith (Dr. A. M.), appointed lecturer in agricultural chemistry, etc., in Manchester University, 544
- Smith (Dr. B. C.), awarded the Bigsby medal of the Geological Society, 169
- Smith (Eng.-Capt. E. C.), The Tomb of Laplace, 493
- Smith (Rev. Frederick), Prehistoric Man and the Cambridge Gravels, 523
- Smith (Prof. G. Elliot), A Bronze Age Tumulus at Dunstable, 404; The Beginning of Agriculture, 81; The Identification of Certain Elephant-like Creatures represented in the New World, 132; The Origin of Civilisation in America, 3; The People of China, 231
- Smith (Rev. Dr. H. Watson), Evolution and Intellectual Freedom, 288
- Smith (Capt. J. D.), The Botanical Library of, deposited in the Smithsonian Institution, 250
- Smith (K. M.), Some Insect Carriers of Potato Virus Disease, 145
- Smith (Miss Matilda), [death], 326
- Smith (P. S.), J. B. Mertie, and W. T. Foran, Oil Surveys in Northern Alaska, 139
- Smith (Dr. S. W.), awarded the gold medal and premium of the Consolidated Gold Fields of South Africa, Ltd., 505
- Smith (T.), Some Uncultivated Optical Fields, 413
- Smith (W. Campbell), and L. J. Chubb, with chemical analyses by E. D. Mountain. The Petrography of the Austral or Tubuai Islands, South Pacific, 261
- Smith (Miss W. M.), The After Images of Coloured Light, 621
- Smithells (Prof. A.), elected president of the Institute of Chemistry, 402
- Smithells (Dr. C. J.), Tungsten: a Treatise on its Metallurgy, Properties, and Applications, 884
- Smuts (Gen. the Rt. Hon. J. C.), Holism and Evolution, 307
- Smyth (Dr. H. D.), G. P. Harnwell, T. R. Hogness, and E. G. Lunn, Collisions of the Second Kind between Ions and Atoms or Molecules, 85
- Smyth (L. B.), The Index Fossil of the Cleistopora Zone, 658
- Sneed (Prof. M. C.), General Inorganic Chemistry, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15
- Snow (A. J.), Matter and Gravity in Newton's Physical Philosophy: a Study in the Natural Philosophy of Newton's Time, 454
- Soddy (Prof. F.), The Mystery of Money, 46
- Sollas (Prof. W. J.), Behind the Divining Rod, 458, 565; Coup-de-Poing, 490
- Somigliana (C.), The Relations existing between the Geodetic Constants and the Values of Gravity, 478
- Sommerfeld (Prof. A.), Atomic Physics, 797; translated by Dr. H. L. Brose, Three Lectures on Atomic Physics, 488
- Sonnenschein (W. Swan), The Best Books. Third edition. Part 4, 453
- Soothill (Prof. W. E.), Early Chinese Cartography, 506
- Sörensen (Prof. S. P. L.), Characterisation of Genuine Proteins, 369
- Spath (Dr. L. F.), Notes on Yorkshire Ammonites, 543
- Spear (R. H.), A Junior Inorganic Chemistry. Second edition, 702
- Spearman (Prof. C.), Synoptic Psychology, 630
- Speke (Capt. J. H.), centenary of the birth of, 646
- Spencer (J. F.), and E. M. John, The Magnetic Susceptibility of some Binary Alloys, 477
- Spencer (Dr. L. J.), Biographical Notices of Mineralogists recently deceased (third series), 586
- Speyer (E. R.), A Parasite of the Greenhouse White-fly, 868
- Spiegel (Dr. L.), [death], 361
- de Spinoza (Benedictus), Prof. G. Dawes Hicks, 357
- Spoehr (H. A.), Photosynthesis, 808
- Sponer (H.), Absorption Bands in Nitrogen, 838
- Spooner (Prof. H. J.), Notable Centenaries of this Year, 134
- Sprague (T. A.), and V. S. Summerhayes, The Geographical Distribution of some Santalaceae, 945
- Stamp (Dr. L. D.), Oil in Burma, 333
- Stanley (Sir H. M.), The Uganda Mission and, 207
- Stapf (Dr. O.), awarded the Linnean Medal of the Linnean Society, 649; presented with the medal of the Linnean Society, 866
- Starkey (W. F.), Cellulose Paints, 727
- Starling (Prof. E. H.), [death], 678; [obituary article], 715
- Staub (Dr. W.), The Indians of Huastec, 367
- Steers (J. A.), An Introduction to the Study of Map Projections, 888
- Steffensen (Prof. J. F.), Interpolation, 921
- Stelfox (A. W.), The Aculeate Hymenoptera of Ireland, 413; An Arctic Peat in Ireland, 781
- Stern (Prof. O.), and others, Deflexion of Atomic Rays, 727
- Stern (Miss R.), The Teaching of Chemistry in the Middle School, 619
- Steward (G. C.), On Herschel's Condition and the Optical Cosine Law, 478; On the Addition of the Primary Aberrations, 35
- Stewart (Prof. J. D.), The Relationship of Veterinary Science to the Prosperity of the State, 29
- Stewart (R. B.), Gabb's Californian Fossil Gastropods, 255
- Stieglitz (Prof. J.), Chemistry and Recent Progress in Medicine, 156
- Stiles (Dr. C. W.), Consideration of Six Cases in Zoological Nomenclature, 817
- Stiles (Prof. W.), Carbon Assimilation, 406
- Stirling (Dr.), The Pygmies of the Nassau Mountains, 249
- Stoakley (F. J.), [death], 132
- Stone (G.), Observations upon Mining Law in the Empire, 646
- Stoner (Dr. E. C.), Magnetic Research, 762; Magnetism and Atomic Structure, 809
- Stoppel (Dr. Rose), The Electrical Conductivity of the Atmosphere, 140
- Störmer (Prof. C.), The Aurora of October 15, 1926, in Norway and Sounds associated with it, 45
- Stout (Prof. G. F.), elected an honorary fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, 411
- Strangeways (T. S. P.), [death], 59; [obituary article], 92
- Stratton (F. J. M.), Astronomical Programme of Eclipse Work, June 18, Suppt., 98; Modern Eclipse Problems, 898
- Straw (S. H.), Fish Remains from the Upper Silurian Rocks of Ludlow, 766
- Streeter (Rev. Canon B. H.), Reality: a New Correlation of Science and Religion, 273
- Strong (L. C.), Effect of a Slow-growing Adeno-carcinoma of the Mouse, 839
- Strurger (S.), The Influence of Hydrogen Ion Concentration on the Protoplasm of Root Hairs in *Hordium vulgare*, 222
- Stuart (Dr. M.), The Geology of Oil, Oil-Shale and Coal, Mar. 19, Suppt., 13
- Stuart-Jones (Prof. H.), appointed principal of the University College of Wales, 688
- Stumper (R.), The Thermal Analysis of the Dehydration of Gypsum, 837
- Summers (Dr. M.), The History of Witchcraft and Demonology, 882
- Sutton (H.), and J. W. W. Willstrop, Surface Film of Aluminium, 673, 924
- Suzuki (M.), Detection of Internal Flaws in Rails, 255
- Sverdrup (H. U.), The Tides on the North Siberian Shelf, 763
- Sverdrup (Miss), Linkage in Garden Peas, 473
- Swarts (F.), Trifluoroacetylacetic Acid and Ester, etc., 910
- Swift and Sons (J.), Catalogue of Microscopes and Accessories, 63
- Synge (J. L.), Mathematical Investigation of the Thrust Experienced by a Cylinder of any Section in a Current of Inviscid Liquid, etc., 658
- Szent-Györgyi (Dr. A. v.), The Chemistry of the Adrenal Cortex, 782
- Tamura (Y.), The Effects of Implantation upon Ovarian Grafts in the Male Mouse, 621
- Tansley (A. G.), appointed Sherardian professor of botany in Oxford University, 179
- Tarrant (A. G.), The Appeal of the National Union of Scientific Workers, 436
- Tattersall (Prof. W. M.), Euphausiacea and Mysidacea from the Western Atlantic, 614
- Tattersfield (F.), and C. T. Gimingham, An Apparatus and Technique for Contact Insecticides, 546

- Taylor (Prof. A. E.), appointed Leslie Stephen lecturer for 1927, 69
- Taylor (Dr. E. M'Kenzie), appointed lecturer in agricultural chemistry in Cambridge University, 835
- Taylor (Prof. G. I.), An Experiment on the Stability of Superposed Streams of Fluid, 657; elected a member of the Athenæum Club, 211; Turbulence (Symons Memorial Lecture), 586
- Taylor (Prof. H. S.), The Mechanism of 'Knock' Suppression, 746; and J. R. Bates, Photosensitised Decompositions by Excited Mercury Atoms, 339
- Taylor (H. V.), appointed horticultural commissioner of the Ministry of Agriculture, 171
- Taylor (Prof. L. W.), W. W. Watson, and Prof. C. E. Howey, General Physics for the Laboratory, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15
- Taylor (P. A.), The Light Intensity of the Calcium Chromosphere, 945
- Taylor (R. A.), Inheritance of Rubber Yield, 683
- Teepie (J. E.), awarded the Perkin medal by the American Section of the Society of Chemical Industry, 577
- Teisen (T.), Some Further Developments in Recuperative Glass Furnaces, 621
- Telford (C. J.), A Forest Survey of Illinois, 31
- Terada (Prof. T.), Sunspot Frequencies and Terrestrial Phenomena, 293
- Terman (L. M.), and others, Mental and Physical Traits of a Thousand Gifted Children. Second edition, 695
- Termier (P.), That the Crystallophyllian Series of the Vanoise and of Mont-Pourri (Savoy Alps) is Permian or Carboniferous, 621
- Thaysen (A. C.), and H. J. Bunker, The Microscopical Study of Deteriorated Fabric from Early Egyptian Tombs, 802
- Theiler (Sir Arnold), and others, Lamsiekte in Cattle in South Africa, 904
- Theobald (F. V.), The Plant Lice or Aphididæ of Great Britain. Vol. 1, 115
- Thibaud (Dr. J.), The Polymorphism of Higher Fatty Acids, 852; The Various Crystalline Forms of Long Chain Organic Compounds and the Difficulties of Interpretation of their X-ray Spectra, 262
- Thom (C.), and Margaret B. Church, The Aspergilli, 386
- Thomas (L. H.), On the Capture of Electrons by Swiftly-moving Electrified Particles, 301; The Calculation of Atomic Fields, 34; The Effect of the Orbital Velocity of the Electrons in Heavy Atoms on their Stopping of α -particles, 445
- Thomas (Dr. W.), appointed principal of the Denbighshire Technical Institute, Wrexham, 729
- Thomassen (L.), Transmutation of Elements, 813
- Thompson (J. Ridley), Correlation Coefficients and the Theory of Mental Abilities, 705
- Thompson (Dr. R. Campbell), Conceptions of the Cosmos in Ancient Babylonia, 170
- Thomson (Prof. Elihu), awarded the Faraday medal of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, 171
- Thomson (Prof. G. P.), and A. Reid, Diffraction of Cathode Rays by a Thin Film, 890
- Thomson (Sir J. J.), Newton's Work in Physics, Mar. 26, Suppt., 36
- Thorndike (E. L.), A Fundamental Theorem in Modifiability, 659
- Thornycroft (Sir John E.), Torpedo Boats and their Machinery, 537
- Thorpe (Prof. J. F.), and Prof. M. A. Whiteley, A Student's Manual of Organic Chemical Analysis: Qualitative and Quantitative. Reissue with Appendix on New Methods of Organic Analysis, by H. ter Meulen and J. Heslinga, Mar. 19, Suppt., 16
- Thorpe (S. K.), Technical Terms in Brewing and Malting, 438
- Thorpe (W. H.), Phytophagic or Biological Races in Insects, 602
- Thovet (J.), The Propagation of Aerial Waves in Large Subterranean Cylindrical Mains, 546
- Tibyrčić (L. W.), Chemical Formulæ of Mineral Compounds, 815
- Tiegs (O. W.), Metamorphosis of Insects, 35
- Tiercy (G.), The Ionisation of Gases and the Temperature of the Stars, 514
- Tierney (C.), Caballero's Technique for Mounting Diatom and Other Type Slides, 70
- Tiffeneau (M.), and Mlle. J. Lévy, The Reality of the Semipinacolic Transposition, 146
- Tilden (Sir W. A.), [obituary article], 58
- Tilley (C. E.), A Melilite-spurrite- Ca_2SiO_4 Assemblage from Larne (Antrim), 586
- Tillyard (Dr. R. J.), elected an honorary member of the Entomological Society of Belgium, 681; The Principles of Biological Control in Economic Entomology (True-man Wood Lecture), 202, 242
- Titley (A.), Trevithick and Rastrick, and the Single Acting Expansive Engine, 208
- Tizard (H. T.), appointed secretary to the Committee of the Privy Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, 504, 610
- Tolman (R. C.), On the Equilibrium between Radiation and Matter, 338
- Topley (Prof. W. W. C.), resignation of the chair of bacteriology, etc., in Manchester University, 372
- Topping (J.), On the Mutual Potential Energy of a Plane Network of Doublets, 180; and S. Chapman, On the Form and Energy of Crystalline Sodium Nitrate, 180
- Travers (A.), and Joutot, The Iodometric Estimation of the Antimonic Ion, 587
- Travers (Dr. M. W.), appointed reader in applied physical chemistry in Bristol University, 544
- Treadwell (A. L.), Polychèta from the Philippines, 473
- Treloar (H. M.), Variation of Wind with Height at Melbourne when Geotropic Winds are Northerly, 838
- Trevan (J. W.), The Error of Determination of Toxicity, 878
- Trillat (J. J.), The Analytical Interpretation of the X-ray Spectra of the Fatty Acids and their Mixtures, 690; The Secondary Action of the X-rays on Microorganisms, 183
- Troup (Prof. R. S.), The Imperial Forestry Institute, 197
- Trumpler (R. J.), Photographs of Mars, 938
- von Tschermak (Dr. G.), [death], 933
- Tsukamoto (K.), The Transparency of Sea Water for the Extreme Ultra-violet, 373
- Tuckerman (L. B.), The Property of Dilatancy, 602
- Tummers (Dr. J. H.), Philosophy and Physics, 440
- Tunnicliffe (H. E.), appointed University demonstrator in physiology in Cambridge University, 729
- Turnbull (J.), Modern Fruit Tree Spraying and What it costs, 828
- Turner (Prof. H. H.), awarded the Bruce gold medal of the Astronomical Society of the Pacific, 402; Conceptions of the Cosmos in the Galilean and Newtonian Period, 400; conferment report, of a doctorate by California University, 827; Eclipses, 102; Seismological Observations, 295
- Turner (Prof. R. L.), Gypsy Linguistics, 830
- Turner (Prof. W. E. S.), Furnace Development, 909; Physics in the Glass Industry, 825
- Turnor (Christopher), British Settlement in the Dominions Overseas, 890; Land Politics and Economics, 845
- Turpin (F. E.), [obituary article], 500
- Turrentine (Dr. J. W.), Potash: a Review, Estimate and Forecast, 385
- Tuve (M. A.), A Source for Resonance Radiation, 85
- Tyrrell (Dr. G. W.), and Dr. M. A. Peacock, The Palagonite Formation of Iceland, 507
- Tzvyitch (Cvijić) (Prof. Y.), [death], 432
- Ursell (H. D.), The Evaluation of Gibbs' Phase Integral for Imperfect Gases, 445
- Vachell (Miss Eleanor), An Unusual Specimen of Anagallis, 513
- Van Vestraut (Rev. L.), appointed Registrar of the Faraday House Electrical Engineering College, 619
- Van Vleck (Prof. J. H.), The Dielectric Constant and Diamagnetism of Hydrogen and Helium in the New Quantum Mechanics, 338; The Theory of the Paramagnetism of Oxygen and Nitric Oxide, 670
- Vaufrey (R.), The Savignano Statuette, 438
- Vautier (T.), Propagation of Sound in Wide Pipes, 406

- Vegard (Prof. L.), Spectrographic Observations of the Second Green Line of the Auroral Spectrum, 349
- Veil (Mlle. Suzanne), The Evolution of Iron Sulphide in Contact with Water, 182; The Magnetic Behaviour of the Modified Hydroxides in the Presence of Hydrogen Peroxide, 947
- Vellinger (E.), The Rotatory Power of Organic Substances as a Function of the pH; Malic Acid, 302
- Véronnet (A.), Constitution et évolution de l'univers, 850
- Verrill (Dr. A. E.), [death], 432
- Verschaffelt (J. E.), The Variation of Surface Tension with Temperature, 414
- Villard (P.), The Chemical Actions of Radiations, 478; The Utilisation of the Energy of Naturally Occurring Warm Water, 106
- de Villiers (Prof. C. G. S.), Some Aspects of the Morphology and Ontogeny of the Skeletogenous Strata, 67; The Comparative Anatomy of the Breast-shoulder Apparatus of the Three Aglossal Anuran Genera *Xenopus*, *Pipa* and *Hymenochirus*, 838
- Vinassa (P.), The Constituents of the Earth's Crust and the Molecular Number, 767
- Vincent (Dr. G. E.), report of the Rockefeller Foundation for 1925, 576
- Vincent (Prof. Swale), and F. R. Curtis, The Homologues of the Adrenal or Suprarenal Bodies in Teleostean Fishes, 83
- Vines (Dr. S.), the title of emeritus professor conferred upon, by Oxford University, 258
- Volmar and Samdahl, Kirondrine, the Bitter and Toxic Principle of Kirondro Seeds (*Perriera madagascariensis*), 478; The Constitution of α -kirondrine, 547
- Volta, centenary of the death of, 362
- Volterra (Prof. V.), Fluctuations in the Abundance of a Species considered Mathematically, 12; The Periodicity of Biological Fluctuations, 910
- Vredenburg (the late Dr.), The Molluscan Genus *Gisortia*, 684
- Wade (Dr. A.), Two Shallow Oilfields in Texas, 684
- Wade (B.), Upper Cretaceous Fossils of Tennessee, 615
- Waerland (A.), Marten Trierwald and the First Steam Engine in Sweden, 23
- Wagner (Dr. W.), Die chinesische Landwirtschaft, 698
- Wahl (A.), and Féricéan, Disulphisatide, 690
- Walcott (Dr. C. D.), [death], 286; [obituary article], 325
- Waldschmidt-Leitz (E.), Die Enzyme: Wirkungen und Eigenschaften, 596
- Wales (Prince of), speech at the annual dinner of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, 286
- Walker (Prof. C.), Biological Fact and Theory, 161, 456, 814
- Walker (C. E.), and Margaret Allen, The Nature of Golgi Bodies and other Cytoplasmic Structures appearing in Fixed Material, 512
- Walker (F.), The Igneous Geology of Ardsheal Hill, 106
- Walker (Sir Gilbert), re-elected president of the Royal Meteorological Society, 169; The Atlantic Ocean, 169
- Walsh (J. W. T.), Indoor Electrical Illumination, 542; The Theory of Luminescence in Radioactive Luminous Compound, 878
- Walston (Sir Charles), [obituary article], 534
- Walton (A.), The Relation between 'Density' of Sperm-suspension and Fertility as determined by Artificial Insemination of Rabbits, 445
- Walton (Dr. C. L.), and W. N. Jones, Life-History and Distribution of *Limnæa*, 332
- Wander, Ltd. (A.), gift to London University towards a chair of dietetics, 799
- Warburg and Rump, Formation of Ammonia in the Silent Discharge, 369
- Warburton (C.), reappointed demonstrator in medical entomology in Cambridge University, 799
- Ward (A. F. H.), elected to the Amy Mary Preston Read scholarship in Cambridge University, 476
- Ward (J. B.), the recent appeal of the National Union of Scientific Workers, 647
- Warner (A. H.), A Comparison of the Thermionic and Photoelectric Work Functions for Clean Tungsten, 731
- Warren (Genl. Sir Charles), [obituary article], 168
- Wasik (J. A.), Colouring of Metals by Polishing, 762
- Wassmuth (Dr. A.), [death], 933
- Waterlot (E. M. G.), The Pictorial Records of Dahomey, 760
- Waters (W. A.), awarded the Gordon Wigan prize of Cambridge University, 258
- Watson and Sons (Electro-Medical), Ltd., Artificial Sunlight. New edition, 406
- Watson (Dr. W.), Elementary Botany: an Introduction to the Study of Plant Life, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10
- Watt (J. M.), and Marie G. Brandwijk, On *Xysmalobium undulatum*, 838
- Watt (R. A. Watson), The Range of Atmospherics, 689
- Watts (Prof. W. W.), awarded the Wollaston medal of the Geological Society, 169
- Wavre (R.), The Stratification of a Heterogeneous Fluid Mass in Rotation, 622; The Stratification of the Planets and Fredholm's Equation, 587
- Weber (Dr. M.), awarded the Agassiz medal of the U.S. National Academy of Sciences, 793
- Webster (J.), [death], 168
- Webster (W. L.), The Transverse Magneto-resistance Effect in Single Crystals of Iron, 545
- Weekes (Rev. G. A.), re-elected Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge University, 875
- Weidlein (Dr. E. R.), elected president of the American Institute of Chemical Engineers, 63
- Weiss (Prof. F. E.), Some Recent Advances in our Knowledge of Inheritance in Plants, 182
- Welch (G. B.), The Periodicity of Photo-electric Thresholds, 838
- Welch (M. B.), Defective New Zealand Kauri (*Agathis australis*), 303
- Wells (H. G.), Mr. Belloc objects to "The Outline of History," 75
- Wenner (F.), A Principle governing the Distribution of Current in Systems of Linear Conductors, 221
- Wenyon (Dr. C. M.), awarded the Makdougall-Brisbane prize of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, 902
- Wertenstein (L.), A Contribution to the Theory of Diffusion Pumps, 34
- Westermarck (Prof. E.), Ethnology of Tuareg Tribes, 551; The Goodness of Gods, 557
- Weston (H. C.), and S. Adams, Eye-strain in the Hosiery Industry, 726
- Wheeler (Dr. G. C.), Mono-Alu Folklore (Bougainville Strait, Western Solomon Islands), 386
- Whetham (C. Dampier), Politics and the Land, 845
- Whipple (F. J. W.), A Remarkable Deposit of Rime, 328; Audibility of Gunfire, 782; The Detonating Meteor of Oct. 2, 1926, 578
- Whitaker (J.), An Almanack for the Year of Our Lord 1927, etc. Abridged edition, 80
- White (A. G.), The Supposed Law of Flame Speeds, 51, 674
- White (Dr. D. E.), Mississippi Floods, 940
- White (E. I.), The Fish-fauna of the Cementstones of Foulden, Berwickshire, 182
- Whittaker (Prof. E. T.), Present Conceptions of the Cosmos, 502
- Widal (F.), and M. Laudat, Modifications brought about in the Nitrogen Formula of Blood Serum by Renal Impermeability, 106
- Wiener (Prof. N.), and D. J. Struik, Quantum Theory and Gravitational Relativity, 853
- Wightman and Quirk, Intensification of the Latent (or Developable) Image, 619
- Wilder (Prof. H. H.), The Pedigree of the Human Race, Mar. 19, Suppt., 9
- Willey (Dr. E. J. B.), 'Active' Nitrogen, 924
- Williams (Dr. E. J.), The Passage of α - and β -particles through Matter, 262; The Passage of α -Rays and β -Rays through Matter, 489
- Williams (H.), Geology of the Snowdon Massif (North Wales), 33
- Williams (Miss May M.), The Anatomy of *Cheilanthes vellea*, 947
- Williams (Prof. W. C.), [death], 862
- Willis (Dr. J. C.), Age and Area, 795
- Willstätter (Prof. R.), dinner to, 791; The Faraday lecture of the Chemical Society, 790
- Wilmott (A. J.), The Irish Spiranthus called *S. Romanzoffiana* Cham., 546
- Wilson (Prof. C. T. R.), Processes in a Thunder-cloud, 502

- Wilson (D. R.), nominated president of the Illuminating Engineering Society, 612
- Wilson (Prof. E. B.), The Nature of Light, 615
- Wilson (F. E.), New Australian Coleoptera, with Notes on Some Previously Described Species. Part iii., 514
- Wilson (Dr. G. S.), appointed reader in bacteriology and immunology at the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, 799
- Wilson (Sir James), [obituary article], 59
- Wilson (Prof. J.), The Maintenance Requirements of Cattle on Different Kinds of Rations and at Different Rates of Production, 586
- Winge (Dr.), Genetics of *Lebistes*, 831
- Winogradsky (S.), The Degradation of Cellulose in the Soil, 546
- Withers (J. J.), A Fixed Easter, 331
- Withey (W. H.), Surface Film of Aluminium, 923
- Withycombe (Dr. C. L.), [obituary article], 131
- Witmer (E. E.), The Quantisation of the Rotational Motion of the Polyatomic Molecule by the New Wave Mechanics, 731
- Wokes (F.), and S. G. Willimott, A Study of Antimony Trichloride as a Possible Quantitative Reagent for Vitamin A, 837
- Wolf (A.), Some Aspects of the Philosophy of Spinoza, 545
- Wolfe (J. J.), B. Cunningham, and others, The Microplankton of Chesapeake Bay, 439
- Wood (Dr. J. K.), The Chemistry of Dyeing, 742
- Wood (Lucy M.), On Some Land Planarians from Barrington Tops, N.S.W., with Descriptions of New Species, 107
- Woodman (Dr. H. E.), Animal Nutrition in Sweden and Denmark, 486; appointed demonstrator in agricultural chemistry in Cambridge University, 835
- Woodring (W. P.), The Genus *Clementia* in American Tertiaries, 684
- Woodruff (D.), Plato's American Republic, 455
- Woodward (H. E.), appointed University lecturer in engineering in Cambridge University, 907
- Woodward (M.), The New Book of Trees, 742
- Woodworth (Lieut. R. W.), and F. J. Haight, Tides and Currents in Alaska, 684
- Woolcock (W. J. U.), Chemical Industry and Technical Institutions, 942
- Woollard (Dr. H. H.), elected professor of anatomy in Adelaide University, 503
- Woolley (C. L.), Excavations at Ur, 611
- Woolnough (W. G.), The Geology of the Flinders Ranges, South Australia, in the Neighbourhood of Wootana Station, 303
- Wooster (W.), appointed demonstrator in mineralogy in Cambridge University, 835
- Wooster (W. A.), Analysis of Beams of Moving Charged Particles by a Magnetic Field, 477
- Wordie (J. M.), Eskimo in East Greenland, 506
- Worsnop (B. L.), The Scattering of X-rays and the *J* Phenomenon, 836
- Worthington (E. B.), grant to, from the Balfour fund, 943
- Wren (Sir Christopher), Elias Ashmole, and Dr. R. Plot, memorial windows at Oxford, 647
- Wulf, and Prof. L. Berg, Origin of the Crimean Flora, 904
- Wylie (Prof. R. B.), Leaf Structures and Wound Response, 405
- Wynne (Prof. W. P.), Sir William Augustus Tilden, 58
- X. Y., An Amusing Conception of Scientific Discovery, 14
- Yamada (R.), Impact Tests of Steel at Low Temperatures, 215
- Yapp (Prof. R. H.), Festschrift Carl Schröter, 153
- Yokoyama (Prof. M.), Tertiary Shells from Japan, 26
- Yonge (Dr. C. M.), elected Balfour student of Cambridge University, 907; Formation of Calcareous Tubes round the Siphons of *Teredo*, 11; The Absence of a Cellulase in *Limnoria*, 855
- Young (G. A.), and W. L. Uglow, Iron Ore in Western Canada, 796
- Youngman (W.), and S. S. Pande, Occurrence of Branched Hairs in Cotton and upon *Gossypium Stocksii*, 745
- Yule (G. U.), Wolfers's Sunspot Numbers considered as a Disturbed Periodic Series, 337
- Zambonini (F.), and A. Stolfi, Double Sulphates of Rare Earth and Alkali Metals, 222
- Zamerling (Dr. Z.), Grondslagen voor een Weerverzorging op langen Termijn, 298
- Zellner (J.), Chemistry of Halophytes, 36; E. Huppert, R. Klapholz, K. Knie, O. Pollatschek, A. Spitzer, J. Riehling, and M. Stein, Chemistry of Plants with Milky Sap (xvi.), 35; K. Knie, E. Rosenblüh, M. Stein, and J. Riehling, Contributions to Comparative Vegetable Chemistry (xv.), 35

TITLE INDEX.

- α -Bromoaldehydes, A Method of Synthesis of, A. Kirrmann, 547
- α -particles from Radium C: The decrease in Velocity of, G. H. Briggs, 301; The Stragglings of, G. H. Briggs, 301
- α - and β -particles through Matter, The Passage of, Dr. E. J. Williams, 262
- Aberystwyth, Prof. H. Stuart Jones appointed principal of the University College of Wales, 688
- Abnormal Discharge, A New Phenomenon in the, Guntherschulze, 215
- Absorption of Gases by Liquids, An Apparatus for Measuring the Rates of, P. Riou, 373
- Abyssinia, An Expedition to, H. Scott, 836
- Abyssinian, South, frontier, anthropological expedition to the, 248
- Acacias, Description of Fifteen New, and Notes on several other Species, late J. H. Maiden and W. F. Blakely, 222
- Académie des Sciences, Paris, Members and Correspondants of the, L., 459
- Accident Rates, Individual Difference in, E. Farmer and E. G. Chambers, 332
- Acclimatisation and High Altitudes, D. V. Latham, 65
- Acetone, Properties of, 27
- Acetylene, The Addition of, to Carbon Monoxide: the Synthesis of Quinone, J. F. Durand and M. Banos, 837
- Acid Soils, The Lime Requirements of, C. Brioux and J. Pien, 183
- Acoma, The Sky City: a Study in Pueblo-Indian History and Civilization, Dr. W. T. Sedgwick, 44
- Acoustical Experiments with a Mechanical Vibrator, E. Mallett, 657
- Acoustics of Buildings, The, Dr. G. W. C. Kaye, 603
- Acrolein Gels: Peculiarities of the Fractures of, Rhythmic Productions of Ridges, C. Dufraisse and P. Gailliot, 71
- Aculeate Hymenoptera of Ireland, The, A. W. Stelfox, 413
- Adams prize of Cambridge University, Dr. H. Jeffreys awarded the, 436
- Adelaide University, Dr. H. H. Woollard appointed professor of anatomy in, 503
- Adhesives and Adhesions: True Chemical Compounds as Adhesives, Prof. J. W. McBain and W. B. Lee, 181
- Adolescent, Education of the, Report of the Consultative Committee on the, 185
- Adrenal Cortex, The Chemistry of the, Dr. A. v. Szent-Györgyi, 782
- Adrenaline exist in the completely Free State in Fresh Suprarenal Capsules? Does, A. Mouriquand and A. Leulier, 221
- Adsorption, The Dipole Theory of, An Experimental Test of, W. G. Palmer, 801
- Aerial: Navigation, Artificial Light in connexion with, H. N. Green, 434; Waves, The Propagation of, in Large Subterranean Cylindrical Mains, J. Thovert, 546
- Aeronautical Pioneers, a Memorial Tablet to Three, at Cambridge, 757
- Aeroplane: Flight, a Non-stop, by, C. Chamberlin and Mr. Levine, 865; Flights, Recent Long-distance, 792; Resistance and the Tilt of an, What determines the, Sir Joseph Larmor, 445, 798; The Book of the, Capt. J. L. Pritchard, Mar. 19, Suppt., 20
- Africa: East, a New Dominion: a Crucial Experiment in Tropical Development and its Significance to the British Empire, Major A. G. Church, 917; Tropical, Problems in, 917
- African Languages and Culture, International Institute of, The, 22
- Agassiz Medal of the U.S. National Academy of Sciences, Dr. M. Weber awarded the, 793
- Age and Area, Dr. J. C. Willis, 795
- Agricultural Research: and Administration in the Non-self-governing Dependencies, Report of Commission on, 679; in 1925, 312; Surveying, including Mensuration, Road Construction and Drainage, J. Malcolm, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12
- Agriculture: Ministry of: Retirement of Sir Daniel Hall from the director-generalship of the Intelligence Department of the, 866; H. V. Taylor appointed Horticultural Commissioner of the, 171; The Beginning of, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, 81; Prof. J. Percival, 157; H. J. E. Peake, 158; Beginnings and the Early Spread of, H. J. E. Peake, 894
- Air-bladder and Lungs: a Contribution to the Morphology of the Air-bladder of Fish, Miss Frances M. Ballantyne, 181
- Air Elutriation, The Laws of, Dr. G. Martin, 23
- Alaska, Tides and Currents in, Lieut. R. W. Woodworth and F. J. Haight, 684
- Ala Temporalis and Aliaphenoid Bones, Homology of the, Dr. Kesteven, 99
- AlCl₃-KCl-H₂O at 25°, The System, G. Malquori, 911
- Alcohol: in Fermentation Products, The Refractometric Estimation of, P. Balavoine, 587; The Physiological Action of, S. Baglioni, L. Bracaloni, and A. Galamini, 414, 479; (iii.), S. Baglioni and A. Galamini, 767
- Algae, The Perforating, their Distribution and their Rôle in Nature, G. Nadson, 838
- Algebraic Equations, Numerical Solution of, Dr. H. Jeffreys, 565
- Alkali Chlorides, Luminescence and Coloration of, when treated with Becquerel rays, E. Jahoda, 107
- Alkaloids: Plants Yielding, Lt.-Col. A. T. Gage, 909; The Knowledge of, Dr. T. A. Henry, 909
- Allothrombium fuliginosum* Hermann, Development of, S. Hirst, 260
- Alloy Crystals, Tensile Tests on. Parts i., ii., and iii., C. F. Elam, 877
- Alloys: Binary, The Magnetic Susceptibility of some, J. F. Spencer and E. M. John, 477; Eutectic, The Structure of, F. Hargreaves, 584; Hardness of, A. Mallock, 669; Inverse Segregation in, the Mechanism of, R. Genders, 585; Magnetisation in, L. W. McKeehan, 140; Non-magnetic, Magnetic Analysis as a Means of Studying the Structure of, K. Honda and H. Endo, 585; of Iron and Manganese of Low Carbon Content, Sir Robert Hadfield, 545; The Thermoelectric Power of, E. van Aubel, 414
- Almanack, An, for the Year of our Lord 1927. Complete and abridged editions, J. Whitaker, 80
- Alternating: Current Rectification and Allied Problems: a Mathematical and Practical Treatment from the Engineering View Point, L. B. W. Jolley. Second edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 18; Currents: Alternating-current Apparatus, Elements of, Prof. J. L. Beaver, Mar. 19, Suppt., 18; Measuring, Instruments for, Lt.-Col. K. Edgecumbe and F. E. J. Oekenden, 334
- Aluminium: Film Filter in Telephony, An, Siegmund, 797; Single Crystal of, The Thermal and Electrical Conductivity of a, Dr. E. Griffiths, 545; Surface Film of, H. Sutton and J. W. W. Willstrop, 673, 924; W. H. Withey, 923
- Amarna Age: The, a Study of the Crisis of the Ancient World, Rev. J. Baikie, 851
- Amateur Botanists, The Society of, J. Ramsbottom, 104
- Amber, the Klebs Collection of, procured for the Geological Institute of Königsberg University, 24
- America: Civilisation in, The Origin of, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, 3; Physical Types and Cultures in, Dr. A. Hrdlička, 294
- American: Geophysical Union, Annual Meeting of the, 757; Institute of Chemical Engineers, Dr. E. R. Weidlein elected president of the, 63; -Indian Music and Musical Instruments, Dr. P. Rivet, 614; Mathematical Society, The, 613; Mongolian Expedition, The, Prof. J. W. Gregory, 521; Roentgen Ray Society, forthcoming meeting in Montreal, 827
- Amines, Liquid and Vapour, Absorption Bands of, E. O. Salant, 926

- Ammonia: Decomposition of, by Optically Excited Mercury Atoms, R. G. Dickinson and A. C. G. Mitchell, 339; Hydrogen Mixtures, Ionic Mobilities in, and an Anomalous Effect of Ammonia, L. B. Loeb, 338; in the Silent Discharge, Formation of, Warburg and Rump, 369; The Thermal Decomposition of, upon the Surface of a Molybdenum Wire, R. E. Burk, 731
- Ammonites, Yorkshire, Dr. L. F. Spath, 543
- Amœbæ in Motion, New Imitations of, A. L. Herrera, 767
- Amphibole of the Glaucofane Group, An, L. Duparc, 767
- Amphipneustes, Dr. F. A. Bather, 460
- Anagallis, An Unusual Specimen of, Eleanor Vachell, 513
- Anatomical Texts, Medieval, Dr. G. W. Corner, 939
- Anatomy: Descriptive and Applied, H. Gray. Twenty-third edition, edited by Prof. R. Howden. Notes on Applied Anatomy revised by J. Gray and Dr. J. D. Lickley, 921
- Ancient Cities and Modern Tribes: Exploration and Adventure in Maya Lands, Dr. T. W. Gann, 631; Cottages, The Preservation of, Mr. Baldwin, 503; Man: on the Trail of, a Narrative of the Field Work of the Central Asiatic Expeditions, Dr. R. C. Andrews, 521
- Andromede (or Biëlid) Meteor Storms, The Apparition Dates of the, W. J. Fisher, 339
- Anguilla rostrata*, hatching out eggs of, Marie Poland Fish, 290
- Anhydrous Borates of Silver, Barium, and Zinc, F. De Carli, 479
- Anilopyrine and Antipyrine, P. K. Dutt, 35
- Animal: Ecology, Prof. A. S. Pearse, 193; Nutrition in Sweden and Denmark, Dr. H. E. Woodman, 486; Parasites and Human Disease, Dr. A. C. Chandler. Third edition, 885
- Animals: Looking into the Future, Prof. W. A. Kepner, 233; Slaughtering, British and American Methods of, H. Kidd, 864; without the Spleen, The Different Vicariant Modalities in, Abelou and Argaud, 303
- Anisogeny, A Suggested Interpretation of Certain Cases of, R. J. Chittenden and Caroline Pellew, 10
- Annual Register: The, 1926, Edited by Dr. M. Epstein, 889
- Anopheline Mosquitoes in Scotland, Distribution of, Prof. J. H. Ashworth, 513, 760
- Anoplura, Three New Species of, from South African Mammals, G. A. H. Bedford, 838
- Antarctic: Echinoidea, Prof. R. Koehler, 294; Marine Crustacea of the, T. Monod, 294; Meteorology, 139; Projected Flying Expedition to the, 364; Two-way Communication with the, W. H. Brown, 238, 289
- Anthropologie, Grundriss der, Dr. M. W. Hauschild, Mar. 5, Suppt., 1
- 'Antiknocks,' The Action of, A. Egerton and S. F. Gates, 427
- Antimonic Ion, The Iodometric Estimation of the, A. Travers and Jouot, 587
- Antimony Trichloride as a possible quantitative reagent for Vitamin A, F. Wokes and S. G. Willimott, 837
- Antiquity*: a New Quarterly, 363; Pt. I., 576
- Aphis rumicis* L., On the Occurrence of Intermediates in, J. Davidson, 546
- Aplocheilus latipes*, The Development of Mendelian Characters in, H. B. Goodrich, 147
- Arabia: In Unknown, Major R. E. Cheesman, 381; Pre-Sumerian Man in, L. H. Dudley Buxton and H. Field, 651
- Arachnides de France, Les, E. Simon. Tome sixième. Deux. partie. Mar. 5, Suppt., 3
- Archæology in South Africa, H. Balfour, 226; of the Channel Islands, Dr. R. R. Marett, 20
- Archiplasma: Das, Betrachtungen über die Organisation des Pflanzenkörpers, Prof. H. Miehe, 628
- Arctic: Land in the, 763; Ice, The Distribution of, 615; Peat in Ireland, An, A. W. Stelfox, 781
- Ardsheal Hill, The Igneous Geology of, F. Walker, 106
- Argon, The Spectrum of, K. W. Meissner, 368
- Armstrong College, resignation of Prof. D. A. Gilchrist, 411; resignation of Prof. J. W. Bews; J. W. Harvey appointed professor of philosophy, 765; C. Heigham appointed professor of agriculture; Dr. J. W. Heslop Harrison appointed professor of botany; J. Holmes appointed lecturer in geography, 944
- Army, Health of the, Report for 1925, 648
- Arrow-release, A. L. Kroeber, 904
- Arsenic in Printing Ink, T. H. Barry, 413
- L'Art musical dans ses rapports avec la physique, Prof. J. Becquerel, Mar. 5, Suppt., 8
- Artificial Silk, T. Brough, 140
- Artists, Distinctive Colour Senses of, Sir Arthur Schuster, 783
- Aspartic Esters, The Rotatory Dispersion of Certain, F. P. Mazza and G. D. Jojo, 767
- Aspergilli, The, C. Thom and Margaret B. Church, 386
- Aspergillus niger*, Formation of Organic Acids from Sugars by, Dr. F. Challenger, V. Subramaniam, and Dr. T. K. Walker, 674
- Astronomical Latitude carried out at Andrate in August 1926, Determination of, U. Barbieri, 623

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

Comets:

- Comet Comas Sola, 64; Comets, 137, 173, 212, 252; Return of the Comet Pons-Winnecke, The, 403; A New Comet, 437; Comets, 471, 505; Comet Grigg-Skjellerup, 539; Comets, 578, 650, 759, 938

Instruments:

- A New Reflecting Telescope for Edinburgh, 173

Meteors:

- Brilliant Fireball on Feb. 25, W. F. Denning, 366, 403; Fireball of Mar. 1, W. F. Denning, 471; The Biëlid Meteor Showers, W. J. Fisher, 539; The Detonating Meteor of Oct. 2, 1926, F. J. Whipple, 578; A Fireball on June 10, W. F. Denning, 938

Observatories:

- The Solar Physics Observatory, Cambridge, 25

Planets:

- The Minor Planets, Prof. H. N. Russell, 137; Satellites of Mars, A. Hall, E. C. Bower, and Miss E. A. Lamson, 137; Mercury as an Evening Star, C. Schoch, 252; Photographs of Mars in 1926, F. E. Ross, 252; The Comas Sola quickly moving Asteroid, 293; The Planet Neptune, M. E. J. Gheury de Bray, 293; Mercury as an Evening Star, C. Schoch, 505; The Position of the Axis of Mars, 829; Photographs of Mars, 938

Stars:

- Observations of Proxima, Innes and van den Bos, 25; The Distant Companion of Castor, Prof. H. N. Russell, 25; A New Photographic Star Catalogue, 98; The Distribution of Intensity in Stellar Absorption Lines, Miss Payne and Dr. Shapley, 98; Statistical Properties of Galactic Cepheids, J. Schilt, 212; Spectroscopic Parallaxes, Adams, Joy, and Humason; A. V. Douglas, 331; The Orbit of 61 Cygni, P. Baize, 403; Proper Motions of Faint Stars, Dr. W. M. Smart; Dr. H. Knox Shaw, 471; Southern Double Stars, W. H. van den Bos, 505; Kordylewski's Variable Star, 613; Globular Clusters and Spiral Nebulae, A. R. Hinks, 725; Recent Sunspot Activity, 759

Sun:

- Sunspot Activity, 1926-27, 64; Recent Sunspot and Magnetic Disturbance, 98; Weather Conditions in Norway for the Eclipse of June 29, 1927, K. Kordylewski and Z. Eckstein, 98; A Large Sunspot, 173; Solar Radiation, Dr. C. G. Abbot, 212; Sunspot Frequencies and Terrestrial Phenomena, Prof. T. Terada, 293; Solar Radiation, R. Sekiguti, 366; The Sun's Motion derived from Faint Stars, P. van de Kamp, 366; Radio Reception and Solar Activity, G. W. Pickard, 437; Solar Eclipse of June 29, 437; The Coming Solar Eclipse, 682; A. J. Hawkes, 794

Miscellaneous:

- Another Repetition of the Michelson-Morley Experiment, R. J. Kennedy, 64; The Observer's Handbook for 1927 (Royal Astronomical Society of Canada), 293; A Fixed Easter, 331; Calendar Reform, M. B. Cotsworth, 613; Astrophysics in Russia, 725; New Determinations of the Velocity of Light, 794; Royal Astronomical Society's Annual Report, 794; Exploded Wires, Prof. H. N. Russell, 829; Rare Astronomical Books, 938

- Astronomy: Elementary, 593; Modern, its Rise and Progress, Dr. H. Macpherson, Mar. 19, Suppt., 13; The Elements of, a non-mathematical textbook for use as an introduction to the subject in colleges, universities, etc., and for the general reader, Prof. E. A. Fath, 593
- Astrophysics in Russia, 725
- Athenæum Club: E. G. Dawber, Sir John Reith, and Prof. G. I. Taylor elected members of the, 211; Sir Sydney Chapman, Sir Alexander Gibb, and Sir Israel Gollancz elected members of the, 364; Sir James Berry, Sir H. Walford Davies, and Sir Frederick Keeble elected members of the, 538
- Athletes, Rate of Work done by, Prof. A. S. Eve and A. J. Fleming, 86
- Atlantic Ocean, The, Sir Gilbert Walker, 169
- Atmosphere, The Structure and Movement of the, as affected by Diurnal Variations, A. H. R. Goldie, 803
- Atmospheric: Circulation, Dr. H. Jeffreys, 194; Electricity, Dr. L. A. Bauer, 457; Dr. C. Chree, 458; Our Knowledge of (No. 68), H. Benndorf, 911; The Problem of, Prof. P. G. Gundry, 67; Impurity and Electricity Supply, Relationship between, J. B. C. Kershaw, 647; Ionisation, Prof. J. J. Nolan and G. P. de Sachy, 105
- Atmospherics, The Range of, R. A. Watson Watt, 689
- Atom and Molecule, Conceptions of the, due to Avogadro and Cannizzaro, Prof. Nashni, 435; The Structure of the, Prof. E. N. da C. Andrade, Third edition, 554
- Atomdynamik, Probleme der, Prof. Max Born. Erster und zweiter Teil, 77
- Atome: Die Welt der, Zehn gemeinverständliche Vorträge, Prof. A. Haas, 419
- Atomic: Fields, The Calculation of, L. H. Thomas, 34; Hydrogen, The Dispersion of, R. M. Langer, 147; No. 61, L. Rolla and L. Fernandes, 374; Existence of the Element of, R. Brunetti, 374; Identification of the Element with, R. Brunetti, 374; Nuclei, Disintegration of, by α -particles, The Views of the Cambridge and Vienna Schools on the, 901; Physics, 554; Prof. O. W. Richardson, 905; Prof. A. Sommerfeld, 797; Three Lectures on, Prof. A. Sommerfeld. Translated by Dr. H. L. Brose, 488; Rays, Deflexion of, Prof. O. Stern, 727; Structure, Order Number, Excess Weight, and, G. Piccardi, 691; Structures, 419; Theory and Wave Mechanics, Prof. N. Bohr, 262; The Progress of, Dr. A. C. Crehore, 419; Weights of Isotopic Radio Elements and the Velocity of the α -rays which they emit, The Relation between the, G. Fournier, 730
- Atoms, Energy Levels of, The Effect of Intense Light on the, Prof. A. E. Ruark, 389
- Aurora of October 15, 1926, The, in Norway and Sounds associated with it, H. S. Jelstrup; Prof. C. Stormer, 45
- Auroral: Green Line 5577, The, Dr. D. A. Keys, 162; Spectrum, Second Green Line of the, Spectrographic Observations of the, Prof. L. Vegard, 349; Spectrographic Observations of the Second Green Line of the, Lord Rayleigh, 525
- Austral or Tubuai Islands, Southern Pacific, The Geology of the, L. J. Chubb, 261; The Petrography of the, W. Campbell Smith and L. J. Chubb, with chemical analyses by E. D. Mountain, 261
- Australia, Magnetic Observations in, 508; Rainfall in, 615; The Flora of (No. 32), Prof. A. J. Ewart and L. R. Kerr, 35; No. 33, Prof. A. J. Ewart and Phyllis Jarrett, 838
- Australian Coleoptera, New, with notes on some previously described species, Part III., F. E. Wilson, 514; Curculionidæ of the subfamily Gonipterides, A. M. Lea, 838; Diptera, Notes on (ix.), J. R. Malloch, 107; No. x., J. R. Malloch, 947; Marine Algæ, Notes on, A. H. S. Lucas (iii.), 263; Robberflies of the *Cerdistus-Neotamus* Complex (Diptera-Asilidæ), A Reclassification of the, G. H. Hardy, 263; Rocks, The, Analyses of, M. Arousseau, 263; Stone Implements, A. S. Kenyon, 939; Syrphidæ (Diptera), Revision of, Part II., E. W. Ferguson, 107
- Australasia, Gasteromycetes of, G. H. Cunningham (vi.), 263
- Australasian: Association for the Advancement of Science, Perth meeting of the, 28; officers for the Hobart meeting, 649
- Autoxidation and Anti-oxygen Action (xxi.), C. Moureu, C. Dufraisse, and R. Chauv, 513
- β -ray Spectra of Radium B and Radium C, The Relative Intensities of the Groups in the Magnetic, C. D. Ellis and W. A. Wooster, 301
- β -rays: The Continuous Spectrum of, Dr. C. D. Ellis and W. A. Wooster, 563; The Photographic Action of, C. D. Ellis and W. A. Wooster, 301
- Bacteriological Examination of Food and Water, The, W. G. Savage, 34
- Bacteriology and Immunology, Laboratory Outlines in, Prof. J. F. Norton and Prof. I. S. Falk, Mar. 19, Suppt., 17
- Bacterium typhi* in Milk, Behaviour of, G. Gorini, 107
- Baffin Island, an expedition to, led by G. P. Putnam, 865
- Bakerian Lecture, The, Dr. F. W. Aston, 945
- Ballistics: Dynamics and, 485; Exterior, New Methods in, Prof. F. R. Moulton, 485
- Balmer Lines: Fine Structure of, Intensity Distribution in the, G. E. Harrison, 393; The Enlargement of the, by the Inter-molecular Electric Field, Mlle. M. Hanot, 413
- Bankfield Museum, Halifax, Report of the, 648
- Barium and Radium Chromates, Fractional Precipitation of, Henderson and Kracek, 796
- Bastardierung betrachtet, Evolution im Lichte der, Dr. J. P. Lotsy. Aus dem Englischen übersetzt von H. N. Kooiman, Mar. 5, Suppt., 4
- Bateson, Dr. W., an appreciation of, 828
- Beam Wireless Communication with Australia, Progress of, 402
- Beams of Moving Charged Particles, The Analysis of, by a Magnetic Field, W. A. Wooster, 477
- Bedford College for Women, laying of foundation stone of a new wing, 935
- Beeswax, Origin of the Coloration of, and the Composition of Propolis, G. F. Jaubert, 910
- Benn's Sixpenny Library, 827
- Benzene: Derivatives, The Synthesis of, S. C. Bate, 520; Magnetic Double Refraction of, The Constant of, Prof. C. V. Raman and K. S. Krishnan, 513
- Bermuda, The proposed New Biological Station in, Prof. H. W. Rand, 143
- Beryllium: Chloride, The Preparation of, C. Matignon and M. Piettre, 730; Oxidation of, The Heat of, C. Matignon and Mlle. G. Marchal, 70; The Reducing Properties of, C. Matignon and Mlle. G. Marchal, 658
- Bibliographical Bulletin* of the Eastern Section of the Seismological Society of America, 648
- Bibliography, Scientific Method in, 417
- Bielid Meteor Showers, The, W. J. Fisher, 539
- Biochemie des Menschen und der Tiere seit 1914, Bearbeitet von Dr. F. Haurowitz, 233
- Biogéographie, The Société de, 291
- Biological: Classification, Dr. F. A. Bather, 329; Fact and Theory, J. T. Cunningham; Dr. F. H. A. Marshall, 563; Prof. C. Walker, 161, 456, 814; J. B. S. Haldane, 456; E. Ashby, 457; Prof. J. S. Huxley, 159, 350, 639; Prof. J. Johnstone, 319; Prof. D. Noël Paton; Prof. E. W. MacBride, 160; Fluctuations: Laws of, Prof. V. Volterra, 622; The Periodicity of, Prof. V. Volterra, 910; *Reviews and Biological Proceedings of the Cambridge Philosophical Society*, Vol. 2, No. 2, 793
- Biologie, Die anorganischen Grenzgebiete der (insbesondere der Kristallvergleich), Prof. H. Przibram, 738
- Biologischen Arbeitsmethoden, Handbuch der, Herausgegeben von Prof. E. Abderhalden: Lief. 204. Abt. 9. Teil 1, Hälfte 2, Heft 2, 156; Lief. 199. Abt. 9. Teil 4, Heft 2, 523; Lief. 191. Abt. 2. Teil 2, Heft 2, Mar. 5, Suppt., 5; Lief. 205. Abt. 2. Teil 2, Heft 4, Mar. 5, Suppt., 6
- Biology: Logic and Law in, Dr. P. Chalmers Mitchell, 748; Popular, 848

- Biometrika*. Vol. 18, Parts I. and II., 40
- Bird : Flight, Prof. F. Wood Jones, 31; Malaria, Asexual Reproduction without Loss of Vitality in the Organism of, Prof. R. W. Hegner, 65; Migration, Factors of, Prof. W. Rowan, 405; Sanctuaries in the Royal Parks of Scotland, Report upon, 611
- Birds : and their Attributes, Dr. G. M. Allen, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2; Migration and Reproductive Rhythm in, Prof. W. Rowan, 351; of Ecuador, 336; On the Relation between Egg-weight and Body-weight in, Prof. J. S. Huxley, 513
- Birmingham University : H. Munro Fox appointed professor of zoology; C. G. C. Chesters appointed assistant lecturer in botany, 32; Dr. I. de Burgh Daly appointed professor of physiology; impending conferment of honorary doctorates, 875
- Bismuth : The Action of, on Hæmorrhagic Icterus, R. Sazerac, H. Nakamura, and Mme. M. Kitchevatz, 478; Wires, Cycles of Elastic Hysteresis in, B. Nannei, 106
- Black Sea, The Perforating Algae of the, G. Nadson, 730
- Blair Duguid, near Allandale, N.S.W., On the Hypersthene-andesite of, W. R. Browne and H. P. White, 303
- Bohr Model, The, and the Supposed Coloration of the Ions, G. Magnanini, 374
- Bohr's Theory, A Noteworthy Deduction from, N. Siracusano, 623
- Boiler Plates, The Embrittlement of, S. W. Parr and F. G. Straub, 686
- Books : and a Superlative, 453; published in the British Islands in 1926, 63; The Best, W. Swan Sonnenschein, Third edition, Part IV., 453
- Boots Pure Drug Company, Ltd., Dr. F. L. Pyman appointed head of the research laboratories of, 612
- Borax, On the Volatility of, Prof. I. M. Kolthoff, 425
- Boron Trichloride, Density of, Briscoe, Robinson, and Smith, 727
- Boschman Hottentots, The Cranial Capacity of the, E. Pittard, 622; Weight of the Skull and of the Encephalon of the, E. Pittard, 767
- Botanical Society of America, election of Prof. H. H. Bartlett as president, 171
- Botany : and Hydrology, O. E. Meinzer, 254; A Practical Introduction to the Study of, Sir J. B. Farmer and Dr. H. Chaudhuri, New edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10; Elementary, an Introduction to the Study of Plant Life, Dr. W. Watson, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10; General, with special reference to its Economic Aspects, Dr. C. S. Gager; with three chapters on Heredity and Variation in Plants, by Dr. O. E. White, 742
- Botrytis attacking Narcissus, An Unusual Species of, W. J. Dowson, 33
- Bovine Fœtus, Oxidising and Hematogenic Power of, Prof. A. Pugliese, 616
- Boyle's Experimental Notes on the Mechanical Origin of Electricity, etc., 435
- Brahmanism in Bengal, M. M. Chatterji, 146
- Brass : Aluminium, and its Alloys, The Gases in, L. Guillet and A. Roux, 658; The Penetration of, by Tin and Solder, H. J. Miller, 584
- Brassica nigra*, The Various Soluble Ferments contained in, A. Astruc and M. Mousseron, 303
- Brewing : and Malting, Technical Terms in, S. K. Thorpe, 438; in Babylon and Egypt, Dr. E. Huber, 404
- Brighter *Biochemistry*, No. 4, 866
- Bristol : Museum, report of the, 291; University, Dr. W. E. Garner appointed professor of physical chemistry; Dr. Morris W. Travers, reader in applied physical chemistry, and Dr. J. E. Lennard-Jones, professor of theoretical physics; Dr. H. W. B. Skinner, a Henry Herbert Wills research fellow in physics, 544
- British : Aphides, 115; Architecture, Modern, Exhibition of, 680; Association: Preliminary Programme of the Leeds meeting of the, 723; Sir William Bragg nominated as president of the Glasgow meeting in 1928, 436; B.C., Adoption of Kilocycle Figures, 899; Chemical Abstracts. Index 1926, 805; Colonial Empire Conference, Speech to the, Mr. Amery, 755; Cotton Industry Research Association, Dr. R. H. Pickard appointed director of the, 679; Electrical and Allied Industries Research Association, annual report of the, 290; Empire : Minerals and Metals of the, 625; Research throughout the, Co-operation in, 661; Engineering Standards Association. Publication No. 205, 1926; British Standard Glossary of Terms used in Electrical Engineering, 230; Geophysical Observatories, The Work of the, Dr. A. Crichton Mitchell, 663; Honduras : Explorations in, Dr. T. W. Gann, 536; Forest Administration in, 257; Industries Fair, The, 371; Journal Photographic Almanac and Photographer's Daily Companion, The, 1927, edited by G. E. Brown, 488; Locomotives, The First, of the St. Etienne-Lyon Railway, Achard, 402; Mosquito Control Institute, The, 536; Museum : Copies of Frescoes from Theban Tombs in the, 723; (Natural History) : additions to the, 170; retirement of Sir Sidney Harmer, 246; Dr. W. D. Lang appointed a deputy keeper in the Department of Geology, 330; acquisitions by the, 365; C. Tate Regan appointed director, and Dr. W. T. Calman keeper of zoology, 398; purchases for the Department of Zoology, 537; post-cards of the, 613, 866; recent acquisitions at the, 826; Catalogue of Cainozoic Plants in the Department of Geology. Vol. 1 : The Bembridge Flora, Eleanor Mary Reid and Marjorie Elizabeth Jane Chandler; with a section on the Charophyta, by J. Groves, 887; Non-Ferrous Metals Research Association : exhibit of the, at the Science Museum, 470; report of the, 864; Optical Science and Industry, 383; Patent : Grants, Early, A. Gomme, 494; System, appointment of a committee upon the, 610; Photographic Research Association, report of the, 136; Plants, Some Interesting, C. E. Salmon, 104; Railways of 1825 as seen by Marc Seguin, Seguin, 402; Rainfall, 1925, 232; Science Guild, annual meeting of the, 825; Settlement in the Dominions Overseas, 693; Christopher Turnor; The Writer of the Article, 890; Spas and Climatic Health Resorts, A Guide to, 293
- Bromine, The Spark Spectra of, L. and E. Bloch, 373
- Bronze Age Tumulus at Dunstable, A, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, 404
- Brown, Horace, Memorial Lecture, The, Prof. H. E. Armstrong, 399
- Brownian Movement, The, of a Galvanometer Coil and the Influence of the Temperature of the Outer Circuit, L. S. Ornstein, H. C. Burger, J. Taylor, and W. Clarkson, 802
- Bruce gold medal of the Astronomical Society of the Pacific, award of the, to Prof. H. H. Turner, 402
- Bruceine, The Phylactic Action of, towards Strychnine, A. Goris and L. Lachaise, 879
- Brussels Institute of Bibliography, The Decimal Classification of Melvil Dewey and its Extension by the, Dr. S. C. Bradford, 429
- Bryant and May Museum of Fire-making Appliances : The, Catalogue of the Exhibits, compiled with an Introduction and Notes, by Miller Christy, 777
- Bunsen Society, Annual Conference of the, 936
- Burma : The Serpentine Belt of, H. L. Chhibber, 726; University, gift by the Burmah Oil Company, 908
- Business Climate, The, Lord Riddell, 411
- Butters and Margarine, A Rapid Method for the Sorting of, C. H. Manley, 34
- Caballero's Technique for Mounting Diatom and other Type Slides, C. Tierney, 70
- Cables, 33,000-volt, P. Dunsheath, 210
- Cacao Butter Substitutes and their Detection, A. W. Knapp, J. E. Moss, and A. Melley, 546
- Cæsium Eosinate, Some Physico-chemical Properties of, R. Delaplace and N. Marinesco, 146
- Cainozoic Plants, 887
- Calcite and Crystalline Sodium Nitrate, Certain Elastic Constants of, S. Chapman and A. E. Ludlam, 877
- Calcium : and Zinc, The Paramagnetism of the Elements between, A. Carrelli, 414; Chromosphere, The Light Intensity of the, P. A. Taylor, 945; in Aluminium containing Silicon, J. D. Grogan, 685; The Influence of, on Aluminium containing Silicon, J. D. Grogan and P. G. Ward, 585
- Calcul différentiel et intégral, Exercices de, par l'Abbé Potron. Premier volume, Mar. 5, Suppt., 8

- Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine, Work of the, 69
Calendar of Discovery and Invention, 300, 337, 372, 412, 444, 477, 512, 584, 620, 656, 689, 729, 765, 800, 835, 876, 908, 944
Calendar Reform, W. B. Cotsworth, 613
California University, conferment of a doctorate on Prof. H. H. Turner, 827
Californian Indians, Early Records of, E. W. Gifford and W. E. Schenk, 138
Cambrian Area of Comley (Shropshire), The Stratigraphy and Geological Structure of the, E. S. Cobbold, 620
Cambridge University: Prof. A. E. Taylor appointed Leslie Stephen lecturer for 1927; H. Claye appointed an assistant registrar, 69; A. R. Clapham appointed Frank Smart University student in botany, 143; bequest by M. E. Lange, 179; bequest by Prof. E. G. Browne; award of the Gordon Wigan prize to W. A. Waters; proposed regulations for the new professorship in political science, 258; Prof. J. A. Fleming, Prof. G. F. Stout, and Prof. A. E. H. Love elected honorary fellows of St. John's College; A. Amos re-appointed director of the University farm; report of the Faculty Board of Archaeology and Anthropology, 411; S. Goldstein and W. V. D. Hodge awarded Smith's prizes; D. Burnett and C. A. Meredith awarded Rayleigh prizes; the Disney professorship of archaeology; proposal to appoint H. Quinney as an assistant in experimental research in the engineering department, 444; P. Hall elected a fellow of King's College; A. F. H. Ward elected Amy Mary Preston Read scholar; report of the University Appointments Board, 476; Field-Marshal Sir William Birdwood elected an honorary fellow of Peterhouse; R. O. Redman elected to the Sheepshanks exhibition in astronomy at Trinity College, 546; Appointments Board of, The work of the, 722; H. E. Tunnicliffe appointed University demonstrator in physiology, 729; bequest by Prof. A. W. Scott; J. E. Purvis re-appointed University lecturer in chemistry; A. Hopkinson re-appointed demonstrator of anatomy, 764; Dr. G. F. C. Searle re-appointed University lecturer in experimental physics, and C. Warburton demonstrator in medical entomology, 799; and K. W. Fair appointed demonstrator in agricultural physiology; W. A. Wooster demonstrator in mineralogy, 835; proposed new lectureships and a special animal house, 835; F. Debenham appointed reader in geography; T. G. Bedford lecturer in physics; Dr. E. M'Kenzie Taylor lecturer in agricultural chemistry; Dr. H. E. Woodman demonstrator in agricultural chemistry, 835; Rev. G. A. Weekes re-elected Vice-Chancellor; L. A. Pars and H. A. Newman elected University lecturers in mathematics, 875; H. E. Woodward appointed University lecturer in engineering; Dr. C. M. Yonge elected Balfour student; Pendulum Observations on Sabine Island, G. Manley, 907; C. E. Maitland awarded the John Bernard Seely prize; E. B. Worthington awarded a grant from the Balfour Fund, 943; E. J. H. Corner and A. L. Bennett awarded Frank Smart prizes; C. S. M'Leod awarded the Tyson medal; J. Hargreaves awarded the Mayhew prize; J. N. Goodier awarded the Rex Moir and the Ricardo prizes, 943; A. S. Besicovitch appointed lecturer in mathematics; H. W. Florey Huddersfield lecturer in special pathology; R. V. Sayce lecturer in material culture and physical anthropology; Dr. J. Chadwick lecturer in physics and assistant director of radio-active research; F. W. Shotton elected to the Harkness scholarship in geology, 943
Canada: and Newfoundland, Judgment in the Boundary Dispute between, 398; The Transportation of Bisons in, 95; Western, Iron Ore in, G. A. Young and W. L. Uglow, 796
Cancer: Research in Sydney on, 649; The Origin and Evolution of, J. Amar, 878
Canine Distemper, The Cause of, 62
Capacitance Bridge, A, of Wide Range and a New Inductometer, A. Campbell, 221
Cape to Cairo Flight of the R.A.F. in 1925, Account of the, 96
Carbohydrate Metabolism and Insulin, Prof. J. J. R. Macleod; Prof. H. MacLean, 229
Carbon: Assimilation, Prof. W. Stiles, 406; Dioxide: Gas, Action of Magnetic Fields on the Refractive Index of, E. T. S. Appleyard, 353; Measuring Instrument, A, based on Sound Velocity Measurement, Dr. Ezer Griffiths, 836; The Chemical Yield in the Decomposition of, under Small Pressure by the Condensed Spark, P. Jolibois, H. Lefebvre, and P. Montagne, 546; The Dissociation of, at High Temperatures, R. W. Fenning and H. T. Tizard, 877; The Influence of Some Organic Substances on the Velocity of Absorption of, by Solutions of Neutral Sodium Carbonate, P. Riou and P. Cartier, 446; Monoxide: Molecule of, Structure of the, F. L. Mohler and P. D. Foote, 369; Poisoning in the Absence of Hæmoglobin, J. B. S. Haldane, 352; Prof. H. E. Armstrong, 460; Prof. P. F. Frankland, 491; Steel, Tetragonal Structure of, Prof. N. Seljakow, J. Kurdumoff, and N. Goodtzov, 494
Carbonate Crystals, Some Theoretical Determinations of the Structure of, Part I., J. E. Lennard-Jones and B. M. Dent, 181
Carboniferous Lamellibranchs, New, and Notes on other Forms, J. W. Jackson, 766
Carcinus manas, Observations and Experiments on, Prof. W. C. McIntosh, reprint of, 402
Cardinal Function Interpolation, On the Consistency of, W. L. Ferrar, 946
Carnegie: Institution, Department of Terrestrial Magnetism, Annual Report, 867; Trust for the Universities of Scotland, Activities of the, 619; United Kingdom Trust, annual report for 1926, 902
Castor, The Distant Companion of, Prof. H. N. Russell, 25
Catalytic Combustion, Studies upon, Prof. W. A. Bone and A. Forshaw, Pt. V., 259
Cathode Rays, Diffraction of, by a Thin Film, Prof. G. P. Thomson and A. Reid, 890
Cattle, The Maintenance Requirements of, on Different Kinds of Rations and at Different Rates of Production, Prof. J. Wilson, 586
Cavendish: Laboratory, Clerk Maxwell and the, Sir Oliver Lodge, 46; Society, Post-Prandial Proceedings of the, sixth edition, 233
Cell Division, 556
Cellulose: in the Soil, The Degradation of, S. Winogradsky, 546; Paints, W. F. Starkey, 727
Cement, Concrete, and Bricks, A. B. Searle, 455
Centenaries of the Present Year, Notable, Prof. H. J. Spooner, 134
Cetacea stranded on the British Coasts from 1913 to 1926, Report on, Sir Sidney F. Harmer, 687
Ceylon, The Fisheries of, Dr. J. Pearson, 68
Cheopterus variopedatus, The Control of the Beat of the Fan Segments in, N. J. Berrill, 564
Channel Islands, Archaeology of the, Dr. R. R. Marett, 20
Charcoal: Heats of Adsorption on, F. G. Keyes and M. J. Marshall, 406; The Expansion of, on Sorption of Carbon Dioxide, F. T. Meehan, 545
Charophyta: from Madagascar, J. Groves, 945; The Alleged Larvicidal Qualities of, T. B. Blow, 945
Cheilanthes vellea, The Anatomy of, Miss May M. Williams, 947
Chemical: Abstracts, British, Index 1926, 805; Affinity, Calculation of, on the Basis of Entropy (II.), G. Bozza and G. Devoto, 767; Age Year Book, Diary and Directory, The, 1927, 275; Analysis: A Student's Manual of, Qualitative and Quantitative, Prof. J. F. Thorpe and Prof. M. A. Whiteley. Reissue with Appendix on New Methods of Organic Analysis, by H. ter Meulen and J. Heslinga, Mar. 19, Suppt., 16; A Systematic Qualitative, a Theoretical and Practical Study of Analytical Reactions of the More Common Ions of Inorganic Substances, Prof. G. W. Sears. Second edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 16; Change in Gaseous Systems, The Kinetics of, C. N. Hinshelwood, 771; Engineers, Transactions of the, Institution of. Vol. 3, 1925, 275; Industry and Technical Institutions, W. J. U. Woolcock, 942; Laboratory, The First Public, in England, Dr. R. T. Gunther, 492; -plant Operation, Control of, D. Ryder and T. C.

- Finlayson, 23; Research in Great Britain, Imperial Chemical Industries and, 290; Society, annual general meeting of the, 504
- Chemie, Geschichte der, Studien zur, Festgabe Edmund O. v. Lippmann zum siebzigsten Geburtstage, 451
- Chemiker-Zeitung*, Jubilee number of the, 210
- Chemist and Philosopher, Prof. A. Findlay, 228
- Chemistry: and Recent Progress in Medicine, Prof. J. Stieglitz, 156; Classified Problems in, D. B. Briggs, 668; Colloid, Practical, Prof. Wo. Ostwald, with the collaboration of Dr. P. Wolski and Dr. A. Kuhn. Translated by Dr. I. N. Kugelmass and Dr. T. K. Cleveland, 386; General, Exercises in, and Qualitative Analysis, Prof. H. G. Deming and Prof. S. B. Aronson. Second edition, 702; Historical, Research in, Prof. J. Read, 451; Inorganic: General, Prof. M. C. Sneed, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15; A Junior, R. H. Spear. Second edition, 702; A Text-book of, Prof. F. Ephraim. English edition by P. C. L. Thorne, 7; A Text-book of, Edited by Dr. J. Newton Friend. Vol. 3, Part 2; Vol. 7, Part 3, Mar. 19, Suppt., 16; in the Middle School, The Teaching of, Miss R. Stern, 619; of Rhythmic Actions, The, Prof. I. Masson, 267; Organic: A Text-book of, Historical, Structural, and Economic, Prof. J. Read, 79; A Laboratory Book of Elementary, Prof. A. Lowy and W. E. Baldwin, 777; A Text-book of, Prof. J. Schmidt. English edition by Dr. H. G. Rule, 384; Theoretical, Dr. F. Arnall and F. W. Hodges. Part I., Mar. 19, Suppt., 16; Synthetic Organic, The Use of Solvents in, Prof. D. W. MacArdle, 520; The Growth of the Profession of, during the Past Half-century (1877-1927), A. Chaston Chapman, 913
- Chemists, Organisation and Registration of, 913
- Chesapeake Bay, The Microplankton of, J. J. Wolfe, B. Cunningham, and others, 439
- Chimie Solvay, Institut International de, Deux. Conseil de chimie tenu à Bruxelles du 16 au 24 Avril 1925. Structure et activité chimiques: Rapports et discussions, 8
- China: Eastern, and Kwangtung Province, Anthropology of, Dr. S. M. Shirokogoroff, 231; South-West, Plants and People of, Prof. A. Henry, 667; Südwest-, Naturbilder aus, Erlebnisse und Eindrücke eines österreichischen Forschers während des Weltkrieges, Dr. H. Handel-Mazzetti, 667; The People of, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, 231
- Chinese: Agriculture, Sir E. J. Russell, 698; Alchemy Prof. J. R. Partington, 11; Cartography, Early, Prof. W. E. Soothill, 506; Frescoes from Honan, Miss Helen E. Fernald, 472; *Journal of Physiology*, No. 1, 826; Kala-azar, E. Hindle and Major W. S. Patton, 460
- Chinesische Landwirtschaft, Die, Dr. W. Wagner, 698
- Chladni, E. F. F., Centenary of the death of, 503
- Chlorine, Liquid, The Viscosity of, E. van Aubel, 373
- Chromium, Manganese, and Silicon, The Production of Pure, F. Adcock, Dr. M. L. V. Gayler, and N. P. Tucker, 833
- Chromosome: Groups, The Nomenclature of, Dr. J. Belling, 926; Measurements, N. Ferguson, 139
- Cider-tasting Day at the University of Bristol Research Station, 724
- Ciliated Protozoa and Contractility, Prof. A. Pensa, 439
- Ciona intestinalis* (L.), History of the Cytoplasmic Inclusions of the Egg of, during Oogenesis and Fertilisation, L. A. Harvey, 220
- Citrus Growing in South Africa, R. A. Davis, 776
- Civil: Engineering, Specifications and Quantities, Dr. G. S. Coleman and G. M. Flood, 701; Engineers, Institution of, awards of the, 725
- Classical Education, The Advantages of a, G. H. Bonner, 168
- Clay, The Anomalous Flocculation of, Dr. A. F. Joseph and H. B. Oakley, 673
- Cleistopora Zone, The Index Fossil of the, L. B. Smyth, 658
- Clementia, The Genus, in American Tertiaries, W. P. Woodring, 684
- Clifton College, New Science School at: opening of the, 863, 871
- Climate and Animal Evolution, Prof. E. C. Case, 940
- Clinical Laboratory Procedure: A Manual of, for the Use of the General Practitioner, Dr. R. A. Kilduffe, Mar. 19, Suppt., 17
- Cloudiness in Malt Liquors, The Causes and Correction of, J. Ross-Mackenzie, 802
- Clydesdale Breed of Horses, Rôle of Interbreeding in the Development of the, A. Calder, 621
- Clyplina jurassica* in the Portlandian at Various Points of the Southern Jura, The Presence of, J. Favre, 767
- Coal: Analysis of, 870; Carbonisation: Dr. C. H. Lander, 508; Retorts, 653; Dusts, Inflammability of, 832; Getting out the, Stripping, Underground Mining, Loading Machines, Roof Support, Compiled by F. H. Kneeland, 231; Radiographic Examination of, Kemp and Thompson, 296; Sections, The Preparation and Examination of, J. Lomax, 909; Workings, The Support of, 653
- Coalfields of Wales, Dr. F. J. North, 581
- Coastal Currents along the Pacific Coast of the United States, H. A. Marmer, 443
- Cobalt, A New Transformation of, H. Masumoto, 255
- Cocaine, Prof. E. Poullsson, 174
- Coconut Moths, A Tachinid Parasite of the Larvæ of, B. A. R. Gater, 651
- Coke, Some Properties of, Prof. J. W. Cobb, 751
- Collembola from Spitsbergen, Further Records of, Dr. G. H. Carpenter, 413
- Colliery Working: The Use of Power in, a Treatise on Mining Costs and Machinery Designs and Management, J. Kersopp, Mar. 19, Suppt., 19
- Colloid Theory, Some Recent Advances in, D. C. Henry, 446
- Colloidal: Chemistry, New Conceptions in, Prof. H. Freundlich, 488; Solutions: Rigidity and other Anomalies in, E. Hatschek, 469, 857; Surface Equilibria of, Advantages of the Ring Method for the Study of the, Dr. P. Lecomte du Noüy, 598
- Colloids, Biological and Organic, Surface Equilibria of, Dr. P. Lecomte du Noüy, 523
- Colonial: Conference, a forthcoming, 574; Scientific and Research Services, The Colonial Office Conference and, 824
- Coloured Light, The After-images of, Miss W. M. Smith, 621
- Colours shown during the Oxidation of Metallic Copper, The Cause of the, Dr. F. H. Constable, 877
- Columbus, The Landfall of, Lieut.-Commdr. R. T. Gould, 368
- Comas Sola quickly moving Asteroid, The, 293
- Comet: A New, 1927*d*, 437; Comas Sola, 64; Grigg-Skjellerup, 539; New, W. F. Gale, 903; Pons-Winnecke, Return of the, 403
- Comets: 137, 173, 212, 252, 471, 505, 578, 650, 759, 938; and the Law of Gravitation, Dr. A. C. D. Crommelin, 464; The Romance of, Mary Proctor, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14
- Commercial Iron, Copper, and Zinc, The Inalterability of, by Liquid Hydrogen Sulphide, J. B. Fournier and Fritsch-Lang, 947
- Commonwealth: Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, Policy of the, 246; Fund Fellowships, appointments to, 800
- Compass Variation in Canada, W. H. Herbert, 405
- Compression, Regions of, Dr. J. W. Evans, 55
- Computing Machines, Dr. L. J. Comrie, 870
- Conglomerates of the Enville Series of the Warwickshire Coalfield, The, F. W. Shotton, 836
- Copper: Impurities on, The Effects of, Part V., D. Hanson and Grace W. Ford, 584; Influence of Impurities on, Prof. D. Hanson and others, 728
- Cork Formation, Relation of, to the Endodermis in the Shoot of the Dicotyledon, Prof. J. H. Priestley, 35
- Cornell University, gift to, for a professorship in forest soils, 583
- Correlation Coefficients and the Theory of Mental Abilities, J. R. Thompson, 705

CORRESPONDENCE.

- α -Rays and β -Rays through Matter, The Passage of, Dr. E. J. Williams, 489
- Académie des Sciences, Paris, Members and Correspondants of the, L., 459

- Adrenal Cortex, The Chemistry of the, Dr. A. v. Szent-Györgyi, 782
- Agriculture, The Beginning of, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, 81 ; Prof. J. Percival, 157 ; H. J. E. Peake, 158
- Alchemy, Chinese, Prof. J. R. Partington, 11
- Algebraic Equations, Numerical Solution of, Dr. H. Jeffreys, 565
- Alloys, Hardness of, A. Mallock, 669
- Aluminium, Surface Film of, H. Sutton and J. W. W. Willstrop, 673, 925 ; W. H. Withey, 924
- Amines, Liquid and Vapour, Absorption Bands of, E. O. Salant, 926
- Amphipneustes, Dr. F. A. Bather, 460
- Anisogeny, A suggested Interpretation of certain Cases of, R. J. Chittenden and Caroline Pellew, 11
- Antarctic, Two-way Communication with the, W. H. Brown, 238
- 'Antiknocks,' The Action of, A. Egerton and S. F. Gates, 427
- Arctic Peat in Ireland, An, A. W. Stelfox, 781
- Argon, The Geissler Discharge in, Dr. K. G. Emelús and N. L. Harris, 602
- Artists, Distinctive Colour Senses of, Sir Arthur Schuster, 783
- Aspergillus niger*, Formation of Organic Acids from Sugars by, Dr. F. Challenger, V. Subramaniam, and T. K. Walker, 674
- Atmospheric : Circulation, Dr. H. Jeffreys, 194 ; Electricity, Dr. L. A. Bauer, 457 ; Dr. C. Chree, 458
- Atoms, Energy Levels of, The Effect of Intense Light on the, Prof. A. E. Ruark, 389
- Aurora of October 15, 1926, The, in Norway and Sounds associated with it, H. S. Jelstrup, 45 ; Prof. C. Störmer, 45
- Auroral : Green Line 5577, The, Dr. D. A. Keys, 162 ; Spectrum, Second Green Line of the, Spectrographic Observations of the, Prof. L. Vegard, 349 ; Lord Rayleigh, 525
- β -rays, The Continuous Spectrum of, Dr. C. D. Ellis and W. A. Wooster, 563
- Balmer Lines of Hydrogen, Fine Structure of the, Prof. N. A. Kent, L. B. Taylor, and H. Pearson, 163
- Biological Fact and Theory, Prof. D. Noël Paton, 159 ; J. T. Cunningham, 563 ; Dr. F. H. A. Marshall, 563 ; Prof. J. S. Huxley, 159, 350, 639 ; Prof. E. W. MacBride, 160 ; Prof. C. Walker, 161, 456, 814 ; Prof. J. Johnstone, 319 ; J. B. S. Haldane, 456 ; E. Ashby, 457
- Borax, On the Volatility of, Prof. I. M. Kolthoff, 425
- British : Patent Grants, Early, A. Gomme, 494 ; Settlement in the Dominions Overseas, Christopher Turnor, 890 ; The Writer of the Article, 891
- Carbon : Dioxide Gas, Refractive Index of, Action of Magnetic Fields on the, E. T. S. Appleyard, 353 ; Monoxide : and Light, Influence of, on Indophenol Oxidase of Yeast Cells, D. Keilin, 670 ; J. B. S. Haldane, 352 ; Poisoning in the Absence of Hæmoglobin, Prof. H. E. Armstrong, 460 ; Prof. P. F. Frankland, 491 ; Steel, Tetragonal Structure of, Prof. N. Seljakow, J. Kurdumoff, and N. Goodtzov, 494
- Cathode Rays, Diffraction of, by a Thin Film, Prof. G. P. Thomson and A. Reid, 890
- Chetopterus variopedatus*, The Control of the Beat of the Fan Segments in, N. J. Berrill, 564
- Chinese : Alchemy, Prof. J. R. Partington, 11 ; Kala-azar, Sandflies and, E. Hindle and Major W. S. Patton, 460
- Chromosome Groups, The Nomenclature of, Dr. J. Belling, 926
- Clay, The Anomalous Flocculation of, Dr. A. F. Joseph and H. B. Oakley, 673
- Colloidal Solutions, Surface Equilibria of, Advantages of the Ring Method for the Study of the, Dr. P. Lecomte du Nouÿ, 598
- Convection of Heat in Fluid Flow through Tubes, H. F. P. Purday, 527
- Correlation Coefficients and the Theory of Mental Abilities, J. R. Thompson, 705
- Cosmic Evolution, The Course of, Sir Oliver Lodge, 387
- Cotton : A Mutant in, G. L. Kottur, 747 ; Occurrence of Branched Hairs in, and upon *Gossypium Stocksii*, W. Youngman and S. S. Pande, 745 ; Egyptian Branched Lint Hairs in, The Occurrence of, N. W. Barritt, 392
- Coup-de-Poing, Prof. W. J. Sollas, 490 ; H. Balfour, 490
- Crystals, Twin Metallic, The Formation of, G. D. Preston, 600
- Dactylis glomerata* (Cocksfoot), The Chromosome Number in, J. G. Davies, 236
- Darwinism Dead ? Is, H. Belloc, 277, 427, 526 ; Sir Arthur Keith, 277, 526
- Dawson (W. Bell), Icebergs in relation to Water-Temperature, 236
- Day, Length of the, Changes in the, Dr. J. K. Fotheringham, 318
- Dielectric Bodies in Electrostatic Fields, Rotation of, Dr. S. W. Richardson, 238 ; C. Record, 319 ; G. L. Addenbrooke, 389 ; A. W. Simon and J. M. Cage, 816
- Dilatancy, The Property of, L. B. Tuckerman, 602
- Divining Rod, Behind the, Prof. W. J. Sollas, 458, 565 ; Dr. H. Mill, 458 ; Dr. M. Culpin, 783
- Double-Image Effect in Transparent Microscopic Spheres, H. S. Patterson and Prof. R. Whytlaw-Gray, 199
- Dowsing or Divining Rod, The, Sir Oliver Lodge, 387
- Dug-out Canoe in Algoa Bay, Dr. R. N. Rudmose Brown ; G. S. Laird Clowes, 856
- Dyes, Adsorption of, to Silver Halides : a Correction, Dr. S. E. Sheppard, 281
- Earth's Surface Structure, The Origin of the, Prof. J. Joly and Dr. J. H. J. Poole, 524, 674
- Effectivity ? Efficiency or, Prof. E. P. Cathcart, 599
- Electric : Cell, A Useful, Prof. S. L. Jindal, 639 ; Wave Phenomena, A Quantum Relation in Large Scale, T. L. Eckersley, 234
- Electricity in Conductors, Thermal Agitation of, J. B. Johnson, 50
- Electromagnetic Waves, Refraction of, round the Earth's Surface, J. S. McPetrie and R. M. Wilmette, 317
- Electron 'Reflection' in *Vacuo*, D. Brown and Prof. R. Whiddington, 427
- Electrons : Spinning, and Protons, Prof. H. S. Allen, 237 ; The Scattering of, by a Single Crystal of Nickel, C. Davison and L. H. Germer, 558
- Existence, The Continuity of, D. B. Mair, 199
- Fatty Acids : Different Modifications of, X-ray Evidence for the Existence of, G. M. de Boer, 49 ; Polymorphism of, X-ray Investigation of the, G. M. de Boer, 634
- Fatuoids in Cultivated Oats, The Origin of, C. L. Huskins, 49
- Fayum Lakes, The, Sir Flinders Petrie, 238
- Ferromagnetic Substances, The Intrinsic Fields in, J. Dorfman, 353
- First Public Chemical Laboratory in England, The, Dr. R. T. Gunther, 492
- Flame Speeds : The Law of, Dr. W. Payman and Prof. R. V. Wheeler, 747, 779 ; Prof. W. A. Bone, 922 ; The Supposed Law of, A. G. White, 51, 674 ; Dr. W. Payman and Prof. R. V. Wheeler, 238
- Flint Surfaces, The Microscopical Examination of, J. Reid Moir, 560 ; W. J. Lewis Abbott, 747
- Florentium or Illinium ? Prof. L. Rolla and L. Fernandes, 637
- Flowering Plants, Multiple Chromosomes and Reduction Division in, Dr. J. Belling, 122
- Fluorine, Arc Spectrum of, The Double Normal State of the, Prof. H. Dingle, 86
- Forestry Institute, The Imperial, Prof. R. S. Troup ; The Writer of the Note, 197
- γ -Ray Absorption, Temperature Coefficient of, L. Bastings, 51
- Gallium in Flue Dust, H. Ramage, 783
- Gamma Rays, The Scattering of, Dr. L. H. Clark, 121
- Gammarus chevreuxi* Sexton, Inheritance in, Mrs. E. W. Sexton and C. F. A. Pantin, 119
- Gaseous : Mixture, Simultaneous Ionisation and Excitation by Foreign Ions in a, Prof. O. S. Duffendack and H. L. Smith, 743 ; Mixtures, The Pressure of, Dr. J. E. Lennard-Jones, 459
- "Grammar of Science," Unauthorised Publication of, Prof. Karl Pearson, 926
- Great Nebulæ, The Genesis of the, Dr. J. H. Jeans, 315
- Gunfire, Audibility of, F. J. W. Whipple, 782
- Hæmocyanin, Oxidation of, Colorimetric Determination of the, Prof. L. Hogben, 122
- Hafnium, Persistent Lines of, M. Petersen, 352

- Hardness : of Metals in Relation to Periodicity, S. A. Korff, 818 ; Stresses involved in Tests of, and a Table of the Comparative Hardness of Certain Metallic Elements, A. Mallock, 276
- Haze, Dr. J. S. Owens, 561
- Heat : Convection of, in Fluid Flow through Pipes, H. M. Martin, 672 ; through a Brick Wall, Transmission of, L. R. Ingersoll and J. Bardeen, 892
- Helion ? Helium or, Dr. J. Newton Friend, 199
- Helium : Hydrogen into, The Transmutation of, Prof. F. Paneth, 706 ; or Helion ? Dr. J. Newton Friend, 199
- Hereditary Choice of Food-plants in the Lepidoptera and its Evolutionary Significance, E. Meyrick, 388 ; Dr. J. W. Heslop Harrison, 562
- Higher Fatty Acids, The Polymorphism of, Dr. J. Thibaud, 852
- Humic Matter, The Origin of, C. E. Marshall and H. J. Page, 393
- Hyacinthus, Bivalents of, The Nodes at the Reduction Division in, Dr. J. Belling, 527
- Hydrogen : Chloride Vapour, Ionisation in, H. A. Barton, 197 ; Fluoride, Ionisation Potential of, Prof. S. C. Biswas, 707 ; into Helium, The Transmutation of, Prof. F. Paneth, 706 ; Iodide, Photochemical Decomposition of, B. Lewis, 493 ; The Infra-Red Spectrum of, Dr. A. H. Poetker, 123
- Hythe Skulls, The, Prof. F. G. Parsons, 893
- Illinium, Prof. W. A. Noyes, 319
- Imperial Forestry Institute, The, Prof. R. S. Troup ; The Writer of the Note, 197
- Indium in Tin, The Occurrence of, J. R. Green, 893
- Industrial Revolution, The, E. W. Hulme, 671, 892 ; Miss Mabel C. Buer, 671 ; H. W. Dickinson, 818
- Insects, Phytophagous or Biological Races in, W. H. Thorpe, 602 ; E. Meyrick, 782
- Ionisation of a Fused Salt, The Coefficient of, Prof. T. M. Lowry, 564
- Ions and Atoms or Molecules, Collections of the Second Kind between, Dr. H. D. Smyth, G. P. Harnwell, T. R. Hogness, and E. G. Lunn, 85
- Iron Crystals, L. W. McKeegan, 705
- Kala-azar, Sandflies and, Major H. E. Short, 893
- Kammerer's Water-bred Alytes, The Nuptial Pad of, W. C. Kiplinger ; Prof. H. Przibram, 635 ; Prof. E. W. MacBride, 707
- 'Knock' Suppression, The Mechanism of, Prof. H. S. Taylor, 746
- Lamp Filaments, Pathology of, Sir Oliver Lodge, 387
- Laplace : The Brain of, Prof. Karl Pearson, 560 ; The Tomb of, Eng.-Capt. E. C. Smith, 493
- Leguminosae, 'Hard Seeds' in, C. J. Berkeley, 198
- Leishmania* sp. in *Plebotomus papatasi*, The Behaviour of Cultures of, Dr. S. Adler and O. Theodor, 565
- Lepidoptera, Melanism in the, and its Evolutionary Significance, Prof. W. J. Dakin ; Dr. J. W. Heslop Harrison, 318
- Lewes, George Henry, Sir E. Sharpey-Schafer, 281
- Light Quanta, The Length of, Dr. G. Breit, 280
- Lightning, Progressive, Dr. C. D. Perrine, 278, 816 ; Prof. C. V. Boys, 279, 816
- Lilium longiflorum* and its Varieties, An Important Virus Disease of, L. Ogilvie, 528
- Limnaea peregra*, The Origin of an Albino Mutation in, Prof. A. E. Boycott and C. Diver, 9
- Limnoria, The Absence of a Cellulase in, Dr. C. M. Yonge, 855
- Luciola gorhami*, Origin of Yolk in the Eggs of, Prof. V. Nath and Dev Raj Mehta, 13
- Lumbricus, The Oogenesis of, L. A. Harvey, 14
- Magnetic : Double Refraction, Prof. C. V. Raman and J. Rama Krishna Rao, 528 ; Induction in Continuous Media, C. R. Burch and N. R. Davis, 353
- Mawken Canoe in Algoa Bay, A, F. W. FitzSimons, 746
- Maxwell, Clerk, and the Cavendish Laboratory, Sir Oliver Lodge, 46
- Melanism in the Lepidoptera and its Evolutionary Significance, Prof. W. J. Dakin ; Dr. J. W. Heslop Harrison, 318
- Memphis, The Floods at, S. R. K. Glanville, 813
- Mental Abilities, Correlation Coefficients and the Theory of, J. R. Thompson, 705
- Mercury : Absorption Spectrum of, Bands in the, Lord Rayleigh, 778 ; derived from Coal Tar, The Constitution of, Dr. F. W. Aston, 489 ; The Band Spectrum of, from the Excited Vapour, Lord Rayleigh, 387, 423 ; Vapour Trap, An Improved, G. I. Finch, 856
- Metallic : Catalyst, A New Method of Measuring the Absolute Surface Area of a, Dr. F. H. Constable, 349 ; Crystals, Twin, The Formation of, L. W. McKeegan, 120, 392 ; Prof. H. C. H. Carpenter and S. Tamura, 121 ; Salt, Optically Active Complex, A Novel Type of, Dr. F. G. Mann and Sir W. J. Pope, 351 ; Single Crystals, Etch Planes in, H. H. Potter and W. Sucksmith, 924
- Migration and Reproductive Rhythm in Birds, Prof. W. Rowan, 351
- Mineral Compounds, Chemical Formulæ of, L. W. Tibyriçá ; J. W. E., 815
- Modified Scattered X-Radiation due to Super-Position, Prof. C. G. Barkla, 778
- Molecular Beams, Intensities of, T. H. Johnson, 745
- Money, The Mystery of, Prof. F. Soddy, 46 ; W. H. Coates, 47
- Muscular Contraction, The Significance of Phosphorus in, P. and M. G. Eggleton, 194
- Natural : History : Museums, The Development of, Dr. F. A. Bather ; The Writer of the Article, 639 ; Museum, South Kensington, The Future of the, Sir E. Ray Lankester, 314 ; Selection, Larger Aspects of, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 564
- Neon : Ionised : Regularity in the Spectrum of, P. K. Kichlu, 671 ; (Ne II), The Spectrum of, T. L. de Bruin, 925 ; Spectrum, Hyperfine Structure in the, Dr. G. Hansen, 237
- Newton's Moving Water Rings, White Spot with, Prof. J. Muir, 781
- NH Compounds, The Spectra of, Dr. E. Hulthén and S. Nakamura, 235
- Nitric Oxide, The β Bands of, F. A. Jenkins, H. A. Barton, and Dr. R. S. Mulliken, 118
- Nitrogen : Active : Dr. R. C. Johnson, 9 ; Dr. E. J. B. Willey, 924 ; Ionisation Phenomena in, P. A. Constantinides ; Lord Rayleigh, 163 ; Pentoxide, Decomposition of, Dr. R. G. W. Norrish, 123
- Non-Magnetic Films of Iron, Nickel, and Cobalt, J. D. Hanawalt and L. R. Ingersoll, 234 ; Dr. L. C. Jackson, 426
- Odours and Visual Imagery, Dr. J. H. Kenneth, 818
- Oligochaete, A Polymorphic, Rev. Hilderic Friend, 281
- Oxygen : and Nitric Oxide, The Theory of the Paramagnetism of, Prof. J. H. Van Vleck, 670 ; = 17.0 ϕ , Prof. H. E. Armstrong, 51
- Pauli's Exclusion Principle, Relation between the Reciprocal Impenetrability of Matter and, Prof. P. Ehrenfest, 196
- Pearls, Structure of, C. Amirthalingam, 854
- Plebotomus papatasi*, The Behaviour of Cultures of *Leishmania tropica*, *L. infantum*, and *L. braziliense* in the Sandfly, Dr. S. Adler and O. Theodor, 48, 565
- Photo-electric Polarimetry, Prof. H. von Halban, 86
- Photo-electrons produced by Soft X-rays, The Energy of, E. Rudberg, 704
- Photographic Plates, The Calibration of, F. S. Hogg and Cecilia H. Payne, 925
- Pinholes in Photographic Negatives, Capt. C. J. P. Cave, 852
- Plants, Excitation in, Transmission of, Sir J. C. Bose, 48
- Polar Pressures, L. C. W. Bonacina, 124
- Polyploids, The Behaviour of, C. D. Darlington, 390
- Prehistoric Archaeology in Yorkshire, O. G. S. Crawford, 494 ; T. Sheppard, 601
- Primary Cell, A New Type of, D. R. Barber, 892
- Prothetely in Insects, Dr. Hem Singh Pruthi, 391
- Protons, Spinning Electrons and, Prof. H. S. Allen, 237
- Quantum Theory : and Gravitational Relativity, Prof. N. Wiener and D. J. Struik, 853 ; Philosophical Foundations of, Dr. N. R. Campbell ; Dr. P. Jordan, 779
- Radeliffe Science Library, The, Oxford, Lord Cottesloe, 350 ; The Writer of the Notes, 351
- Radiation : from the Earth, Experiments on Highly Penetrating, L. N. Bogoiavlensky and A. A. Lomakin, 525 ; Intensity, Measurement of, by Photographic Methods, Dr. E. A. Baker, 707

- Radioactivity and the Heat of the Earth, Dr. R. W. Lawson, 277, 703; Dr. J. W. Evans, 424
- Rain-drops, Distribution of Sizes among, Prof. J. J. Nolan and J. Enright, 922
- Reciprocal Impenetrability of Matter, Relation between the, and Pauli's Exclusion Principle, Prof. P. Ehrenfest, 196, 602
- Relativity and the Observer, Prof. H. Wildon Carr, 199
- Research Associations, Financing of, R. W. Paul, 673
- Resonance Radiation, A Source for, M. A. Tuve, 85
- River Pollution and the Acidity of Natural Waters, W. J. M. Menzies, 638
- Rock of Unknown Origin, A, from Glacial Gravel at Ipswich, J. Reid Moir, 50
- Rocksalt, Refractive Index of, Effect of Temperature on the, Sir R. Robertson and Dr. J. J. Fox, 818
- Rubber, Electro-deposition of, Dr. S. E. Sheppard, 393
- Runge, Prof. Carl, Sir Oliver Lodge, 565
- Sampling, A Convenient and Rapid Method of, C. E. R. Bruce and W. B. Whitney, 892
- Sand-flies and Chinese Kala-azar, E. Hindle and Major W. S. Patton, 460; Major H. E. Short, 893
- Science and Food Production, Sir E. J. Russell; The Reviewer, 636
- Scientific Achievement and Aptitude, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 84; Discovery, An Amusing Conception of, X.Y., 14
- Sea Anemones, Fluorescence of, Major C. E. S. Phillips, 747
- Sea Water, Measurement of Evaporation of, Prof. Was. Shoulejkin, 891
- Secretion, The Problem of, Prof. J. P. Hill and Dr. J. A. Murray, 163
- "Seizure" with Sliding Surfaces, J. M. Macaulay, 425
- Sheep, The Coat of, Prof. J. Cossar Ewart, 426; Prof. J. E. Duerden, 815
- Silicic Acid Gel during the Drying-up Process, Behaviour of, Dr. J. B. Firth and H. A. Fells, 84
- Silver, The Atomic Weight of, Prof. B. Brauner, 348, 526; Prof. H. B. Baker and H. L. Riley, 348, 703
- Simulium Larva, so-called 'Posterior Sucker' of a, The Mechanism of the, Dr. Sunder Lal Hora, 599
- Solar Radiation: and Athermancy, A. F. Dufton, 14; and Diathermancy, A. F. Dufton, 460
- Species, Fluctuations in the Abundance of a, considered Mathematically, Dr. A. J. Lotka; Prof. V. Volterra, 12
- Spectroheliograph, The, and Direct Telescopic View of Solar Prominences, A. A. Buss, 780
- Spencer's, Herbert, Electrical Apparatus, F. W. Shurlock, 672
- Spinning Electron, The, in Wave Mechanics, Prof. A. Carrelli, 492; E. Guth, 744
- Stimuli in Plants, Transmission of, Prof. N. G. Ball, 638
- Sulphur, Lengthened Chain Compounds of, Sir P. C. Rây, 124
- 'Sun Circles' in Ritual Dances, W. E. F. Macmillan, 14
- Surfaces, The Polishing of, F. W. Preston; J. M. Macaulay, 13; N. K. Adam, 162, 279; Prof. J. Muir, 279; Dr. J. W. French, 527
- Symmetrical Top, The, in Wave Mechanics, Prof. P. Debye and C. Manneback, 83
- Tahitian Coral Reefs, Recession of the, Dr. C. Crossland, 597
- Teleostean Fishes, Adrenal and Suprarenal Bodies in, The Homologues of the, Prof. Swale Vincent and F. R. Curtis, 83
- Television, J. L. Baird, 161; Dr. A. Russell, 198
- Teredo, Siphons of, Formation of Calcareous Tubes round the, Dr. C. M. Yonge, 11
- Terrestrial Magnetism, Wireless Communication and, Dr. C. Chree, 82; Dr. W. H. Eccles, 157
- Thyroxine, Designation of, Prof. A. T. Cameron, 925
- Transmutation of Elements, Prof. L. Thomassen, 813
- Truth or Convenience, Sir Oliver Lodge, 423
- Tuning-Forks with Parallel Prongs, R. S. Maxwell, 124; Dr. G. E. Allan, 281
- University Teachers, Salaries of, Prof. J. Read, 528
- Upper Air, Thermodynamic Diagrams in the Study of the, Sir Napier Shaw, 118
- Vacuum Flask, Early Suggestion as to the, R. Inwards, 893
- Vapours, A New Pressure-Temperature Formula for, Prof. A. Batschinski, 198
- Vertebrate Gut, Nomenclature of the, G. L. Purser, 855
- Walrus, The, Dr. R. W. Gray, 923
- Wave Mechanics: and the Radiation of Homopolar Molecules, D. M. Dennison, 316; The Symmetrical Top in, Prof. P. Debye and C. Manneback, 83
- Whales, The Sleep of, Dr. R. W. Gray, 636
- Wheat in 3500 B.C., Prof. J. Percival, 280
- Winter Thunderstorms in the British Islands, S. M. Bower, 123
- Wireless: Communication and Terrestrial Magnetism, Dr. C. Chree, 82; Dr. W. H. Eccles, 157; Waves, Propagation of, Effect of a Large Number of Receiving Aerials on the, R. H. Barfield, 195
- Work done by Athletes, Rate of, Prof. A. S. Eve and A. J. Fleming, 86
- X-ray: Diffraction in Liquids, Prof. C. V. Raman and C. M. Sogani, 601; Spectra, Soft, T. H. Osgood, 817; Spectrometer, An Unclaimed, P. E. Klopsteg, 14
- Yolk Formation in some Arthropods, Mian Tasdiqie Husain, 817
- 'Zoo,' The Modern, T. H. Gillespie, 747
- Zoological Nomenclature, Consideration of Six Cases in, Dr. C. W. Stiles, 817
- Corrosion of Metal Joints, Dr. U. R. Evans, 941
- Corrosive Action, The Influence of Boundary Films on, L. H. Callendar, 877
- Cosmos: Conceptions of the: in Ancient Babylonia, Dr. R. Campbell Thompson, 170; in the Classical Period, Sir Thomas Heath, 247; according to Dante, Prof. E. Gardner, 289; from the Times of Copernicus to Galileo, Sir F. W. Dyson, 328; in the Galilean and Newtonian Period, Prof. H. H. Turner, 400; Present Conceptions of the, Prof. E. T. Whittaker, 502
- Cotton: A Mutant in, G. L. Kottur, 747; Effect of Sunlight on, G. Barr and Isabel Hadfield, 255; Field Trials with, M. A. Bailey and T. Trought, 214; Occurrence of Branched Hairs in, and upon *Gossypium Stocksii*, W. Youngman and S. S. Pande, 745; Plant, The, M. A. Bailey and T. Trought, 869; Species, New, O. F. Cook and J. W. Hubbard, 796
- Countryman, The, No. 1, 866
- Coup-de-Poing, Prof. W. J. Sollas; H. Balfour, 490
- Coupled Circuits, A Vector Loci Method of treating, E. Mallett, 412
- Creeping Eruption in America, W. E. Dove and G. F. White, 367
- Crehore (Dr. A. C.), The Progress of Atomic Theory, 419
- Cretaceous Mammals, Teeth of, Prof. W. K. Gregory, 762
- Crime and Custom in Savage Society, Dr. B. Malinowski, 633
- Crimea: Palaeontological Research in, 615; Wild Nature in, Preservation of, 580
- Crimean Flora, Origin of the, Wulf and Prof. L. Berg, 904
- Cromar, Deeside, Aberdeenshire, The Igneous and Metamorphic History of, H. H. Read, 621
- Crustacea: Staining and Cleaning, Method of, R. J. Daniel, 766; The Segmental Excretory Organs of, Dr. H. G. Cannon and Miss S. M. Manton, 301
- Crystal: Lattices, U. Panichi, 623; Structure in Biology, Sir William Bragg, 66; X-ray Photographs, Rotating, G. Greenwood, 586
- Crystalline: Nitrates and Carbonates, The Magnetic Anisotropy of, K. S. Krishnan and Prof. C. V. Raman, 801; Sodium Nitrate, On the Form and Energy of, J. Topping and S. Chapman, 180
- Crystallisation of Silver Beads and Detection of Platinum Metals by the Microscope, C. O. Bannister, 766
- Crystals: Actual, Molecular Structure of, The Optical Proof of Lacunæ in the, A. Smekal, 222; Growth of, Sir Henry A. Miers, 758; Magnetism and Temperature in, Prof. W. Peddie, 621; Rate of Growth of, in Different Directions, M. Bentivoglio, 337; Twin Metallic, The Formation of, L. W. McKeehan, 392
- Culture: Diffusion or Invention in, Dr. B. Malinowski, 65; The Diffusion of, Dr. R. R. Marett (Frazer Lecture), 410
- Cuprammonium Ion and its Stability, The, P. Job, 373
- Curie's and Haüy's Laws, A Demonstration of the Interdependence between, A. Bartorelli, 623

Current in Systems of Linear Conductors, A Principle Governing the Distribution of, F. Wenner, 221
Cycloheptene, Oxide of, The Action of Organo-magnesium Compounds on the, M. Godchot and P. Bedos, 373
Cyclones: and the General Circulation, Dr. H. Jeffreys, 837; The Mechanism of, T. Kobayasi, 832
Cygni, 61, The Orbit of, P. Baize, 403

Dactylis glomerata (Cocksfoot), The Chromosome Number in, J. G. Davies, 236
Dahomey, The Pictorial Records of, E. M. G. Waterlot, 760
Dairy Research Institute in Scotland, a committee for the management of the proposed, 402
Dairying, National Institute for Research in, 135, 649
Danish Ingolf-Expedition, Medusæ of the, Dr. P. L. Kramp, 367
Darius I., The Inscription of, Prof. E. Herzfeld, 792
Darwinism Dead? Is: Sir Arthur Keith, 75, 277, 526; H. Belloc, 277, 427, 526; Editor of NATURE, 427
Datura, A New Mutant in, Drs. C. S. Gager and A. F. Blakeslee, 940; Chromosome and Gene Mutations in, following Exposure to Radium Rays, C. S. Gager and A. F. Blakeslee, 731
Day, Length of the, Changes in the, Prof. E. W. Brown, 200; Dr. J. K. Fotheringham, 318
Dead, Disposal of the, at Wakehing, Assam, J. H. Hutton, 683
Dead Sea, Water of the, R. Koefoed and G. Haugaard, 615
Death in a Superoxygenated Atmosphere, C. Achar, L. Binet, and A. Leblanc; C. Richet, 658

DEATHS.

André (Prof. G.), 933
Barnard (J.), 754
Bayard (F. Campbell), 326
Berthelot (Prof. D.), 432, 645
Brightmore (Dr. A. W.), 678
Brownlee (Dr. J.), 573
Brückner (Prof. E.), 862
Bury (Prof. J. B.), 897
Carhart (Dr. D.), 132
Casale (Dr. L.), 609
Cathcart (G. L.), 609
Chauvenet (W. M.), 168
Collingridge (Dr. W.), 678, 789
Colvin (Sir Sidney), 754
Cook (Surg.-Genl. H.), 933
Crandall (Dr. I. B.), 933
Crossley (Dr. A. W.), 397, 498
Cvijić (Tzvyitch) (Prof. Y.), 432
Da Fano (Dr. C.), 534
Dall (Dr. W. H.), 678
Deacon (A. B.), 609
Delafosse (M.), 206
Des Coudres (Prof.), 645
Drechsel (Kommandör C. F.), 432
Dumble (E. T.), 678
Edwardes (S. M.), 93
Eigenmann (Prof. C. H.), 862
FitzGerald (Prof. M. F.), 754, 823
Fox (Sir Francis), 93
Gilchrist (Prof. D. A.), 609, 789
Goodwin (H. B.), 361
Graebe (Prof. C.), 500
Greenhill (Sir George), 286, 323
Guthrie (F. B.), 361
Hamilton-Grierson (Sir Philip James), 678
Harding (C.), 132
Hartland (Dr. E. S.), 933
Haslam (Sir Alfred Seale), 245
Hell (Dr. K.), 168
Holborn (Dr. C. F. L.), 678
Howe (Dr. H. A.), 168
Hultsch (Dr. E.), 286
Irving (D.), 168
Keltie (Sir John Scott), 130
Knowlton (Dr. F. H.), 326
Lawson (Prof. A. A.), 753
Lee (A. B.), 432

Levin (Dr. A.), 678
Lister (J. J.), 245, 360
Lochhead (Prof. W.), 862
Manouvrier (Dr. L. P.), 245
Marshall (Dr. C. E.), 678
Marshall (Col. C. H. T.), 397
Mellish (Lt.-Col. H.), 326
Miethe (Prof. A.), 754
Moore (Dr. F. J.), 132
Murray (Major J. R. Erskine), 361
Nicholson (Prof. J. S.), 754
Nutting (Prof. C. C.), 678
Owen (Sir Isambard), 132
Pargiter (F. E.), 397
Pearcey (F. G.), 245
Phillips (Prof. R. W.), 92
Pigott (Sir Digby), 206
Power (Dr. F. B.), 573
Pullar (Dr. L.), 59
de Quervain (Prof. A.), 205
Radlkofer (Prof. L.), 432
Remsen (Prof. Ira), 397, 608
Rennie (Prof. E. H.), 206, 361, 431
Richardson (Dr. S. W.), 645
Rigge (Father W. F.), 933
Ross (Dr. H. Campbell), 59
Rothmund (Prof. V.), 862
Rovsing (Prof. T.), 245
Runge (Prof. C.), 432, 533
Sargent (Prof. C. S.), 609, 645
Sars (Prof. G. O.), 609, 822
Scott (Prof. A. W.), 432
Seton (Dr. W.), 206
Shrubsole (W. H.), 862
Smith (Miss Matilda), 326
Spiegel (Dr. L.), 361
Starling (Prof. E. H.), 678, 715
Stoakley (F. J.), 132
Strangeways (T. S. P.), 59, 92
Tilden (Sir W. A.), 58
von Tschermak (Prof. G.), 933
Turpin (F. E.), 500
Tzvyitch (Cvijić) (Prof. Y.), 432
Verrill (Dr. A. E.), 432
Walcott (Dr. C. D.), 286, 325
Walston (Sir Charles), 534
Warren (Genl. Sir Charles), 168
Wassmuth (Dr. A.), 933
Webster (J.), 168
Williams (Prof. W. C.), 862
Wilson (Sir James), 59
Withycombe (Dr. C. L.), 131

Decapod Crustacea, Fossil, Miss M. J. Rathbun, 905
Delphos: the Future of International Language, E. Sylvia Pankhurst, 889
Deltopecten, A New, from the Illawarra District, N.S.W., J. Mitchell, 947
Delusion and Belief, Prof. C. M. Campbell, 487
Denbighshire Technical Institute, Dr. W. Thomas appointed principal of the, 729
Desensitiser for Photographic Plates, A New, R. J. Garnotel, 100
Destruction of Organic Matter with the Aid of Perchloric Acid, The, E. Cherbuliez, 514
Destructive Insects and Pests Bill, The, 535
Development Commissioners, Sixteenth Report of the, 94
Devonian Flora, Dr. D. H. Scott, 368
Dewey, Melvil, The Decimal Classification of, and its Extension by the Brussels Institute of Bibliography, Dr. S. C. Bradford, 429
Dicotyledonous Fossil Wood from Ulladulla, N.S.W., A. C. Barnard, 948
Dielectric Bodies: Rotation of, in Electrostatic Fields, Dr. S. W. Richardson, 238; C. Record, 319; A. W. Simon and J. M. Cage, 816
Diet: and Cancer, with special reference to the Incidence of Cancer upon Members of certain Religious Orders, Dr. S. M. Copeman and Dr. N. Greenwood, 297; in Relation to Health, The Importance of, 44

- Diffusion : or Invention in Culture, Dr. B. Malinowski, 65 ;
Over Distances ranging from 3 km. to 86 km.,
Dr. L. F. Richardson and D. Proctor, 478 ; Pumps,
The Theory of, L. Wertenstein, 34
- Dilatancy, The Property of, L. B. Tuckerman, 602
- Dinosaurs of Tendaguru, The, F. W. H. Migeod, 320
- Dioecious Plants, Chromosomes of, C. A. Jorgensen, 726
- Diphtheria, The Death-rate from, in Massachusetts for
51 years, 1875-1925, C. R. Doering, 659
- Diphtheric Toxins giving rise to a Diphtherimorph bacillus,
P. Hauduroy, 478
- Disease : in the Tropics, Fighting, 828 ; Resistance in
Plants, on the Nature of, W. A. Roach, 33
- Dispersion, The Quantum Theory of, P. A. M. Dirac, 802
- Disulphisatide, A. Wahl and Féricéan, 690
- Divining Rod : Behind the, Dr. H. R. Mill, 310, 458 ;
Dr. M. Culpin, 783 ; Prof. W. J. Sollas, 458, 565 ;
The, an Experimental and Psychological Investiga-
tion, Sir William Barrett and T. Besterman, 310
- Dogs Protection Bill, The Medical Research Council and
the, 898
- Dominions Overseas, British Settlement in the, 693
- Dopes and Detonations, Prof. H. L. Callendar and others,
542
- Doppler Effects and Intensities of Lines in the Molecular
Spectrum of Hydrogen Positive Rays, M. C. Johnson,
412
- Doublets, a Plane Network of, on the Mutual Potential
Energy of, J. Topping, 180
- Drawings on the Walls of the Reindeer Age in the Valley of
Gardon, A Cave with, J. Bayol, P. Marcellin, and L.
Mayet, 910
- Drumlins, The Glacial Origins of, Prof. J. K. Charlesworth,
727
- Dug-out Canoe in Algoa Bay, Dr. R. N. Rudmose Brown ;
G. S. Laird Clowes, 856
- Duplex Reversal Key, A, with Mercury Contacts, E. A.
Griffiths and Dr. Ezer Griffiths, 909
- Durgāpūja, A European Parallel to the, Dr. S. Konow, 99
- Durian and the Rhio-Lingga Archipelago, The Fauna of,
Dr. K. W. Dammerman, 371
- Dust Clouds, Electricity of, G. B. Deodhar, 586
- Dyeing, The Chemistry of, Dr. J. K. Wood. New edition,
742
- Dyers' research medal, award of the, to Dr. H. H.
Hodgson, 331
- Dyes, Adsorption of, to Silver Halides : a Correction,
Dr. S. E. Sheppard, 281
- Dyestuffs and Coal-Tar Products : their Chemistry,
Manufacture, and Application, T. Beacall, Dr. F.
Challenger, Dr. G. Martin, and Dr. H. J. S. Sand.
Fourth edition. Mar. 1, Suppt., 17
- Dynamics : and Ballistics, 485 ; Apparatus for Demon-
strating Experiments in, G. C. Sherrin, 25
- Early Ancestors : Our, an Introductory Study of Meso-
lithic, Neolithic, and Copper Age Cultures in Europe
and Adjacent Regions, M. C. Burkitt, 889
- Earth : Constitution of the, Prof. H. H. Turner ; Dr.
H. Jeffreys, 295 ; Our Changing, E. B. Bailey, 421 ;
Our Mobile, Prof. R. A. Daly, 421 ; Size and Figure
of the, A. R. Hinks, 541 ; The Heat of the, Radio-
activity and, Dr. R. W. Lawson, 277, 703 ; Dr. J. W.
Evans, 424 ; The Peopling of the, Dr. A. Hrdlička,
253 ; The Relative Velocity of the, and the Neigh-
bouring Ether, E. Brylinski, 373 ; Tremor in Scotland,
171
- Earthquake : Chinese, of May 27, 936 ; in Japan, 401 ;
in Scotland, An, 208 ; Research Institute, Japan,
Inauguration of, 576 ; Prediction in California,
Dr. J. P. Buwalda, 684
- Earthquakes : along the Dalmatian Coast, 329 ; and
the Tilting of the Ground, M. Ishimoto, 869 ; in
California and Mexico, 60 ; in China, 826 ; in Lati-
tude, The Distribution of, C. Maurain, 587
- Earth's : Atmosphere, the, The Sun, and Radio Trans-
mission, Prof. S. Chapman, 428 ; Crust, The Con-
stituents of the, and the Molecular Number, P.
Vinassa, 767 ; Surface Structure, The Origin of the,
Prof. J. Joly and Dr. J. H. J. Poole, 524, 674
- Earwigs, Variation in, Prof. J. S. Huxley, 507
- Easington, Old Tithe Barn at, The, 364
- East : Anglican Institute of Agriculture, Calendar of the,
32 ; Africa, The Early Peoples of, L. S. Leakey, 724
- Easter, A Fixed, J. J. Withers, 331
- Ebullioscopic Paradox, The, E. Briner and A. Schidlof, 587
- Echinoderms : The Experimental Embryology of the (i.),
P. Pasquini, 803 ; The Fertilisation Membrane in the,
A. D. Hobson, 513
- Eclipse : Observations, Meteorological Conditions in Rela-
tion to, R. Corless, June 18, Suppt., 79 ; Observing
Parties and Stations, June 18, Suppt., 99 ; of the Sun :
Naked-eye Observations of an, Annie S. D. Maunder,
June 18, Suppt., 81 ; Partial, Spectroscopic Observa-
tions during a, Prof. A. Fowler, June 18, Suppt., 91 ;
Radio Telegraphy and the, June 18, Suppt., 85 ;
Phenomena, Prof. E. V. Appleton, 898 ; Photography,
C. P. Butler, June 18, Suppt., 82 ; Problems : Astro-
physical, Prof. H. Dingle, June 18, Suppt., 88 ;
Modern, F. J. M. Stratton, 898 ; The Coming Total
Solar, A. J. Hawkes, 794 ; The Forthcoming, Excurs-
ions and other Railway Arrangements, June 18,
Suppt., 897 ; Time Signals for the, 903 ; Work,
Astronomical Programmes of, F. J. M. Stratton,
June 18, Suppt., 98
- Eclipses : Prof. H. H. Turner, 102 ; Solar : Future Total,
in the British Isles, Dr. A. C. D. Crommelin, June 18,
Suppt., 77 ; The Recurrence of, Dr. J. Jackson,
June 18, Suppt., 75 ; The Prediction of, Dr. L. J.
Comrie, June 18, Suppt., 73
- Economic Entomology, The Principles of Biological
Control in, Dr. R. J. Tillyard, 202
- Ecuador : Bird-Life in, The Distribution of, Dr. F. M.
Chapman, 336 ; Birds of, 336
- Edinburgh University : conferment of degrees, 32 ; gift
by the International Education Board of New York
towards the new department of zoology, 179 ; funds
for a new department of zoology, 219 ; award of the
Cameron prize to Prof. F. G. Banting, 258 ; Dr. R. J.
Clark appointed lecturer, etc., in the department of
natural philosophy ; gift by T. Cowan, 372 ; Animal
Breeding Research Department, 510 ; V. Gordon
Childe appointed to the Abereromby chair of archae-
ology, 511 ; impending conferment of honorary
doctorates, 875 ; gift by T. Cowan, 907 ; grant by
the Highland and Agricultural Society to the Depart-
ment of Research in Animal Breeding ; annual con-
tribution to the British Institute in Paris, 943
- Edison medal of the American Institute of Electrical
Engineers, the, awarded to Dr. W. D. Coolidge, 251
- Education : among Primitive Peoples : Origins of, a
Comparative Study in Racial Development, W. D.
Hambly, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10 ; and Industry, Depart-
mental Committee on Interim Report of the, 69 ;
of the Adolescent, Report of the Consultative Com-
mittee on the, 185
- Educational Ladder, The, 810
- Effectivity ? Efficiency or, Prof. E. P. Cathcart, 599
- Efficiency : Industrial and Commercial, Factors in, 305 ;
or Effectivity ? Prof. E. P. Cathcart, 599
- Egypt : Early, The Court Life and Organisation of, 575 ;
School of Archæology in, Report on the work of the,
Sir Flinders Petrie, 433
- Egyptian : Cotton, Branched Lint Hairs in, The Occur-
rence of, N. W. Barritt, 392 ; Ministry of Agriculture,
Dr. W. L. Balls appointed director of the botanical
section of the, 402 ; Tombs, Early, The Microscopical
Study of Deteriorated Fabric from, A. C. Thaysen
and H. J. Bunker, 802
- Elective Fermentation, The So-called, A. Fernbach, M.
Schoen, and M. Mori, 547
- Electric : Cell, A Useful, Prof. S. L. Jindal, 639 ; Circuit
Theory and the Operational Calculus, J. R. Carson,
Mar. 19, Suppt., 18 ; Lamps, Methods of Testing, 140 ;
Locomotives for Haulage Work in Factories, 936 ;
Tetanus in Fishes, The Conditions of Death in,
Dr. C. Richet, 910 ; Traction, F. Lydall, 176 ; Trains,
R. E. Dickinson, Mar. 19, Suppt., 19 ; Tramways,
The Equipment of, 169 ; Wave Phenomena, Large
Scale, A Quantum Relation in, T. L. Eckersley,
234

- Electrical: Communications, Fifty Years' Progress in, Prof. M. Pupin, 249; Conductivity of the Atmosphere: The, Dr. Rose Stoppel, 140; in the Region of the North Pole, Measurements of the, Malmgrön and Běhounek, 947; Contracting: a Guide and Handbook specially designed to meet the Needs of all those engaged in Business as Electrical Contractors, H. A. Purdie, 632; Engineering: British Standard Glossary of Terms used in, 230; The Terminology of, 230; Illumination, Indoor, J. W. T. Walsh, 542; Instrument Design and Construction, Progress in, Dr. C. V. Drysdale, 101; Polarisation in Selenium Cells and the Effects of Desiccation, Prof. A. O. Rankine and J. W. Avery, 338
- Electricity: in Conductors, Thermal Agitation of, J. B. Johnson, 50; in Warships, The Application of, W. McClelland, 575; Supply, J. A. Beard, 542; (Supply) Act, The, 755; The Theory of, Prof. G. H. Livens. Second edition, 385; through Gases, Conduction of, Prof. Seeliger, 653
- Electrification and the Electricity Act, Sir Charles Bright, 207
- Electro-conductivity Titration, A New Method of, E. Butterworth, 621
- Electrodeless Discharge, The, and Active Nitrogen, G. Hornés, 910
- Electrodynamics for Engineers, Introductory, Prof. E. Bennett and Dr. H. M. Crothers, 595
- Electrolyte, Completely Dissociated, Interionic Forces in a, H. Hartley, 322
- Electrolytes: Activity Coefficients of, V. K. La Mer, C. V. King, and C. F. Mason, 581; Strong, The Theory of, 676
- Electrolytic Interruptor, The Mechanism of the, G. Colange, 182
- Electromagnetic: Field, A Dynamical Theory of the, Prof. J. Clerk Maxwell, 125; Waves round the Earth's Surface, Refraction of, J. S. McPetrie and R. M. Wilmotte, 317
- Electro-Mechanical Oscillators, C. B. Moore, 610
- Electrometric Methods, Dr. E. K. Rideal, 346
- Electron: Atoms and Ions, Physical Properties of many, The Theoretical Prediction of the, L. Pauling, 260; Emission under the Influence of Chemical Action at High Gas Pressures and some Photoelectric Experiments with Liquid Alloys, Prof. O. W. Richardson and M. Brotherton, 802; Orbits, Undulatory Theory of Two, Prof. A. W. Conway, 878; 'Reflection' *in vacuo*, D. Brown and Prof. R. Whiddington, 427; The, as a Vector Wave, Prof. C. G. Darwin, 282
- Electrons: On the Capture of, by swiftly moving Electrified Particles, L. H. Thomas, 301; Spinning: R. H. Fowler, 90; and Protons, Prof. H. S. Allen, 237; The Effect of the Orbital Velocity of the, in Heavy Atoms on their Stopping of α -particles, L. H. Thomas, 445; The Scattering of, by a Single Crystal of Nickel, C. Davison and L. H. Germer, 558; through Gases, The Passage of, H. Jones and Prof. R. Whiddington, 338
- Electroscopes, A Convenient Method of Charging, Dr. H. H. Poole, 658
- Elektrische Leitfähigkeit der Atmosphäre und ihre Ursachen, Die, Prof. V. F. Hess, Mar. 5, Suppt., 6
- Elektrodynamik, Lehrbuch der, Prof. J. Frenkel. Erster Band, 851
- Element: 61, Isolation of, Rolla and Fernandes, 27, 215; of Atomic Number 61, The Concentration and Identification of the, J. M. Cork, C. James, and H. C. Fogg, 339
- Elements: The Thermal Ionisation of, Saha, Sur, and Mazumdar, 334; Transmutation of, L. Thomassen, 813
- Elephant-like Creatures represented in the New World, The Identification of, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, 132
- Elephas antiquus* of Pignataro, The, G. De Lorenzo, 333
- Embryological Studies and Tissue Culture, 831
- Embryology, Experimental: Dr. F. H. A. Marshall, 114; An Introduction to, G. R. de Beer, 114
- Emeryville Shell Mound, The, California, W. R. Schenck, 438
- Empire: Broadcasting, The Feasibility of, 757; Cotton Growing Corporation, Report of the, 291; *Cotton Growing Review*, The, Vol. 4, No. 1, 250; Foundations of, 841; Marketing Board, The Work of the, Mr. Ormsby-Gore, 680; Mining and Metallurgical Congress, Impending meeting in Canada, 575
- Empty Quarter, The, Dr. P. A. Buxton, 381
- Endocrine Organs: The, an Introduction to the Study of Internal Secretion, Sir E. Sharpey-Schafer. Second edition, Part 2, 420
- Energy of Naturally Occurring Warm Water, The Utilisation of the, P. Villard, 106
- Engineer: -Astronomer, An, 627; be trained? How should an, 225
- England: Exploring, an Introduction to Naturecraft, C. S. Bayne, 668
- English: Life in the Middle Ages, L. F. Salzman, 275; Opticians in the First Half of the Nineteenth Century, History of, Dr. M. von Rohr, 837
- Entomological Society of Belgium, Dr. R. J. Tillyard elected an honorary member of the, 681
- Entomology, Economic, The Principles of Biological Control in, Dr. R. J. Tillyard, 242
- Enzyme: Die, Wirkungen und Eigenschaften, E. Waldschmidt-Leitz, 596; Research, Problems and Methods of, Prof. R. Willstätter, 790
- Ephemera Danica*, Müll., Biology of, E. Percival and H. Whitehead, 35
- Erblichkeitslehre: Elemente der exakten, mit Grundzügen der biologischen Variationsstatistik, Prof. W. Johannsen. Dritte Auflage, 523
- Eriostemon Coxii* Mueller and *Phebolium dentalum* Smith, The Essential Oils of, A. R. Penfold, 303
- Esfinge Indiana: La, antiguos y nuevos aspectos del problema de los orígenes americanos, Prof. J. Imbelloni, 3
- Eskimo in East Greenland, J. M. Wordie, 506
- Eskimos and Plants, A. V. Kidder, 731
- Essential Oils, The, H. Finemore, 920
- Estate Accounts, C. S. Orwin and H. W. Kersey, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12
- Esteria of Australia, The Fossil. Part I., J. Mitchell, 947
- l'Éther, Les équations de la dynamique de, Prof. H. Eyraud, 347
- Ethylenediamine, The Substitution of, for Ammonia in Complexes in Solution, P. Job, 879
- Etna, Laval Percolations from, Temperature of, G. Ponte, 691
- Eucalypts, The Essential Oils of the, Prof. J. Read, 784
- Euclid's Elements, The Thirteen Books of, Translated from the Text of Heiberg, with Introduction and Commentary, by Sir Thomas L. Heath. Second edition, 3 vols., 152
- Euphausiacea and Mysidacea from the Western Atlantic, Prof. W. M. Tattersall, 614
- Europa, Geologie von, Prof. Serge von Bubnoff. Band I., 232
- Europium, The Arc Spectrum of, S. Piña de Rubies, 302
- Evaporation, Latent Heats of, M. de Hemptinne, 373
- Evolution: and Intellectual Freedom, Rev. Dr. H. Watson Smith, 288; The Teaching of the Truth of, in the U.S.A., The Supreme Court of Tennessee and, 134
- Evolutionary: Advance: Emergent and Resultant, Prof. C. Lloyd Morgan, 786; Philosophy, Prof. J. Graham Kerr, 307
- Ewing Ball-and-tube Flowmeter, Further Experiments with the, J. H. Awbery and Dr. Ezer Griffiths, 105
- Excitation: by High Velocity Electrons, E. G. Dymond, 945; in Plants, Transmission of, Sir J. C. Bose, 48
- Existence, The Continuity of, D. B. Mair, 199
- Experimental Biology, Society for: meeting of the, 136; Easter conference of the, 681
- Experimentalphysik, Handbuch der, Herausgegeben von W. Wien und F. Harms. Band 2: Mechanik der Massenpunkte und der Starren Körper, Prof. A. Haas, 189
- Experimental Researches, Some, M. Hamy, 182
- Exploded Wires, Prof. H. N. Russell, 829
- Eye: Microscopy of the Living, B. Graves, 585; -strain in the Hosiery Industry, H. C. Weston and S. Adams, 726

- Fairyland, A Road to, E. Fay, 313
- Faraday House : Electrical Engineering College, appointment of the Rev. L. Van Vestraut as Registrar and F. A. Bell as Secretary, 619; Journal, Lent Term, 336; Medal of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, Award of the, to Prof. Elihu Thomson, 171; Michael, Proposed Memorial Library, 329
- Farm : Calculations and Accounts, including a Thorough Treatment of Agricultural Calculations and of the Business Transactions of the Farm, Dr. A. G. Ruston and C. V. Dawe, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12; Measurements : A Practical Treatment of Problems in Mensuration, Dr. A. G. Ruston and C. V. Dawe, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12
- Fasting of Large Ruminants, The, Dr. F. G. Benedict and E. G. Ritzman, 839
- Fat-soluble Vitamins, 787
- Fatty Acids : Higher, The Polymorphism of, Dr. J. Thibaud, 852; Polymorphism of, X-ray Investigation of the, G. M. de Boer, 634; X-ray Evidence for the Existence of Different Modifications of, G. M. de Boer, 50
- Fatuous in Cultivated Oats, The Origin of, C. L. Huskins, 49
- Fayum Lakes, The, Sir Flinders Petrie, 238
- Federow's Plate, Further Observations on the Apparent Duplication of the Optic Axis of Calcite by, N. Philibert, 107
- Fermentations, Industrial, Prof. P. W. Allen, 741
- Ferments, Preparation and Activity of, The Importance of Isoelectric Points in the, F. Chodat, 587
- Ferns : Primitive, 191; The (Filicales) : Treated comparatively with a View to their Natural Classification, Prof. F. O. Bower, Vol. 2, 191
- Ferromagnetic Ferric Oxide, A New, R. Chevallier, 622; Substances, The Intrinsic Fields in, J. Dorfman, 353
- Ferroso-ferric Cyanides, L. Cambi and Ada Clerici, 622
- Ferrous Metals, The Action of Complex Saline Solutions on the, R. Girard, 690
- Fields of Force in the Atmosphere of the Sun, The, Dr. G. E. Hale, 708
- Filipinos, The Physique of, J. C. Nañagas and L. C. Santiago, 868
- Fireball : Brilliant, on February 25, W. F. Denning, 366; of Feb. 25, The, W. F. Denning, 403; of March 1, W. F. Denning, 471; on June 10, W. F. Denning, 938
- Fisheries : of Ceylon, The, Dr. J. Pearson, 68; River Pollution and, 1
- Fishery Investigations at Cullercoats, 506
- Fishes, New or Rare, C. F. Silvester and H. W. Fowler, 614
- Fishing Industries of the Thames Estuary, the late Dr. Murie, 726
- Fish Remains from the Upper Silurian Rocks of Ludlow, S. H. Straw, 766
- Fisica dei corpuscoli, La, Dr. G. Gianfranceschi. Terza edizione, 419
- Fjords, The Origin of, Prof. J. W. Gregory, 66
- Flame : Movement, O. C. de C. Ellis, 870; Speeds, The Law of, Dr. W. Payman and Prof. R. V. Wheeler, 747, 779; The Supposed Law of, A. G. White, 51, 674; Dr. W. Payman and Prof. R. V. Wheeler, 238; Prof. W. A. Bone, 922; The Propagation of, H. F. Coward and G. W. Jones, 581
- Flames, The Spectrography of, in an Explosion Motor, A. Henne and G. L. Clark, 262
- Flat-fishes, Ambicoloration and Associated Variations in, J. R. Norman, 104; Natural Ambicoloration and the Production of Pigment in, J. T. Cunningham, 513
- Fleas and Plague, Dr. L. F. Hirst, 540
- Flinders Ranges, South Australia, The Geology of the, in the Neighbourhood of Wooltana Station, W. G. Woolnough, 303
- Flint Surfaces : The Microscopical Examination of, J. Reid Moir, 560; W. J. Lewis Abbott, 747
- Floræ Siamensis Enumeratio : a List of the Plants known from Siam, with Records of their Occurrence, Prof. W. G. Craib. Vol. I., Parts 1 and 2, 633
- Florentium : (Atomic number 61), A New Element, L. Rolla and L. Fernandes, 374; or Illinium? Prof. L. Rolla and L. Fernandes, 637
- Florida, Miocene Mollusca from, Julia Gardiner, 139
- Flour : Chemical Treatment of, 797; the Colour of, A Numerical Expression for, D. W. Kent-Jones and C. W. Herd, 690; The Relative Food Values of Brown and White Wheat, E. J. Sheehy, 803
- Flowering Plants, Multiple Chromosomes and Reduction Division in, Dr. J. Belling, 122
- Flowmeter, A Ball and Tube, Suitable for Pressure Circuits, J. H. Awbery and Dr. Ezer Griffiths, 657
- Fluid, Superposed Streams of, An Experiment on the Stability of, Prof. G. I. Taylor, 657
- Fluorescence : Action of the Antioxygens on, Privault, 910; Decay of, E. Gaviola, 66
- Fluorine, Arc Spectrum of, The Double Normal State of the, Prof. H. Dingle, 86
- Food : Fishes in the North Sea, Distribution of, J. O. Borley, 540; Production, Science and, Sir E. J. Russell; The Reviewer, 636
- Foot-and-Mouth Disease, Report on, 906
- Foraminifera from the Suez Canal, E. Heron-Allen and A. Earland, 939
- Forest : Administration in British Honduras, 257; Crops : Measurements of the Cubical Contents of, being a critical investigation into the methods of measuring Sample Plots, with special reference to the liability to error, M. D. Chaturvedi, 192; Destruction and its Effects, 37; Steppe and Tundra : Studies in Animal Environment, Maud D. Haviland (Mrs. H. H. Brindley), 385
- Forestry : and Forest Products Research, Co-operation in, 881; in Illinois and Great Britain, 31; Research in South Africa, J. Phillips, 333
- Formic Acid, The Catalytic Decomposition of, J. B. Senderens, 730
- Forrest, James, Lecture, The, Prof. H. C. H. Carpenter, 927
- Fossil : Bone Implements of Pliocene Age, Discovery in Nebraska of, Dr. H. F. Osborn, 790; Permian Insects from European Russia, Dr. A. V. Maroynov, 440
- Foulden, Berwickshire, The Fish-fauna of the Cement-stones of, E. I. White, 182
- Fowl : Domestic, Relation of Gonadic Structure to Plumage Characterisation in the (ii.), A. W. Greenwood and Dr. F. A. E. Crew, 877; Relation of Gonad and Plumage in the, Pézard, Sand, and Caridroit, 99; the Quantitative Relation of Comb Size and Gonadic Activity in the, A. W. Greenwood and Dr. F. A. E. Crew, 803
- Fowls, The Erythrocyte Count in Sexually Normal and Abnormal, A. C. Chaudhuri, 145
- France, Statistique intellectuelle de la, T. Beresovski-Chestov, 345
- Free : Pendulum, A, maintained by a Photo-electric Current and its Application to the Problem of Time, G. Ferrié and R. Jouaust, 302; Place Scholarships Examination, 1926, in Kent, The, A. Bell, 219
- Fresh-water : Life, Microscopic, F. J. W. Plaskitt, 117; Polyzoa in East Anglia, Ecology of the, H. E. Hurrell, 766
- Fresnel's Convection Coefficient in General Relativity, On, N. R. Sen, 877
- Friction Match, The Centenary of the, Prof. W. A. Bone, 495
- Fruit : Growing, Prof. W. H. Chandler, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11; Tree Spraying, Modern, and What it Costs, J. Turnbull, 828
- Fuel : Institute of, Fusion of the Institution of Fuel Technology and the Institution of Fuel Economy Engineers under the Name of the, 681; Research Board, Report of the, for 1925, 211; Technology, Institution of, Inaugural Meeting of the, 136
- Fugle 2 : Lomfugle, Stormfugle, Vandhøns, Tranefugle og Vadeugle, R. Hørring, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
- Fulminating Material, The Study of, E. Mathias, 446
- Fungal Diseases, Seed Mixtures and Incidence of, E. W. Fenton, 657
- Furfural in Vinegar, On the Presence and Detection of, L. H. Lampitt, E. B. Hughes, and L. H. Trace, 34
- Furnace Development, Prof. W. E. S. Turner, 909
- Fused Salt, The Coefficient of Ionisation of a, Prof. T. M. Lowry, 564
- Fütterung der Haustiere : ihre theoretischen Grundlagen und ihre wirtschaftliche Durchführung, Prof. N. Hansson. Übersetzt von F. von Meissner, 486

- γ -Ray Absorption, Temperature Coefficient of, L. Bastings, 51
- Gabb's Californian Fossil Gastropods, R. B. Stewart, 255
- Gadolinium, The Arc Spectrum of, S. Piña de Rubies, 586
- Galactic Cepheids, Statistical Properties of, J. Schilt, 212
- Gallium in Flue Dust, H. Ramage, 783
- Gambusia, Sexual Maturation of, Phenomena accompanying the Crisis of, E. Remotti, 414
- Gamma Rays, The Scattering of, Dr. L. H. Clark, 121
- Gammarus chevreuxi* Sexton, Inheritance in, Mrs. E. W. Sexton and C. F. A. Pantin, 119
- Gas : Ion Mobilities in Ether-hydrogen Mixtures, L. B. Loeb, 146 ; Storage of Fruit, F. Kidd, C. West, and M. N. Kidd, 830
- Gaseous : Combustion at High Pressures (Part vii.), Prof. W. A. Bone and D. M. Newitt, 802 ; Explosions, The Initial Stages of, Prof. W. A. Bone, R. P. Fraser, and D. A. Winter, 2 Parts, 259, 763 ; Prof. W. A. Bone, R. P. Fraser, and F. Witt, 545 ; Mixture, The Equation of State of a, Dr. J. E. Lennard-Jones and W. R. Cook, 545 ; Mixtures : of Acetylene and of Pentane, On Detonation of, A. Egerton and S. F. Gates (1), 259 ; On Detonation of, at High Initial Pressures and Temperatures, A. Egerton and S. F. Gates (2), 259 ; The Pressure of, Dr. J. E. Lennard-Jones, 459 ; Reactions, The Mechanism of, 771
- Gases : in Nitrous Oxide, The Burning of, Prof. H. B. Dixon and W. F. Higgins, 296 ; The Activation of, by Adsorption, G. B. Kistiakowsky, 659 ; The Ionisation of, and the Temperatures of the Stars, G. Tiercy, 514
- Gaussmeter, A. A Direct Reading Apparatus for the Measurement of Magnetic Fields, G. Dupouy, 478
- Geine (Geoside), The Chemical Composition of, H. Hérisséy and J. Cheymol, 183
- Geissler Discharge in Argon, The, Dr. K. G. Emelús and N. L. Harris, 602
- Genetics at the Carnegie Institution of Washington, Dr. Banta, 904
- Genius : Genetic Studies of, edited by L. M. Terman. Vol. 1 : Mental and Physical Traits of a Thousand Gifted Children, L. M. Terman and others. Second edition. Vol. 2 : The Early Mental Traits of Three Hundred Geniuses, by Catherine Morris Cox and others, 695 ; The Numerical Measurement of, 695
- Geodesy and Geophysics, International Union of, Publication of Vol. 3 of the Proceedings of the Geodesy Section, 936
- Geodetic Constants and the Values of Gravity, Relations existing between the, C. Somigliana, 478
- Geographical Association, The, Annual Meeting of, 142
- Geography, the new title of the *Geographical Teacher*, 538
- Geological Society : of London, Awards of the, 169, 329, 504 ; election of officers, 330
- Geology : of South Africa, The, Dr. A. L. Du Toit ; Prof. J. W. Gregory, 665 ; of the country between Llanellidan and Bryneglwys, R. C. Blackie, 878
- Geometry, Theoretical, The Greek Conception of, Prof. G. A. Gibson, 152
- Geophysics, Modern, Dr. H. Jeffreys, 343
- Geophysik, Lehrbuch der, Herausgegeben von Dr. B. Gutenberg. Lief. 1 und 2, 343
- Gianfranceschi (Dr. G.), *La fisica dei corpuscoli*. Terza edizione, 419
- Gibbs' Phase Integral for Imperfect Gases, The Evaluation of, H. D. Ursell, 445
- Gifford Lectures, The, Prof. A. S. Eddington, 170, 208, 249, 289, 328, 363, 399, 434, 468
- Gigha, The Geology of, W. J. McCallion, 302
- Gisortia, The Molluscan Genus, late Dr. Vredenburg, 684
- Giza, An Archaeological Discovery at, Dr. Reisner, 791
- Glasgow : *Royal Technical College, Journal of the*, Dec., 867 ; University, Awards in, 656
- Glass : Fragments in Preserved Foods, G. C. Hancock, 614 ; Furnaces, Recuperative, Some Further Developments in, T. Teisen, 621 ; Technology, Society of, W. Butterworth re-elected president, 827
- Glasses and Glazes, Some Colouring Agents in, Sir Herbert Jackson, 401
- Glencoin and Stybarrow, The Woods of, 756
- Globular Clusters and Spiral Nebulae, A. R. Hinks, 725
- Glucose Solutions, Alcoholic Fermentation of, exposed to the Action of Ultra-violet Rays, R. de Fazi, 803
- Gluten from Flour, The Washing of, D. W. Kent-Jones and C. W. Herd, 690
- Gmelin's *Handbuch der anorganischen Chemie*. Achte Auflage. Herausgegeben von der Deutschen Chemischen Gesellschaft. Bearbeitet von R. J. Meyer. Number 13 und 5, 346
- Gods, The Goodness of, Prof. E. Westermarck, 557
- Gold : A New Organo-metallic Derivative of, A. Lumière and F. Perrin, 414 ; from Mercury, The Formation of, Miethe and Stammreich, 474
- Gold Coast Survey, 406
- Golden Eagle, Filming the, Capt. C. W. R. Knight, 536
- Goldsmiths' Company, The, 501
- Golgi : Apparatus, The, in the Cells of Tissue Culture, Dr. R. J. Ludford, 512 ; Bodies, The Nature of, and other Cytoplasmic Structures appearing in Fixed Material, C. E. Walker and Margaret Allen, 512
- Gosforth District, N.S.W., Geology of the. Part 1, General Geology, W. R. Browne, 222
- Graft of a Regenerated Member and Induced Differentiation, E. Guýénot and O. Schotté, 622
- Grain Beetle, Saw-toothed, The Biology of the, E. A. Back and R. T. Cotton, 368
- "Grammar of Science," Unauthorised Publication of, Prof. Karl Pearson, 926
- Grampian Mountains of Victoria, Australia, The Flora of the, E. Ashby, 104
- Granite-schist Junction in the Leinster Chain, The Topographical Features of the, A. Farrington, 145
- Graphite : Formation in White Cast Irons, The Influence of Carbon and Silicon on, P. Chevenard and A. Portevin, 182 ; Suspension for Intravital Injection of Capillaries, A. C. K. Drinker and E. D. Churchill, 878
- Grass, Hybrid Vigour in, T. J. Jenkin, 683
- Gravitation, Comets and the Law of, Dr. A. C. D. Crommelin, 464
- Great Barrier Reef, Impending Marine Biological Research upon the, 468
- Great Britain, Mycology in, 256
- Greek People, The Formation of the, Prof. A. Jardé. Translated by M. R. Dobie, Mar. 19, Suppt., 9
- Green Manuring, 830
- Greenhouse White Fly, A Parasite of the, E. R. Speyer, 868
- Greenland, Phytogeography of, C. H. Ostenfeld, 761
- Greenwich, Royal Observatory, Annual Visitation, 873
- Grevillea (Proteaceæ), A Case of Natural Hybridism in the Genus, C. T. Musson and the late J. J. Fletcher, 948
- Grewia polygama*, The Leaves of, Alice M. Coverlid, 838
- Growth : Inhibitor, A Universal, in Living Tissue, P. O'Connor, 946 ; Light and, 543 ; The Physiology of, 269
- Guest, The Divinity of the, A. M. Hocart, 540
- Gulf of Carpentaria, The Salinity of the Water of the, G. J. Burrows, 222
- Gum Arabic : with Special Reference to its Production in the Sudan, H. S. Blunt, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11
- Gunfire, Audibility of, F. J. W. Whipple, 782
- Guthrie Lecture, The, Sir Ernest Rutherford, 363
- Guy's Hospital Medical School, E. Matthews appointed demonstrator in the Chemistry Department of, 69
- Gypsum, Dehydration of, The Thermal Analysis of the, R. Stumper, 837
- Gypsy : Linguistics, Prof. R. L. Turner, 830 ; Marriage Customs in Eastern Rumelia, 174
- Haas (Prof. A.), *Die Welt der Atome : Zehn gemeinverständliche Vorträge*, 419
- 'Hackleless' Fowl, Pterylosis in the, A. W. Greenwood, 261
- Hadrian, The Wall of, Sir George Macdonald, 434
- Hæmocyanin, Oxidation of, Colorimetric Determination of the, Prof. L. Hogben, 122
- Hæmolytic, Percentage, The Measurement of (ii.), E. Ponder, 220

- Hafnium, Persistent Lines of, M. Petersen, 352
 Hair Hygrometers, The Behaviour of, A. N. Puri, 145
 Hairsprings, The Manufacture and Properties of, H. Moore and S. Beckinsale, 584
 Hales, Rev. Stephen, 250th anniversary of the birth of, 936
 Halides of Bivalent Metals, Additive Compounds of, with Organic Bases (iii.), G. Scagliarini and G. Tartarini, 107
 Halley Lecture, The, F. J. M. Stratton, 898
 Halobates, The Eggs and Young of, Dr. H. C. Delsman, 651
 Halophytes, Chemistry of, J. Zellner, 36
 Hardness : of Metals in relation to Periodicity, S. A. Korff, 818 ; Tests of, Stresses involved in, and a Table of the Comparative Hardness of Certain Metallic Elements, A. Mallock, 276
 Hartmann Formula for the Dispersion of Glass, The, H. W. Lee, 657
 Haute-Provence, The Astronomical Quality of the Sky of, A. Couder, A. Danjon, and A. Dufay, 221
 Hawaiian Islands, The Insect Fauna of the lesser known, E. H. Bryan and others, 579
 Hawkesbury River between Windsor and Wiseman's Ferry, The Physiography and Geography of the, Miss Lesley D. Hall, 262
 Haystacks, Spontaneous Combustion of, G. Laupper, 541
 Haze, Dr. J. S. Owens, 561
 Health : Wealth and Population in the Early Days of the Industrial Revolution, M. C. Buer, 379 ; Week, The Celebration of, 902
 Heat : Convection of : in Fluid Flow through Pipes, H. M. Martin, 672 ; in Fluid Flow through Tubes, H. F. P. Purday, 527 ; Theorem : The New, its Foundations in Theory and Experiment, Prof. W. Nernst, translated by Dr. G. Barr, 43 ; through a Brick Wall, Transmission of, L. R. Ingersoll and J. Bardeen, 892
 Heath-association on Hindhead Common, Prof. F. E. Fritch, 620
 Helion ? Helium or, Dr. J. Newton Friend, 199
 Helium : Arc Spectrum, The Fine Spectrum of the, W. V. Houston, 838 ; Electron Scattering in, Dr. E. G. Dymond, 581 ; or Helion ? Dr. J. Newton Friend, 199 ; The Transmutation of Hydrogen into, Prof. F. Paneth, 706
Hemimysis Lamornæ, On the Feeding Mechanism of, Prof. H. G. Cannon and Miss S. M. Manton, 105
 Hemiptera, Classification of, Dr. W. E. Britton, 540
 Herbarium Method, An Improved, for Geneticists, Ecologists, and Taxonomists, E. M. Marsden-Jones and W. B. Turrill, 620
 Herculeaneum, Impending Excavations of, 248
 Heredity, Prof. A. F. Shull, 156
 Herschel's Condition, On, and the Optical Cosine Law, G. C. Steward, 478
 Heterogeneous Fluid Mass in Rotation, The Stratification of a, R. Wavre, 622
 Hewlett Collection of Stone Implements, The, A. Keiller, 611
 Hicksonia, The Genus, Isobel Deans, 546
 High : Vacua, Dr. G. W. C. Kaye, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15 ; Voltage Overhead Transmission, 474
 Higher Degrees, Report on, 143
 Himalayan Silver Fir and Aeroplane Construction, The, 728
 History, The New Outlook in, F. S. Marvin, 591
 Hittite Studies, The Progress of, Prof. J. Garstang, 819, 860
 Holism and Evolution, Gen. the Rt. Hon. J. C. Smuts, 307
 Home Fires without Smoke : a Handbook on the Prevention of Domestic Smoke, edited by C. Elliott and Marion Fitzgerald, Dr. J. S. Owens, 812
 Hommes fossiles, L'Art et la religion des, G.-H. Luquet, 8
 Homogeneous Reactions involving Complex Molecules, C. N. Hinshelwood and G. J. Askey, 801
Hordeum vulgare, Protoplasm of Root-hairs in, Influence of Hydrogen Ion Concentration on the, S. Strugger, 222
 Horns, The Growth of, Dr. J. U. Duerst, 472
 Horticulture, The Principles and Practice of, A. S. Galt, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11
 Huastec, The Indians of, Dr. W. Staub, 367
 Human : Adventure, The, (1) The Conquest of Civilisation, Prof. J. H. Breasted. (2) The Ordeal of Civilisation : a Sketch of the Development and World-wide Diffusion of our Present-day Institutions and Ideas, Prof. J. H. Robinson, 591 ; Biliary Calculi containing a High Proportion of Copper, J. Meunier and Mlle. G. Saint-Laurens, 183 ; Life, Science and, 449 ; Race, The Pedigree of the, Prof. H. H. Wilder, Mar. 19, Suppt., 9 ; Races, Old and New, Sir Arthur Keith, 247
 Humic Matter, The Origin of, C. E. Marshall and H. J. Page, 393
 Hutton, James, Father of Modern Geology, 1726-1797, E. R. Bailey, 582
 Huxley Memorial Lecture, Dr. P. Chalmers Mitchell, 721, 748
 Huyghens' Principle and the Phenomena of Total Reflection, Prof. C. V. Raman, 657
 Hyacinthus, Bivalents of, The Nodes at the Reduction Division in, Dr. J. Belling, 527
 Hydrocarbons, The General Preparation of, by the Reduction of Organic Substances, J. Campardou, 690
 Hydrofluoric Hydrolysis of the Proteids, The, E. Cherbuliez and R. Wahl, 262
 Hydrogen : and Nitrogen, Compressibility of, E. P. Bartlett, 797 ; Atom, Oriented, The Effective Cross-section of the, R. G. J. Fraser, 260 ; Atoms, The Stopping Power of, for α -particles according to the New Mechanics, J. A. Gaunt, 657 ; Balmer Lines of, Fine Structure of the, P. A. Constantinescu ; Lord Rayleigh, 163 ; Band Spectrum : The, New Band Systems in the Violet, Prof. O. W. Richardson, 801 ; Chloride Vapour, Ionisation in, H. A. Barton, 197 ; Connexion between the Visible and Ultra-violet Bands of, Prof. O. W. Richardson, 801 ; Fluoride, Ionisation Potential of, Prof. S. C. Biswas, 707 ; into Helium, The Transmutation of, Prof. F. Paneth, 706 ; Iodide, Photochemical Decomposition of, B. Lewis, 493 ; Ion Concentration : Influence of the, on the Respiratory Exchanges of the Tissues, M. Comel, 767 ; its Significance in the Biological Sciences and Methods for its Determinations, Prof. L. Michaelis. Vol. 1 : Principles of the Theory, translated by Dr. W. A. Perlzweig, 346 ; of the Blood in Health and Disease, Prof. J. H. Austin and Prof. G. E. Cullen, 742 ; Peroxide, Preparation of, M. L. Kilpatrick, 334 ; Secondary Spectrum of, Bands in the, Prof. H. S. Allen and I. Sandeman, 412 ; The Infra-Red Spectrum of, Dr. A. H. Poetker, 123 ; The Magnetic Moment of, T. E. Phipps and J. B. Taylor, 474 ; The Specific Heat of, Dr. F. Hund, 762 ; The Use of the Discharge in, as a Source of a Continuous Spectrum in the Ultra-violet, M. Lambrey and D. Chalonge, 879
 Hydrographic Surveying, Comdr. J. H. Hawley, 831
 Hydroxides, Modified, The Magnetic Behaviour of the, in the Presence of Hydrogen Peroxide, Mlle. Suzanne Veil, 947
Hygiene, Bulletin of, The, 578
 Hyperorthogonants, Note on, Sir Thomas Muir, 838
 Hythe Skulls, The, Prof. F. G. Parsons, 893
 Icebergs : Destruction of, Prof. H. T. Barnes, 761 ; in Relation to Water-Temperature, W. Bell Dawson, 236
 Iceland, The Palagonite Formation of, Dr. G. W. Tyrrell and Dr. M. A. Peacock, 507
 Ilnium : Prof. W. A. Noyes, 319 ; Florentium or, Prof. L. Rolla and L. Fernandes, 637
 Illipé Butter in Chocolate, The Determination of, H. W. Bywaters, F. T. Maggs, and C. J. Pool, 546
 Illuminating Engineering Society, D. R. Wilson nominated president of the, 612
 Illumination Research Committee of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, Technical Papers 1, 2, 3, 63
 Immersion Refractometer, The, and its Value in the Analysis of Milk, G. D. Elsdon and J. R. Stubbs, 413
 Imperial : College and Tropical Agriculture, Report of the, Dr. H. Martin Leake, 688 ; Forestry Institute : Second annual report of the, 96 ; The, Prof. R. S. Troup ; The Writer of the Note, 197 ; Institute : Annual Report of the, for 1926, 824 ; Conducted Tours for School Teachers in the Exhibition Galleries of the, 103 ; Panoramas at the, 23

- India : The Survey of, 541 ; War Record, 1914-1920, 7
 Indian : Lac Research Institute, The, 299 ; Lepidoptera with Abnormal Habits, Some, T. V. Ramakrishna Aiyer, 146 ; Science Congress, election of Dr. J. L. Simonsen as president of the, 252 ; Zoological Memoirs on Indian Animal Types. I. : Pheretima (The Common Indian Earth-worm), Prof. Karm Narayan Bahl, 557
 Indium in Tin, The Occurrence of, J. R. Green, 893
 Industrial : Accidents, The Practical Application of the Statistics of Repeated Events with special reference to the Personal Factor in, Miss E. M. Newbold, 730 ; and Commercial Efficiency : Factors in, being Part I. of a Survey of Industries, 517 ; Fatigue Research Board, Report of the, 172 ; Research : Co-operative, 646 ; The State and, 589 ; Revolution, The : 379 ; E. W. Hulme, 671, 892 ; Mabel C. Buer, 671 ; H. W. Dickinson, 818
 Infusoria, Appearances of Struggle and of Parasitism with Simulations of, L. Herrera, 106
 Insecticides, Contact, The Toxicity of, F. Tattersfield and C. T. Gimingham, 546
 Insects : Metamorphosis of, O. W. Tiegs, 35 ; Phytophagous or Biological Races in, E. Meyrick, 782 ; W. H. Thorpe, 602 ; Prothetely in, Dr. Hem Singh Pruthi, 391
 Insektenlarven, Die Ökologie der blattminierenden, Dr. M. Hering, 232
 Institute of Chemistry, annual general meeting of the, election of Prof. A. Smithells as president for 1927-28, 402
 Institution of Electrical Engineers, Speech by the Prince of Wales at the annual dinner of the, 287
 Insulin, L. Schmid and G. Bilowitzki, 374
 Intellectual Activities in France, 345
 Interior Forces in a Completely Dissociated Electrolyte, H. Hartley, 322
 Internal Combustion Motors, The Use in, of Slightly Inflammable Combustibles, P. Dumanois, 182
 International : Botanical Congress : Arrangements for the Fifth, 208 ; of 1930 to be held in Cambridge, 436 ; Congress of Orientalists, to be held in 1928, at Oxford, 723 ; Critical Tables of Numerical Data, Physics, Chemistry and Technology, Editor-in-Chief : Dr. E. W. Washburn. In 5 Vols. Vol. 1, 735 ; Federation of Intellectual Unions, Report of the third assembly of the, 209 ; Illumination Commission, The, 900
 Interpolation, Prof. J. F. Steffensen, 921
 Invention in Culture, Diffusion or, Dr. B. Malinowski, 65
 Iodine : and Bromine, Thermal Dissociation of, Devries and Rodebush, 797 ; Vapour, The Fluorescence of, G. Ramsauer, 334
 Iodo-Bismuthites, The Preparation of certain, Miss E. M. Bartholomew and G. J. Burrows, 222
 Ionic Theory, The, Brig.-Gen. H. Hartley, 102
 Ionisation : Formula, Some Applications of the, Cecilia H. Payne, 339 ; Simultaneous, and Excitation by Foreign Ions in a Gaseous Mixture, Prof. O. S. Duffendack and H. L. Smith, 743
 Ions : and Atoms or Molecules, Collisions of the Second Kind between, Dr. H. D. Smyth, G. P. Harnwell, T. R. Hogness and E. G. Lunn, 85 ; d'hydrogène : Les, signification, mesure, applications, données numériques, W. Kopaczewski, 346 ; The Absorption of, by Glass, H. Devaux and E. Aubel, 587
 Ipsilateral Spinal Reflexes, Interaction between, acting on the Flexor Muscles of the Hind-limb, Sybil Cooper, D. E. Denny-Brown, and Sir Charles S. Sherrington, 512
 Irish : Moss Mucilage and a Method for its Determination, Dr. P. Haas and Barbara Russell-Wells, 413 ; Spiranthes, The, called *S. Romanzoffiana* Cham., A. J. Wilmott, 546
 Iron : Archaeology of, 42 ; Crystals, L. W. McKeehan, 705 ; in Antiquity, Dr. J. Newton Friend, 42 ; -manganese Alloys low in Carbon, Thermal Changes in, Sir Robert Hadfield, 801 ; Nickel, and Cobalt, Non-Magnetic Films of : J. D. Hanawalt and Prof. L. R. Ingersoll, 234 ; Dr. L. C. Jackson, 426 ; Nitrosulphides, Constitution and Absorption Spectra of the, L. Cambi and L. Szegő, 374 ; Oxide Coatings, Structure of, R. M. Bozorth, 832 ; Single Crystals of, The Transverse Magneto-resistance Effect in, W. L. Webster, 545 ; Sulphide in Contact with Water, The Evolution of, Mlle. S. Veil, 182
 Irrawaddy Delta Air Survey, Major C. G. Lewis, 473
 Isohydric Solutions and the Velocity of Chemical Change, H. M. Dawson and C. R. Hoskins, 35
 Isostasy in Spain, W. Bowie, 27
 Jaintia Hills, Some Megalithic Work in the, J. H. Hutton, 374
 Japan : Science in, Prof. C. C. Farr, 407 ; Tertiary Shells from, Prof. M. Yokoyama, 26
 Japanese : Earthquake of : March 7, 1927, The, Dr. C. Davison, 443 ; Sept. 1, 1923, The : Prof. A. Imamura, 139 ; Land Movements during the, Major-Genl. H. Omura, 254 ; Minerals, Helium Content of, J. Sasaki, 541 ; Volcanoes, The Echelon Structure of, S. Fujiwhara, 473
 Java, Freshwater Eels in, Dr. H. C. Delsman, 579
 Jenissei : Bronzezeit am, ein Beitrag zur Urgeschichte Sibiriens, Gero v. Merhart, 775
 Jerusalem, The Hebrew University of, 656
 Juniper in Norway, F. R. S. Balfour, 214
 Jupiter : Changes observed on the Planet, E. M. Antoniadi, 146 ; Danish Observations of the Planet, 29 ; La surface de la planète, 1919-1924, C. L. Janssen, 29
 Kala-azar, Sand-flies and, Major H. E. Short, 893
 Kammerer's Water-bred Alytes, The Nuptial Pad of : W. C. Kiplinger ; Prof. H. Przibram, 635 ; Prof. E. W. MacBride, 707
 Kant to Einstein, From, H. de Montmorency, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14
 Karachi, Fauna of, S. S. Bindra, 905
 Katanga, A Mineral from, H. Buttenbach, 910
 Kateruk Series, The, and Associated Rocks of the Northern Suk Hills, Kenya Colony, V. G. Glenday and J. Parkinson, 689
 Kent's Cavern, Torquay, Human Skull from, Sir Arthur Keith, 614
 α -Ketonic Acids, A New Method of Preparing, Barré, 690
 Kew, Royal Botanic Gardens, H. C. Sampson appointed economic botanist at the, 577
 Khallam, The, Miss Erna Gunther, 683
 Kilauea, A New Observatory opened at, 865
 King's Birthday Honours, The, 863
 King's Classical Theory of Radiation, B. Podolsky, 838
 Kirondrine, The Bitter and Toxic Principle of Kirondro Seeds, Volmar and Samdahl, 478
 α -Kirondrine, The Constitution of, Volmar and Samdahl, 547
 'Knock' Suppression, The Mechanism of, Prof. H. S. Taylor, 746
 Kolbe's Electrosynthesis, Mechanism of, D. A. Fairweather and O. J. Walker, 215
 Kordylewski's Variable Star, 613
 Krakatau, The Recolonisation of, by Animal Life, Dr. A. D. Imms, 370
 Kriegsschauplätze 1914-1918 geologisch dargestellt, Die, Herausgegeben von Prof. J. Wilser. Heft 14, Mar. 5, Suppt., 8
 Kultur : Frühschein der, Bilder aus Vorgeschichte und Urzeit, Prof. J. Ledroit, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
 Lac Research Institute, The Indian, 299
 Lactose, Synthesis of, A. Pictet, 262
 Lamb's Valley and the Paterson River, Geology of the Country between, Prof. G. D. Osborne, 947
 Lamsiekte in Cattle in South Africa, Sir Arnold Theiler and others, 904
 Land : Planarians, Some, from Barrington Tops, N.S.W., with Descriptions of New Species, Lucy M. Wood, 107 ; Politics and Economics, Christopher Turnor, 845
 Langerhans, Islets of, Secretion and the Golgi Apparatus of, Dr. R. J. Ludford and Dr. W. Cramer, 144

- Laplace : Centenary of the death of, 362 ; The Brain of, Prof. Karl Pearson, 560 ; The Tomb of, Eng.-Capt. E. C. Smith, 493
- Large Ions, Measurements of the, at Paris, J. MacLaughlin, 947
- Latent (or Developable) Image, Intensification of the, Wightman and Quirk, 619
- Lathraea, The Pollen Development of Two Species of, Prof. R. R. Gates and J. Latter, 909
- Laying Hen with Cock's Plumage, The (iii.), Dr. F. A. E. Crew, 877
- Lead : Accumulators, Products formed during the Action of (ii.), L. Mazza, 623 ; Determination of Certain Elements in, New Processes for the, B. S. Evans, 837 ; Mining and Smelting in West Yorkshire, Dr. A. Raistrick, 537 ; -tin Eutectic, Crystallisation of the, F. Hargreaves, 585
- Leaf Structures and Wound Response, Prof. R. B. Wylie, 405
- League of Nations, The : as a Subject of Instruction in the Schools of Great Britain, 908 ; The International Labour Organisation of, 908
- Lebistes, Genetics of, Dr. Winge, 831
- Lecithines, A New Histochemical Reaction for the, M. Romieu, 947
- Leeds University, gift for the mining department of, 511
- Leguminosae, 'Hard Seeds' in, C. J. Berkeley, 198
- Leishmania : *tropica*, *L. infantum*, and *L. braziliense* in the Sandfly, *Phlebotomus papatasi*, The Behaviour of Cultures of, Dr. S. Adler and O. Theodor, 48, 565
- Lepidoptera : Hereditary Choice of Food-plants in the, and its Evolutionary Significance : E. Meyrick, 388 ; Dr. J. W. Heslop Harrison, 562 ; The Induction of Melanism in the, and its Evolutionary Significance, Dr. J. W. Heslop Harrison, 127
- Leprosy, A New Drug Treatment of, Dr. E. Muir, 362
- Lewes, George Henry, Sir E. Sharpey-Schafer, 281
- Lichen Dyes, Miss F. Haworth, 620
- Lichens : A New Family of, Miss A. Lorrain Smith, 33 ; *Isidia* and *Soralia* of, O. V. Darbishire, 33
- Life, The Unity of, Prof. C. J. Patten, 919
- Light : and Electricity, Prof. E. N. da C. Andrade, 101 ; and Growth, 543 ; diffused by Benzene in the Liquid State, The Absolute Measurement of the Intensity of the, J. Cabannes and P. Daure, 546 ; Filters, Measurements of Absorption Coefficients of, Dr. G. M. B. Dobson and I. O. Griffith, 585 ; Magnetic Dispersion of, The Constants of the, Prof. C. G. Darwin and W. H. Watson, 412 ; Quanta, The Length of, Dr. G. Breit, 280 ; The Nature of, Prof. E. B. Wilson, 615 ; Treatment in Surgery, Dr. O. Bernhard, 701 ; Velocity of, New Determinations of the, Dr. A. A. Michelson, 794
- Lightning, Progressive : Dr. C. D. Perrine, 278, 816 ; Prof. C. V. Boys, 279, 816
- Ligniera : *Junci*, Influence of Environment on, W. R. I. Cook, 657 ; The Genus, W. R. I. Cook, 33
- Lignin and Lignification, C. F. Cross, 5
- Lignins, Die Chemie des, Dr. W. Fuchs, 5
- Lilium longiflorum*, An Important Virus Disease of, and its Varieties, L. Ogilvie, 528
- Lime : in Agriculture, 1 : in Plant Nutrition, 2 : in Animal Nutrition ; a Handbook for Practical Farmers, Students, and others, F. E. Corrie, 313 ; on the Farm, 683
- Limestone containing Lepidocyclina and other Foraminifera, from the Cape Range, Exmouth Gulf, Western Australia, On a, F. Chapman, 514
- Limit, The Deferred Approach to the, Dr. L. F. Richardson, 181
- Limnæa : *peregra*, The Origin of an Albino Mutation in, Prof. A. E. Boycott and C. Diver, 9 ; Life-history and Distribution of, Dr. C. L. Walton and W. N. Jones, 332
- Limnology, International Congress of Theoretical and Applied, Forthcoming, at Rome, 577
- Limnoria, The Absence of Cellulase in, Dr. C. M. Yonge, 855
- Linnaeus, Carl, the 220th anniversary of the birth of, 756
- Linnaean Society : award of the Linnaean gold medal to Dr. O. Stapf and the Crisp medal to Prof. H. G. Cannon, 649 ; election of officers ; presentation of medals to Dr. O. Stapf and Prof. H. G. Cannon, 866 ; of N.S.W., Prof. L. Harrison elected president, 827
- Liquid Fuels, The Utilisation of, containing a High Proportion of Organic Sulphur Compounds as a Source of an Antidetoning Combustible, Y. Alchidjian, 71
- Lister : and Physiology, Sir C. S. Sherrington, 606 ; Centenary Celebrations in London, The, 570
- Lister's : Contribution to Preventive Medicine, Dr. C. J. Martin, 529 ; Scientific Work, Some Aspects of, Prof. W. Bulloch, 531
- Liver Oils, Colour Reactions associated with, W. R. Fearon, 145
- Livingstone College, Annual Report of the, 63
- Logic and Law in Biology, Dr. P. Chalmers Mitchell, 721
- London : A University Centre in, 764 ; City of, Area, Chronological Interpretation of Archaeological Evidence in the, G. Hume, 249 ; School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, Second Annual Report of the, 62 ; The Stones of, J. Allen Howe, 537 ; University : The Laboratory of Civil and Mechanical Engineering at University to be named the Cowdray Laboratory, 219 ; the title of reader in geology conferred on G. McDonald Davies ; conferment of doctorates, 219 ; conferment of the title of professor of psychology on Dr. Beatrice Edgell, 258 ; the title of reader in geometry conferred on J. L. S. Hatton, 411 ; W. E. Le Gros Clark appointed professor of anatomy at St. Bartholomew's Hospital Medical College ; Dr. H. Hartridge appointed professor of physiology at St. Bartholomew's Hospital Medical College, 511 ; conferment of doctorates, 511 ; gift from A. Wander, Ltd. ; D. MacC. Blair appointed professor of anatomy at King's College ; Dr. G. S. Wilson appointed reader in bacteriology and immunology at the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine ; conferment of doctorates ; award of the Dunn exhibitions in anatomy and physiology to K. M. Robertson, 799 ; Report for 1926-27, 876 ; *Weekly, The*, 97
- Long-chain : Compounds, An X-ray Investigation of certain, Dr. A. Müller, 301 ; Organic Compounds, The Various Crystalline Forms of, and the Difficulties of Interpretation of their X-ray Spectra, J. Thibaud, 262
- Loutreuil Foundation of the Paris Academy of Sciences, 178
- Low Temperature Carbonisation : 333 ; Retort, 27
- Lower Old Red Sandstone Plants showing Structure, from Brecon, On, A. Heard, 34
- Luciola gorhami*, Origin of Yolk in the Egg of, Prof. V. Nath and Dev Raj Mehta, 13
- Lumbricus, The Oogenesis of, L. A. Harvey, 14
- Luminescence : due to Radioactivity, D. H. Kabakjian, 659 ; in Radioactive Luminous Compound, The Theory of, J. W. T. Walsh, 878
- Lunar Eclipses of 1927, The, 655
- Lythrum salicaria*, Inheritance of Trimorphism in, E. M. East, 839
- Macauley (J. M.), 'Seizure' with Sliding Surfaces, 425
- Madira, The Garden Interests of, Dr. M. C. Grabham, 633
- Madi Rainstones, F. H. Rogers, 868
- Madras Government Museum, Report of the, 172
- Magmatic Differentiation, C. N. Fenner, 295
- Magne-crystalline Action, Tyndall's Experiments on, Sir William Bragg, May 7, Suppt., 61
- Magnesium : -Copper Alloys, Dr. M. Hansen, 653 ; -rich Magnesium-copper Alloys, The, Dr. M. Hansen, 585
- Magnet Galvanometers, Moving, Dr. C. V. Drysdale, 941
- Magnetic : Dip in Geological Time, Reversal of, P. L. Mercanton, 580 ; Disturbances observed at Parc Saint-Maur and at Val-Joyeux, The Periodicity of the, C. E. Brazier, 547 ; Double Refraction, Prof. C. V. Raman and J. Rama Krishna Rao, 528 ; Induction in Continuous Media, C. R. Burch and N. R. Davis, 353 ; Moment of the Electron ? Is it possible to detect directly the, L. Brillouin, 302 ; Observations made by the Ordnance Survey in the Channel Islands in 1925, etc., Results of the, 611 ; Observatory at

- Matochkin Shar (Novaya Zembyla), The, 97; Research, Dr. E. C. Stoner, 762; Storms, The Law of Distribution of, and of their Elements, Dr. H. Deslandres, 221
- Magnetism : and Atomic Structure, Dr. E. C. Stoner, 809; The Future of, Dr. P. Kapitza, 809
- Maiiao (Society Islands), The Geology of, L. J. Chubb and W. Campbell Smith, 585
- Maize, Dormant, Genetics of, 652
- Malayo-Polynesians in America, Dr. P. Rivet, 332
- Man : and Weather, Prof. A. McArdie, 274; not a Machine : a Study of the Finalistic Aspects of Life, Prof. E. Rignano, 738
- Man's Place of Origin, Dr. W. K. Gregory, 939
- Manchester : Literary and Philosophical Society, election of officers, 794; University : resignation of Prof. W. W. C. Topley; W. O. Howarth appointed to supervise research in mycology; H. G. Chippindale appointed research assistant in mycology, 372; Prof. H. S. Raper appointed dean of the Medical School; award of the Hill prize in bio-chemistry to E. Boyland, 476; Dr. A. M. Smith appointed lecturer in agricultural chemistry, etc., 544; anonymous gift for post-graduate scholarships, 764
- Mandshurian Tiger, The, 138
- Manganese : Dioxide in the Solid State, Reactivity of, F. De Carli, 414; Pyrophosphate, The Magnetic Properties of, at Various Temperatures, G. Foëx and Mlle. A. Brunet, 513
- α -Manganese, The Crystal Structure of, A. J. Bradley and J. Thewlis, 877
- Manoilov Reaction for the Identification of Sex and its Application to the Case of the Sexually Abnormal Fowl, The, Miss J. S. S. Blyth, 261
- Manson, Sir Patrick, A memorial plaque to, 400, 468
- Maori : Canoe, The, E. Best, 297; Games, E. Best, 795; Navigation, S. H. Ray, 297; Symbolism : being an Account of the Origin, Migration, and Culture of the New Zealand Maori, as recorded in Certain Sacred Legends, Report made by Ettie A. Rout, 386
- Map Projections, An Introduction to the Study of, J. A. Steers; J. E. Coleclough, 888
- Marine Biology : at the Isle of Man, 213; in the Pacific, 404; *Observer*, The, Jan., 172; Observers' Handbook, fourth edition, 648; Shells of the W. Coast of N. America, 26; Steam Turbine Progress, Hon. Sir Charles Parsons, R. J. Walker, and S. Cook, 176; Works : a Practical Treatise for Maritime Engineers, Landowners and Public Authorities, E. Latham. Second edition, 741
- Mars : Axis of, The Position of the, 829; Photographs of, in 1926, F. E. Ross, 252; Photographs of, R. J. Trumpler, 938; Satellites of, A. Hall, E. C. Bower, and Miss E. A. Lamson, 137; The Planet, Jarry-Desloges, 106
- Mass-spectrograph, A New, and the Whole Number Rule, Dr. F. W. Aston, 945
- Maternal and Paternal Heredity in the Capacity for Larval Development of the Reciprocal Crosses between Two Races of Silkworms, C. Jucci, 623
- Mathematical Models, List of, G. Cussons, Ltd., 905
- Matières colorantes organiques, La Chimie des, Dr. P. Castan, Mar. 5, Suppt., 7
- Matrix and Wave Mechanics, R. H. Fowler, 239
- Matter : and Gravity in Newton's Physical Philosophy : a Study in the Natural Philosophy of Newton's Time, A. J. Snow, 454; and Radiation, The Equilibrium between, P. Langevin, 622; and Electricity, A Theory of, G. D. Birkhoff, 839; The Creation of, Dr. A. Haas, 296
- Mawken Canoe in Algoa Bay, A, F. W. FitzSimons, 746
- Maxwell, Clerk, and the Cavendish Laboratory, Sir Oliver Lodge, 46
- Maxwell's Equations and Atomic Dynamics, A. Bramley, 338
- Maya : Exploration Fund, Appeal for a, 135; Ruins in Yucatan, Report on, Dr. T. W. Gann, 723
- Meccanica razionale, Lezioni di, Profs. T. Levi-Civita e U. Amaldi. Volume secondo. Parte prima, 485
- Mechanism and Vitalism, 738
- Median Pré-Alps, The Lias of the, E. Peterhans, 940
- Medical : and Veterinary Entomology in Australia, E. W. Ferguson, 947; Education : and Registration, Dr. H. H. Dale appointed a member of the general council of, 681; Methods and Problems of : 63; Fifth series, 251; Examination before Marriage, Should a, be Obligatory? Dr. G. Schreiber, 436; Report of the Hamilton Rice Seventh Expedition to the Amazon, in Conjunction with the Dept. of Tropical Medicine of Harvard University, 1924-1925, 885; Research Council, Activities of the, 497
- Melanism in the Lepidoptera, The Induction of, and its Evolutionary Significance, Dr. J. W. Heslop Harrison, 127, 318
- Melilite-spurrite- Ca_2SiO_4 Assemblage from Larne (Antrim), C. E. Tilley, 586
- Mellon Institute of Industrial Research, Work of the, 577
- Memory Factor in Biology : The, a Sketch of the Unity of Life, Prof. C. J. Patten, 741
- Memphis, The Floods at, S. R. K. Glanville, 813
- Mental Abilities, Correlation Coefficients and the Theory of, J. R. Thompson, 705
- Menthol, De-hydrogenation of, New Process of, G. Cusmano, 107
- Menthones and Derived Substances, Prof. J. Read and Dr. G. J. Robertson, 100
- Mercury : Absorption Spectrum of, Bands in the, Lord Rayleigh, 778; -arc Power Rectifier, The, 176; Atoms, Excited, Photosensitized Decompositions by, Prof. H. S. Taylor and J. R. Bates, 339; Band Spectrum of Long Duration, Studies of the, Lord Rayleigh, 801; derived from Coal Tar, The Constitution of, Dr. F. W. Aston, 489; Free, in Commercial Products, The Determination of, H. B. Dunnicliff and Kishen Lal, 690; from the Excited Vapour, The Band Spectrum of, Lord Rayleigh, 387, 423; in the Extreme Ultra-Violet, The Spark Spectrum of, G. Déjardin, 221; into Gold, The Attempted Change of, Sheldon and Estey, 215; Krypton and Xenon, New Study of some Radiations of, from the Point of View of their Meteorological Applications, A. Pérard, 622; The Photo-electric Properties of, H. K. Dunn, 941; Vapour Trap, An Improved, G. I. Finch, 856
- Mercury : as an evening star : 252; C. Schoch, 505; observed in Babylon, C. Schoch, 252
- Mesopodion bidens*, The Oil of, E. André and H. Canal, 106
- 'Meta' Thorium Oxide, Peptisation of, G. R. Levi and A. Reina, 691
- Metal Crystals, The Transverse Thermo-electric Effect in, P. W. Bridgman, 730
- Metallic : Catalyst, Absolute Surface Area of a, A New Method of Measuring the, Dr. F. H. Constable, 349; Colloids, A General Method of Preparation of, E. Fouard, 446; Combinations, The Thermal Expansion of, M. de Hemptinne, 910; Compounds, The Electrical Properties of Some, H. André, 658; Crystals, Twin, The Formation of : G. D. Preston, 600; L. W. McKeehan, 120; Prof. H. C. H. Carpenter and S. Tamura, 121; Salt, Optically Active Complex, A Novel Type of, F. G. Mann and Sir W. J. Pope, 351; Single Crystals, Etch Planes in, H. H. Potter and W. Sucksmith, 924; Sulphides, The Action of High Temperatures on some, Picon, 302
- Metallurgical Specimens, The Best Method of Illuminating, C. Beck, 766
- Metallurgy, Some Recent Services of, to Engineering, Prof. H. C. H. Carpenter, 927
- Metals : at Low Temperatures, Resistance of, 215; Colouring of, by Polishing, J. A. Wasik, 762; Fatigue of, in the Presence of Chemicals, G. D. Lehmann, 581; Institute of, The May Lecture of the, Sir Henry A. Miers, 758; Minerals and, of the British Empire, 625; Molten, The Attack of, on Certain Non-ferrous Metals and Alloys, H. J. Hartley, 584; Viscosity of, Dr. F. Hettwer, 140
- Meteor, The Detonating, of Oct. 2, 1926, F. J. Whipple, 578
- Meteoric Iron Block from Savik at Cape York, The, O. B. Boggild, 262
- Meteorites : The Composition of, G. P. Merrill, 508; The Origin of, R. Schwinner, 796

- Meteorological : Observations made at Sea, Some, N. K. Johnson, 145 ; Perturbations of Tides and Currents in an Unlimited Channel Rotating with the Earth, H. Horrocks, 337
- Meteorology : Ancient and Modern, W. H. Dines, 915 ; and Air Routes, 256 ; Elementary, A Short Course in, W. H. Pick. Second edition, 274 ; Manual of, Vol. I. : Meteorology in History, Sir Napier Shaw, with the assistance of Elaine Austin, 915
- Methane, Ignition of, by Spark Discharge, H. F. Coward and E. G. Meiter, 616
- Metropolitan Asylums Board, New Laboratories of the, opened by Mr. Neville Chamberlain, 724
- Mexico, Valley of, The Archaeology of the, Mrs. Zelia Nuttall, 472
- Mica, G. V. Hobson, 653
- Michelson-Morley Experiment : Another Repetition of the, R. J. Kennedy, 64 ; Realisation of the, in a Free Balloon, A. Piccard and E. Stahel, 414
- Micro : -crystals in Electrolytically Deposited Silver, H. Hirata and H. Komatsubara, 334 ; Fauna of the Seabottom, An Apparatus for Catching the, Dr. T. Mortensen, 138
- Micromagnetic Oscillations at Zouy, A. Pödder, 369
- Microphone, The, as a Detector of Small Vibrations, E. H. Booth, 303
- Microscope Object-glasses, Demonstration of Beck's, 24
- Microscopes and Accessories, Catalogue of, J. Swift and Son, Ltd., 63
- Microscopic and Ultra-microscopic Objects, Control Experiments for a New Interferometric Method for the Measurement of, G. de Mottoni, 222
- Microscopy : Practical, an Introduction to Microscopical Methods, Dr. F. S. Scales. Third edition, 557
- Middle American Archaeological Research, Dr. S. G. Morley, 579
- Milk, Clean, The Production and Distribution of, A. T. R. Mattick, 828
- Milky Way, Beyond the, Dr. G. E. Hale, 888
- Milton Chantry, Proposed Reconstruction of, 329
- Mind and Body, Types of, Dr. E. Miller, 702
- Mineral : Compounds, Chemical Formulæ of, L. W. Tibyrićá ; J. W. E., 815 ; Fields : The Location of, Modern Procedure in the Investigation of Mineral Areas and the Subsequent Verification of their Extent, etc., M. H. Haddock, Mar. 19, Suppt., 13 ; Resources of the British Empire, Proposed Review of the, Sir Thomas H. Holland, 640
- Mineralogy, Lehrbuch der, Prof. P. Niggli. 1. Allgemeine Mineralogie. Zweite Auflage. 2. Spezielle Mineralogie. Zweite Auflage, 595
- Mineralogists, recently deceased, Biographical Notices of, Dr. L. J. Spencer, 586
- Mineralogy, General and Special, 595
- Minerals and Metals of the British Empire, 625
- Mining : and Metallurgy, Institution of, Awards of the, 505 ; Law in the Empire, Observations upon, G. Stone, 646
- Minorca, Prehistoric Monuments in, F. Chamberlain, 61
- Mississippi Floods The, 680 ; Dr. D. E. White, 940
- Mitosis *in vitro*, The Effect of Radium on, R. G. Canti and M. Donaldson, 144
- Modifiability, A Fundamental Theorem in, E. L. Thorndike, 659
- Modified Scattered X-Radiation due to Super-position, Prof. C. G. Barkla, 778
- Møens Klint and Lönstrup, Denmark, The Structure of the Disturbed Deposits of, G. Slater, 181
- Mohammedan Child-killing Demons, W. Ivenow, 26
- Moisture, The Determination of, by the Volatile Solvent Method, J. M. Jones and T. McLachlan, 836
- Molecular : Beams, Intensities of, T. H. Johnson, 745 ; Complexity, Experiments on, Prof. H. B. Baker, 510
- Mollusca, New, from Mexico, Central and South America, 254
- Molybdenum : in Nickel-chrome Steels, 685 ; the Volumetric Estimation of, A New Method for, G. Denigès, 446
- Money, The Mystery of, Prof. F. Soddy, 46 ; W. H. Coates, 47
- Mongrel Virginians : The Win Tribe, A. H. Estabrook and I. E. McDougle, 812
- Monilia fructigena*, Zonation in Cultures of, Miss M. P. Hall, 657
- Mono-Alu Folklore (Bougainville Strait, Western Solomon Islands), Dr. G. C. Wheeler, 386
- Monoethyl Aspartate, Aqueous Solutions of, Natural Refractive and Rotatory Dispersion of, M. L. Pagliarulo, 911
- Monotreme, Milk of the, H. R. Marston, 295
- Moon's Shadow, The, in Relation to the Earth on June 29, Dr. E. H. Rayner, June 18, Suppt., 97
- Moravia, Rainfall of, Dr. Fr. Rikovsky, 214
- Mosquito Nuisance, Judicial Decision in Scotland on the, 934
- Mount Girnar, Igneous Rocks of, M. S. Krishnan, K. K. Mathur, V. S. Dubey, and N. L. Sharma, 254
- Mouse, Changes in the Ovary of the, following Exposure to X-rays : Dr. F. W. R. Brambell, Dr. A. S. Parkes, and Una Fielding, 144 ; Drs. F. W. R. Brambell and A. S. Parkes, 445 ; Ovarian Regeneration in the, after Complete Double Ovariectomy, Dr. A. S. Parkes, Una Fielding, and Dr. F. W. R. Brambell, 445
- Müller-Pouillet's Lehrbuch der Physik. Elfte Auflage. Herausgegeben von A. Eucken, O. Lummer, und E. Waetzmann. Band 2. Erste Hälfte. Band 3. Erste Hälfte, Mar. 5, Suppt., 6
- Muscle, The Viscous Elastic Properties of, Dr. A. Levin and J. Wyman, 445
- Mutarotation and the Alkalinity of the Medium, H. Colin and Mlle. A. Chaudin, 658
- Mycology in Great Britain, 256
- Mytilus, The Ciliated Cells of the Gill of, D. Bhatia, 405
- Naga Hills Celt, A, J. H. Hutton, 374
- Nakuru, Discovery of a Human Skeleton at, L. S. Leakey, 61
- Nanson Preferential Majority System of Election, The Technique of the, J. M. Baldwin, 35
- Naparima : District of Trinidad, Tertiary Foraminifera from the, W. L. F. Nuttall, 302 ; Region of Trinidad, The Geology of the, V. C. Illing, 302
- Naphthalene and of Anthracene, The Hydrogenation of, at a High Temperature and under High Pressure in the Presence of Non-hydrogenating Catalysts, A. Kling and D. Florentin, 690
- Nassau Mountains, The Pygmies of the, Dr. Stirling, 249
- National : Broadcasting Company of America, The Activities of the, A. Dinsdale, 901 ; Museum of Wales, gift to the, by Lord Buckland, 97 ; Physical Laboratory : Collected Research of the. Vol. 19, 937 ; visit of the Illuminating Engineering Society to the, 724 ; Progress, Trusts and, 149 ; Union of Scientific Workers : Appeal of the : 327 ; A. G. Tarrant, 436 ; J. B. Ward, 647 ; change of name to The Association of Scientific Workers, 792
- Natives Think, How (Les Fonctions mentales dans les sociétés inférieures), Prof. L. Lévy-Bruhl. Translated by Lilian S. Clare, 700
- Natural : -colour Photography under the Sea, Dr. W. H. Longley and C. Martin, 365 ; *History Magazine*, No. 1, 401 ; History : Museum, South Kensington, The Future of the, Sir E. Ray Lankester, 314 ; Museums, The Development of : 549 ; Dr. F. A. Bather ; The Writer of the Article, 639 ; Man : a Record from Borneo, Dr. C. Hose, 806 ; Selection, Larger Aspects of, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 564
- Nature, The Preservation of, Dr. J. Ritchie, 265
- Naturen*, completion of its fiftieth year, 291
- Navaho Grammar, A Manual of, arranged by Fr. B. Haile, 668
- Nebalia bipes*, The Feeding Mechanism of, Prof. H. G. Cannon, 803
- Nebulæ, Great, The Genesis of the, Dr. J. H. Jeans, 315
- Negroes in the U.S., Colour Selection among, J. Herskovits, 213
- Neon : Ionised, Regularity in the Spectrum of, P. K. Kichlu, 671 ; (Ne II), Ionised, The Spectrum of, T. L. de Bruin, 925 ; Lamp, Relighting of a, when momentarily extinguished at Voltages below the Striking Potential, R. R. Nimmo, 586 ; Spectrum, Hyperfine Structure in the, Dr. G. Hansen, 237

- Neptune, The Planet, M. E. J. Gheury de Bray, 293
Nerves and Muscles: How we feel and move, Prof. A. V. Hill, 284
New: Brunswick, Devonian Volcanic Rocks of, W. V. Howard, 99; Caledonian Art, G. H. Luquet, 760; Education Fellowship, forthcoming world conference arranged by the, 103; Guinea: An Exploring Expedition in, 827; Rest Periods in, Prof. C. G. Seligman, 506; The Expedition of the Smithsonian Institution and the Scientific Research Society of the Dutch East Indies to, 135; Year Honours, 59; Zealand Annual Report of Lands and Survey, 291; Kauri (*Agathis australis*), An Examination of Defective, M. B. Welch, 303
Newton: Celebration, forthcoming, in New York, 900; Commemoration, The, 467 and Suppt., Mar. 26; Dwelling-places, Portraits, and Medallic Illustrations of, T. E. James, 465; Isaac: Dr. J. H. Jeans, Mar. 26, Suppt., 28; fund for a scholarship in memory of, 575
Newton's: Death, The Bicentenary of, Bishop of Birmingham, Mar. 26, Suppt., 21; Moving Water Rings, White Spot with, Prof. J. Muir, 781; Work: in Astronomy, Sir Frank Dyson, Mar. 26, Suppt., 30; in Mechanics, Prof. H. Lamb, Mar. 26, Suppt., 33; in Optics, Sir Richard Glazebrook, Mar. 26, Suppt., 43; in Pure Mathematics, Prof. L. J. Mordell, Mar. 26, Suppt., 40; in Physics, Sir J. J. Thomson, Mar. 26, Suppt., 36; Place in Science, F. S. Marvin, Mar. 26, Suppt., 24
Newtonian Time essential to Astronomy, Sir Joseph Larmor, April 9, Suppt., 49
NH Compounds, The Spectra of, Dr. E. Hulthén and S. Nakamura, 235
Nicolite and Ullinannite at the Settlingstones Mines, Fourstones, Northumberland, etc., Occurrence of, A. Russell, 261
Nigeria: Agriculture in, 796; Mr. Ormsby-Gore, 469
Nilotic Tribe, The Life of a, Mrs. Brenda Z. Seligman, 113
Nimrud Volcano, Armenia, Alkaline Rocks from, Dr. G. T. Prior, 586
Nineteenth-Century Teacher, A, John Henry Bridges, M.B., F.R.C.P., sometime Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, and late Medical Inspector to the Local Government Board, Susan Liveing, 116
Nitric Oxide, The β Bands of, F. A. Jenkins, H. A. Barton, and Dr. A. S. Mulliken, 118
Nitrogen: Absorption Bands in, H. Spöner, 838; Active: Dr. R. C. Johnson, 9; Dr. E. J. B. Willey, 924; and Carbon Monoxide, A Comparison of the Behaviour in Thermal Diffusion of, and of Nitrous Oxide and Carbon Dioxide, T. L. Ibbs and L. Underwood, 585; Formula of Blood Serum, Modifications brought about in the, by Renal Impermeability, F. Widal and M. Laudat, 106; Ionised, The Spectrum of (N II), Prof. A. Fowler and L. J. Freeman, 801; Peroxide, Decomposition of, Dr. R. G. W. Norrish, 123; Peroxide, The Reaction of, with Sulphurous Anhydride, E. Briner, G. Lunge, and A. Mirimanoff, 262; The Density, Compressibility, and Atomic Weight of, G. P. Baxter and H. W. Starkweather, 339; to Steel, The Addition of, L. Guillet, 70
Nitroxyl, Reactions of, with Aromatic Nitro-derivatives and with Azoxy-compounds, D. Bigiavi, 222
Niue (Savage Island), E. M. Loeb, 579
"Nomenclator animalium, generum et subgenerum," 61
Non: -aqueous Solution, Organic Acids and Bases in, F. Hölzl, 222; -marine Lamellibranchs of the Coal Measures, A Revision of the, and a Discussion of their Zonal Sequence, J. H. Davies and A. E. Trueman, 105
North Siberian Shelf, The Tides on the, H. U. Sverdrup, 763
Northern: Alberta, Bituminous Sands of, S. C. Ells, 66; Tungus Migrations, Prof. S. M. Shirokogoroff, 253
Norvège, Préhistoire de la, Dr. H. Shetelig, Mar. 5, Suppt., 1
Norway, Weather Conditions in, for the Eclipse of June 29, K. Kordylewski and Z. Eckstein, 98
Norwegian Plankton Investigations, B. Rund, 472
Nuclear Degenerations due to Multipolar Mitosis, Dr. J. A. Murray, 413
Nutritive Salts, Influence of, on the Transpiration, Water Assimilation, Relative Shoot and Root Masses and Leaf Structure. Parts 1 and 2, T. Kisser, 767
Nyasan Rift-valley, The Tertiary and Post-tertiary Lacustrine Sediments of the, Dr. F. Dixey, 181
Observatories' Year-Book, The, 1923, 663
Observer's Handbook for 1927, The, 293
Occultism, Modern, 187
Ocean Currents, Admiral Niblack, 831
Oceanographical Expeditions, Two, 18
Oceanography of the Baltic and Fishery Research, Prof. O. Petterson, 99
Oceans and Continents, M. Brillouin, 730
Odours and Visual Imagery, Dr. J. H. Kenneth, 818
Oenothera, Crossing over in the Third Linkage Group of, G. H. Shull, 659
Oestrous Cycle, On the Occurrence of the, after X-ray Sterilisation. Part II., Dr. A. S. Parkes, 144
Oil: Contamination as a Climatic Factor, L. A. Ramdas, 652; -fields, The Electrical Working of, 211; in Burma, Dr. L. D. Stamp, 333; Oil-Shale and Coal, The Geology of, Dr. M. Stuart, Mar. 19, Suppt., 13; Pollution of Navigable Waters, The Government and, 756; Prospects of the Battle River Area, Alberta, G. S. Hume, 831; Surveys in Northern Alaska, P. S. Smith, J. B. Mertie, and W. T. Foran, 139
Oils of Marine Animals, Some, The Heats of Combustion of, H. Marcelet, 587
Oiseaux: Les, l'ornithologie et ses bases scientifiques, Dr. M. Boubier, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
Old Red Sandstone Flora of Scotland, The (vi.), Prof. W. H. Lang, 946
Oligochæte, A Polymorphic, Rev. Hilderic Friend, 281
Onnes Memorial Lecture, The, Prof. E. Cohen, 288
Opium in Stomach Contents, The Rapid Determination of, E. R. Dovey, 34
Optical: Convention, 1926: The, Catalogue of Optical and General Scientific Instruments, 383; *Proceedings* of the, 2 parts, 383; Fields, Some Uncultivated, T. Smith, 413; Glass, Optical Constants of, 100; Society: election of officers, 365; *Transactions* of the, No. 5, 1925-26, 211
Orchids: Cultivated, Seedling Structure of, J. Ramsbottom and E. H. Ellis, 260; of Sikkim, A Guide to the, Prof. P. Brühl, 851
Ore Dressing in Canada, 507
Organic: and Bio-chemistry, Practical, Prof. R. H. A. Plimmer. New edition, 811; Chemical Industry, The Romance of the, Dr. E. F. Armstrong, 289; Compounds, The Preparation and Analysis of, J. B. Coleman and Dr. F. Arnall, 851; Syntheses: an Annual Publication of Satisfactory Methods for the Preparation of Organic Chemicals. Vol. 5, 520, 668
Organo-magnesium Compounds: Action of, on Nitriles, P. Bruylants and A. Dewael, 414; and the Nitriles, The Reaction between the, F. Petit, 910; The Constitution of the, P. Jolibois, 71
Oriental Seals, I. M. Casanowicz, 294
Orientation of Churches, Rev. J. Griffith, 506
l'Ornithologie, L'Évolution de, Dr. M. Boubier, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
Otology, Contributions to the Art and Science of, Lectures and Papers by Richard Lake, 1892-1925, 233
"Outline of History, The": Mr. Belloc objects to, H. G. Wells, 75; Mr. Wells's, Mr. Belloc still objects to, Hilaire Belloc, 75; Mr. Wells's, A Companion to, Hilaire Belloc, 75
Ovarian Grafts in the Male Mouse, Effects of Implantation upon, Y. Tamura, 621
'Overspeed' Test House, A New, Metropolitan Vickers Electrical Co., 290
Oxalic Acid, Pure, The Electrolysis of Aqueous Solutions of, E. Doumer, 658
Oxford: The Sir William Dunn School of Pathology, Opening of the, 433; University: A. G. Tansley appointed Sherardian professor of botany, 179; gifts to, 247; Profs. G. Bourne and S. Vines made emeritus professors; regulations for the Rolleston memorial prize, 258; establishment of a research fellowship in medical science in memory of Dr. G. I. Schorstein, 476; Statutes of; foundation of a memorial travelling studentship, 764; eligibility of women as professors,

- etc.; the University observatory to be extended, 835; impending conferment of honorary doctorates, 875; Prof. A. M. Carr-Saunders appointed Herbert Spencer lecturer for 1928, 907; money grants to laboratories of certain colleges; an Aldrichian praelector in chemistry, 944
- Oxidation-reduction, Potential, On the Mechanism of, M. Dixon, 145
- Oxygen: and Nitric Oxide, The Theory of the Paramagnetism of, Prof. J. H. Van Vleck, 670; -carbon Dioxide Antagonism, J. Amar, 106; Compounds, A Method of High-temperature Electrolysis of, Andrieux, 302; The Density of, and its Compressibility below one Atmosphere, G. P. Baxter and H. W. Starkweather, 339; =17. Op., Prof. H. E. Armstrong, 51
- Oyster, European, Researches on Sex-change in the, Dr. J. H. Orton, 177
- Ozone: Formation of, by the Silent Electric Discharge in the Presence of Foreign Gases, A. Juliard, 910; Formation, The Kinetics of, under the Action of the α -particles, W. Mund and J. d'Olieslager, 373; in the Earth's Atmosphere, Measurements of, and its Relation to other Geophysical Conditions. Part II., Dr. G. M. B. Dobson, D. N. Harrison, and J. Lawrence, 337; in the Presence of Hydrogen, Thermal Decomposition of, R. O. Griffith and K. McKeown, 255
- p*-Xylyl-allylacetic Acid and its Conversion into Cyclic Tetra-hydronaphthalene Derivatives, G. Darzens and A. Heinz, 262
- Pacific, Tropical Cyclones of the, E. V. Newnham, 218
- Palaeolithic Man in Scotland, 475
- Palestine, Proposed Italian Geographical Studies in, 96
- Pan: -American Child Congress, Impending, at Havana, 583; Pacific Science Congress, The Third, 178
- Parabromobenzyl Chloride and the Grignard Reaction, R. Quelet, 730
- Paraffin Imbedding Blocks, A New Apparatus for Casting, M. T. Deane, 70
- Paragonimus, A New Species of, A. Gulati, 580
- Paramagnetism Independent of Temperature, Mlle. Paule Collet, 106
- Parasites: and Man, 885; Liquid of, The Molecular Concentration of the, W. H. Schopfer, 514
- Paris: Academy of Sciences: Loutreuil Foundation of the, 178; prizes and grants awarded in 1926, 141; University of, course of anthropology in the, 63
- Parsons, William, Third Earl of Rosse, 1800-1867, The Scientific Papers of, Collected and republished by the Hon. Sir Charles Parsons, 627
- Pastures, The Correlation of Nutritive Value with Dry Matter Content of, E. J. Sheehy, 586
- Pathological Sera (Cancer, Syphilis, Tuberculosis), A Method of Differentiation of, R. Douris and G. Giquel, 587
- Paths that do not separate a Given Continuous Curve, Concerning, R. L. Moore, 339
- Pearl Shells, Peculiar, E. A. Chapman; Prof. W. J. Dakin, 864
- Pearls, Structure of, C. Amirthalingam, 854
- Peas: Garden, Linkage in, Miss Sverdrup, 473; Pollination Experiments with, Dr. C. J. Bond, 541
- Pedestal Rocks formed by Erosion, K. Bryan, 684
- Penicillium glaucum*, The Influence of Calcium on, H. Coupin, 658
- Penrose's Annual: the Process Year Book and Review of the Graphic Arts. Edited by W. Gamble. Vol. 29, 1927, 274
- People of the Veil: being an Account of the Habits, Organisation and History of the Wandering Tuareg Tribes which inhabit the Mountains of Air or Asben in the Central Sahara, F. Rennell Rodd, 551
- Peperite, Existence in the South of Annam of a, resulting from the Intrusion of a Basalt into a Diatomaceous Sediment, A. Lacroix and F. Blondel, 946
- Perception, The Theory of, An Introduction to, Sir J. H. Parsons; Prof. T. Graham Brown, 773
- Periodic Orbits of the Second Genus near the Straight-line Equilibrium-points in the Problem of Three Bodies, D. Buchanan, 180
- Perkin medal, J. E. Teeple awarded the, 577
- Pestalozzi: and the Teaching of Science, 377; The Greatness of, and its Numerical Evaluation, E. Claparède, 514
- Petrographic Notes on Specimens in the 'David Forbes' Collection of Rocks in the Manchester Museum, G. Andrew, 767
- Petroleum in Persia, Sir John Cadman, 762
- Pflanzenanatomie, Handbuch der, Herausgegeben von Prof. K. Linsbauer. Abt. 1, Teil 2, Band 4; Band 5, 628
- Pflanzenareale: Die, Sammlung kartographischer Darstellungen von Verbreitungsbezirken der lebenden und fossilen Pflanzen-Familien, -Gattungen und -Arten, Prof. L. Diels and Prof. G. Samuelsson. 1 Reihe, Heft 1 und Heft 2, Mar. 5, Suppt., 5
- pH*; Malic Acid, The Rotatory Power of Organic Substances as a Function of the, E. Vellinger, 302
- Phaseolus vulgaris*, The Presence of Allantoic Acid in, R. Fosse, 146
- Phenacite, Be_2SiO_4 , The Structure of, Prof. W. L. Bragg, 181
- Phenols, The Transformation of the, into Hydrocarbons, in the Presence of Catalysts and Hydrogen under Pressure, A. Kling and D. Florentin, 730
- Phenylmagnesium Bromide, Action of, on the Trisubstituted Acetonitriles, Mme. Ramart-Lucas and F. Salmon-Legagneur, 302
- Philippine Islands, Weapons and Armour of the, H. W. Krieger, 540
- Philippines, Polychæta from the, A. L. Treadwell, 473
- Philosophy and Physics, Dr. J. H. Tummers, 440
- Phosphates in Calcareous Silos, Estimation of, S. Das, 176
- Phosphorus in Muscular Contraction, The Significance of, P. and M. G. Eggleton, 194
- Photo: -electric: Emission, Thermionic Emission, and Peltier Effect, E. H. Hall, 730; Polarimetry, Prof. H. von Halban, 86; Thresholds, The Periodicity of, G. B. Welch, 838; -electrons, The Energy of, produced by soft X-rays, E. Rudberg, 704; -micrography, Practical, J. E. Barnard and F. V. Welch. Second edition, 313
- Photographic: Image, Density of the, Dr. E. A. Baker, 685; Impressions, Influence of Temperature on, G. Colange, 946; Negatives, Pinholes in, Capt. C. J. P. Cave, 852; Plate, The Law of Blackening of the, at Low Densities, Second paper (iv.), E. A. Baker, 105; Plates, The Calibration of, F. S. Hogg and Cecilia H. Payne, 925; Telescope, A New Type of, A. Couder, 182
- Photography, The American Annual of, 1927. Vol. 41, edited by F. R. Fraprie and E. J. Wall, 80
- Photosynthesis, H. A. Spoehr, 808
- Phylogeny and Classification, Dr. W. B. Crow, 26
- Physical: and Chemical: Constants: Tables of, and Some Mathematical Functions, Dr. G. W. C. Kaye and Prof. T. H. Laby. Fifth edition, 193; Dr. Ezer Griffiths, 735; and Optical Societies, Annual Exhibition of the, 101; Society of London, election of officers, 330; World, The Nature of the, Prof. A. S. Eddington, 170
- Physiciens hollandais, Les, et la méthode expérimentale en France au XVIII^e siècle, Prof. P. Brunet, 812
- Physico-chemical Periodicity, The Problem of, Dr. E. S. Hedges and Dr. J. E. Myers, 267
- Physics: General, for the Laboratory, Prof. L. W. Taylor, W. W. Watson, and Prof. C. E. Howe. Mar. 19, Suppt., 15; Institute of: Annual Report for 1926, 793; election of officers, 758; resignation of Prof. A. W. Porter of the honorary secretaryship; appointment of Prof. A. O. Rankine as successor and of T. Martin as secretary, 96; in the Glass Industry, Prof. W. E. S. Turner, 825; German Handbooks of, 189; of the Earth, British members of committees on the, 504; Practical, Notes on, for Junior Students, Prof. C. G. Barkla and Dr. G. A. Carse. Second edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15
- Physik, Handbuch der, Herausgegeben von H. Geiger und K. Scheel. Band 1: Geschichte der Physik; Vorlesungstechnik, Redigiert von K. Scheel, 189
- Physikalische Mediumismus, Der, Dr. W. v. Gulat-Wellenburg, Graf Carl v. Klinkowstroem und Dr. H. Rosenbusch, 187

- Physiological Society, jubilee dinner of the, 756
 Physiology, Recent Advances in, Prof. C. Lovatt Evans. Second edition, 596
 Physique, Cours de, à l'usage des élèves de l'enseignement supérieur et des ingénieurs, Prof. J. Becquerel. Tome 2, 850
 Pigeons, Chromosomes of, K. Oguma, 869
 Pigments, Paints, and Varnishes, The Analysis of, Dr. J. J. Fox and T. H. Bowles, 849
 Pimpinellas of Tropical Africa, C. Norman, 260
 Pinhole Probe Experiments with Massive Air Columns, Dr. C. Barus, 838
 Pistil of Some Plants, The Preferential Electric Conductivity of the, S. C. Guha, 587
 Pitman's "Radio Year Book," 1927, 97
 Pituitary Body, The Comparative Anatomy, Histology, and Development of the, G. R. de Beer, 420
 Planaria, Grafting in, Prof. H. W. Rand and Amy Browne, 253
 Planets: and Periodicities, Dr. Z. Kamerling, 298; Ellipsoidal Stratification of the, The Impossibility of an, P. Dive, 622; The Minor, Prof. H. N. Russell, 137; The Stratification of the, and Fredholm's Equation, R. Wavre, 587
 Plant: Activities, The Chemistry of, 808; Autographs and their Revelations, Sir J. C. Bose, 919; Geography, An Outline of, Dr. D. H. Campbell, 701; Lice or Aphididae of Great Britain, The, F. V. Theobald. Vol. 1, 115; Nutrition and Crop Production, E. J. Russell (Sir John Russell), 454; Pathology and Disease Control, Landmarks in the Development of the Science of, Prof. P. A. van der Pijl, 67; Products, S. H. Collins and G. Redington, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11; Tissues: Electric Currents and, Prof. H. H. Dixon and T. A. Bennet-Clark, 580; Specialised, 628; The Electrical Stimulation of, Prof. H. H. Dixon and T. A. Bennet-Clark, 105
 Plants: Inheritance in, Some Recent Advances in our Knowledge of, Prof. F. E. Weiss, 182; Organography of, Prof. K. von Goebel, 931; Physiology of Movement and Irritability in, The, Sir J. C. Bose, 209; The Presence in, of a Substance which becomes Luminescent in Ultra-violet Light, L. Petri, 690; The Story of the, Grant Allen. New edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10; with Milky Sap, Chemistry of, J. Zellner and others, 35
 Plaster, Thermal Analysis of, An Apparatus for the, Jolibois and Chassevent, 373
 Plato's American Republic, D. Woodruff, 455
 Pneumokoniosis due to Asbestos Dust, W. E. Cooke and C. F. Hill, 766
 Polar Pressures, L. C. W. Bonacina, 124
 Polarisation: of a Medium, The, and its Molecular Structure, J. Errera, 373; of Light emitted by Positive Rays, E. Rupp, 100
 Polarisationsmikroskop: Das, seine Anwendung in der Kolloidforschung und in der Färberei, H. Ambronn und A. Frey, Mar. 5, Suppt., 5
 Polhem, Kristofer, The Work of, J. G. A. Rhodin, 22
 Polishing of Surfaces, The: N. K. Adam, 162, 279; Dr. J. W. French, 527; Prof. J. Muir, 279; F. W. Preston; J. M. Macaulay, 13
 Politician, The, and Political Economy, Dr. S. Evans, 67
 Politics: and the Land, C. Dampier Whetham, 845; as a Science, Prof. H. J. Laski, 519; The Science and Method of, Prof. G. E. G. Catlin, 519
 Pollen: Development in *Lathræa squamaria* and *L. clandestina*, Prof. R. R. Gates, 766; Utilisation of, by the Honeybee, R. L. Parker, 507
 Pollution of Rivers and Estuaries, The, Lord Balfour, 327
 Polonium: A New Determination of the Period of, M. A. da Silva, 373; The Penetration of, into Metals, E. Rona and E. A. W. Schmidt, 767
 Polyatomic Molecule, The Quantisation of the Rotational Motion of the, by the New Wave Mechanics, E. E. Witmer, 731
 Polyploids, The Behaviour of, C. D. Darlington, 390
Pontania salicis Christ., The Egg-laying Instincts of the Sawfly, Dr. J. W. H. Harrison, 220
 Pontifical Academy of the Nuovi Lincei, Meeting of the, 172
 Population and Migration, Sir Charles Close, 142
 Porto Rico, Plant Ecology of, H. A. Gleason and M. I. Cook, 940
 Positive Ions, a New Source of, Some Thermionic Experiments with, C. H. Kunsman, 338
 Potash: a Review, Estimate and Forecast, Dr. J. W. Turrentine, 385
 Potassium: Alum-hydrochloric Acid Solutions, The Effect of, on the Growth and Fate of Neoplastic Tissue (1), L. C. Strong, 839; Nitrate as a Fertiliser, 941
 Potato: -breeding, Problems of, 271; Varieties, Dr. R. N. Salaman, 271; Virus Disease, Some Insect Carriers of, K. M. Smith, 145
 Potatoes, Copper Dusts and Sprays for, O. C. Boyd, 761
 Potentiometric Titrations: a Theoretical and Practical Treatise, Dr. I. M. Kolthoff and Dr. N. H. Furman, 346
 Power: Station at Portishead, A Large, 470; Systems, Large, The Stability of, F. H. Clough, 364
 Precision Pendulums, The Synchronisation at a Distance of, without Use of any Contact, P. Lejay, 446
 Pre-Columbian Huastec Mounds in the Tampico Region, Mexico, J. M. Muir, 726
 Prehistoric: Archaeology in Yorkshire: O. G. S. Crawford, 494; T. Sheppard, 601; Man and the Cambridge Gravels, Rev. Frederick Smith, 523; Stone Implements, Sale of the Hewlett Collection of, 501
 Preservatives Regulations, The New, E. R. Bolton, 546
 Primary: Aberrations, On the Addition of the, G. C. Steward, 35; Cell, A New Type of, D. R. Barber, 892
 Primitive: Culture in Italy, Prof. H. J. Rose, Mar. 19, Suppt., 9; Trade: its Psychology and Economics, Prof. Elizabeth Ellis Hoyt, 117
 Prismatic Photographs, On Temperature and Pressure Regulation in, T. R. Merton, 181
 Probabilités: Le calcul des, son évolution mathématique et philosophique, Prof. L.-G. Du Pasquier, 921
 Professional Schools, etc., of Great Britain and Ireland, 1926-27, 336
 Prominences, Two Interesting, F. da Costa Lobo, 302
 Pro-cestrous Development in the Dog and Rabbit, The Effect of the Ovarian Hormone in producing, S. A. Asdell and Dr. F. H. A. Marshall, 220
 Protective Mimicry in Insects, Prof. E. B. Poulton, 102
 Proteins, Characterisation of Genuine, Prof. S. P. L. Sørensen, 369
 Protistenkerne: Der Formwechsel der, eine vergleichend-morphologische Studie, Dr. K. Belár, Mar. 5, Suppt., 4
 Protoplasm, The Possible Production of, Sir Oliver Lodge, 902
Protoplasma, No. 1, 292
 Protozoon, Larval Stages in a, M. M. Metcalf, 339
 Proxima, Observations of, Innes and van den Bos, 25
 Psychic Behaviour, Science and, Prof. H. Levy, 484
 Psychological Research, The British Journal of. Vol. 1, No. 5, 484
 Public: Analysts, Society of, election of officers, 436; Lighting by Electricity, Commdr. H. T. Harrison, 433
 Publication: Organised, a Connected Series of Proposals relating to the Publication and Record of Scientific and Technical Information, J. F. Pownall, Mar. 19, Suppt., 19
 Puzzle Crazes, H. E. Dudeney, 65
 Pycnosonde, The, Dr. D. la Cour, 369
 Pyridine and the Pyridine Nucleus, The Oxidation with Permanganate of, M. Delépine, 373
 Pyrosol: das kolloide Phänomen in der glühend flüssigen Materie und seine Erstarrungszustände, Prof. R. Lorenz und Prof. W. Eitel, Mar. 5, Suppt., 7
 Pyruvic Acid, A New Reaction of, T. Postarnak, 622
 Quanta, The Theory of, On the Evaluation of certain Integrals important in, P. S. Epstein, 147
 Quantensprünge durch Stöße, Anregung von, Prof. J. Franck und Dr. P. Jordan, Mar. 5, Suppt., 7
 Quantum: Dynamics, The Physical Interpretation of the, P. A. M. Dirac, 181; Mechanics: Physical Aspects of, Prof. M. Born, 354; The Dielectric Constant and Diamagnetism of Hydrogen and Helium in the New, J. H. Van Vleck, 338; Theories, New, Prof. H. S. Allen, 77; Theory: and Gravitational Relativity, Prof. N. Wiener and D. J. Struik, 853; Modern Ideas

on the, H. T. Flint and J. W. Fisher, 477; New, The Correspondence Principle in the, C. Eckart, 338; Philosophical Foundations of: Dr. N. R. Campbell, 779; Dr. P. Jordan, 566, 779; The Evolution and Development of the, N. M. Bligh, 193

Quarantine Signals for Ships, International, 212

Quarterly Review of Biology, No. 4, 538

Quartz: Fused, Dr. Berry, 250; Piezo-electricity of, L. H. Dawson, 870; The Fracture of, by Heat, B. W. Holman, 295

Quasi-unimolecular Reactions—the Decomposition of Diethyl Ether in the Gaseous State, C. N. Hinshelwood, 180

Quekett Microscopical Club, election of officers, 330

Rabbit: Natural Granular Conjunctivitis of the, C. Nicolle and V. Lumbroso, 878; Placenta of the, The Giant Cells in the, G. S. Sansom, 512

Rabbits, Artificial Insemination of, The Relation between 'Density' of Sperm-Suspension and Fertility as determined by, A. Walton, 445

Racemic Potassium Chlorosulpho-acetate, An X-ray Investigation of Optically Anomalous Crystals of, W. G. Burgers, 180

Racial Likeness, 40

Radeliffe: Infirmary, The, A. G. Gibson, Mar. 19, Suppt., 20; Library, The: etc., presented to the University of Oxford, 247; Lord Cottesloe, 350; The Writer of the Notes, 351

Radiation: and Matter, On the Equilibrium between, R. C. Tolman, 338; Emission and Absorption of, The Quantum Theory of the, P. A. M. Dirac, 338; from the Earth, Experiments on Highly Penetrating, L. N. Bogoiavlensky and A. A. Lomakin, 525; Intensity, Measurement of, by Photographic Methods, Dr. E. A. Baker, 707

Radiations: The Chemical Actions of, A. G. de Moncetz, 414; P. Villard, 478

Radio: -activity and the Heat of the Earth: Dr. J. W. Evans, 424; Dr. R. W. Lawson, 277, 703; Beam Service to Australia, The, 574; Communication, Progress of, 864; Frequency Measurements: The Theory and Practice of, a Handbook for the Laboratory and a Textbook for Advanced Students, E. B. Moullin, 155; in the Whaling Industry, 255; -receiving Sets from the Electric-lighting Mains, Apparatus required to operate, P. R. Coursey and H. Andrewes, 610; Reception and Solar Activity, G. W. Pickard, 437; Signals, Direction Changes and Fading in, H. J. Reich, 905; Telegraphy: and the Eclipse of the Sun, June 18, Suppt., 85; Short-wave, T. L. Eckersley, 401; -telephone Service between London and New York, Opening of the, 94; -telephony between London and New York, 60; Transmission, The Sun, the Earth's Atmosphere, and, Prof. S. Chapman, 428; -waves, Interference of, E. Quäck, 870

Radioactive Substances, The Separation of, J. Kendall, E. R. Jette, and W. West, 296

Radium-B and Radium-C, The Absolute Intensities of the γ -rays of, C. D. Ellis and W. A. Wooster, 657

Raffles College, Singapore, Dr. G. McOwan appointed reader in chemistry at, 143

Rails, Internal Flaws in, Detection of, M. Suzuki, 255

Rain-drops, Sizes among, Distribution of, Prof. J. J. Nolan and J. Enright, 922

Rainfall, Average Monthly, Variability of, throughout the year, Dr. J. Glasspoole, 477

Raja, The Species and Sex-ratios of, Augusta Lamont, 651

Ranikot Beds of Thal (North-west Frontier Provinces of India), The, L. M. Davies, 105

Rare: Earth and Alkali Metals, Double Sulphates of, F. Zambonini and A. Stolfi, 222; Metals: Determination and Separation of, (ix.) Beryllium from Aluminium, L. Moser and M. Niessner, 691; from other Metals, Determination and Separation of the (viii.), L. Moser and A. Brukl, 107

Ray Society, election of officers, 539

α -Rays and β -Rays, The Passage of, through Matter, Dr. E. J. Williams, 489

Reading: Presentation of an Economic Botany Collection to, by Dr. J. B. Hurry, 292; University, conferment of an honorary doctorate on A. Palmer, 300

Reale Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei, Activities of the, Prof. Scialoja, 434

Reality: a New Correlation of Science and Religion, Rev. Canon B. H. Streeter, 273

Reciprocal Impenetrability of Matter and Pauli's Exclusion Principle, Relation between the, Prof. P. Ehrenfest: 196; A Correction, 602

Rectangular Beam, The, Loaded at a Point, Mesnager, 586

Red Cells of Man, The Diameter of the, before and after Exercise, E. Ponder, 802

Redi (F.), Tercentenary of the Birth of, 402

Refractive Indices of Mixtures, Calculation of the, and the Formulæ of Dieterici and Lichtenecker, E. van Aubel, 414

Refrigeration in the Chemical Industry, H. M. Dunkerley, 23

Regions of Compression, Dr. J. W. Evans, 15, 55

Rejuvenation, On, 396

Relative Variability, Graphic Comparison on, Prof. R. Pearl, 904

Relativity: and the Observer, Prof. H. Wildon Carr, 199; Fundamental Principles of, A Possible Way to discuss the, P. Slavenas, 339; Readable, a Book for Non-Specialists, C. V. Durell, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14; The General Theory of, 347

Religion, A New Approach to, 273

Research: Associations, The Financing of, R. W. Paul, 673; throughout the British Empire, Co-operation in, 661

Residual Thermal Phenomenon, A, Q. Majorana, 222

Resistance: of a Structure on a Reduced Model, Determination of the, Mesnager and Veyrier, 878; Standards, Four Terminal, The Measurement of the Inductances of, L. Hartshorn, 909

Resonance Radiation, A Source for, M. A. Tuve, 85

REVIEWS AND OUR BOOKSHELF.

Agriculture, Forestry, and Horticulture:

Agricultural Research in 1925, 312

Brühl (Prof. P.), A Guide to the Orchids of Sikkim: being a Guide to the Identification of those Species of Orchids found between the Terai and the Northern Frontier of Independent Sikkim, including the Chumbi Valley and British Bhutan, 851

Chandler (Prof. W. H.), Fruit Growing, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11

Chaturvedi (M. D.), Measurements of the Cubical Contents of Forest Crops: being a Critical Investigation into the Methods of Measuring Sample Plots, with special reference to the Liability to Error, 192

Corrie (F. E.), Lime in Agriculture. 1: in Plant Nutrition, 2: in Animal Nutrition, 313

Davis (R. A.), Citrus Growing in South Africa, 776

Emerson (Prof. P.), Soil Characteristics: a Field and Laboratory Guide, 596

Galt (A. S.), The Principles and Practice of Horticulture, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11

Grabham (Dr. M. C.), The Garden Interests of Madeira, 633

Handel-Mazzetti (Dr. H.), Naturbilder aus Südwest-China: Erlebnisse und Eindrücke eines österreichischen Forschers während des Weltkrieges, 667

Hansson (Prof. N.), Fütterung der Haustiere: ihre theoretischen Grundlagen und ihre wirtschaftliche Durchführung. Übersetzt von F. von Meissner, 486

Malcolm (J.), Agricultural Surveying, including Mensuration, Road Construction, and Drainage, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12

Orwin (C. S.), and H. W. Kersey, Estate Accounts, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12

Russell (E. J.) [Sir John], Plant Nutrition and Crop Production, 454

Ruston (Dr. A. G.), and C. V. Dawe, Farm Calculations and Accounts, including a Thorough Treat-

ment of Agricultural Calculations and of the Business Transactions of the Farm, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12; Farm Measurements: a Practical Treatment of Problems in Mensuration, Mar. 19, Suppt., 12
Salaman (Dr. R. N.), Potato Varieties, 271
Turrentine (Dr. J. W.), Potash: a Review, Estimate, and Forecast, 385
Wagner (Dr. W.), Die chinesische Landwirtschaft, 698
Woodward (M.), The New Book of Trees, 742

Anthropology and Archæology:

Baikie (Rev. J.), The Amarna Age: a Study of the Crisis of the Ancient World, 851
Biometrika. Vol. 18, Parts 1 and 2, 40
Bouglé (Prof. C.), et J. Raffault, *Éléments de sociologie: textes choisis et ordonnés*, Mar. 5, Suppt., 1
Burkitt (M. C.), Our Early Ancestors: an Introductory Study of Mesolithic, Neolithic, and Copper Age Cultures in Europe and Adjacent Regions, 889
Estabrook (A. H.), and I. E. McDougale, Mongrel Virginians: The Win Tribe, 812
Gann (Dr. T. W.), Ancient Cities and Modern Tribes: Exploration and Adventure in Maya Lands, 631
Haile (Fr. B.), A Manual of Navaho Grammar, 668
Hambly (W. D.), Origins of Education among Primitive Peoples: a Comparative Study in Racial Development, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10; Tribal Dancing and Social Development, 488
Hauschild (Dr. M. W.), Grundriss der Anthropologie, Mar. 5, Suppt., 1
Hofmayr (Father W.), Die Schilluk: Geschichte, Religion und Leben eines Niloten-Stammes. Nach P. Banholzers F.S.C. und eigenen Auszeichnungen dargestellt, 113
Hose (Dr. C.), Natural Man: a Record from Borneo, 806
Hoyt (Prof. Elizabeth Ellis), Primitive Trade: its Psychology and Economics, 117
Imbelloni (Prof. J.), La Esfinge Indiana: antiguos y nuevos aspectos del problema de los orígenes americanos, 3
Jardé (Prof. A.), translated by M. R. Dobie, The Formation of the Greek People, Mar. 19, Suppt., 9
Jones (N.), The Stone Age in Rhodesia, 226
Karsten (Prof. R.), The Civilization of the South American Indians: with special reference to Magic and Religion, 921
Ledroit (Prof. J.), Frühschein der Kultur: Bilder aus Vorgeschichte und Urzeit, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
Lévy-Bruhl (Prof. L.), translated by Lilian S. Clare, How Natives Think (*Les Fonctions mentales dans les sociétés inférieures*), 700
Luquet (G.-H.), L'Art et la religion des hommes fossiles, 8
Malinowski (Dr. B.), Crime and Custom in Savage Society, 633
Maori Symbolism: being an Account of the Origin, Migration, and Culture of the New Zealand Maori, as recorded in Certain Sacred Legends, Report made by Ettie A. Rout, from the Evidence of Hohepa Te Rake, 386
v. Merhart (G.), Bronzezeit am Jenissei: ein Beitrag zur Urgeschichte Sibiriens, 775
Moret (Prof. A.), and G. Davy, translated by V. Gordon Childe, From Tribe to Empire: Social Organisation among Primitives and in the Ancient East, 556
Norden (H.), Byways in the Tropic Seas: Wanderings among the Solomons and in the Malay Archipelago, 777
Rodd (F. Rennell), People of the Veil: being an Account of the Habits, Organisation, and History of the Wandering Tuareg Tribes which inhabit the Mountains of Air or Asben in the Central Sahara, 551
Rose (Prof. H. J.), Primitive Culture in Italy, Mar. 19, Suppt., 9
Sedgwick (Mrs. W. T.), Acoma, the Sky City: a Study in Pueblo-Indian History and Civilization, 44
Shetelig (Dr. H.), Préhistoire de la Norvège, Mar. 5, Suppt., 1
Shirokogoroff (S. M.), Anthropology of Eastern China and Kwangtung Province, 231

Smith (Rev. Frederick), Prehistoric Man and the Cambridge Gravels, 523
Summers (Dr. M.), The History of Witchcraft and Demonology, 882
Westermarck (Prof. E.), The Goodness of Gods, 557
Wheeler (G. C.), Mono-Alu Folklore (Bougainville Strait, Western Solomon Islands), 386
Wilder (Prof. H. H.), The Pedigree of the Human Race, Mar. 19, Suppt., 9.

Biology:

Allen (Grant), The Story of the Plants. New edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10
Allen (Dr. G. M.), Birds and their Attributes, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
Ambronn (H.), and A. Frey, Das Polarisationsmikroskop: seine Anwendung in der Kolloidforschung und in der Färberei, Mar. 5, Suppt., 5
Bahl (Prof. K. N.), The Indian Zoological Memoirs on Indian Animal Types. 1: Pheretima (The Common Indian Earthworm), 557
Barclay (D.), H. M. L. Bolus, and E. J. Steer, A Book of South African Flowers, 557
Bayne (C. S.), Exploring England: an Introduction to Nature-craft, 668
de Beer (G. R.), An Introduction to Experimental Embryology, 114
Bělař (Dr. K.), Der Formwechsel der Protistenkerne: eine vergleichend-morphologische Studie, Mar. 5, Suppt., 4
Biologischen Arbeitsmethoden, Handbuch der, Herausgegeben von Prof. E. Abderhalden. Lief. 191. Abt. 2: Physikalische Methoden, Teil 2, Heft 2. Die Verwendung der Polarisationsmikroskops für biologische Untersuchungen. Von A. Köhler, Mar. 5, Suppt., 5. Lief. 205. Abt. 2: Physikalische Methoden, Teil 2, Heft 4. Polarimetrie, von H. Kessler; Spektroskopische Methoden des Mediziners, von F. Löwe; Nephelometrie, von Marie Anna Schirmann, Mar. 5, Suppt., 6. Lief. 204. Abt. 9: Methoden zur Erforschung der Leistungen des tierischen Organismus, Teil 1, Hälfte 2, Heft 2. Spezielle Methoden: Tierhaltung und Tierzüchtung, 156. Lief. 199. Abt. 9, Teil 4, Heft 2. Methoden der Erforschung bestimmter Funktionen bei einzelnen Tierarten. Methoden zur Erforschung des Vogelzuges, von J. Thienemann; Methoden zur Behandlung der Atemphysiologie der Insekten, von A. Koch; Die Verfahren zur Erforschung der Tierfluges, von O. Prochnow, 523
Bose (Sir J. C.), Plant Autographs and their Relations, 919
Boubier (Dr. M.), Les oiseaux: l'ornithologie et ses bases scientifiques, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2; L'Évolution de l'ornithologie, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
Bower (Prof. F. O.), The Ferns (Filicales): Treated Comparatively with a View to their Natural Classification, Vol. 2, 191
Campbell (Dr. D. H.), An Outline of Plant Geography, 701
Craib (Prof. W. G.), Floræ Siamensis Enumeratio: a List of the Plants known from Siam, with Records of their Occurrence. Vol. 1, Parts 1 and 2: Ranunculaceæ to Anacardiaceæ, 633
Dakin (Prof. W. J.), The Elements of General Zoology: a Guide to the Study of Animal Biology, correlating Function and Structure; with Notes on Practical Exercises, 631
Farmer (Sir J. B.), and Dr. H. Chaudhuri, A Practical Introduction to the Study of Botany. New edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10
Gager (Dr. C. S.), with three chapters on Heredity and Variation in Plants, by Dr. O. E. White, General Botany: with special reference to its Economic Aspects, 742
Geobotanischen Institutes Rübel in Zürich, Veröffentlichungen des, Heft 3. Festschrift Carl Schröter. Gewidmet von seinen Freunden, Schülern und Kollegen. Im Auftrag des Schröter-Jubiläum-Komitee redigiert von H. Broekmann-Jerosch, 153

- Gurwitsch (Prof. A.), Das Problem der Zellteilung physiologisch betrachtet, 556
- Hering (Dr. M.), Die Ökologie der blattminierenden Insektenlarven, 232
- Hørring (R.), Fugle. 2: Lomfugle, Stormfugle, Vandhøns, Tranefugle og Vadefugle, Mar. 5, Suppt., 2
- Huxley (Prof. J. S.), Essays in Popular Science, 848
- Johannsen (Prof. W.), Dritte deutsche Auflage, Elemente der exakten Erblchkeitslehre: mit Grundzügen der biologischen Variations-Statistik, 523
- Kepner (Prof. W. A.), Animals Looking into the Future, 233
- Kükenthal (Prof. W.), Herausgegeben von Dr. T. Krumbach. Handbuch der Zoologie: eine Naturgeschichte der Stämme des Tierreiches. Vierter Band: Progoneata, Chilopoda, Insecta. Erste Lief, Zweite Lief. Fünfter Band: Solenogastres, Mollusca. Echinodermata, Tunicata. Dritte Lief., Mar. 5, Suppt., 3
- Lotsy (Dr. J. P.), Evolution im Lichte der Bastardierung betrachtet. Aus dem Englischen übersetzt von H. N. Kooiman, Mar. 5, Suppt., 4
- Miehe (Prof. H.), Das Archiplasma: Betrachtungen über die Organisation des Pflanzenkörpers, 628
- Patten (Prof. C. J.), The Memory Factor in Biology: a Sketch of the Unity of Life, 741
- Pearse (Prof. A. S.), Animal Ecology, 193
- Pflanzenanatomie, Handbuch der, Herausgegeben von Prof. K. Linsbauer. Abt. 1, Teil 2: Histologie. Band 4: Meristeme, Dr. O. Schüpp; Band 5: Die Bewegungsgewebe, Prof. H. von Guttenberg, 628
- Pflanzenareale, Die: Sammlung kartographischer Darstellungen von Verbreitungsbezirken der lebenden und fossilen Pflanzen-Familien, -Gattungen und -Arten. Unter Mitwirkung von Prof. L. Diels und Prof. G. Samuelsson. Herausgegeben von Prof. E. Hannig und Prof. H. Winkler. 1 Reihe, Heft 1. Heft 2, Mar. 5, Suppt., 5
- Plaskitt (F. J. W.), Microscopic Fresh-Water Life, 117
- Przibram (Prof. H.), Die anorganischen Grenzgebiete der Biologie (insbesondere der Kristallvergleich), 738
- Rignano (Prof. E.), Man not a Machine: a Study of the Finalistic Aspects of Life, 738
- Sass (H. R.), The Way of the Wild, 633
- Shull (Prof. A. F.), Heredity, 156
- Simon (E.), Les arachnides de France. Tome sixième. Deux. partie: Le synopsis général et le catalogue des espèces françaises de l'ordre des Araneæ (suite), Mar. 5, Suppt., 3
- Tabulæ Biologicae. Ed. W. Junk. Herausgegeben von C. Oppenheimer und L. Pincussen. Band 3: Allgemeine Chemie, Konstanten chemischer Verbindungen, Chemie der Organe, Stoffwechsel, Grösse und Massen-Verhältnisse beim Menschen, Pharmakologie, Immunität, Mar. 5, Suppt., 8
- Theobald (F. V.), The Plant Lice or Aphididæ of Great Britain, Vol. 1, 115
- Thom (C.), and Margaret B. Church, The Aspergilli, 386
- Watson (Dr. W.), Elementary Botany: an Introduction to the Study of Plant Life, Mar. 19, Suppt., 10
- Zoologisches Wörterbuch: Erklärung der zoologischen Fachausdrücke; zum Gebrauch beim Studium zoologischer, anatomischer, entwicklungsgeschichtlicher und naturphilosophischer Werke, Verfasst von Prof. E. Bresslau und Prof. H. E. Ziegler. Revidiert und herausgegeben von Prof. H. E. Ziegler und Prof. E. Bresslau. Dritte Auflage, 632
- Chemistry:**
- Allen (Prof. P. W.), Industrial Fermentations, 741
- Arnall (Dr. F.), and F. W. Hodges, Theoretical Organic Chemistry. Part 1, Mar. 19, Suppt., 16
- Bate (S. C.), The Synthesis of Benzene Derivatives, 520
- Beacall (T.), Dr. F. Challenger, Dr. G. Martin, and Dr. H. J. S. Sand. Dyestuffs and Coal-Tar Products: their Chemistry, Manufacture, and Application, Mar. 19, Suppt., 17
- Biochemie des Menschen und der Tiere seit 1914, Bearbeitet von Dr. F. Haurowitz, 233
- Briggs (D. B.), Classified Problems in Chemistry, 668
- British Journal Photographic Almanac and Photographer's Daily Companion, The, 1927, Edited by G. E. Brown, 488
- Castan (Dr. P.), La chimie des matières colorantes organiques, Mar. 5, Suppt., 7
- Chemical Age Year Book, Diary, and Directory, The, 1927, 275
- Chemical Engineers, the Institution of, *Transactions of*, Vol. 3, 1925, 275
- Chemie, Geschichte der, Studien zur, Festgabe Edmund O. v. Lippmann, 451
- Chemistry, Inorganic, A Text-Book of, Edited by Dr. J. Newton Friend. Vol. 3, Pt. 2, by J. C. Gregory and Dr. May Sybil Burr (*née* Leslie); Vol. 7, Pt. 3, by R. H. Vallance and A. A. Eldridge, Mar. 19, Suppt., 16
- Coleman (J. B.), and Dr. F. Arnall, The Preparation and Analysis of Organic Compounds, 851
- Collins (S. H.), and G. Redington, Plant Products, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11
- Deming (Prof. H. G.), and Prof. S. B. Aronson, Exercises in General Chemistry and Qualitative Analysis. Second edition, 702
- Ephraim (Prof. F.), English edition by P. C. L. Thorne, A Text-book of Inorganic Chemistry, 7
- Finnemore (H.), The Essential Oils, 920
- Fox (Dr. J. J.), and T. H. Bowles, The Analysis of Pigments, Paints, and Varnishes, 849
- Freundlich (Prof. H.), New Conceptions in Colloidal Chemistry, 488
- Fuchs (Dr. W.), Die Chemie des Lignins, 5
- Gmelin's Handbuch der anorganischen Chemie. Achte völlig neu bearbeitete Auflage. Herausgegeben von der Deutschen Chemischen Gesellschaft. Bearbeitet von R. J. Meyer. Unter beratender Mitwirkung von F. Peters. (1) System-Number 13: Bor. (2) System-Number 5: Fluor., 346
- Hedges (Dr. E. S.), and Dr. J. E. Myers, The Problem of Physico-Chemical Periodicity, 267
- Hinshelwood (C. N.), The Kinetics of Chemical Change in Gaseous Systems, 771
- Institut International de Chimie Solvay. Deux. Conseil de chimie tenu à Bruxelles du 16 au 24 Avril 1925. Structure et activité chimiques: Rapports et discussions, 8
- Kolthoff (Dr. I. M.), and Dr. N. H. Furman, Potentiometric Titrations: a Theoretical and Practical Treatise, 346
- Kopaczewski (W.), Les ions d'hydrogène: signification, mesure, applications, données numériques, 346
- Lewis (Prof. G. N.), The Anatomy of Science, 228
- Lorenz (Prof. R.), and Prof. W. Eitel, Pyrosol: das kolloide Phänomen in der glühend flüssigen Materie und seine Erstarrungszustände. Unter Berücksichtigung des latenten photographischen Bildes. Mar. 5, Suppt., 7
- Lowy (Prof. A.), and W. E. Baldwin, A Laboratory Book of Elementary Organic Chemistry, 777
- MacArdle (Prof. D. W.), The Use of Solvents in Synthetic Organic Chemistry, 520
- Macleod (Prof. J. J. R.), Carbohydrate Metabolism and Insulin, 229
- Martin (Dr. Geoffrey), The Modern Soap and Detergent Industry, including Glycerol Manufacture. In 3 vols. Vol. 3: The Manufacture of Glycerol, 79
- Michaelis (Prof. L.), translated by Dr. W. A. Perlzweig, Hydrogen Ion Concentration: its Significance in the Biological Sciences and Methods for its Determinations. Vol. 1: Principles of the Theory, 346
- Nernst (Prof. W.), translated by Dr. G. Barr, The New Heat Theorem: its Foundations in Theory and Experiment, 43
- Noüy (Dr. P. Lecomte du), Surface Equilibria of Biological and Organic Colloids, 523
- Organic Syntheses: an Annual Publication of Satisfactory Methods for the Preparation of Organic Chemicals, Vol. 5, 520; Vol. 6, 668
- Ostwald (Prof. Wo.), with the collaboration of Dr. P. Wolski and Dr. A. Kuhn. Translated by Dr. I. N. Kugelmass and Dr. T. K. Cleveland, Practical Colloid Chemistry, 386

- Plimmer (Prof. R. H. A.), *Practical Organic and Bio-Chemistry*. New edition, 811
- Read (Prof. J.), *A Text-Book of Organic Chemistry: Historical, Structural and Economic*, 79
- Schmidt (Prof. J.), English edition by Dr. H. G. Rule, *A Text-Book of Organic Chemistry*, 384
- Sears (Prof. G. W.), *A Systematic Qualitative Chemical Analysis: a Theoretical and Practical Study of Analytical Reactions of the More Common Ions of Inorganic Substances*. Second edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 16
- Sneed (Prof. M. C.), *General Inorganic Chemistry*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15
- Spear (R. H.), *A Junior Inorganic Chemistry*, 702
- Spoeher (H. A.), *Photosynthesis*, 808
- Thorpe (Prof. J. F.), and Prof. M. A. Whiteley, *A Student's Manual of Organic Chemical Analysis: Qualitative and Quantitative*. Reissue with Appendix on New Methods of Organic Analysis, by H. ter Meulen and J. Heslinga, Mar. 19, Suppt., 16
- Waldschmidt-Leitz (E.), *Die Enzyme: Wirkungen und Eigenschaften*, 596
- Wood (Dr. J. K.), *The Chemistry of Dyeing*, 742

Engineering:

- Beaver (Prof. J. L.), *Elements of Alternating Currents and Alternating-current Apparatus*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 18
- Bennett (Prof. E.), and Dr. H. M. Crothers, *Introductory Electrodynamics for Engineers*, 595
- Coleman (Dr. G. S.), and G. M. Flood, *Civil Engineering Specifications and Quantities*, 701
- Dickinson (R. E.), *Electric Trains*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 19
- Electrical Engineering, British Standard Glossary of Terms used in*, 230
- Ewing (Sir J. Alfred), *The Steam-Engine and other Heat-Engines*. Fourth edition, 633
- Jolley (L. B. W.), *Alternating Current Rectification and Allied Problems: a Mathematical and Practical Treatment from the Engineering View-Point*. Second edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 18
- Kersopp (J.), *The Use of Power in Colliery Working: a Treatise on Mining Costs and Machinery Designs and Management*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 19
- Kneeland (F. H.), *Getting out the Coal: Stripping, Underground Mining, Loading Machines, Roof Support*, 231
- Latham (E.), *Marine Works: a Practical Treatise for Maritime Engineers, Landowners, and Public Authorities*. Second edition, 741
- Mitchell (J.), *Shipbuilding and the Shipbuilding Industry*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 20
- Moullin (E. B.), *The Theory and Practice of Radio Frequency Measurements: a Handbook for the Laboratory and a Textbook for Advanced Students*, 155
- Pritchard (Capt. J. L.), *The Book of the Aeroplane*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 20
- Purdie (H. A.), *Electrical Contracting: a Guide and Handbook specially designed to meet the Needs of All those engaged in Business as Electrical Contractors*, 632
- Royal Engineers, *The Work of the, in the European War, 1914-1918*, Compiled by Col. G. H. Addison, *Miscellaneous*, 811
- Whitworth Book, *The*, edited by Prof. D. A. Low, 776

Geography and Travel:

- Butt-Thompson (Capt. F. W.), *Sierra Leone: its History and Tradition*, 849
- Cheesman (Major R. E.), *In Unknown Arabia*, 381
- East Africa, a New Dominion: a Crucial Experiment in Tropical Development and its Significance to the British Empire*, Major A. G. Church, 917
- Haviland (Maud S.) (Mrs. H. H. Brindley), *Forest, Steppe, and Tundra: Studies in Animal Environment*, 385
- Migeod (F. W. H.), *A View of Sierra Leone*, 849
- Practical Hints to Scientific Travellers*, edited by Prof. H. A. Brouwer. Vol. 4, 455

- Statesman's Year Book: The Statistical and Historical Annual of the States of the World for 1927*, edited by Dr. M. Epstein, 889
- Steers (J. A.), *An Introduction to the Study of Map Projections*, 888
- Survey of India, Record of the*. Vol. 20: *The War Record, 1914-1920*, 7

Geology and Mineralogy:

- Andrews (Dr. R. C.), *On the Trail of Ancient Man: a Narrative of the Field Work of the Central Asiatic Expeditions*, 521
- von Bubnoff (Prof. S.), *Geologie von Europa*. Band 1: *Einführung, Osteuropa, Baltischer Schild*, 232
- Daly (Prof. R. A.), *Our Mobile Earth*, 421
- Die Kriegsschauplätze 1914-1918 geologisch dargestellt*, Herausgegeben von Prof. J. Wisler. In 14 Heften. Heft 14: *Die Isthmuswüste und Palästina*. Von Dr. P. Range. Mit einem Beitrage von Dr. W. Hoppe: *Paläontologie und Paläogeographie der Jura- und Kreideschichten der Isthmuswüste*, Mar. 5, Suppt., 8
- Du Toit (Dr. L.), *The Geology of South Africa*, 665
- Haddock (M. H.), *The Location of Mineral Fields: Modern Procedure in the Investigation of Mineral Areas and the Subsequent Verification of their Extent, etc.*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 13
- Niggli (Prof. P.), *Lehrbuch der Mineralogie*. 1. *Allgemeine Mineralogie*. Zweite Auflage. 2. *Spezielle Mineralogie*. Unter besonderer Mithilfe von Prof. L. Weber. Zweite Auflage, 595
- Obrutschew (Prof. W. A.), *Geologie von Sibirien*, 309
- Potron (l'Abbé), *Exercices de calcul différentiel et intégral*. Premier volume: *Résumé théorique et énonces d'exercices*, Mar. 5, Suppt., 8
- Reid (Eleanor Mary), and Marjorie Elizabeth Jane Chandler, with a chapter on the Charophyta, by J. Groves, *British Museum (Natural History): Catalogue of Cainozoic Plants in the Department of Geology*. Vol. 1: *The Bembridge Flora*, 887
- Stuart (Dr. M.), *The Geology of Oil, Oil-Shale, and Coal*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 13

Mathematical and Physical Science:

- Andrade (Prof. E. N. da C.), *The Structure of the Atom*. Third edition, 554
- Baker (T. Thorne), *Wireless Pictures and Television: a Practical Description of the Telegraphy of Pictures, Photographs, and Visual Images*, 887
- Barkla (Prof. C. G.), and Dr. G. A. Carse, *Notes on Practical Physics: for Junior Students*. Second edition, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15
- Bequerel (Prof. J.), *Cours de physique à l'usage des élèves de l'enseignement supérieur et des ingénieurs*. Tome 2, 850; *L'art musical dans ses rapports avec la physique*. (Extrait du tome 2 du Cours de Physique.) Mar. 5, Suppt., 8
- Bligh (N. M.), *The Evolution and Development of the Quantum Theory*, 193
- Born (Prof. Max), *Probleme der Atomdynamik*. Erster Teil: *Die Struktur des Atoms*; Zweiter Teil: *Die Gittertheorie des festen Zustandes*, 77
- Carson (J. R.), *Electric Circuit Theory and the Operational Calculus*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 18
- Cavendish Society, *Post-Prandial Proceedings of the*. Sixth edition, 233
- Crehore (Dr. A. C.), *The Progress of Atomic Theory*, 419
- Dinsdale (A.), *Television (Seeing by Wire or Wireless)*, 887
- Du Pasquier (Prof. L.-G.), *Le calcul des probabilités: son évolution mathématique et philosophique*, 921
- Durell (C. V.), *Readable Relativity: a book for Non-Specialists*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14
- Eddington (Prof. A. S.), *The Internal Constitution of the Stars*, 111
- Eisenhart (Prof. L. P.), *Riemannian Geometry*, 117
- Euclid's Elements, The Thirteen Books of*, translated by Sir Thomas L. Heath. Second edition, revised with additions. 2 Vols., 152

Experimentalphysik, Handbuch der, Herausgegeben von W. Wien und F. Harms. Band 2: Mechanik der Massenpunkte und der Starren Körper, Prof. A. Haas, 189

Eyraud (Prof. H.), Les équations de la dynamique de l'éther, 347

Fath (Prof. E. A.), The Elements of Astronomy: a Non-Mathematical Textbook for Use as an Introduction to the subject in Colleges, Universities, etc., and for the General Reader, 593

Franck (Prof. J.), und Dr. P. Jordan, Anregung von Quantensprüngen durch Stösse, Mar. 5, Suppt., 7

Frenkel (Prof. J.), Lehrbuch der Elektrodynamik. Erster Band, 851

Geophysik, Lehrbuch der, Herausgegeben von Dr. B. Gutenberg. Lief. 1 und 2, 343

Gianfranceschi (Dr. G.), La fisica dei corpuscoli, 419

Haas (Prof. A.), Die Welt der Atome: Zehn gemeinverständliche Vorträge, 419

Hale (Dr. G. E.), Beyond the Milky Way, 888

Hess (Prof. V. F.), Die elektrische Leitfähigkeit der Atmosphäre und ihre Ursachen, Mar. 5, Suppt., 6

International Critical Tables of Numerical Data, Physics, Chemistry and Technology. Prepared under the Auspices of the International Research Council and the National Academy of Sciences by the National Research Council of the United States of America. Editor-in-Chief: Dr. E. W. Washburn. In 5 Vols. Vol. 1, 735

Kaye (Dr. G. W. C.), High Vacua, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15; and Prof. T. H. Laby, Tables of Physical and Chemical Constants; and some Mathematical Functions. Fifth edition, 193

Levi-Civita (Prof. T.), e Prof. U. Amaldi, Lezioni di meccanica razionale. Vol. secondo. Parte prima, 485

Livens (Prof. G. H.), The Theory of Electricity. Second edition, 385

Macpherson (Dr. H.), Modern Astronomy: its Rise and Progress, Mar. 19, Suppt., 13

de Montmorency (H.), From Kant to Einstein, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14

Moulton (Prof. F. R.), New Methods in Exterior Ballistics, 485

Müller-Pouillet's Lehrbuch der Physik. Elfte Auflage. Herausgegeben von A. Eucken, O. Lummer, und E. Waetzmann. In fünf Bänden. Band 2: Lehre von der strahlenden Energie (Optik). Erste Hälfte. Bearbeitet von O. Lummer. Band 3: Wärmelehre. Erste Hälfte: Physikalische, chemische und technische Thermodynamik (einschl. Wärmeleitung). Bearbeitet von A. Eucken, Mar. 5, Suppt., 6

Optical Convention: The, 1926, Catalogue of Optical and General Scientific Instruments, 383; *Proceedings of the*, 1926. 2 Parts, 383

Parsons, William, The Scientific Papers of, Third Earl of Rosse, 1800-1867, collected and republished by the Hon. Sir Charles Parsons, 627

Physik, Handbuch der, Herausgegeben von H. Geiger und K. Scheel. Band 1: Geschichte der Physik; Vorlesungstechnik, K. Scheel, 189

Proctor (Mary), Legends of the Sun and Moon, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14; The Romance of Comets, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14

Rosse, Third Earl of, The Scientific Papers of William Parsons, 1800-1867, collected and republished by the Hon. Sir Charles Parsons, 627

Snow (A. J.), Matter and Gravity in Newton's Physical Philosophy: a Study in the Natural Philosophy of Newton's Time, 454

Sommerfeld (Prof. A.), Three Lectures on Atomic Physics. Translated by Dr. H. L. Brose, 488

Steffensen (Prof. J. F.), Interpolation, 921

Stoner (Dr. E. C.), Magnetism and Atomic Structure, 809

Taylor (Prof. L. W.), W. W. Watson, and Prof. C. E. Howe, General Physics for the Laboratory, Mar. 19, Suppt., 15

Véronnet (A.), Constitution et évolution de l'univers, 850

Medical Science:

Anatomy: Descriptive and Applied, H. Gray. Twenty-third edition, edited by Prof. R. Howden. Notes on Applied Anatomy revised by J. Clay and Dr. J. D. Lickley, 921

Austin (Prof. J. H.), and Prof. G. E. Cullen, Hydrogen Ion Concentration of the Blood in Health and Disease, 742

de Beer (G. R.), The Comparative Anatomy, Histology and Development of the Pituitary Body, 420

Bernhard (Dr. O.), Light Treatment in Surgery, 701

Chandler (Dr. A. C.), Animal Parasites and Human Disease. Third edition, 885

Diet in relation to Health, The Importance of, 44

Evans (Prof. C. Lovatt), Recent Advances in Physiology. Second edition, 596

Gibson (Dr. A. G.), The Radcliffe Infirmary, Mar. 19, Suppt., 20

Kerr (Dr. J.), The Fundamentals of School Health, 269

Kilduffe (Dr. R. A.), A Manual of Clinical Laboratory Procedure: for the Use of the General Practitioner, Mar. 19, Suppt., 17

Lake (R.), Contributions to the Art and Science of Otolaryngology. Lectures and Papers, 1892-1925, 233

McKenzie (T. C.), and A. A. King, Practical Ultra-Violet Light Therapy: a Handbook for the use of Medical Practitioners, 80

Medical Report of the Hamilton Rice Seventh Expedition to the Amazon, in conjunction with the Department of Tropical Medicine of Harvard University, 1924-1925, 885

Norton (Prof. J. F.), and Prof. I. S. Falk, Laboratory Outlines in Bacteriology and Immunology, Mar. 19, Suppt., 17

Sharpey-Schafer (Sir E.), The Endocrine Organs: an Introduction to the Study of Internal Secretion. Second edition. Part 2, 420

Metallurgy:

Friend (Dr. J. Newton), Iron in Antiquity, 42

Smithells (Dr. C. J.), Tungsten: a Treatise on its Metallurgy, Properties, and Applications, 884

Meteorology:

British Rainfall, 1925: the Sixty-fifth Annual Volume of the British Rainfall Organization, 232

Defant (Prof. A.), Wetter und Wettervorhersage (Synoptische Meteorologie). Zweite Auflage, 843

Dörr (Dr. J. N.), Tafeln zur Bestimmung des Wasserdampfgehaltes der Luft mittelst eines Haarhygrometers und Thermometers gerechnet und erläutert. Anleitung zur Behandlung eines Haarhygrometers und zur Verwertung für die lokale Wettervorhersage, von Dr. A. Schlein, 116

McAdie (Prof. A.), Man and Weather, 274

Meteorology, Manual of, Vol. 1: Meteorology in History, Sir Napier Shaw, with the assistance of Elaine Austin, 915

Observatories' Year Book, The, 1923: comprising the Results obtained from Autographic Records and Eye Observations at Lerwick, Aberdeen, Eskdalemuir, Cahirciveen (Valencia Observatory), Richmond (Kew Observatory), and Benson, 663

Pick (W. H.), A Short Course in Elementary Meteorology. Second edition, 274

Miscellaneous:

Annual Register, The, A Review of Public Events at Home and Abroad for the Year 1926, edited by Dr. M. Epstein, 889

Belloc (H.), A Companion to Mr. Wells's "Outline of History," 75; Mr. Belloc still objects to Mr. Wells's "Outline of History," 75

Beresovski-Chestov (T.), Statistique intellectuelle de la France: tableaux relatifs à l'enseignement public, aux bibliothèques, aux spectacles, aux publications,

- préparés sous les auspices de l'Institut International de Coopération Intellectuelle et de l'Institut de Statistique de l'Université de Paris. Année 1923-24, 345
- Breasted (Prof. J. H.), *The Conquest of Civilisation*, 591
- Brunet (Prof. P.), *Les physiciens hollandais et la méthode expérimentale en France au XVIII^e siècle*, 812
- Buer (M. C.), *Health, Wealth, and Population in the Early Days of the Industrial Revolution*, 379
- Catlin (Prof. G. E. G.), *The Science and Method of Politics*, 519
- Fay (Erica), *A Road to Fairyland*, 313
- Gulat-Wellenburg (Dr. W. v.), *Graf Carl v. Klinckowstroem und Dr. H. Rosenbusch, Der physikalische Mediumismus*, 187
- Home Fires without Smoke: a Handbook on the Prevention of Domestic Smoke, edited by C. Elliott and Marion FitzGerald, 812
- Lindsay (K.), *Social Progress and Educational Waste: being a Study of the 'Free-Place' and Scholarship System*, 810
- Liveing (Susan), *A Nineteenth-Century Teacher: John Henry Bridges, M.B., F.R.C.P., sometime Fellow of Oriol College, Oxford, and late Medical Inspector to the Local Government Board*, 116
- Pankhurst (E. Sylvia), *Delphos: the Future of International Language*, 889
- Pownall (J. F.), *Organised Publication: a Connected Series of Proposals relating to the Publication and Record of Scientific and Technical Information*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 19
- Psychical Research, *The British Journal of*, Vol. 1, No. 5, 484
- Reymond (Prof. A.), translated by Ruth Gheury de Bray, *History of the Sciences in Greco-Roman Antiquity*, 776
- Robinson (Prof. J. H.), *The Ordeal of Civilisation: a Sketch of the Development and World-Wide Diffusion of our Present-Day Institutions and Ideas*, 591
- Salzman (L. F.), *English Life in the Middle Ages*, 275
- Scientific and Learned Societies of Great Britain and Ireland, *The Year-Book of the, Forty-third Annual Issue*, 522
- Sonnenschein (W. Swan), *The Best Books*. Third edition. Part 4, 453
- Subject Index to Periodicals, *The*, 1922. K: Science and Technology, 312
- Universities of the Empire, *The Yearbook of the*, 1927, edited by W. H. Dawson, 888
- Wells (H. G.), Mr. Belloc objects to "The Outline of History," 75
- Whetham (C. Dampier), *Politics and the Land*, 845
- Whitaker (J.), *An Almanack for the Year of Our Lord 1927: containing an Account of the Astronomical and other Phenomena, and a Vast Amount of Information respecting the Government, Finances, Population, Commerce, and General Statistics of the various Nations of the World*. Complete edition. Abridged edition, 80
- Philosophy and Psychology:**
- Barrett (Sir William), and T. Besterman, *The Divining Rod: an Experimental and Psychological Investigation*, 310
- Brown (Dr. W.), *Mind and Personality: an Essay in Psychology and Philosophy*, 630
- Campbell (Prof. C. M.), *Delusion and Belief*, 487
- Dunne (J. W.), *An Experiment with Time*, 847
- Genetic Studies of Genius, edited by L. M. Terman. 2 Vols., 695
- Miller (Dr. E.), *Types of Mind and Body*, 702
- Parsons (Sir John Herbert), *An Introduction to the Theory of Perception*, 773
- Smuts (Genl. the Rt. Hon. J. C.), *Holism and Evolution*, 307
- Streeter (Rev. Canon Burnett Hillman), *Reality: a New Correlation of Science and Religion*, 273
- Woodruff (D.), *Plato's American Republic*, 455

Technology:

- American Annual of Photography*, 1927, Vol. 41, edited by F. R. Fraprie and E. J. Wall, 80
- Barnard (J. E.), and F. V. Welch, *Practical Photo-Micrography*. Second edition, 313
- Blunt (H. S.), *Gum Arabic: with special reference to its Production in the Sudan*, Mar. 19, Suppt., 11
- Bragg (Sir William), *Old Trades and New Knowledge: Six Lectures delivered before a 'Juvenile Auditorium' at the Royal Institution, Christmas 1925*, 272
- Christy (Miller), *The Bryant and May Museum of Fire-making Appliances: Catalogue of the Exhibits*, 777
- Hall (A. J.), *Textile Bleaching, Dyeing, Printing, and Finishing Machinery*, 700
- Penrose's Annual: the Process Year Book and Review of the Graphic Arts, edited by W. Gamble. Vol. 29, 1927, 274
- Scales (Dr. F. S.), *Practical Microscopy: an Introduction to Microscopical Methods*. Third edition, 557
- Searle (A. B.), *Cement, Concrete, and Bricks*. Second edition, 455
- Rhodesia, *The Stone Age in*, Neville Jones, 226
- Rhodesian Man, *Restoration of the left innominate bone of*, W. P. Pyeraft, 836
- Riemannian Geometry, Prof. L. P. Eisenhart, 117
- Rime, *A Remarkable Deposit of*, F. J. W. Whipple, 328
- River Pollution: and Fisheries, 1; and the Acidity of Natural Waters, W. J. M. Menzies, 638; *Fundamental Problems relating to*, H. W. Harvey, 463
- Rivista di Fisica, Matematica and Scienze Naturali*, 364
- Rock: of Unknown Origin from Glacial Gravel at Ipswich, A. J. Reid Moir, 50; *Paintings from the Central Sahara*, Dr. P. Durand and L. Lavauden, 404; *-faulting from the Engineering Standpoint*, H. Briggs, 302
- Rockefeller Foundation: *Annual Report for 1925*, Dr. G. E. Vincent, 576; *Awards of Medical Fellowships*, 908
- Rocksalt, *Refractive Index of, Effect of Temperature on the*, Sir R. Robertson and Dr. J. J. Fox, 818
- Roman Lead from Folkestone and Richboro' Castle, *The Silver Contents of*, Dr. J. Newton Friend and W. E. Thorncroft, 585
- Röntgen: *Radiation of Seedlings*, E. Bersa, 222; *Spectrography of Pearls, Study of the*, J. Galibourg and F. Ryziger, 71
- Rotation of Bodies with Dielectric Surfaces in Electrostatic Fields, G. L. Addenbrooke, 389
- Rove Tunnel, *The*, 538
- Royal: Academy: of Sciences of Amsterdam, Prof. F. G. Donnan elected a member of the, 902; *The Exhibition of the*, 1927, 714; *Aeronautical Society*, Prof. L. Prandtl awarded the gold medal of the, 724; *Astronomical Society: Annual Report*, 794; *election of officers*, 292; *the gold medal of the*, awarded to Prof. F. Schlesinger, 133; *Cornwall Polytechnic Society*, *The*, 503; *Engineers, The Work of the*, in the European War, 1914-1918, compiled by Col. G. H. Addison. *Miscellaneous*, 811; *Geographical Society*, *awards of the*, 504; *Institution, election of officers*, 681; *Meteorological Society*, Sir Gilbert Walker re-elected president, 169; *Microscopical Society*, *election of officers*, 292; *Observatory, Greenwich, Annual Visitation*, 873; *retirement of Dr. A. C. D. Crommelin*, 790; *Photographic Society*, *the Progress medal of the*, awarded to G. Eastman, 133; *Scottish Museum, Exhibition of scientific research work in the Woollen and Worsted Industries*, 935; *Society Election, Selected candidates*, 335, 755; *Society of Edinburgh: award of the Makdougall-Brisbane prize to Dr. C. M. Wenyon*, and of the James Scott prize to Sir Joseph Larmor; 902; *creation of a Publications Fund*, 934; *election of fellows*, 470
- Rubber: *Electro-deposition of*: 129; *Dr. S. E. Sheppard*, 393; *Yield, Inheritance of*, R. A. Taylor, 683
- Rugosa Corals described by W. Lonsdale in Murchison's "Silurian System," *A Critical Revision of the*, W. D. Lang and S. Smith, 545

- Runge, Prof. Carl, Sir Oliver Lodge, 565
- Russia : Agricultural Map of, Prof. I. F. Makarov, 138 ; Mineral Deposits in, 368
- Russian : Academy of Sciences, Prof. A. Einstein, Mme. Curie, Prof. W. Nernst, Prof. A. A. Michelson, and Prof. M. G. Mittag-Leffler elected honorary members of the, 793 ; Exploration in Mongolia, 333 ; Lapland, The Tundra Vegetation of, Prof. R. R. Gates, 301 ; North, Exploration of the, 175 ; Work on Microbiology, 175
- Saccharin, A Study of the Determination of, A. F. Lerrigo and A. L. Williams, 546
- Saccharose, The Law of Hydrolysis of, by Acids, H. Colin and Mlle. A. Chaudin, 182
- Safety-in-Mines Research Board, The New Experimental Station of the, opening of, 942
- St. Andrews University : bequest by W. Gibson to University College, Dundee, 103 ; gifts to, 476 ; Dr. G. J. Robertson appointed lecturer in chemistry in the United College, 656, 688 ; Prof. H. J. Rose appointed to the chair of Greek in the United College, 835
- Salmon : of the River Grand Cascapedia, Canada, W. L. Calderwood, 513 ; Spey, W. J. M. Menzies, 830
- Salopian Rocks and Tectonics of the District South-west of Ruthin, The, Prof. P. G. H. Boswell, 878
- Salt in the Air, Rain, and Rivers of this Country, The Presence and Distribution of, W. Irwin, 446
- Saltern Cove Area (Torbay), The Geology of the, L. G. Annis, 545
- Sampling, A Convenient and Rapid Method of, C. E. R. Bruce and W. B. Whitney, 892
- San Andreas Rift, The, Dr. L. F. Noble, 834
- Sand-flies and Chinese Kala-azar : E. Hindle and Major W. S. Patton, 460 ; Major H. E. Short, 893
- Sanguincola, Studies on, Dr. L. Ejmsont, 580
- Santalaceæ, The Geographical Distribution of some, T. A. Sprague and V. S. Summerhayes, 945
- Sarawak, The Peoples of, Dr. A. C. Haddon, 806
- Savignano Statuette, The, R. Vaufrey, 438
- Scattering, Classical, The Limits of, P. M. S. Blackett, 657
- Schilluk : Die, Geschichte, Religion und Leben eines Niloten-Stammes. Nach P. Banholzers F.S.C. und eigenen Auszeichnungen dargestellt, F. Hofmayr, 113
- Scholes Bomb Calorimeter, The, G. Cussons, Ltd., 296
- School Health, The Fundamentals of, Dr. J. Kerr, 269
- Schools and Universities, 109
- Schrödinger's Quantum Theory, P. S. Epstein, 838
- Schröter, Carl, Festschrift, Prof. R. H. Yapp, 153
- Sciara (Diptera), Genetic Evidence of a Selective Segregation of Chromosomes in, C. W. Metz, 338
- Science : and Food Production, Sir E. J. Russell ; The Reviewer, 636 ; and Human Life, 449 ; and Pre-conceived Perfection, Prof. D. Fraser Harris, 330 ; and Psychic Behaviour, Prof. H. Levy, 484 ; and the Humanities, 454 ; and Wonderland, E. Edser, 435 ; Current, Some Comments on, Sir Oliver Lodge, 387 ; Forthcoming Books of, 441 ; in Great Britain, A Representative Body for, 341 ; in Japan, Prof. C. C. Farr, 407 ; Masters' Association, The, annual meeting of the, 102 ; Museum, South Kensington : addition to the, of part of the *Turbinia*, 935 ; Catalogue of the Collections in the, 613 ; Catalogue of the Electrical Engineering Section, 900 ; Exhibition of the Application of Science to the Wool Industry, 330 ; Popular, Essays in, Prof. J. S. Huxley, 848 ; The Anatomy of, Prof. G. N. Lewis, 228
- Sciences in Greco-Roman Antiquity, History of the, Prof. A. Reymond, translated by Ruth Gheury de Bray, 776
- Scientific : Achievement and Aptitude, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 84 ; and Industrial Research : 617 ; Committee of the Privy Council for, H. T. Tizard appointed Secretary to the, 504, 610 ; Sir Richard Glazebrook appointed a member of the, 866 ; and Learned Societies of Great Britain and Ireland, The Year-Book of the, Forty-third Annual Issue, 522 ; and Technical Books, Recent : Jan. 29, Suppt., v ; Feb. 26, Suppt., v ; April 2, Suppt., v ; April 30, Suppt., v ; May 28, Suppt., vii ; June 25, Suppt., v ; Books, Prices charged for, Prof. R. Pearl, 577 ; Discovery, An Amusing Conception of, X. Y., 14 ; Travellers, Practical Hints to, edited by Prof. H. A. Brouwer, Vol. 4, 455
- Scoria, The Granulation of, B. Bogitch, 183
- Scott, John, medal, award of the, to G. W. Elmen, 24
- Scottish : Salmon, J. M. Menzies and P. R. C. Macfarlane, 438 ; Sea Trout, G. H. Nall, 404
- Sea : Anemones, Fluorescence of, Major C. E. S. Phillips, 747 ; -level, Recent Lowering of, A. F. Buddington, 254 ; The Thermal Energy of the, The Utilisation of, G. Claude and P. Boucherot, 70 ; Water : Evaporation of, Measurement of, Prof. W. Shoulejkin, 891 ; The Transparency of, for the Extreme Ultra-violet, K. Tsukamoto, 373
- Secondary Electronic Emission, The Application of the Method of the Magnetic Spectrum to the Study of, C. F. Sharman, 34
- Secretion, The Problem of : Dr. R. H. Bowen, 30 ; Prof. J. P. Hill and Dr. J. A. Murray, 163
- Sempinacolic Transposition, The Reality of the, M. Tiffeneau and Mlle. J. Lévy, 146
- Separation and Pasteurisation, Influence of, on the Size and Distribution of, Fat Globules in Milk and Cream, Dorothy Beckett, 658
- Serpentines of the Shetland Islands, The, and the Associated Rocks and Minerals, F. C. Phillips, 836
- Serum, and the Blood Globules of the Horse, The Comparative Compressibility of the, M. Fontaine, 587
- Sewri, The Caves of, J. Ribeiro, 374
- Sex : -change in the European Oyster, Researches on, Dr. J. H. Orton, 177 ; -transformation, A Case of Partial, in Cattle, A. Calder, 946
- Sexes in Plants, Biochemical Differences between, Sophia Satina and A. F. Blakeslee, 838
- Sextic Equation, A 15-ic Resolvent of the, J. Lamb, 338
- Shark, Nematode Eggs from Skin and Gills of, G. A. MacCallum, 367
- Sharpey-Schafer (Sir E.), The Endocrine Organs : an Introduction to the Study of Internal Secretion. Second edition, Part II., 420
- Sheep, The Coat of : Prof. J. E. Duerden, 815 ; Prof. J. Cossar Ewart, 426
- Shelley Memorial Trust, A, 400
- Shilluk Begging Customs, Rev. D. S. Oyler, 651
- Shipbuilding and the Shipbuilding Industry, J. Mitchell, Mar. 19, Suppt., 20
- Ships, Ancient, G. S. Laird-Clowes, 253
- Shock-Wave following Detonation of High Explosives, The, W. Payman and W. C. F. Shepherd, 27
- Shot-hole Borer of Tea, The, F. P. Jepson and C. H. Gadd, 760
- Siberia : Prehistoric Cultures of, 367 ; The Geology of, 309 ; Zoological Exploration in, 439
- Siberian Bronze Age Cultures, M. C. Burkitt, 775
- Siberien, Geologie von, Prof. W. A. Obrutschew (Fort-schritte der Geologie und Paläontologie. Herausgegeben von Prof. W. Soergel, Heft 15), 309
- Sierra Leone : A View of, F. W. H. Migeod, 849 ; its History and Tradition, Capt. F. W. Butt-Thompson, 849
- Silica Valves, H. Morris-Airey, G. Shearing, and H. G. Hughes, 757
- Silicates : certain, The Structure of, Prof. W. L. Bragg and J. West, 412, 477 ; Researches on the, E. Cherbulez and P. Rosenberg, 587
- Silicic Acid Gel, Behaviour of, during the Drying-up Process, Dr. J. B. Firth and H. A. Fells, 84
- Silurian : Echinoidea Echinocystis and Palæodiscus, The Occurrence, Morphology, and Affinities of the, H. L. Hawkins and Miss S. M. Hampton, 689 ; Jelly Fish, A. F. Chapman, 514
- Silver : The Atomic Weight of : Prof. H. B. Baker and H. L. Riley, 348, 703 ; Prof. H. Brauner, 348, 526
- Simulium Larva, The Mechanism of the so-called ' Posterior Sucker ' of a, Dr. Sunder Lal Hora, 599
- Singapore Botanic Gardens, Guide to the, 648

- Skeletogenous Strata, Some Aspects of the Morphology and Ontogeny of the, Prof. C. G. S. de Villiers, 67
- Skilled Performances, Recent Studies of, with Reference to the Transfer of Training, Prof. T. H. Pear, 906
- Skua, Great, Protection of the, 174
- Skulls of Early Tertiary Suidæ, etc., On the, H. Pearson, 877
- Slaughtering: of Animals, Humane, Discussion on, 402; Scientific, Capt. C. W. Hume, 481
- Sliding Surfaces, 'Seizure' with, J. M. Macaulay, 425
- Small Holdings and Forestry, Lord Clinton, 175
- Smaller (Technical) Institution, Some Problems of the, Principal J. F. S. Ross, 411
- Smithsonian Institution: gift to, by F. Canu, of fossil invertebrates, 291; Report of the, 505; the botanical library of Capt. J. D. Smith deposited in the, 250
- Smut Fungi: The Physiology and Genetics of the, Hyphal Fusion, S. Dickinson, 220
- Snowdon Massif, The Geology of the, H. Williams, 33
- Soap and Detergent Industry, The Modern, including Glycerol Manufacture, Dr. G. Martin. In 3 vols. Vol. 3, 79
- Social Progress and Educational Waste: being a Study of the 'Free-Place' and Scholarship System, K. Lindsay, 810
- Sociologie: *Éléments de, textes choisis et ordonnés*, Prof. C. Bouglé et J. Raffault, Mar. 5, Suppt., 1
- Soda-lead Oxide Glasses, Properties of some, Violet Dimpleby, S. English, Prof. W. E. S. Turner, and F. Winks, 621
- Sodium: Chloride, Heat of Solution of, S. G. Lipsett, 832; in Plants, The Presence of, G. Bertrand and J. Perietzeanu, 621
- Soil Characteristics: a Field and Laboratory Guide, Prof. P. Emerson, 596
- Soils, The Soluble Silicate Content of, Dr. W. R. G. Atkins, 803
- Solar: Corona, The Forms of the, and their Origin, Dr. W. J. S. Lockyer, June 18, Suppt., 93; Eclipse: of June 29: Suggested Observations of Terrestrial Magnetism and Atmospheric Electricity, 95; Ordinance Survey Map of the, 437; The Coming, 682; Total, of May 9, 1929, Z. A. Merfield, 514; Eclipses, Total, in the British Isles, Dr. W. J. S. Lockyer, 87; Physics Observatory, Cambridge, Report of the, 25; Radiation: Dr. C. G. Abbot, 212; R. Segiguti, 366; and Athermancy, A. F. Dufton, 14; and Diathermancy, A. F. Dufton, 460; in the Lyman Region, Z. A. Merfield, 514
- Solid Fuels, Ignition Temperatures of, K. Nakamura and A. Shimomura, 215
- Solute in Liquid Mixtures, The Solution Volume of a, G. J. Burrows, 222
- Solutions of the Strong Acids, Nature of, from the Standpoint of the Salt Effect, H. M. Dawson and L. H. Angus, 35
- Somaliland, Jurassic and Eocene Echinoidea from, Ethel D. Currie, 946
- Sørensen Equation for the Isoelectric Points of Ampholytes, Development of the, W. R. Atkin, 338
- Sound: -absorption, Measuring, at Normal Incidence, On the Stationary-wave Method of, Dr. E. T. Paris, 657; in Wide Pipes, Propagation of, T. Vautier, 406
- South: Africa: Archæology in, H. Balfour, 226; Mining and other Industries in, Science in Relation to, Dr. E. T. Mellor, 67; Palæontology in, Dr. S. H. Houghton, 652; Poisonous Plants of, 580; The Geology of, Dr. A. L. Du Toit; Prof. J. W. Gregory, 665; Union of, The Chemical Service of the, Dr. St. C. O. Sinclair, 67; African: Association: The Pretoria meeting of the, 67; Prof. H. B. Fantham elected president of the, 68; Flowers, A Book of, D. Barclay, H. M. L. Bolus, and E. J. Steer, 557; Native Policy, The Need of a Scientific Basis for, J. D. R. Jones, 67; Thunderstorms, The Electric Fields of, B. F. J. Schonland and J. Craib, 260; American Indians: The Civilization of the, with special reference to Magic and Religion, Prof. R. Karsten, 921; Australia: Aborigines of, Anthropometry of the, Dr. T. D. Campbell and Dr. A. J. Lewis, 138; Coal in, 214; -eastern Union of Scientific Societies, Annual Congress, 874; -west England, A Regional Survey of, 901
- Southern Kor Alps of Styria, Geological Petrographic Researches in the, A. Kieslinger, 587
- Spahlinger's Treatment, After Results of, Dr. T. Nelson, 171
- Species, Fluctuations in the Abundance of a, considered mathematically, Dr. A. J. Lotka; Prof. V. Volterra, 11
- Specific Heats of a Sufficiently Cooled Non-condensed Phase, The, N. Perrakis, 262
- Spectroheliograph, The, and Direct Telescopic View of Solar Prominences, A. A. Buss, 780
- Spectroscopic Parallaxes, Adams, Joy, and Humason; A. V. Douglas, 331
- Spectrum Lines, Intensity of, On Measurement of, T. R. Merton, 181
- Speech and Music, Frequencies employed in, 440
- Spencer's, Herbert, Electrical Apparatus, F. W. Shurlock, 672
- Spermatogenesis in the Mouse and the Rabbit, K. Masui, 26
- Sphaeropsis Malorum*, Variation in, K. R. Mohendra, 657
- Spider, Poisoning by a, 649
- Spiders, Courtship in, W. S. Bristowe and G. H. Lockett, 294
- Spiers Memorial Fund, The, 827
- Spinning: Electron: and Wave Mechanics, E. Guth, 744; The, in Wave Mechanics, Prof. A. Carrelli, 492; Electrons, R. H. Fowler, 90
- de Spinoza: Benedictus, Prof. G. Dawes Hicks, 357; The Philosophy of, Some Aspects of, A. Wolf, 545
- Spitsbergen, The Nature and Origin of, Soil-polygons in, C. S. Elton, 181
- Spleen, A Mycosis of the, in Algeria, The Frequent Existence of, P. E. Pinoy and A. Nanta, 446
- Staining Sections in Acetone, A Method of, A. Kefalas, 260
- Standards, Bureau of, Washington, Report of the, 648
- Star: Catalogue, A New Photographic, 98; The Interior of a, Prof. S. Rosseland, 111
- Stars: Distribution of, Some Systematic Features in the, F. H. Seares, 461; Faint, Proper Motions of, Dr. W. M. Smart; Dr. H. Knox Shaw, 471; Southern Double, W. H. van den Bos, 505; The Internal Constitution of the, Prof. A. S. Eddington, 111; The Number of the, Dr. C. G. Abbot, 903; The Scintillation of the: G. Rossi, 414; at the Royal (Italian) Observatory, Campidoglio, G. Rossi, 691; The Survey of the, Dr. J. H. Jeans, 394
- Starch: Grains in Plant Cells, Various Modes of Digestion of, A. Maige, 478; on the Tables of Starch Factories, The Deposit of, P. Nottin, 514; The Hydrolysis of, by Sulphuric Acid, P. Nottin, 947
- State, The, and Industrial Research, 589
- Statesman's Year Book: The, 1927, edited by Dr. M. Epstein, 889
- Steam-engine, The, and other Heat-engines, Sir J. Alfred Ewing. Fourth edition, 633
- Steel: at Low Temperatures, Impact Tests of, R. Yamada, 215; The Penetration of Mild, by brazing Solder and other Metals, R. Genders, 584
- Steers: The Basal Metabolism of, Dr. F. G. Benedict and E. G. Ritzman, 839; The Metabolic Stimulus of Food in the Case of, Dr. F. G. Benedict and E. G. Ritzman, 839
- Stellar: Absorption Lines, The Distribution of Intensity in, Miss Payne and Dr. Shapley, 98; Parallaxes, etc., Dr. J. H. Jeans, 287
- Stimuli in Plants, Transmission of, Prof. Nigel G. Ball, 638
- Stone, The Preservation of, S. Russell, 832
- Storia della Scienza, Archivio di*, made more international, 827
- Strasbourg University, an honorary professorship conferred on Prof. G. H. F. Nuttall, 612
- 'Streaks' (*Schlieren*) in Chemical Experiments, F. Emich, 659
- Strokes in Writing, The Sequence of, C. Ainsworth Mitchell and T. J. Ward, 689
- Subject Index to Periodicals, The, 1922. K: Science and Technology, 312

- Submarine Cable, Second, connecting Canada with Australasia, E. S. Heurtly, 538
- Submergence, Local Coast, Prof. D. W. Johnson and W. E. Pratt, 175
- Sugar : Beet : 869 ; in England, G. T. Brown, 795 ; -cane Root Disease, Mollusc as agent in the, Dr. P. Bartsch and Mary E. Quick, 295
- Sugars, Rotatory Power and Structure of, C. S. Hudson, 616
- Sulphide Waters, the Decomposition of, The Influence of the Ionic Reaction on, A. Desgrez, L. Lescœur, and Mlle. S. Manjean, 182
- Sulpho-salts, Investigations on (ii.), L. Fernandes and F. Palazzo, 803
- Sulphur : Dioxide : Additive Products of, with Aromatic Hydrocarbons, Note II., F. De Carli, 374 ; and Aromatic Hydrocarbons, Additive Compounds of, F. De Carli, 222 ; Lengthened Chain Compounds of, Sir P. C. Rây, 124 ; Trioxide, Forms of, G. Oddo and A. Casalino, 508
- Sumerian Tablets, 99
- Sun : Circles in Ritual Dances, W. E. F. Macmillan, 14 ; and Moon, Legends of the, Mary Proctor, Mar. 19, Suppt., 14 ; Horizontal Diameter of the, in 1925 and 1926, G. Armellini, 690 ; the Atmosphere of the, The Fields of Force in, Dr. G. E. Hale, 708 ; The, the Earth's Atmosphere, and Radio Transmission, Prof. S. Chapman, 428
- Sun's Motion derived from Faint Stars, The, P. van de Kamp, 366
- Sunspot : Activity : 1926-27, 64 ; Activity, Recent, 759 ; A Large, 173, 903 ; and Magnetic Disturbance, Recent, 98 ; Frequencies and Terrestrial Phenomena, Prof. T. Terada, 293
- Suprarenal Capsules in Water, Fatty Acids, and Cholesterol in the Normal Guinea-pig, etc., Comparative Variations in the Content of the, L. Randoïn and Mlle. A. Michaux, 106
- Surface : Adsorption and the Velocity of Chemical Action at Gas Solid Interfaces, Dr. F. H. Constable, 445 ; Phenomena, W. Ramsden, 802 ; Tension : of Insulating Liquids submitted to the Electric Field, The, G. Bruhat and M. Pauthenier, 182 ; of Liquid Mixtures in the Neighbourhood of the Critical State, The, P. Brun, 837 ; The Variation of, with Temperature, J. E. Verschaffelt, 414 ; Waves due to Small Artificial Disturbances of the Ground, E. H. Booth, 303
- Surfaces, The Polishing of, Prof. J. Muir ; N. K. Adam, 279
- Suspensions, The Stability of (ii.), W. O. Kermack and W. T. H. Williamson, 946
- Swan, Submergence and Postural Apnœa in the, Prof. D. Noël Paton, 803
- Swansea University College, Prof. C. A. Edwards appointed principal of, 765
- Swiss Society of Natural Sciences, forthcoming annual meeting, 866
- Sydney University : Dr. P. G. Carter appointed lecturer in organic chemistry in, 656 ; The Botany School of the, 509
- Symons Memorial Lecture, Prof. G. I. Taylor, 586
- Synchronous Alternating-current Motors and Mechanical Vibrating Systems, etc., T. G. Hodgkinson, 338
- Syphilis, The Treatment of, Prof. E. E. Glynn, Dr. R. E. Roberts, and Mrs. Bigland, 65
- Tabulæ Biologicæ, Ed. W. Junk, Herausgegeben von C. Oppenheimer und L. Pincussen. Band 3, Mar. 5, Suppt., 8
- Tadpoles and Fry, Photo-reactive Behaviour in, Fed with Thyroid, E. Remotti, 107
- Tahitian Coral Reefs, Recession of the, Dr. C. Crossland, 597
- Talysh, The Flora of the, A. A. Grossheim, 213
- Tank Testing, The Value of, G. S. Baker, 296
- Tantalum, Niobium, The Analytical Chemistry of, and their Mineral Associates, W. R. Schoeller and C. Jahn, 836
- Tar-distillate Sprays, 175
- Tartaric Acid : containing Boric Acid, The Anomalous Rotatory Dispersion in the Ultra-violet of three Aqueous Solutions of, R. Descamps, 513 ; The Rotary Power of, L. Longchambon, 71
- Technical : Education : and Industry, 517 ; The Value of, H. Hall, 876 ; Institutions, Association of, Annual General Meeting, 411
- Tectonics and Petrogenesis, Prof. W. N. Benson, 761
- Teleostean Fishes, The Homologues of the Adrenal or Suprarenal Bodies in, Prof. Swale Vincent and F. R. Curtis, 83
- Telephone, The History and Development of the, Sir Oliver Lodge, 244
- Telescope : A New Reflecting, for Edinburgh, 173 ; the Magnification of a, An Empirical Rule concerning, M. Hamy, 946
- Telescopic Images, Stability of, The Interferential Study of Scintillation and the Conditions of, A. Danjon, 106
- Television : J. L. Baird, 73, 101, 161, 865 ; Dr. A. Russell, 198 ; Prof. E. Taylor Jones, 896 ; in America, 647 ; (Seeing by Wire or Wireless), A. Dinsdale, 887
- Tell el-Amarna, Excavations at, H. Frankfort, 574
- Temperature, Some Measurements of, near the Surface in Various Kinds of Soil, N. K. Johnson and E. L. Davies, 145
- Temple of Madamad near Luxor, Archæological Discoveries at the, F. Bisson de la Roche, 825
- Tennessee, Upper Cretaceous Fossils of, B. Wade, 615
- Teredo : Formation of Calcareous Tubes round the Siphons of, Dr. C. M. Yonge, 11 ; The Giant, Dr. W. T. Calman, 104
- Termites (Isoptera) from South Sea and Torres Strait Islands, G. F. Hill, 514
- Terrestrial Magnetism : Section of, of the International Union for Geodesy and Geophysics, Preliminary Report on Subjects of Investigation, 292 ; Wireless Communication and, Dr. C. Chree, 82
- Tetanus Toxin, Velocity of Flocculation and Velocity of Neutralisation of the Antitetanus Serum towards the, S. Schmidt, 910
- Texas, Two Shallow Oilfields in, Dr. A. Wade, 684
- Textile Bleaching, Dyeing, Printing, and Finishing Machinery, A. J. Hall, 700
- Theodolite, An Ancient, 652
- Thermal Energy of the Sea, The Utilisation of the, G. Claude, 106
- Thermionic : Phenomena in a Magnetic Field, The, R. Moens and H. Steffens, 414 ; Rectifiers, The Characteristics of, C. L. Fortescue, 836 ; Valves, The Saturation Current of, A. Lo Surdo, 803
- Thermodynamics, The New, 43
- "These Hundred Years," Sir Gregory Foster, 300
- Thorium-X, Influence of, on Laccase, A. Maubert, 658
- Thrust Experienced by a Cylinder of any Section in a Current of Inviscid Liquid, J. L. Synge, 658
- Thundercloud, Processes in a, Prof. C. T. R. Wilson, 502
- Thunderstorm, The Mechanism of a, Dr. G. C. Simpson, 337
- Thyroxine, Designation of, Prof. A. T. Cameron, 925
- Tiber Shad, Growth of the, U. D'Ancona, 691
- Tibet, A Crystal Mark from, H. C. Beasley, 174
- Ticks, Micro-organisms in, Dr. E. V. Cowdry, 507
- Tierwelt der Nord- und Ostsee, Die, Herausgegeben von G. Grimpe und E. Wagler. Lief. 5. Teil 9.d₁ und 12.a₁, Mar. 5, Suppt., 3
- Time : An Experiment with, J. W. Dunne, 847 ; and Perception, Prof. H. Levy, 847 ; Measurement in an Isotropic Space-frame, J. L. Synge, 658
- Tomb of the Third Dynasty found at Saqqara, C. Firth, 536
- Torpedo Boats and their Machinery, Sir John E. Thornycroft, 537
- Torsion-dynamometer, A New Recording, R. G. Parker and D. N. Jackman, 23
- Tortoiseshell Cats, Mrs. Bisbee and Miss Catherine Herdman, 795
- Tortugas, Biological Studies at the, 868
- Tourmaline, Rutile, Brookite, and Anatase in the Dartmoor Granite, The Temperature-range of Formation for, A. Brammall and H. F. Harwood, 260
- Toxicity, The Error of Determination of, J. W. Trevan, 878
- Trans-Atlantic Telephone Service to Towns outside London and American States, 172

- Transmutation: by Electronic Bombardment, Experiments to Test the Possibility of, M. W. Garrett, 260; of Elements, Some Geological Applications of, L. de Launay, 221
- Transmutations in Geology, The Possible Rôle of, L. de Launay, 182
- Transparent Microscopic Spheres, Double-image Effect in, H. S. Patterson and Prof. R. Whytlaw-Gray, 199
- Trees, The New Book of, M. Woodward, 742
- Trematodes, Anatomy of, A Simple Method of Demonstrating the, Ruth C. Bamber (Mrs. Bisbee), 766
- Trevithick and Rastriek and the Single Acting Expansive Engine, A. Titley, 208
- Tribal Dancing and Social Development, W. D. Hambly, 488
- Tribe to Empire: From, Social Organisation among Primitives and in the Ancient East, Prof. A. Moret and G. Davy, translated by V. Gordon Childe, 556
- Triewald, Martin, The Work of, A. Waerland, 23
- Trifluoroacetylacetic Acid and Ester, etc., F. Swarts, 910
- Triplets in Multiple Births, The Occurrence of, Sir George Knibbs, 303
- Tropic Seas: Byways of the, Wanderings among the Solomons and in the Malay Archipelago, H. Norden, 777
- Tropical Cyclones of the Pacific, E. V. Newnham, 218
- Trusts and National Progress, 149
- Truth or Convenience, Sir Oliver Lodge, 423
- Trypanosomiasis, The Prophylaxy of the, by Ingestion of Moranyl (309 Fournneau or 205 Bayer), C. Levaditi and A. Klarenbeek, 947
- Tuareg Tribes, Ethnology of, Prof. E. Westermarck, 551
- Tungsten: a Treatise on its Metallurgy, Properties, and Applications, Dr. C. J. Smithells; Dr. O. Rosenhain, 884; Clean, A Comparison of the Thermionic and Photoelectric Work Functions for, A. H. Warner, 731
- Tuning-forks: Electrically Driven, Distortion of Resonance Curves of, E. Mallett, 878; with Parallel Prongs: R. S. Maxwell, 124; Dr. G. E. Allan, 281
- Turbulence, Prof. G. I. Taylor (Symons Memorial Lecture), 586
- Tyndall's Experiments on Magne-crystalline Action, Sir William Bragg, 170; May 7, Suppt., 61
- Ultramicroscopic Organisms as Symbionts, Prof. U. Pierantoni, 332
- Ultra-violet: Light Therapy: Practical, a Handbook for the Use of Medical Practitioners, T. C. McKenzie and A. A. King, 80; Therapy Apparatus, Watson and Sons (Electro-Medical) Ltd., 406
- Umbria: Descrizione geologica dell', Dr. B. Lotti, 475; The Hydrography and Geology of, Dr. C. Du Riche Preller, 475
- Underground Railways of London, The Electrical Equipment of the Track on the, A. R. Cooper, 95
- l'Univers, Constitution et évolution de, A. Véronnet, 850
- Universities: and University Colleges of Great Britain and Ireland, Students from other Countries in the, 511; of the Empire, The Yearbook of the, 1927, edited by W. H. Dawson, 888; Schools and, 109
- University: *Bulletin*, April, 765; Centre in London, A, 764; College, London, The Hundredth Anniversary of, 688; College of the South-west of England, Laying of a Foundation-stone by the Prince of Wales, 944; Government with Special Reference to the University of London, T. Ll. Humberstone, 444; Grants Committee, Returns from Universities and University Colleges in Receipt of Treasury Grant, 1925-1926, 733; Lecturers, Salaries of, Prof. J. Read, 528; Statistics and Tendencies, 733; Women, International Federation of, Report of Conference at Amsterdam, 179
- Upper: Air, Thermodynamic Diagrams in the Study of the, Sir Napier Shaw, 118; Chalk, The Microscopic Characters of Certain Horizons of the, I. S. Double, 766
- Ur, Excavations at, C. L. Woolley, 611
- Ural Region, Impending Expedition to the, 436
- U.S.A.: Accredited Colleges and Universities in the, 103; Bureau of Standards, Hon. H. Hoover and others, 134; Coast and Geodetic Survey in the, 439; Geophysics in the, 941; Insect Control in the, Dr. L. O. Howard, 473; Magnetic Elements in the, 542; National Academy of Sciences, election of officers and members, 865; National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Dr. J. S. Ames elected chairman of the, 900; National Museum, New Species of Mollusca in the, the late Dr. Dall, 869; National Research Council, election of officers, 937; Statistics of Universities, etc., in the, 69; The Anti-evolution Movement in the, 863
- Uterus, The Peripheral Innervation of the, Amy M. Fleming, 946
- Vacation Courses in England and Wales, 1927, 800
- Vacuum: Flask, Early Suggestion as to the, R. Inwards, 893; Technique, Mrs. M. A. Shirmann, 66; Tube, Large, 685
- Valerolactones, a substituted, A Method of Preparation of, G. Darzens, 146
- Valve Steels, P. B. Henshaw, 616
- Vanadium and Tungsten, The Separation of, S. G. Clarke, 836
- Vanoise and of Mont-Pourri (Savoy Alps) is Permian or Carboniferous, That the Crystallophyllian Series of the, P. Termier, 621
- Vapour Pressures of Aqueous Solutions, A New Method of Determining the, Prof. R. Whytlaw-Gray and H. Whitaker, 35
- Vapours, A New Pressure-temperature Formula for, Prof. A. Batschinski, 198
- Varanus komodensis*, the 'Dragon' of Komodo Island, Dutch East Indies, 436
- Vegetable Chemistry, Comparative (xv.), J. Zellner and others, 35
- Velocity of Catalytic Gas Reactions in Closed Vessels, The Effect of the Addition of Successive Small Quantities of Poisonous Substances on the, Dr. F. H. Constable, 945
- Vertebrate Gut, Nomenclature of the, G. L. Purser, 855
- "Vestigia, or The Year's Archaeology in Pictures," 757
- Vesuvian Sublimates, New Researches on Noteworthy, G. Carobbi, 107
- Victoria, Some Early Palaeozoic Plants from, Prof. W. H. Lang and Isabel C. Cookson, 261
- Vigorous Exercise of Short Duration, Recovery from, R. M. Sargent, 144
- Virgin Islands, Physiography of the, H. A. Meyerhoff and J. F. Kemp, 214
- Viruses, Filterable, The Morphology of, J. E. Barnard, J. Smiles, and F. V. Welch, 583
- Vitality of Young Animals, E. L. W. Heck, 760
- Vitamin Assay, The Technique of, 216
- Vitamins, Fat-soluble, 787
- Vitrified Fort, A, at Dunagoil, Buteshire, L. M'Lellan Mann, 213
- Vocational Guidance and Selection, Dr. C. S. Myers, 62
- Volcanic Rocks of Central America, P. C. Putnam, 333
- Volta, Centenary of the Death of, 362
- Voltaic Cell, The Electronic Theory of the, O. M. Corbino, 622
- Vredfort and Arran, Granite Domes of, E. B. Bailey, 214
- Wales, The National Museum of, 642
- Wallis's Axiom of Parallels, Prof. M. J. M. Hill, 727
- Walrus, The, Dr. R. W. Gray, 923
- Warble-fly in Denmark, The, H. Faber, 174
- Water: -alcohol Mixtures, The Surface Tensions of, P. Brun, 622; and Industrial Development, W. D. Collins, 796; -borne Diseases, Remaining Possibilities of, 769; -finding Apparatus, Official Tests in India of, 469; -mills, Early, in relation to Changes in the Rainfall of East Kent, G. M. Meyer, 837; Vapour: in Compressed Gases, Concentration of, E. P. Bartlett, 440; in the Atmosphere, Dr. Kohler; Lieut.-Col. E. Gold, 654; The Band Spectrum of, D. Jack, 801
- Watson's Microscope Record, No. 10, 331

- Wattle Barks, Notes on. Part II., F. A. Coombs, W. McGlynn, and M. B. Welch, 303
- Wave : Mechanics : and Classical Mechanics and Electrodynamics, Prof. G. A. Schott, 820 ; and the Rotation of Homopolar Molecules, D. M. Dennison, 316 ; The Symmetrical Top in, Prof. P. Debye and C. Manneback, 83 ; Propagation in Strings with Continuous and Concentrated Loads, Dr. H. Jeffreys, 945
- Weather : and Weather Forecasting, Lieut.-Col. E. Gold, 843 ; Forecasts, Long-range : 60 ; Popular : Capt. C. J. P. Cave, 52, 167 ; Hon. Capt. R. P. Butler, 164 ; in November, The, 24
- Wellcome : Bureau of Scientific Research, etc., The, 24 ; Historical Medical Museum, The, 833
- West : Indian Stone Collars, A. D. Russell, 26 ; of Scotland Agricultural College Annual Report, 1925-26, 258
- Wetter und Wettervorhersage (Synoptische Meteorologie), Prof. A. Defant. Zweite Auflage, 843
- Whales : and Dolphins, 687 ; The Sleep of, Dr. R. W. Gray, 636
- Whaling Industry, Radio in the, 255
- 'Wheat : a Quarter of,' Meaning of, Prof. R. A. Gortner and H. J. Page, 210 ; in 3500 B.C., Prof. J. Percival, 280 ; Species, The Genetics of, Prof. R. R. Gates, 370
- Whither ?—a Footnote, C. S. S., 205
- Whitworth Book, The, Honorary Editor, Prof. D. A. Low, 776
- Wild : Birds Protection Bill, The, 501 ; -fowl of Europe, The Present Status of the, Dr. P. R. Lowe, 209 ; The Way of the, H. R. Sass, 633
- Wind : Drift, 443 ; Variation of, with Height at Melbourne when Geotropic Winds are northerly, H. M. Treloar, 838
- Winter Thunderstorms in the British Islands : S. M. Bower, 123, 837
- Wireless : Communication and Terrestrial Magnetism : Dr. C. Chree, 82 ; Dr. W. H. Eccles, 157 ; Pictures and Television : a Practical Description of the Telegraphy of Pictures, Photographs, and Visual Images, T. Thorne Baker, 887 ; Technique, The New, 155 ; Transmission and the Upper Atmosphere, Dr. E. V. Appleton, 679 ; Waves, Propagation of, Effect of a Large Number of Receiving Aerials on the, R. H. Barfield, 195
- Witchcraft : An Orthodox View of, 882 ; and Demonology, The History of, Dr. M. Summers, 882
- Wolfer's Sunspot Numbers considered as a Disturbed Periodic Series, G. U. Yule, 337
- Women : employed in Industry, The Physique of, Prof. E. P. Cathcart, 299 ; in Factories, 299
- Wood : Old, The Characterisation of, as compared with Green Wood, R. Lyon, G. Fron, and M. Fournier, 658 ; Pulp from Poplar, 869
- Wood, Trueman, Lecture, The, Dr. R. J. Tillyard, 202
- Wood's Light, The Method of applying, in Investigations on Vegetable Pathology, L. Petri, 479
- Wool-breeding Council, Appointment of a, 95
- Woolhope, The Silurian Inlier of, C. I. Gardiner and F. R. C. Reed, 585
- Wren-Ashmole-Plot Memorial Windows at Oxford, The, 798
- Xenopus, Pipa and Hymenochirus, The Comparative Anatomy of the Breast-shoulder Apparatus of the Three Aglossal Anuran Genera, C. G. S. de Villiers, 838
- X-ray : Diffraction in Liquids, Prof. C. V. Raman and C. M. Sogani, 601 ; Spectra : of the Fatty Acids and their Mixtures, The Analytical Interpretation of the, J. J. Trillat, 690 ; of the Normal Saturated Dicarboxylic Acids, etc., Distribution of Intensity in the, A. R. Normand, J. B. M. Ross, and E. Henderson, 302 ; Soft, T. H. Osgood, 817 ; Spectrometer, An Unclaimed, P. E. Klopsteg, 14 ; Spectroscopy, Dr. A. E. Lindh, 440
- X-rays : Irregular Emission of, D. Nasledow and P. Scharawsky, 508 ; on Micro-organisms, The Secondary Action of the, J. J. Trillat, 183 ; The Scattering of : Prof. P. Debye, 474 ; and the *J* phenomenon, B. L. Worsnop, 836
- Yakutsk Republic, Contributions on the Resources of the, 612
- Yeast Cells, Idophenol Oxidase of, Influence of Carbon Monoxide and Light on, D. Keilin, 670
- Yolk Formation in some Arthropods, Mian Tasdique Husain, 817
- Yorkshire Ammonites, Dr. L. F. Spath, 543
- Zeeman Effect, The, and Spherical Harmonics, Prof. C. G. Darwin, 801
- Zellteilung physiologisch betrachtet, Das Problem der, Prof. A. Gurwitsch, 556
- Zonal Aberrations, Measuring, C. Beck, 440
- 'Zoo,' The Modern : 675 ; T. H. Gillespie, 747
- Zoological : Gardens, A Public, to be formed by, G. B. Chapman, 502 ; Nomenclature : Changes in, 577 ; Consideration of Six Cases in, Dr. C. W. Stiles, 817 ; Society's : Gardens, Opening of the New Reptile House of the, 934 ; of London : Presentation of the bronze medal of the, to E. Bowman, 790 ; Progress of the, 171 ; Purchase of an Estate for a Zoological Park and Sanctuary, 468
- Zoologie : Allgemeinen, Grundriss der, für Studierende, Prof. A. Kühn. Zweite Auflage, Mar. 5, Suppt., 4 ; Handbuch der, eine Naturgeschichte der Stämme des Tierreiches. Gegründet von Prof. W. Kükenhal, Herausgegeben von Prof. T. Krumbach. Vierter Band. Erste Lief. Zweite Lief. Fünfter Band. Dritte Lief., Mar. 5, Suppt., 3
- Zoologisches Wörterbuch : Erklärung der zoologischen Fachausdrücke ; zum Gebrauch beim Studium zoologischer, anatomischer, entwicklungsgeschichtlicher und naturphilosophischer Werke, Prof. E. Bresslau und Prof. H. E. Ziegler. Dritte Auflage, 632
- Zoology : A New Approach to, 631 ; General, The Elements of, a Guide to the Study of Animal Biology, correlating Function and Structure ; with Notes on Practical Exercises, Prof. W. G. Dakin, 631

The various Supplements should be collated and bound together at the end of the volume, in front of the advertisements.

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River Pollution and Fisheries.

CONTENTS.

	PAGE
River Pollution and Fisheries	1
The Origin of Civilisation in America. By Prof. G. Elliot Smith, F.R.S.	3
Lignin and Lignification. By C. F. Cross, F.R.S.	5
War Record of the Survey of India.	7
Our Bookshelf	7
Letters to the Editor :	
The Origin of an Albino Mutation in <i>Limnaea peregra</i> . —Prof. A. E. Boycott, F.R.S., and C. Diver	9
Active Nitrogen.—Dr. R. C. Johnson	9
A Suggested Interpretation of Certain Cases of Anisogony. —R. J. Chittenden and Caroline Pellew	10
Chinese Alchemy.—Prof. J. R. Partington	11
Formation of Calcareous Tubes round the Siphons of <i>Teredo</i> .—Dr. C. M. Yonge	11
Fluctuations in the Abundance of a Species considered Mathematically.—Dr. Alfred J. Lotka ; Prof. Vito Volterra, For. Mem. R.S.	12
The Polishing of Surfaces.—F. W. Preston ; James M. Macaulay	13
Origin of Yolk in the Eggs of <i>Luciola gorhami</i> .—Prof. Vishwa Nath and Dev Raj Mehta	13
Solar Radiation and Athermancy.—A. F. Dufton	14
An Amusing Conception of Scientific Discovery.—X. Y.	14
An Unclaimed X-ray Spectrometer.—Paul E. Klopsteg	14
The Oogenesis of <i>Lumbricus</i> .—L. A. Harvey	14
‘Sun-Circles’ in Ritual Dances.—W. E. F. Macmillan	14
Regions of Compression. By Dr. J. W. Evans, F.R.S.	15
Two Oceanographical Expeditions	18
Archæology of the Channel Islands. By Dr. R. R. Marett	20
News and Views	22
Our Astronomical Column	25
Research Items	26
Perth Meeting of the Australasian Association for the Advancement of Science	28
Danish Observations of the Planet Jupiter	29
The Problem of Secretion	30
Forestry in Illinois and Great Britain	31
Bird Flight	31
University and Educational Intelligence	32
Calendar of Discovery and Invention	33
Societies and Academies	33
Diary of Societies and Conferences.	36

ANGLING in the slow-running rivers of England affords recreation for an ever-increasing number of artisans and other responsible citizens of our large industrial centres. Inexpensive opportunities of health-giving open-air amusements in the limited time they have available are becoming fewer as the population increases and greater distances have to be traversed before arriving beyond the outskirts of the cities. Since it is upon the health and contentment of the city and industrial workers that the prosperity of the country has come to rest, it has become a duty of the nation to conserve the facilities for this tranquil and pleasant pastime quite as much as to conserve the more valuable salmon and trout fisheries, all of which suffer from the effects of pollution by industrial and other effluents more and more as time goes on.

With these objects in view, the Standing Committee on River Pollution was appointed in 1921, and, with the help of local sub-committees, and a growing weight of public opinion, it has already accomplished a great deal towards checking an increase in pollution, and in some cases in ameliorating the existing conditions. The problem with which the Committee is faced is not a simple one; it is not obvious how, in many cases, an industrial effluent can be rendered harmless, or sufficiently non-toxic and clear, so as not to damage life in the river or the amenities of the country-side. Every such effluent must go somewhere or the industry be dislocated; its satisfactory treatment in the space available at reasonable cost frequently provides matter for research.

An interesting problem of the moment is the satisfactory treatment and disposal of the large volume of water used for washing and transportation in the new beet-sugar factories. This wash water, besides dirt, contains organic matter in solution and suspension

which, although comparatively harmless to fish life on leaving the factory, may become harmful owing to the development of toxic substances during the decomposition of the organic matter.

It is often easy enough to determine whether a river is polluted, but quite another matter to gauge the extent to which life in the river will be damaged. Fish utilise as food a large number of organisms, animals as well as plants. The larger animals, such as the fresh-water shrimp and insect larvæ, which serve as food for many species of fish, in turn feed on smaller animals and plants. In many cases the dependence of one on the other is direct and obvious: in others less so. The presence or absence of vegetation, even of the smallest forms such as diatoms, may play a considerable rôle in determining the conditions of life in a river, quite apart from their actual food value, since they afford harbourage to animals and assist in the self-purification of the water. Hence it is clearly not the direct physiological effect of a polluting effluent upon fish alone which has finally to be determined, but its effect, if any, upon some necessary link in the food-chain and upon the flora.

The need for the solution of problems such as these before satisfactory legislation can be introduced to cope with river pollution is obvious, and has been felt in countries other than England. In 1920 the Dutch Government established a central institute at the Hague for experimental work in connexion with waste waters generally, from which advice is now sought by local authorities administering the law against pollution of the canals and waterways, and by industrial associations seeking the most economical means of treating their effluents. In the United States many rivers are grossly polluted; for example, the river carrying the Chicago sewage is stated to be devoid of dissolved oxygen for a distance of twenty miles. There the question of rational legislation is beginning to attract attention, and many specific problems are presenting themselves. Since the laws of the country have allowed the rivers to be treated as a public sink, and in consequence vested interests in them as such have developed, it will doubtless be a difficult and very expensive task to cope with their purification.

In Great Britain numerous surveys of rivers have been carried out and local pollutions investigated during the last five years by Dr. E. C. Jee, the technical adviser to the Standing Committee on River Pollution, and by several scientific workers resident in various districts. Upon the results of this work, action has been taken in a number of cases and has led to the abatement of nuisances, and the fact that sources of pollution are being investigated at intervals and

reported upon undoubtedly acts as a deterrent against increased pollution in other cases.¹

Besides this necessary survey work and investigation of local problems, a small scientific staff at the Fisheries Experimental Station, Alresford, have begun several lines of research fundamental to a proper scientific attack of many existing problems. With the final object of undertaking a complete biological survey of a river with particular reference to the effect of various pollutions upon the normal fauna and flora, methods have been evolved which aim at providing a quantitative, or, at any rate, comparable, measure of the abundance of life in different rivers or in the same river at different times of the year. Preliminary work showed that by far the greater proportion of the animal life (in the upper waters of the Itchen) lived either on the bottom or among the weeds which clothe it; ordinary dredges did not yield a representative sample. To obtain a representative sample of the smaller animals a frame with gauze bottom containing stones, etc., similar to the river bottom, was left for a week in the river, and the organisms which had migrated into it were then picked out and counted. It is anticipated that the various methods evolved will be of service in the examinations of polluted rivers, and also that results obtained will finally provide a valuable basis for comparison.

Fish found dead are frequently posted to Alresford for examination, and as our present knowledge of fish disease is fragmentary and the fish often arrive after decomposition has commenced, giving rise to symptoms which may easily be mistaken for those produced in a fresh fish by poisoning, an attempt is being made to obtain further accurate knowledge of post-mortem conditions, particularly histological changes in the gills and alimentary canal due to poisoning.

The need for investigations of a general nature is amply borne out; the Standing Committee on River Pollution in its recent report¹ states that it is "constantly faced with the lack of scientific knowledge necessary to devise a method of dealing with a particular effluent," and advocates the appointment of sufficient technical staff to elucidate, not only in the laboratory, but also by experiments at the source of pollution, the scientific questions which at present have no answer.

The future of many rivers in Great Britain is clearly in the hands of the chemist and biologist, for it is upon accurate knowledge such as they alone can obtain that any satisfactory legislation must rest. The longer the necessary efforts to tackle the pollution

¹ "River Pollution and Fisheries. A non-technical report on the work during 1925 of the Standing Committee on River Pollution." Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, London, 1926. Price 6d.

problem in a comprehensive manner is put off, the more difficult and the more expensive will be the task and the greater the risk of failure.

To allow the serious pollution which exists at present in some British rivers to continue more or less unchecked and to grow, which it undoubtedly will tend to do as the population and industries increase, is an evil greater than can be expressed in terms of decreased monetary value of the fisheries. Increased demands on the water supply in towns and cities as they enlarge have also to be considered. From before the time of Isaac Walton the rivers of England have been part of the nation's playground, a playground put to greater use as the population becomes denser, a heritage to preserve—unpolluted.

The Origin of Civilisation in America.

La Esfinge Indiana: antiguos y nuevos aspectos del problema de los orígenes americanos. By Prof. J. Imbelloni. Pp. 399+19 plates. (Buenos Aires: Libreria "El Ateneo," 1926.) n.p.

ALTHOUGH there is no reference to W. H. Prescott in this book, its title, "The Indian Sphinx," and the author's frequent references to himself as the Oedipus who is solving the riddle, suggest that Prescott's famous book "The Conquest of Mexico," which was published in 1843, had made a stronger impression upon him than he is prepared to admit. Both in the introduction and the lengthy appendix, Prescott gave an impressive summary of the evidence which forced him to admit, although it is clear he was very reluctant to do so, "that the coincidences are sufficiently strong to authorise a belief that the civilisation of Anahuac was in some degree influenced by that of Eastern Asia." At the same time, perhaps from having read Robertson's History, he was puzzled to account for the scores of arbitrary likenesses between the customs and beliefs of ancient Mexico and Asia. Thus he wrote:

"Was it [the pre-Columbian civilisation of Mexico] indigenous? or was it borrowed in some degree from the nations in the Eastern World? If indigenous, how are we to explain the singular coincidence with the East in institutions and opinions? If Oriental, how shall we account for the great dissimilarity in language, and for the ignorance of some of the most simple and useful arts, which, once known, it would seem scarcely possible should have been forgotten? This is the riddle of the Sphinx, which no Oedipus has yet had the ingenuity to solve."

If there were any real scientific discipline in ethnology, one might have hoped that Prescott's two difficulties having now been removed by the advancement of knowledge during the intervening eighty years (which have also added a vast accumulation of evidence in

corroboration of the clear implications of the statement in "The Conquest of Mexico"), the way would be clear for the frank admission of the diffusion of culture from eastern Asia. But in ethnology emotion still counts for more than reason: or perhaps it would be more explicit to say that the Newtonian principles of inductive reasoning, by basing theories on observed facts, have not yet penetrated into the subject, which is still under the sway of the deductive methods of Descartes. For in ethnology—and Prof. Imbelloni's treatise is a conspicuous illustration of the point—the dominating principle is still to force the evidence into conformity with certain catch-phrases that are called 'natural laws,' the *idées innées* of Descartes, the *Elementargedanke* of Bastian, the universal symbols of Freud, et cetera, from which a long line of philosophers, starting with Turgot in 1751, have been striving to rescue the study of mankind and make a real science of it.

For the introduction of confusion into the fascinating problem of the origin of the pre-Columbian civilisation of America, as indeed into all ethnological doctrine, the chief blame must be attributed to Dr. William Robertson, Principal of the University of Edinburgh, whose famous "History of America" was published in 1777. He seems to have been the first to give wide currency to the Cartesian ideas that are so popular in ethnology to-day.

"When the people of Europe unexpectedly discovered a New World, removed at a vast distance from every part of the ancient continent which was then known, and filled with inhabitants whose appearance and manners differed remarkably from the rest of the human species, the question concerning their original became naturally an object of curiosity and attention. The theories and speculations of ingenious men with respect to this subject would fill many volumes: but are often so wild and chimerical that I should offer an insult to the understanding of my readers if I attempted . . . to enumerate or refute them." After mentioning some of these speculations he adds: "though they rest upon no better foundation than the casual resemblance of some customs, or the supposed affinity between a few words in their different languages, much erudition and more zeal have been employed to little purpose, in defence of the opposite systems."

Hence, without bothering to examine the evidence, the Scottish historian fell back on the device of formulating a law. "Were we to trace back the ideas of other nations to that rude state in which history first presents them to our view, we should discover a surprising resemblance in their tenets and practices; and should be convinced that, in similar circumstances, the faculties of the human mind hold nearly the same course in their progress, and arrive at almost the same conclusions."

I have made these quotations from the work of this eighteenth-century divine because they represent the stock-in-trade of those who claim the independence of American culture to-day. Hence they shed some light upon the interesting psychological problem of why theories that are in such flagrant conflict with the evidence should continue to be respected. The explanation is provided by the history of these fallacies. Although Robertson wrote his book more than twenty-five years after Turgot (who had acquired the Newtonian discipline of reasoning from Sigorgne, his teacher of mathematics), Scotland, as Buckle pointed out in his "History of Civilisation," still remained under the influence of Descartes and the deductive method. These ethnological fallacies were floating about for another century without being taken seriously, until in 1871 Sir Edward Tylor adopted them from Adolf Bastian, the arch-enemy of biological evolution, and gave them a fashionable and attractive veneer by calling them "evolution." By this strange irony more than fifty years ago, ethnology was put into the fetters of Cartesian scholasticism. These historical facts help us to understand how such a book as "The Indian Sphinx" could have been written.

The problem of the pre-Columbian civilisation of America, with which the book deals, is of crucial importance. Not only was it responsible, as I have just indicated, for shaping ethnological theory in the past, but also at the present it is the supreme test of clear thinking. It is becoming a habit on the part of those who defend the principle of the independent development (in other words, spontaneous generation) of culture, to pretend that they do not deny the reality of diffusion. But the American problem demands a plain answer to the question whether or not any cultural influence was conveyed across the Pacific Ocean during the first ten centuries of the Christian era. Did Mexico, Central America, and Peru derive the germs of their civilisation from Cambodia and Java fifteen centuries ago, or was it a wholly indigenous creation of the Maya and pre-Inca peoples? That is the clear-cut issue.

In this large treatise the various theories, ancient and modern, that relate to the origin of American civilisation are submitted to critical examination. In the first two-thirds of the book the author pours scorn on all theories of diffusion, adopting the extreme form of Bastian's theory of psychic unity. When the resemblances between cultures in different areas seem to put too great a strain on this speculation, he falls back on the biological theory of convergence. Hence it comes as a shock to the reader when on p. 279 he throws the *Elementargedanke* overboard and becomes an out-and-out diffusionist. He has no doubt that the Quechua and Aymara languages and the culture of

South America were derived from Polynesia. The magic wand that seems to have effected this wonderful transformation is the fact that the name for an 'axe' (*toki*) and the mode of fashioning the implements are essentially identical in Oceania and South America. But having convinced himself of this fact he then proceeds to discover identities in other arts, customs, beliefs, and languages, and adopts whole-heartedly the methods he has been ridiculing in the preceding 270 pages!

This admission, however, creates new difficulties for Prof. Imbelloni. If certain words in the languages of Tonga, Samoa, and Tahiti are identical with those used in Peru, much more definite affinities can be detected in the languages of Indo-China and India. The derivation of the cultures of Oceania from India is widely admitted. Hence he is committed to the linking up of pre-Columbian American culture with that of India, which in the light of recent discoveries is known to be genetically related to those of Elam, Sumer, and Egypt. These links are all now well established, as Prof. Breasted has recently pointed out.

After an incomplete survey of the discussions of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, more than a hundred pages are devoted to certain modern speculations regarding connexions between America and Mesopotamia by way of Siberia and Turkestan, in the course of which essays on the evolution of the horse and the geographical distribution of the grape vine are introduced. The author examines and severely criticises Posnansky's attempt to apply to the ancient American pyramids astronomical methods for estimating their age somewhat analogous to those used by Sir Norman Lockyer in the cases of Stonehenge and Egyptian temples. Posnansky's calculation for Tiahuanacos gives a date of A.D. 1200, which seems not unreasonable: but Imbelloni says it is based on a series of errors.

Prof. Imbelloni's most scathing denunciations, however, are reserved for Part iii. of his book, in which he pours ridicule on what he calls "the Manchester School" and upon the present reviewer in particular. The bulk of this criticism follows the lines with which readers of NATURE have been made familiar during the last fifteen years, in particular in the discussion of the conventionalised elephant-heads on the Copan stela (see NATURE, November 25 and December 16, 1925, and January 27, 1916; also the interludes by Dr. Forbes and Mr. Robson in August 2 and September 13, 1924). As Prof. Imbelloni is not acquainted with anything that I have written on these matters since 1922 (most of his knowledge of my work having been derived from Dr. Germain's review in *L'Anthropologie* of that year), I need only direct his attention to the full statement on

the elephant-problem in my book "Elephants and Ethnologists" (1924). But Prof. Imbelloni's indignation with me would be quite excusable if I had ever expressed the preposterous views he attributes to me when he says I pretend the Mayas and Peruvians came from Egypt! The confusion of race and culture vitiates in fact a large part of this entertaining book.

Prof. Imbelloni has rendered a very useful service in emphasising the remarkable identities between certain features of Mycenæan and Mexican architecture (Plate III.), Egyptian and Peruvian balsas (Plate XI.) (of which, unaware of the various memoirs I have written on ancient shipping, he seems to think I am ignorant), the monstrous figures (Plates XIV. and XV.) with projecting tongue in Italy, Polynesia, and Mexico (and he might have added India, Indo-China, and Indonesia), the wonderful terraces of the Philippines and Peru (Plate XVI.), et cetera. But it is very surprising that such striking illustrations of identity in arbitrary detail should be used as illustrations of convergence in that part of the book which is expounding the principle of the diffusion of culture from Polynesia to America.

At the present time scarcely any two believers in 'independent development' are in agreement as to the areas which are independent the one of the other. Prof. Imbelloni's book gives a new reshuffling. To illustrate the extent of these discrepancies I might mention that on the day his book came into my hands there also arrived a work by Prof. James H. Breasted, who admits the reality of diffusion from Egypt throughout the Old World, but refuses to admit any outside influence in America. Prof. Imbelloni denies diffusion in the Old World but admits that from the Pacific to America.

If we allow the negative parts of the two views to neutralise one another and admit the cases both writers have established by positive evidence, I think we shall arrive at the truth.

G. ELLIOT SMITH.

Lignin and Lignification.

Die Chemie des Lignins. Von Dr. Walter Fuchs. Pp. xi + 327. (Berlin: Julius Springer, 1926.) 18 gold marks.

THIS monograph on a subject of outstanding interest will commend itself under its sectional title to a wide circle of workers as an important and timely critical survey. The author's treatment of the matter, however, is much more comprehensive than might be inferred from the title, for it embraces the full perspective, and the work is consequently a contribution to natural history, and, beyond the phenomenal aspects of plant life, to general philosophy. The scope of the monograph, in fact, is first to set

out the very considerable chemistry of lignin resulting from the investigations of some three hundred workers whose researches are critically reviewed in the text, and then to re-examine the scientific material thus accumulated, critically selected and co-ordinated by the author, in relation to the several sections of the science of botany, systematic (classification), physiology, structure and histology, to modern conceptions of the ultimate structure of the forms of matter, to the scientific technology of industry, and thus implicitly to the philosophy of the human story, intimately inter-related as it is with that of plant life and evolution.

The philosophic note is struck early in a critical discussion of the well-known methods of identifying lignin in plant tissues, and the resulting definition of "Das genuine Lignin" as distinct from the $N-1$ lignins isolated by chemical treatment, which are either synthetic derivatives or modified forms of the actual or original lignin, the degree of change associated with the reaction mechanism of the process of separation requiring to be estimated, but necessarily by a method which is inconclusive in respect of the actual relationship. It certainly leaves undefined the mode of union of lignone to cellulose in the ligno-celluloses; and the author's treatment of this problem in the later chapters will impress upon the chemist of objective mentality the obvious but much-ignored consideration that the synthetical operations of the plant in respect of its organised cell structures are not of the order of reversible reactions of his systematic text-books.

A short outline of the work in sequence of chapters is necessary to characterise more closely its scope. Chaps. i.-iii. are concerned with (1) the identification of lignin *in situ*; (2) the isolation by various methods, direct (conversion to derivatives rendered soluble) and indirect (breakdown of associated cellulose to soluble products); (3) analysis, that is, elementary composition and estimation of 'adjective' substituting groups, and a critical comparison of the numerous 'lignins' thus separated with the genuine or ideal lignin of the organism. Chaps. iv.-vii. deal with the further special chemistry of lignin: conversion to synthetical derivation involving reactions of OH, CH=CH, CO and COOH groups, esters, ethers, halogen derivatives, condensations with phenols, reactions with oxidants and hydrogenants: hydrolyses and alkali fusions.

This *exposé* of the 'pure' or rather detached chemistry of lignin, occupying the first two hundred pages, is the author's critical digest of the literature of the subject of the period 1900-1926 (January 1), a delimitation set out in the preface. It is accurate and exhaustive of the period though not of the subject matter, for the antecedent period (1875-1900) contributed quantitative methods of fundamental value as such, but of further

import when interpreted as establishing the conception of 'ligno-cellulose' by contrast with a cellulose extrinsically 'encrusted' with lignone matter. Moreover, it was clearly indicated, both *a priori* and on exact data, that the prototypes of the ligno-celluloses are the simpler structural forms of annual growths; whereas those of perennial structures are much more complex as such and by reason of secondary interior modification and condensations. The later research work dealt with in the present volume is largely devoted to the latter more complex types, which has inevitably complicated the treatment of the subject.

To resume on the author's sequence of subject matter: in Chaps. viii.-xi. the subject is developed in terms of biochemical science and illuminated by a sustained argument which shapes the matter, treated in all its related aspects, to the satisfactory issue of converging proofs of definite theory.

The subject of these chapters is lignification as an organic process: first, in relation to systematic botany; that is, to the grades of differentiated organic structure from the Thallophytes, with the first appearance of lignification in the Pteridophytes, to the most highly elaborated Phanerogams.

Histological investigation has already recognised an ascending series of types of lignification in close correlation with the evolution of structure; but the author points the way to a positive biochemical treatment of this enormous range of material, hitherto classified certainly without direct reference to lignification. As an illustration of such biochemical method, he briefly discusses the prolonged investigations of Carl Mez, applying his sero-diagnostic processes to the exploration of generic affinities (*Bot. Arch. Königsberg, 1911 et seq.*), pointing out, however, that the method is indirect and otherwise subject to error. It is clear that the body of exact knowledge of lignin, the subject of the preceding chapters, supplies a basis of re-investigation of the vegetable kingdom, by indirect method, which he predicts will establish *Ligninbildung* as a critical index of evolutionary development; and outside this objective of science such re-investigation promises a number of collateral developments.

In the next chapter, ix., under the sub-title "Entwicklungs-Mechanik," the organic process implicitly postulated is considered in relation to its factors. Lignification is a primary vital effect, but developed paradoxically *pari passu* with loss of vitality and cessation of growth. But the author refers to a 'post-mortem' activity which supervenes, a respiratory consumption of oxygen at the expense of elaborated cell-wall material; the removal of oxygen followed by complicated condensations, yields as a final product the lignin or lignone complex. It is suggested that the

arena and basis of these transformations is the middle lamella of the cell-wall, and evidence of the contributing functions of its pectic components is afforded by the special chemistry of this group of carbohydrate derivatives established by later researches which are fully discussed.

In further development of the conception of the lignin-cellulose complex or ligno-cellulose as a biologic unity or individual, the author boldly grapples with the problem of cellulose constitution. While giving full value to chemical methods and results, attention is rather directed to the physical-biological interpretations of Röntgen spectrographs, to the ultimate configuration of an anisotropic colloid, as a 'crystallite' in evolution to organic form through micellar growth. This text definitely formulates a cellulose lattice and a penetration of the isotropic lignone so intimate as to represent a pseudomorph.

Chap. x. deals with the transformations of the ligno-celluloses and generally of cellulosic structures in fulfilment of ultimate natural functions.

In regard to lignone proper, this is characterised by its well-known extraordinary resistance to reaction, and the only change in living structures which can be traced is in contributing to the formation of phyto-melan. The enormous range of breakdown processes which result in humus, peat, and the various grades of coal, are discussed with general reference to lignin, and also the author's theoretical conceptions in the foregoing text, with reference both to cellulose, pectins and hemi-celluloses, and to the constitution of the lignone complex.

Chap. xi., under the title "Theorien über Lignin," is a concentrated summary; that is, the author's conclusions on the whole matter.

Chap. xii., and last, is particularly noteworthy. The subject is the technology of lignin and gives the author's scientific rationale of the leading industrial processes for the treatment of ligno-celluloses, such as destructive distillation, pulp manufacture by both acid and alkaline processes, partial resolution of ligno-cellulose structures (cereal straws) to serve as cattle food-stuffs, the production of sugar from wood and wood residues. Avoiding details of the manufacturing processes, the author applies his reasoned conceptions both of the proximate and of the ultimate constitution of ligno-cellulose matter to the elucidation of the reaction mechanism of the several industrial processes. This discussion has distinction as a critical illustration of the sound method of applying science to industry.

In applying, in effect, the most modern and apparently recondite principles of modern science, the text of this chapter should be extraordinarily stimulating to those engaged in industry; not merely in perfecting

routine operations but also in devising developments towards realising the progress inevitably suggested by discussion in relation to first principles.

It will be clear from the foregoing that the author has produced a work based on an unusual range of appreciative study of the sciences in their most recent developments contributing to the elucidation of the general theme, which, primarily indicated by its title, extends to the natural history of the vegetable kingdom.

We note in the text a considerable contribution of original investigations, which will probably be the subject of special publications in scientific journals. Lastly, the author is restrained in his criticisms of the researches of his fellow-workers; but a careful study of this work suggests that a notable proportion of the more speculative theories which they endeavour to establish will be excised from the student's memorabilia.

C. F. CROSS.

War Record of the Survey of India.

Record of the Survey of India. Vol. 20: *The War Record, 1914-1920*. (Published under the direction of Colonel-Commandant E. A. Tandy, R.E., Surveyor General of India.) Pp. xxv+155+27 plates +9 maps. (Dehra Dun: Survey of India, 1925.) 3 rupees; 5s. 3d.

SINCE its foundation in 1767, officers and surveyors of the Survey of India have accompanied every military expedition with which India has been connected. In order to provide a reserve of surveyors for war it has been the policy, as in most other countries, to employ army officers during peace time on the ordinary mapping of the country, so that they may be available at the outbreak of war to provide maps always required during the progress of military operations, though never so much as under the conditions which obtain to-day.

There is no essential difference between peace and war mapping except that in the former case the work is of a more deliberate character, while in war it has, of necessity, to adapt itself to the exigencies of military operations. Until the recent War, tactical topographical maps on a scale of a half or one inch to the mile sufficed, but now trench warfare imposes much larger scales. Artillery maps, also on large scales, require to be of the highest order of accuracy to be of any practical value, while accurate control is required for the location of enemy guns. These new duties have largely enhanced the importance of the surveyor's work in war.

On the outbreak of the War the Survey of India found itself in a position to provide, at once, officers and surveyors proficient in their art ready to take the

field in accordance with its long-standing traditions. As the War went on, the call for officers became so insistent for survey and other duties that of the 54 regular officers employed in the Survey of India, 49 went on active service outside India. Of these eight were killed—all officers of the Royal Engineers—and eleven wounded. Of the 44 civilian officers who took part in the War, two were killed and two wounded. In addition, five Indian surveyors and 44 *khalasis* lost their lives in the service of the Empire.

The volume before us is a record of the operations carried out by the officers and surveyors in Mesopotamia, Kurdistan, Macedonia, Arabia, Persia, Palestine, East Africa, and Afghanistan. These explorations and surveys were accomplished in face of many difficulties and in every variety of terrain, from the icy highlands of Central Asia to the waterless deserts of Persia and Arabia. The total area thus explored by members of the department, often in unknown and unmapped regions, is almost comparable to that of Europe, while trustworthy new surveys, based on fixed points, covered an area more than twice that of Great Britain. In addition to a graphic description of the adventures that befell the surveyors in many lands, there is much valuable technical information to be found in the reports as to the methods of survey adopted, suitable to the different situations which presented themselves, and as to the climatic and political difficulties encountered.

The larger portion of the volume is naturally devoted to operations in Mesopotamia and Persia, where by far the greater part of the mapping was carried out. It is a record of intense devotion to duty on the part of officers and surveyors; nor must we forget the Indian survey *khalasi*, whose devotion to duty, whether in peace or war, though occupying but a humble sphere, ranks high among the servants of Government.

A roll of honour is included, and there are a number of photographs illustrating the different types of country concerned, as well as a series of index maps showing the areas actually surveyed. On the whole, this is a most interesting history of survey in war, and its production reflects the greatest credit on all concerned.

Our Bookshelf.

A Text-Book of Inorganic Chemistry. By Prof. Dr. Fritz Ephraim. English edition by P. C. L. Thorne. Pp. xii+805. (London and Edinburgh: Gurney and Jackson, 1926.) 28s. net.

PROF. EPHRAIM has written a very modern "Text-book of Inorganic Chemistry," in which the names of Rutherford and Bohr appear in the twelfth line of the text, whilst Laue and the Braggs appear on p. 12 of

Chapter i. This preliminary chapter on atomic structure is followed by three chapters on the properties of the elements. These deal with the periodic system and with allotropy in its various forms, including the colloidal forms of the elements and the special manifestations of allotropy as they are developed in individual elements. Two general chapters are then devoted to the preparation of elements, under the convenient headings of non-metals and metals. The succeeding groups of chapters deal with halogen-compounds, oxides of hydrogen and of the metals, compounds of sulphur, selenium, and tellurium, the nitrogen, phosphorus and arsenic group, and the elements of the fourth group (with boron), whilst a final section describes "The Rare Earths, Alloys and Radioactivity."

The author set out to write an inorganic chemistry which should be as systematic and as readable as a good book on organic chemistry. He has achieved his purpose, in the first place, by assuming that his readers have already reached a stage of development at which they can safely be 'thrown in at the deep end of the bath.' His second device is to omit all systematic treatment of the metals. This makes his task an easy one, since every teacher knows that the chemistry of the non-metals is no more difficult than the chemistry of carbon, and that the memory work and the inevitable dictionary treatment of the subject begin to be troublesome only when he passes from the tiny cluster of non-metals in the top right-hand corner of the periodic table to the vast array of metals which occupy the remainder of the table. It therefore appears likely that the author will be called upon to complete his task by adding to the present volume, which is virtually a text-book of the non-metals, a further volume on the metals.

If these limitations are borne in mind, there is no doubt that a student who has already reached the standard of a pass degree, and wishes to find a suitable book to read in preparation for an honours degree, will find Prof. Ephraim's text-book extremely useful and stimulating. The translation has been issued in a luxurious style, with beautiful print and on thick white paper with ample margins. The cost of the book is therefore not excessive, but it is possible that the student might prefer a less bulky volume, issued at rather lower price.

Institut International de Chimie Solvay. Deuxième Conseil de chimie tenu à Bruxelles du 16 au 24 Avril 1925. Structure et activité chimiques: Rapports et discussions. Publiés par MM. les Secrétaires du Conseil sous les auspices de la Commission scientifique de l'Institut. Pp. xiv+672. (Paris: Gauthier-Villars et Cie, 1926.) 96 francs.

AN account of the second conference of the Institut International de Chimie Solvay, held in Brussels on April 16-24, 1925, has already appeared in these columns (May 23, 1925, p. 817). It is therefore only necessary to note briefly the publication of the official report of the conference. This includes individual reports by Sir William Hardy, Sir William Bragg, Prof. W. L. Bragg, and M. Duclaux, on the structure of primary films, of crystals, and of solid colloids, and reports by Prof. Lowry, Prof. Swarts, M. Tiffeneau, Prof. Perrin, Prof. Job, Dr. Rideal, Dr. E. F. Armstrong, Prof. Moureu, Prof. Armstrong, M. Duclaux and Prof. Euler on various

aspects of the mechanism of chemical change. These reports, with the somewhat lively discussions which followed them, make up a volume of nearly 700 pages, which will be read with interest by many of those who did not enjoy the privilege of attending the Conference. The publication of so full a report represents a vast amount of work on the part of the editors, and they are to be congratulated on the successful completion of their task. The only obvious criticism of their work is that in the index to the volume they have introduced two novel examples of multiple personality, by ascribing one report to MM. M. Eric et K. Rideal, and another to the triple authorship of MM. Thomas, Martin et Lowry.

One constructive suggestion may be made. Since the reports were first written in English or French, according to the nationality of the author, it would be a real advantage to be able to read them in the original language rather than in a necessarily imperfect translation. The printing of the final report in alternating French and English sections would surely not be a serious handicap to Belgian and French readers, whilst to English and American readers it would give a guarantee of authenticity and precision of phrasing that would be of even more value than the greater facility of reading in one's mother-tongue instead of in a foreign language.

L'Art et la religion des hommes fossiles. Par G.-H. Luquet. Pp. 231. (Paris: Masson et Cie, 1926.) 4s. 4d.

M. LUQUET is a stern critic of facile theorising, and he will have none of the wholesale application of analogies from the practices of primitive people to the interpretation of the facts of palæolithic culture unless supported by internal evidence. Witness his treatment of the theory that the figures of animals carved, engraved, and painted were designed with the object of the magical increase and control of the game supply. This, he maintains, can only be asserted when the animal is represented as smitten by the weapon of the hunter. He leans definitely, therefore, to the view that while the magic employment of art may be predicated of the Magdalenian period, it scarcely exists, if at all, in the Aurignacian period. When once the possibility of representation had been grasped, it was practised for its own sake, it was purely æsthetic, and its magical uses were secondary. In the same way he refuses to accept the grosser form of female representations as evidence of a mother goddess cult, but regards them as erotic. The group of women encircling a male figure at Cogul, usually regarded as a ceremonial dance, is discussed at some length. Every aspect of palæolithic art, the cult of the dead and religion and magic, he touches upon in similar vein. M. Luquet's treatise is, with its cold logical outlook, certainly stimulating, though not always convincing. With no desire to dogmatise, it may very fairly be said that the weight of evidence as we know it at present is in favour of the magical rather than the purely æsthetic character of primitive and prehistoric art. As a corrective, however, to over-hasty enthusiasm, M. Luquet's book should be pondered by every student of prehistoric culture.

Letters to the Editor.

[The Editor does not hold himself responsible for opinions expressed by his correspondents. Neither can he undertake to return, nor to correspond with the writers of, rejected manuscripts intended for this or any other part of NATURE. No notice is taken of anonymous communications.]

The Origin of an Albino Mutation in *Limnæa peregra*.

THE normal colour of the head, mantle, and footsole of the pond-snail *Limnæa peregra* is a yellowish grey of variable intensity which is clearly visible through the horn colour of the shell. The eyes are black. During the course of our experiments with the sinistral form of this snail (*Jour. of Genetics*, 15, 113) a new mutant has appeared in which the head, mantle, and footsole are yellow and the body has no melanin anywhere. The eyes are visible as brownish specks, contrasting with the deep black of the normal specimens. The appearance is presumably a diffraction effect of the lens, for microscopically there is in young specimens no retinal pigment, though in snails that have grown up and bred a little brown-black pigment can be seen in the retina. We call this mutant 'albino-body.'

Albino-body first appeared in a sixth generation brood from a single isolated (*i.e.* self-fertilising) normally pigmented sinistral snail (brood 1629). This brood at the time of counting consisted of 65 normally pigmented, 22 albino-body, and 74 dead, which of course could not be classified. Clearly the parent snail was heterozygous for the albino factor. This snail was one of a normally pigmented brood derived from isolated singles for three generations back. Eight pairs and seven other isolated singles were carried on from among its sisters and gave broods totalling 4859 young. In none of these 15 broods were any albinos found. Three of these broods were carried on to the next generation and 721 young obtained: again no albinos were found.

In terms of chromosomes, if isolated single (self-fertilised) snails are used, any new recessive mutation must make its presence apparent in the brood given by the first animal to contain the mutant chromosome. It seems clear, then, that the mutation occurred in one chromosome of the germ cells responsible for the parent snail of brood 1629.

Thirty-three snails from this brood were used for further breeding and gave the results set out in Table I. The albinos, as would be expected, bred pure for albinism. For the 27 pigmented snails tested as parents the expectation would be 9AA to 18Aa; the results on the most favourable basis give 10AA to 17Aa, on the least favourable, 12:15 (according to the actual composition of the pairs 7596 and 7599). The total classified young from the 12 mixed broods given by Aa parents is:

	Pigmented.	Albino.
Expectation	1825	607
	1824	608

There seems to be no differential infantile mortality, for whether the death-rate is 79 per cent. (7667) or 12 per cent. (7674) the agreement with expectation among the living remainder is equally close. Pigmented and albino snails come from the same capsule of eggs.

Accurate counts cannot be made with young that have only just hatched, but within a month or so the two types stand out remarkably clearly without any intermediates, and when spread out in the

counting-dish give an excellent ocular demonstration of the simple 3:1 ratio. The material might be

TABLE I.

Snail used as Parent.	Paired or Single.	Resultant Brood.			
		Pigmented.	Albino.	Dead.	Total.
7590 Albino	Pair	..	443	79	522
7591 "	"	..	180	190	370
7592 "	Single	Failed to breed.			
7593 "	"	..	173	142	315
7596 Pigmented	Pair	519	..	153	672
7599 "	"	370	..	16	386
7594 "	"	115	35	11	161
7595 "	"	230	82	11	323
7597 "	"	212	81	62	355
7598 "	Single	Gave mixed brood, but accurate count not made.			
7601 "	"	190	..	2	192
7602 "	"	244	..	114	358
7604 "	"	307	..	14	321
7605 "	"	311	..	83	394
7608 "	"	293	..	38	331
7609 "	"	248	..	335	583
7670 "	"	215	..	445	660
7672 "	"	210	..	684	894
7600 "	"	196	59	50	305
7603 "	"	184	64	104	352
7605 "	"	154	44	477	675
7666 "	"	131	40	18	189
7667 "	"	109	36	537	682
7671 "	"	69	21	..	90
7673 "	"	142	49	102	293
7674 "	"	218	74	40	332

useful to those engaged in demonstrating elementary Mendelism to classes. The technique of breeding the snails and counting the results is very simple, and, with only a few bottles, involves a negligible expenditure of time and money. Snails planted out in the spring will, under proper conditions, give broods that may be counted from August to November, and require no attention between planting and counting. There are large quantities of the albino strain at present available for distribution, if required. In the normal course of our experiments these will be thrown away in February.

A. E. BOYCOTT.
C. DIVER.

University College Hospital
Medical School,
Gower Street, W.C.,
November 17.

Active Nitrogen.

IN the Research Items in NATURE for September 18 and in correspondence in the issues of October 23 and November 20, attention has been directed to experimental work by Willey and Rideal (*Jour. Chem. Soc.*, July 1926) which led them to suggest that active nitrogen consists of metastable molecules having an energy of about 42,500 cal. per gm.-mol. (= about 2 volts).

Such a view is, however, difficult, if not impossible, to reconcile with spectroscopic data. Ludlam and Easson have pointed out one type of difficulty in the case of the production of such a line as that at $\lambda 2061$ in the iodine spectrum, which requires an energy of some 150,000 cal. for its excitation. In reply to this, Mr. Willey has suggested that a quasi-stable molecule may first be formed (such as N_2I_2)—presumably by impact of an active nitrogen molecule and an iodine molecule—the energy of which may be released by a second active nitrogen molecule and the total energy should be adequate to excite the iodine line. This, however, is scarcely possible, for the maximum energy which the break-up of the above semi-stable molecule could yield is that of the active nitrogen molecule

which produced its formation. When this is added to the energy of the impinging active molecule it only gives as available energy of excitation twice that of a *single* active nitrogen molecule (which would, according to Willey and Rideal, be 85,000 cal.). In practice, the energy available for exciting the iodine line will be still less by the amount required to dissociate first the iodine molecule.

As an alternative Mr. Willey suggests that the excited NO molecules which yield the β and γ groups of the afterglow spectrum may be responsible for excitation of the line. In this particular case this is just possible, although it is near the limit which these molecules can possess. The (o, o) band of the β group requires almost 6 volts for its production, and even taking the extreme case that an excited NO molecule is loaded with vibrational energy up to the point of dissociation, its available energy would be only 7.9 volts or 182,000 cal. (*vide* Birge and Sporer, *Phys. Rev.*, vol. 28, p. 283, 1926). In general, therefore, activated NO molecules cannot account for all the spectra which active nitrogen is known to be capable of exciting.

In accordance with the views expressed by Birge, Sporer, and others, it seems highly probable that active nitrogen is really atomic nitrogen, which is equivalent to an energy of 11.4 volts (= 263,000 cal.), and this appears as radiation in the ordinary process of recombination. Contrary to the implication of Mr. Willey in his letter to NATURE (November 20), this evaluation of the energy is not based primarily on the ability of active nitrogen to excite *other* spectra but on the nature of its *own* spectrum (*i.e.* the α group). The peculiar limitation of the first positive band spectrum, which it comprises, receives a natural explanation on the assumption that about 11 quanta of vibrational energy (= 2.1 volts) in addition to the 9.3 volts of electronic energy, are sufficient to effect dissociation of the N_2 molecule. Consequences which follow from this have been verified by quite different lines of experiment (*vide* Birge and Sporer, *loc. cit.*).

In explanation of their theory that active nitrogen consists of metastable molecules excited to about 2 volts, Rideal and Willey write that "to effect this excitation it appears that the molecule has to be excited to a high level (11.5 volts) but the electronic energy rapidly disappears after departure of the gas from the discharge zone. . . ." This can scarcely be the case, for 2 volts energy are inadequate to account for the afterglow spectrum (α group), more especially as we now *know* that the final electronic state of the molecule after this emission is 8.0 volts above the normal.

R. C. JOHNSON.

Department of Physics,
Queen's University of Belfast.

A Suggested Interpretation of Certain Cases of Anisogony.

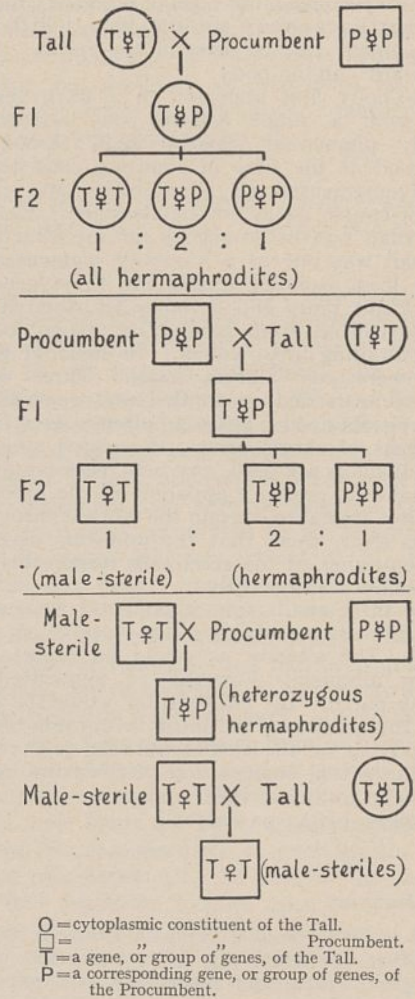
MANY cases are known in which the results of reciprocal crosses between green and variegated plants fail to agree. In all these cases the progeny reproduce the appearance of the female parent alone. Cases are also known in which a cross made one way between two true breeding green races results in variegation, whereas in the reciprocal cross the appearance of variegation is either deferred to a later generation or is absent. We know that the female contributes all, or the greater part, of the cytoplasm, and it has therefore been supposed that the cytoplasm, or its inclusions, is partly or wholly responsible for this difference in inheritance. Can this difference in the contribution of the male and

female account for the dissimilar results of reciprocal crosses in other characters than variegation?

In crosses between the Tall and Procumbent races of *Linum usitatissimum* a peculiar abnormality (male sterility) occurs in the F₂, and is inherited as a simple Mendelian recessive (Bateson and Gairdner, *Jour. of Gen.*, 11, 3, 1921). This character only appears when Procumbent is the female parent in the original cross. No male-steriles occur in F₁ or F₂ of the reciprocal cross of Tall by Procumbent. Male sterility, then, only appears when there is cytoplasmic continuity from Procumbent.

We suggest that this difference in inheritance is due to a dissimilarity in the cytoplasm of Procumbent and Tall. Individuals of the F₁, and later generations resulting from the cross of Procumbent by Tall, would have cytoplasm contributed by Procumbent, whereas the progeny of the reciprocal cross would have Tall cytoplasm. Though a particular Procumbent gene, or group of genes, reacts normally in both cytoplasm, the corresponding factor, or factors, in the Tall, when homozygous in Procumbent cytoplasm, gives rise to male-steriles.

This may be shown diagrammatically thus :



It will be noted that male-steriles crossed with the pure Tall race give only male-steriles. Hence the Tall race was considered by Dr. Bateson to be heterozygous for the element determining hermaphroditism, this element passing solely to the ovules, the pollen being devoid of it. Such phenomena of unlikeness

in the genetical constitution of pollen and ovules Dr. Bateson called anisogeny, in opposition to isogeny, the normal state in which they are equivalent. The example of anisogeny in flax he attributed to somatic segregation occurring at the formation of male and female organs. In the course of last year, however, he considered the possibility of applying a scheme similar to that above described and illustrated, but, owing to two or three inconsistencies in the experimental material, he was not wholly satisfied with it. The inconsistencies remain; but critical evidence is now available in flax, which, though incompatible with the original interpretation, is in perfect harmony with that now proposed. Additional evidence is also provided by a similar case of anisogeny in Geranium, observed here by W. C. F. Newton and Miss A. Sverdrup (unpublished).

It is perhaps needless to say that the present scheme does not apply to Matthiola, or at least does not do so in any simple form.

R. J. CHITTENDEN.
CAROLINE PELLEW.

The John Innes Horticultural Institution,
Merton, S.W.19,
October 29.

Chinese Alchemy.

It is generally agreed that chemistry had its origin about the first century A.D. at Alexandria, where the Egyptian metallurgical and technical arts combined with speculative philosophy and theosophy to form a belief in the possibility of the transmutation of metals into gold. On the conquest of Egypt by the Arabs in A.D. 640 this knowledge passed to Arabia, largely through the intermediary of Syriac translations of the Greek treatises. Arabic chemistry is not earlier than the seventh-eighth century A.D. and appears to be greatly dependent upon that borrowed from Alexandria.

Berthelot ("Archéologie et histoire des sciences," Paris, 1906) considers that Chinese alchemy was derived from the Arabs. He relies principally on a correspondence with Terrien de la Couperie, but the opinion of the latter is not quoted in detail. Since the late origin of alchemy in China which this implies is very definitely in contradiction to the Chinese accounts, Berthelot assumes that the latter are largely interpolated, and that the parts dealing with alchemy are additions made after about A.D. 700. He supports this theory by the statement that information about China is really comprised in eighteenth-century native editions of works not usually earlier than A.D. 1000, that is, after the best Arabic period.

There seems to be no evidence that Chinese alchemy is of Indian origin. The earliest treatises on alchemy in India are definitely later than the Arabic period and are probably based on Arabic sources, although if Chinese chemistry is earlier than this the possibility of Indian alchemy coming from China may be considered. Writers on Chinese science, except Giles, all claim its originality, but they do not seem to be acquainted with the activity of the school at Alexandria, and generally assume that chemistry began with the Arabs in the eighth century A.D., which was the usual idea until Berthelot's publication of the Greek treatises of the Alexandrian school, portions of which had been published by Hofer. The earliest of these are about seven hundred years before any chemistry was known to the Arabs. Giles ("Encycl. Britt." art. China) states that Chinese chemistry is of Greek origin, but the date he gives for it, about 150 B.C. (in agreement with native accounts), is much

too early for that source to be possible, unless there was a school of chemistry flourishing in Europe of which we have now no trace whatever. This is highly improbable.

The occupation of Taoist circles with the preparation of an elixir of life and the philosopher's stone is mentioned by Se-Ma-Tsien as prevalent in the reign of Wu Ti (140-86 B.C.). The accuracy of Se-Ma-Tsien seems to be unquestioned, and the account is nearly contemporary. Berthelot refers to this, but is forced to conclude that these Chinese accounts have been interpolated since A.D. 700. It is stated in Chinese sources which are available in translations that Hoi-nan-tsze was an alchemist, and a chapter of his works called "On Bodily Things" deals with alchemy. A translation of part of this has been published by de Harlez and seems to confirm this, but one cannot be sure unless the whole account is considered. Se-Ma-Tsien also reports that a magician Li Siao Kiun advised the Emperor Wu Ti to sacrifice to the alchemist's furnace so that he could call on supernatural beings who would help him to change cinnabar into gold. If the dates are authentic, this is before the earliest alchemy otherwise known.

The most celebrated Chinese alchemist is stated to have been Ko Hung or Pao Pu Tse, who lived in the fourth century A.D. This would be just about the period when the Alexandrian school was very active, and the possibility of his being influenced by it is rather important, but it is long before the Arabic period. He is said to have written a book called "Niu pien," part of which deals with alchemy. Berthelot refers to this text but doubts its authenticity. Extracts from Ko Hung are published by Edkins (*Trans. China Branch Roy. Asiatic Soc.*, Hong Kong, 1855, part 5, pp. 83-99), whose memoir is practically the only source of information on the subject, and they indicate an advanced theory and practice of alchemy.

My object in directing attention to this subject is to make it clear that any conclusions which may be drawn as to the dates of Chinese texts which are based on the belief that accounts in them of alchemy must have come from Greek or Arabic sources are highly doubtful, since the actual position is uncertain. A consideration of all the information on Chinese alchemy which is available to me in European languages has left me with the conviction that the matter is still quite open and that any other view, such as the one adopted by Berthelot, is doubtful. It is to be hoped that the attention of competent Chinese scholars may be attracted to what would be a most interesting and valuable period in the history of chemistry.

J. R. PARTINGTON.

Kingsbury Close, Kingsbury,
London, N.W.9.

Formation of Calcareous Tubes round the Siphons of *Teredo*.

At the beginning of June 1926 a quantity of wood heavily infected with *Teredo* (probably all *Teredo norvegica*), taken from the experimental rafts moored near the Plymouth breakwater, was placed in one of the tanks in the Plymouth laboratory. It was left undisturbed for almost four months, and when examined at the end of September was found covered with faecal deposits consisting of wood fragments cut away by the shell valves of *Teredo* and passed out by way of the exhalant siphons. These deposits were, on the average, rather less than half an inch thick, and when they were washed away there were revealed, projecting from the wood, great numbers of fine calcareous

tubes, which on closer examination proved to occur always in pairs and to project from the openings of the burrows formed by the shipworms. Plainly the tubes had been formed around the siphons of the *Teredo*. They were of varying length, depending presumably on the thickness of the deposits, the longest being some two-fifths of an inch. The general appearance of the wood is shown in Fig. 1.



Photo.]

[A. J. Smith.

FIG. 1.—Portion of wood badly infested with *Teredo norvegica*. The white objects are the protruding calcareous siphonal tubes which appeared after the faecal deposits had been washed off. In several cases the paired tubes can plainly be distinguished.

Normally the external openings of the tubes of *Teredo* are very difficult to distinguish, consisting of a pair of minute openings ringed with calcareous matter out of which project the siphons and within which these are immediately withdrawn on stimulation. The presence of faecal deposits, which had accumulated to an abnormal degree owing to the lack of water currents to remove them, would tend to obstruct the passage of the siphons and so endanger the life of the animals within. The response of the animals to this abnormal and dangerous state of affairs was to lay down calcareous tubes around the siphons, which by this means were able to maintain free contact with the water.

Dr. W. T. Calman has directed my attention to the fact that the giant shipworm, *Kuphus arenarius*, which lives vertically embedded in the mud of mangrove swamps in the Pacific, normally has the siphons encased in this manner, a fact which was known to Rumphius so far back as 1741, and was figured by him (as *Solen arenarius*) in his "D'Amboinsche Rariteitkamer." This animal lives normally under conditions in which the *Teredo* in the Plymouth tank lived for some four months, namely, in constant danger of being suffocated by accumulating deposits—in one case of mud, in the other of faecal matter.

This accidental production of calcareous siphonal tubes in *Teredo* is therefore of some considerable interest, since it provides a very striking case of an immediate and highly successful response by an animal to changed environmental conditions; a response, moreover, which has taken the form of a permanent adaptation in related animals living under conditions very similar to those accidentally produced.

C. M. YONGE.

Marine Biological Laboratory,
Citadel Hill, Plymouth,
November 15.

NO. 2983, VOL. 119]

Fluctuations in the Abundance of a Species considered Mathematically.

WITH regard to Prof. Volterra's interesting article, "Fluctuations in the Abundance of a Species considered Mathematically," in *NATURE* of October 16, page 558, I may be permitted to point to certain prior publications on the subject, of which Prof. Volterra seems to be unaware. The general theory as well as a number of special cases have been set forth in "Elements of Physical Biology" (published by Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore, 1925), in which work a considerable number of references to the journal literature are given. Among other things Prof. Volterra's diagram "Fig. 2" will be found on page 90 of the book cited; the expression for the period of isochronous small oscillations in the case of two species is also found on the same page. Prof. Volterra refers to certain applications of his analysis to problems of sea fisheries, to a passage in Darwin's "Origin of Species," to extinction of species, to pathogenic germs, and to parasitology. An application to sea fisheries is found in the book cited on page 95; to a passage in Herbert Spencer on page 61; to the extinction of species on pages 94, 95; to pathogenic germs on pages 77, 79, 147 *et seq.*; to parasitology on page 83.

The effect of introducing a third species into a system of two species is discussed on page 94; the effect on equilibrium of changing various factors is treated in Chap. xxii., "Displacement of Equilibrium," and, in particular, the effect on equilibrium between food and feeding species is analysed on page 289. The distinction between oscillatory and aperiodic systems, and its relation to certain quadratic forms, is referred to on pages 146, 148, and 159.

It would be gratifying if Prof. Volterra's publication should direct attention to a field and method of inquiry which apparently has hitherto passed almost unnoticed.

ALFRED J. LOTKA.

Metropolitan Life Insurance Company,
New York City, October 29.

In the above letter from Dr. Lotka, which is in accordance with our preceding correspondence, following upon the publication of my article in *NATURE*, he justly observes that he had obtained the differential equations in the case of two species, one of which feeds upon the other, that he had given, as well as myself, the same diagram of the integral, and also the period in the case of small fluctuations. In this I recognize his priority, and am sorry not to have known his work, and therefore not to have been able to mention it.

I did not even know other publications of the same kind by other authors, for example, the work of Sir Ronald Ross on malaria, which precedes the writings of Dr. Lotka, who has, however, found so many new and important results.

The other observations mentioned in the above letter refer to points which I have not treated; but as to the sea-fisheries, while I refer to the laws (which I believe to have been the first to formulate) and principally to the third law, which gives an easy way of calculating the maximum output of fisheries; he, on his part, considers the case of the addition of a third species, which seems to me a different problem.

I also think that the quotation of Darwin's acute intuition referring to my third law, and the quotation from Spencer, which touches only the principle of the existence of fluctuations, are essentially different.

I think that the study of the general case of the convivence of n different species, subject to the hypothesis which permits me to distinguish the case

of conservative association from that of dissipative association, and to obtain integrals and laws of fluctuation which form the essential and the greatest part of my memory, is absolutely new. To conclude, I recognize the existence of some common points in Dr. Lotka's work and my own, in which he has priority, but my work and his diverge in all the rest.

Working independently the one from the other, we have found some common results, and this confirms the exactitude and the interest in the position of the problem. I agree with him in his conclusions that these studies and these methods of research deserve to receive greater attention from scholars, and should give rise to important applications.

VITO VOLTERRA.

Via in Lucina, 17,
Rome, November 27.

The Polishing of Surfaces.

DR. HAMPTON of West Bromwich has directed my attention to Mr. J. M. Macaulay's letter on "The Polishing of Surfaces" in NATURE of September 4, p. 339.

In conversation with Sir Herbert Jackson, Mr. Twyman, and others, I have once or twice had occasion to point out that the energy available in practice for liquefying the surface layer of glass is many hundreds of times what is theoretically necessary. It is known that in polishing glass, the amount of glass removed corresponds to a solid layer of the order of ten wavelengths in thickness. The total quantity of heat necessary to liquefy or even vaporise a layer of this thickness is not great in comparison with the energy expended in the actual process of polishing. The figure given by Sir George Beilby of four pounds per square inch as a pressure sufficient to start flow has no significance. In the process of polishing glass on a commercial scale, pressures very much less are the rule. In the polishing of plate glass, for example, they are of the order of half a pound per square inch; in the spectacle industry they are commonly of the same order; in the optical industry the specific pressures used become greater and greater as the surface becomes smaller.

There is every reason to believe that glass will polish with the most insignificant pressures that can be attained in practice; but of course the lower the pressure the longer the time required. The coefficient of friction which Mr. Macaulay takes as 0.3 is a long way out. In polishing with felt and similar materials the coefficient ranges from about 0.85 to 1.1, and is usually taken by designers as from 0.95 to 1.0. In polishing with pitch the apparent coefficient of friction fluctuates very widely, because the film of moisture between the pitch and the glass renders the interfacial pressure itself either very great or very small according as the quantity of moisture becomes less or greater. However, whatever assumptions may be made about the pressures and coefficients of friction, it may be taken that in the polishing of large surfaces of glass about $\frac{1}{2}$ kilowatt hour is expended over a square foot of surface polished. In the optical industry, where surfaces are smaller and preliminary grinding is better, an expenditure of energy of about half this amount suffices. From this it may be calculated, I think, that the efficiency of the glass polishing operation is (on the assumption that the energy is required for liquefying a thin surface layer) not more than about one-half of one per cent.

I am not a great believer in the surface flow theory. In various papers to the Optical Society of England and elsewhere I have given reasons for believing that

whatever part surface tension effects may play, the process of polishing is at bottom primarily one of abrasion.

F. W. PRESTON.

222 E. Clay St.,
Butler, Pa., October 26.

THE practical information which Mr. Preston gives is of considerable interest and value. His observations appear, on the whole, to support the view expressed in my previous letter, that glass surfaces are actually fused in the process of polishing.

One wonders whether the conception may not approximate in some degree to Mr. Preston's belief that "the process of polishing is at bottom primarily one of abrasion." One can imagine the surface molecules in the liquid state being, so to speak, picked off by the rouge particles, thus giving, so far as the resulting debris would indicate, an abrasion effect.

JAMES M. MACAULAY.

Natural Philosophy Department,
The Royal Technical College,
Glasgow, C.I.,
November 24.

Origin of Yolk in the Eggs of *Luciola gorhami*.

THE eggs of the coleopteran fire-fly, *Luciola gorhami*, found in the plains of the Punjab, have proved to be objects of rare value for the study of the problem of the origin of yolk. There are two kinds of yolk in these eggs: albuminous and fatty. The former arises directly from nucleolar extrusions of a remarkable type. At a very early stage in the growth period the nucleolus shows signs of intense activity and buds off numerous round bodies of different sizes, which are thrown out in the cytoplasm. The nucleolus continues to throw out these extrusions until the very last stage in oogenesis. At the beginning of this process the extrusions migrate towards the periphery of the egg-cytoplasm, where they grow in size, perhaps at the expense of food materials derived from the follicle cells.

The whole process is reminiscent of what has been described in the cockroach and certain Hymenoptera by Hogben (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1920, A, and 1920, B) and in *Saccocirrus* by Gatenby (*Quart. Jour. Micr. Sci.*, 1922). Nucleolar extrusions preceding the appearance of albuminous yolk have, of course, been described in some other eggs, e.g. *Lithobius* (King, *Scient. Proc. Roy. Dub. Soc.*, 1924, and Nath, *Proc. Camb. Phil. Soc. Biol. Sci.*, 1924) and *Buthus* and *Euscorpium* (Nath, *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1925), etc., but in *Luciola* it is noteworthy that the process of nucleolar budding lasts practically throughout oogenesis, and the process of the growth of nucleolar extrusions into the albuminous yolk spheres can be studied with diagrammatic clearness.

The origin of the fatty yolk from the Golgi elements is no less clear. The latter exist in the form of rings and crescents. The rings might also be appropriately described as vacuoles (cf. 'vacuome' theory of Parat), with a sharp chromophilic rim and a central chromophobic substance (idiosome). When the solid osmicated fat spheres are decolorised in turpentine they also show a chromophilic rim and a central chromophobic substance, exactly like the Golgi rings. On further decolorisation they appear like clear vacuoles.

We emphasise this morphological similarity between the Golgi rings and the fatty yolk spheres. It seems clear that the fat spheres arise directly from the Golgi rings, in the interior of which free fat, not

miscible with the general cytoplasm, is deposited. In the undifferentiated germ cells the Golgi apparatus exists in the form of about four rings lying on the edge of the nuclear membrane, and we further emphasise the remarkable and unique fact that the Golgi rings of some germ cells are saturated with free fat long before the egg is differentiated from other cells.

A full account will be published later.

VISHWA NATH
(Bhupendra Research Laboratory,
Patiala).
DEV RAJ MEHTA
(Government College, Lahore).

October 14.

Solar Radiation and Athermancy.

THE efficacy of a material in excluding solar heat is a complex function. For practical purposes, however, athermanous materials may be graded in terms of an empirical transmission factor,

$$F = (I - R) / \{I + (I + E_2)[I / (I + E_1) + I / K]\},$$

where *K* is the conductivity (B.Th.U. per sq. ft. per degree Fahr. per hour), *E*₁ the emissivity of the inner surface, *E*₂ the emissivity of the exposed surface and *R* its reflecting power for solar radiation. Both surfaces are presumed to be in contact with air. Values for a few materials are tabulated below.

Material	Inner Surface	Exposed Surface	E ₁	E ₂	R	K	F
Metal sheet	Silvered	Silvered	0.02	0.02	0.90	large	0.05
1 in. wood	White or black paint	White paint	0.95	0.95	0.70	1.0	0.08
3 in. wood	" " "	Black paint	0.95	0.95	0.05	0.3	0.11
1 in. wood	" " "	" " "	0.95	0.95	0.05	1.0	0.24
Metal sheet	" Silvered "	Blackened	0.02	0.95	0.05	large	0.33
Metal sheet	Blackened	"	0.95	0.95	0.05	large	0.48

It would be of interest to know whether there is any anomaly in this grading.

A. F. DUFTON.

Building Research Station,
Garston, Herts, November 23.

An Amusing Conception of Scientific Discovery.

THE want of touch between politicians and science, at all events a score of years ago, is amusingly illustrated in the following extract from the official report of a speech made by the Marquis of Lincolnshire in the House of Lords on Dec. 6 last.

He was speaking on the Small Holdings and Allotments Bill, and was describing discussions which, when Minister for Agriculture in Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's Government, he had with the Prime Minister about the introduction of the Bill which emerged as the Small Holdings and Allotments Act of 1908.

The extract is as follows :—

" Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman pricked up his ears and said: 'What a curious thing it is how the same wonderful sentiments and ideas sometimes simultaneously strike the noblest minds. I will give you an instance. When I was at Cambridge in the 'fifties there was a great big hulking undergraduate at St. John's College. He must have been very clever because, going one starry night for a ramble, he looked up at the firmament on high and discovered a planet. It was a wonderful thing to do, but it was absolutely true that that man discovered a planet, and, curiously enough, that very same night an old Frenchman, squinting through an opera glass or a telescope or

something of that sort, discovered it too.' And that, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman said, was a very wonderful development and almost a precursor of the *entente cordiale*."

It required an effort, at all events on the part of one reader, to recognise this highly original account of the simultaneous discovery of Neptune by Adams and Le Verrier in 1846.

X. Y.

December 13.

An Unclaimed X-ray Spectrometer.

IN the hope that we may be able to restore a piece of lost property to its owner, we would greatly appreciate the publication of the following facts.

Recently the New York Central Railroad had an auction sale of unclaimed baggage. One of the pieces of baggage contained what appears to be a simple X-ray spectrometer with a fluorescent scale for visual observation. The purchaser brought the apparatus to us for identification, and he is willing to restore it to its owner if we can locate him.

The instrument was sent as baggage on the New York Central Railroad from Albany, N.Y., to Chicago, where it arrived at 10.00 A.M. on October 21, 1924, presumably on the Twentieth Century Limited. The date makes it appear possible that the apparatus may have belonged to someone who attended the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science in Toronto. The instrument was manufactured by Schall and Son, of London.

Inquiries should be directed to the undersigned, who will take the necessary steps to have the instrument returned to its owner.

PAUL E. KLOPSTEG.

Central Scientific Co., Chicago,
Illinois (U.S.A.).

The Oogenesis of Lumbricus.

I FEEL compelled, much against my own and Prof. Gatenby's feelings, to reply to his letter in NATURE of December 11. In the first place, I do not quote in my bibliography papers which I have not carefully read. In the second place, I have read the papers on yolk formation which Prof. Gatenby recommends. Hence my desire for an attempt at co-ordination of the divergent observations on this phenomenon in oogenesis. Lastly, may I record my agreement with him on the subject of Parat's work? I think his evidence is very strong, yet, at the same time, I would prefer to "add facts" and "avoid discussion" of work which is even yet in its infancy.

L. A. HARVEY.

University of Edinburgh,
December 15.

'Sun Circles' in Ritual Dances.

IN connexion with Miss Violet Alford's lecture on ritual dances, reported in NATURE of December 4, it would be interesting to know whether anthropologists familiar with ritual dances among tribes of the southern hemisphere, for example, the Australians, have noted in these the practice of dancing 'sun circles' in the reverse direction, which we should call 'widdershins.' As the apparent path of the sun in the southern hemisphere runs in the contrary direction to its path in our hemisphere, that is, from east through north to west, sun circles should surely be danced in this direction also.

W. E. F. MACMILLAN.

42 Onslow Square, London, S.W.,
December 6.

Regions of Compression.¹

By Dr. J. W. EVANS, F.R.S.

I.

IT is usual to contrast the horizontal forces acting on the earth's crust with those that are vertical and to regard the latter as more fundamental and important. This attitude is apt to be misleading, although it rests on a foundation of fact, if it be true, as is generally believed, that most horizontal forces are ultimately to be attributed to the contraction on cooling of the earth's interior, which lets down the crust so that it has to accommodate itself to an area less extensive than that which it previously occupied.

The discovery, however, of the release of energy in the course of the atomic degradation of uranium and thorium and their products caused a reconsideration of the question. It is true that the amount of radioactive materials diminishes as the basicity of the rock increases, and there is every reason to believe that the deeper rocks are more basic than those nearer the surface, but it is contended that, even if this be allowed for, the energy given out by them in their disintegration, converted into heat, would cause a rise instead of a fall in the earth's temperature. Prof. John Joly believes that this has in the past led to catastrophic developments characterised by great outpourings of lava. But, although the whole of the energy given out by radioactive elements, when isolated, is converted into heat, it is probable that a considerable proportion of the energy liberated by such elements, when they occur as rock-constituents, is used up in effecting physical, chemical, or atomic changes in the surrounding minerals.

That much of the radioactive energy set free in the disintegration of radium and thorium is absorbed in other ways than in raising the temperature of the rocks is clearly shown by the formation in certain circumstances of 'pleochroic haloes' round radioactive minerals. This occurs especially in the case of zircon embedded in biotite mica. Such a halo is a sphere with a radius of about 30 microns, and has a minute zircon at the centre. It is of a darker and a deeper brown and far more pleochroic than the rest of the mica. The difference is usually assumed to be the result of ionisation by the radiations from uranium and thorium contained in the zircon. The possibility of atomic changes under the influence of the α rays must, however, not be ignored.

The formation of the haloes must involve a considerable absorption of energy, the magnitude of which will be realised when it is remembered that the mass of the halo may be some 15,000 times that of the zircon at its centre, and more than 300,000 times that of the uranium and thorium to which the halo owes its existence. Nor is it probable that this absorption is confined to the pleochroic haloes.

It is, therefore, doubtful whether there is any considerable excess of radioactive energy available for raising the temperature of the earth.

The zone in which appreciable cooling takes place must extend over only a small fraction of the earth's radius, and the question arises whether the contraction

from cooling in this zone is sufficient to account for the folding that we know to have taken place.

Dr. H. Jeffreys estimates that the actual crumpling and overthrusting observed in the principal mountain-chains of the earth has resulted in a decrease in the area of its surface of 2,000,000 square kilometres. At the same time, he calculates that the cooling that is taking place in the earth's interior will, on the basis of the observed coefficient of expansion of the rocks of the earth's crust, result in a decrease in the area of the surface amounting to rather more than 4,000,000 square kilometres.

Now, the folding of the mountain ranges included in this calculation by no means represents the whole of the folding to which the earth's crust has been subjected. Many folded areas are no longer mountainous. They are the sites of ancient ranges which have since been planed down.

It is, therefore, probable that the contraction to which the folds and overthrusts bear witness exceeds that which Dr. Jeffreys believes to have resulted from the cooling of the earth's interior. There is, however, little doubt that far greater contraction has taken place.

The sedimentary and the acid igneous rocks of the continents, which constitute the sial, are apparently underlain, at a depth variously estimated at from 100 to 15 km. by the sima: that is to say, basic and ultrabasic crystalline rocks, or magmas of similar composition, except that they contain water and other volatile constituents.

Dr. Jeffreys bases his calculations of the amount of contraction on the coefficient of expansion of specimens of crystallised rocks which have, of course, lost most of the volatile constituents that they possessed when in the state of uncrystallised magma. Yet, judging from the amounts given off in the course of volcanic eruptions, such as those of Hawaii, volatile substances must form an important proportion of even a basic magma, which will accordingly have a much higher coefficient of expansion than the crystallised rock.

Dr. Jeffreys calculates, however, that the sima is crystalline down to a depth of more than 600 kilometres. This is because he takes the crystallisation point of a basaltic magma under atmospheric pressure at 1200° C. and that of a peridotite at 1400° C. These, however, are the temperatures at which the crystallised rocks that have lost their volatile constituents can be remelted. We know from the observations of T. A. Jagger that the basaltic magma at Kilauea, which retains some, though by no means all, of its volatile constituents, remains fluid at 750° C. It is true that he assumes that the magma was supercooled, but there is no evidence of this. There can be no doubt that the crystallisation point of a basalt- or even a peridotite-magma retaining its volatile constituents would be considerably less than that at which the crystallised rock can be remelted.

It is also assumed by Dr. Jeffreys that the crystallisation point is raised by 3° C. for every additional kilometre of depth, on account of the increase of pressure. This is a fair estimate of the rate of increase of the crystallisation temperature with increase of pressure

¹ From the presidential address delivered to the Geological Society of London on February 19, 1926. A large portion of the address in which illustrations are drawn from the Hercynian, Wealden, and Alpine folding, and all references, are here omitted.

near the surface; but P. W. Bridgeman has shown that the rate of increase diminishes rapidly as the pressure increases.

Allowing, then, for the fact that the temperature of crystallisation of a basaltic magma at the surface is much less than that assumed by Dr. Jeffreys, and for the lower rate of increase of the temperature of crystallisation with increasing pressures at great depths, there seems every reason to believe that a considerable portion of the cooling zone is in a non-crystalline condition, that it still contains a large proportion of volatile constituents, and that it has therefore presumably a higher coefficient of expansion than solid basalt. Nor would the substitution of a peridotite-magma, which Dr. A. Holmes believes to underlie the basalt-magma at a depth of 45 km., make any important difference.

It must be remembered, however, that, on one hand, the coefficient of expansion of all substances shows a marked increase with increased temperature, and, on the other, it diminishes with increase of pressure.

Unfortunately, we are without precise information as to the physical properties of magmas and still less as to the variations of these properties with changes of temperature and pressure. There is no insuperable obstacle to the determination of these data at temperatures and pressures up to those found at depths of about 35 miles (say, 56 km.), and they may reasonably be extended to considerably greater depths by extrapolation. In the meantime many of the problems that present themselves in geophysical research cannot be solved with any approach to certainty. It is earnestly to be hoped that a serious attempt to obtain the necessary data will be made.

There is another important consideration. In some part at least of the zone of cooling, amorphous magmatic material is passing into the crystalline state, not only as a result of the loss of heat, but also in places on account of the loss of volatile constituents. The process of crystallisation is accompanied by very considerable contraction in the case of all or nearly all silicates and mixtures of silicates, a contraction equivalent to that resulting from cooling through hundreds of degrees, whether in the amorphous or in the crystalline state.

Dr. J. A. Douglas has experimented on the increase in volume when crystalline rocks are melted and allowed to cool rapidly so as to consolidate without crystallising. The following were the results obtained with basic crystalline rocks, the composition of which approximated to that of the sima:

Name and locality of rock.	Sp.g. before melting.	Sp.g. of glass.	Percentage of defect of volume in the crystalline state compared with that of the glass.
Gabbro (Carrock Fell)	2.940	2.791	5.07
Olivine-dolerite (Clee Hills)	2.889	2.775	3.95
Dolerite (Rowley Rag)	2.800	2.640	5.71
Dolerite (Whin Sill)	2.925	2.800	4.27
Average			4.75

The fourth column must represent the contraction which a glass of the same composition as the rock would undergo in crystallising. This contraction may be

compared with that which would have taken place as a result of simple cooling in the crystalline state.

According to Prof. F. D. Adams, the cooling at a depth of 50 km. has been from about 1450° C. to 950° C. If, like Dr. Jeffreys, we adopt Fizeau's formula for the variation of the volume of rocks, with temperature, namely, $V_t = V_0(1 + et + e't^2)$, where V_0 is the volume at 0° C., V_t that at t ° C., $e = 7 \times 10^{-6}$, and $e' = 2.4 \times 10^{-8}$, we find that a cubic centimetre of basic rock at 0° C. will have a volume of 1.0606 c.c. at 1450° C., and 1.0283 at 950°. The contraction in cooling from the former to the latter temperature would accordingly amount to 3.05 per cent. of the volume at the higher temperature, about 62 per cent. of the contraction in crystallisation from a melt without volatile constituents. At a depth of 100 km. the cooling is estimated to have been from about 1770° C. to about 1290° C., corresponding to a decrease in volume from 1.08756 c.c. to 1.04897 c.c., a decrease of 3.55 per cent. At 200 km. the cooling is estimated to have been from about 2200° C. to 1900° C. with a decrease from 1.1316 c.c. to 1.0994 c.c., equal to 2.84 per cent. It is evident, therefore, that the contraction on crystallisation would, even apart from the presence of volatile constituents, be much greater than from the simple cooling of crystalline material.

The steam and other volatile substances, however, are eliminated on crystallisation; consequently, the decrease in volume will be far greater than that on crystallisation from a magma without volatile constituents. The volatile constituents may afterwards occupy for a time cavities, large or small, in the consolidated rock or elsewhere in the earth's crust; but by far the greater part will sooner or later escape into the atmosphere, with a corresponding decrease of bulk of the solid earth as a whole.² The expulsion of volcanic materials will naturally have a similar effect.

Contraction will also occur on a change of crystalline state from lighter to denser minerals of similar composition, and not improbably on a transformation of elements into others of less atomic volume. Both these changes may be determined by the heavy pressure of the earth's interior. It is, however, probable that most of such possible changes took place early in the world's history. It is only where the pressure has for some special reason been increased or where directed pressure (shearing stress) has intervened, that such changes may be expected to have occurred during the geological time of which we have any record in the rocks.

There is, nevertheless, one change in the terrestrial conditions which will result in a general and progressive increase in pressure, and thus cause an equally general contraction. The acceleration of the moon's position in the heavens is usually considered to be in great part attributable to the slowing down of the earth's rotation. This will result in a decrease in the centrifugal force, with a consequent increase of pressure in the interior of the earth and a corresponding contraction in its volume. These effects have been calculated by R. Stonely, who arrives at the conclusion that "diminishing rotation is a much less potent cause of the elevation of mountains than is cooling, but that it is sufficiently important to be considered as a large correction to the cooling theory."

² The latent heat evolved on crystallisation and changes in crystal structure must delay the processes of cooling and crystallisation, while that absorbed on the expansion of volatile constituents will accelerate them.

As I showed in my previous address, there are at least two opposing influences tending to modify the length of the day: the progressive contraction of the earth accelerating the angular velocity, and the tidal friction producing a contrary effect. At present, the latter seems to be more powerful; but it is possible that in the past the reverse has been the case, especially in the early stages of the earth's existence.

All the processes which have been considered will result in direct primary movement downwards towards the centre of the earth; but, on account of the fundamentally homogeneous character of the earth's material at deep levels (shown by the close similarity of the transmission of earthquake waves in different areas), the subsidence from this cause must everywhere be nearly the same, and will rarely result directly in appreciable differential vertical movements of the earth's crust.

There are, on the other hand, processes by which the surface of the earth's crust may locally be permanently extended. This can happen in regions of tension in two different ways. In the first place, temporary rifts, often of considerable size, may be filled by igneous magmas which afterwards consolidate, and by broken material from the sides and the neighbourhood. In the next place, movements of extension occur along the planes of normal faults. When, later, a period of compression supervenes, such movements will not be reversed unless the hade, the deviation from the vertical, is very great, that is to say, well over 45° ; otherwise, the pressure at right angles to the fault-plane will increase the friction so much that movement will be impossible. The surface of the crust may also be increased by hydration, especially in the case of igneous rocks. These extensions of the earth's crust must in the long run tend to produce effects in the way of folding and thrusting similar to those resulting from the contraction of the interior.

There are other forces operating on the earth's crust, besides those due to the excess of the area of the crust over that of the surface of the interior, that must tend to produce horizontal movements.

In the first place, a slowing-down in the earth's rotation will be accompanied by a consequent change in the form of the solid earth, which on a large scale adjusts itself to the forces operating on it, but of course not so rapidly as do the aqueous and gaseous envelopes, though geologically the time required is relatively short.

Such a reduction of the rate of rotation of the earth will result in a decrease in the equatorial diameter and in an increase in the polar diameter, involving a movement in the substance of the earth. This will consist in a flow, at all levels, from the equatorial plane towards the poles, combined with a slight downward movement near the equator and a slight upward movement near the poles. The circumference at the equator will contract, but one must not expect contraction which is common to the surface and to all depths to have the same effect as a contraction affecting a portion of the interior, and not the exterior; and, as a matter of fact, there are no north-and-south folded mountains that can reasonably be considered to have been formed in this way. The crust at the equator would, therefore, seem not to have been folded from this cause, but to have been distorted horizontally—being contracted east and

west, and extended laterally northwards and southwards. This will add to the effect of the simultaneous decrease in the meridional periphery of the earth, and a strong north-and-south compression in intermediate latitudes will result which cannot be relieved by lateral extension, except to some extent in high latitudes where there will be a small but appreciable expansion of the earth's surface.

It is, therefore, not surprising that in low to intermediate latitudes the compressive forces in the earth's crust arising from causes already discussed are intensified in a north-and-south direction so as to favour the formation of east-and-west folding.

Somewhat analogous effects would result from a change in the position of the poles relatively to the configuration of the earth's crust. This would probably be a result of the shifting of the earth's crust relatively to the core, rather than of a change of the axis of rotation of the earth as a whole from one position to another in its mass. Tidal action may result in an east-to-west movement of the earth's crust, but this alone would not directly affect the position of the pole relatively to the features of the earth's surface. But, if there were a locality such as that of a deeply-rooted mountain-mass where the cohesion between the earth's crust and the core was greater than elsewhere, there would be a tendency for the crust to rotate round it, and this would bring new tracts under the poles. There would then be a drifting-away of the continental masses from the new position of the pole on the earth's crust and towards the new position of the equator; this might appreciably affect the configuration of the earth's surface.

It has been suggested that the centre of gravity of the earth's interior does not exactly coincide with its centre of form, so that there is a point on the earth's surface where the force of gravitation is at a maximum, and towards which both the ocean waters and the continental masses tend to move. If this be the case, and the crust of the earth shifts relatively to the interior, the point of maximum gravitation will occupy a new position on the earth's crust, and the drift will be directed towards the latter.

There seems reason to believe that in late Palæozoic times the principal land-masses were united in one great continental mass collected round Africa as a centre, and that they have since drifted away eastwards, southwards, and westwards towards the centre of the Pacific. This would be only what one would expect if the points with the maximum force of gravitation were in Devonian and Carboniferous times in Central Africa, and in Tertiary and Quaternary times in the centre of the Pacific. But, although the forces, developed directly or indirectly as a result of tidal retardation and the resultant relative movement of the earth's interior and crust, must be taken into serious consideration, and may from time to time exercise decisive influence on the structure and configuration of the earth's crust, it is only the horizontal forces resulting from the contraction of the earth's interior, assisted by expansion of its crust in local and temporary regions of tension in the manner already explained, that are sufficiently powerful to account for the development of the folds and thrusts of the present mountain-chains and those that existed in former geological periods.

(To be continued.)

Two Oceanographical Expeditions.

I.—THE GERMAN SOUTH ATLANTIC EXPEDITION OF THE *METEOR*.

IN 1919 plans were formulated by the late Dr. Alfred Mertz for a national expedition to study the physical and chemical conditions of the South Atlantic. In conjunction with the Deutsche Seewarte at Hamburg and the Institut für Meereskunde at the University of Berlin, a very thorough programme was drawn up, a scientific staff gathered together, and the use of the gunboat 'C,' renamed *Meteor*, obtained. The vessel is of 1300 tons displacement, having a ship's company numbering 133, which includes the scientific staff of nine, exclusive of assistants, and nine ship's officers, exclusive of engineers and under-officers.

Whereas former oceanographical expeditions have been concerned very largely with the life in the oceans, the programme of this expedition is almost entirely limited to hydrographical and meteorological observa-

The section from Cape Town to Buenos Aires shown in Fig. 2 indicates the nature and depths of the observations; considered in conjunction with Fig. 1 the intensity of this hydrographic survey is apparent.

With regard to the scope of observations, besides the distribution of temperature and of density, from which the probable circulation of the water in the ocean will be calculated, observations of hydrogen ion concentration, of the oxygen, carbon dioxide, gold, silver, phosphate and nitrate content of the water are provided for, and a method has been devised and used for measuring the rate of evaporation from the surface of the sea. Measurements are made of the waves encountered by a stereophotographic method, and echosoundings are carried out by three different systems, from the results of which the production of a very complete bathymetric chart will doubtless be possible. Microplankton organisms collected at the various stations

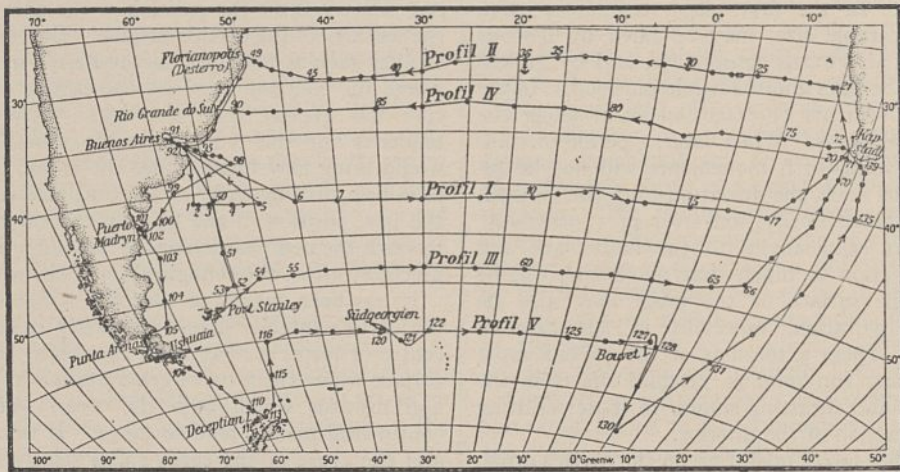


FIG. 1.—Course of the *Meteor*, with the 139 stations where observations between surface and bottom were made.

tions, to be made at numerous positions while crossing the South Atlantic fourteen times between the South American continent and Africa, the various positions being chosen so as to allow of the best use being made of Bjerknes' theory in calculating the currents at various levels and the consequent circulation of the water masses. Particulars of the objects, equipment and first fruits of the cruise, which commenced in January 1924, have been published by Dr. Mertz,¹ and in two later reports by Captain F. Speiss,² who succeeded to the leadership of the expedition after the unfortunate death of Dr. Mertz, which occurred shortly after the programme of work was commenced in the South Atlantic.

Fig. 1, taken from Captain Speiss's report, shows the tracks which have been followed and the 139 positions or stations where observations have been made at depths between surface and bottom. Besides these, numerous observations have been made at a number of other positions on the voyage out from Germany.

¹ "Die Deutsche Atlantische Expedition auf dem Vermessungsschiff *Meteor*," by Prof. Dr. A. Mertz, *Sitzungsberichte der Preuss. Akad. der Wissenschaften*, 31, 1925.

² "Die Deutsche Atlantische Expedition auf dem *Meteor*," *Zeit. der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde zu Berlin*, No. 1 and No. 5/6, Berlin, 1926.

are being examined and their quantity measured on board. Regular meteorological observations are made on board and to a height of above 15 kilometres by means of pilot balloons and kites, while at the various ports visited the local geological formation has been investigated.

The reports give particulars of how the work is being carried out and of how it progresses according to the original plan, which the *Meteor* has been able to follow very closely in spite of bad weather experienced in the more southerly latitudes. When the observations are published and the data worked up and charted, they should present a more perfect picture of the observed conditions in this area than we have for any other ocean, and from such a survey there can be little doubt that several general principles will emerge of fundamental importance to the rapidly growing science of physical oceanography.

II.—THE CRUISES OF THE *ARMAUER HANSEN* IN THE EASTERN NORTH ATLANTIC.

For a very considerable time it has been known that the British islands owe their warm climate, in comparison with that of Newfoundland in the same latitude

to the Atlantic or European current which bathes our coast, and passes northward, and to the south-westerly winds which produce it. Towards the end of the last century the Scandinavian hydrographers found that the surface temperature of the Norwegian sea varied from year to year largely in relation to the amount of warm Atlantic water which passed into it over the submarine ridge which extends from the Shetlands to Iceland. This variation in temperature in turn affected the climate and several seasonal occurrences along the Norwegian seaboard, such as the annual growth of pine trees, the time of flowering of various plants and probably the seasonal fisheries.

As a natural result, more information was desired concerning the circulation of water in the eastern North Atlantic, and particularly of the fluctuations in

Armauer Hansen in 1913, 1914, 1922, 1923 and 1924, extending so far south as Madeira and to Lat. 30° W. some 700 miles to the westward of Ireland. The ship was a small yawl of 56 tons burden, with auxiliary motor only used occasionally; that is to say, she is a vessel smaller than the trading ketches and Thames barges which ply around the British coast. The oceanographical observations were mainly made by Helland-Hansen at numerous stations to depths exceeding 2000 metres. This necessitated manœuvring the ship so that the line along which the instruments are suspended remained in a vertical position throughout the time of observations, even if there is a strong drift caused by wind or current. In this connexion they write: "Care has always been taken to make sure of the vertical position of the sounding line, and the deter-

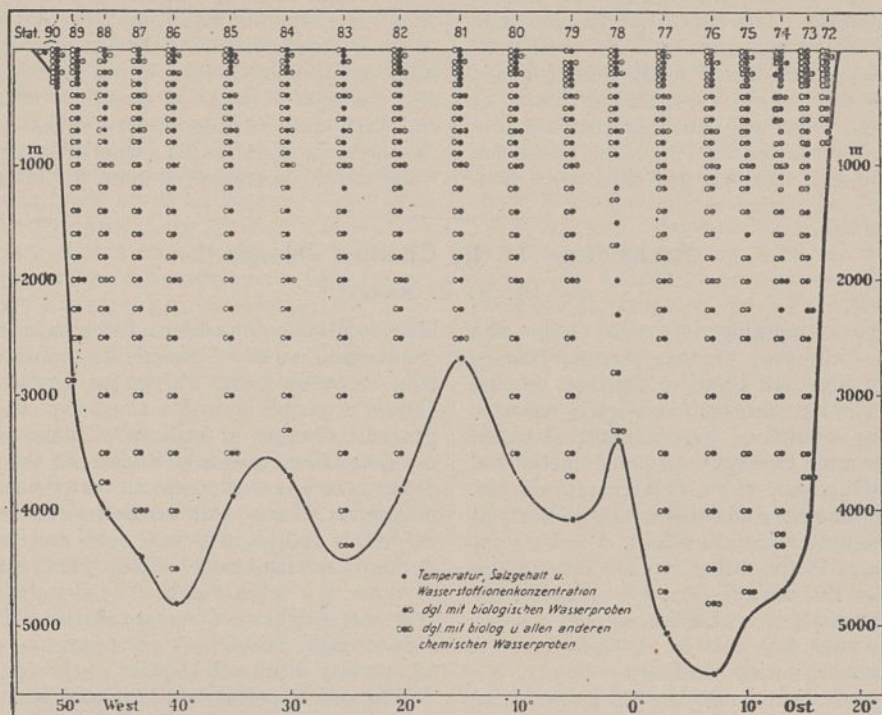


FIG. 2.—Section of the South Atlantic from Cape Town to Buenos Aires obtained from soundings by German South Atlantic Expedition in the *Meteor*.

the Atlantic current. Owing to the costly nature of investigations over such a wide area, the observations which it has been possible to make have been severely limited; nevertheless, considerable knowledge has been accumulated, notably through the active interest taken by Dr. Nansen. He found water of Mediterranean origin mixed with Atlantic water so far north as Ireland during an expedition made by him in 1910 in the *Frithjof*—a vessel lent for the purpose by the Norwegian Navy. In consequence of this and similar Norwegian and Danish investigations, a new set of questions were raised which made it especially desirable to carry on more extensive studies of the great Atlantic current off Europe.

In a recent publication³ the scientific results are presented which were made during cruises of the

³ "The Eastern North Atlantic." By B. Helland-Hansen and F. Nansen, *Geofysiske Publikasjoner*, vol. 4, No. 2 (Oslo, 1926).

mination of the depths may therefore be considered very trustworthy." No mention is made of the difficulties encountered in carrying out the work from the small vessel during these extensive ocean cruises, but the amount and nature of the scientific data obtained are in themselves a record of the skill, endurance and careful preparation involved. Certainly the cruises were made in summer, but nevertheless this record shows how much can be done with a small sailing vessel suitably equipped.

From the density of the water, the currents were calculated for different water layers by means of Bjerknes' theory and are shown on a number of charts. These show a strong current passing eastward over the submarine bank which extends roughly north and south down the centre of the North Atlantic. This current is in about Lat. 47° N., and on arriving at Long. 25° W., a position roughly five hundred miles north

of the Azores, it divides, part turning northward and north-eastward and part turning south to the Azores and Canaries, where it divides again, part turning south and part turning northeastward towards Spain. The currents immediately westward of the continental slope between Ireland and Portugal indicate a number of eddies and a more involved system than that previously supposed; however, the northerly drift of highly saline water welling out of the Mediterranean as a warm undercurrent is shown extending certainly so far as the north of Spain. The existence of these calculated currents at the various depths is based upon the assumption that the movement of water at 2000 metres depth is negligible, for which evidence is presented.

There has been evidence for some time pointing to vertical oscillations of the water layers at a depth of fifty metres or more below the surface in various regions of the Atlantic. This expedition has provided further evidence which indicates that the oscillations may be considerable, particularly in the deeper layers. The oscillations show a more or less regular diurnal or semidiurnal period, which suggests that they are sub-surface waves or undulations having some connexion with tidal phenomena; but how the tidal wave, pro-

ducing in the open ocean oscillations of less than three feet at the surface, can produce vertical oscillations of the dimensions observed in the lower strata remains inexplicable. The desirability of further knowledge is manifest since a vertical series of observations cannot be expected always to represent the *average* conditions at any particular station; it is therefore of great importance for the discussion of the general conditions of a sea area to study how far the actual observations at the different stations and different depths may be regarded as representative.

During the course of the 1913 cruise some interesting current measurements at various depths were made from a boat moored on the bank around Rockall, an isolated rock some 200 miles north-west of Ireland. At a depth of two metres a rotary tidal stream was found, continuously varying and completely reversing in direction every six hours, a type of tidal streaming which is characteristic of the sea over isolated banks. A limited number of observations at greater depths suggest a similar variation in direction. During the fifth and sixth hours of observation a breeze sprang up and the observations indicated a wind drift of the uppermost water strata superimposed upon the tidal streaming.

Archæology of the Channel Islands.¹

By Dr. R. R. MARETT.

THOUGH there is nothing very new to be said about the archæology of the Channel Islands, some brief notes are here brought together because well-attested facts relating to such an *angulus terrarum* are apt to escape attention. For example, in recent discussions concerning Depéret's proposed method of classifying the subdivisions of the Quaternary, namely, by giving weight primarily and chiefly to the indications afforded by ancient marine shorelines, I have come across no references to the rather striking data of this type provided by the islands (see, for example, my summary account of them in *Archæologia*, 62, 469-80). Thus, one Jersey cave, La Cotte de St. Ouen, exhibits a Mousterian industry with cordiform 'points,' *i.e.* belonging to a phase that is not the latest, as resting more or less directly on a marine deposit of sand and rolled pebbles forming the floor-bed of a cave at about 20 metres above present mean tide-level. On the other hand, another cave in Jersey, La Cotte de St. Brelade, contained the remains of a copious fauna, mammoth, woolly rhinoceros, reindeer, etc., conjoined with the later of two well-represented phases of the Mousterian industry; from which fact it is fairly safe to argue that Jersey was then freely accessible from more spacious lands.

Here, then, is almost crucial evidence that the later Mousterian culture coincided with a period of land elevation preceded by one of subsidence (to use such terms without prejudice to the question whether sea or land was the active factor responsible for the change of level). This would accord well enough with Depéret's Monastirian stage with its 20-metre shoreline marking the downward movement (from the point of view of a man as contrasted with that of a fish) and a

later oscillation of at least a like extent in the opposite or upward direction; exactly 20-metres in the way of land elevation being at present necessary to render Jersey accessible from the Continent at low tide. Of previous changes of sea-level it must suffice here to say that at Le Cané de la Rivière, on the north coast of Jersey, there is clear evidence that the sea had time to hollow out a cave at the 10-metre level before it rose to 20 metres and plastered the sides and top of the cave in question with beach-pebbles. Still earlier, one may presume, is a solitary deposit of such pebbles at South Hill at a height of about 45 metres. Unfortunately, these various raised beaches contain no shell whereby to correlate them with Depéret's palæontological series.

When, on the other hand, we turn to post-Mousterian evidence of change of level, a section taken almost anywhere in the valley-bottom on which the town of St. Helier's stands (the level being about 10 metres above O.D.), reveals with remarkable uniformity beneath a few feet of modern alluvium, two peat-beds alternating with two underlying marine layers of sand and shells. In the upper peat-bed a mould for a spear-head has been found, giving it a Bronze Age horizon. From the lower peat have come several rough sherds, one characteristically decorated with punctured dots in rows, that proclaim the horizon Neolithic. Moreover, there can be little doubt that this lower peat-bed is to be correlated with the submerged forest so well in evidence round the islands down to low-tide level and beyond it, as notably at Vazon Bay in Guernsey, whence proof of Neolithic age is also forthcoming. Considerable land-elevation in this region in Neolithic times is thus indicated.

How far these facts have a bearing on the general history of the Channel is hard to say. As for Jersey in particular, its position at the end of a narrow spit of

¹ Substance of three lectures delivered at the Royal Institution on Nov. 18, 25, and Dec. 2.

the Continental shelf running westward between depressions hollowed out by ancient rivers would naturally impart to the island a certain tendency to isostatic movement of a more or less local character. Even so its oscillations are so sharply defined, and can be so closely correlated at several points with the archaeological series, that they deserve more notice than they have got. If experts from England would face certain other oscillations likely to be encountered on the way across channel, they would be met both with a hearty welcome and with much to puzzle over.

As for the Palæolithic record of the islands, nothing of great importance has hitherto come to light apart from the two Mousterian caves already mentioned. The Lower Palæolithic is barely represented by sporadic implements of rather nondescript and doubtful type. Rough flints, in which some see signs of human workmanship, have been recovered from the clay capping certain rocks now disjoined from the land; and there can be little doubt that this clay is an æolian deposit of pleistocene age if only because it is distributed impartially between land surfaces of very various elevation. This loess, however, as it may be termed, affords no precise criterion of the age of the associated artefacts (if such they be) since it must have been forming steadily throughout the Ice Age. It is to be noted, by the way, that it extends some way below the present sea-floor, and must therefore have been in part laid down during a time of land-elevation.

Of the Mousterian caves, and more especially of La Cotte de St. Brelade, with its teeth of Neanderthal man, its fauna amounting to nearly forty species, and its flint implements of more than 5000 well-shaped pieces, with as many more showing signs of use, much might be said. Perhaps the most interesting result obtained from the latter site was the clear proof of two occupations separated by a considerable gap of time; a fact which, so far as it goes, would support the Abbé Breuil's recent attempt (*Man*, Oct. 1926) to establish a very long duration for the Mousterian.

The Lower Mousterian, associated with an elephant certainly not mammoth and provisionally identified by the late Dr. C. Andrews with *E. trogontherii*, occurred in four feet of indurated breccia, and was characterised by heavy coarse flakes and at least one core-implement. I could not on my own responsibility identify it with the horizon of La Micoque, but should welcome further light on the typological question. Above the breccia occurred a uniform layer, about a foot thick, of fine cave dust, and this bed was quite sterile. Evidently the cave was deserted by man for a very appreciable interval—long enough, in fact, for the fauna to have changed. Above it came six feet of loose rock rubbish, mixed with a light loam, and here occurred a large number of highly finished and beautiful implements of Upper Mousterian type associated with mammoth. The whole was sealed by a thick bed of banded lemming (*Dicrostonyx torquatus*), over which lay 30 feet of sterile clay and rock-rubbish of the type known as 'head.' Finally, the Upper Palæolithic is represented if at all by a well-marked industry occurring in several sites (mostly shallow deposits of peaty soil along the cliffs), which shows a predominance of small blade-like tools, in which a typologist might possibly discover Magdalenian affinities. In association with these has

been found a needle which, if made of ivory, as seems to be the case, and not of bone, would decisively fix the horizon as Palæolithic.

Passing on to later times, one may speak comprehensively of the Megalithic period without prejudice to the question whether the monuments with which the islands teem are Neolithic in the sense of belonging to an age when, regionally at all events, polished stone without metal was in use, or are wholly or partly assignable to the Bronze Age. Nay, it may be just worth noticing that one Jersey passage-grave, Mont Ubé, contained specimens of the *pic* and the *tranchet* (figured by me in *Archæologia*, 63, 226), which look like survivals from a previous era, namely, the Campigny period. On the other hand, there are no signs of a local development (such as has been assumed both for the Iberian Peninsula and for Scandinavia) from the true dolmen with a single capstone; but seemingly the full-fledged passage-grave was introduced at the outset. Perhaps the term 'passage-grave' should, however, be reserved for the type of monument consisting in a narrow passage leading into a wider sepulchral chamber, the whole covered by a round tumulus. This, indeed, is the normal structure found in the islands, as also in Brittany and Iberia; but Mr. T. D. Kendrick in "The Axe Age" (Methuen, 1926) has directed attention to two *allées couvertes*, or 'cists,' as he prefers to call them, which he believes to be non-western in character. These are Le Couperon and Ville ès Nouaux in Jersey, both monuments showing the remains of peristaliths which suggest that they were surmounted by long barrows and not by circular mounds.

At Le Couperon occurs a 'port-hole' slab, a fact which affords Mr. Kendrick further reason for suggesting eastern influences, proceeding proximately from the Paris basin. In this connexion he likewise points to the complete resemblance between the statue-menhir of the Câtel, Guernsey, with its necklace and closely juxtaposed breasts carved boldly in the round, and certain wall-carvings adorning the cists of the Seine and Oise valleys. Meanwhile, it should be noted that if Ville ès Nouaux be of eastern type as regards structure, it nevertheless contained grave furniture of markedly western pattern such as bell-beakers—a fact chronologically interesting as proving that the cist culture had arrived before the beaker ceased to be in fashion. Further, as regards ceramic, several Jersey passage-graves have yielded a peculiar type of cup-like vessel with a hollow base and characteristic decoration; and some half a dozen more of these in excellent preservation have been found in the newly opened monument of La Hougue Bie. French archaeologists have sometimes labelled this type 'supports,' as if other round-bottomed vessels had originally been set up upon them; but it is at least equally likely that they were self-sufficing receptacles of food-offerings to the dead. In any case, more important than the question of their function is that of their bearing on the origins of the megalithic culture-complex as met with in the islands. To judge by the distribution of the very few examples hitherto noticed in France, it would seem that this peculiar ceramic marks the track of a culture coming from east-central France down the Loire valley, probably at some time early in the Bronze Age, and thence turning northwards to Brittany and the islands.

Much might be said about the life of this period as deduced not only from the megaliths but also from humbler remains, such as notably the graves, with the associated cairn and midden of the islet of La Motte, Jersey—to which, by the way, the little island of Thinic, to the west of the peninsula of Quiberon, seems to offer a close parallel (see *Archæologia*, 63, 210).

It must be enough, however, in conclusion to direct attention to two megalithic monuments of special interest. One of these intrigued the dilettanti of the eighteenth century; and Horace Walpole's friend, Marshal Conway, actually removed it in 1787, two years after its discovery in Jersey, to Park Place, Henley, where no British archæologist should fail to pay it a visit. It is in several respects unique among island monuments. For one thing, the covered passage leads into an *enceinte* which is perfectly circular, unlike the normal passage-grave, which is shaped more like a

tennis racquet than a jew's-harp. Mr. Reginald Smith (*Proc. Soc. Antiq.*, 1919, 143) compares the shape of a neolithic house with covered passage found at Pléneuf, Côtes-du-Nord. A similar house has recently been discovered at La Sergenté, Jersey. Again, the *enceinte* with its six trilithons, somewhat suggestive of a miniature Stonehenge, may well have been hypæthral as at first designed, though later by design or accident a mound of earth (or blown sand) was superimposed. As for the magnificent passage-grave of La Hougue Bie excavated in 1925, though doubtless its contents were disturbed at some time, it remains in the intact majesty of its structure a very masterpiece of art, unsurpassed whether in size or in the symmetry of its design by any monument of the kind in north-western Europe.²

² On the whole subject see three papers by the lecturer in *Archæologia*, vols. 62, 63, 67, and for full details the *Bulletins de la Société Jerseyaise* and *Proceedings of the Guernsey Soc. of Nat. Hist.*, later *La Société Guernésiaise*.

News and Views.

WITH this issue we begin the publication of a weekly "Calendar of Discovery and Invention," in which, so far as possible, each day will be used to recall some event of importance in the history of science and its application. The notes are being compiled by Engineer Capt. Edgar C. Smith, of the Science Museum, South Kensington, who some years ago contributed to our columns the Calendars of Scientific and Industrial Pioneers. It is not to be expected that every event of importance in the history of science will be referred to; such would be clearly impossible within the limits of a weekly column in a year's issue of NATURE. It is also obvious, from the nature of the records available, that the physical sciences and engineering are likely to figure in the column more than the biological sciences, medicine, and similar subjects, in which it is often difficult to assign the announcement of a discovery to a particular day. Suggestions regarding events suitable for inclusion in the column will be welcomed.

By invitation of the French Government, a meeting of the executive council of the International Institute of African Languages and Culture was held in Paris on Monday, December 13, instead of in London, as had been previously arranged. It was thus the first to be held outside England, and with it the work of the Institute, which was founded a little over a year ago, may be considered to be fairly launched. The initial difficulty of raising funds, it may be hoped, is well on the way to solution, especially as it was announced at this meeting that the Government of the Gold Coast has promised a donation of £500 a year for the next two years. It is to be hoped that this subsidy will be renewed at the end of that period, and that the example of the Gold Coast will be followed by other African dependencies, as well as by organisations and individuals interested in Africa and African studies. The programme already mapped out by the Institute covers most important fields of research, and its work of co-ordination in the study

of African linguistics and ethnology will be especially valuable in promoting the development and education of the African native.

THE meeting was attended by representatives of Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria, and other countries. Among those present were Dr. Westermann, the distinguished German authority on African languages; Sir Frederick Lugard; Major H. Vischer of the British Colonial Office, to whose efforts the foundation of the Institute are largely due; and the Rev. E. W. Smith. Prof. Seligman, who represents the Royal Anthropological Institute in the Institute of African Languages and Culture, was unfortunately unable to attend. M. Labouret of the French Colonial Office was appointed joint Director of the Institute in succession to M. Delafosse, the announcement of whose death was received with much regret. A deputation of the delegates was received by M. Perrier, French Minister for the Colonies, who expressed great interest in the work of the Institute.

At a meeting of the Newcomen Society on December 15, papers were read on two famous Swedish engineers. The first paper, by Mr. J. G. A. Rhodin, was on Kristofer Polhämmer, better known as Polhem, the name he took on being ennobled. Polhem was born in 1661 and died in 1751. Starting as a clerk on an estate, he was enabled to study science at Upsala, and became a mining engineer at Stora Kopparberget, where he built his famous "Machina Nova," a large water-driven headgear for handling the ore. His inventions relating to mining and metal working were numerous. He also made the dock gates for the dry docks at Carlskrona, then the largest in the world, and built the lock at Stockholm uniting the Malar Lake with the Baltic. He also began a system of locks to make the Trollhättan falls passable, but the work was discontinued on account of the death of Charles XII. Mr. Rhodin described Polhem as "one of the first engineers in this world with a thorough theoretical training, yet practical to a degree in spite of his bringing up at *Alma Mater Upsaliensis*."

THE second paper read before the Newcomen Society on December 15 was the outcome of a translation of the book by Triewald on the "Fire and Air Machine at Dannemora," undertaken by Mr. Are Waerland for the Newcomen Society. Triewald lived in England about ten years, was familiar with Newcomen, erected a Newcomen engine near Newcastle, and built the first steam-engine used in Sweden. His book contains the first complete description of the atmospheric engine of Newcomen, and is therefore of special interest to the Society. It is hoped to publish the English translation. Like many men of his time, Martin Triewald wrote on a great variety of subjects. Born in 1691, he early engaged in business, but becoming bankrupt, at the age of twenty-five years he came to England. He was befriended by the Dutch Minister and attended the lectures of Desagulier, became known to Newton, and then found employment with Ridley of Newcastle as an engineer. At the age of thirty-five years he returned to Sweden and at Dannemora built his great engine. He afterwards held various Government appointments, was the first to introduce the experimental methods of science into Sweden, and was one of the six founders of the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences. He died in 1747. At the University of Lund is a fine collection of scientific apparatus collected by Triewald and used by him for his lectures.

To the panoramas illustrating various parts of the British Empire, several of which were brought to the Imperial Institute from the Wembley Exhibition, the Director, Sir William Furse, has recently added two. One, in the Falkland Islands Court, represents a whale, off the coast of South Georgia, being harpooned by a 'chaser' fitted with a modern harpoon gun. The mother ship, where the carcass will be cut up, is not shown in the picture. The sea is cleverly modelled and looks well from a distance, but on a nearer view betrays its plaster composition too obviously. It is a question whether the visitor should not be prevented from coming too close. In this, as in the previous models, the horizontal plane is tilted up, like the stage of a theatre, so that the line of sight approaches it at a greater angle than natural conditions usually permit. The evident advantage would be attained in a less forced and less perplexing manner if the models were placed a little lower.

THE other model referred to above depicts wild animal life in Tanganyika. The twin peaks of Kilimanjaro rise in the distance, while over a richly diversified foreground are scattered various members of the fauna, from monkeys and lions down to crocodiles and snakes. The exhibit is designed and executed by D. Y. R. Furse and R. T. Roussel for McCorquodale and Co., and we are told that most of the animals have been modelled by an artist who has almost daily acquaintance with them on his farm in East Africa. Even he, however, can scarcely have seen all these creatures at once. This familiar defect of such panoramas is to some extent remedied by the large extent of country shown in a width of about six feet and the small scale of the animal models.

These in themselves are characteristic enough, but the same can scarcely be said of the flora. All the trees and shrubs are made of a curious material which looks like the skeleton of some antipatharian or gorgonid coral. If this really is the case, we may at least suggest that the needed variety might have been attained by using more than one species. The Director's attempts to interest the public by these models are heartily to be commended, but one has to guard against giving false impressions.

THE Institution of Chemical Engineers held a very successful conference on December 8-10 in the Science Museum, South Kensington, the subjects discussed including the measurement of mechanical power absorbed by driven machines, the uses and limitations of statistics in industry, air elutriation, and refrigeration. Although a few of the papers could be classed as specifically chemical, most of them introduced chemical subject matter by way of illustration. The practice of holding conferences at which a number of papers are read, appears to be growing in Great Britain. Multiple programmes have the advantage of making it worth while for country members to travel long distances, so that meetings are larger and colleagues are more certain of seeing one another. Secretarial work is also more concentrated and therefore more economical. On the other hand, papers are apt to crowd one another out, and discussions are thereby curtailed.

MESSRS. R. G. Parker and D. N. Jackman described a new form of recording torsion-dynamometer of the type that does not itself convey power, but is applied to a transmitting shaft. Such a shaft is very slightly twisted, and the twist, which is proportional to the power, is measured, the readings being recorded photographically. In a symposium on statistical methods in relation to industrial efficiency, Messrs. D. Ryder and T. C. Finlayson dealt with the control of chemical-plant operation by this method, mainly from the point of view of the works manager. The points discussed included the transference of material, production, reports by shift foremen, the plant manager, the engineer, and the laboratory; also the methods used by the statistical office in summarising the data concerning production, labour, and stocks. In his paper on some uses and limitations of statistics in industry, Mr. H. C. Marris deplored the paucity of statistical material for forecasting short-term trade movements.

ON the third day of the conference, Dr. Geoffrey Martin contributed a paper on the laws of air elutriation, pointing out that Stokes's law applies only for very small particles, and advancing other generalisations for particles of larger size. He emphasised the influence of temperature on particle-size, and expressed the view that there is great scope for research on the influence of particle-shape on lifting power. The concluding paper, on refrigeration in the chemical industry, by Mr. H. M. Dunkerley, contained many details concerning the construction of refrigerating plant and useful data on costs of the process. As the result of the study of a large number

of installations of different types, he concludes that their capital cost ranges from £70 per 10,000 B.T.U. per hour for plants with a capacity of 250,000 B.T.U. per hour, to £50 for plants with a capacity of 2-3 million B.T.U. per hour.

FURTHER official information on "The Wet November of 1926" is given in the *Meteorological Magazine* for December. The total for the month was above the average everywhere over the British Isles except along the north-west, north, and north-east coasts of Scotland. The excesses were largest in the south-west of England and Wales and in Connemara. More than twice the average was recorded in these areas as well as at Wetherby in Yorkshire and at Dundee. Falls of more than 250 per cent. of the average occurred in parts of Dorset, Hampshire, and Hereford, while at Ross the fall of 7.87 in. was so much as 311 per cent. of the average. The largest monthly totals were those reported from Llyn Llydaw on Snowdon of 19.50 in., and from Delphi in Connemara of 18.50 in. More than 5 in. of rain was recorded in one day, in Snowdonia on November 4 and in Connemara on November 18. At Camden Square the number of days of rain, 25, and the duration of rainfall, 85 hours, were the largest in November since records commenced, in 1858 and 1881 respectively. It was the wettest November over the British Isles as a whole.

IN order to illustrate some of the recent advances that have been achieved in British-made microscope object-glasses, Messrs. R. and J. Beck, Ltd., of 69 Mortimer Street, London, W.1, recently gave a demonstration of the results obtainable from apochromatic object-glasses of their own manufacture. During the past five years these lenses have been completely redesigned, and a method of testing by zones to the extreme margin has been introduced, with the result that the resolving power of the lenses attains the theoretical limit for their respective apertures. The specimens exhibited included a $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. apochromat, 0.35 n.a., resolving the dots in *Pleurosigma formosum* (dot interspaces about 36,000 per in.); a $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. apochromat showing resolution in dots in *Navicula rhomboides* (about 66,000 lines per inch); the resolution in dots of the *Amphipleura lindheimerii*, *styrax* (about 90,000 per inch), by a $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. apochromat, 0.95 n.a., the theoretical resolving power being about 95,000 lines per inch; and the resolution of dots in *Amphipleura pellucida* (about 130,000 per inch) by a $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. oil-immersion apochromat, 1.4 n.a., with a theoretical resolving power of about 140,000 lines per inch. Demonstrations were also given of methods of testing the general quality of an object-glass. These included the use of a podura scale, which is a good test of the central zones of a high-power object-glass, and of a silver film with pinholes, which provides also a sensitive method of adjusting the tube length to suit the objective. In the series of experiments dealing with illumination, the most interesting was one showing a portion of a diatom overhanging the strip on which it was mounted. While the image of the portion supported and covered by glass was

obliterated by glare caused by multiple reflections from the glass surfaces, there was good resolution and complete absence of glare where there was no cover glass or slip.

THE Wellcome Bureau of Scientific Research and Museum of Medical Science, situated at 25-28 Endsleigh Gardens, London, have recently been enlarged, and we received, on the occasion of their reopening by the Minister of Health, a profusely illustrated booklet giving an account of the work of the Bureau and its affiliated institutions, the Entomological Field Laboratory and the Physiological and Chemical Research Laboratories, together with a description of the contents of the Museum. There are also included lists of the papers published from the Bureau and the research laboratories from their foundation to the present time. The Museum of Medical Science is arranged to afford a continuous demonstration of various diseases, their causes, effects, and treatment, so as to give a graphic picture of the more important features. On the ground floor are arranged exhibits of the diseases caused by the Metazoa, venomous beasts, insects, worms, etc. The first floor is devoted to diseases caused by protozoa and spirochaetes, and a special section is given to leprosy and tuberculosis. The second floor has as its exhibit the diseases caused by bacteria, including the exanthemata, whilst the third floor demonstrates dietetic, metabolic, and blood diseases, a section being also given to new growths. The Bureau does no routine teaching, but is open to individual workers who wish to follow some particular line of investigation. The Museum is open to all medical men, health officers and students, and is available to teachers of medicine for the purpose of giving demonstrations to their classes.

WE learn from the *Bell Laboratories Record* that the John Scott medal, founded in 1816 by John Scott of Edinburgh and awarded from time to time by the Board of City Trusts of Philadelphia for outstanding inventions, has been awarded to Gustaf Waldemar Elmen for his invention of permalloy. This nickel-iron alloy, which is noteworthy for its high permeability for minute magnetising force, is widely used in transformer cores, certain telephone receivers, and in 'loading' submarine telegraph cables for high-speed transmission.

SHORTLY after the s.s. *William Scoresby* sailed from Hull to join the *Discovery*, the house magazine of Messrs. Reckitt and Sons published an account of those celebrated whalers and explorers, the Scoresbys. It was illustrated from one of the original log-books and other material in the Fisheries Museum at Hull, and Mr. Sheppard has now included it in the 'Record of Additions' to the Hull Museum, No. 69.

THE late Prof. R. Klebs, of Königsberg, who was the most distinguished student of the insects included in Baltic amber, himself formed a large collection of such objects. A large number of his specimens was purchased by the Trustees of the British Museum in

1892 to enrich the extensive national collection of *inclusa*; but he left to his heirs a still larger collection containing many specimens of historic importance. We are glad to learn that this collection has not been dispersed, but that it has been found possible to purchase it for the Geological Institute of the University of Königsberg, which already possesses a famous cabinet of these objects. Properly qualified research workers will now, as in the past, be accorded the utmost facilities for the study of these great collections.

MESSRS. Harold C. Urey and Arthur E. Ruark, writing from the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland, state that they are preparing a book of about 700 pages on atomic and molecular structure, embracing both the theoretical and experimental aspects of the subject, and that they will be glad to receive reprints of private communications as to results not yet published.

MESSRS. C. Baker, 244 High Holborn, London, W.C.1, have prepared a new issue (No. 88) of their Classified List of Second-Hand Scientific Instruments. The catalogue is divided into sections dealing with microscope apparatus, surveying, astronomical and other instruments, spectroscopes, physical apparatus, and so on. The present list contains offers of a number of students' microscopes and accessories, while the astronomical telescope section is also large and its contents varied. Among the larger instruments is an 8-in. Cooke equatorial which was the

property of the late Dr. W. H. Maw. Surveying instruments, and field glasses and small telescopes are let out on hire. Nine volumes of NATURE (1885-1890) are also offered for sale.

MR. GEORGE C. SHERRIN has designed, and Messrs. George Philip and Son, Ltd., have produced, a set of apparatus for demonstrating popular experiments in dynamics (20s. net). The set is supplied in a wooden box and is accompanied by an illustrated handbook. The apparatus consists of nothing more than a series of small steel rods of varying thickness, of weights, pivots, and collars, the parts being assembled in much the same way as the parts of a 'meccano' outfit. The result is to produce a toy capable of demonstrating—and that very effectively—the relative movements of earth, moon, and sun, the action of centrifugal force, various gyroscopic effects, and the principle of Foucault's pendulum. In itself, this is no mean achievement for such a simple toy, but in reality its 'star' turn is intended to show the action of the Flettner rotary cylinder. If a criticism might be levelled against such a delightful toy for grown-ups, it is that the last demonstration fails to carry complete conviction, first because an artificial wind created by blowing from the mouth cannot be relied on to strike a moving rotating cylinder accurately in a specified direction, and secondly, the deviations from accuracy in this respect may themselves produce the actual effects to be observed. If the toy is to rank as a piece of scientific apparatus, certain of the parts will require to be more delicately made.

Our Astronomical Column.

OBSERVATIONS OF PROXIMA.—Union Observatory Circular, No. 70, contains some interesting notes on this star by Mr. Innes and Dr. van den Bos. The colour is orange or orange-red, the spectrum probably *K*, the visual magnitude 11.2, the photographic 13.0. The parallax is given as $0''.90$, which is larger than that deduced from the assumption that parallaxes and proper motions are proportional when compared with α -Centauri. Dr. van den Bos makes the interesting, but rather improbable, suggestion that the sun, Proxima, and α -Centauri form a straight-line solution of the three body problem. The parallax of the centre of gravity of the system would be $1''.14$. It is satisfactory that Dr. Alden will investigate the parallax of Proxima with the Yale Telescope at Johannesburg.

THE SOLAR PHYSICS OBSERVATORY, CAMBRIDGE.—The thirteenth annual report of the Director of the Solar Physics Observatory, Cambridge, has recently been received, describing the stellar and solar work carried out at the observatory during the preceding year. Amongst the published work on stellar spectroscopy, mention may be made of a paper by Mr. Baxandall on absorption lines in spectra of types *G*, *K*, and *M*. The wave-lengths, intensities, and probable origins of lines in typical spectra of these classes have been determined and compared, in order to investigate the nature of the changes that occur in this region of the stellar sequence. Preliminary experimental work is being done by Mr. Carroll on the photography of the extreme red region by means of hypersensitised panchromatic plates, and also in testing the theoretical effect of stellar rotation upon absorption lines by studying the same effect in the

solar spectrum. In the department of solar physics, an important piece of work (begun in 1916) has now been completed by Mr. Baxandall in revising the chemical origins of Fraunhofer lines in Rowland's tables. This work has been completed for the region $\lambda\lambda 3900-5900$, and the results sent to Mount Wilson for incorporation in a revision of Rowland's tables by the International Astronomical Union. Spectroheliograms of the sun's disc have been obtained on 118 days, and these, augmented by 326 spectroheliograms from Kodaikanal, have been studied by Mr. Butler. An investigation by the Director, assisted by Mrs. Beech, on the distribution of outbursts of sunspots, now covers four complete 11-year cycles, and a summary of the results is being prepared.

THE DISTANT COMPANION OF CASTOR.—An interesting article in the *Scientific American* (December) by Prof. H. N. Russell, describes recent researches on this star. A few years ago Messrs. Adams and Joy at Mt. Wilson found that it is a spectroscopic binary (as are the bright components of Castor) with a period of 19 hours 32 minutes. Dr. van Gest, of Leyden, finds that partial eclipses of each component by the other occur at intervals of $9^h 46^m$. Their distance apart is 1,600,000 miles, and each is 520,000 miles in diameter. The mass of each is 0.52 sun, and the density 2.5 sun, or 3.5 water. It is the greatest density found for a spectroscopic binary. The total light of each is $\frac{1}{4}$ of the sun's, and the surface brightness $\frac{1}{4}$ of the sun's. The concluded surface temperature is 3500°C. , in good accord with the *M* type of spectrum which was found for them. It is of great interest and importance to have these accurate details of a pair of typical dwarf stars.

Research Items.

WEST INDIAN STONE COLLARS.—An interesting suggestion relating to the origin of the 'stone-collars,' which are a problem in West Indian archaeology, is made by Mr. A. D. Russell in *Man* for December. The collar stone is an object in shape much like a horse collar, but obviously too small for that purpose, and unsymmetrical in shape, being bent to one side at the narrower end. Various theories as to their origin have been put forward. Mr. T. A. Joyce has suggested that a wooden mechanism is indicated, two unequal ends of the fork of a tree being bent round and fastened together, the part of the tree cut off below the fork being represented by the protuberance called by some archaeologists the 'shoulder.' It is here suggested that this wooden mechanism was a tree climber, which is symbolised by the stone collar. This might more accurately be termed a belt or cinch. The palm climber of West Africa and the West Indies, with which the collar is compared, is made in two pieces. Two lengths of supple wood are bent into a long oval hoop, the two ends on the right side being secured by a permanent fastening, those on the left being done up and undone as need requires. The identity of the palm climber in West Africa and the West Indies is scarcely to be explained as introduced by the slave trade, since the archaic stone collar proves its existence in the latter area before slaves were introduced.

MOHAMMEDAN CHILD-KILLING DEMONS.—In *Man* for November, Mr. W. Ivanow points out that Persia has preserved under a Mohammedan cloak many customs and beliefs descended from a remote antiquity. A great deal of this material is to be found in the literature and, especially, in manuscripts. In support of this, extracts are given from a rare medical treatise, written at Delhi in 1376, which reveals some peculiar beliefs relating to the supernatural malevolent beings causing death or harm to young children. The work is called "The Comfort of Man," the author being Abdu'l-Qawi ibn Shihábi'd-din, surnamed Ziya. All evil beings are divided into five classes. The vampires attacking children belong to the fifth class of *divs* and *peris*. Of these there are two divisions, shapeshifters or were-hyenas (*Kaftár*) and *Ummu's-sibyan*, called in Arabic "the mother of children," probably an ancient conception of the spirit causing the premature death of new-born babes: apparently Lilith, the Lamia, or the Strigil. According to Ziya she is the mother of devils and has seventy-five baby-*divs* at her breast. When a woman gives birth she may, if not watched, substitute a *div* for the human child. Burnt hair from the back of a black cat will drive her away. The *Kaftár* or hyena, a rare animal in Persia, seems to imply a witch, but it has not much connexion with lycanthropic ideas. References to it are rare in Persian literature, and it is doubtful if the belief survives among the people to-day, unless it is under another name.

SPERMATOGENESIS IN THE MOUSE AND THE RABBIT.—K. Masui (*Jour. Coll. Agr.*, Imp. Univ. Tokyo, 8, No. 2, 1923, just received) undertook a reinvestigation of the spermatogenesis of the mouse and of the rabbit, chiefly with the purpose of studying the chromosomes. Measurements of the spermatogonial chromosomes show that these are in pairs and that there is a constant relation between their size and their form. Two special chromosomes are probably the sex chromosomes. The observed variation (44 to 54) in the number of chromosomes in the rabbit is attributed to the fragmentation of certain chromosomes caused by the fixation. The diploid number

in the mouse is 40. The conjugation of the chromosomes probably takes place by telosynapsis in the mouse and by parasynapsis in the rabbit. From the behaviour of the sex chromosomes it is suggested that dimorphism of the sperm results. The mitochondrial granules do not originate from the nucleus in the early stages of the spermatocyte, but exist in the cytoplasm from the beginning.

PHYLOGENY AND CLASSIFICATION.—In an extended discussion of phylogeny and the natural system, Dr. W. B. Crow (*Jour. of Genetics*, vol. 17, No. 2) reviews the various conceptions of phylogeny and their relation to classification. He covers a wide field of reference with relation to plants and animals, but occasionally betrays an inadequate first-hand acquaintance with the various interpretations placed upon the variations he is discussing. His paper serves, nevertheless, to focus attention afresh upon phylogenetic problems. He points out the inadequacy of causal morphology without an historical background to explain the problems of relationships, and shows, *e.g.*, that there are good reasons for concluding that such a simple colonial form as *Pleurococcus* has been derived by reduction from filamentous ancestors. He emphasises the principle of Cope, that in tracing the descent of genera, purely specific characters should not be taken into account, and similarly concludes that, in tracing the phylogeny of species, no account should be taken of the genealogy of individuals. This leads to a discussion of Mendelism from a phylogenetic point of view, and the recognition that the genealogy of gametes has its bearing on the phylogeny of characters.

TERTIARY SHELLS FROM JAPAN.—A number of fossil mollusca and brachiopoda from beds in the island of Sado, off the coast of Echigo, Japan, have been described by Prof. Matajiro Yokoyama (*Jour. Fac. Sci.*, Imp. Univ. Tokyo, Sect. 11, Geol., etc., vol. 1). These fossils come from the Sawané formation, and the author concludes that their geological horizon corresponds to the Musashino (Pliocene) of the neighbourhood of Tokyo. Following the few "general remarks" and table of distribution, the paper consists of descriptions of 149 species of mollusca and brachiopoda, including a goodly number believed to be new and figured on the six accompanying plates. There is also a good index.

MARINE SHELLS OF THE W. COAST OF N. AMERICA.—The first volume of what promises to be a most important manual on "The Marine Shells of the West Coast of North America" (*i.e.* Canada and the United States, but not Mexico), dated 1924, has only just reached us. It is published by the Stanford University and in somewhat Gilbertian manner forms No. 1, vol. 1, of the "Geological Sciences" series, and has been compiled by Mrs. Ida S. Oldroyd, the Curator of the Geological Museum. When completed the work will cover in extended form the same ground occupied by the 'Summary' by Dr. Dall, issued in 1921 (*U.S. Nat. Mus. Bulletin*, 112) with the addition of the Brachiopoda. The classification followed, though not so stated, is that of the same veteran conchologist, first proposed in 1895 (*Trans. Wagner Free Instit.*, vol. 3, No. 3). The major divisions above genera are not defined, but each genus is, while with each species is given the original reference and description, supplemented where necessary from other sources, followed by the citation of the type and type locality, with its 'distribution' (or 'range' as alternative term) and 'range in time.'

It is stated that some new species described by Dr. Bartsch are included, but apparently not in the present volume, which deals only with the Pelecypoda and Brachiopoda. To the 247 pages of text there are appended 57 plates of unequal merit that do not proportionately enhance the value of the volume, while the individual members of a genus, instead of being figured together, are peppered indiscriminately among the plates, sometimes widely apart. The task of bringing together this mass of material must have been enormous, and Mrs. Oldroyd will receive the cordial thanks of all fellow-workers, who will impatiently await the issue of the further volumes.

ISOSTASY IN SPAIN.—A recent report on the isostatic reduction of gravity stations in Spain (*Mem. del Inst. Geog. y Cadastral*, Madrid, vol. 15, 1926) is summarised and commented upon by W. Bowie in the *Am. Jour. Sci.* for October 1926. The computations were made by the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey. The method of least squares shows that the most probable depth of compensation is 96 km. as in the United States. The average anomalies are +0.011 with regard to sign and 0.032 without regard to sign, the corresponding United States figures being -0.006 and 0.021 respectively. It is noteworthy, in looking for an explanation of the residual anomalies, that the Spanish stations on pre-Cambrian formations give an average anomaly of +0.047, while those on Tertiary formations give -0.033. Anomalies have also been computed for depths of compensation ranging from 56.9 km. to 184.6 km. Very little difference was revealed by the results, except for the greater depths where the larger anomalies became exaggerated and nearly all became positive. The recent tendency towards adopting a smaller depth of compensation than those formerly advocated thus receives support.

ISOLATION OF ELEMENT 61.—Since the appearance of a preliminary note on the independent isolation by Rolla and Fernandes of element 61, mentioned in *NATURE*, December 4, 1926, p. 820, we have received a fuller account of their investigation in the September issue of the *Gazzetta Chimica Italiana*. The paper contains diagrams of spectra and a chart illustrating the long series of fractional crystallisations to which the didymium earth was submitted. Among the peculiarities displayed by the absorption spectra of the extreme fractions may be mentioned the strong absorption bands in the yellow, attributed up to now to neodymium, which by dilution of the solution are divided up into numerous lines having for the various fractions very diverse relative intensities. The peculiarities of these fractions are identical with those which are attributed to the presence of element 61.

PROPERTIES OF ACETONE.—Some accurate values for the vapour pressures and densities of acetone from about -80° to +60° appear in the *Journal of the American Chemical Society* for November. These are intended to replace the existing data, among which considerable discordance is noted. The determinations were carried out by Felsing and Durban in calibrated apparatus to which the acetone, purified and dried by distillation and by crystallisation as the acetone-sodium iodide addition compound, was transferred by direct vacuum distillation. The measurements were carried out in two types of cryostat, one containing liquid paraffin and kerosene for temperatures above 0°, and the other containing ethyl bromide for the lower temperatures. The solubility of carbon dioxide in acetone was also determined over the range -75° to +20°, and the latent heats of evaporation at different temperatures were calculated

from the vapour pressure data by means of the Clausius-Clapeyron equation.

LOW-TEMPERATURE CARBONISATION RETORT.—In pursuance of a policy of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research adopted in 1924 (*NATURE*, September 20, 1924, p. 441), the Director of the Fuel Research Board has issued a report (H.M. Stationery Office, 9d. net) on a test on a 'Fusion' rotary retort for the carbonisation of fuels at low temperatures. The retort, installed at the works of Electro-Bleach and By-Products, Ltd., Cledford, consists of a horizontal externally heated rotary cylindrical retort, through which the material passes while stirred and kept from lodging on the walls by a special type of 'breaker.' The retort was rated to treat 5 tons per day, but in the test 3.4 tons of Welbeck Cannel was put through. 50 gallons of tar and oil was collected per ton, and it was shown that the recovery might have been increased to 54 gallons. 2740 cub. ft. of gas of calorific value 1070 B.T.U. per cub. ft. (gross) was obtained. No operating difficulties of any great consequence were noted. The test showed that a good yield of liquid products was obtained, but the solid product was in a finely divided form as a result of the action of the breaker and probably suitable for pulverised fuel firing. This may be satisfactory when dealing with a non-caking low-grade fuel, such as was used here. It restricts the scope of the process, which scarcely seems adapted to produce a smokeless domestic fuel.

THE SHOCK-WAVE FOLLOWING DETONATION OF HIGH EXPLOSIVES.—What is the nature of the 'shock-wave' sent out by the detonation of a high explosive? How far and at what speed does it travel? How is it that the flame from a high explosive may apparently penetrate a region occupied by an explosive gas mixture without igniting it? These are some of the problems raised by the use of high explosives in fiery mines, and they are problems which have not yet received authoritative answers. Indeed, it may be said that, until the recent work inaugurated by Prof. R. V. Wheeler, of the Safety in Mines Research Board, the functions of the shock-wave have not been so fully studied in England as they have been abroad, especially in France, where *l'onde du choc* has received both theoretical and practical investigation. The Mines Department has now issued a paper (No. 29) forming Part 2 of the research "On the Pressure-wave sent out by an Explosive," by W. Payman and W. C. F. Shepherd, assistants at the Mines Experimental Station. An apparatus has been constructed whereby the flame issuing from a high explosive has been directly photographed on a moving film, which at the same time registers the passage of the preceding shock-wave by *Schlieren* photography and also the movements of the products of combustion, since these were found to be opaque to the arc-light which gave the *Schlieren* effect with the pressure wave. It was thus possible to measure the speed of the shock-wave sent through the air by the explosion of a No. 6 Detonator, and its gradual slowing down as it travelled away from the experimental tube. The expanding products of combustion closely follow the shock-wave from the mouth of the tube, but soon begin to fall behind it. Behind the products of combustion the visible flame issues from the tube, and never gets in front of the products. This explains why a No. 6 Detonator will not ignite firedamp mixtures, since the inflammable gas would be shielded from the flame by an extinctive blanket of burnt products. The speed of the shock-wave as it starts through the open air was found to be roughly twice the velocity of sound.

Perth Meeting of the Australasian Association for the Advancement of Science.

THE eighteenth meeting of the Australasian Association for the Advancement of Science was held in Perth during the week commencing on Monday, August 23, but was extended in the form of excursions well into September. As this was the first time the Association had consented to visit Western Australia, special efforts were made to induce members from the other Australian States and New Zealand to attend the meeting. The State Government of Western Australia granted £1,200 for printing and publishing, and offered free transit over the State railways to all visiting members; and the Australian Commonwealth Government was induced for the first time to contribute towards the general expenses of the meeting the sum of £750, out of which travelling allowances were paid to members of known scientific standing who came to Perth over the Transcontinental Railway. Furthermore, private hospitality during the meeting was arranged in Perth for all members from other States who would accept it, and on most of the excursions members were carried free.

In response to the invitation more than 200 members from the other Australian States and New Zealand attended the meeting. To transport this number in addition to the ordinary traffic an average distance of more than two thousand miles each way taxed the resources of the Transcontinental Railway, but the task was satisfactorily accomplished. About half the visitors, including most of the principal officers of the Association, were carried in a special train, thus making the overland journey an excursion in itself. The total enrolment for the Perth meeting included about 750 members and more than 200 associates. Among the visiting members were delegates from some fifty scientific, technical, and educational bodies in the other States, and delegates from the Commonwealth Government and the Governments of New Zealand, New South Wales, and South Australia. More than twenty scientific and other bodies in Western Australia also sent delegates to the meeting.

At noon on Monday, August 23, the Mayor of Perth gave a civic reception to the Association in the Perth Town Hall. In the afternoon Mr. G. A. Julius, chairman of the reconstituted Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, addressed the Association on the organisation and aims of that body, and explained the important influence its activities must have on the future development of pure and applied science in Australia. In the evening the incoming president, Prof. Edward H. Rennie, delivered his inaugural address in the Perth Town Hall on "The Chemical Exploitation, Past, Present, and Future, of Australian Plants." The retiring president, Lieut.-General Sir John Monash, presided, and at the close of the address a cordial vote of thanks was proposed by the Governor of Western Australia (Sir William R. Campion) and seconded by the Mayor of Perth. On Thursday, August 26, the University of Western Australia gave a garden party in its new grounds at Crawley. Three meetings of the General Council were held during the week, the most important business done being to adopt a new constitution for the Association and to advance the Subsection of Pharmacy to be a full Section to be designated "Section O." Sectional business extended from Tuesday, August 24, to Friday, August 27, inclusive, meetings being held in the daytime in the Perth Modern School and in the evening in the temporary buildings of the University. At the end of the week most of the visitors left to take part in various long-distance excursions.

An innovation tried in some of the sections at the Perth meeting was to hold evening sessions for papers and discussions on topics of more general interest, including in a few cases the sectional presidential address. This was to enable local business and professional men to take part who could not have attended in the daytime, thus extending the opportunities of the general public to share in the activities of the Association. The innovation was fully justified by results, and will probably be taken as a precedent at future meetings.

In his inaugural presidential address, Prof. Rennie, after an appreciative reference to the late J. H. Maiden, for many years general secretary of the Association, and Mr. F. G. Smith, well known for his work on the eucalyptus oils, gave a brief summary of recent work on the structure of the atom, the discovery of new elements, the possibility of atomic transformation, and the significance of the penetrating radiation discovered by Millikan. The main part of the address dealt, however, as its title implies, with the constituents and economic possibilities of Australian plant products, much of it describing Prof. Rennie's own work of the past forty years. The chief plant constituents and products considered were essential oils (eucalyptus, sandalwood, boronia, etc.), gums and resins, coloring matters, and the poisons which cause so much loss to stock owners and farmers. Prof. Rennie strongly urged the need in all the Australian States for active reforestation to maintain a supply of raw materials, and for research on new products and on methods of utilising the present great waste from timber mills.

At the conclusion of his address, the president presented the Mueller medal of the Association to Prof. F. Wood Jones, for distinguished work in anthropology.

In Section A (Astronomy, Mathematics, and Physics) Prof. Kerr Grant gave the presidential address on "Atomic Transmutation." He showed that the developments in physics during the past twenty-five years are based chiefly on the theory of relativity, the quantum theory and the theory of the nucleus atom. The various attempts that have been made to bring about transmutation were reviewed and discussed, and the conclusion was drawn that transmutation of the heavier elements by artificial means, although not improbable, has not adequately been proved.

In his presidential address to Section B (Chemistry) on "Some Aspects of the Problem of Molecular Structure," Prof. James Kenner reviewed the chemical and physical data at present available for developing a rational theory of molecular structure. Such a theory must account for the intricate structure of carbon compounds as well as for absorption, catalysis, and molecular association, the last being specially important since substances like the proteins and rubber have been shown to be associations of relatively simple molecules. Prof. Kenner believes that a firm basis for such a theory and the means to develop it are already at hand. This address followed that in Section A, the two addresses in fact being the first items in a joint discussion of the two Sections on "The Atom and Valency."

In Subsection B₂ (Pharmacy) Mr. A. T. S. Sissons gave the presidential address on "The Indebtedness of Pharmacy to Organic Chemistry," summarising the achievements of organic chemistry in purifying and standardising naturally occurring drugs, and in synthesising these together with many others not found in Nature.

In Section C (Geology and Mineralogy) Sir Douglas Mawson, president of the Section, gave an address on "The Igneous Rocks of South Australia—a Brief Survey of Present Knowledge Relating Thereto." Igneous activity in South Australia appears to have been restricted to four periods: the older pre-Cambrian, as seen at Port Lincoln and Carrow; middle pre-Cambrian, shown by uncrushed granites in the Eyre Peninsula; late pre-Cambrian, as in parts of the Mt. Lofty Ranges; and Tertiary, as in the effusions in the Mt. Gambier district and on Kangaroo Island.

Prof. Launcelot Harrison, president of Section D (Zoology) gave an address on "The Composition and Origins of the Australian Fauna, with special reference to the Wegener Hypothesis." The Australian fauna seems to have had three main origins: an Autochthonian, established in the south-west in very early times; a Euriotian, probably derived by way of the Antarctic continent in Mesozoic or Miocene times; and a more recent Papuan element. The address served also to open a joint discussion between Sections A, C, D, E, and M on "Biological, Geological, and Physical Evidences regarding the Relationship of Australia to other Lands, with special reference to the Continental Drift Theory."

In Section E (Geography and History), Prof. Ernest Scott took as the title of his presidential address "The Discoveries of the Western Australian Coast, with especial reference to Dampier and D'Entrecasteaux," in which he gave the results of an examination of documents bearing on the history of the ill-fated D'Entrecasteaux Expedition in the Archives Nationales in Paris.

The presidential address in Section F (Ethnology and Anthropology), by Prof. F. Wood Jones, contained caustic comment on the treatment meted out to the Australian aborigines in the past, and urged that the only way in which the race can be saved from extinction is by establishing native reserves, where the natives can live their own lives under natural conditions and be protected from pauperisation.

In Section G (Social and Statistical Science) the president, Major L. F. Giblin, took as the title of his address "Federation and Finance—an Examination of the Financial Relations of States to a Federal Commonwealth." In this he showed that the present financial arrangements between the Commonwealth and the States, including taxation, are almost exclusively on a *per capita* basis, which is inequitable, as wealth and population do not run parallel.

Sir Charles Rosenthal, president of Section H (Engineering and Architecture), was unable to attend, but forwarded his address on "Nation Building," which was read to the Section. The address dealt with the dependence of the progress of civilisation on engineering and architecture, and amongst other things urged the necessity on strategic and economic grounds for a uniform gauge for the Australian railways.

In Section I (Sanitary Science and Hygiene) the president, Dr. F. S. Hone, gave an address on "Notification and its Relation to the Prevention of Disease," in which he showed the great need for co-ordination

and reform of the methods of notification in use in the Australian States. To make notification effective for controlling disease, the number of permanent medical officers of health will have to be increased.

In Section J (Mental Science and Education) Mr. P. Board spoke on "Economic and Social Values in Education." Education creates the soul of the nation, acting as the sum of the effects of all the teachers on all the pupils. An extension of the school age is desirable, but will probably require some form of family endowment.

Mr. C. E. Lane Poole, president of Section K (Agriculture and Forestry), who was unable to attend, forwarded an address on "Forestry and Land Settlement." Forestry is agriculture on a long rotation, and to convert good forests into poor grazing land, as so often happens in Australia, is economically unsound; also the wholesale destruction of forests affects the climate adversely.

Prof. J. Douglas Stewart addressed Section L (Veterinary Science) on "The Relationship of Veterinary Science to the Prosperity of the State." Heavy losses of stock are caused annually by parasitic and other diseases. These can be combated successfully only by preventing infestation, but this requires a knowledge of the life history of the parasites, which in many cases we do not possess. Much research is needed, but the veterinary services of the Commonwealth are sadly undermanned.

In Section M (Botany) Prof. A. J. Ewart gave his address on "Past, Present, and Future Development of Botanical Science," dealing with the killing of weeds by poison, which at present is done on purely haphazard and empirical lines, the need for botanical research in Western Australia, and modern views on the ascent of sap in trees.

In the new Section N (Physiology and Experimental Biology) Prof. W. A. Osborne gave the presidential address on "The Study of the Reflex." The response to changes in environment is one of the most obvious manifestations of life, and the higher the organism the wider the range of environmental changes to which it is sensitive. In man the highest form of reflex action is found in the emotions. Prof. Osborne suggested that many body changes that seem without purpose in the individual become clear when the individual is regarded as a member of a society, as they express the interaction between him and his fellows.

Most of the sections had very full programmes. Intersectional discussions were a prominent feature of the meeting, the following discussions being held in addition to those already mentioned: "Catalysis and Enzyme Action" and "Hydrogen-ion Concentration" (Sections B and N), "Teaching of Hygiene in Schools" (I and J), "Soil Classification and Survey" (B, C, K, and M), "Adult Education and the Workers' Educational Association" (E, G, and J), "Poison Plants" (B, K, L, and M), "Water Supplies—Domestic, Agricultural, and Pastoral" (B, C, H, I, K, L, and N), "Treatment of Low-grade Ores" (B and H), "Biological Control of Pests" (D, K, L, and M), and "Timber Preservation" (B, H, K, and M).

Danish Observations of the Planet Jupiter.¹

THE observations of the planet Jupiter made at the Urania Observatory, Copenhagen, during the period 1919-24 are summarised in the publication before us. By far the greater part of the report,

however, deals with the observations secured during the very remarkable apparition of 1919-20—an apparition which saw the revival of the well-known hollow in which the Red Spot normally lies, the south tropical disturbance, and the south component of the south equatorial belt—all of which had disappeared in the earlier part of 1919. In the succeeding apparitions, bad meteorological conditions, and later the

¹ La surface de la planète Jupiter 1919-1924. Par C. Luplau Janssen. (D. Kgl. Danske Vidensk. Selsk. Skrifter, naturvidensk. og mathem. Afd., 8 Række, XI, 1). Pp. 88+7 plates. (København: Andr. Fred. Høst and Son, 1926.) 10 kr.

low position of the planet in the sky, rendered systematic work impossible. We accordingly limit our reference to the discussion of the 1919-20 observations.

The work done may be divided into three parts:

- (1) Micrometrical measures for determining the co-ordinates of individual spots.
- (2) Micrometrical measures for determining the latitudes of the belts.
- (3) Descriptive notes and drawings of the surface features.

M. Luplau Janssen is a firm believer in determining the longitudes as well as the latitudes of Jovian markings with the micrometer, but some eye-estimated transits across the central meridian were also recorded. Many of the older observers of the planet will recollect the discussions which took place several years ago as to the relative merits of the two methods of deriving longitudes. A comparison of M. Luplau Janssen's micrometric results with central meridian transits by other observers shows the accuracy attained to be of much the same order, but it seems to the reviewer that in a given time a considerably larger number of spots can be observed by the transit method, which is a matter of great importance. On the other hand, valuable results can, of course, often be obtained with the micrometer of an object which has already been observed by the transit method, or for some other reason cannot be observed at its central passage. Micrometer measures also have the advantage of furnishing values for the equatorial as well as the polar diameter of the planet, and from his series of observations in 1919-20, M. Luplau Janssen deduces the figures $37''.72$ and $35''.54$ respectively at mean distance, which gives for the oblateness of the disc the value $\frac{1}{15}$. The figures for the equatorial and polar diameters at present adopted in the physical ephemerides are $37''.87$ and $35''.35$.

In the discussion of the observations of individual spots, the conclusions drawn suffer from the, relatively speaking, small number of longitude determinations. In fact, the identifications in some cases seem to the reviewer to be entirely erroneous. A striking example is found in the case of some remarkable spots observed in the south tropical zone (the zone between M. Luplau Janssen's bands IV. and V.). On p. 66 of his report five observations are taken together as referring to one and the same object, but if we accept the conclusions arrived at in the twenty-second report of the Jupiter Section of the British

Astronomical Association recently published, which are based on a very much larger number of observations, we find that they actually belong to four separate objects, and that what is, perhaps, the most interesting fact revealed during the apparition—namely, the abnormal drift in opposite directions of two pairs of spots—has been entirely missed. Similarly, when all the available material is considered it appears that mistakes in the adopted identifications are accountable for some of the large irregularities of motion attributed to certain other spots by M. Luplau Janssen.

A valuable part of the report is that which contains a summary of the micrometrical measures of the latitudes of the belts and a comparison with results obtained by other observers in previous years. As has been often remarked, the latitudes of the belts show considerable variations, and especially has this been the case in recent years with the north edge of the north equatorial belt (M. Luplau Janssen's band III.). M. Luplau Janssen considers that there is evidence in the measures of some of the belts of changes of a periodic nature which are related to the position of the planet in its orbit. It may be questioned whether the available evidence is sufficiently strong to warrant such a conclusion, but the matter is certainly worth careful investigation, and there can be no doubt that measures of the positions of the belts (as emphasised several years ago by the late Prof. G. W. Hough) should be regarded as an important part of the work on Jupiter. M. Luplau Janssen lays emphasis on the stability in position of the south equatorial belt (his band IV.); yet it is worth noting that it is this belt which in 1919 and again in the present year has faded to such an extent as to become invisible save for its north component. Overlying vapours may perhaps be accountable for the effect observed, but on the other hand, in 1920 the revival was attended by disturbances which seemed to indicate some deep-seated cause in the planet's interior.

At the end of the report are seven plates containing 41 drawings, 37 of which belong to the apparition of 1919-20. These drawings illustrate the remarkably rapid and amazingly complicated changes which were associated with the great revival of the south equatorial belt and the south tropical disturbance during that apparition.

Taken as a whole, the report contains a mass of valuable data which will be very welcome to all students of the planet.

The Problem of Secretion.

THE attention of those who are interested in the problem of secretion is directed to a series of three papers by Dr. Robert H. Bowen, of Columbia University, New York, which have appeared in the current volume of the *Quarterly Journal of Microscopical Science* (vol. 70, parts 1, 2, and 3), and especially to the very capable critique of the topography, structure, and function of the Golgi apparatus in glandular tissue which he has given in a fourth paper (part 3, October 1926). Believing that the older theories of secretion had broken down and that the field was clear for the thorough examination of the Golgi apparatus as a synthetic intermediary in the process of secretion, he has concentrated his attention on this subject and has made only brief references to the secretory possibilities of other components of the cell.

Dr. Bowen concludes that the Golgi apparatus is present from the beginning in all kinds of secretory cells, and, when large numbers of secretory granules are being produced, becomes greatly hypertrophied, establishing a volume in rough relation to that of the

secretory products, the other elements of the cell diminishing more and more. The topography and behaviour of the Golgi apparatus are different in different kinds of glands, but can be divided roughly into three general types characteristic of cells which produce serous, mucous, and lipoidal secretions. The secretory granules make their first appearance only within the area delimited by the Golgi apparatus. In a few cases there are indications that the secretory granules arise in close connexion with the Golgi material, and in fact that there is a constant and intimate topographical association between them. Dr. Bowen concludes that the secretory granules are differentiated by the Golgi material, but that no direct transformation of one into the other occurs, such as has been claimed by some authors who have advocated the mitochondrial origin of secretions. Dr. Bowen suggests that the Golgi material is structurally homologous throughout the range of animal cells, and that the so-called idiosomic substance sometimes associated with it is to be looked upon as one phase

of a duplex system in which the relative development of lipoidal and idiosomic substances may undergo considerable variation.

Having established a probability in favour of the essential homology between secretory granules and the acrosome of the animal sperm, Dr. Bowen suggests that the relationship between the Golgi apparatus and the secretory granules is homologous to that existing between the Golgi apparatus and the acrosome, and that our more complete understanding of the latter phenomenon can be used as a basis for interpreting the much more obscure phenomena in the gland cell. He adds that the establishment of the views developed in his paper must depend finally upon further critical evidence from favourable material bearing upon the exact relation which exists between the individual secretory granule and the Golgi complex.

Dr. Bowen holds that no cytological evidence of the origin of secretory products from the nucleus receives any acceptance at the present time. The nucleus can be considered as the source of secretions only in the indirect sense that it may possibly exercise some control over the process as a whole, or may collaborate with other parts of the cell-system in preparing materials for the synthetic operations of the Golgi apparatus.

When a cell is divided into a nucleated and a non-nucleated portion, the latter is able to carry on synthetic activities for a brief period only; meanwhile the nucleated part regenerates and appears none the worse for the operation. Hence it was concluded that the nucleus is the centre of synthetic operations, and particularly of the formation of those intracellular enzymes upon which living activity is now supposed to depend. But it is at least equally possible that the nucleated piece alone continues capable of constructive metabolism because it possesses the complete cell-system, while in the non-nucleated piece the system is disrupted. Dr. Bowen remarks that if the Golgi apparatus could be eliminated, the cell would doubtless be fatally affected. While secretion is an activity in which the cell-system as a whole is probably involved, and over which the nucleus exercises some controlling influence, the actual synthetic centre for the differentiation of secretory granules is the Golgi apparatus. That this source of the visible secretory granules "is likewise the source of the invisible, intra-cellular enzymes . . . cannot at present be doubted, but our scanty knowledge of these things makes any hypothesis whatever almost pure speculation."

Forestry in Illinois and Great Britain.

IT is common knowledge that the drain upon the world's resources of coniferous timber is very heavy, and that in some countries the outlook is regarded with increasing disquietude. In the "Third Report on a Forest Survey of Illinois," by C. J. Telford, the position of the State is explained with great clarity, and the parallel to the state of affairs existing in Great Britain is depicted. The present forests of the United States contain an estimated total of 481,800 million cubic feet of standing timber, the annual cut is 25,000 million cubic feet and the annual growth 6039 million cubic feet. "The virgin forests," the report says, "will carry us another 25 years, after which we shall probably be wholly dependent upon growth from cut-over lands. By utilising the entire 470 million acres of forest lands at prevailing rates of growth these cut-over lands can supply us with an estimated annual yield of 14,000 million cubic feet—a little more than half our present requirements. The conviction that satisfactory substitutes for wood will be found is untenable when the enormous amount of wood required is appreciated. This drain of 25,000 million cubic feet of standing timber a year means that for every hundred pounds of coal, iron, cement, petroleum and copper consumed the forests supply 67 pounds of wood, and the crop lands supply 44 pounds of all forms of crops, including cereals, seeds, clover, hay, forage, cotton, potatoes, sugar, fruit, and nuts. It is obvious that a satisfactory substitution for a commodity representing by weight two-thirds of virtually all the minerals consumed, or one and a half times all crops raised in the United States, is impossible. A timber famine will be more disastrous to Illinois than to any other State. Its manufacturing establishments employ 11.6 per cent. more hands than agriculture, transportation, and

mining combined, and thirty per cent. of all persons employed in manufacture are in industries dependent upon wood. In the single item of lumber, Illinois consumes one-thirtieth the total lumber-cut of the world."

The process of forest destruction is far advanced in Illinois. Virgin timber has practically disappeared, and the present drain on the cut-over forests and second growth stands, unchecked, will, it is held, result in an early disappearance of all forests in the State. There was an increase in unforested waste land of 250,000 acres in the ten years from 1910 to 1920, and Illinois now has a total of 1,577,663 acres in this class. The 3,021,650 acres now forested are on lands unsuited to ordinary farming, and if cleared will generally revert to waste land. The state of affairs thus briefly delineated is sufficiently alarming from the industrial outlook alone and renders the more interesting the following comparison with the position of Great Britain.

"There is a striking parallel between Illinois and Great Britain in the total wood consumption and in the total area forested. Each annually consumes approximately the same quantity of wood—560,720,000 cubic feet for Illinois and 600,000,000 cubic feet for Great Britain; each has about the same area forested—3,021,650 for Illinois and about 3,000,000 acres for Great Britain. But Great Britain, despite a population of 437.5 to the square mile as compared with 115.7 in Illinois, and the consequent pressure for land, has deliberately undertaken to replant 1,770,000 acres, and this planting is being done at the rate of 20,000 acres a year. Illinois has never planted 200 acres of publicly owned forests, her farm woodlands are decreasing at the rate of 4500 acres a year, and the unimproved and waste land on farms is increasing at the rate of 25,000 acres a year."

Bird Flight.

IN the *Transactions of the Royal Society of South Australia*, vol. i., 1926, an interesting contribution is made by Prof. F. Wood Jones on the flight of sea-birds. It has long been observed that many sea-birds spend protracted periods, sometimes soaring, sometimes gliding, and at any rate to the novice, apparently without a visible tremor of the

wing. Their flight appears to be merely an ability to slide ahead with no other power than their own weight and a presumably instantaneous ability to readjust their planes and alter their cant and poise apparently largely by movements of the head.

As a result of close study and observation extending over many years, Hankin maintains that in the

wake of a ship the air must possess a physical property which he terms 'soarability' by means of which sea-birds are enabled to extract from the air in that region an upward momentum. Presumably this must mean that the air in passing over the ship is set into a state of disturbed eddying of such a general direction of rotation and of such a distribution of intensity vertically that the bird experiences a lift it would not otherwise acquire.

Prof. Wood Jones, on the other hand, regards the soaring and gliding of pelagic birds as due rather to a morphological adaptation of the bird as an adjusted plane than to any chance condition of "soarable" air. Regarded in this way, he maintains, the zoned north and south distribution of the different morphological types of sea-birds and the failure of the albatross, for example, to follow ships into the tropics, well adapted as it is for gliding, must be investigated from the point of view of bird structure correlated to the environment to which it appears to be adapted. In the case of the albatross, there appears to be a perfect mastery of aerial conditions well to the south of the equator, a lessening mastery farther north, and a positive disability, laboured flapping flight, as the journey is made towards the equator. The same facts apparently hold with regard to the northern representatives.

Prof. Wood Jones points out, moreover, that the zonal distribution of species from the equator northwards is very similar to the distribution southwards from the equator, with a similar increasing ratio of weight to wing area, culminating at both poles with the southern penguins at one end and their extraordinary parallels, the northern auks, at the other. The clue to this gradation is to be sought in the increase in atmospheric density from the equator in both directions, so that a bird adapted for flight in the denser atmosphere finds difficulty in maintaining its gliding and soaring in the rarer atmospheres of the tropics. By indicating this new line of approach, Prof. Wood Jones undoubtedly has given a new impetus to the study of bird flight.

University and Educational Intelligence.

BIRMINGHAM.—Mr. H. Munro Fox, fellow of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge, has been appointed to the Mason chair of zoology to succeed the late Prof. F. W. Gamble. Mr. C. G. C. Chesters has been appointed assistant lecturer in botany.

The Council has recommended to the Court of Governors that the title of emeritus professor be conferred on Thomas Turner, formerly professor of metallurgy.

EDINBURGH.—At the graduation ceremony on December 17, the degree of D.Sc. was conferred on Bains Prasad, Superintendent of the Zoological Survey of India, the Indian Museum, Calcutta, for his thesis on (1) "Recent and Fossil Viviparidæ: a Study in Distribution, Evolution, and Palæogeography," and (2) "The Shell and Mantle of the Viviparidæ"; the degree of Ph.D. on R. K. S. Mitchell for his thesis on "Some β Octyl Esters of Substituted Acetic Acid"; and the degree of M.D. on Eric H. Ponder, with gold medal, for his thesis on "Studies in Hæmatology."

APPLICATIONS are invited by Yale University for two Theresa Seessel Research Fellowships for the promotion of original research in biological studies. The value of each is 1500 dollars. Preference will be given to candidates who have already obtained their doctorate, and have demonstrated by their

work fitness to carry on successfully original research of a high order. The holder must reside in New Haven during the college year, October to June. Applications, accompanied by reprints of scientific publications, letters of recommendation, and a statement of the particular problem which the candidate expects to investigate, should be made to the Dean of the Graduate School, New Haven, Conn., before March 1, 1927.

IN the course of the past year inquiries were made by the Institution of Mechanical Engineers of the colleges and schools conducting approved part-time courses as to the ages and occupations of candidates for the Ordinary and Higher National Certificates in mechanical engineering. Information has been supplied from 85 colleges and schools in Great Britain in respect of 1000 candidates for the ordinary certificate and 334 for the higher certificate. The average age of the former candidates was about 19.5 years, and of the latter about 21.5 years. No less than 801 of the 1000 candidates for the ordinary certificate were between the ages of 18 and 21 years. Classifying the candidates in respect of occupation, it was found that apprentices of all classes constitute 71.3 per cent. of the candidates for the ordinary certificate, and 32.4 per cent. of those for the higher certificate, and that the combined proportions of trade apprentices and mechanics following these courses are 42.4 per cent. for the ordinary certificate and 37.7 per cent. for the higher certificate. The proportions of successful candidates were 52.5 per cent. for the ordinary certificate and 67 per cent. for the higher certificate.

THE East Anglian Institute of Agriculture, Chelmsford, announces in its Calendar for 1926-27 that alterations during 1925-26 have enabled it to offer facilities for instruction of a more advanced character than that obtainable at any similar institute in Great Britain. The research work at present in progress includes deterioration diseases of potatoes, seeds mixtures, autumn versus spring sowings, composition of butter-fat in goat's milk, winter spraying, colonisation of salt marshes, bunt in wheat, wheat bulb fly, and Hessian fly. Agricultural economics courses include one on the history of British agriculture. Special courses on the agriculture of New Zealand, of Australia, and of Canada and South Africa, are provided. A list of appointments held by past students does not indicate that any of them have as yet gone abroad. The North of Scotland College of Agriculture has a very different record in this respect, a very large proportion of the posts held by its former students being in other countries. The Calendar of this College for 1926-27 announces, among other courses, a "Planter's Certificate Course" specially provided to meet the requirements of students intending to enter on service upon tea, coffee, rubber, sugar, and other plantations in tropical and sub-tropical countries. It extends over two complete winter sessions and one intervening summer session. No preliminary qualifying examination is prescribed. Nine students obtained the degree of B.Sc. in agriculture during the past session. The courses in forestry formerly provided by the College have been transferred to the University of Aberdeen. The Edinburgh and East of Scotland College of Agriculture has in the past, like the North of Scotland College, sent many students abroad, but the list published in its new Calendar of appointments gained by students shows a falling off in this respect. This College, like the East Anglian Institute, offers a course on the history of British agriculture based on Lord Ernle's "English Farming, Past and Present."

Calendar of Discovery and Invention.

January 1, 1801.—After the enunciation of Bode's law and the discovery of Uranus, it was thought there must be an undiscovered planet the path of which lay between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter. A group of astronomers, therefore, agreed to make a systematic search, and on January 1, 1801, Giuseppe Piazzi, at Palermo, saw Ceres, the first of the minor planets or asteroids. By 1845 four others had been discovered, but since the application of photography to astronomy many hundreds have been identified. Ceres, however, is the largest, being 485 miles in diameter.

January 1, 1855.—Among the methods used for determining the density of the earth is that introduced by Airy, who, in 1826 and 1828, with Whewell and Sheepshanks, made pendulum experiments at Dolcoath Mine, Cornwall. Later, he repeated these experiments at Harton Colliery, South Shields, at a depth of 1260 feet, and gave an account of these in a lecture at South Shields on January 1, 1855. The result he obtained gave 6.56 as the mean density—a value, however, considerably too high.

January 2, 1818.—The foundation of the Institution of Civil Engineers was due to six engineers, of whom the best known were William Maudslay, Joshua Field, and Henry Robinson Palmer. The first formal meeting was held at the Kendal Coffee House, Fleet Street, on January 2, 1818. On January 23, 1820, it was proposed to ask Thomas Telford to become president. He was formally installed on March 21 of that year, and held the presidency until his death in 1834. The first home of the Institution was at 15 Buckingham Street, Adelphi, and the first volume of *Proceedings* was issued in 1836.

January 3, 1752.—While spectrum analysis was due to Newton, it was the young divinity student Thomas Melvill who first used a prism for the examination of various flames; introducing sal-ammoniac, potash, alum, etc., into burning spirits. He gave an account of his experiments to the Medical Society of Edinburgh on January 3, 1752, while another paper of his was read to the Royal Society in 1753 by Bradley. (See NATURE, November 5, 1914, vol. 94, p. 263.)

January 4, 1896.—On this day Röntgen gave an account of his discovery of X-rays to the Physical Society of Berlin. His discovery was made on November 8, 1895, and was described in a paper entitled "On a New Kind of Rays," which appeared in the *Sitzungsberichte der Würzburger physik.-medic. Gesellschaft*. A translation of this paper was given in NATURE of January 23, 1896, together with an article and an X-ray photograph contributed by Mr. A. A. Campbell Swinton.

January 7, 1610.—No accidental discovery has had more far-reaching results than the discovery of the principle of the telescope. From the report of what Lippershey had done, Galileo made telescopes magnifying three, eight, and thirty times, and on January 7, 1610, at one o'clock in the morning, observed for the first time three of the satellites of Jupiter, and thus ushered in the era which has seen so vast an extension of our knowledge of the sky.

January 7, 1785.—The first to make a balloon ascent solely for scientific purposes, Dr. John Jeffries, on January 7, 1785, with the famous aeronaut Blanchard, crossed the English Channel from Dover to Calais, where a marble column was erected to commemorate the feat. On an ascent from London in 1784, Jeffries carried with him meteorological instruments and obtained samples of air at various heights for Cavendish. E. C. S.

Societies and Academies.

LONDON.

British Mycological Society, November 20.—W. J. Dowson: An unusual species of Botrytis attacking Narcissus. The fungus is the cause of 'fire,' marking the leaves with one or more yellow patches. The spores of the fungus are very large, and germinate with as many as thirteen germ tubes after up to one hour in water or in dilute glycerine.—Miss A. Lorrain Smith: A new family of lichens. The lichen *Cryptothecia subnidulans* was described by the late Dr. Stirton, and has led to much difficulty in assigning it to a systematic position. Stirton's herbarium has revealed three additional species of the genus and two closely allied ones for which a new genus is proposed; the two genera form a family characterised by the apparently double-walled ascus containing septate or muriform spores and embedded in a lax peridium of interwoven hyphæ. Affinity with the fungi Myriangiales and Gymnoascales is suggested; the nearest lichen allies appear to be Thelocarpaceæ and Mycoporaceæ.—O. V. Darbishire: Isidia and soralia of lichens. Isidia in *Peltigera pratextata* develop endogenously from special hyphæ which make their way to the surface, breaking through the cortex or making use of a crack. The mature isidia are very highly developed assimilators. There is a primary cortex on the upper surface with walls of wavy outline. The secondary cortex is similar to the cortex of the thallus. The gonidia are fairly closely packed towards the upper cortex with a very loose arrangement just inside the lower cortex. This cortex is of one layer of cells, with sinuate walls and interrupted here and there by pores. Soredia also have an endogenous origin. A few gonidia are gradually surrounded by the fungus and the differentiating soredium is raised to the surface of the sorial tissue, from which it becomes detached as a reproductive organ.—W. R. I. Cook: The genus *Ligniera*. Cross inoculations have shown that several species which have been described are merely host varieties. Infection takes place by zoospores entering root hairs. Spores serve as a resting stage and for propagation within the plant. Reduction division occurs at the formation both of spores and zoospores. Conjugation has not been seen.—W. A. Roach: On the nature of disease resistance in plants, with special reference to the wart disease of potatoes. Wart disease is an example of physiological resistance. Evidence at present suggests that immune and susceptible varieties form two distinct classes and not end members of a continuous series. The reaction towards wart disease is unaffected by grafting on either a foliage system, a root system, or of a complete plant of opposite reaction to the disease. Immunity from, or susceptibility to, wart disease is therefore probably innate to the cell and must be sought in compounds which cannot cross a graft fusion layer unchanged, and so probably cannot leave a cell. These compounds may be proteins.

Geological Society, December 1.—Howel Williams: The geology of the Snowdon massif (North Wales). The area described is limited on the north-east by the Pass of Llanberis, on the south-east by the Vale of Gwynant, on the south-west by the Colwyn and Gwyrfaï Valleys to near the village of Salem, and on the north-west by the supposed line of junction between the Cambrian and the Ordovician rocks. The general stratigraphical succession is made out. The exact relationship between the Ordovician and the Cambrian systems on the northern flank of Snowdon is uncertain. Ramsay's threefold division of the

Snowdon Volcanic suite remains the most useful basis for its study. The Upper and Lower Rhyolitic series were derived from a potash-rich magma. The approximate age of the Snowdon Volcanic suite is inferred to be between Middle Llandeilian (zone of *Climacograptus peltifer*) and Middle Caradocian (zone of *Dicranograptus clingani*). Many dykes, inclined sheets, and bosses of quartz-porphry, microgranophyre, and intrusive rhyolite occur on Snowdon, the largest intrusion being that of Crib Goch, formerly considered to be an outlier of the Upper Rhyolitic Series. Both mineralogically and chemically, the acid intrusive rocks resemble the Snowdon rhyolites. Pre-cleavage sills of augite-dolerite and spilitic dolerite occur at several horizons, and present various biotite- and copper-rich modifications. The major folding is of north-east-and-south-west strike, and occurred almost wholly after the period of basic intrusions. Its dominant expression is the so-called 'Snowdon syncline,' the north-western limb of which lies in a recumbent position in the area immediately south of Rhyd-ddu. The major folding was succeeded first by a cleavage of similar strike, and afterwards by a minor folding and thrusting due to pressures directed south-eastwards, the thrusting being most pronounced along the recumbent limb of the 'Snowdon syncline.' Finally, the area was broken into blocks by faults, most of which belong to the same family of movements as those just enumerated, although some may have moved again during the Tertiary era.—Albert Heard: On Lower Old Red Sandstone plants showing structure, from Brecon (South Wales). A new fossil plant locality is recorded from the Senni beds in the neighbourhood of Brecon. A new Lower Old Red Sandstone plant, *Goslingia breconensis*, is recorded; the plant is rootless and leafless, with stomata and hairs; gregarious, erect, dichotomously-branched, cylindrical stems arise from dichotomously-branched rhizomes with rhizoids; the stems are circinate coiled in the apical regions. The stele consists of a large strand of tracheids which have both spiral and reticulate thickening, surrounded by protoxylem and phloem; the outer cortex of the aerial stem consists of four layers of thick-walled cells. Reniform appendages borne on special branches are interpreted as sporangia. There is also a peculiar organism resembling *Pachytheca*.

Society of Public Analysts, December 1.—William G. Savage: Recent advances in the bacteriological examination of food and water. The four tests used to differentiate the high and low types of coliform organisms in water and their value as indicators of excremental contamination are discussed. As regards milk, the value of examining centrifuged deposits for the tubercle bacillus is considered, and new tests for distinguishing pathogenic streptococci from those of bovine origin not injurious to man are described.—L. H. Lampitt, E. B. Hughes, and L. H. Trace: On the presence and detection of furfural in vinegar. In the distillation of malt vinegar or wine vinegar, furfural is produced by the acid hydrolysis of the pentosans contained in the vinegar. Added caramel in vinegar will only give the furfural it originally contained as such. A modified aniline acetate test has been devised wherein the rose-coloured furfuraniline is extracted by an immiscible solvent, amyl alcohol. Thus dark-coloured vinegar may be tested for furfural without distillation. The test is quantitative.—E. R. Dovey: The rapid determination of opium in stomach contents. A standard solution is made from ordinary prepared opium which has itself been standardised to contain 10 per cent. of morphine and 5 per cent. of meconic acid. A measured quantity of

the stomach washings are treated successively with dilute hydrochloric acid, mercuric chloride solution, and ferric chloride solution, and the resulting colour is matched with that given by the standard under the same conditions. The mercuric chloride inhibits the formation of any coloration with thiocyanic acid in the opium.—C. H. Manley: A rapid method for the sorting of butters and margarines. The method depends upon the butyric acid content of butter fat. The filtered fat is saponified, the soap solution acidified with sulphuric acid, and the insoluble fatty acids filtered off under specified conditions. The excess of sulphuric acid in the filtrate is neutralised (methyl orange as indicator) and the titration with standard alkali continued to neutrality, with phenol phthalein as indicator. The difference between the result and that obtained in a blank test affords a measure of the soluble fatty acids. The neutral solution may be used for determining the Kirschner value.

CAMBRIDGE.

Philosophical Society, November 22.—H. W. B. Skinner: On the polarisation of mercury lines emitted from a discharge tube in a magnetic field.—C. F. Sharman: The application of the method of the magnetic spectrum to the study of secondary electronic emission. The relative merits of the method of retarding potentials and of the magnetic spectrum for the investigation of the energy distribution of electronic emissions are discussed. The latter method was used in the case of the secondary emission excited in metal surfaces by a beam of electrons with energies between 100 v. and 1000 v. With a copper target, the distribution curve is very nearly independent of the energy of the primary beam. The results are in general agreement with those obtained by means of retarding potentials; there is, however, a discrepancy in the position of the low energy peak as given by the two methods.—L. H. Thomas: The calculation of atomic fields. The effective field V inside an atom is assumed to be that due to the nuclear charge and to electrons distributed uniformly in the phase space of their motion in the field at 2 for each h^3 of phase space corresponding to closed orbits. Thus

$$\nabla^2 V = \frac{64\sqrt{2}}{3} \pi^2 \frac{e^3 m^3}{h^3} V^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

The fields so calculated agree well with those that have been constructed to fit X-ray data.—L. Wertenstein: A contribution to the theory of diffusion pumps. The mercury vapour stream in a diffusion pump carrying gas from the 'low pressure' side to the 'high pressure' side creates a pressure gradient which explains the working of the pump. The pressure gradient is given by a diffusion formula (Gaede, Hertz) or directly by a dynamical method (corresponding to the calculation of diffusion coefficients by dynamical considerations: Langevin, Chapman). The agreement is excellent for hydrogen, a little worse for air. Hence the final ratio of pressures on 'high' and 'low' pressure side of a diffusion pump must be higher when the diffusion coefficient is smaller, *i.e.*, that so far as final vacuum is concerned, the diffusion pump is more efficient for heavier than for lighter gases. This result seems at first in contradiction with the fact that the diffusion pump pumps out quicker the lighter gases, but it was found that, at the same temperature, carbon dioxide was removed more perfectly than argon, and argon than hydrogen.—W. Burnside: On a group of order 25920 and the projective transformations of a cubic surface.—P. A. M. Dirac: The Compton effect in wave mechanics.—J. B. S. Haldane: A mathematical

theory of natural and artificial selection. Part iv.—G. C. Steward: On the addition of the primary aberrations. In applying the characteristic function to particular optical systems three steps are necessary: the properties of the composite system must be examined in general, and then their dependence upon the corresponding properties of the component systems, and finally an examination must be made of the simplest components. The first and third of these have been undertaken elsewhere; a simple method is now given of achieving the second step—the method being applicable especially to the primary aberrations. Relations are obtained between the aberration coefficients of the composite system and the corresponding coefficients of the components.

LEEDS.

Philosophical and Literary Society, November 2.—P. K. Dutt: Anilopyrine and antipyrine (Preliminary Note). Anilopyrine alcohoxides, in the absence of water, decompose spontaneously into 2-alkyl 5-pyrazolones, and a secondary amine. Further, the character of the substituents in position 2 and in the 5-amino group profoundly influences the yields of the two products. The fallacy of Michaelis's arguments in support of his bridge formula for anilopyrine is pointed out; there is no ground for discarding the anil structure of anilopyrine suggested by Stolz.—H. M. Dawson and C. R. Hoskins: Isohydric solutions and the velocity of chemical change. Measurements of the rate of reaction of acetone with iodine under the catalysing influence of isohydric solutions containing equivalent quantities of acetic acid and sodium acetate are in accord with the view that the reaction velocity corresponds with the sum of effects due respectively to the hydrogen ion, the hydroxyl ion, the acetate ion, and the undissociated acid. The proportion of the total effect attributable to the hydrogen and hydroxyl ions amounts to about 30 per cent. in a 0.005 molar solution, whereas this proportion is only about 0.2 per cent. in the case of a molar solution.—H. M. Dawson and L. H. Angus: The nature of solutions of the strong acids from the standpoint of the salt effect: the system nitric acid, sodium nitrate. The changes produced in the solubility of iodine in water by the addition of sodium nitrate can be expressed by an exponential formula $S = S_0 e^{-kc}$. When nitric acid solutions (1.3 N and 2.7 N) are substituted for water, there is no change in the nature of the salt effect. The observations support the view that nitric acid is an almost completely ionised electrolyte.—R. Whytlaw Gray and H. Whitaker: A new method of determining the vapour pressures of aqueous solutions. This consists in suspending a droplet of solution from a fine silica spiral microbalance and measuring its weight when it has come into equilibrium with a solution of known vapour pressure placed in the balance case. Preliminary measurements with droplets of solutions of sulphuric acid surrounded either with sucrose solutions or with partially dehydrated oxalic acid have shown that the method is capable of giving accurate results.—B. A. Burrell: Atmospheric pollution in Leeds, 1922-25.—E. Percival and H. Whitehead: Biology of the mayfly *Ephemera Danica*, Müll. Observations have been made on the conditions under which *E. danica* exists. The nymphs are largely confined to sandy deposits where the particles consist chiefly of the coarse and fine sand fractions. The insects are positively rheotactic, negatively phototactic, and, in the light, burrow rapidly. These responses, along with poor swimming powers, tend to limit the distribution of the animals to the sandy regions of streams. An attempt has been made to relate

quantitatively the occurrence of these nymphs with their habitat.—J. H. Priestley: The relation of cork formation to the endodermis in the shoot of the dicotyledon. An account is given of the occurrence and distribution of the polyderm in the shoot of *Rubus Idæus*, and of the suberised layers in the stem of *Camellia japonica*. In the light of these facts the distribution of cork in *Camellia*, superficial below the bud scale scars and pericyclic elsewhere in the axis, and the extent of the formation of wound cork in both stems, becomes intelligible. No interpretation of the influence of suberised endodermal structures upon cork formation in the dicotyledon shoot will be possible except upon the basis of detailed studies of this type.

MELBOURNE.

Royal Society of Victoria, November 4.—O. W. Tiegs: Metamorphosis of insects. Different degrees of metamorphosis are exhibited by different groups of insects. In dragon-flies there is probably but little change; in coleoptera there occurs a partial tissue disruption, and a partial tissue rejuvenation; in muscid flies a very profound tissue disruption occurs; but the most profound metamorphosis yet described occurs in the chalcid wasp (*Nasonia*), where every specialised larval cell disintegrates at metamorphosis, and, after removal by phagocytes, or after simply dissolving in the blood, is replaced by imaginal cells. In *Nasonia* the death of the larval cells is not due to phagocytic action, but is a direct consequence of their enormous growth in size, increase in the size of the larva being the result, not of an increase in the number of larval cells, but of an increase in their volume.—A. J. Ewart and Lesley R. Kerr: Contributions to the flora of Australia (No. 32). The paper contains a number of additions to the flora of the Northern Territory. *Euphorbia petala* n. sp. is related to *E. ulsiniflora* and *E. Drummondii*; *Indigofera uncinata* n. sp. is a xerophytic adaptation of *I. australis*. *Eucalyptus Gillean* n. sp. from the summit of Mount Gillen is related to *E. Oldfieldii*; *Vellira prostrata* n. sp., while related to *V. perfoliata*, has the bracts practically free at the base instead of connate. The collection of abundant material of *Ptychosema* in all stages of development has made it clear that this genus, and also *Lamprolobium*, belong not to the Galegeæ but to the Genisteæ.—J. M. Baldwin: The technique of the Nanson preferential majority system of election. This system of election, in contrast to other majority systems, fulfils the fundamental condition of majority representation, namely, that a candidate who could beat each of the other candidates separately must be elected. The technique evolved reduces the work of scrutineering to within practical limits. The technique developed has been tested in practice, the time for the tabulation being $Nn(n-1)/1000$ m hours (N voters, n candidates, m scrutineers). A method for reducing the number of candidates to ten is suggested which, while not rigidly accurate, is so unlikely to lead to error that the possibility may be neglected.

VIENNA.

Academy of Science, November 4 and 11.—J. Zellner, K. Knie, E. Rosenblüh, M. Stein, and J. Richling: Contributions to comparative vegetable chemistry (xv.). Chemistry of barks (fifth communication). *Acer*, *Cratægus*, *Pavia*, and *Picea* have yielded various substances, including ceryl alcohol, palmitic and stearic acids, invert sugar, tannins, etc.—J. Zellner, E. Huppert, R. Klapholz, K. Knie, O. Pollatschek, A. Spitzer, J. Richling, and M. Stein (xvi.): Chemistry of plants with milky sap. The

juices of seven species of the chicory family were found in qualitative agreement containing caoutchouc, two stearin-like alcohols, lactucero and other substances.—E. Feyertag and J. Zellner (xvii.): *Rhododendron hirsutum*.—J. Zellner: Chemistry of halophytes. Those on the eastern shore of the Neusiedler See near Vienna are rich in sulphates.—R. Seka and O. Schmidt: Nitro-derivatives of dinaphthantracene-diquinone and their transformations.

Diary of Societies.

SATURDAY, JANUARY 1.

ROYAL INSTITUTION OF GREAT BRITAIN, at 3.—Prof. A. V. Hill: Nerves and Muscles: How we Feel and Move: (3) The Heart and some other Muscles.

MONDAY, JANUARY 3.

ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY (at Eolian Hall), at 3.30.—F. Rodd: Camels and Caravans (Christmas Lecture for Young People).

VICTORIA INSTITUTE (at Central Buildings, Westminster), at 4.30.—Capt. T. W. E. Higgins: Man and his God: The Origin of Religion in the Gentile World as taught by St. Paul.

INSTITUTION OF AUTOMOBILE ENGINEERS (Western Centre) (at Merchant Venturers' Technical College, Bristol), at 6.45.—Prof. W. Morgan: The Optical Indicator as a Means of Examining Combustion in Internal Combustion Engines.

SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY (London Section) (at Chemical Society), at 8.—J. H. Coste and Col. Butler: Modern Developments in the Treatment of Sewage.

ROYAL INSTITUTE OF BRITISH ARCHITECTS, at 8.—B. Anrep: Mosaics.

TUESDAY, JANUARY 4.

ROYAL INSTITUTION OF GREAT BRITAIN, at 3.—Prof. A. V. Hill: Nerves and Muscles: How we Feel and Move: (4) The Lungs and Blood: How the Muscles get Air and Fuel.

INSTITUTION OF AUTOMOBILE ENGINEERS (at Royal Society of Arts), at 7.—Dr. B. A. Keen: The Place of the Tractor in Soil Cultivation.

ROYAL PHOTOGRAPHIC SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN, at 7.—M. Adams: Impressions of America and Canada—Photographic and otherwise.

HULL CHEMICAL AND ENGINEERING SOCIETY (at Hull), at 7.45.—G. H. M. Hutchinson: Refrigeration.

INSTITUTION OF AUTOMOBILE ENGINEERS (Coventry Graduates' Meeting) (at Broadgate Café, Coventry), at 7.45.—W. N. Haynes: Recent Developments in Motor Cycle Engine Design.

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 5.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS, at 3.—Prof. C. R. Darling: The Story of a Wireless Valve (Dr. Mann Juvenile Lectures) (1).

PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY OF ENGLAND (at 138 Piccadilly), at 4.30.—Rev. J. B. Jaggard: The Philosophy of Faith.

GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 5.30.—C. S. Elton: The Nature and Origin of Soil-Polygons in Spitsbergen.—Dr. F. Dixey: The Tertiary and Post-Tertiary Lacustrine Sediments of the Nyasan Rift-Valley.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF MEDICINE (Comparative Medicine and Tropical Diseases and Parasitology Sections), at 5.30.—Discussion on Trypanosomiasis in Man and Animals.

INSTITUTION OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS (Wireless Section), at 6.—G. H. Nash and others: Informal discussion on The Acoustic Problems of Microphones and Loud-Speakers.

INSTITUTION OF HEATING AND VENTILATING ENGINEERS (at Caxton Hall), at 7.—R. E. Herring: The Supervision during Erection and Maintenance of a Low Pressure Hot Water Heating Apparatus.

ROYAL MICROSCOPIC SOCIETY (Biological Section).

NORTH-EAST COAST INSTITUTION OF ENGINEERS AND SHIPBUILDERS (Middlesbrough Branch, Graduate Section) (at Middlesbrough).—C. Boast: Marine Condensing Plant.

THURSDAY, JANUARY 6.

ROYAL INSTITUTION OF GREAT BRITAIN, at 3.—Prof. A. V. Hill: Nerves and Muscles: How we Feel and Move: (5) Nerves and Muscles Working Together.

INSTITUTION OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS, at 6.—A. R. Cooper: Electrical Equipment of Track on the Underground Railways of London.

INSTITUTION OF THE RUBBER INDUSTRY (Birmingham and District Section) (at Grand Hotel, Birmingham), at 7.—A. W. T. Hyde: Physical Tests and their Significance.

SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY (Bristol Section, jointly with Fuel Section) (at Bristol University), at 7.30.

SOCIETY OF DYERS AND COLOURISTS (West Riding Section) (at Bradford).—Prof. F. M. Rowe: Solenon Colours (SDC) and their Development on Cotton and Wool.

INSTITUTION OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERS (Manchester Branch) (at Manchester).—R. Potter: Pulverised Fuel.

FRIDAY, JANUARY 7.

ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY (at Eolian Hall), at 3.30.—J. H. Reynolds: A Little Journey in the Kingdom of Iceland (Christmas Lecture for Young People).

INSTITUTION OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS (South Midland Centre) (at Engineering and Scientific Club, Wolverhampton), at 7.—W. Wilson: Electrical Research.

INSTITUTION OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERS (Informal Meeting), at 7.—Dr. C. H. Lander: Developments in the Carbonisation of Coal.

ROYAL PHOTOGRAPHIC SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN (Pictorial Group), at 7.

PHOTOMICROGRAPHIC SOCIETY (at 4 Fetter Lane), at 7.—F. Martin Duncan: Notes on the Photography of Plant Tissues.

SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY (Manchester Section) (at 16 St. Mary's Parsonage, Manchester), at 7.—Short Papers.

GEOLOGISTS' ASSOCIATION (at University College), at 7.30.

JUNIOR INSTITUTION OF ENGINEERS, at 7.30.—P. J. Haler: Distortion in Heat-treated Case-hardened Carbon Steels.

SATURDAY, JANUARY 8.

ROYAL INSTITUTION OF GREAT BRITAIN, at 3.—Prof. A. V. Hill: Nerves and Muscles: How we Feel and Move: (6) Speed, Strength, and Endurance.

CONFERENCES.

ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS (at University College).

Thursday, December 30, at 3.—Sir Henry A. Miers: The Choice of What is Good for Others (Presidential Address).

Friday, December 31, at 11.30 A.M.—Earl of Clarendon: Empire Settlement and Development.—King Alfred School Society, at 3.—J. Wicksteed: The Evolutionary Value of Co-Education.—Royal Drawing Society, at 5.30.—H. E. Peacock and P. Griffith: The Education and Development of Aesthetic Ability in Young People.

Saturday, January 1.—Educational Handwork Association, at 2.—J. H. Everett: The Teaching of Practical Elementary Science.—Leply House, at 3.—Discussion: The Periodical Observation. Its Use for Observational and Regional Survey Work.—International Language (Ido), at 5.—G. H. Richardson: International Language: The Present Situation and the Prospect.

Monday, January 3.—Eugenics Society, at 11 A.M.—Prof. E. W. MacBride: The Nature and Origin of Racial Differences.—British Psychological Society (Education Section), at 6.—Discussion: S. J. F. Philpot, Miss Barbara Low, and others: The Cinema in Relation to the Mind of the Child.—British Association for Physical Training, at 5.30.—C. S. Thomson: Hygiene and Physical Training.

Tuesday, January 4.—School Nature Study Union, at 3.—Dr. E. J. Salisbury: Salt Marsh Vegetation.

Wednesday, January 5.—Society for Experiment and Research in Education, at 10.30 A.M.—J. H. Whitehouse and others: Creative Education.—Child Study Society, at 5.30.—Miss Lillian Barker: The Girl Delinquent.—British Esperanto Association, at 5.30.—Rev. Prof. T. G. Bailey: Esperanto in the World to-day.

Thursday, January 6.—National League for Health, Maternity, and Child Welfare, at 5.—Miss Gardner, Dr. R. J. M. Horne, and others: Discussion: Open Air Schools.—London Head Teachers' Association, at 5.—W. A. Brockington and Prof. Godfrey Thomson: Technique of Examination.

Friday, January 7.—British Broadcasting Company, at 11 A.M.—J. C. Stobart and others.

GEOGRAPHICAL ASSOCIATION (at London School of Economics, Houghton Street, Aldwych, W.C.2).

Thursday, January 6, at 11.30 A.M.—Major C. Patrick: Mapping from Air Photographs.—At 5.—Miss Eileen Power: Trans-Asiatic Caravan Routes in Ancient and Modern Times.—At 8.—J. Fairgrieve: Geography Teaching in Primary Schools.—Sir Henry G. Lyons: Geography in the Universities.

Friday, January 7, at 10 A.M.—Prof. H. J. Fleure: The Teaching of Geography.—At 11.45.—Sir C. F. Close: Population Problems of the Empire (Presidential Address).—At 2.—Col. Jack: The Work of the Ordnance Survey Department.

Saturday, January 8, at 10 A.M.—Prof. T. P. Nunn: Boy Scout Geography.—At 11.30.—Mrs. Ormsby: Regional Survey in a Large City.

JANUARY 3 AND 4.

MATHEMATICAL ASSOCIATION (Annual Meeting) (at London Day Training College).

Monday, January 3, at 5.30.—Prof. R. W. Genese: An Elementary Exposition of the Methods of Grassmann.

Tuesday, January 4, at 10.30 A.M. to 12.30.—Prof. M. J. M. Hill: The Teaching of Mathematics (Presidential Address).—Prof. A. Lodge: The Importance of including in School Work the Graphic Solution of Quadratic Equations.—G. Goodwill and others: Discussion on The Choice of Units in the Teaching of Mechanics.—A. C. Heath: On the Approximation to Irrational Numbers by Rationals.—At 2.30 to 4.15.—Prof. H. F. Baker: Can the Range of Geometry taught in Schools be Widened?—W. C. Fletcher: Geometrical Congruence.—A. T. Edwards and others: Discussion on The Relation of Art to Mathematics.

EXHIBITION.

JANUARY 4, 5, AND 6.

SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF THE PHYSICAL SOCIETY AND THE OPTICAL SOCIETY (at Imperial College of Science and Technology, South Kensington), from 3 to 6 and from 7 to 10.

January 4, at 8.—Prof. E. N. da C. Andrade: Reproduction, with Contemporary Apparatus, of a Physical Lecture of the Early Eighteenth Century.

January 5, at 8.—Dr. C. V. Drysdale: A Lecture on Progress in Electrical Instrument Design and Construction.

January 6, at 8.—J. L. Baird: A Lecture on Television.

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