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INDEX

- ABBAY (R.)**, Shadow of Adam's Peak, 152
Abbe (Prof. Cleveland), Popular Errors in Meteorology, 375
Abel (Sir Frederick, C.B., F.R.S.), the Work of the Imperial Institute, 17
Abercromby (Hon. Ralph): Upper Wind Currents near the Equator and the Diffusion of Krakatao Dust, 85; Shadow of Adam's Peak, 197; Upper Cloud Movements in the Equatorial Regions of the Atlantic, 222; the Meteorologische Institut at Upsala and Cloud Measurements, 319; the Different Varieties of Thunderstorms, and a Scheme for their Systematic Observation in Great Britain, 548
Aberration, a General Method of Determining the Constant of, M. Læwy, 118
Abrus precatorius, the Proteids of Seeds of, Dr. Sidney Martin, 70
Absolute Wave-length, Recent Determinations of, L. Bell, 524
Absorption-Spectra of the Haloid Salts of Didymium, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 570
Absorption-Spectra of Rare Earths, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 570
Abt (Dr.) and Dr. Noelting on the Constitution of Azimido Compounds, 569
Acetic Ether, Velocity of Formation of, Prof. Menschutkin, 569
Acids, Cinnamic, on some New, Dr. Cohen and Prof. Perkin, 570
Acoustics: Experiments on Laws of Vibration of Tuning-Forks, Prof. Munk, 383
Adam's Peak, Shadow of, R. Abbay, 152; Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 197
Admiralty Manual of Scientific Inquiry, 255
Aëronautics: Captive Kite-Balloon, E. Douglas Archibald, 278
Aërostation, Academy of, in France, 429
Affinity, Residual, Wm. Durham, Prof. H. E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 30
Affinity and Solution, Chemical, Wm. Durham, 318
Africa: Capt. van Gèle's Exploration of Mobangi Tributary of Congo, 66; Mitteilungen of the German African Society, 91; Dr. Junker's Explorations in Central, 257; News of African Travel, Herr G. A. Krause, 258; Lieut. Wissmann's African Expedition, 283; Return of Lieut. Wissmann from his Journey across Africa, 616; Ethnology of the Ogoway and Lower Congo Basins, Cav. A. Pecile, 377; Forestry of West Africa, Alfred Moloney, 387; Dr. Holub's African Explorations, 452; News of Stanley's Expedition, 475; Geology of Africa, Dr. Gürich, 478; Religious Conditions of, Dr. Opperl, 589
After-glows, J. Lloyd Bozward, 245
After-glows at Helensburgh, Robert H. Scott, F.R.S., 175; Lewis P. Muirhead, 175
Agardh (J. G.), Till Algernes Systematik, Mrs. Mary P. Merrifield, 313
Agricultural Chemistry, Experiments in, J. Raulin, 456
Agricultural Pests of India, Surgeon-General Edward Balfour, 169
Agriculture: Premium offered for the Best Text-book of Tropical Agriculture, 499
Aino Studies, the Language, Mythology, and Geographical Nomenclature of Japan viewed in the Light of, 25
Air-Bubbles from Snow, Rev. A. Bonney, 215
Air, Micro-Organisms in, a New Method for Determining, Prof. Carnelley and Thos. Wilson, 570
Airy (Sir G. B., F.R.S.), on the Establishment of the Roman Dominion in South-East Britain, 78
Aitken (Sir W.), the Growth of the Recruit and Young Soldier, 587
Ajax, H.M. Ship, the Steering of, 61
Alaska, Shores and Alps of, A. W. Seton Karr, 220
Albert Hall, Indian Antiquities at, 184
Albert Medal, the, 135
Albert Nyanza and Muta-Nzige, 499
Albuquerque (J. A.), Primeiros Principios da Theoria dos Determinantes, 51
Alcock (Dr. Thomas), Natural History of the Coast of Lancashire, 526
Alcohol, Bichlorureted, M. Delacre, 116
Alcohol, New Tetrahydric, M. Combes, 587
Alcohol and Water Combinations, Prof. Mendeléeff, 570
Alcoholic Fermentation, Chemical and Physiological Equation of, Prof. Delpino, 456
Algæ, Gelatinous Sheathing of Filaments of, Herr G. Klebs, 15
Algæ, the Classification of, J. G. Agardh, Mrs. Mary P. Merrifield, 313
Algebra, Higher, H. S. Hall and S. R. Knight, 409, 507
Algeria: the Grasshopper Plague in, 184; Earthquake in, 350; Volcanic Eruption on Algerian Coast, 376
Algiers, the Locust Plague in, 350
Algol Type, New Variable of the, E. Sawyer, 376
Alkali Trade, Present Position of the, A. E. Fletcher, 569
Alkaline Vanadates, 24
Alkyl Nitrites, the Reduction-Products of the Nitro-Paraffins and, Prof. Dunstan and T. S. Dymond, 570
Alloys: on the Electro-Deposition of, Prof. S. P. Thompson, 547; Experiments on the Possible Electrolytic Decomposition of, Prof. Roberts-Austen, F.R.S., 547
Alphita, a Medico-Botanical Glossary from the Bodleian Manuscript Selden B. 35, Dr. J. F. Payne, 529
Alpine Flowers, the Preservation of, 111
Alps, Preliminary Note on Traverses of the Western and of the Eastern, made during the Summer of 1887, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 590
Alps of Alaska, Shores and, W. H. Seton Karr, 220

- Altai, Flora of the, A. Krasnoff, 325
 Alumina, on the Reduction of, M. G. A. Faurie, 528
 Aluminium, its History, &c., Joseph W. Richards, 292
 Alums formed by Selenic Acid, on the, C. Fabre, 287
 Alvarez (E.), Microbe of Indigo, 360
 Amagat (E. H.): Expansion and Compressibility of Water, 24; Solidification of Liquids by Pressure, 312
 Amati (Prof. A.), on the State of Education in Italy, 45
 Amber, Remarkable Piece of, 63
 America: American Association for the Advancement of Science, 14, 398, 429; American Woman's Education Association, Seaside Laboratory for Study of Biology, 15; American Journal of Science, 64, 113, 479, 551, 575; American Journal of Mathematics, 70, 262; American Oriental Association, 111; American Indian Dialects, Gatschet's Ethnographic Map of, 112; Earthquakes in Central America, 136; American Institute of Electrical Engineers, 161; American Museum of Natural History, 279; Education in America, W. Odell, 295; American Mining Industries, R. Pumpelly, 315; American Meteorological Journal, 375; Minerals at the American Exhibition, 381; British Museums and American Museums, Dr. Alfred R. Wallace, 530; Scientific Revival in the Southern States of America, 587
 Anales de la Oficina Meteorologica Argentina, 110
 Analysis, Qualitative Chemical, Dr. C. Remigius Fresenius, 411
 Analysis, Qualitative, Outlines of, A. H. Sexton, 410
 Analytical Statics, a Treatise on, I. Todhunter, 459
 Anatomical Researches on the Physiology of the Spinal Ganglia, Dr. Joseph, 120
 Ancon, the Necropolis of, Prof. A. H. Keane, 281
 André (MM. Berthelot), on the Liberation of Ammonia by Vegetable Soils, 72
 Animals, Breeding for Intelligence in, Dr. H. Rayner, 246
 Animals Liable to become addicted to Opium-Poisoning, Jammes, 325
 Animals, Lower, Effects of Earthquakes upon, Prof. Milne, 350
 Annalen der Hydrographie und Maritimen Meteorologie, 136, 348, 617
 Annalen der Physik und Chemie, 165, 375
 Annales de l'Institut Pasteur, 112
 Annals of Botany, the New Botanical Periodical, 254
 Annatto, 279
 Antarctic Expedition, Proposed Victorian, 17; Antarctic Exploration, 277; Capt. C. Pasco, R.N., on, 399; Australian Promotion of, 211
 Anthropology: Anthropological Institute, 72, 117, 143; on the Relative Recuperative Powers of Man in Rude and Civilized States, Dr. G. Harley, F.R.S., 143; a Suggestion for Anthropologists, Dr. William F. Warren, 198; Opening Address by Prof. A. H. Sayce, President of Section H at the British Association, 511; the Primitive Seat of the Aryans, Canon Isaac Taylor, 597; the Non-Aryan and Non-Semitic White Races and their Place in the History of Civilization, J. S. Stuart Glennie, 598; on the Picture Origin of the Characters of the Assyrian Syllabary, Rev. W. Houghton, 598; Boat-shaped Graves in Syria, Geo. St. Clair, 598; the Effect of Town Life upon the Human Body, J. Milner Fothergill, 598; on the Bosjes Pelvis, Prof. Cleland, F.R.S., 598; Experimental Production of Chest Types in Man, G. W. Hambleton, 599; Scientific Treatment of Consumption, G. W. Hambleton, 599; Tattooing, Miss A. W. Buckland, 599; Early Ages of Metal in South-East Spain, Henri and Louis Siret, 599; Certain Degenerations of Design in Papuan Art, S. J. Hickson, 599; Origin of Totemism, C. Staniland Wake, 599; Gypsies and an Ancient Hebrew Race in Sus and the Sahara, R. G. Haliburton, 599; Colour-Names amongst the English Gypsies, W. E. A. Axon, 599; on the Migrations of Pre-Glacial Man, Henry Hicks, F.R.S., 599; Observations on Recent Explorations made by General Pitt-Rivers, at Rushmore, J. G. Garson, 600
 Anticyclone, the Jubilee, 248
 Anticyclones, is Cold the Cause of?, H. Helm Clayton, 268
 Ants at Nancy, Shower of, 349
 Apatite in Slag, Occurrence of, W. M. Hutchings, 460
 Aponogetonaceae, on the, A. Engler, 117
 Aquila, Meetings of the Geodynamical Committee of the Italian Meteorological Society at, 614
 Arabia, South-West, General Haig's Journey to, 211
 Arabia, Southern, Contemplated Journey in, Ed. Glaser, 478
 Arago Statue, the, 254
 Archaeological Institute, Congress of the, 348
 Archaeology, Indian, 184
 Archibald (E. Douglas): Upper Wind Currents near the Equator and the Diffusion of Krakatão Dust, 152; Captive Kite-Balloon, 278
 Arctic Flora in Central Sweden, Discovery of Fossil Remains of an, Prof. A. G. Nathorst, 211
 Ardennes, Walks in the, Percy Lindley, 340
 Areovolumeter, Dr. Sandrucci's, 45
 Areschong (Prof. J. E.), Death of, 111
 Argentine Republic, Meteorology in, 283
 Argyll (Duke of, F.R.S.): Thought without Words, 52; the Scenery of Scotland, 603
 Aristotelian Society, Abstract of its Proceedings, 586
 Arizona, Earthquake in, 110
 Armstrong (Prof. H. E., F.R.S.), Residual Affinity, 30; Note on Valency, 569
 Anaudeau (M.), Proposed Aerial Postal Tube between Dover and Calais, 349
 Arnold (Edwin Lester); Bird Life in England, Prof. R. Bowdler Sharpe, 435
 Arrol (William), Machinery employed at the Forth Bridge, 356
 Art and Literature, the Connection between Science and, Prof. Huxley, 14
 Artists, Science for, 199; Ed. L. Garbett, 221
 Aryans, the Primitive Seat of the, Canon Isaac Taylor, 597
 Ascherson's (Prof. Paul) Botanical Researches in Egypt, 254
 Asia, Central, MM. Bonvalot Capus and Pepin's Journey in, 588
 Asiatic Society of Bengal, 95
 Assyrian Syllabary, on the Picture Origin of the Characters of the, Rev. W. Houghton, 598
 Astronomy: Astronomical Column, 16, 43, 65, 90, 112, 138, 161, 185, 232, 256, 282, 308, 376, 401, 431, 454, 477, 501, 527, 542, 564, 588, 616; Astronomical Phenomena for the Week, 16, 44, 65, 90, 113, 138, 161, 186, 210, 232, 257, 282, 308, 326, 350, 377, 401, 431, 456, 478, 502, 527, 544, 565, 588, 616; the Orbit of the Minor Planet Eucharis, Dr. L. de Ball, 16; New Organization for furthering Astronomical Research (Draper Memorial), 41; Miss Clerke's Popular History of Astronomy, 43; Melbourne Observatory, 44; Transit of Venus in 1882, 44; on the Movements of the Solar System in Space, P. Ubachs, 45; Diurnal Nutation, L. Niesten on, 45; Paris Astronomical Congress, 54; International Astronomical Congress, 429; Total Solar Eclipse of August 19, 1887, 60; Dr. A. Woeikof, 77; in Japan, Prof. David P. Todd, 609; Micrometric Measures of Jupiter and Saturn, Dr. Dobrick, 65; Present Appearance of Saturn's Ring, M. Stuyvaert, 65; the Red Spot upon Jupiter, 65; Discovery of a New Comet, 65; on a General Method for Determining the Constant of Aberration, M. Lœwy, 72, 118; Photography the Servant of Astronomy, M. de Gothard, 90; a New Minor Planet, 90; Comet 1887 *e* (Barnard, 1887, May 12), 138; Dr. E. Lamp, 90; Astronomical Photography, Prof. C. A. Young, 113; Paris Observatory, M. Mouchez, 112; Astronomical Photography, 113; Comet 1887 *e* (Barnard, May 12), Dr. H. Oppenheim, 113; Minor Planet No. 266, 138; Parallax of α Tauri, 138; Madras Meridian Observations, 138; Annual Visitation of the Royal Observatory, 139; the Great Southern Comet (1887 *a*), 161, 185; New Minor Planets, 161; Companion of Sirius, 186; a Short Method of Computing Refractions for all Zenith Distances, 186; Relative Positions of the Principal Stars in the Pleiades, Dr. W. L. Elkin, 232; Researches on the Diameter of the Sun, Prof. Auwers, 256; the Nice Observatory, M. Faye, 282; Photographic Chart of Heavens, Mouchez, 287; Total Solar Eclipse of 1886, W. H. Pickering, 308; New Variable of the Algol Type, E. Sawyer, 376; Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College, Edward C. Pickering, 388; Magnitudes of Nautical Almanac Stars, 401; Comet 1887 *e* (Barnard, May 12), 401; Note on Work carried out at Meudon Observatory, J. Janssen, 408; Variable Star in the Ring Nebula in Lyra, Herr Spitaler, 431; New Variable Star, Mr. Espin, 431; Discovery of a Comet, W. R. Brooks, 431; Brooks's Comet, H. V. Egbert, 454; Dr. Franz, 478; Observations of Brooks's New Comet, 504; the Morrison Observatory, 455; New Observatory at Juvisy, 455; Total Solar Eclipse of August 19, M. Niesten, 455;

- Minor Planet No. 267, 455; Astronomische Gesellschaft, 476; Neuchâtel Observatory, Dr. Hirsch, 477; Wedge Photometer, Prof. Pickering, 477; Differential Formulas for Variation of Element of an Orbit, R. Radau, 480; New Variable, Prof. Lewis Boss, 501; Dearborn Observatory, Prof. Hough, 501; the Spectra of Hydrogen, Oxygen, and Water Vapour, Prof. Grünwald, 501; on the Problematic Satellite of Venus, Prof. Stroobant, 503; Observations of Olbers' Comet (1815 I.), 504; Cordoba Observatory, 527; New Minor Planet, 527; Olbers' Comet, 1887, W. H. Brooks, 527; Provisional Elements of Brooks's New Comet, (August 24), M.M. Rambaud and Sy, 528; on the Organization of the Astronomical Service in the United States, M. A. Laussedat, 528; Flamsteed's Stars "Observed but not Existing," Prof. C. H. F. Peters, 542; Corrigenda in Various Star-Catalogues, Prof. Peters, 543; the "Satellite" of Venus, M. Stroobant, 543; the Leander McCormick Observatory, Prof. Ormond Stone, 543; the Nice Observatory, M. Perronin, 543; Proper Motion of L1 26481, J. Tebbutt, 564; the Washburn Observatory, 564; New Minor Planet, Dr. Peters, 588; Olbers' Comet, Herr O. Tetens, 588; Southern Double Stars, 588; Parallax of \approx 2398, Dr. E. Lamp, 616; New Minor Planet, Dr. Knorre, 616; Liverpool Astronomical Society, 623
- Ataxy, Experiments on Origin of, Dr. Goldschneider, 384
- Atlantic Weather Chart, 178
- Atlantic, North, Ocean, Earthquake in, 183
- Atlantic, Upper Cloud Movements in the Equatorial Regions of the, Capt. David Wilson-Barker, 197; Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 222
- Atlas, Queen's Jubilee, 208
- Atlas, Statistical, of India, 615
- Atmospheric Electricity, Nahrwald's Experiments on, 280; Observations of, Prof. L. Weber, 548
- Atmospheric Pressure, Colliery Explosions and, Hy. Harries, 437
- Atomic Weight of Gold, J. W. Mallet, F.R.S., 568
- Atomic Weight of Zirconium, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 568
- Atoms, the Inter-molecular Arrangement of, Prof. J. Wislicenus, 280
- Atropine, on the Constitution of, Prof. Ladenburg, 570
- Aubel (Van), Nature of Chemical Action between Acids and Zinc, 400
- August Meteors of 1887, W. F. Denning, 407
- Auk*, the, 64
- Aurora Boreales, at Thronhjelm and New York, Remarkable, 89
- Australia: the Diamond-drill Bore in, C. S. Wilkinson, 210; Australian Promotion of Antarctic Exploration, 211; Fauna of, Meyrick, 215; Dr. von Lendenfeld's Explorations of the Australian Alps, 283; Meteorology of the Australian Alps, Dr. von Lendenfeld, 348; Australian Museum of Sydney, 501
- Auwers (Prof.), Researches on the Diameter of the Sun, 256
- Axon (W. E. A.), Colour Names amongst the English Gypsies, 599
- Ayrton (Prof. W. E., F.R.S.) and Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., the Secohmmeter, 129; Note on Beams fixed at Ends, 191
- Ayrton (Prof., F.R.S.), Magnetic Resistance, 262; Magnet Ammeters and Voltmeters, 263
- Azemar (Père), on the Stiang Tribe, 501
- Azimido Compounds, on the Constitution of, Drs. Noelting and Abt, 569
- Babylonian Seals, Dr. W. H. Ward, 111
- Bacillus of Malaria, 613
- Backhouse (T.W.): Iridescent Clouds, 77; Bishop's Ring, 102, 365; Sky-coloured Clouds, 269, 365, 556; the Perception of Colour, 531; the Law of Error, 531
- Bacteria: the Effect of Freezing on, Dr. T. M. Prudden, 89; Influence on Organic Substances in Water by Development of, S. Leone, 209; on the Presence of, in the Lymph, &c., of Living Fish and other Vertebrates, Prof. J. C. Ewart, 251; Photography of, Edgar M. Crookshank, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 316, 388
- Baden, Meteorology in, 324
- Bailey (Dr. G. H.): the Atomic Weight of Zirconium, 568; Absorption-Spectra of Rare Earths, 570; Absorption-Spectra of the Haloid Salts of Didymium, 570
- Baird (Spencer F.), Obituary Notice of, R. Bowdler Sharpe, 397
- Baker (B.), Bridging the Firth of Forth, 79
- Balance, Hughes's Induction, J. Cook, 605
- Balances, Torsion, Dr. A. Springer, 569
- Balfour (Surgeon-General Edward), Agricultural Pests of India, 169
- Ball (John, F.R.S.), Flora of North Patagonia, 539
- Ball (Dr. L. de), the Orbit of the Minor Planet Eucharis, 16
- Ball (Sir Robert S., F.R.S.), a Dynamical Parable, 424
- Balloon, Captive Kite, E. Douglas Archibald, 278
- Balloon Ascent, Jovis and Mallet, 374
- Ballooning: a New Varnish for Textile Materials, Jovis, 376
- Ballot, Solution of a Problem of Probabilities concerning the, J. Bertrand, 432
- Baltic Canal, the, 136
- Banded Gneisses, the Origin of, J. J. H. Teall, 590
- Barbier (M. Ph.) and M. Léo Vignon, on a New Mode of Formation of the Substituted Safranines, 615, 624
- Barnard (E. E.), Discovery of a New Comet by (May 12, 1887, c), 65; Dr. E. Lamp, 90; Dr. H. Oppenheim, 113, 138; Dr. H. Kreutz, 401
- Barus (Carl), Viscosity of Steel and its Relations to Temperature, 479; Effects of Magnetization on the Viscosity and the Rigidity of Iron and Steel, 575
- Batavia Observatory, 184
- Bath (W. Harcourt), Sparrow Chasing Pigeons, 4
- Baths, Effect of, on Chemical Phenomena of Respiration and Nutrition, 89
- Bathy-hypsographical Map of the British Isles and Surrounding Seas, Report of the B.A. Committee appointed to make Suggestions with Reference to the Production of a, 518
- Baumann (Dr. Oscar), on the Island of Fernando Po, 617
- Bavaria, Earthquake in, 376
- Baxendell (Joseph, F.R.S.): Death of, 563; Obituary Notice of, Prof. Balfour Stewart, F.R.S., 585
- Beard (J.), Parietal Eye in Fishes, 246, 340
- Beare (Thos. Hudson), 279
- Beaver Colonies in Norway, 210
- Beddard (F. E.), on the Structure of *Fratercula arctica*, 593
- Bees, Fertile Workers, F. R. Cheshire, 47
- Belfast Lough, Occurrence of *Sterna anglica* in, Prof. Robert O. Cunningham, 582
- Belfast Naturalists' Field Club, 88
- Belgium, on the Influence of the Various Geological Formations in, M. Navez, 617
- Bell (Prof.), Grouse Disease, 240
- Bell (L.), Recent Determinations of Absolute Wave-length, 524
- Bell (Robert George), the Pliocene Beds of St. Erth, Cornwall, 591
- Belon (Pierre), Unveiling of a Statue to the Memory of, 586
- Bender (Dr. C.), Remarkable Relations between certain Physical Constants and Chemical Valency, 375
- Bengal, Asiatic Society of, 95; the Recent Cyclone in Bay of, 136, 306
- Benham (W. B.), Recent Researches on Earthworms, 70, 593
- Bennett (Dr. Alfred W.), British Association Sectional Procedure, 197
- Bennettites, on Count Solms-Laubach, 593
- Ben Nevis Observatory, 253, 430; Meteorological Office, Criticisms on, 452; Report of the B.A. Committee on, 498; Hygrometry of Ben Nevis, H. N. Dickson, 548
- Berlin: Academy of Sciences, 254; Chemical Society, 42; Meteorological Society, 24, 119; Physical Society, 96, 119, 144, 216; Physiological Society, 48, 96, 123, 168, 383
- Bernthsen (Prof.), Methylene Blue and Methylene Red, 569
- Berthelot, Recoura, and Louguinine, Heats of Combustion, 167; on Transition between Aromatic and Fatty Series, 312; Researches on Drainage, 624
- Berthelot and André, on the Liberation of Ammonia by Vegetable Soils, 72
- Berthelot and Fabre, the Different States of Tellurium, 118
- Bertrand (J.), Solution of a Problem of Probabilities concerning Ballot, 432
- Bertrand (M. J.), Thermodynamics, 528
- Bettany (G. T.), Life of Chas. Darwin, 124
- Bevan (Th.), Discovery of Two New Rivers in New Guinea, 478
- Bezold (Prof. von), Newton's Law of Colour-mixing, 119
- Bibliothèque Géologique de la Russie, 400
- Bidwell (Shelford), on Magnetic Torsion of Iron Wires, 143

- Binet (Paul) and J. L. Prevost, *Cytisus laburnum*, Physiological Action of, 504
- Binocular Vision, on some Phenomena of, Joseph Le Conte, 551
- Biology: Seaside Laboratory for Study of, American Women's Education Association, 15; Liverpool Marine Biology Station on Puffin Island, Prof. W. A. Herdman, 275; on a Point of Biological Interest in the Flowers of *Pleurothallis ornatus*, Rchb. f., F. W. Oliver, 303; Opening Address in Section D at the British Association, by Prof. Alfred Newton, F.R.S., President of the Section, 462; the Problem of the Hop-Plant Louse (*Phorodon humuli*, Schrank) in Europe and America, Prof. C. V. Riley, 566; Proposed Contributions to the Theory of Variation, Patrick Geddes, 592; on the Structure of *Haplodiscus piger*, W. F. R. Weldon, 592; on the Degeneration of the Olfactory Organ of Certain Fishes, Prof. Wiedersheim, 592; on the Torpid State of Protopterus, Prof. Wiedersheim, 592; the Larynx and Stomach of Cetacean Embryos, Prof. D'Arcy Thompson, 592; the Blood Corpuscles of the Cyclostomata, Prof. D'Arcy Thompson, 592; on the Luminous Larviform Females of the Phengodini, Prof. C. V. Riley, 592; the Present Aspect of the Cell Question, Prof. Schäfer, 592; *Icerya purchasi*, an Insect Injurious to Fruit-Trees, Prof. Riley, 592; the Hessian Fly, Prof. Fream, 592; Recent Researches on Earthworms, W. B. Benham, 593; a Luminous Oligochaete, Prof. Harker, 593; on the Structure of *Fratercula arctica*, F. E. Beddard, 593; on Cramer's Gemma borne by *Trichomanes alata*, Prof. Bower, 593; on Bennettites, the Type of a New Group between Angiosperms and Gymnosperms, Count Solms-Laubach, 593; Secretion of Pure Aqueous Formic Acid by Lepidopterous Larvæ for the Purposes of Defence, E. B. Poulton, 593; Further Experiments upon the Protective Value of Colour and Markings in Insects, E. B. Poulton, 594; Further Experiments upon the Colour-Relation between Phytophagous Larvæ and their Surroundings, E. B. Poulton, 594
- Birds: Provincial Names and Folk-Lore of British Birds, Rev. Charles Swainson, 49; Our Bird Allies, Theodore Wood, 99; Use of Flowers by Birds, 101, 244; William White, 173; Birds and Caterpillars, A. G. Butler, 280; Folk-Lore of Ceylon Birds, 381; Ocean Birds, J. F. Green, Prof. R. Bowdler Sharpe, 435; Bird-Life in England, Edwin Lester Arnold, Prof. R. Bowdler Sharpe, 435; Photochronography applied to Dynamic Problems of Flight of Birds, M. Marey, 480; Birds at Lighthouses and Light-vessels, Migration of, Report of the B.A. Committee for the Purpose of obtaining Observations on the, 516; on the Measurement of the Forces brought into Play in the Flight of a Bird, M. Marey, 552. (See also Ornithology.)
- Bismuth in Magnetic Field, Caloric Conductivity of, A. Righi, 312
- Bismuth and Manganese, Fluorescences of, Lecoq de Boisbaudran, 336
- Blake (Prof. J. F.), on a Star-fish from the Yorkshire Lias, 591
- Blanford (Henry F., F.R.S.): Eleven-Year Periodical Fluctuation of the Carnatic Rainfall, 227; Carnatic Rainfall, 293
- Blast-Furnace Coal Tar from the Garthsherrrie Works, on the Constituents of the Light Oils of, Watson Smith, 569
- Blue Hill Observatory, 281
- Blyth (A. W.), Lead-poisoning, 117
- Board Schools, Proposed Evening Classes in Elementary Natural Science in, 254
- Board of Trade on Weights and Measures, Report of, 204
- Boat-shaped Graves in Syria, Geo. St. Clair, 598
- Bodies, Rolling Contact of, Prof. Hele Shaw, 92
- Bodleian Library, the, 109
- Bog-Oak in Norway, 185
- Bohemia, on the Permian Fauna of, Prof. Anton Fritsch, 591
- Boiling-Point and Pressure, M. F. O'Reilly, 4
- Boiling, Melting and, Point Tables, Thos. Carnelley, 441
- Boisbaudran (Lecoq de): Fluorescences of Manganese and Bismuth, 336; New Fluorescences with well-marked Spectral Bands, 360; New Fluorescences with well-defined Spectral Rays, 383, 408
- Boiteau (O.), Phylloxera, 312
- Bolletino della Società Geografica Italiana, 375
- Bombay Observatory, 280
- Bonavia (E.), the Cultivated Oranges and Lemons of India and Ceylon, 563
- Bonn, Earthquake at, 452
- Bonnetond (M.), New Way of utilizing Dynamite, 564
- Bonney (Rev. A.), Air-Bubbles from Snow, 215
- Bonney (Prof. T. G., F.R.S.): Microscopic Structure of some Caucasian Rocks, 70; Landslip at Zug, 389; on the Rounding of Pebbles by Alpine Rivers, with a Note on their Bearing upon the Origin of Bunter Conglomerate, 573; Preliminary Note on Traverses of the Western and of the Eastern Alps, made during the Summer of 1887, 590; Märjalen Sea, 612
- Bonnier (Gaston), Les Plantes des Champs and des Bois, 555
- Bonvalot, Capus, and Pepin's (MM.) Journey in Central Asia, 588
- Bore, the Diamond-Drill, in Australia, C. S. Wilkinson, 210
- Boreal Cloudlets, Luminous, D. J. Rowan, 245
- Borneo Expedition, Whitehead's, 279
- Bort (L. Teisserenc de), Charts showing Mean Amount of Cloud over Surface of Globe, 15
- Bosanquet (R. H. M.), Magnetization, on Sequences of Reversals, 23
- Bosjes Pelvis, on the, Prof. Cleland, F.R.S., 598
- Boss (Prof. Lewis), New Variable, 501
- Boston Church Tower, Thermometrical Observations on, W. Mariott, 118.
- Botany: Proposed Botanical Survey of India, 14; Botanische Jahrbücher, 22; the Development of Form in Roburoid Oaks, Franz Krasan, 22; a New Species of Truffle, Ad. Chatin, 23; Tabasheer mentioned in Older Botanical Works, Dr. Ernst Huth, 29; Variation in Plants and Animals, Patrick Geddes, 47; on Bigeneric Orchid Hybrids, R. A. Rolfe, 70; *Narcissus reflexus*, W. Brockbank, 70; *Nicotiana glauca*, J. H. Stone, 70; the Proteids of the Seeds of *Abrus precatorius* (Jequirity), Dr. Sidney Martin, 70; *Vaccinium intermedium*, N. E. Brown, 70; Flora of Christmas Island, W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., 78; Aponogetonaceæ, A. Engler, 117; Die Natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien, A. Engler and K. Prandl, 123; Botanical Federation in West Indies, D. Morris, 135; Oberplocian-Flora aus den Baugruben des Klärbeckens bei Niederrad und Schleuse bei Höchst a M., T. Geyler und F. Kinkelin, J. Starkie Gardner, 150; German Carnivorous Plants, Kerner and Wettstein, 209; the Mucilage-Cells of Ferns, Tokutaro Ito and Walter Gardiner, 214; the Tubercular Swellings on Roots of *Vicia Faba*, Prof. H. M. Ward, 214; Annals of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Calcutta, vol. i., 242; the Annals of Botany, 254; Botanical Researches in Egypt, Prof. Paul Ascherson's, 254; My Hundred Swiss Flowers, Mary A. Pratten, 267; Proposed West Indian Island Botanical Stations, 279, 348; on a Point of Biological Interest in the Flowers of *Pleurothallis ornatus*, Rchb. f., F. W. Oliver, 303; Habitat of *Peripatus leuckarti*, 324; Botany of San Domingo, W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., Baron Eggers, 367; Radicular Nature of Stolons in Nephrolepis, A. Trécul, 408; a Monstrous Foxglove, F. R. Tennant, 482; F. Howard Collins, 508; Garden Roses of India, Sir D. Brandis, F.R.S., 509; Alpha: a Medico-Botanical Glossary from the Bodleian Manuscript Selden B. 35, 529; Botany of the Riukiu (Loochoo) Islands, Tokutaro Ito, 538; Flora of North Patagonia, John Ball, F.R.S., 539; Les Plantes des Champs et des Bois, Gaston Bonnier, 555; *Cornus macrophylla*, Specimen near Auchnagie, 564; on Cramer's Gemma borne by *Trichomanes alata*, Prof. Bower, 593
- Bottomley (J. T.), Expansion by Heat of Wires under Pulling Stress, 550
- Boulder-Clay, Till or Lower, Comparative Study of the, in several of the Glaciated Countries of Europe, Hugh Miller, 573
- Boulder-Stones, Note on a Few of the Remarkable, to be found along the Eastern Margin of the Wicklow Mountains, Prof. Edward Hull, F.R.S., 574
- Bouquet de la Grye, Tidal Velocities of Pacific and Atlantic Oceans in Canal between the two, 143
- Bourdillon (T. F.), Fertilization of the Coffee Plant, 580
- Bourne (Prof. A. G.): Scorpion Virus, 53; a Junior Course of Practical Zoology, 77; Sense of Taste or Smell in Leeches, 125
- Boussinesq (M. J.), on the Theory of Outflow between Narrow Walls at a Low or a High Level, 600

Boussingault (M.), Obituary Notice of, 134
 Bovine Origin of Scarletina, Researches on the, M. Pichenev, 624
 Bowler (Prof.), on Cramer's Gemma borne by *Trichomanes alata*, 593
 Bowman (F. H.), the Chemistry of Cotton Fibre, 569
 Bowrey (James John), Fall of Peculiar Hailstones in Kingston, Jamaica, 153
 Bozward (J. Lloyd), After-Glows, 245
 Brackebasch's (Dr.) Explorations of the Cordilleras, 283
 Bradford Philosophical Society, 431
 Brain and the Spinal Marrow, Duality of the, M. Brown-Séguard, 624
 Brandis (Sir D., F.R.S.), Garden Roses of India, 509
 Braun (Dr. Carl), a New Cosmogony, A. M. Clerke, 321, 341
 Brazil, Nepheline Rocks in, O. A. Derby, 286
 Breeding for Intelligence in Animals, Dr. H. Rayner, 246
 Breton (Ph.), Measurement of Luminous Sensations in Function of the Quantities of Light, 480
 Bridge, Forth, 79; Structure and Progress of the, E. Malcolm Wood, 353; Machinery employed at the, William Arrol, 356
 Brigham (W. T.), Kilauca in 1880, 479
 Brindley (W.), Account of a Recent Visit to the Ancient Porphy Quarries of Egypt, 595
 Brines, on Ice and, J. Y. Buchanan, 9
 Brisbane University, Proposed, 13
 Britain, South-East, on the Establishment of the Roman Dominion in, Sir G. B. Airy, F.R.S., 78
 BRITISH ASSOCIATION, 158, 231, 323; General Arrangements, 348, 377; Sectional Procedure, Prof. Silvanus P. Thompson, 151; Dr. Alfred W. Bennett, 197; Foreign Visitors at, 323; Exhibition of Specimens and Instruments at, 323; British Association and the Government of New South Wales, 398; the Meeting for 1889, 429; Inaugural Address by Sir Henry E. Roscoe, M.P., D.C.L., LL.D., Ph.D., F.R.S., V.P.C.S., President, 416
 Reports of Committees—Fourth Report of the Committee for considering the Best Methods of recording the Direct Intensity of Solar Radiation, 497; Report of the Electrical Standards Committee, 498; Report of the Committee on the Ben Nevis Meteorological Observations, 498; Final Report of the Committee appointed in August 1881, to co-operate with the Meteorological Society of the Mauritius, in the Publication of Daily Synoptic Charts of the Indian Ocean, for the Year 1861, 498; Fourth Report of the Committee for co-operating with Mr. E. J. Lowe in his Project of establishing on a Permanent and Scientific Basis a Meteorological Observatory near Chepstow, 498; Report of the Committee on Tidal Observations in Canada, 499; Report of the Committee on Magnetic Observations, 499; Report of the Committee on Standards of Light, 499; Report of the Committee on Differential Gravity Meters, 499; Report of the Committee on the Translation of Foreign Scientific Memoirs, 499; Report of the Committee on the Influence of Silicon on the Properties of Steel, 516; Report of the Committee on the Nature of Solution, 516; Report of the Committee on Isomeric Naphthalene Derivatives, 516; Second Report on the Cae Gwyn Cave, North Wales, by Dr. H. Hicks, 516; Report of the Committee for obtaining Observations on the Migrations of Birds at Light-houses and Light-vessels, and of reporting on the same, 516; Report of the Committee appointed for the Purpose of investigating the Flora and Fauna of the Cameroons Mountain, 517; Report of the Committee for continuing the Preparation of a Report on our Present Knowledge of the Flora of China, 518; Report of the Committee appointed to make Suggestions with reference to the Production of a Bathy-hypsographical Map of the British Isles and Surrounding Seas, 518; Report of the Committee appointed for the Purpose of co-operating with the Royal Geographical Society in endeavouring to bring before the Authorities of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge the Advisability of promoting the Study of Geography, by establishing Special Classes for the Purpose, 518; Report of the Committee appointed for the Purpose of continuing the Inquiries relating to the Teaching of Science in Elementary Schools, 518; Report of the Egyptian Photographs Committee, 520; Report of the North American Committee, 520; Report of the Electrolysis Committee, Dr. Oliver Lodge, 520

Section A (Mathematical and Physical Science)—Opening Address by Sir Robert S. Ball, LL.D., F.R.S., President of the Section, a Dynamical Parable, 424; New Electric Balances, by Sir William Thomson, F.R.S., 522; on the Application of the Centi-ampere, or the Deci-ampere Balance for the Measurement of the E.M.F. of a Single Cell, by Sir William Thomson, F.R.S., 522; Conduction of Electricity through Gases, Prof. A. Schuster, F.R.S., 522; on the Nature of the Photographic Star Disks and the Removal of a Difficulty in Measurements for Parallax, Prof. Pritchard, F.R.S., 523; Instruments for Stellar Photography, Sir Howard Grubb, F.R.S., 523; on the Turbulent Motion of Water between Two Planes, by Sir W. Thomson, F.R.S., 523; on the Theory of Electrical Endosmosis and Allied Phenomena, and on the Existence of a Sliding Coefficient for a Fluid in Contact with a Solid, by Prof. Lamb, F.R.S., 523; on the Ratio of the Two Elasticities of Air, by Prof. S. P. Thompson, 523; a Null Method in Electro-Calorimetry, by Prof. Stroud and Mr. W. W. Haldane Gee, 523; Recent Determinations of Absolute Wave-length, Mr. L. Bell, 524; on the Existence of Reflection when the Relative Refractive Index is Unity, Lord Rayleigh, 524; on the Action of an Electric Current in hastening the Formation of Lagging Compounds, Dr. Gladstone, F.R.S., 524; on the Magnetization of Iron in Strong Fields, Prof. Ewing, F.R.S., and Mr. W. Low, 546; on some Points in Electrolysis and Electric Conduction, Prof. G. Wiedemann, 546; on the Accuracy of Ohm's Law in Electrolysis, Prof. Fitzgerald, F.R.S., and Mr. F. Trouton, 547; Further Researches concerning the Electrolysis of Water, Prof. von Helmholtz, 547; Experiments on the Possible Electrolytic Decomposition of Alloys, Prof. Roberts-Austen, F.R.S., 547; Experiments on the Speeds of Ions, by Prof. Lodge, F.R.S., 547; on Chemical Action in a Magnetic Field, Prof. H. A. Rowland, 547; on the Electro-deposition of Alloys, by Prof. S. P. Thompson, 547; on the Action of the Solvent in Electrolytic Conduction, T. C. Fitzpatrick, 547; Industrial Electro-deposition of Platinum, Prof. S. P. Thompson, 547; Princeton Eclipse Expedition, Prof. C. A. Young, 547; Observations of Atmospheric Electricity, Prof. Weber, 548; the Hygrometry of Ben Nevis, H. N. Dickson, 548; Different Varieties of Thunderstorms and a Scheme for their Systematic Observation in Great Britain, Hon. R. Abercromby, 548; on the Magnetization of Hadfield's Manganese Steel in Strong Fields, Prof. J. A. Ewing, F.R.S., and William Low, 548; on the Influence of a Plane of Transverse Section on the Magnetic Permeability of an Iron Bar, Prof. J. A. Ewing, F.R.S., and William Low, 548; on the Magnetic Properties of Gases, Prof. Quincke, 549; Final Value of the B.A. Unit of Electrical Resistance as determined by the American Committee, Prof. H. A. Rowland, 549; on Induction between Wires and Wires, W. H. Preece, F.R.S., 549; on the Effect of Continental Lands in altering the Level of the Adjoining Oceans, Prof. Edward Hull, F.R.S., 549; on a Standard Lamp, Prof. A. A. Vernon Harcourt, F.R.S., 549; Expansion by Heat of Wires under Pulling Stress, J. T. Bottomley, 550; Experiments on Electrolysis and Electrolytic Polarization, W. W. Haldane Gee, Henry Holden, and Chas. H. Lees, 550; on the Vortex Theory of the Luminiferous Ether, Prof. Sir W. Thomson, F.R.S., 550

Section B (Chemical Science)—Opening Address by Edward Schunck, F.R.S., President of the Section, 442; the Atomic Weight of Gold, by J. W. Mallet, F.R.S., 568; the Atomic Weight of Zirconium, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 568; Torsion Balances, Dr. A. Springer, 569; Integral Weights in Chemistry, T. Sterry Hunt, 569; Action of Light on the Hydracids of the Halogens in Presence of Oxygen, Dr. A. Richardson, 569; the Present Position of the Alkali Trade, A. E. Fletcher, 569; on the Constituents of the Light Oils of Blast-Furnace Coal Tar from the Garthsherrie Works, Watson Smith, 569; a New Apparatus for condensing Gases by Contact with Liquids, Prof. Lunge, 569; the Extent to which Calico-Printing and the Tinctorial Arts have been affected by the Introduction of Modern Colours, Chas. O'Neill, 569; Chemistry of Cotton Fibre, F. H. Bowman, 569; Isomeric Change in the Phenol Series,

- O. R. Ling, 569; on Methylene Blue and Methylene Red, Prof. Bernthsen, 569; on the Constitution of Azimido Compounds, Drs. Noeltling and Abt, 569; Velocity of Formation of Acetic Ether, Prof. Menshutkin, 569; the Relation of Geometrical Structures to Chemical Properties, Prof. Wislicenus, 569; Note on Valency, Prof. Armstrong, Solubility of Isomeric Organic Compounds, Prof. Carnelley, 569; Alcohol and Water Combinations, Prof. Mendeléef, 570; on the Constitution of Atropine, Prof. Ladenburg, 570; the Reduction-products of the Nitro-paraffins and Alkyl Nitrites, Prof. Dunstan and T. S. Dymond, 570; on a Partial Separation of the Constituents of a Solution during Expansion by Rise of Temperature, J. W. Mallet, F.R.S., 570; a New Method for determining Micro-organisms in Air, Prof. Carnelley and Thomas Wilson, 570; the Absorption-Spectra of Rare Earths, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 570; the Absorption-Spectra of the Haloid Salts of Didymium, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 570; on Solution, W. Durham, 570; Phenol Phenomena of Neutralization and their Bearing on the Nature of Solution, W. W. J. Nicol, 570; Notes on some Peculiar Voltaic Combinations, C. R. A. Wright, F.R.S., and C. Thompson, 570; the Present Aspect of the Question of the Sources of Nitrogen in Vegetation, Sir J. Lawes, F.R.S., and Dr. Gilbert, F.R.S., 570; Dispersion Equivalents and Constitutional Formulae, Dr. J. H. Gladstone, 570; on Organic Vanadates, J. A. Hall, 570; on some New Cinnamic Acids, Dr. Cohen and Prof. Perkin, 570; the Antiseptic Properties of Metallic Salts, Prof. Carnelley, 571; Antiseptic Properties of some Fluorine Compounds, W. Thomson, 571; on the Composition of Water by Volume, A. Scott, 571; on some Vapour Densities at High Temperature, A. Scott, 571; on the Estimations of the Halogens and Sulphur in Organic Compounds, R. T. Plimpton, 571; on the Derivatives and Constitution of the Pyrocesols, W. Bott and Prof. Schwarz, 571.
- Section C (Geology)**—Opening Address by Henry Woodward, F.R.S., President of the Section, 447; on the Mineralogical Constitution of Calcareous Organisms, by Vaughan Cornish and Percy F. Kendall, 571; the Matrix of the Diamond, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 571; on the Discovery of Carboniferous Fossils in a Conglomerate at Moughton Fell, near Settle, Yorkshire, Robert Law and James Horsfall, 571; Places of Geological Interest on the Banks of the Saskatchewan, Prof. J. Hoyes Panton, 571; the History and Cause of the Subsidence at Northwich and its Neighbourhood in the Salt District of Cheshire, Thos. Ward, 572; the Sonora Earthquake of May 3, 1887, Dr. T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., and Jas. Douglas, 572; the Disaster at Zug on July 5, 1887, by the Rev. E. Hill, 572; the Triassic Rocks of West Somerset, W. A. E. Ussher, 572; the Devonian Rocks of West Somerset on the Borders of the Trias, W. A. E. Ussher, 572; Observations on the Rounding of Pebbles by Alpine Rivers, with a Note on their Bearing upon the Origin of Bunter Conglomerate, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 573; the Terminal Moraines of the Great Glaciers of England, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 573; on some Important Extra-Morainic Lakes in Central England, North America, and Elsewhere during the Period of Maximum Glaciation, and on the Origin of Extra-Morainic Boulder-Clay, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 573; on the Extension of the Scandinavian Ice to Eastern England in the Glacial Period, Prof. Otto Torell, 573; a Comparative Study of the Till or Lower Boulder-Clay in several of the Glaciated Countries of Europe (Britain, Scandinavia, Germany, Switzerland, and the Pyrenees), Hugh Miller, 573; Note on a few of the many Remarkable Boulder-Stones to be found along the Eastern Margin of the Wicklow Mountains, Prof. Edward Hull, F.R.S., 574; on New Facts relating to *Eosoon canadense*, Sir J. William Dawson, F.R.S., 574; Elements of Primary Geology, T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., 574; Gastaldi on Italian Geology and the Crystalline Rocks, T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., 575; Preliminary Note on Traverses of the Western and of the Eastern Alps made during the Summer of 1887, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 590; Origin of Banded Gneisses, J. J. H. Teall, 590; on the Occurrence of Porphyritic Structures in some Rocks of the Lizard District, Howard Fox and Alex. Somervail, 590; Preliminary Observations on the Geology of Wicklow and Wexford, Prof. Sollas, 591; some Effects of Pressure on the Sedimentary Rocks of North Devon, J. E. Marr, 591; on the Organic Origin of the Chert in the Carboniferous Limestone Series of Ireland, and its Similarity to that in the Corresponding Strata in North Wales and Yorkshire, Dr. George Jennings Hinde, 591; on the Affinities of the so-called Torpedo (*Cyclobatis*, Egerton) from the Cretaceous of Mount Lebanon, A. Smith Woodward, 591; Pliocene Beds of St. Erth, Cornwall, Robert Geo. Bell, 591; on a Star-fish from the Yorkshire Lias, Prof. J. F. Blake, 591; the Classification of the Dinosauria, Prof. Seeley, F.R.S., 591; on the Reputed Clavicles and Interclavicles of Iguanodon, Prof. H. G. Seeley, F.R.S., 591; on the Permian Fauna of Bohemia, Prof. Anton Fritsch, 591.
- Section D (Biology)**—Opening Address by Prof. Alfred Newton, F.R.S., President of the Section, 462; the Problem of the Hop-Plant Louse (*Phorodon humuli*, Schrank) in Europe and America, Prof. C. V. Riley, 566; Proposed Contributions to the Theory of Variation, Patrick Geddes, 592; on the Structure of *Haplodiscus piger*, W. F. R. Weldon, 592; on the Degeneration of the Olfactory Organ of Certain Fishes, Prof. Wiedersheim, 592; on the Torpid State of Protopterus, Prof. Wiedersheim, 592; the Larynx and Stomach of Cetacean Embryos, Prof. D'Arcy Thompson, 592; the Blood Corpuscles of the Cyclostomata, Prof. D'Arcy Thompson, 592; on the Luminous Larviform Females of the Phengodini, Prof. C. V. Riley, 592; the Present Aspect of the Cell Question, Prof. Schäfer, 592; *Jeerya purchasi*, an Insect Injurious to Fruit-Trees, Prof. Riley, 592; the Hessian Fly, Prof. Fream, 592; Recent Researches on Earthworms, W. B. Benham, 593; a Luminous Oligochaete, Prof. Harker, 593; on the Structure of *Fratereula arctica*, F. E. Beddard, 593; on Cramer's Gemma borne by *Trichomanes alata*, Prof. Bower, 593; on Bennettites, the Type of a New Group between Angiosperms and Gymnosperms, Count Solms-Laubach, 593; Secretion of Pure Aqueous Formic Acid by Lepidopterous Larvæ for the Purposes of Defence, E. B. Poulton, 593; Further Experiments upon the Protective Value of Colour and Markings in Insects, E. B. Poulton, 594; Further Experiments upon the Colour-Relation between Phytophagous Larvæ and their Surroundings, E. B. Poulton, 594.
- Section E (Geography)**—Opening Address by Col. Sir Chas. Warren, F.R.S., President of the Section, 465; Account of a Recent Visit to the Ancient Porphry Quarries of Egypt, W. Brindley, 595; Matabeleland and the Country between the Zambesi and the Limpopo, Capt. C. E. Haynes, 595; the Beginning of the Geography of Great Britain, Prof. Boyd Dawkins, 596; Teaching of Geography as applicable to the Universities, H. J. Mackinder, 596; the Ruby Mines of Burmah, G. Skelton Streeter, 596; the Valley of the Rio Dôce (Brazil), Wm. J. Steains, 596; on some Defects in the Ordnance Survey, H. S. Wilkinson, 597; Utilization of the Ordnance Survey, Sir Chas. Wilson, 597; New Bathymographical Map of the Clyde Basin, Dr. H. R. Mill, 597; a Plea for the Metre, E. G. Ravenstein, 597.
- Section F (Economic Science and Statistics)**—Opening Address by Robert Giffen, LL.D., President of the Section, the Recent Rate of Material Progress in England, 487.
- Section G (Mechanical Science)**—Opening Address by Prof. Osborne Reynolds, F.R.S., President of the Section, 472.
- Section H (Anthropology)**—Opening Address by Prof. A. H. Sayce, President of the Section, 511; the Primitive Seat of the Aryans, Canon Isaac Taylor, 597; the Non-Aryan and Non-Semitic White Races and their Place in the History of Civilization, J. S. Stuart Glennie, 598; on the Picture Origin of the Characters of the Assyrian Syllabary, Rev. W. Houghton, 598; Boat-shaped Graves in Syria, Geo. St. Clair, 598; the Effect of Town Life upon the Human Body, J. Milner Fothergill, 598; on the Bosjes Pelvis, Prof. Cleland, F.R.S., 598; Experimental Production of Chest Types in Man, G. W. Hambleton, 599; Scientific Treatment of Consumption, G. W. Hambleton, 599; Tattooing, Miss A. W. Buckland, 599; Early Ages of Metal in South-east Spain, Henri and Louis Siret, 599; Certain Degenerations of Design in Papuan Art, S. J. Hickson, 599; Origin of Totemism, C. Staniland Wake, 599; Gypsies and an Ancient Hebrew Race in Sus and the Sahara, R. G. Haliburton, 599; Colour-Names amongst the English

- Gypsies, W. E. A. Axon, 599; on the Migrations of Pre-Glacial Man, Henry Hicks, F.R.S., 599; Observations on Recent Explorations made by General Pitt-Rivers, at Rushmore, J. G. Garson, 600
- British Birds, Provincial Names and Folk-lore of, Rev. Chas. Swainson, 49
- British Flora, Illustrations of the, 171
- British Isles, Distribution of Rain over the, during the Year 1886, G. J. Symons, F.R.S., 388
- British Isles and Surrounding Seas, Report of the B.A. Committee appointed to make Suggestions with reference to the Production of a Bathy-hypsographical Map of the, 518
- British Isles, Pictorial Geography of the, Mary E. Palgrave, 580
- British Medical Association, 15
- British Museum, 14; Additions to Natural History Branch of, 62; Dr. Henry R. Woodward, F.R.S., on the Natural History Branch of, 345; the Vote for, 398; the British Museum and American Museums, Dr. Alfred R. Wallace, 530
- British Pharmaceutical Conference, 429
- British Race-types of to-day, Prof. Huxley's Remarks on, 563
- British Rainfall, Symons's, 430
- Brittain (Harry), Notes on the Rivers and Broads of Norfolk and Suffolk, 457
- Broads, Land of the, Ernest R. Suffling, 457
- Broads, Norfolk, a Month on the, Walter Rye, 457
- Broads and Rivers of Norfolk and Suffolk, Notes on the, Harry Brittain, 457
- Broads and Rivers of Norfolk and Suffolk, Handbook to the, G. C. Davies, 457
- Broca (Paul), Statue of, 324
- Brockbank (W.), *Narcissus reflexus*, 70
- Brocken Spectre, the, H. Sharpe, 118
- Brodie (Fredk. J.), the Recent Drought, 395
- Bromley Industrial Institute, 18
- Brooks's New Comet, 480, 504, 552; H. V. Egbert, 454; Dr. Franz, 478
- Brooks (W. H.), Olbers' Comet, 1887, 527
- Brouardel (M.), Typhus Abdominalis, 524
- Brown (N. E.), *Vaccinium intermedium*, 70
- Brown (J. Croumbie), School of Forestry in Germany, 193
- Brown (W. G.), a Light Fog, 556
- Brown-Séguard (M.), Duality of the Brain and the Spinal Marrow, 624
- Brugmansia Lowii*, Microscopic Sections of, Deby, 167
- Brussels International Exhibition of 1888, 282
- Brussels Observatory, Removal of, 41
- Buchanan (J. Y.), on Ice and Brines, 9
- Buckland (Miss A. W.), Tattooing, 599
- Bulletin de l'Académie de Belgique, 45, 116, 262, 503
- Bulletin of Lyons Anthropological Society, 162
- Bulletin de la Société des Naturalistes de Moscou, 285, 309
- Bunge's (Dr.) New Siberian Islands Exhibition, 113
- Bunter Conglomerate, on the Rounding of Pebbles by Alpine Rivers, with a Note on their Bearing upon the Origin of, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 573
- Burmah, Ruby Mines of, G. Skelton Streeter, 596
- Burnett Lectures, Prof. G. G. Stokes, P.R.S., on the Beneficial Effects of Light, 98
- Burnham (S. M.) Precious Stones in Nature, Art, and Literature, 482
- Busk (Geo., F.R.S.), Zoology of the Voyage of H.M.S. *Challenger*, 74
- Butler (A. G.), Birds and Caterpillars, 279
- Butter, a New Method for preserving, M. Grosfils, 376
- Cable-Anchor, M. Pagan's, 541
- Cacciatore (Prof.), the Total Solar Eclipse of August 19, 1887, 45
- Cadaverin, Dr. Ladenburg, 453
- Cae Gwynn Cave, North Wales, Second B.A. Report on, by Dr. H. Hicks, 516
- Cailletet (L.) and E. Mathias, Density of Sulphurous Acid in Liquid and Vapour State, 167
- Cairo Observatory, 281
- Calais and Dover, Proposed Aërial Postal Tube between, Arnaudeau, 349
- Calcareous Organisms, Mineralogical Constitution of, Vaughan Cornish and Percy F. Kendall, 571
- Calculus, Easy Lessons in the Differential, indicating from the Outset the Utility of the Processes called Differentiation and Integration, R. A. Proctor, 602
- Calcutta, Annals of the Royal Botanic Garden, Vol. I., 242
- Calcutta Indian Museum, 306
- Calico-Printing, the Extent to which, and the Tinctorial Arts have been affected by the Introduction of Modern Colours, Chas. O'Neill, 569
- Callaway (Dr. Chas.), the Scenery of Scotland, 604
- Calorific Conductibility of Bismuth in Magnetic Field, A. Righi, 312
- Calorimeter, a Vapour, Prof. Neesen, 288
- Cambridge (Rev. O. P.), Classification of Spiders, 12
- Cambridge: the New Degrees at, Outis, 175, 196; Observatories at Oxford and, 181; the Proposed New Geological Museum at, 586
- Cameroons: Observations taken on board the *Habicht* at the, 88; Scientific Station at, 113; H. H. Johnston's Natural History Collections, made near the, 254; Report of the B.A. Committee appointed for the Purpose of investigating the Flora and Fauna of the Cameroons Mountain, 517; Plantations in, 564
- Canada, Fossil Wood from the Western Territories of, Sir J. William Dawson, F.R.S., 274
- Canada, Tidal Observations in, Report of the B.A. Committee on, 499
- Canadense, Eozoon*, New Facts relating to, Sir J. William Dawson, F.R.S., 574
- Canal between Baltic and German Ocean, Proposed, 15
- Candler (C.), the Prevention of Consumption, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 340
- Cantor Lectures, 15
- Cantoni (Giovanni), Observations on the Luminous Solar Rays, 45
- Cape Colony, Report of the Meteorological Commission of, 565
- Capillarity, Curious Phenomenon in, S. A. Hill, 125
- Capron (J. Rand), the Droseras, 341
- Captive Kite-Balloon, E. Douglas Archibald, 278
- Carbon, Graphitic, Cubic Crystals of, L. Fletcher, 304
- Carboniferous Fossils, on the Discovery of, in a Conglomerate at Moughton Fell, near Settle, Yorkshire, Robert Law and James Horsfall, 571
- Carboniferous Limestone Series of Ireland, on the Organic Origin of the Chert in the, and its Similarity to that in the Corresponding Strata in North Wales and Yorkshire, Dr. Geo. Jennings Hinde, 591
- Carey, Safety of Mr., 17
- Carnatic Rainfall, Eleven-Year Periodical Fluctuation of the, Henry F. Blanford, F.R.S., 227, 293; General Richard Strachey, F.R.S., 267
- Carnelley (Prof. Thos.), Melting- and Boiling-Point Tables, 411; Solubility of Isomeric Organic Compounds, 569
- Carnelley (Prof.) and Thos. Wilson, a New Method for determining Micro-Organisms in Air, 570
- Carniola, Central, Hydrography of, 564
- Carniola, Proposed Memorial Tablet to Sir Humphrey Davy in, 66
- Carnivorous Plants, German, Kerner and Wettstein, 209
- Carnoy (T. B.), La Cytodière chez les Animaux: Étude comparée du Noyau et du Protoplasme, Rev. Dr. L. Martial Klein, 170
- Carpenter (Alfred), Monkeys opening Oysters, 53
- Carrington (J. T.), Disappearance of Moths at High Water, 137
- Carroll (Lewis), the Game of Logic, Alfred Sidgwick, 3
- Case for a London Teaching University, the, 329
- Casey's Journey in Central Asia, 139
- Caspary (Dr. Robert), Death of, 586
- Caspian Steppes, Prof. Mushketoff's Exploration in the, 541
- Cat and Dog, Friendship of, 173
- Caterpillars, Birds and, A. G. Butler, 280
- Caucasus, Moritz von Déchy's Explorations of the, 17; Zoology of the, 376
- Cell-Division in Animals, T. B. Carnoy, Rev. Dr. L. Martial Klein, 170
- Cell Question, the Present Aspect of the, Prof. Schäfer, 592

- Cemetery in Paris, Discovery of Ancient Gaulish, 184
 Centi-ampere or the Deci-ampere Balance for the Measurement of the E.M.F. of a Single Cell, on the Application of the, Sir William Thomson, F.R.S., 522
 Central Asia : Casey's Journey in, 139; Earthquake of June 9, 1887, in, Venukoff, 312
 Century of Electricity, T. C. Mendenhall, 266
 Ceylon, Monsoon Rainfall in, F. J. Waring, 214
 Ceylon Birds, Folk-lore of, 381
 Chadwick (Edwin), Health of Nations, Benjamin Ward Richardson, 385
 Challenger Expedition, Zoological Results of the, 26, 121; Polyzoa of the, Geo. Busk, F.R.S., 74
 Champernowne (Mr.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 88
 Chandler, on the Great Southern Comet, 1887 *a*, 185
 Charleston Earthquake, Abstract of the Results of the, C. E. Dutton and Everett Hayden, 269, 297
 Chatin (M. Ad.), on a New Species of Truffle, 23
 Chauffajon's Orinoco Explorations, 17
 Chauveau (A.), Relations between Chemical and Mechanical Work of Muscular Tissue, 382, 408
 Chauveau and Kaufmann, Experiments for determining the Coefficient of Nutritive and Respiratory Activity of the Muscles at Work and in Repose, 23
 Chemistry : Synthesis of Juglon, 15; Chemical Society, 23, 47, 117, 166, 335; Chemistry for Beginners, R. L. Taylor, 28; Dr. K. Olszewski on the Determination of the Boiling-point of Ozone, 42; on the two Tetrabromureted Hydrocamphenes, W. de la Royère, 45; the Proteids of the Seeds of *Abrus precatorius* (Jequirity), Dr. Sidney Martin, 70; Synthetic Acetic Acid and Kindred Forms, Louis Henry, 72; on the Liberation of Ammonia by Vegetable Soils, Berthelot and André, 72; Experiments in Agricultural Chemistry, J. Raulin, 456; a Question for Chemists, Harry Napier Draper, 77; an Important New Reaction : Products of Action of Acetylene upon Benzene containing Aluminium Chloride, MM. Varet and Vienne, 89; New Colouring-matters from Roshydrazine, Dr. J. H. Ziegler, III; Chemical Decomposition caused by Pressure, Van 't Hoff and Spring, 116; on Alkaloids in Plants, MM. Errera, Maistran, and Claustrian, 116; a New Chlorobromide of Silicon, Prof. Emerson Reynolds, 137; New Method of Substitution of Chlorine in Hydrocarbon, MM. Colson and Gautier, 137; the Atomic Weight of Fluorine, Prof. Christensen, 160; Decomposition by Dr. W. Spring's Compressing Machinery, 160; a New Class of Voltaic Combinations in which Oxidizable Metals replaced by Alterable Solutions, Dr. C. R. A. Wright and C. Thompson, 166; Chemical Science in Melbourne University, Dr. Orme Masson, 184; a Double Fluoride of Potassium and Germanium, Profs. Krüss and Nilson, 209; Molecular Condition of Phosphorus, Arsenic, and Antimony, Prof. V. Meyer, 231; Thorium, Drs. Krüss and Nilson, 255; the "Dead Space" in Chemical Reactions, Herr Liebreich, 280; on Transition between Aromatic and Fatty Series, Berthelot and Recoura, 312; Chemical Affinity and Solution, Wm. Durham, 318; Discovery of New Elements, Profs. Krüss and Nilson, 324; Chemistry of the Rare Earths, A. E. Tutton, 357; Heat of Formation of some Crystallized Tellurides, 360; new Fluorescences with well-marked Spectral Bands, L. de Boisbaudran, 360; Silicates of Thorine, Troost and Ouvrard, 360; Owens College Course of Practical Organic, Julius B. Cohen, 363; Constitutional Formulæ of the Progress of Organic, 368; Opening Address in Section B of the British Association, by Dr. E. Schunck, F.R.S., 442; Dr. Ladenburg on Cadaverin, 453; Remarkable Relation between Certain Physical Constants and Chemical Valency, Dr. C. Bender, 375; Nature of Chemical Action between Acids and Zinc, Spring and Van Aubel, 400; Titanates of Zinc, Lucien Lévy, 432; Compressibility of some Solutions of Gas, F. Isambert, 432; Qualitative Chemical Analysis, Dr. C. Remigius Fresenius, 411; Chemical and Physiological Equation of Alcoholic Fermentation, Prof. Delpino, 456; New Oxides of Manganese, Dr. Franke, 476; Toluylendiamine, MM. Engel and Kiener, 504; Chemistry and Heat, R. G. Durrant, 507; Germanium, Dr. Clemens Winkler, 525; Chemical Teaching, 525; on the Teaching of Chemistry, M. M. Pattison Muir, 536; Chemical Action in a Magnetic Field, Prof. H. A. Rowland, 547; the Atomic Weight of Gold, by J. W. Mallet, F.R.S., 568; the Atomic Weight of Zirconium, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 568; Torsion Balances, Dr. A. Springer, 569; Integral Weights in Chemistry, T. Sterry Hunt, 569; Action of Light on the Hydracids of the Halogens in Presence of Oxygen, Dr. A. Richardson, 569; the Present Position of the Alkali Trade, A. E. Fletcher, 569; on the Constituents of the Light Oils of Blast-Furnace Coal Tar from the Garthsherie Works, Watson Smith, 569; a New Apparatus for condensing Gases by Contact with Liquids, Prof. Lunge, 569; the Extent to which Calico-printing and the Tinctorial Arts have been affected by the Introduction of Modern Colours, Chas. O'Neill, 569; Chemistry of Cotton Fibre, F. H. Bowman, 569; Isomeric Change in the Phenol Series, O. R. Ling, 569; on Methylene Blue and Methylene Red, Prof. Bernthsen, 569; on the Constitution of Azimido Compounds, Drs. Noelling and Abt, 569; Velocity of Formation of Acetic Ether, Prof. Menschutkin, 569; the Relation of Geometrical Structures to Chemical Properties, Prof. Wislicenus, 569; Note on Valency, Prof. Armstrong, Solubility of Isomeric Organic Compounds, Prof. Carnelley, 569; Alcohol and Water Combinations, Prof. Mendeléef, 570; on the Constitution of Atropine, Prof. Ladenburg, 570; the Reduction-products of the Nitro-paraffins and Alkyl Nitrites, Prof. Dunstan and T. S. Dymond, 570; on a Partial Separation of the Constituents of a Solution during Expansion by Rise of Temperature, J. W. Mallet, F.R.S., 570; a New Method for determining Micro-organisms in Air, Prof. Carnelley and Thomas Wilson, 570; the Absorption Spectra of Rare Earths, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 570; the Absorption-Spectra of the Haloid Salts of Didymium, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 570; on Solution, W. Durham, 570; Phenol Phenomena of Neutralization and their Bearing on the Nature of Solution, W. W. J. Nicol, 570; Notes on some Peculiar Voltaic Combinations, C. R. A. Wright, F.R.S., and C. Thompson, 570; the Present Aspect of the Question of the Sources of Nitrogen in Vegetation, Sir J. Lawes, F.R.S., and Dr. Gilbert, F.R.S., 570; Dispersion Equivalents and Constitutional Formulæ, Dr. J. H. Gladstone, 570; on Organic Vanadates, J. A. Hall, 570; on some New Cinnamic Acids, Dr. Cohen and Prof. Perkin, 570; the Antiseptic Properties of Metallic Salts, Prof. Carnelley, 571; Antiseptic Properties of some Fluorine Compounds, W. Thomson, 571; on the Composition of Water by Volume, A. Scott, 571; on some Vapour Densities at High Temperature, A. Scott, 571; on the Estimations of the Halogens and Sulphur in Organic Compounds, R. T. Plumpton, 571; on the Derivatives and Constitution of the Pyrocresols, W. Bott and Prof. Schwarz, 571; New Tetrahydric Alcohol, M. Combes, 587
 Chepstow, Fourth Report of the B.A. Committee on Project for establishing a Meteorological Observatory at, 498
 Chert in the Carboniferous Limestone Series of Ireland, on the Organic Origin of the, and its Similarity to that in the Corresponding Strata in North Wales and Yorkshire, Dr. Geo. Jennings Hinde, 591
 Cheshire (F. R.), Bees, "Fertile Workers," 47
 Children, Mental Development in, 483
 Chile, Meteorology in, 136
 China : Notes on the Geology of Part of the Eastern Coast of, and the Adjacent Islands, 163; the Question of Chinese Equivalents for our Scientific Terms, 307; Proposed Introduction of Mathematical Science into Chinese Government Examinations, 325; Chinese Gingers, 374; Report of the B.A. Committee on our Present Knowledge of the Flora of China, 518; Typhoons of the China Seas, Capt. D. Ruete, 565
 Cholera, Dissemination of, 540
 Christensen (Prof.), the Atomic Weight of Fluorine, 160
 Christmas Island, Capt. W. J. L. Wharton, F.R.S., Capt. J. P. Maclear, 12; Flora of, W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., 78
 Cinnamic Acids, on some New, Dr. Cohen and Prof. Perkin, 570
 City and Guilds of London Institute, 476; Technological Examinations, 476
 Clark (Alvan), Obituary Notice of, 476
 Clark (J. Edmund), Slate Ripples on Skiddaw High Man, 388
 Clarke (Dr. Hyde), Thought without Words, 52
 Clarke (J. F. M.), Three Weeks in Norfolk, 457

- Clavicles and Interclavicles, on the Reputed, of Iguanodon, Prof. H. G. Seeley, F.R.S., 591
- Clay (London) and Bagshot Beds, Lieut. Lyons, W. H. Huddleston, F.R.S., 71
- Clayton (H. Helm), Is Cold the Cause of Anticyclones? 268
- Cleland (Prof., F.R.S.), on the Bosjes Pelvis, 598
- Clerke (A. M.): Popular History of Astronomy, 43; a New Cosmogony, Dr. Carl Braun, 321, 341
- Climate of Europe, Dr. Supan, 257
- Climatic Treatment of Consumption, the, J. A. Lindsay, 171
- Climatologists, 500
- Clocks and Watches, Fifty Years' Progress in, Henry Dent Gardner, 392, 484
- Clothworkers Company and Technical Education, 42
- Clouds: Teisserenc de Bort's Cloud Charts, 15; Meteorologische Institut at Upsala, and Cloud Measurements, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 319; Upper Cloud Movements in the Equatorial Regions of the Atlantic, Capt. David Wilson-Barker, 197; Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 222; Height of Summer Clouds, 206: the Nomenclature of Clouds, Dr. W. Köppen, 208; on the Classification of Clouds, Dr. Köppen, 306; Iridescent, T. W. Backhouse, 77; Sky-coloured, T. W. Backhouse, 269, 365, 556; Bishop's Ring, T. W. Backhouse, 365; Measurements of the Heights and Motions of Clouds in Spitzbergen, Dr. Nils Ekholm, 459; Luminous Boreal Cloudlets, D. J. Rowan, 245
- Cloué (Admiral), Action of Oil on Troubled Waters, 167
- Clyde, Lighthouse Illumination and Signalling in, G. M. Hunter, 64
- Clyde Sea-Area, Temperature of the, Dr. Hugh Robert Mill, 37, 56
- Coal-Dust, Relation of, to Explosions in Mines, Arthur Watts, 221
- Coal-Mines, the Royal Society and Viscount Cross, 475
- Cocoa-nut Pearls, Dr. Sydney J. Hickson and W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., 157; Dr. J. G. F. Riedel, 461
- Coffee-Plant, Fertilization of the, T. F. Bourdillon, 580
- Cohen (Julius B.), Owens College, Course of Practical Organic Chemistry, 363; and Prof. Perkin on some New Cinnamic Acids, 570
- Coils, Sounding, Prof. W. Stroud and Wertheimer, 262
- Cold the Cause of Anticyclones, Is? H. Helm Clayton, 268
- Coleman (A. P.), Music in Nature, 605
- Colenso (Rev. J. W., D.D.), First Lessons in Science designed for the Use of Children, 436
- Colladon (Daniel), Thunderbolt, 23; Artificial Waterspout, M. Mascart, 576
- Colliery Explosions and Atmospheric Pressure, Hy. Harries, 437
- Collini (Dr. G. A.), Recent Additions to the Prehistoric and Ethnological Museum of Rome, 526
- Collins (F. Howard), a Monstrous Foxglove, 508
- Collisions at Sea, Jurien de la Gravière, 215; Means of Avoiding, Moise Lion, 432
- Colour, Perception of, C. E. Stromeier, 246; T. W. Backhouse, 531
- Colour and Markings in Insects, Further Experiments upon the Protective Value of, E. B. Poulton, 594
- Colour-mixing, on Newton's Law of, Dr. König, 96; Prof. von Bezold, 119
- Colour-Names amongst the English Gypsies, W. E. A. Axon, 599
- Colour-Relation between Phytophagous Larvæ and their Surroundings, Further Experiments upon the, E. B. Poulton, 594
- Colours, Modern, the Extent to which Calico-Printing and the Tinctorial Arts have been affected by the Introduction of, Chas. O'Neill, 569
- Colours for Naturalists, Nomenclature of, and Compendium of Useful Knowledge for Ornithologists, Robert Ridgeway, 124
- Colours, Sunlight, Prof. S. P. Langley, 76
- Colours of Thin Plates, Lord Rayleigh, F.R.S., 391
- Colson and Gautier (MM.), New Method of Substitution of Chlorine in Hydrocarbons, 137
- Combes (M.), New Tetrahydric Alcohol, 587
- Combustion, Heats of, Berthelot, Recoura, and Louguinine, 167
- Comets: Discovery of a New, by E. E. Barnard (May 12, 1887), 65, 552; Dr. E. Lamp, 90; Dr. H. Oppenheim, 113, 138; Dr. H. Kreutz, 401; Brooks's Comet, H. V. Egbert, 454; Dr. Franz, 478; Discovery of a New Comet (August 24, 1887), W. R. Brooks, 431, 480, 504, 552; Olbers' Comet (1815 I.), 504; 1887, W. H. Brooks, 527; O. Tetens, 588; the Great Southern Comet (1887*a*), Dr. J. M. Thome, 161; Mr. Chandler, 185
- Companion of Sirius, Prof. A. Hall, 186
- Comrades, 341
- Condensation of Gases, A. E. Tutton, 105
- Conduction of Electricity through Gases, Prof. A. Schuster, F.R.S., 522
- Conductors, Lightning, Prof. Tyndall on Imperfect Construction of, 430
- Conglomerate, on the Discovery of Carboniferous Fossils in a, at Moughton Fell, near Settle, Yorkshire, Robert Law and James Horsfall, 571
- Congo Boundary, the New French, 17
- Congo, Mobangi Tributary of, Capt. van Gèle's Exploration of, 66
- Congo State, Discovery of Instruments of the Stone Age in, Ed. Dupont, 116
- Congo, M. Edward Dupont's Proposed Geological Investigation of the, 162
- Congress (Astronomical) International, 429
- Conic Sections, with Solutions of Questions in London University and other Examination Papers, G. Heppel, 602
- Connaissance des Temps, 459
- Constable (F. C.), the Cuckoo in India, 245
- Constant P in Observations of Terrestrial Magnetism, on the, Wm. Harkness, 366; William Ellis, 436; Prof. Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 508
- Constantinople, Earthquake in, 587
- Constitutional Formulæ and the Progress of Organic Chemistry, 368
- Constitutional Formulæ, Dispersion Equivalents and, Dr. J. H. Gladstone, 570
- Consumption, Climatic Treatment of, J. A. Lindsay, 171
- Consumption, the Prevention of, C. Candler, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 340
- Consumption, the Scientific Treatment of, G. W. Hambleton, 599
- Contact, Rolling, of Bodies, Prof. Hele Shaw, 92
- Contact of Gases, Electricity of the, with Liquids, J. Enright, 365, 460; Prof. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 412
- Conte (Joseph Le), on some Phenomena of Binocular Vision, 551
- Continental Lands, on the Effect of, in Altering the Level of the Adjoining Oceans, Prof. Edward Hull, F.R.S., 549
- Cook (J.), Hughes's Induction Balance, 605
- Cope (E. D.), Origin of the Fittest, Essays on Evolution, Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 505
- Copper, on the Polarization of, M. Krouchkoll, 119
- Copper Sulphate, a Remedy against Vine-Mildew, Prof. Pollacci, 262
- Cora (Prof. Guido), Map of District round Massowah, 91
- Cordilleras, Dr. Brackebusch's Explorations of the, 283
- Cordoba Observatory, 527
- Corea, Stone Men of, Mirzeks or, Prof. de Lacouperie, 615
- Corfield (W. H., F.R.S.), Treatment and Utilization of Sewage, 73
- Cornish (Vaughan) and Percy F. Kendall, Mineralogical Constitution of Calcareous Organisms, 571
- Cornus macrophylla*, a Real Weeping Tree, 564
- Correlation between Two Orders of Facts, Note on the Method of Research for, M. de Montessus, 23
- Corrigenda in Various Star-Catalogues, Prof. Peters, 543
- Corsica and Eastern Pyrenees, Comparative Study of Geological Systems of, Ch. Depéret, 383
- Cosmogony, a New, Dr. Carl Braun, A. M. Clerke, 321, 341
- Cotton Fibre, the Chemistry of, F. H. Bowman, 569
- Cowper's Writing Telegraph, Modification of, J. H. Robertson, 540
- Crambus alpinellus*, Stainton, 528
- Craters, Mount Loa, History of the Changes in the, James D. Dana, 551
- Credner (Dr. R.), Die Reliktenseen, 65
- Critchett (A.), Introductory Lecture at St. Mary's Hospital, by, 541

- Crookshank (Dr. Edgar M.), Micro-Organisms, 239; Photography of Bacteria, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 316, 388
- Crops, Rotation of, M. P. P. Dehérain, 528
- Cross (Viscount), Royal Society and Coal-Mines, 475
- Crova (A.), a Method of Recording the Calorific Intensity of the Solar Rays, 72
- Crystalline Iron-Glance, on a Specimen of, formed on some Old Iron Weapons, W. Prinz, 502
- Crystalline Plates, Action of, on Light, M. Mascart, 576
- Crystalline Rocks, Gastaldi on Italian Geology and the, T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., 575
- Crystallization, Artificial, of Magnetites, Alex. Gorgeu, 43
- Crystals, Cubic, of Graphitic Carbon, L. Fletcher, 304
- Cubic Crystals of Graphitic Carbon, L. Fletcher, 304
- Cuckoo in India, F. C. Constable, 245
- Cundall (J. T.), the Volumetric Relations of Ozone and Oxygen, 118
- Cunningham (J. T.), the Nephridia of *Lanice conchilega*, Malmgren, 162, 246
- Cunningham (Prof. Robert O.), Occurrence of *Sterna anglica* in Belfast Lough, 582
- Currents, Telluric, on the Variations of, J. J. Landerer, 504
- Curtis (G. E.), Theory of the Wind Vane, 480
- Curtius (Dr. Theodor), Hydrazine, 184
- Cyclades, the, Earthquake in the, 587
- Cyclobatis, Egerton, on the Affinities of the so-called Torpedo, from the Cretaceous of Mount Lebanon, A. Smith Woodward, 591
- Cyclone in Bay of Bengal, 110, 136, 306
- Cylinder, Steam, Initial Condensation in a, Major Thomas English, 551
- Cytisus laburnum*, Physiological Action of, J. L. Prevost and Paul Binet, 504
- Dahll, Gold in Norway, 185
- Dall (William H.), Notes on the Geology of Florida, 575
- Dalziel (H.), British Dogs, 255
- Dana (James D.): History of the Changes in the Mount Loa Craters, 551; on Taconic Beds and Stratigraphy, 116
- Danish Expedition to the Coast of Northern Greenland, Return of the, 588
- Darwin (Charles), Life of, G. T. Bettany, 124
- Darwin Medal, the, 256
- Darwin (Prof. G. H., F.R.S.), on Figures of Equilibrium of Rotating Masses, 358
- Dasyuridæ, the Teeth in the, Oldfield Thomas, 94
- Daubrée (M.): the Action of Subterranean Waters, 264; the Meteorites of March 19, 1884, at Jati-Pengilon, Java, 336
- Daubrée and Meunier, the Grazac Meteorite, 215
- Davidson (Prof.), the Kuro Siwo, 283
- Davies (G. C.), Hand-book to the Rivers and Broads of Norfolk and Suffolk, 457
- Davy (Sir Humphrey), Proposed Memorial Tablet in Carniola to, 66
- Dawkins (Prof. Boyd), the Beginning of the Geography of Great Britain, 595
- Dawson (Sir J. William, F.R.S.): Imperial Geological Union, 146; Fossil Wood from the Western Territories of Canada, 274; New Facts relating to *Eozoon canadense*, 574
- Dearborn Observatory, Prof. Hough's, 501
- Deby (M.), Microscopic Sections of *Brugmansia Lowii*, 167
- Decharme (M. C.), Isoclinous Magnetic Curves, 624
- Déchy's (Moritz von) Explorations of the Caucasus, 17
- Dehérain (M. P. P.), Rotation of Crops, 528
- Delacré (M.), Bichlorureted Alcohol, 116
- Delbeuf (J.), on the Origin of the Curative Effects of Hypnotism, 504
- Delpino (Prof.), Chemical and Physiological Equation of Alcoholic Fermentation, 456
- Demography in Vienna, Sixth International Congress of Hygiene and, 618
- Denmark: Ravages of May-bugs in, 63; Meteorology in, 375
- Denning (W. F.): Meteor of May 8, 68; Early Perseids, 318; August Meteors of 1887, 407; Large Meteors, 437
- Deperet (Ch.), Comparative Study of Geological Systems of Corsica and Eastern Pyrenees, 383
- Derby (O. A.), Nepheline Rocks in Brazil, 286
- Determinants, Recent Works on the Theory of, Thomas Muir, 51
- Deutsche Seewarte, 256
- Development, Mental, in Children, 483
- Devon, North, some Effects of Pressure on the Sedimentary Rocks of, J. E. Marr, 591
- Devonian Rocks of West Somerset on the Borders of the Trias, W. A. E. Ussher, 572
- Diameter of the Sun, Researches on the, Prof. Auwers, 256
- Diamond, Matrix of the, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 571
- Diatoms in the Thames, W. H. Shrubsole, 125
- Dick (Allan B.), Zircon and other Minerals contained in Sand, 91
- Dickson (H. N.), Hygrometry of Ben Nevis, 548
- Dictionary of Philosophy in the Words of Philosophers, 362
- Didymium: Note on the Spectrum of, Dr. Claude M. Thompson, 115; Absorption-Spectra of the Haloid Salts of, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 570
- Differential Gravity Meters, Report of the B.A. Committee on, 499
- Dinosauria, the Classification of the, Prof. Seeley, F.R.S., 591
- Dispersion Equivalents, Dr. J. H. Gladstone, F.R.S., 239
- Dispersion Equivalents and Constitutional Formulæ, Dr. J. H. Gladstone, 570
- Doberck (Dr.), Micrometric Measures of Jupiter and Saturn, 65
- Dog and Cat, Friendship of, 173
- Dogs, British, H. Dalziel, 258
- Dogs, Sense of Smell in, 412
- Dogs, Experiment on the Sense of Smell in, Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 273
- Dogs, the Sense of Smell in, W. J. Russell, F.R.S., 317
- Dorpat Observatory, 324
- Double Stars, Southern, 588
- Douglas (Jas.), and Dr. T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., the Sonora Earthquake of May 3, 1887, 572
- Dover and Calais, Proposed Aërial Postal Tube between, Arnaudeau, 349
- Dowdeswell (G. F.), Rabies, 190
- Downs, North, Tertiary Outliers on the, Rev. A. Irving, 531
- Drainage, Researches on, M. Berthelot, 624
- Draper (Harry Napier), a Question for Chemists, 77
- Draper (Henry), the, Memorial, Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 31, 41
- Droseras, the, J. Rand Capron, 341
- Drought, the Recent, Fredk. J. Brodie, 395
- Duality of the Brain and of the Spinal Marrow, M. Brown-Séquard, 624
- Dublin Science and Art Museum, 374
- Dublin University, Chair of Civil Engineering, 255
- Ducretet (M. E.), a Mechanical and Automatic Registering Apparatus of Signals transmitted by Telegraph and by Optical Projectors, 624
- Dudgeon (Dr.), Taoist Medical Gymnastics, 375
- Dufour (Prof.), Action of Intense Magnetic Field on Superficial Tension in Liquids, 209
- Dufour (Ch.), Waterspout of August 19, 1887, on the Lake of Geneva, 456
- Dulverton, Fish-culture at, 89
- Dunstan (Prof.) and T. S. Dymond, the Reduction-Products of the Nitro-Paraffins and Alkyl Nitrates, 570
- Dupont (Ed.), Discovery of Instruments of Stone Age in Congo State, 116
- Dupont's (M. Edward) Proposed Congo Expedition, 162
- Durham, Outlines of the Geology of Northumberland and, Prof. G. A. Lebour, Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 289
- Durham (Wm.): Residual Affinity, 30; Chemical Affinity and Solution, 318; on Solution, 570
- Durrant (R. G.): Remarkable Hailstones, 44; Chemistry and Heat, 507
- Dutch Geographical Society, Proposed Scientific Expedition to the Key Islands, 589
- Dutton (C. E.) and Everett Hayden, Abstract of the Results of the Investigation of the Charleston Earthquake, 269, 297
- Dwight (W. P.), Geology Explorations in Wappinger Valley Limestone of Dutchess County, New York, 479
- Dyer (W. T. Thiselton, F.R.S.): Flora of Christmas Island, 78; Botany of San Domingo, Baron Eggers, 367
- Dyes, Safranines, MM. Barbier and Vignon, 615
- Dying, Fish, F. T. Mott, 222

- Dymond (T. S.) and Prof. Dunstan, the Reduction-Products of the Nitro-Paraffins and Alkyl Nitrates, 570
- Dynamical Units, Robert H. Smith, 53
- Dynamics for Beginners, Rev. J. B. Lock, 75
- Dynamics : Note on Beams fixed at Ends, Profs. Ayrton and Perry, 191
- Dynamite, New Way of utilizing, M. Bonnetond, 564
- Early Perseids, W. F. Denning, 318
- Earthquakes : in the Western Riviera, Prof. Henry H. Giglioli, 4; J. E. H. Peyton, 151; M. Albert Offret, 23; Earthquakes and the Suspended Magnet, Dr. M. A. Veeder, 102; a Recent Japanese Earthquake, Prof. J. A. Ewing, 107; Prof. S. Sekiya, 379; Earthquakes in Switzerland, Mexico and Arizona, and Santa Lucia, &c., 110; in Central America, 136; in Mexico and Turkestan, 159, 431, Prof. J. P. O'Reilly, 151; in North Atlantic Ocean, 183; in Siberia, 210; at Vernejo, M. Wilkins, 230; Abstract of the Results of the Charleston Earthquake, C. E. Dutton and Everett Hayden, 269, 297; Earthquakes in Hungary, Italy, and Greek Archipelago, 307; Earthquake of June 9, 1887, in Central Asia, Venukoff, 312; Earthquakes observed at Shetland Light-houses, R. H. Scott, F.R.S., 325; Note on the Earthquake of February 23, 1887, at Nice, Bouquet de la Grye, 336; Effect of Earthquakes upon Lower Animals, Prof. Milne, 350; Earthquake in Algeria, 350; in Bavaria, 376; in Ecuador, 376; in United States, 376; at Bonn, 452; Protection of Buildings from Earthquake Shocks, 475; Earthquake in Greece, 541; the Sonora Earthquake of May 3, 1887, Dr. T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., and Jas. Douglas, 572; Earthquakes in Constantinople, on the Greek Mainland, in the Ionian Islands, the Cyclades, the Peloponnese, South-East of Hungary, Island of Navassa, 587
- Earths, Chemistry of the Rare, A. E. Tutton, 357
- Earths, Rare, Absorption-Spectra of, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 570
- Earthworms, Recent Researches on, W. B. Benham, 593
- Eaton (H. S.), Globular Lightning, 215
- Ebbels (Arthur), Thought without Words, 173
- Ecker (Dr. Alexander), Death of, 137
- Eclipses : Lunar, of August 3, 367; G. Rayet, 383; H. P. Malet, 413; of August 3, 1887, E. Lescarbault, 432; Total Solar of 1886, W. H. Pickering, 308; Total Solar of August 19, 1887, 60, 398; the Total Solar, Prof. Cacciadore, 45; Dr. A. Woelke, 77; Arrangements for the Observation of, 373; Janssen, 432; H. G. Madan, 437; M. Niesten, 455; in Japan, Prof. David P. Todd, 609; the Eclipse in Siberia, 430; Princeton Eclipse Expedition, Prof. C. A. Young, 547; Effect of Eclipses upon Lower Animals, 398; Meteorological Observations during Eclipses of the Sun, Prof. Upton, 24
- Ecuador, Earthquake in, 376
- Economics, the Elements of, Henry Dunning Macleod, 27
- Edgeworth (F. Y.), the Law of Error, 482
- Edinburgh : Royal Society, 95, 118, 287, 335, 382; Vacation Natural Science Courses in, 230
- Education : Report of the Select Committee on Endowed Schools, 21; State of Education in Italy, Prof. A. Amati, 45; Education in America, W. Odell, 295; Education Estimates, 374; Education in Germany, Samuel Smith, 567; Technical Education, 87, 135, 279; the Clothworkers Company and, 42; National Association for Formation of, 229; City and Guilds of London Institute for Advancement of Technical Education, Sir P. Magnus's Report, 349; Technical Education Bill, 283, 305, 309, 323, 347; Abandonment of, 398; the Scotch Technical Education Bill, 347, 430, 475
- Edward (Thos.) Memorial, the Proposed, 42
- Edwards (Aubrey), Swifts, 605
- Egbert (H. V.), Brooks's Comet, 454
- Egger's (Baron) Botany of San Domingo, W. T. Thi-elton Dyer, F.R.S., 367
- Eggs, Floating, Edward E. Prince, 294; W. S. Green, 319
- Egypt, Prof. Paul Ascherson's Botanical Researches in, 254
- Egypt, Account of a Recent Visit to the Ancient Porphyry Quarries of, W. Brindley, 595
- Egyptian Photographs Committee, Report of the B.A. Committee, 520
- Eklholm (Dr. Nils), Measurements of the Heights and Motions of Clouds in Spitzbergen, 459
- Electricity : on Variations of Intensity in the Dry Pile, Prof. Luigi Palmieri, 45; on a Modification of Maxwell's Method of measuring the Coefficient of Self-Induction, E. C. Remington, 94; on Transformers for Electric Distribution, Dr. S. P. Thompson, 142; Zigang's Electric Trumpet, 160; Electricity at Oxford, 154; Names for Electric Units of Self-Induction and Conductivity, Prof. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 174; Note on Vaschy and Touanne's Method of comparing Mutual Induction with Capacity, Prof. G. C. Foster, 191; Electromotive Properties of *Torpedo marmorata*, Francis Gotch, 262; a Century of Electricity, T. C. Mendenhall, 266; Electricity and Hygiene, Sambuc, 280; Nahrwold's Experiments on Atmospheric Electricity, 280; Experiments on Discharge of Electricity through Gases, Prof. A. Schuster, F.R.S., 285, 522; What takes place during Decomposition of Water in an Electrolyzing Cell, Dr. Richarz, 288; Proposed Electrical Exhibition in New York, 306; Wild Geese killed by Lightning, 307; the Jubilee of the Electric Telegraph, 313, 326; Novel Series of Voltaic Combinations, Dr. A. Wright and C. Thompson, 349; Electricity of Contact of Gases with Liquids, J. Enright, 365, 460; Prof. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 412; Electric Excitement of Liver, Gréhan and Mislawsky, 408; Electro-Calorimetry, a Null Method in, Dr. William Stroud, 483; Electro-Calorimetry, a Null Method in, Prof. Stroud and W. W. Haldane Gee, 523; Report of the B.A. Electrical Committee, 498; Report of the B.A. Electrolysis Committee, Dr. Oliver Lodge, 520; New Electric Balances, Sir William Thomson, F.R.S., 522; on the Theory of Electrical Endosmose and Allied Phenomena, and on the Existence of a Sliding Coefficient for a Fluid in Contact with a Solid, Prof. Lamb, F.R.S., 523; on the Action of an Electric Current in hastening the Formation of Lagging Compounds, Dr. Gladstone, F.R.S., 424; Modern Views of Electricity, Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 532, 559, 582; Modification of Cowper's Writing Telegraph, J. H. Robertson, 540; an Electric Chronometer, 541; some Points in Electrolysis and Electric Conduction, Prof. G. Wiedemann, 546; Further Researches concerning the Electrolysis of Water, Prof. von Helmholtz, 547; on the Electro-deposition of Alloys, Prof. S. P. Thompson, 547; Experiments on the Possible Electrolytic Decomposition of Alloys, Prof. Roberts-Austen, F.R.S., 547; on the Action of the Solvent in Electrolytic Conduction, T. C. Fitzpatrick, 547; on the Accuracy of Ohm's Law in Electrolysis, Prof. Fitzgerald, F.R.S., and F. Trouton, 547; Final Value of the B.A. Unit of Electrical Resistance, as determined by the American Committee, Prof. H. A. Rowland, 549; Observations of Atmospheric Electricity, Prof. L. Weber, 548; Experiments in Electrolysis and Electrolytic Polarization, W. W. Haldane Gee, Henry Holden, and Chas. H. Lees, 550; on the Formulas of Dimensions in Electricity, M. G. Lippman, 624
- Elements, New Chemical, Discovery of, Profs. Krüss and Nilson, 324
- Eleven-Year Periodical Fluctuation of the Carnatic Rainfall, Henry F. Blanford, F.R.S., 227
- Elkin (Dr. W. L.), Relative Positions of the Principal Stars in the Pleiades, 232
- Elliott's (D. G.) Ornithological Collections, 279
- Ellis (William), on the Constant P in Observations of Terrestrial Magnetism, 436
- Elloughton in the Humber Valley, Mammaliferous Gravel at, G. W. Lamplugh, 153
- Embryology, an Introduction to the Study of, A. C. Haddon, 601
- Emin Pasha, 41; Explorations of Lake Albert Nyanza, 161; Collection of Specimens received from, at the Natural History Museum, 539
- Emotions, Expression of the, 294
- Encyclopædia Britannica, the, Vol. XXII., Sib-Szo, 577
- Endowed Schools, Report of the Select Committee on, 21
- Engel and Kiener (MM.) Toluyldiamine, 504
- Engineering Education at University College of Bristol, 499
- England, Bird Life in, Edwin Lester Arnold, Prof. R. Bowdler Sharpe, 435
- England, Central, on some Important Extra-Morainic Lakes in, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 573
- England, Eastern, on the Extension of the Scandinavian Ice to, in the Glacial Period, Prof. Otto Torell, 573

- England and Wales, Geology of, Horace B. Woodward, 218
 Engler (A.): the Aponogetonaceæ, 117; Botanische Jahrbücher, 117; and K. Prandl, Die Natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien, 123
 English (Major Thomas), Initial Condensation in a Steam Cylinder, 551
 English and Foreign Technical Education, Prof. Silvanus Thompson, 614
 English Tobacco Culture, 124
 Enright (J.), Electricity of Contact of Gases with Liquids, 365, 460
 Entomology: Lord Walsingham's Collection of Lepidoptera at the British Museum, 62; Ravages of May-bugs in Denmark, 63; Entomological Society, 71, 215, 311, 382, 527
Eozoon canadense, New Facts relating to, Sir J. William Dawson, F.R.S., 574
 Equator, Upper Wind Currents near the, and the Diffusion of Krakatão Dust, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 85; E. Douglas Archibald, 152
 Equatorial Regions of the Atlantic, Upper Cloud Movements in the, Capt. David Wilson-Barker, 197; Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 222
 Equivalents, Dispersion, and Constitutional Formulæ, Dr. J. H. Gladstone, 570
 Errera, Maistrin, and Claustrian (MM.), on Alkaloids in Plants, 116
 Error, Law of, J. Venn, 411; F. Y. Edgeworth, 482; T. W. Backhouse, 531
 Essays and Addresses, Rev. Jas. M. Wilson, 195
 Ether, Luminiferous, on the Vortex-Theory of, Prof. Sir W. Thomson, F.R.S., 550
 Ether, Acetic Velocity of Formation of, Prof. Menshutkin, 569
 Ethnographic Map of American Indian Dialects, A. S. Gatschet, 112
 Ethnography: Juridical Customs of the Mordovians, Mainoff, 400
 Ethnology of the Ogoway and Lower Congo Basins, Cav. A. Pecile, 377
 Etiology of Scarlet Fever, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 126
 Ettingshausen (Von) and Nernst, the Hall Effect manifested in Different Metals, 185
 Eucharis, the Orbit of the Minor Planet, Dr. L. de Ball, 16; Dr. W. Valentiner, 77
 Europe, the Climate of, Dr. Supan, 257
 Europe and America, the Problem of the Hop Plant Louse (*Phorodon humuli*, Schrank) in, Prof. C. V. Riley, 566
 European Coasts, Time-Signalling on, Prof. Foerster, 307
 Evans (Dr. John, F.R.S.), Pre-History of the North, J. J. A. Worsaae, 97
 Evolution, what American Zoologists have done for, Prof. Morse, 398
 Evolution, Factors of Organic, Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 401
 Evolution, Essays on, Origin of the Fittest, E. D. Cope, Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 505
 Ewald (Prof.), Behaviour of Salol in Stomach, 287
 Ewart (Prof. J. C.), on the Presence of Bacteria in the Lymph, &c., of Living Fish and other Vertebrates, 251
 Ewing (Prof. J. A., F.R.S.): a Recent Japanese Earthquake, 107; and W. Low, on the Magnetization of Iron in Strong Fields, 546; Magnetization of Hadfield's Manganese Steel in Strong Fields, 548; on the Influence of a Plane of Transverse Section on the Magnetic Permeability of an Iron Bar, 548
 Excursions et Reconnaissances of Saigon, 501
 Exhibition at Glasgow, Proposed International, 137
 Exhibition, Philippine, 231
 Exhibition (1888), the Brussels, 282
 Explosions in Mines, Relation of Coal-Dust to, Arthur Watts, 221
 Explosions, Colliery, and Atmospheric Pressure, Hy. Harries, 437
 Eye, Parietal, in Fishes, J. Beard, 246, 340
 Eye, Photography of Interior of, Dr. Rosebrugh, 110
 Factors of Organic Evolution, Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 401
 Fauna of Liverpool Bay and the Neighbouring Seas, First Report on the, 149
 Fauna of Kirghiz Steppe, Nazaroff, 476
 Fauna, Permian, of Bohemia, on the, Prof. Anton Fritsch, 591
 Faurie (M. G. A.), on the Reduction of Alumina, 528
 Faye (H.): on the Analogy between Whirlwinds and Waterspouts, and Cyclones and Tornadoes, 23; the Nice Observatory, 282; Tornadoes in U.S., 456; the Recent Waterspout in Lake Geneva, 552
 Fearnley (W.), a Course of Elementary Practical Histology, 481
 Featherman (A.), Social History of the Races of Mankind, Prof. A. H. Keane, 147
 Ferguson (W.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 430
 Fermenti e Microbi, Prof. Giglioli, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 316
 Fernando Po, Dr. Oscar Baumann on the Island of, 617
 Ferns, the Muclage-Cells of, Tokutaro Ito and Walter Gardiner, 214
 Ferrini (Prof.), Effects of a Thunderbolt, 116
 Fertilization of the Coffee Plant, T. F. Bourdillon, 580
 Fever, Scarlet, Etiology of, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 126
 Fewkes (J. Walter), a Hydroid Parasitic on a Fish, 660
 Fifty Years' Progress in Clocks and Watches, Henry Dent Gardner, 392, 484
 Finistère, Geological Structure of, 212
 Finsbury Technical College, 256, 282
 Fire, Sun and, Symbolism, Mrs. J. C. Murray-Aynsley, 364
 Firth of Forth, Bridging the, B. Baker, 79
 Fischer and Pengoldt (Drs.), Experiments on the Sensitiveness of the Sense of Smell, 90
 Fish landed in Scotland during Four Months ended April 1887, 63, 160, 256
 Fish-Culture at Dulverton, 89; the Rainbow Trout, 209; National Fish-Culture Association, 564
 Fish, Temperature in Relation to, 213
 Fish, Dying, F. T. Mott, 222
 Fish, Living, and other Vertebrates, on the Presence of Bacteria in the Lymph, &c., of, Prof. J. C. Ewart, 251
 Fish and Fisheries, G. Brown Goode appointed U.S. Commissioner of, 475
 Fish, Destruction of Young, Capt. David Wilson-Barker, 557
 Fish, a Hydroid Parasitic on a, J. Walter Fewkes, 604
 Fishes, Fossil, of Mount Lebanon, 132
 Fishes, Parietal Eye in, J. Beard, 246, 340
 Fishes, Poisonous, 350
 Fishes, on the Degeneration of the Olfactory Organ of certain, Prof. Wiedersheim, 592
 Fittest, Origin of the, Essays on Evolution, E. D. Cope, Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 505
 Fitzgerald (Prof., F.R.S.) and F. Trouton, on the Accuracy of Ohm's Law in Electrolysis, 547
 Fitzpatrick (J. C.), on the Action of the Solvent in Electrolytic Conduction, 547
 Fizeau (H.), on Sound-Mirage, 95
 Flamsteed's Stars "Observed but not Existing," Prof. C. H. F. Peters, 542
 Flash and Explosion, a Meteor's, Dr. John William Moore, 508
 Fletcher (A. E.), Present Position of the Alkali Trade, 569
 Fletcher (L.), Cubic Crystals of Graphitic Carbon, 304
 Flight (Dr. Walter, F.R.S.) Memorial of, 348
 Floating Eggs, Edward E. Prince, 294; W. S. Green, 319
 Flora of the Philippine Islands, 14
 Flora of Christmas Island, W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., 78
 Flora, British, Illustrations of the, 171
 Flora of the Altai, A. Krasnoff, 325
 Flora and Fauna of the Cameroons Mountain, Report of the B.A. Committee appointed for the Purpose of investigating the, 517
 Flora of China, Report of the B.A. Committee appointed for the Purpose of continuing the Preparation of a Report on our Present Knowledge of the, 518
 Flora of North Patagonia, John Ball, F.R.S., 539
 Florida, Notes on the Geology of, William H. Dall, 575
 Flower (Prof., F.R.S.), Jubilee Address at the Zoological Society of London, 186
 Flowers, Alpine, the Preservation of, 111

Fabre (Ch.): on the Alums formed by Selenic Acid, 287; Illustrations of the Law of Isomorphism, 307; Heat of Formation of Crystallized Tellurides, 360

- Flowers, a Use of, by Birds, 101, 244; William White, 173
 Flowers of *Pleurothallis ornatus*, Rchb.f., on a Point of Biological Interest in the, F. W. Oliver, 303
 Fluid, on Figures of Equilibrium of Rotating Masses of, Prof. G. H. Darwin, F.R.S., 358
 Fluids, New Method of measuring the Specific Weights of, Dr. A. Sandrucci, 45
 Fluorescences of Maganese and Bismuth, Lecoq de Boisbaudran, 336
 Fluorescences, New, with well-marked Spectral Bands, L. de Boisbaudran, 360
 Fluorine, the Atomic Weight of, Prof. Christensen, 160
 Fly, the Hessian, Miss Eleanor A. Ormerod, 439
 Foerster (Prof.), Time-Signalling on European Coasts, 307
 Fog, a Light, W. G. Brown, 556
 Fokker, Hæmatocytes, 408
 Folk-Lore Journal, the, 22
 Folk-Lore of British Birds, Provincial Names and, Rev. Charles Swainson, 49
 Folk-Lore of Ceylon Birds, 381
 Foote (Dr. A. E.), Mineral Wealth of the United States, 619
 Force, Units of Weight, Mass, and, Rev. Edward Geoghegan, 4; J. Lancaster, Prof. D. H. Marshall, 102; Prof. Alex. Macfarlane, 174; Rev. John B. Lock, 174, 317; Prof. A. G. Greenhill, 196, 269; R. B. Hayward, F.R.S., 221
 Force of Gravity, Spider allowing for the, Major C. B. Lyster, 366
 Foreign Scientific Memoirs, Report of the B.A. Committee on the Translation of, 499
 Forestry, School of, in Germany, J. Croumbie Brown, 193
 Forestry of West Africa, Alfred Moloney, 387
 Formic Acid, the Secretion of Pure Aqueous, by Lepidopterous Larvæ for the Purposes of Defence, E. B. Poulton, 593
 Forth Bridge: Structure and Progress of the, E. Malcolm Wood, 353; Machinery employed at the, William Arrol, 356
 Fossil Faunas and Floras, on the Inter-relation of, C. A. White, 116
 Fossil Fishes of Mount Lebanon, 132
 Fossil Remains of an Arctic Flora in Central Sweden, Discovery of, Prof. A. G. Nathorst, 211
 Fossil Wood from the Western Territories of Canada, Sir J. William Dawson, F.R.S., 274
 Foster (Prof. E. C.), Note on Vaschy and Touanne's Method of comparing Mutual Induction with Capacity, 191
 Fothergill (J. Milner), the Effect of Town Life upon the Human Body, 598
 Fox (Howard) and Alex. Somervail, on the Occurrence of Porphyritic Structures in some Rocks of the Lizard District, 590
 Foxglove, a Monstrous, F. R. Tennant, 482; F. Howard Collins, 508
 France, Meteorology in, 183; Heart Disease in the French Army, 184; French Association for the Advancement of Science, 207, 525; French Academy of Sciences, 307
 Franke (Dr.), New Oxides of Manganese, 476
 Franz (Dr.), Brooks's Comet, 478
Fratercula arctica, on the Structure of, F. E. Beddard, 593
 Fream (Prof.), the Hessian Fly, 592
 Freire (Dr.), Inoculation for Yellow Fever, 209
 Fresenius (Dr. C. Remigius), Qualitative Chemical Analysis, 411
 "Fresh Woods and Pastures New," 530
 Friedländer (Dr. Karl), Death of, 137
 Friends, Two, 173
 Fritsch (Prof. Anton), on the Permian Fauna of Bohemia, 591
 Fröhlich Trust, the, 112
 Fruit-Trees, *Icerya purchasi*, an Insect Injurious to, Prof. C. V. Riley, 592
 Fry (Isabel), a Brilliant Meteor, 30
 Fungus Hunter's Guide, W. Delisle Hay, 267
 Fyfe (Lawrence R.) and A. C. Sinclair, the Hand-book of Jamaica for 1887-88, 555
 Gad (Dr.), Researches on Reaction-Time for Stimulation and Inhibition, 168
 Galloway, Studies in the Topography of, Sir Herbert Eustace Maxwell, Jos. Lucas, 337
 Galtier (M.), the Danger of Infection from Tuberculous Substances, 336
 Galton (Francis, F.R.S.): Thought without Words, 28, 100; North American Pictographs, 155
 Galvanic Battery, New, 564
 Galvanometer, on comparing Capacities, E. C. Remington, 263
 Game of Logic, the, John Venn, 53
 Garbett (Ed. L.), Science for Artists, 221
 Garden Roses of India, Sir D. Brandis, F.R.S., 509
 Gardiner (Walter): Structure of the Nostochineæ, 125; and Tokutaro Ito, the Mucilage-Cells of Ferns, 214
 Gardiner (J. Starkie), Oberploicän-Flora aus den Baugruben des Klärbeckens bei Niederrad und Schleuse bei Höchst a M., T. Geyler and F. Kinkelin, 150
 Gardner (Henry Dent), Fifty Years' Progress in Clocks and Watches, 392, 484
 Garson (J. G.), Observations on Recent Explorations made by General Pitt-Rivers at Rushmore, 600
 Gas, Natural, Explosion of, 112
 Gas, Compressibility of some Solutions of, F. Isambert, 432
 Gases: Electricity of Contact of, with Liquids, J. Enright, 365, 460; Prof. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 412; Experiments on Discharge of Electricity through, A. Schuster, F.R.S., 285; Condensation of, A. E. Tutton, 105; a New Apparatus for condensing, by Contact with Liquids, Prof. Lunge, 569; on the Magnetic Properties of, Prof. Quincke, 549
 Gastaldi on Italian Geology and the Crystalline Rocks, T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., 575
 Gatschet (A. S.), Ethnographic Map of American-Indian Dialects, 112
 Gaulish Cemetery, Discovery of Ancient, in Paris, 184
 Gautier (MM. Colson and), New Method of Substitution of Chlorine in Hydrocarbons, 137
 Geddes (Patrick): Variation in Plants and Animals, 47; Proposed Contributions to the Theory of Variation, 592
 Gee (W. W. Haldane) and Prof. Balfour Stewart, F.R.S.: Lessons in Elementary Practical Physics, 241; Henry Holden, and Chas. H. Lees' Experiments on Electrolysis and Electrolytic Polarization, 550
 Geese, Wild, killed by Lightning, 307
 Geikie (Archibald, F.R.S.): Scenery of Scotland viewed in connection with its Physical Geology, 14; Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 553; the Teaching of Geography, H. J. Mackinder, 506
 Gèle (Captain van), Exploration of Mobangi Tributary of Congo, 66
 Geneva, Lake of, Waterspout of August 19, 1887, Ch. Dufour, 456
 Geodynamical Committee of the Italian Meteorological Society, Meetings of, at Aquila, 614
 Geoghegan (Rev. Edward), Units of Weight, Mass, and Force, 4
 Geography: Geographical Notes, 17, 65, 91, 113, 138, 161, 211, 257, 283, 309, 376, 478, 588, 616; M. Chauffajon's Explorations on the Orinoco River, 17; Moritz von Déchy's Explorations of the Caucasus, 17; General Tillo on the Water-partings of the Earth, 17; Krasnoff on the History of the Valley of the Ili River, 64; Dr. Rudolf Credner on Die Reliktenseen, 65; Geography of the Malay Peninsula, &c., Prof. A. H. Keane, 88; Longman's New Geographical Reader, 195; Introductory Text-book of Physical Geography, David Page, 195; the Progress of Geography, General R. Strachey, F.R.S., 258; Geographical Society of St. Petersburg, 279; Opening Address by Colonel Sir Chas. Warren, F.R.S., in Section E of the British Association, 465; Albert Nyanza and Mutanzige, 499; the Teaching of Geography, Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., H. J. Mackinder, 506; Report of the B.A. Committee appointed for the Purpose of co-operating with the Royal Geographical Society in endeavouring to bring before the Authorities of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge the Advisability of promoting the Study of Geography by establishing Special Chairs for the Purpose, 518; Longman's Shilling Geography, 555; Pictorial Geography of the British Isles, Mary E. Palgrave, 580; Account of a Recent Visit to the Ancient Porphyry Quarries of Egypt, W. Brindley, 595; Matabeleland and the Country between the Zambesi and the Limpopo, Capt. C. E. Haynes, 595; the Ruby Mines of Burmah, G. Skelton Streeter, 596; the Valley of the Rio

- Dôce (Brazil), Wm. J. Steains, 596; on some Defects in the Ordnance Survey, H. S. Wilkinson, 597; Utilization of the Ordnance Survey, Sir Chas. Wilson, 597; New Bathy-orographical Map of the Clyde Basin, Dr. H. R. Mill, 597; a Plea for the Metre, E. G. Ravenstein, 597; the Beginning of the Geography of Great Britain, Prof. Boyd Dawkins, 595; Teaching of Geography at the Universities, H. J. Mackinder, 596; Return of Lieut. Wissmann from his Journey across Africa, 616; M. Louis Navez on the Influence of the Various Geological Formations in Belgium, 617; Dr. Oscar Baumann on the Island of Fernando Po, 617; A. J. Wauters on Lake Muta-Nzige, 617
- Geology: the Scenery of Scotland viewed in Connection with its Physical Geology, Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., 14; Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 553; Microscopic Structure of some Caucasian Rocks, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 70; Geological Society, 71, 94, 191, 165, 286; the London Clay and Bagshot Beds of Aldershot, Lieut. H. G. Lyons, W. H. Huddleston, F.R.S., 71; the Formation of Loess from the Glacial Gravelly Clay in the Tian-Shan, Krasnoff, 110; Geological Science in Norway, 111; the Eozoöcal Rock of Manhattan Island, L. P. Gratacap, 116; on Taconic Beds and Stratigraphy, J. D. Dana, 116; on the Enlargement of Hornblends and Augites in Fragmental and Eruptive Rocks, C. R. van Hise, 116; Imperial Geological Union, Sir J. William Dawson, F.R.S., 146; Oberpliocän Flora aus den Baugruben des Niederrad und Schleuse bei Höchst a. M., T. Geyler and F. Kinkelin, 150; Geological Investigation of the Congo, M. Edward Dupont's Proposed, 162; Notes on the Geology of Part of the Eastern Coast of China and the Adjacent Islands, 163; Dr. H. Hick's Explorations of Caverns in North Wales, 185; the Upper Cretaceous Series in Suffolk and Norfolk, Jukes-Brown and Hill, 191; Geological Structure of Finistère, 212; Geology of England and Wales, Horace B. Woodward, 218; Carapaced Hydrosaurian discovered in Aix-la-Chapelle District, 252; the Action of Subterranean Waters, Daubrée, 264; Nepheline Rocks in Brazil, O. A. Derby, 286; Albite Crystals in Limestone Rocks and Western Alps, C. Lory, 287; Outlines of the Geology of Northumberland and Durham, Prof. G. A. Lebour, Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 289; Comparative Study of the Geological Systems of Corsica and Eastern Pyrenees, Ch. Depéret, 383; Russian Geological Literature, 400; Opening Address by Henry Woodward, F.R.S., in Section C of the British Association, 447; on the Mineralogical Constitution of Calcareous Organisms, by Vaughan Cornish and Percy F. Kendall, 571; the Matrix of the Diamond, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 571; on the Discovery of Carboniferous Fossils in a Conglomerate at Moughton Fell, near Settle, Yorkshire, Robert Law and James Horsfall, 571; Places of Geological Interest on the Banks of the Saskatchewan, Prof. J. Hoyes Panton, 571; the History and Cause of the Subsidence at Northwich and its Neighbourhood in the Salt District of Cheshire, Thos. Ward, 572; the Sonora Earthquake of May 3, 1887, Dr. T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., and Jas. Douglas, 572; the Disaster at Zug on July 5, 1887, by the Rev. E. Hill, 572; the Triassic Rocks of West Somerset, W. A. E. Ussher, 572; the Devonian Rocks of West Somerset on the Borders of the Trias, W. A. E. Ussher, 572; Observations on the Rounding of Pebbles by Alpine Rivers, with a Note on their Bearing upon the Origin of Bunter Conglomerate, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 573; the Terminal Moraines of the Great Glaciers of England, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 573; on some Important Extra-Morainic Lakes in Central England, North America, and Elsewhere during the Period of Maximum Glaciation, and on the Origin of Extra-Morainic Boulder-Clay, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 573; on the Extension of the Scandinavian Ice to Eastern England in the Glacial Period, Prof. Otto Torell, 573; a Comparative Study of the Till or Lower Boulder-Clay in several of the Glaciated Countries of Europe (Britain, Scandinavia, Germany, Switzerland, and the Pyrenees), Hugh Miller, 573; Note on a few of the many Remarkable Boulder-Stones to be found along the Eastern Margin of the Wicklow Mountains, Prof. Edward Hull, F.R.S., 574; on New Facts relating to *Eozoön canadense*, Sir J. William Dawson, F.R.S., 574; Preliminary Note on Traverses of the Western and of the Eastern Alps made during the Summer of 1887, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 590; Origin of Banded Gneisses, J. J. H. Teall, 590; on the Occurrence of Porphyritic Structures in some Rocks of the Lizard District, Howard Fox and Alex. Somervail, 590; Preliminary Observations on the Geology of Wicklow and Wexford, Prof. Sollas, 591; some Effects of Pressure on the Sedimentary Rocks of North Devon, J. E. Marr, 591; on the Organic Origin of the Chert in the Carboniferous Limestone Series of Ireland, and its Similarity to that in the Corresponding Strata in North Wales and Yorkshire, Dr. George Jennings Hinde, 591; on the Affinities of the so-called Torpedo (*Cyclobatis*, Egerton) from the Cretaceous of Mount Lebanon, A. Smith Woodward, 591; Pliocene Beds of St. Erth, Cornwall, Robert Geo. Bell, 591; on a Star-fish from the Yorkshire Lias, Prof. J. F. Blake, 591; the Classification of the Dinosauria, Prof. Seeley, F.R.S., 591; on the Reputed Clavicles and Interclavicles of Iguanodon, Prof. H. G. Seeley, F.R.S., 591; on the Permian Fauna of Bohemia, Prof. Anton Fritsch, 591; Geological Nomenclature, 453; Geology of Africa, Dr. Gürlich, 478; Von Soll's Exploration of Wood Mountain in New Siberia, 478; Explorations in Wappinger Valley Limestone of Dutchess County, New York, W. P. Dwight, 479; Manner of Deposit of Glacial Drift, O. P. Hay, 480; Exploration of the Yukon District, 525; Elements of Primary Geology, T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., 574; Gastaldi on Italian Geology and the Crystalline Rocks, T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., 575; Notes on the Geology of Florida, William H. Dall, 575; the Proposed New Geological Museum at Cambridge, 586; Primary Observations on the Geology of Wicklow and Wexford, Prof. Sollas, 590; M. Navez on the Influence of the Various Geological Formations in Belgium, 617
- Geometry: a Treatise on Geometrical Optics, R. S. Heath, J. Larmor, 219; on the Normal Derivatives of the Potential Function of Surfaces, G. Morera, 455; the Relation of Geometrical Structures to Chemical Properties, Prof. Wislicenus, 569; a New Mode of Geometrical Demonstration, with Examples showing its Application to Lines and Angles, Surfaces and the Products of Three or More Straight Lines, Dr. Maver, 602; First Steps in Geometry: a Series of Hints for the Solution of Geometrical Problems, with Notes on Euclid, Useful Working Propositions, and many Examples, R. A. Proctor, 602
- Germanium, Dr. Clemens Winkler, 525; a Double Fluoride of Potassium and, Prof. Kriess and Nilson, 209
- Germany: German Association of Naturalists, 63; German African Society, 91; Meeting of German Naturalists and Physicians at Wiesbaden, 136; German Weather Reports, 159; German Meteorological Office, J. S. Harding, 205; German Carnivorous Plants, Kerner and Wettstein, 209; Annual Meeting of the German Geological Society, 586; Statistics of Snow-fall in Central, 42; Dr. Otto Knopf, 198, 210; Lightning Damage in, Dr. Hellmann, 159; School of Forestry in Germany, J. Croumbie Brown, 193; Education in Germany, Samuel Smith, 567
- Geyler (T.) and F. Kinkelin, Oberpliocän Flora aus den Baugruben des Klärbeckens bei Niederrad und Schleuse bei Höchst a. M., J. Starkie Gardner, 150
- Giffard (Henry), Prize for Eloge of, 63
- Giffen (Robert), Opening Address in Section F (Economic Science and Statistics), the Recent Rate of Material Progress in England, 487
- Giglioli (Prof. Henry H.), Earthquake in the Western Riviera, 4; Fermenti e Microbi, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 316
- Gilbert (Dr., F.R.S.) and Sir J. Lawes, F.R.S., the Present Aspect of the Question of the Sources of Nitrogen in Vegetation, 570
- Gingers, Chinese, 374
- Glaciers: Manner of Deposit of Glacial Drift, O. P. Hay, 480; Glacial Period, the, and the Antiquity of Man, Rev. Joseph Prestwich, 165; Migrations of Pre-Glacial Man, 245; Terminal Moraines of the Great Glaciers of England, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 273; on some Important Extra-morainic Lakes in Central England, by Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 573; on the Extension of the Scandinavian Ice to Eastern England in the Glacial Period, Prof. Otto Torell, 573
- Gladstone (Dr. J. H., F.R.S.): Dispersion Equivalents, 239; on the Action of an Electric Current in hastening the Formation of Lagging Compounds, 524; Dispersion Equivalents and Constitutional Formulæ, 570
- Glaser (Ed.), Contemplated Journey in Southern Arabia, 478
- Glasgow, International Exhibition at, Proposed, 137

- Glennie (J. S. Stuart), the Non-Aryan and the Non-Semitic White Races and their Place in the History of Civilization, 598
- Globules, Polar, on the Signification of the, Prof. August Weismann, 607
- Glows, after, J. Lloyd Bozward, 245
- Gneisses, Banded, the Origin of, J. J. H. Teall, 590
- Godthaab, Meteorological Observations at, 194
- Goedecke and Miethé, New Discovery in Connection with Instantaneous Photography, 144
- Gold in Norway, Dahll on, 185
- Gold, the Atomic Weight of, J. W. Mallet, F.R.S., 568
- Goldschneider's (Dr.) Experiments on Reaction-time of Perception of Temperature, 288; Illustrations of Topography of Sense of Temperature, 383; Experiments on Origin of Ataxy, 384
- Golf: the Unwritten Chapter on, 502; "Toeing" and "Heeling" at, T. Mellard Reade, 580
- Goode (G. Brown) appointed United States Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, 475
- Gordon (Paul), Vorlesungen über Invariantentheorie, 51
- Gorgeu (Alex.), Artificial Crystallization of Magnetite, 43
- Gothard (M. de), Photography the Servant of Astronomy, 90
- Grants for Science and Art Instruction, 478
- Graphitic Carbon, Cubic Crystals of, L. Fletcher, 304
- Grasshopper Plague in Algeria, 184
- Gratacap (L. P.), the Eozoal Rock of Manhattan Island, 116
- Gravel, Mammaliferous, at Elloughton in the Humber Valley, G. W. Lamplugh, 153
- Graves, Boat-shaped, in Syria, Geo. St. Clair, 598
- Gravière (Jurien de la), Collisions at Sea, 215
- Gravity, Force of, Spider allowing for the, Major C. B. Lyster, 366
- Gravity, Differential, Meters, Report of the B. A. Committee on, 499
- Great Britain, Different Varieties of Thunderstorms and a Scheme for their Systematic Observation in, Hon. R. Abercromby, 548
- Great Britain, the Beginning of the Geography of, Prof. Boyd Dawkins, 595
- Gréchant, Electric Excitement of Liver, 408
- Greece, Earthquakes in, 307, 541, 587
- Green (Prof. A. H., F.R.S.), Outlines of the Geology of Northumberland and Durham, Prof. G. A. Lebour, 289; the Scenery of Scotland Viewed in Connection with its Physical Geology, Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., 553, 604
- Green (J. F.), Ocean Birds, Prof. R. Bowdler Sharpe, 435
- Green (W. S.): Spawn of Sun-fish, 245; Floating Eggs, 319
- Greeneria fuliginosa*, Note on, L. Scribner and Pierre Viala, 504
- Greenhill (Prof. A. G.), Weight, Mass, and Force, 196, 269
- Greenland, Baron Nordenskjöld's Journey across, 138
- Greenland Expedition, Proposed New Danish, 17
- Greenland, Return of the Danish Expedition to the Coast of Northern, 588
- Greenwich Observatory, Annual Visitation of, 41, 139
- Greenwood (Thos.), Eminent Naturalists, 293
- Grenfell (A.), Thought without Words, 173
- Griffith (A. F.), Lunar Rainbows, 531
- Grosfils (M.), a New Method of preserving Butter, 376
- Gross (Dr.): on the Heat of Solution of Magnetized Iron, 96; on Electrical Condition of Magnets during Magnetization, 144
- Grouse Disease, Prof. Bell, 240
- "Growth of the Recruit and Young Soldier," Sir W. Aitken, 587
- Grubb (Sir Howard, F.R.S.), Instruments for Stellar Photography, 523
- Grunmach (Dr.), Experiments on Relation between Curve of Distension of Elastic Tubes and Rate of Pulse-Wave in same, 48
- Grünwald (Prof.), the Spectra of Hydrogen, Oxygen, and Water Vapour, 501
- Grye (Bouquet de la), Note on the Earthquake of February 23, 1887, at Nice, 336
- Guerin (R.), the Lunar Atmosphere Question, 456
- Gunnery, Science and, 31, 58
- Gunning's (Dr.), Jubilee Gifts for Advancement of Science, 308
- Gürich (Dr.), Geology of Africa, 478
- Gymnastics (Medical), Taoist, Dr. Dudgeon, 375
- Gypsies and an Ancient Hebrew Race in Sus and the Sahara, R. G. Haliburton, 599
- Habicht*, Observations taken at the Cameroons on Board the, 88
- Haddon (A. C.), an Introduction to the Study of Embryology, 601
- Hadfield's Manganese Steel, Magnetization of, in Strong Fields, Prof. J. A. Ewing, F.R.S., and William Low, 548
- Hadrosaurian, Carapaced, discovered in Aix-la-Chapelle, District, 262
- Hæmatin in Urine, Dr. Lewin, 120
- Hæmatocytes, Fokker, 408
- Hague (Arnold), Notes on the Deposition of Scorodite from Arsenical Waters in the Yellowstone National Park, 575
- Haig's (General) Journey to South-West Arabia, 211
- Hailstones, Remarkable, E. J. Low, F.R.S., 44; R. G. Durrant, 44; A. Wentzil, 45; C. S. Middlemiss, 45; Rev. A. Irving, 77; Pear-shaped, B. Woodd Smith, 102; Fall of Peculiar, in Kingston, Jamaica, James John Bowrey, 153; with Stony Nucleus, G. Tissandier, 312
- Haiiphong, Tonquin, Determination of Longitude of, by Telegraphy, F. Laporte, 456
- Haliburton (R. G.), Gypsies and an Ancient Hebrew Race in Sus and the Sahara, 599
- Hall Effect manifested in Different Metals, Von Ettingshausen and Nernst, 185
- Hall (Prof. Asaph), Parallax of α Tauri, 138; Companion of Sirius, 186
- Hall (J. A.), on Organic Vanadates, 570
- Hall (Maxwell), Temperature and Pressure, 197
- Hall (H. S.) and S. R. Knight, Higher Algebra, 409, 507
- Halogens, Action of Light on the Hydracids of the, in Presence of Oxygen, Dr. A. Richardson, 569
- Haloid Salts of Didymium, Absorption-Spectra of the, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 570
- Hambleton (G. W.): the Experimental Production of Chest Types in Man, 599; the Scientific Treatment of Consumption, 599
- Hamilton's Numbers, on, Prof. J. J. Sylvester, F.R.S., 557
- Hanus (Paul H.), an Elementary Treatise on the Theory of Determinants, 51
- Haplodiscus piger*, on the Structure of, W. F. R. Weldon, 592
- Harcourt (Prof. A. A. Vernon, F.R.S.), on a Standard Lamp, 549
- Harding (Chas.): the Storm and Low Barometer of December 8 and 9, 1886, 118; Thunderstorm in London, 397
- Harding (J. S.), German Meteorological Office, 205
- Hardman (Edward T.), Obituary Notice of, 62
- Hare, Capture by a Hedgehog of a, Murray A. Mathew, 137
- Hares, Peculiar Disease among, in Alsace, M. Mégnin, 541
- Harkness (Wm.), on the Constant P in Observations of Terrestrial Magnetism, 366
- Harley (Dr. G., F.R.S.), on the Relative Recuperative Powers of Man in Rude and Civilized States, 143
- Harries (Hy.), Atmospheric Pressure and Colliery Explosions, 437
- Harvard College, Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of, Edward C. Pickering, 388
- Harvard Undergraduates, Annual Expenditure of, Prof. G. H. Palmer, 325
- Harveian Oration, Dr. William H. Stone, 589
- Hay (O. P.), Manner of Deposit of Glacial Drift, 480
- Hay (W. Delisle), Fungus Hunter's Guide, 267
- Hay Fever and Paroxysmal Sneezing, Morell Mackenzie, 363
- Hayden (Everett), C. E. Dutton and, an Abstract of the Results of the Investigation of the Charleston Earthquake, 269, 297
- Haynes (Capt. C. E.), Matabeleland and the Country between the Zambesi and the Limpopo, 595
- Hayward (R. B., F.R.S.), Weight, Mass, and Force, 221
- Health of Nations, Edwin Chadwick, Benjamin Ward Richardson, 385
- Heart, Researches on Movements of the, Dr. Martins, 383
- Heart Disease in French Army, 184
- Heat of Solution of Magnetized Iron, on the, Dr. Gross, 96
- Heat, Specific, Measurement of, Geo. N. Huntley, 438
- Heat, Chemistry and, R. G. Durrant, 507
- Heat, Expansion by, of Wires under Pulling Stress, J. T. Bottomley, 550
- Heath (R. S.), a Treatise on Geometrical Optics, J. Larmor, 219

- Hedgehog, Capture of a Hare by a, Murray A. Mathew, 137
 "Heeling," "Toeing" and, at Golf, T. Mellard Reade, 580
 Height of Summer Clouds, 206
 Heights and Motions of Clouds in Spitzbergen, Measurement of the, Dr. Nils Ekholm, 459
 Helensburgh, "After-Glows" at, Robert H. Scott, F.R.S., 175; Lewis P. Muirhead, 175
 Heliochromy and the Latest Photographic Image, M. C. Lee, 115
 Hellman (Dr.), Lightning Damage in Germany, 159
 Helmholtz (Prof. Von), Further Researches concerning the Electrolysis of Water, 547
 Hemp, Bowstring, 41
 Henry (Louis), Synthetic Acetic Acid and Kindred Forms, 72
 Heppel (G.), the Conic Sections, with Solutions of Questions in London University, and other Examination Papers, 602
 Héraud (M.), Tides of Tunisian Coast, 383
 Herdman (Prof. W. A.): on an Ideal Natural History Museum, 63; Liverpool Marine Biology Station on Puffin Island, 275
 Heriot-Watt College, 279
 Hervé-Mangon, Rainfall in Paris, 159
 Hessian Fly, the, Miss Eleanor A. Ormerod, 439; Prof. Fream, 592
Hyperodapedon gordonii, Prof. Huxley, 94
 Hicks (Dr. Henry, F.R.S.): Explorations of Caverns in North Wales, 185; Second B.A. Report on Cae Gwynn Cave, North Wales, 516; Migrations of Pre-Glacial Man, 269, 599
 Hickson (Dr. Sydney J.), Certain Degenerations of Design in Papuan Art, 599
 Hickson (Dr. Sydney J.) and W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., Cocoa-nut Pearls, 157
 Hill (Rev. E.), the Disaster at Zug on July 5, 1887, 572
 Hill (S. A.): Curious Phenomenon in Capillarity, 125; Unusual Rainbow, 581
 Hill (W.), Jukes-Brown and, the Upper Cretaceous Series in Suffolk and Norfolk, 191
 Hinde (Dr. Geo. Jennings), on the Organic Origin of the Chert in the Carboniferous Limestone Series of Ireland, 591
 Hindostan, Survey of, 349
 Hirsch (Dr.), Neuchâtel Observatory, 477
 Hise (C. R. van), on the Enlargement of Hornblendes and Augites in Fragmental and Eruptive Rocks, 116
 Histology, Essentials of, E. A. Schäfer, F.R.S., Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 292
 Histology, a Course of Elementary Practical, W. Fearnley, 481
 Hoff (Van't) and Spring, on a Case of Chemical Decomposition caused by Pressure, 116
 Holden (Henry), W. W. Haldane Gee, and Chas. H. Lees, Experiments on Electrolysis and Electrolytic Polarization, 550
 Holub (Dr. Emil), Return of, 452
 Hong Kong Observatory, 349
 Hop Plant Louse, *Phorodon humuli*, Schrank, the Problem of the, in Europe and America, Prof. C. V. Riley, 566
 Hopkin and Williams, Zirconia, 53
 Horbaczewski (Prof.), a New Synthesis of Uric Acid, 209
 Horner (Maures), a Brilliant Meteor, 30
 Horsfall (Jas.) and Robert Law, on the Discovery of Carboniferous Fossils in a Conglomerate at Moughton Fell, near Settle, Yorkshire, 571
 Horsley (Prof. Victor), Trephining during the Neolithic Period in Europe, 117
 Hough (Prof.), Dearborn Observatory, 501
 Houghton (Rev. W.), on the Picture Origin of the Characters of the Assyrian Syllabary, 598
 Hourly Readings for 1884, 348
 Huddleston (W. H., F.R.S.), the Lower Bagshot Sands, 71
 Hughes's Induction Balance, J. Cook, 605
 Hull (Prof. Edward, F.R.S.): on the Effect of Continental Lands in altering the Level of the adjoining Oceans, 549; Note on a Few of the Remarkable Boulder-Stones to be found along the Eastern Margin of the Wicklow Mountains, 574
 Human Body, the Effect of Town Life upon the, J. Milner Fothergill, 598
 Human Race, Stature of the, Wm. F. Stanley, 366
 Humber Valley, Mammaliferous Gravel at Elloughton, in the, G. W. Lamplugh, 153
 Hungary, Earthquakes in, 307, 587
 Hunt (Robert, F.R.S.), Death of, 586
 Hunt (Dr. T. Sterry, F.R.S.): Integral Weights in Chemistry, 569; and Jas. Douglas, on the Sonora Earthquake of May 3, 1887, 572; Elements of Primary Geology, 574; Gastaldi on Italian Geology and the Crystalline Rocks, 575
 Hunter (G. M.), Lighthouse Illumination and Signalling in Firth of Clyde, 64
 Huntley (Geo. N.), Measurement of Specific Heat, 438
 Huron Group? Is there a, 576
 Hutchings (W. M.), Occurrence of Apatite in Slag, 460
 Huth (Dr. Ernst): Tabasheer mentioned in Older Botanical Works, 29; Pearls of *Jasminum sambac*, 581
 Huxley (Prof. T. H., F.R.S.): the Connection between Science and Art and Literature, 14; *Hyperodapedon gordonii*, 94; Remarks on British Race-Types of To-day, 563
 Hyderabad, Kashmir, Sikkim, and Nepal, Journals kept in, Sir Richard Temple, 75
 Hydracids of the Halogens, Action of Light on the, in Presence of Oxygen, Dr. A. Richardson, 569
 Hydrazine, Dr. Theodor Curtius, 184
 Hydrogen, Oxygen, and Water Vapour, Spectra of, Prof. Grünwald, 501
 Hydrographical Survey Office of Norway, 500
 Hydrography of Central Carniola, 564
 Hydroid Parasitic on a Fish, J. Walter Fewkes, 604
 Hydrophobia, 433; the Committee on Pasteur's Treatment of Hydrophobia, 207, 232; an Account of M. Pasteur's System, Renaud Suzor, 482
 Hygiene: the Teaching of, Prof. Loewenthal, 64; Electricity and Hygiene, Sambuc, 280; International Hygienic Congress at Vienna, 429, 524, 540, 618; Hygienic Instruction in Universities, Herr Pettenkofer, 524; Sixth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography in Vienna, 618
 Hygrometry of Ben Nevis, H. N. Dickson, 548
 Hypnotism, on the Origin of the Curative Effects of, J. Delbœuf, 504
 Ice, Scandinavian, on the Extension of, to Eastern England in the Glacial Period, Prof. Otto Torell, 573
 Ice, Action of River, Thos. W. Kingsmill, 581
 Ice and Brines, J. Y. Buchanan, 9
 Icebergs, Chart of, 41
 Ice-Chart, Deutsche Seewarte's, 286
Icerya purchasi, an Insect injurious to Fruit-trees, Prof. C. V. Riley, 592
 Iguanodon, on the Reputed Clavicles and Interclavicles of, Prof. H. G. Seeley, F.R.S., 591
 Ili River, History of the Valley of the, A. N. Krasnoff, 64
 Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg, 63, 399
 Imperial Geological Union, Sir J. William Dawson, F.R.S., 146
 Imperial Institute, 41, 229; the Work of the, Sir Frederick Abel, C.B., F.R.S., 17
 India: Proposed Botanical Survey of, 14; Silk Industry of, 63; Indian Silk Culture, 452; Meteorology of India, 164; Agricultural Pests of India, Surgeon-General Edward Balfour, 169; Indian Antiquities at the Albert Hall, 184; Cuckoo in India, F. C. Constable, 245; Indian Museum, Calcutta, 306; Garden Roses of India, Sir D. Brandis, F.R.S., 509; Statistical Atlas of India, 615
 Indigo, the Microbe of, E. Alvarez, 360
 Induction Balance, Hughes's, J. Cook, 605
 Induction between Wires and Wires, W. H. Preece, F.R.S., 549
 Inglis (Hon. James), Our New Zealand Cousins, 579
 Inoculation against Yellow Fever, Dr. Freire, 209
 Insect Fauna of Australia, Meyrick, 215
 Insects, Further Experiments upon the Protective Value of Colour and Markings in, E. B. Poulton, 594
 Institute of Actuaries, 137
 Institution of Civil Engineers, 23, 166, 430
 Institution of Mechanical Engineers, 41, 63, 114, 279, 324, 352, 551
 Institution of Naval Architects, 279, 306

- Integral Weights in Chemistry, Dr. T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., 569
 Integrator, Spherical, Fredk. Smith, 31
 Intelligence in Animals, Breeding for, Dr. H. Rayner, 246
 International Congress of Geologists (1888), 306, 453
 International Exhibition at Glasgow, Proposed, 137
 International Medical Congress, Washington, 453, 475
 Ionian Islands, Earthquake in the, 587
 Ions, Experiments on the Speeds of, Prof. Lodge, F.R.S., 547
 Ireland, on the Organic Origin of the Chert in the Carboniferous Limestone Series of, and its Similarity to that in the Corresponding Strata in North Wales and Yorkshire, Dr. Geo. Jennings Hinde, 591
 Iridescent Clouds, T. W. Backhouse, 77
 Iron, Magnetized, on the Heat of Solutions of, Dr. Gross, 96
 Iron, on the Magnetization of, in Strong Fields, Prof. Ewing, F.R.S., and W. Low, 546
 Iron Bar, on the Influence of a Plane of Transverse Section on the Magnetic Permeability of an, Prof. J. A. Ewing, F.R.S., and W. Low, 548
 Iron and Steel Institute, 114, 453, 510; Autumn Meeting of, at Manchester, 499
 Iron and Steel, Effects of Magnetization on the Viscosity and the Rigidity of, C. Barus, 575
 Irving (Rev. A.): Remarkable Hailstones, 77; Tertiary Outliers on the North Downs, 531
 Isambert (F.), Compressibility of some Solutions of Gas, 432
 Island, Christmas, Capt. W. J. L. Wharton, F.R.S., Capt. J. P. Maclear, 12
 Isoclinous Magnetic Curves, M. C. Decharme, 624
 Isogonic Magnetic Curves, 24
 Isomeric Change in the Phenol Series, O. R. Ling, 569
 Isomeric Naphthalene Derivatives, Report of the B.A. Committee on, 516
 Isomeric Organic Compounds, Solubility of, Prof. Carnelley, 569
 Isomorphism, Illustrations of the Law of, C. Fabre, 307
 Isotropy, a Simple Dynamic Method of determining Degree of, E. Mercadier, 287
 Italy: Gastaldi on Italian Geology and the Crystalline Rocks, T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., 575; Italian Meteorological Society, 15, 184; Earthquakes in, 307; State of Education of, Prof. A. Amati, 45
 Ito (Tokutaro): and Walter Gardiner, the Mucilage-Cells of Ferns, 214; Botany of the Riukiu (Loochoo) Islands, 538
 Izvestia of the Russian Geographical Society, 64
 Jaccoud (M.), Acute Pneumonia, 23
 Jahrbuch of the Magdeburgische Zeitung, 281
 Jahrbuch of the Norwegian Meteorological Institute, 399
 Jahresbericht of the Central Meteorological Office of the Grand Duchy of Baden, 324
 Jamaica, the Hand-book of, for 1887-88, A. C. Sinclair and Lawrence R. Fyfe, 555
 James (Frank L.), Elementary Microscopical Technology, 481
 James's (H. E. M.) Exploration of Manchuria, 138
 Jammes, Animals Liable to become addicted to Opium-poisoning, 325
 Janssen (J.): Note on Work carried out at Meudon Observatory, 408; Eclipse of August 19, 1887, 432
 Japan: the Language, Mythology, and Geographical Nomenclature of Japan viewed in the Light of Aino Studies, 25; Japanese Earthquake of January 15, 1887, Prof. J. A. Ewing, 107; Prof. S. Sekiya, 379; Sketches of Life in Japan, Major Henry Knollys, 171; Regulations for the Establishment of Meteorological Observatories in Japan, 586; Total Eclipse of last August in Japan, Prof. David P. Todd, 609
Jasminum sambac, Pearls of, Dr. E. Huth, 581
 Java, the Meteorite of March 19, 1884, at Jati-Pengilon, Daubrée, 336
 Jequirity, the Proteids of Seeds of, Dr. Sidney Martin, 70
 Johnston's (H. H.), Natural History Collections made near the Cameroons, 254
 Johnston (R. M.), the Death-Rate as Index of Sanitary Condition of Society, 184
 Joest (Wilhelm), a New Work on Tattooing by, 586
 Joseph (Dr.), Anatomical Researches on the Physiology of the Spinal Ganglia, 120
 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 95
 Journal of Botany, 70, 190, 455
 Journal of the Chemical Society, 349
 Journal für praktische Chemie, 525
 Journal of Morphology, 587
 Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 615
 Jovis (M.), a New Varnish for Textile Materials, 376
 Jovis and Mallet, Balloon Ascent, 374
 Jubilee, the, 145; Science and the Jubilee, 135, 176; Jubilee Gifts for Advancement of Science, Dr. R. H. Gunning, 308; Jubilee Honours for Scientific Men, 183; the Jubilee of Telephony in London, 230; Jubilee of the Electric Telegraph, 313, 326; Jubilee Anticyclone, 248
 Judd (Prof., F. R. S.), Science and Literature, 88
 Judde, the Sir Andrew, Science and Art Schools, 88
 Juglon, Synthesis of, 15
 Jukes-Brown and Hill, the Upper Cretaceous Series in Suffolk and Norfolk, 191
 Junker's (Dr.) African Explorations, 17, 39, 257
 Jupiter, Red Spot upon, 65
 Jupiter and Saturn, Micrometric Measures of, Dr. Doberck, 65
 Juvisy, New Observatory at, 455
 Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, Volcanic Ash Shower, 281
 Karr (H. W. Seton), Shores and Alps of Alaska, 220
 Keane (Prof. A. H.), the Geography of the Malay Peninsula, 88; Social History of the Races of Mankind, A. Featherman, 147; the Necropolis of Ancon, 281
 Keiser (Dr. E. H.), Experiments upon the Synthesis of Water by Weight, 541
 Kendall (Percy F.) and Vaughan Cornish, Mineralogical Constitution of Calcareous Organisms, 571
 Kenward (J.), a Review of Lighthouse Work and Economy in the United Kingdom during the Past Fifty Years, 103, 179, 201
 Kerner and Wettstein, German Carnivorous Plants, 209
 Kew Gardens, 41, 135, 159, 183, 208, 210, 279; Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, 374
 Key Islands, Proposed Scientific Expedition to the, by the Dutch Geographical Society, 589
 Kiener and Engel (MM.), Toluylendiamine, 504
 Kilauaea in 1880, W. T. Brigham, 479
 Kilimanjaro, Reported Ascent of, by M. Meyer, 563
 King (George), Annals of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Calcutta, 242
 King (Capt. H.), Meteor, 198
 King's College, London, 306
 Kingsmill (Thos. W.), Action of River Ice, 581
 Kingston, Jamaica, Fall of Peculiar Hailstones in, James John Bowrey, 153
 Kirchhoff (Prof. Gustav), Death of, 586; Obituary Notice of Prof. P. G. Tait, 606
 Kirghiz Steppe, Fauna of, Nazarov, 476
 Kite-Balloon, Captive, E. Douglas Archibald, 278
 Kitten and Pig, 341
 Klebs (Herr G.), Observations on Gelatinous Sheath of Filaments of Algae, 15
 Klein (Dr. E., F.R.S.): Etiology of Scarlet Fever, 126; Essentials of Histology, E. A. Schäfer, F.R.S., 292; Ferments e Microbi, Prof. Giglioli, 316; Photography of Bacteria, Edgar M. Crookshank, 316; Photography of Bacteria, Dr. Edgar Crookshank, 388; the Prevention of Consumption, C. Candler, 340
 Klein (Rev. Dr. L. Martial), La Cytodière chez les Animaux: Etude comparée du Noyau et du Protoplasme, J. B. Carnoy, 170
 Klobb (M.), a Series of New Salts, 500
 Knight (S. R.) and H. S. Hall, Higher Algebra, 409
 Knollys (Major Henry), Sketches of Life in Japan, 171
 Knopf (Dr. Otto), Snow in Central Germany, 198
 Knorre (Dr.), New Minor Planet, 616
 König (Dr.), on Newton's Law of Colour-mixing, 96
 Köppen (Dr. W.), the Nomenclature of Clouds, 208; on the Classification of Clouds, 306; Rainfall in the Atlantic and Indian Oceans, 617
 Kosteletzky (Dr. V.), Death of, 430

- Krakatoa Dust, Upper Wind-Currents near the Equator and the Diffusion of, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 85; E. Douglas Archibald, 152
- Krasan (Franz), the History of Development of Form in Roburoid Oaks, 22
- Krasnoff (A. N.), History of the Valley of the Ili River, 64; the Formation of Loess from the Glacial Gravelly Clay in the Tian-Shan, 110; Flora of the Altai, 325
- Krause (Herr G. A.), News of, 258
- Krejci (Dr. Johann), Death of, 376
- Kreutz (Dr. H.), Comet 1887 *e* (Barnard, May 12), 401
- Krouchkoll (M.), on the Polarization of Copper, 119
- Kriess and Nilson (Drs.), Thorium, 255; a Double Fluoride of Potassium and Germanium, 209
- Kung-Fu, Taoist Medical Gymnastics, Dr. Dudgeon, 375
- Kuro Siwo, the, Prof. Davidson, 283
- Kützing (Herr), Proposed Gift to, 614
- La Nature*, Account of a Steam Tricycle, 564
- Lacouperie (Prof. de), Miryeks or Stone Men of Corea, 615
- Iadd (Geo. T.), Elements of Physiological Psychology, 290
- Ladenburg (Dr.): Ptomaines—Cadaverin, 453; on the Constitution of Atropine, 570
- Lady Graduates in Medicine, 110
- Lagrange (Ch.), Intertropical Diurnal and Annual Variations of Terrestrial Magnetism, 95
- Lahore Museum, 452
- Lake Albert Nyanza, Emin Pasha's Explorations of, 161
- Lake Geneva, on the Recent Waterspout in, M. H. Faye, 552
- Lake Muta-Nzige, A. J. Wauters, 617
- Lakes of Marine Origin, Dr. R. Credner on, 65
- Lalande's Catalogue, Revision of, 623
- Lamb (Prof. F.R.S.), on the Theory of Electrical Endosmose and Allied Phenomena, and on the Existence of a Sliding Coefficient for a Fluid in Contact with a Solid, 523
- Lamp, on a Standard, Prof. A. A. Vernon Harcourt, F.R.S., 549
- Lamp (Dr. E.), Comet 1887 *e* (Barnard, 1887 May 12), 90; Parallax of ≈ 2394 , 616
- Lamplugh (G. W.), Mammaliferous Gravel at Elloughton in the Humber Valley, 153
- Lancaster (J.), Units of Weight, Mass, and Force, 102
- Land of the Broads, Ernest R. Suffling, 457
- Landerer (J. J.), on the Variation of Telluric Currents, 504
- Landslip at Zug, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 389
- Lange (Dr. G.), Ueber Gemüthsbewegungen, 603
- Langley (Prof. S. P.), Sunlight Colours, 76
- Language without Reason, No,—No Reason without Language, Prof. F. Max Müller, 249
- Lanice conchilega*, the Nephridia of, Malmgren, J. T. Cunningham, 162, 246
- Laporte (F.), Determination of Longitude of Haiphong, Tonquin, by Telegraphy, 456
- Larmor (J.), a Treatise on Geometrical Optics, R. S. Heath, 219
- Lattakia, on the Pliocene Deposit of Marine Shells near, and a Similar Deposit in the Island of Zante, Dr. Geo. E. Post, 245
- Lawrent (M. Léon), a Projection Saccharimeter, 456
- Law (Robert) and Jas. Horsfall, on the Discovery of Carboniferous Fossils in a Conglomerate at Moughton Fell, near Settle, Yorkshire, 571
- Law of Error, J. Venn, 411; F. Y. Edgeworth, 482; T. W. Backhouse, 531
- Law of Storms, 617
- Laws of Motion, Newton's, 366
- Lawes (Sir J. B., F.R.S.): and Dr. Gilbert, F.R.S., the Present Aspect of the Question of the Sources of Nitrogen in Vegetation, 570; the Wheat Crop of 1887, 622
- Lea (M. C.), Photography, Image Transference, 480
- Lead-poisoning, A. W. Blyth, 117
- Leander McCormick Observatory, Prof. Ormond Stone, 543
- Lebour (Prof. G. A.), Outlines of the Geology of Northumberland and Durham, Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 289
- Ledeboer, on Coefficient of Self-Induction of Two Bobbins combined in Quantity, 482
- Lee (Carey), Salts of Silver used in attempting to obtain Photographs in Natural Colours, 64
- Leeches, Sense of Taste or Smell in, Prof. A. G. Bourne, 125
- Leefe, Rev. J. E., 159
- Lees (Charles H.), W. W. Haldane Gee, and Henry Holden, Experiments on Electrolysis and Electrolytic Polarization, 550
- Lendenfeld's (Dr. R. von): Explorations of Australian Alps, 283; Meteorology of the Australian Alps, 349
- Leone (S.), Influence and Development of Bacteria on Organic Substances in Water, 209
- Lepidoptera, Lord Walsingham's Collection at the British Museum, 62
- Lepidopterous Larvæ for the Purposes of Defence, the Secretion of Pure Aqueous Formic Acid by, E. B. Poulton, 593
- Lescarbault (E.), Partial Lunar Eclipse of August 3, 1887, 432
- Level of the adjoining Oceans, on the Effect of Continental Lands in altering the, Prof. Edward Hull, F.R.S., 549
- Lévy (Lucien), Titanates of Zinc, 432
- Lewin (Dr.), Hæmatin in Urine, 120
- Lewis (Prof. H. Carvill): Matrix of the Diamond, 571; Terminal Moraines of the Great Glaciers of England, 573; on some Important Extra-Morainic Lakes in Central England, 573
- Lias, Yorkshire, on a Star-fish from the, Prof. J. F. Blake, 591
- Library, Free Public, in Marylebone, 136
- Liebreich (Herr), the "Dead-Space" in Chemical Reactions, 280
- Life in Japan, Sketches of, Major Henry Knollys, 171
- Life and Sense, Studies in, Andrew Wilson, 316
- Light, Action of Crystalline Plates on, M. Mascart, 576
- Light, Action of, on the Hydracids of the Halogens in Presence of Oxygen, Dr. A. Richardson, 569
- Light, on the Beneficial Effects of, Prof. G. G. Stokes, Prof. P. G. Tait, 98
- Light Oils of Blast-Furnace Coal Tar from the Garthsherrrie Works, on the Constituents of the, Watson Smith, 569
- Light, Prof. Stokes's Lectures on, 208
- Light, Standards of, Report of the B.A. Committee on, 499
- Lighthouse Illumination and Signalling in Firth of Clyde, G. M. Hunter, 64
- Lighthouse Work, D. A. Stevenson, 243
- Lighthouse Work and Economy in the United Kingdom during the Past Fifty Years, a Review of, J. Kenward, 103, 179, 201
- Lightning: Note on a Stroke of, 119; Photography of, 137, 160; E. S. Shepherd, 430; Lightning Damage in Germany, Dr. Hellmann, 159; Globular Lightning, H. S. Eaton, 215; Ball Lightning, Dr. J. W. Tripe, 215; Wild Geese killed by Lightning, 307; Prof. Tyndall on Imperfect Construction of Lightning Conductors, 430
- Limpopo, Matabeleland and the Country between the Zambesi and the, Capt. C. E. Haynes, 595
- Lindley (Percy), Walks in the Ardennes, 340
- Lindsay J. A.), Climatic Treatment of Consumption, 171
- Ling (O. R.), Isomeric Change in the Phenol Series, 569
- Linnean Society, 46, 70; New Foreign Members, 63
- Linnets, Singular Nesting-Place of, H. Vian-Williams, 154
- Lion (Moise), Means of avoiding Collisions at Sea, 432
- Lippmann (M. G.), on the Formulas of Dimensions in Electricity, 624
- Liquids, Superficial Tension in, Action of Intense Magnetic Field on, Prof. Dufour, 209
- Liquids, Solidification by Pressure of, E. H. Amagat, 312
- Liquids, Electricity of the Contact of Gases with, J. Enright, 365, 460; Prof. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 412
- Liquids, a New Apparatus for condensing Gases by Contact with, Prof. Lunge, 569
- Lisping, a Non-Lisper, 126
- Lista's (Ramon) Exploration of Patagonia, 66
- Literature, Science and, Prof. Judd, F.R.S., 88
- Liver, Electric Excitement of, Gréhan and Mislawsky, 408
- Liverpool Astronomical Society, 623
- Liverpool Bay, Fauna of, and the Neighbouring Seas, First Report on the, 149
- Liverpool Biological Society, 48
- Liverpool Marine Biology Station on Puffin Island, Prof. W. A. Herdman, 275
- Liverpool Naturalists' Field Club, 501
- Lizard District, on the Occurrence of Porphyritic Structures in some Rocks of the, Howard Fox and Alex. Somervail, 590
- Ll 26481, Proper Motion of, J. Tebbutt, 564

- Lock (Rev. John B.), Dynamics for Beginners, 75; Units of Weight, Mass, and Force, 174, 317
- Locomotion, Comparative, Marey and Pagès', 312
- Locust Plague in Algiers, the, 380
- Lodge (Prof. Oliver J., F.R.S.): Names for Electric Units of Self-Induction and Conductivity, 174; Electricity of Contact of Gases with Liquids, 412; Report of the B.A. Electrolysis Committee, 520; Modern Views of Electricity, 532, 559, 582; Experiments on the Speeds of Ions, 547
- Loess, the Formation of, from the Glacial Gravelly Clay in the Tian-Shan, Krasnoff, 110
- Lœwenthal (Prof.), the Teaching of Hygiene, 64
- Lœwy (Dr.), a General Method of Determining the Constant of Aberration, 118; the Respiratory Centre in Medulla Oblongata, 168
- Logarithms, A B C Five-figure, C. J. Woodward, 243
- Logic, the Game of, Lewis Carroll, Alfred Sidgwick, 3; John Venn, 53
- London Institute for Advancement of Technical Education, Sir P. Magnus's Report, 349
- London, the Jubilee of Telegraphy in, 230
- London Mathematical Society, 42, 158, 614
- London Teaching University, the Case for a, 329
- London, Thunderstorm in, Chas. Harding, 397
- Longitude of Haiphong, Tonquin, Determination of, by Telegraphy, F. Laporte, 456
- Longman's New Geographical Reader, 196
- Longman's Shilling Geography, 555
- Loomis (Elias), Contributions to Meteorology, 1
- Lory (C.), Albite Crystals in Limestone Rocks of Western Alps, 287
- Low (W.): Prof. Ewing, F.R.S., and, on the Magnetization of Iron in Strong Fields, 546; Magnetization of Hadfield's Manganese Steel in Strong Fields, 548; on the Influence of a Plane of Transverse Section on the Magnetic Permeability of an Iron Bar, 548
- Lowe (E. J., F.R.S.), Remarkable Hailstones, 44; Remarkable Phenomenon seen on April 26, 1887, 102
- Lucas (Jos.), Studies in the Topography of Galloway, Sir Herbert Eustace Maxwell, 337
- Luderitzland, Dr. Hans Schinz's Exploration of, 309
- Luminiferous Ether, on the Vortex Theory of, Prof. Sir W. Thomson, F.R.S., 550
- Luminous Boreal Cloudlets, D. J. Rowan, 245
- Luminous Solar Rays, Observations on, 45
- Lunar Atmosphere Question, the, R. Guérin, 456
- Lunar Eclipse of August 3, 1887, 367; G. Rayet, 383; H. P. Malet, 413; E. Lescarbault, 432
- Lunar Rainbows, A. F. Griffith, 531
- Lunge (Prof.), a New Apparatus for condensing Gases by Contact with Liquids, 569
- Lymburn (J.), Natural History of the Roman Minerals, 555
- Lymph, &c., of Living Fish and other Vertebrates, on the Presence of Bacteria in the, Prof. J. C. Ewart, 251
- Lyons (Lieut. H. G.), the London Clay and Bagshot Beds, 71
- Lyra, Ring Nebula in, Variable Star in the, Herr Spitaler, 431
- Lyster (Major C. B.), Spider allowing for the Force of Gravity, 366
- Macallum (A. B.), on the Termination of Nerves in the Liver, 69
- McCosh (James), Psychology: the Motive Powers, Emotions, Conscience, Will, 579
- Macdonald (Greville), Three Lectures on the Forms of Nasal Obstruction in Relation to Throat and Ear Disease, 603
- Macfarlane (Prof. Alex.), Units of Weight, Mass, and Force, 174
- McGill University, Medicine in, Prof. T. Wesley Mills, 198
- Mackenzie (Sir Morell), Hay Fever and Paroxysmal Sneezing, 363
- Mackinder (H. J.): the Teaching of Geography, Arch. Geikie, F.R.S., 506; Teaching of Geography at the Universities, 596
- Maclear (Capt. J. P.), Christmas Island, 12
- Macleod (Henry Dunning), the Elements of Economics, 27
- Madan (H. G.), Svastika on English Walls, 437; the Solar Eclipse of August 19, 437
- Madras Meridian Observations, 138
- Madras Literary Society, Journal of Literature and Science, 587
- Maggi (Prof. L.): on some Method of testing the Purity of Drinking-Water, 116; Importance of Qualitative Bacteriological Examination of Potable Waters, 335
- Magnetism: on Sequences of Reversals, Magnetization, A. H. M. Bosanquet, 23; Isogonic Magnetic Curves, 24; Isoclinous Magnetic Curves, M. C. Decharme, 624; Intertropical Diurnal and Annual Variations of Terrestrial Magnetism, Ch. Lagrange, 95; on the Constant P in Observations of, Wm. Harkness, 366; William Ellis, 436; Prof. Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 508; on the Heat of Solution of Magnetized Iron, Dr. Gross, 96; Earthquakes and the Suspended Magnet, Dr. M. A. Veeder, 102; Magnetic Torsion of Iron Wires, Shelford Bidwell, 143; on Electrical Condition of Magnets during Magnetization, Dr. Gross, 144; Action on Superficial Tension in Liquids of Intense Magnetic Field, Prof. Dufour, 209; Calorific Conductibility of Bismuth in Magnetic Field, A. Righi, 312; Chemical Action in a Magnetic Field, Prof. H. A. Rowland, 547; Magnetic Resistance, Profs. Ayrton, F.R.S., and Perry, F.R.S., 262; Sounding Coils, Prof. W. Stroud and Wertheimer, 262; Magnet Ammeters and Voltmeters, Profs. Ayrton and Perry, 263; Theory of Magnetic Measurements, F. E. Nipher, 316; Report of the B.A. Committee on Magnetic Observations, 499; Magnetization of Iron in Strong Fields, Prof. Ewing, F.R.S., and W. Low, 546; Magnetization of Hadfield's Manganese Steel in Strong Fields, Prof. J. A. Ewing, F.R.S., and W. Low, 548; on the Influence of a Plane of Transverse Section on the Magnetic Permeability of an Iron Bar, Prof. J. A. Ewing, F.R.S., and W. Low, 548; on the Magnetic Properties of Gases, Prof. Quincke, 549; Effects of Magnetization on the Viscosity and the Rigidity of Iron and Steel, C. Barus, 575
- Magnetite, Artificial Production of, 24; Alex. Gorgeu, 43
- Magnitudes of Nautical Almanac Stars, Prof. Pickering, 401
- Magnus (Sir Philip), Report, City and Guilds of London Institute for Advancement of Technical Education, 349
- Mainoff, Juridical Customs of the Mordovians, 400
- Malaria, Bacillus of, 613
- Malay Peninsula, the Geography of the, by Prof. A. H. Keane, 88; New Map of, 349
- Malayo-Melanesians and Papuo, A. Featherman, 147
- Malet (H. P.), Lunar Eclipse of August 3, 413
- Malet (J. W., F.R.S.), the Atomic Weight of Gold, 568; on a Partial Separation of the Constituents of Solution during Expansion by Rise of Temperature, 570
- Mallet and Jovis's Balloon Ascent, 374
- Malmgren, the Nephridia of *Lanice conchilega*, J. T. Cunningham, 162
- Malvern Wells, Salmon Fry at, 431.
- Mammalian Teeth, on the History of the Evolution of, Oldfield Thomas, 94
- Mammaliferous Gravel at Elloughton in the Humber Valley, G. W. Lamplugh, 153
- Mammals, on a Collection of, made at Mossamedes, Dr. Jentink, 117
- Man, the Experimental Production of Chest Types in, G. W. Hambleton, 599
- Man, Measurement of the Muscular Force in, 45
- Man, Pre-Glacial, Migrations of, Glaciator, 245; Dr. Henry Hicks, F.R.S., 269, 599
- Manchester Microscopical Society, 208
- Manchuria, H. E. M. James's Exploration of, 138
- Maneuvrier, on Coefficient of Self-Induction of Two Bobbins Combined in Quantity, 432
- Manganese and Bismuth, Fluorescences of, Lecoq de Boisbauran, 336
- Manganese, New Oxides of, Dr. Franke, 476
- Manganese Steel, Hadfield's Magnetization of, in Strong Fields, Prof. J. A. Ewing, F.R.S., and William Low, 548
- Mankind, Social History of the Races of, A. Featherman, Prof. A. H. Keane, 147
- Männermann's New Method of preparing Siemens Steel Tubes, 216
- Mansion (Paul), Elemente der Theorie des Determinanten, 51
- Maps: Malay Peninsula, New, 349; Philips' Handy Volume Atlas of the World, 208; Stanford's Tourists' Guides, 185

- Marey (M.): an Endless Tape Odograph, 167; Attitudes of Pigeons on the Wing, 192; Comparative Locomotion, 312; on Photochronography applied to Dynamic Problem of Flight of Birds, 480; Morphology of the Muscles, 504
- Marine Biological Association, 183, 207
- Marine Biology Station, Liverpool, on Puffin Island, Prof. W. A. Herdman, 275
- Marine Shells, Pliocene Deposit of, near Lattakia, and a Similar Deposit in the Island of Zante, Dr. Geo. E. Post, 245
- Märjalen See, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 612
- Marmots, Modification of the Surface of the Caspian Steppes, by Prof. Mushketoff on, 541
- Marr (J. E.), some Effects of Pressure on the Sedimentary Rocks of North Devon, 591
- Marriott (W.), Thermometrical Observations on Boston Church Tower, 118
- Marshall (Prof. D. H.), Units of Weight, Mass, and Force, 102
- Martin (Dr. Sidney), the Proteids of the Seeds of *Abrus precatorius* (Jequirity), 70
- Martins (Dr.), Researches on Movements of the Heart, 383
- Marylebone, Free Public Library in, 136
- Masámarhu Island, Capt. W. J. L. Wharton, F.R.S., 413
- Mascart (M.), Obituary Notice of, Alfred Terquem, 336; Action of Crystalline Plates on Light, 576; M. D. Colladon's Artificial Waterspout, 576
- Mass, Force, and Weight, 53; Rev. Edward Geoghegan, 4; J. Lancaster, 102; Prof. D. H. Marshall, 102; Prof. A. G. Greenhill, 196, 269; R. B. Hayward, F.R.S., 221; Rev. John B. Lock, 174, 317; Prof. Alex. Macfarlane, 174
- Masson (Dr. Orme), Chemical Science in Melbourne University, 184
- Massowah, Map of District round, Prof. Guido Cora, 91
- Matabeleland and the Country between the Zambesi and the Limpopo, Capt. C. E. Haynes, 595
- Material Progress, the Rate of, in England, Robert Giffen, 487
- Mathematics: Mathematical Society, 117, 191; M. d'Ocagne on Numbers Symbolized by K_n^p , 262; Proposed Introduction into Chinese Government Examinations of, 325. (See also British Association, Section A, Mathematical and Physical Science.)
- Mathew (Murray A.), Capture of a Hare by a Hedgehog, 137
- Mathias (E.) and L. Cailletet, Density of Sulphurous Acid in Liquid and Vapour State, 187
- Matrix of the Diamond, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 571
- Mauritius, Meteorological Society of, Final Report of the B.A. Committee, 498
- Mauritius Observatory, 64
- Maver (A.), a New Mode of Geometrical Demonstration, with Examples showing its Application to Lines and Angles, Surfaces, and the Product of three or more Straight Lines, 602
- Maxwell (Sir Herbert Eustace), Studies in the Topography of Galloway, Jos. Lucas, 337
- Mayall (J., Jun.), the History of the Microscope, 167
- May-bugs in Denmark, Ravages by, 63
- Measurements, Magnetic, Theory of, F. E. Nipher, 316
- Medicine, Lady Graduates in, 110
- Medicine in McGill University, Prof. T. Wesley Mills, 198
- Medico-Botanical Glossary from the Bodleian Manuscript Selden B 35, edited by J. L. G. Mowat, 529
- Medulla Oblongata, the Respiratory Centre in, Dr. Læwy, 168
- Mégnin (M.), Peculiar Disease among Hares in Alsace, 541
- Melbourne Observatory, 324; Annual Report of, 43
- Melting and Boiling-Point Tables, Thos. Carnelley, 411
- Mendeléef (Prof.), Alcohol and Water Combinations, 570
- Menschutkin (Prof.), Velocity of Formation of Acetic Ether, 569
- Mental Decay, Premature, Overwork and, H. F. Routh, 507
- Mental Development in Children, 483
- Mercadier (E.), a Simple Dynamic Method of Determining Degree of Isotropy, 287
- Meridian Observations, Madras, 138
- Merrifield (Mrs. Mary P.), Classification of Algae, J. G. Agardh, 313
- Metal Plate Work, C. T. Millis, 340
- Metal, the Early Ages of, in South-East Spain, Henri and Louis Siret, 599
- Metals, the Hall Effect manifested in Different, Von Ettingshausen and Nernst, 185
- Meteorite (Grazac), Daubrée and Meunier, 215
- Meteorite of March 19, 1884, at Jati-Pengilon, Java, Daubrée, 336
- Meteorology: Contributions to, Elias Loomis, 1; Teisserenc de Bort's Cloud-Charts, 15; Remarkable Display of Shooting Stars at Patagones, 15; Analogy between Whirlwinds and Waterspouts, and Cyclones or Tornadoes, Faye on Colladon, 23; Meteorological Observations during Eclipses of the Sun, Prof. Upton, 24; Statistics of Snowfall in Central Germany, 42; Observations on the Luminous Solar Rays, Giovanni Cantoni, 45; a Method of recording the Calorific Intensity of the Solar Rays, A. Crova, 72; Observations taken on Board the *Habicht* at the Cameroons, 88; New Series of Daily Synoptic Weather-Charts of North Atlantic, 88; Remarkable Auroræ Boreales at Trondhjem and New York, 89; the United States Monthly Weather Review, 110; Meteorology in United States, 324, 375; the Storm and Low Barometer of December 8 and 9, 1886, C. Harding, 118; Contrast between the Popular Names and Real Nature of Meteorological Phenomena, Dr. Schultz, 119; in Chili, 136; Annual Visitation of the Royal Observatory, 139; Meteorology of India, 164; Atlantic Weather Charts, 178; Meteorology in France, 183; in Queensland, 184; Observations Internationales Polaires, 1882-83, 194; German Meteorological Office, J. S. Harding, 205; Meteorology of the North Ocean, Prof. H. Mohn, 208; Ben Nevis Observatory, 254; Report of the B.A. Committee on Ben Nevis Meteorological Observations, 498; Smithsonian Institution Papers on Meteorology, 255; Tornado Photographs, 255; Meteorology in United States, 255; Remarkable Weather in Scandinavia, 256; Meteorology in the Argentine Republic, 283; Quarterly Weather Report of the Meteorological Office, 306; Meteorologische Zeitschrift, 306; Meteorologische Institut at Upsala, and Cloud Measurements, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 319; Meteorology in Baden, 324; in Russia, 324, 399; in Victoria, 324; Meteorology of the Australian Alps, Dr. von Lendenfeld, 348; Hourly Readings of Self-recording Instruments at Observatories in Connection with the Meteorological Office, 348; Meteorology in Denmark, 375; Meteorologisk Aarbog of the Danish Meteorological Institute, 375; Popular Errors in Meteorology, Prof. Cleveland Abbe, 375; Thunderstorm in London, Chas. Harding, 397; Norway's Part in Meteorological Organization, 399; Meteorology in the Punjab, 399; Fourth Report of the B.A. Committee on Project of establishing a Meteorological Observatory at Chepstow, 498; Final Report of the B.A. Committee on the Meteorological Society of the Mauritius, 498; Meteorological Notes, 565, 617; Results of Meteorological and Magnetic Observations made at Stonyhurst College, 565; Report of the Meteorological Commission of Cape Colony, 565; Typhoons of the China Seas, Capt. D. Ruete, 565; International Meteorological Committee, Meeting of, at Paris, 566; Meteorological Observations made in New South Wales, 566; Regulations for the Establishment of Meteorological Observatories in Japan, 586; Meetings of the Geodynamical Committee of the Italian Meteorological Society at Aquila, 614; Storm Signals, 617; Law of Storms, 617; Pilot Charts, 617; Rainfall in the Atlantic and Indian Ocean, Dr. W. Köppen, 617; Annalen der Hydrographie und Maritimen Meteorologie, 617; Symons's Monthly Meteorological Magazine, 617; Deficiency of Rainfall this Year, 617; Moon and the Weather, J. W. Oliver, 618
- Meteors, 63; Capt. H. King, 198; Arthur Nicols, Maures Horner, Isabel Fry, 30; Dr. F. Porro, 154; R. Brough Smyth, 93; W. F. Denning, 68, 407, 437; Dr. John William Moore, 508
- Meters, Differential Gravity, Report of the B.A. Committee on, 499
- Methylene Blue and Methylene Red, Prof. Bernthsen, 569
- Metre, a Plea for the, E. G. Ravenstein, 597
- Meudon Observatory, Note on Work carried out at, J. Janssen, 408
- Meunier and Daubrée, the Grazac Meteorite, 215
- Mexico, Earthquakes in, 110, 159, 431; Prof. J. P. O'Reilly, 151
- Meyer (Prof. V.), Molecular Condition of Phosphorus, Arsenic, and Antimony, 231
- Meyer (M.), Reported Ascent of Kilimanjaro by, 563
- Meyrick, Insect Fauna of Australia, 215
- Micro-Organisms, Dr. Crookshank, 239
- Micro-Organisms in Air, a New Method for determining, Prof. Carnelley and Thos. Wilson, 570

- Microbe of Indigo, E. Alvarez, 360
 Microbi, Fermenti e, Prof. Giglioli, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 316
 Micrometric Measures of Jupiter and Saturn, Dr. Doberck, 65
 Microscopy: Microscopic Structure of Caucasian Rocks, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 70; Journal of the Royal Microscopical Society, Retrospective and Prospective, 78; Sections of *Brugmansia Lowii*, Deby, 167; the History of the Microscope, J. Mayall, Jun., 167; My Microscope, 364; Elementary Microscopical Technology, Frank L. James, 481
 Middlemiss (C. S.), Remarkable Hailstones, 44
 Middlesex Natural History and Science Society, 83, 160
 Miethe and Goedecke, New Discovery in Connection with Instantaneous Photography, 144
 Migration of Birds at Lighthouses and Light-vessels, Report of B.A. Committee for the Purpose of obtaining Observations on the, 516
 Migrations of Pre-Glacial Man, 245; Dr. Henry Hicks, F.R.S., 269, 599
 Mill (Dr. Hugh Robert), Temperature of the Clyde Sea-Area, 37, 56
 Miller (Hugh), Comparative Study of the Till or Lower Boulder-Clay in several of the Glaciated Countries of Europe, 573
 Millis (C. T.), Metal Plate Work, 340
 Mills (T. Wesley): Outlines of Lectures on Physiology, 28; Medicine in McGill University, 198
 Milne (Prof.): the Protection of Buildings from Earthquakes, 89; Effect of Earthquakes upon Lower Animals, 350
 Mineralogy: Artificial Crystallization of Magnetite, Alex. Gorgeu, 43; Zircon and other Minerals contained in Sand, Allan B. Dick, 91; Mineralogical Society, 143; Minerals at the American Exhibition, 381; Mineralogical Constitution of Calcareous Organisms, Vaughan Cornish and Percy F. Kendall, 571; Mineral Wealth of the United States, Dr. A. E. Foote, 619
 Mines, Relation of Coal-Dust to Explosives in, Arthur Watts, 221
 Mining Industry of New Zealand, Report on the, 265; Hand-book of New Zealand Mines, 265
 Mining Industries of the United States, Report on the, R. Pumpelly, 315
 Minor Planets: New, 90, 161; Herr Palisa, 527; Dr. Peters, 588; Dr. Knorre, 616; Minor Planet No. 266, 138; Minor Planet No. 297, 455; Orbit of the Minor Planet Eucharis, Dr. W. Valentiner, 77
 Mirage, Dr. Chas. O. Trechmann, 197
 Miryeks or Stone Men of Corea, Prof. de Lacouperie, 615
 Mislawsky, Electric Excitement of Liver, 408
 Mitteilungen of the German African Society, 91
 Modern Views of Electricity, Dr. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 532, 559, 582
 Mohn (Prof. H.) Meteorology of the North Ocean, 208
 Molecular Condition of Phosphorus, Arsenic, and Antimony, Prof. V. Meyer, 231
 Moloney (Alfred), Forestry of West Africa, 387
 Monatsbericht der Deutschen Seewarte, 159
 Monkeys opening Oysters, Alfred Carpenter, 53
 Monographs of United States Geological Survey, 256
 Monsoon Rainfall in Ceylon, G. J. Waring, 214
 Mont Blanc, Centenary of First Ascent of, 453
 Montessus (M. de), Note on the Method of Research for Correlation between Two Orders of Facts, 23
 Moon, Influence of the, upon Vegetation, 586
 Moon and the Weather, J. W. Oliver on, 618
 Moore (Dr. John William), a Meteor's Flash and Explosion, 508
 Moorshedabad, Technical Education in the, 614
 Moraines, Terminal, of the Great Glaciers of England, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 573
 Morainic Lakes in Central England, on some Important Extra-, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, 573
 Mordovians, Juridical Customs of the, Mainoff, 400
 More, A. G., 374
 Morera (G.), on the Normal Derivatives of the Potential Function of Surfaces, 455
 Morocco, Southern, Troglodyte Remains in, 542
 Morphinomania in Animals, 24
 Morphology of the Muscles, M. Marey, 504
 Morris (D.), Botanical Federation in the West Indies, 135
 Morrison Observatory, 455
 Morse (Prof.), What American Zoologists have done for Evolution, 398
 Mossamedes, on a Collection of Mammals made at, Dr. Jentink, 117
 Moths at High Water, Disappearance of, J. T. Carrington, 137
 Motion, Newton's Laws of, 366
 Motion, Proper, of L1 26481, J. Tebbutt, 564
 Motive Force of the World, 615
 Mott (F. T.), Dying Fish, 222
 Mouchez (M.), Paris Observatory, 112; Photographic Chart of the Heavens, 287
 Moughton Fell, near Settle, Yorkshire, on the Discovery of Carboniferous Fossils in a Conglomerate at, Robert Law and Jas. Horsfall, 571
 Mount Lebanon, Fossil Fishes of, 132
 Mount Loa Craters, History of the Changes in the, James D. Dana, 551
 Muir (M. M. Pattison), on the Teaching of Chemistry, 536
 Muir (Thomas), Recent Works on the Theory of Determinants, 51
 Muirhead (Lewis P.), "After-Glows" at Helensburgh, 175
 Müller (Prof. F. Max), Thought without Words, 100; No Language without Reason, no Reason without Language, 249
 Munk (Prof.), Experiments on Laws of Vibration of Tuning-Forks, 383
 Murphy (Joseph John), Thought without Words, 172
 Murray-Aynsley (Mrs. J. C.), Sun and Fire Symbolism, 364
 Muscles, Morphology of the, M. Marey, 504
 Muscular Force in Man, Measurement of the, Prof. G. Zoja, 45
 Mushketoff's (Prof.), Exploration in the Caspian Steppes, 541
 Music in Nature, Dr. William Pole, F.R.S., 343; A. P. Coleman, 605
 Nahrwold's Experiments on Atmospheric Electricity, 280
 Names for Electric Units of Self-Induction and Conductivity, Prof. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 174
 Nancy, Shower of Ants at, 349
 Naphthalene Derivatives, Isomeric, Report of the B.A. Committee on, 516
Narcissus reflexus, W. Brockbank, 70
 Nasal Obstruction, Three Lectures on the Forms of, in Relation to Throat and Ear Disease, Greville Macdonald, 603
 Nathorst (Prof. A. G.), Discovery of Fossil Remains of an Arctic Flora in Central Sweden, 211
 National Fish-Culture Association, 89
 Nations, the Health of, Edwin Chadwick, Benjamin Ward Richardson, 385
 Natural History Buildings, Owens College, 414
 Natural History Collections made near Cameroons, H. H. Johnston's, 254
 Natural History Museum, 279; on a, Prof. W. A. Herdman, 63; Dr. Henry B. Woodward, F.R.S., on the, 345; Collection of Specimens received from Emin Pasha, 539
 Natural History in Schools, the Study of, Rev. S. A. Preston, 209
 Natural History Society of Wisconsin, 111
 Natural History of the Roman Numerals, J. Lymburn, 555
 Natural History of the Coast of Lancashire, Dr. Thomas Alcock, 526
 Natural Science in Board Schools, Proposed Elementary Evening Classes, 254
 Natural Science Courses, Vacation, in Edinburgh, 230
 Naturalists, Eminent, Thos. Greenwood, 293
 Nature, Art, and Literature, Precious Stones in, S. M. Burnham, 482
 Nature, Music in, Dr. William Pole, F.R.S., 343; A. P. Coleman, 605
 Nature of Solution, Report of the B.A. Committee on, 516
 Nautical Almanac Stars, Magnitudes of, Prof. Pickering, 401
 Navassa, Island of, Earthquake in the, 587
 Navez (M.), on the Influence of the Various Geological Formations in Belgium, 617
 Nazaroff, on the Fauna of Kirghiz Steppe, 476
 Nebula in Lyra, Ring, Variable Star in the, Herr Spitaler, 431
 Neesen (Prof.), a Vapour-Calorimeter, 288

- Neolithic Period in Europe, Trephining during the, Prof. Victor Horsley, 117
- Nepheline Rocks in Brazil, O. A. Derby, 286
- Nephridia of *Lanice conchilega*, Malmgren, J. T. Cunningham, 162, 246
- Nephrolepis, Radicular Nature of Stolons in, A. Trécul, 408
- Nerve-Degeneration resulting from Sectional Injury, Prof. Du Bois Reymond, 48
- Nesting-Place of Linnets, Singular, H. Vian-Williams, 154
- Neuchâtel Observatory, Dr. Hirsch, 477
- New England Meteorological Society, 110
- New Guinea: Proposed Victorian Expedition to explore, 17; Fall of Volcanic Ashes in, 136; Pioneering in, Rev. James Chalmers, 255; Exploration of, 351, 620; Discovery of Two New Rivers in, Th. Bevan, 478
- New South Wales: Linnean Society of, 95; the British Association and, 398; Meteorological Observations made in, 566
- New York: Aurora Borealis at, 89; Industrial Education Association of, 256; Proposed Electrical Exhibition at, 306
- New Zealand Industrial Exhibition, 208
- New Zealand: Mining Industry of, 265; Hand-book of New Zealand, 265
- New Zealand Cousins, our, Hon. James Inglis, 579
- Newcastle-upon-Tyne Public Libraries, 52
- Newton (Prof. A., F.R.S.), Opening Address in Section D (Biology), at the British Association, 462
- Newton's Laws of Motion, 366
- Nice Observatory, the, M. Faye, 282; M. Perrotin, 543
- Nice, Note on the Earthquake of February 23, 1887, at, Bouquet de la Grye, 336
- Nicols (Arthur): a Brilliant Meteor, 30; Thought without Words, 173
- Nicotiana glauca*, J. H. Stone, 70
- Niesten (L.), Diurnal Nutation, 45
- Nilson (Drs. Krüss and), Thorium, 255
- Nipher (F. E.), Theory of Magnetic Measurements, 316
- Nitrate of Soda, A. Stutzer, 4
- Nitro-Paraffins and Alkyl Nitrates, the Reduction-Products of the, Prof. Dunstan and T. S. Dymond, 570
- Nitrogen in Vegetation, the Present Aspect of the Question of the Sources of, Sir J. Lawes, F.R.S., and Dr. Gilbert, F.R.S., 570
- No Language without Reason—no Reason without Language Prof. F. Max Müller, 249
- Noelting (Dr.) and Dr. Abt, on the Constitution of Azimido Compounds, 569
- Nomenclature of Colours for Naturalists and Compendium of Useful Knowledge for Ornithologists, Robt. Ridgeway, 124
- Nomenclature, Geological, 453
- Nordenskjöld's (Baron) Journey across Greenland, 138
- Norfolk Broads, a Month on the, Walter Rye, 457
- Norfolk and Norwich Naturalists' Society, 376
- Norfolk and Suffolk: Notes on the Rivers and Broads of, Harry Brittain, 457; Hand-book to the Rivers and Broads of, G. C. Davies, 457
- Norfolk, Three Weeks in, J. F. M. Clarke, 457
- North American Indians, Report of the B.A. Committee, 520
- North American Pictographs, Francis Galton, F.R.S., 155
- North Atlantic Expedition, Norwegian, 390
- North of England Institute of Mining and Mechanical Engineers, 350
- North, Pre-History of the, J. J. A. Worsaae, Dr. John Evans, F.R.S., 97
- Northumberland and Durham, Outlines of the Geology of, Prof. G. A. Lehour, Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 289
- Northwich, the History and Cause of the Subsidence at, and its Neighbourhood in the Salt District of Cheshire, Thos. Ward, 572
- Norway: Large Meteor in, 63; Remarkable Aurora Borealis in, 89; Geological Science in, 111; Bog-Oak in, 185; Gold in, Dahll, 185; Norwegian North-Atlantic Expedition, 208, 390; Norwegian Seal-Hunting Expedition, 208; Beaver Colonies in, 210; Norway's Part in Meteorological Organization, 399; Hydrography in, 500
- Nosiloff (M. Constantin), Proposed Summer Expedition to Nova Zembla, 129
- Nostochineæ, Structure of the, Walter Gardiner, 125
- Nova Zembla, Proposed Summer Expedition by M. Constantin Nosiloff in, 139
- Null Method in Electro-Calorimetry, a, Prof. Dr. William Stroud, 483; Prof. Stroud and Mr. W. W. Haldane Gee, 523
- Numbers, on Hamilton's, Prof. J. J. Sylvester, F.R.S., 557
- Nuovo Giornale Botanico Italiano, 70, 456
- Oaks, Roburoid, the Development of Form in, Franz Krasan, 22
- Oberpliocän-Flora aus den Baugruben des Niederrad und Schleuse bei Hochst a M., T. Geyley and F. Kinkelin, 150
- Object-Glasses, New Forms of Construction of, intended for Stellar Photography, Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 562
- Observatories: Ben Nevis, 254, 430; Ben Nevis, and Meteorological Office Criticisms, Mr. Omond on, 452; Batavia, 184; Blue Hill, 281; Bombay, 280; Removal of the Brussels, 41; Cairo, 281; Cordoba, 527; Dearborn, Prof. Hough, 501; Dorpat, 324; Greenwich, 41; Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College, Edward C. Pickering, 388; Hong Kong, 349; New Observatory at Juvisy, 455; the Leander McCormick, Prof. Ormond Stone, 543; Mauritius, 64; Annual Report of Melbourne, 43; Melbourne, 324; Note on Work carried out at Meudon, J. Janssen, 408; the Morrison Observatory, 455; Neuchâtel Observatory, Dr. Hirsch, 477; the Nice, M. Faye, 282; M. Perrotin, 543; the Oxford, 183; Observatories at Oxford and Cambridge, 181; Paris, M. Mouchez, 112; the Washburn, 564
- Ocagne (M. d'), on Numbers Symbolized by $K_m P$, 262
- Ocean Birds, J. F. Green, Prof. R. Bowdler Sharpe, 435
- Ocean Currents: the Kuro Siwo, Prof. Davidson, 283
- Oceans, on the Effect of Continental Lands in altering the Level of the Adjoining, Prof. Edward Hull, F.R.S., 549
- Odell (W.), Education in America, 295
- Odograph, Endless Tape, Marey, 167
- Offret (M. Albert), Earthquake of February 23, 1887, 23, 72
- Ohio: Explosion of Natural Gas in, 112; the Serpent Mound in, 281
- Ohm's Law in Electrolysis, on the Accuracy of, Prof. Fitzgerald, F.R.S., and F. Trouton, 547
- Oil at Sea, on the Use of, Lieut. Underwood, 112; Admiral Cloué, 167
- Olbers' Comet, 1815 L., 504; 1887, W. H. Brooks, 527; Herr O. Tetens, 588
- Oldenbourg (R.), Work on Palæontology, 563
- Oldfield (Augustus), the late, 183
- Oliver (F. W.), on a Point of Biological Interest in the Flowers of *Pleurothallis ornatus*, Rehb. f., 303
- Oliver (J. W.), the Moon and the Weather, 618
- Olzowski (Dr. K.), on the Absorption-Spectrum of Liquid Oxygen and Liquid Air, 42; on the Determination of the Boiling-Point of Ozone, 42
- Omond (Mr.), Ben Nevis Observatory and Meteorological Office Criticisms, 452
- O'Neill (Chas.), the Extent to which Calico-Printing and the Tinctorial Arts have been affected by the Introduction of Modern Colours, 569
- Onion Crop at the Bermudas, Disease of the, Arthur Shipley, 563
- Opium-Poisoning, Animals liable to become addicted to, M. Jammes, 325
- Oppel (Dr.), Religious Conditions of Africa, 589
- Oppenheim (Dr. H.), Comet 1887 e (Barnard, May 12), 113, 138
- Optics: Experiments as to Number of Visual Units in Centre of Retina, Dr. Wertheim, 384
- Optics, Geometrical, a Treatise on, R. S. Heath, J. Larmor, 219
- Oranges and Lemons, the Cultivated, of India and Ceylon, E. Bonavia, 563
- Orbit of the Minor Planet Eucharis, Dr. W. Valentiner, 77
- Orchid Hybrids, Bigeneric, R. A. Rolfe, 70
- Ordnance Survey: on some Defects in the, H. S. Wilkinson, 597; the Utilization of the, Sir Chas. Wilson, 597
- O'Reilly (M. F.), Boiling-Point and Pressure, 4
- O'Reilly (Prof. J. P.), Recent Earthquakes in Mexico and Turkestan, 151
- Organic Chemistry, Constitutional Formulæ and the Progress of, 368
- Organic Chemistry, Owens College Course of Practical, Julius B. Cohen, 363

- Organic Evolution, Factors of, Dr. George J. Romanes, F.R.S., 401
- Organic Vanadates, J. A. Hall, 570
- Origin of the Fittest: Essays on Evolution, E. D. Cope, Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 505
- Orinoco Explorations, Chaffajon's, 17
- Ormerod (Miss Eleanor A.), the Hessian Fly, 439
- Ornithology: Ornithological Nomenclature, 64; a Use of Flowers by Birds, 101; Elliott's Ornithological Collections, 279; Whitehead's Borneo Expedition, 279; Occurrence of *Sterna anglica* in Belfast Lough, Prof. Robert O. Cunningham, 582. (See also Birds.)
- Orobanches, on the Development of, 552
- Outis, the New Degrees at Cambridge, 175
- Outlines, Tertiary, on the North Downs, Rev. A. Irving, 531
- Ouvrard (L.), Silicates of Thorine, 360
- Overwork and Premature Mental Decay, H. F. Routh, 507
- Owen (Sir R., F.R.S.), on Skeleton of *Meiolania platyceps*, 46
- Owens College Course of Practical Organic Chemistry, Julius B. Cohen, 363
- Owens College Natural History Buildings, 414
- Oxford, Electricity at, 154
- Oxford and Cambridge, the Observatories at, 181, 183
- Oxygen, Action of Light on the Hydracids of the Halogens in Presence of, Dr. A. Richardson, 569
- Oxygen and Ozone, the Volumetric Relations of, W. A. Shennstone and J. T. Cundall, 118
- Oyster-Culture in Sweden, 111
- Oysters, Monkeys opening, Alfred Carpenter, 53
- Ozone, Dr. K. Olszewski on the Determination of the Boiling-point of, 42
- Ozone and Oxygen, the Volumetric Relations of, W. A. Shennstone and J. T. Cundall, 118
- Pagan's (M.), Cable-Anchor, 541
- Page (David), Introductory Text-Book of Physical Geography, 195
- Pages, Comparative Locomotion, 312
- Palaeontology: on Skeleton of *Meiolania platyceps*, Sir R. Owen, F.R.S., 46; Prof. Huxley on *Hyperodapedon gordonii*, 94; R. Oldenbourg's Work on, 563
- Palgrave (Mary E.), Pictorial Geography of the British Isles, 580
- Palisa (Herr), New Minor Planet, 527
- Palmer (Prof. G. A.), Annual Expenditure of Harvard Undergraduates, 325
- Palmieri (Prof. Luigi), on Variations of Intensity in the Dry Pile, 45
- Panton (Prof. J. Hoyes), Places of Geological Interest on the Banks of the Saskatchewan, 571
- Papuan Art, Certain Degenerations of Design in, S. J. Hickson, 599
- Papuo and Malayo Melanesians, by A. Featherman, 147
- Parallax of a Tauri, Prof. Asaph Hall, 138
- Parallax, on the Nature of the Photographic Star-Disks and the Removal of a Difficulty in Measurements for, Prof. Pritchard, F.R.S., 523
- Parallax of Σ 2398, Dr. E. Lamp, 616
- Parasitic, Hydroid, on a Fish, J. Walter Fewkes, 604
- Parietal Eye in Fishes, J. Beard, 246, 340
- Paris: Astronomical Congress, 7, 54; Academy of Sciences, 23, 72, 95, 118, 143, 167, 192, 215, 240, 263, 287, 312, 336, 360, 382, 408, 432, 456, 480, 504, 528, 552, 576, 600, 614, 623; Society of Civil Engineers, 63; M. Mouchez, Report on the Paris Observatory, 112; Rainfall in Paris, Hervé-Mangon, 159; Discovery of Ancient Gaulish Cemetery in, 184; Meeting of the International Meteorological Committee at, 566
- Parkes Museum, 15
- Paroxysmal Sneezing, Hay Fever and, Sir Morell Mackenzie, 363
- Pasco (Capt. C., R. N.), Antarctic Exploration, 399
- Pasteur (M.): and the Paris Academy of Sciences, 254; his Treatment of Hydrophobia, 207; Report of the Committee of Inquiry into, 232; an Account of, by Renaud Suzor, 482
- Patagones, Remarkable Display of Shooting-Stars at, 15
- Patagonia: Ramon Lista's Exploration of, 66; Flora of North, John Ball, F.R.S., 539
- Pavesi (Prof.), the Migrations of the Tunny, 116
- Pavie (M.), Return from Tonquin of, 452
- Payne (Dr. J. F.), Alphita, a Medico-Botanical Glossary from the Bodleian Manuscript Selden B. 35, 529
- Peak, Shadow of Adam's, R. Abbay, 152; Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 197
- Pear-shaped Hailstones, B. Woodd Smith, 102
- Pearls, Cocoa-nut, Dr. Sydney J. Hickson and W. T. Thiselton Dyer, F.R.S., 157; Dr. J. G. F. Riedel, 461
- Pearls of *Fasminum sambac*, Dr. E. Huth, 581
- Pebbles, on the Roundings, by Alpine Rivers, with a Note on their Bearing upon the Origin of Bunter Conglomerate, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 573
- Pecile (Cav. A.), Ethnology of the Ogoway and Lower Congo Basins, 377
- Peckham (Dr.), Wasps, 111
- Pekin Oriental Society, 375
- Peloponnese, Earthquake in the, 587
- Pengoldt and Fischer (Drs.), Experiments on the Sensitiveness of the Sense of Smell, 90
- Perception of Colour, C. E. Stromeyer, 246; T. W. Backhouse, 531
- Periodical Fluctuation of the Carnatic Rainfall, Eleven-Year, Henry F. Blanford, F.R.S., 227
- Peripatus leuckarti*, Habitat of, 324
- Perkin (Prof.) and Dr. Cohen, on some New Cinnamic Acids, 570
- Permian Fauna of Bohemia, on the, Prof. Anton Fritsch, 591
- Perrotin (M.), the Nice Observatory, 543
- Perry (Prof. J., F.R.S.), Magnetic Resistance, 262; Magnet Ammeters and Voltmeters, 263; and Prof. W. E. Ayrton, F.R.S., the Secohmmeter, 129
- Perseids, Early, W. F. Denning, 318
- Petermann's Mitteilungen, 17, 91, 162, 257, 283, 348, 478
- Peters (Prof. C. H. F.), Flamsteed's Stars, "Observed but not Existing," 542; Corrigenda in Various Star-Catalogues, 543; New Minor Planet, 588
- Pettenkofer (Herr), Hygienic Instruction in Universities, 524
- Peyton (J. E. H.), the Late Earthquake on the Riviera, February 23, 1887, 151
- Pharmaceutical Conference, the British, 429
- Pharmacy for 1886, Year-book of, 243
- Phengodini, on the Luminous Larviform Females of the, Prof. C. V. Riley, 592
- Phenol Series, Isomeric Change in the, O. R. Ling, 569
- Phenomenon, Remarkable, seen on April 26, 1887, E. J. Lowe, F.R.S., 102
- Philippine Exhibition, 231
- Philippine Islands, the Flora of the, 14
- Philips' Handy-Volume Atlas of the World, 208
- Philology: Ethnographic Map of American-Indian Dialect, A. S. Gatschet, 112
- Philosophy, Dictionary of, in the Words of Philosophers, 362
- Phorodon humuli*, Schrank, the Problem of the Hop Plant Louse, in Europe and America, Prof. C. V. Riley, 566
- Photochronography, applied to Dynamic Problem of Flight of Birds, M. Marey, 480
- Photography: Photographic Study of the Stellar Spectra, Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 31; the A B C of Modern, 52; Carey Lee on Photography in Natural Colours, 64; Solar Photography, G. M. Stanoiéwitch, 72; Photography the Servant of Astronomy, M. de Gothard, 90; Photography of Cannon-Balls in motion, 110; Photography of Interior of Living Eye, Dr. Rosebrugh, 110; Astronomical Photography, Prof. C. A. Young, 113; Heliochromy and the latest Photographic Image, M. C. Lee, 115; Photography of Lightning, 137, 160; E. V. Shepherd, 430; New Discovery in Connection with Instantaneous, Goedecke and Miethe, 144; Photograph of a Tornado, 255; Photographic Chart of Heavens, Mouchez, 287; Photography of Bacteria, Edgar M. Crookshank, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 316, 388; Image Transference, M. C. Lee, 480; Instruments for Stellar Photography, Sir Howard Grubb, F.R.S., 523; on the Nature of the Photographic Star-Disks, and the Removal of a Difficulty in Measurements for Parallax, Prof. Pritchard, F.R.S., 523; Photography: a Set of Universal 10 per cent. developing Solutions for the Use of Photographers, 526; New Forms of Construction of Object-Glasses intended for Stellar Photography, Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 562; the Photographer's Hand-book, W. D. Wellford, 603; Admiral Mouchez on the Photographic Charts of the Heavens, 614

- Photometer, Wedge, Prof. Pickering, 477
 Photometry : Measurement of Luminous Sensations in Function of the Quantities of Light, Ph. Breton, 480
 Phylloxera, Boiteau, 312
 Physical Geography, Introductory Text-Book of, David Page, 195
 Physical Geology, the Scenery of Scotland viewed in Connection with its, Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 553
 Physical Society, 22, 94, 142, 191, 262, 288
 Physics : Experimental, some Applications of Dynamical Principles to Physical Phenomena, Prof. J. J. Thomson, F.R.S., 45 ; Experiments on Relation between Curve of Distension of Elastic Tubes and Rate of Pulse-wave in same, Dr. Grunmach, 48 ; on the Method of determining Specific Weight of Bodies by weighing them in Water, Dr. Sommer, 216 ; on Figures of Equilibrium of Rotating Masses, Prof. C. H. Darwin, F.R.S., 358 ; on Coefficient of Self-Induction of Two Bobbins combined in Quantity, Maneuvrier and Ledebor, 432
 Physics, Elementary Practical, Prof. Balfour Stewart, F.R.S., and W. W. Haldane Gee, 241
 Physics, Questions on, Sydney Young, 293
 Physiology : Experiment for determining the Coefficient of Nutritive and Respiratory Activity of the Muscles at Work and in Repose, Chauveau and Kaufmann, 23 ; Outlines of Physiology, T. Wesley Mills, 28 ; on the Termination of Nerves in the Liver, A. B. Macallum, 69 ; M. C. Quinquaud's Investigations of the Influence of Baths on Respiration and Nutrition, 89 ; Anatomical Researches on the Physiology of the Spinal Ganglia, Dr. Joseph, 120 ; Researches on Reaction-time for Stimulation and Inhibition, Dr. Gad, 168 ; the Respiratory Centre in Medulla Oblongata, Dr. Lœwy, 168 ; Physiological Selection, H. K. Rusden, 268 ; Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 341 ; Physiological Society, 287 ; Dr. Goldschneider's Experiments on Reaction-time of Perception of Temperature, 288 ; Elements of Physiological Psychology, Geo. T. Ladd, 290 ; the Relations between Chemical and Mechanical Work of Muscular Tissue, A. Chauveau, 382, 408 ; Researches on the Movements of the Heart, Dr. Martins, 383 ; Illustrations of the Topography of Sense of Temperature, Dr. Goldschneider, 383 ; Respiratory Reflexes originating in Nasal Mucous Membrane, Dr. Sandmann, 384 ; Lectures on the Physiology of Plants, Julius von Sachs, 361 ; J. L. Prevost and Paul Binet on the Physiological Action of *Cytisus laburnum*, 504
 Phytophagous Larvæ and their Surroundings, Further Experiments upon the Colour-Relation between, E. B. Poulton, 594
 Picheney (M.), Researches on the Bovine Origin of Scarlatina, 624
 Pickering (Prof. Edward C.) : on Delicate Calorimetric Thermometers, 22 ; Photographic Study of the Stellar Spectra, 31 ; Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College, 388 ; Magnitudes of Nautical Almanac Stars, 401 ; Wedge Photometer, 477 ; New Forms of Construction of Object-Glasses intended for Stellar Photography, 562
 Pickering (W. H.), Total Solar Eclipse of 1886, 308
 Pictographs, North American, Francis Galton, F.R.S., 155
 Picton (Harold), Thought without Words, 124
 Pictorial Geography of the British Isles, Mary E. Palgrave, 580
 Pig and Kitten, 341
 Pigeons, Sparrow Chasing, W. Harcourt Bath, 4
 Pigeons on the Wing, Attitudes of, M. Marey, 192
 Pilot Charts, 617
 Pioneering in New Guinea, Rev. Jas. Chalmers, 255
 Pisciculture : Thuringian Fisheries Union, 160 ; Salmon Fry at Malvern Wells, 431
 Pitt-Rivers (General), Observations on Recent Explorations made by, at Rushmore, J. G. Garson, 600
 Plague in the Caucasus, J. D. Tholozan, 504
 Plane of Transverse Section, on the Influence of a, on the Magnetic Permeability of an Iron Bar, Prof. J. A. Ewing, F.R.S., and W. Low, 548
 Planets : New Minor, 161 ; Herr Palisa, 527 ; Dr. Peters, 588 ; Dr. Knorre, 616 ; No. 266, 138 ; Orbit of the Minor Planet Eucharis, Dr. W. Valentiner, 77
 Plants, Physiology of Lectures on the, Julius von Sachs, 361
 Plates, Thin, Colours of, Lord Rayleigh, 391
 Playfair (Sir Lyon), on Technical Education, 16
 Pleiades : Relative Positions of the Principal Stars in the, Dr. W. L. Elkin, 232 ; Yale College Measurement of the Pleiades, A. M. Clerke, 372
Pleurothallis ornatus, Rchb. f., on a Point of Biological Interest in the Flowers of, F. W. Oliver, 303
 Pliocene Beds of St. Erth, Cornwall, Robert George Bell, 591
 Pliocene Deposit of Marine Shells near Lattakia, and a Similar Deposit in the Island of Zante, on the, Dr. Geo. E. Post, 245
 Pneumonia, Acute, M. Jaccoud, 23
 Polar Globules, on the Signification of the, Prof. August Weismann, 607
 Polarization of Copper, on the, M. Krouchkoll, 119
 Polarization, Electrolytic, Experiments on Electrolysis and, W. W. Haldane Gee, Henry Holden, and Chas. H. Lees, 550
 Pole (Dr. William, F.R.S.), Music in Nature, 343
 Pollacci (Prof.), Sulphate of Copper as a Remedy against Vine-Mildew, 262
 Polyakoff (Ivan), Obituary Notice of, 205
 Polyzoa of the *Challenger* Expedition, Geo. Busk, F.R.S., 74
 Porphyritic Structures, on the Occurrence of, in some Rocks of the Lizard District, Howard Fox and Alex. Somervail, 590
 Porphyry Quarries of Egypt, Account of a Recent Visit to the Ancient, W. Brindley, 595
 Porro (Dr. F.), a Brilliant Meteor, 154
 Post (Dr. Geo. E.), on the Pliocene Deposit of Marine Shells near Lattakia, and a Similar Deposit in the Island of Zante, 245
 Postal Tube (Aërial) between Dover and Calais, Proposed, Arnaudeau, 349
 Poulton (E. B.), the Secretion of Pure Aqueous Formic Acid by Lepidopterous Larvæ for the Purposes of Defence, 593 ; Further Experiments upon the Colour-Relation between Phytophagous Larvæ and their Surroundings, 594 ; Further Experiments upon the Protective Value of Colour and Markings in Insects, 594
 Prantl (Dr. K.) and Dr. A. Engler's Work on Die Natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien, 123
 Pratten (Mary A.), My Hundred Swiss Flowers, 267
 Pre-Glacial Man, Migrations of, Glaciator, 245 ; Dr. Henry Hicks, F.R.S., 269, 599
 Prehistoric and Ethnological Museum of Rome, Additions to, the, Dr. G. A. Collini, 526
 Pre-History of the North, based on Contemporary Memorials, J. J. A. Worsaae, Dr. John Evans, F.R.S., 97
 Precious Stones in Nature, Art, and Literature, S. M. Burnham, 482
 Pressure, Atmospheric, Colliery Explosions and, Hy. Harries, 437
 Pressure, Boiling Point and, M. F. O'Reilly, 4
 Pressure, some Effects of, on the Sedimentary Rocks of North Devon, J. E. Marr, 591
 Pressure, Temperature and, Maxwell Hall, 197
 Preston, Proposed Technical School for, 254
 Preston (Rev. S. A.), Natural History in Schools, 209
 Prestwich (Rev. Joseph), the Glacial Period and the Antiquity of Man, 165
 Prevost (J. L.) and Paul Binet, *Cytisus laburnum*, Physiological Action of, 504
 Preyer (Prof.), the Locomotor System of Star-fish, 20
 Price (John), Death of, 614
 Prince (Edward E.), Floating Eggs, 294
 Princeton Eclipse Expedition, the, Prof. C. A. Young, 547
 Prinz (W.), on a Specimen of Crystalline Iron-glance formed on some Old Iron Weapons, 503
 Pritchard (Prof., F.R.S.), on the Nature of the Photographic Star-Disks and the Removal of a Difficulty in Measurements of Parallax, 523
 Prjevalsky (General), Gold Medal presented to, 63
 Proceedings of the Linnean Society of New South Wales, 95
 Proctor (R. A.) : First Steps in Geometry, a Series of Hints for the Solution of Geometrical Problems with Notes on Euclid, Useful Working Propositions, and many Examples, 602 ; Easy Lessons in the Differential Calculus indicating from the Outset the Utility of the Processes called Differentiation and Integration, 602
 Progress of the Scottish Universities, M.A. and Medicus, 294
 Projectiles in Motion, Photography of, 110
 Propane, on some Derivatives of, C. Winssinger, 116
 Proper Motion of L1 26481, J. Tebbutt, 564

- Protoplasm : the Present Aspect of the Cell Question, Prof. Schäfer, 592
- Protopterus, on the Torpid State of, Prof. Wiedersheim, 592
- Prudden (Dr. T. M.), the Effect of Freezing on Bacteria, 89
- Prussian Society for Promotion of Industry, 229
- Psychology : Physiological, Elements of, Geo. T. Ladd, 290 ; the Motive Powers, Emotions, Conscience, Will, James McCosh, 579
- Ptomaines, Dr. Ladenburg on, 453
- Puffin Island, Liverpool Marine Biology Station on, Prof. W. A. Herdman, 275
- Pumpelly (R.), Report on the Mining Industries of the United States, 315
- Punjab, Meteorology in the, 399
- Putik (Herr), Zirknitzer Lake, 564
- Pygmies of the Ancients, the, A. de Quatrefages, 192
- Pyrenees, Ten Years' Study of the, M. Schrader, 589
- Quain (Richard, F.R.S.), Death of, 499 ; his Will, 540
- Qualitative Chemical Analysis, Dr. C. Remigius Fresenius, 411
- Quantitative Analysis, Outlines of, A. H. Sexton, 410
- Quarterly Journal of Microscopical Science, 69
- Quatrefages (A. de), the Pygmies of the Ancients, 192
- Queen's Jubilee Atlas, 208
- Queensland, Meteorology in, 184
- Quincke (Prof.), on the Magnetic Properties of Gases, 549
- Quinquaud (E.), on the Influence of Baths on the Chemical Phenomena of Respiration and Nutrition, 89
- Rabies, G. F. Dowdeswell, 190
- Race-types of To-day, British, Prof. Huxley's Remarks on, 563
- Races of Mankind, Social History of the, A. Featherman, Prof. A. H. Keane, 147
- Radan (R.), Differential Formulas for Variation of Element of an Orbit, 480
- Railway in Sumatra, Proposed, 63
- Rain, Distribution of, over the British Isles during the Year 1886, G. J. Symons, F.R.S., 388
- Rainbow Trout, the, 209
- Rainbow, Unusual, S. A. Hill, 581
- Rainbows, Lunar, A. F. Griffith, 531
- Rainfall : in Paris, Hervé-Mangon, 159 ; Monsoon in Ceylon, F. J. Waring, 214 ; Eleven-year Periodical Fluctuation of the Carnatic Rainfall, Henry F. Blanford, F.R.S., 227, 293 ; General Richard Strachey, F.R.S., 267 ; Symons's British Rainfall, 430 ; Rainfall in the Atlantic and Indian Ocean, Dr. W. Köppen, 617 ; Deficiency of Rainfall this Year, 617
- Ramsay (Prof.), on a Thermo-dynamical Relation, 23
- Rare Earths, Chemistry of the, A. E. Tutton, 357
- Ratio of the Two Elasticities of Air, on the, Prof. S. P. Thompson, 523
- Rau (Dr. Chas.), Death of, 348
- Raulin (J.), Experiments in Agricultural Chemistry, 456
- Ravenel (Dr. H. W.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 374
- Ravenstein (E. G.), a Plea for the Metre, 597
- Rayet (G.), the Partial Lunar Eclipse of August 3, 1887, 383
- Rayleigh (Lord, F.R.S.) : Colours of Thin Plates, 391 ; on the Existence of Reflection when the relative Refractive Index is Unity, 524
- Rayner (Dr. H.), Breeding for Intelligence in Animals, 246
- Reactions, Chemical, the "Dead Space" in, Herr Liebreich, 280
- Reade (T. Mellard) : Thought without Words, 52 ; "Toeing" and "Heeling" at Golf, 580
- Reasoning Faculty, on Influence of Sensuous Images on, Tito Vignoli, 455
- Recoura, on Transition between Aromatic and Fatty Series, 312
- Recreative Evening Schools Association, 254
- Red Spot upon Jupiter, 65
- Reflection, on the Existence of, when the relative Refractive Index is Unity, Lord Rayleigh, F.R.S., 524
- Refractions for all Zenith Distances, a Short Method of Computing, Schaeberle, 186
- Rendiconti del Reale Istituto Lombardo, 45, 116, 262, 335, 455
- Residual Affinity, Wm. Durham, Prof. H. E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 30
- Revelation, Science and, Prof. G. G. Stokes, F.R.S., 333
- Review, Naval, Science at the, 254, 305
- Reymond (Prof. Du Bois), on Nerve-degeneration resulting from Sectional Injury, 48
- Reynolds (Prof. Emerson, F.R.S.), a New Chlorobromide of Silicon, 137
- Reynolds (Prof. Osborne, F.R.S.), Opening Address in Section G (Mechanical Science) at the British Association, 472
- Richards (Joseph W.), Aluminium, its History, &c., 292
- Richardson (Dr. A.), Action of Light on the Hydracids of the Halogens in presence of Oxygen, 569
- Richardson (Dr. Benjamin Ward, F.R.S.), Health of Nations, Edwin Chadwick, 385
- Richarz (Dr.), What takes place in an Electrolyzing Cell during Decomposition of Water, 288
- Ridgeway (Robert), Nomenclature of Colours for Naturalists, 124
- Riedel (Dr. J. G. F.), Cocoa-nut Pearls, 461
- Righi (A.), Calorific Conductibility of Bismuth in Magnetic Field, 312
- Riley (Prof. C. V.) : the Problem of the Hop-plant Louse (*Phorodon humuli*, Schrank) in Europe and America, 566 ; on the Luminous Larviform Females of the Phengodini, 592 ; *Icerya purchasi*, an Insect injurious to Fruit-Trees, 592
- Rimington (E. C.) : on a Modification of Maxwell's Method of measuring the Coefficient of Self-induction, 94 ; on comparing Capacities (Galvanometer), 263
- Ring Nebula in Lyra, Variable Star in the, Herr Spitaler, 431
- Ring, Saturn's, Present Appearance of, M. Stuyvaert, 65
- Rio Dôce, Brazil, the Valley of the, Wm. J. Steains, 596
- Ripples, Slate, on Skiddaw High Man, J. Edmund Clark, 388
- Riukiu (Loochoo) Islands, Botany of the, Tokutaro Ito, 538
- Riviera, Western, Earthquake in the, Prof. Henry H. Giglioli, 4 ; J. E. H. Peyton, 151
- River Ice, Action of, Thos. W. Kingsmill, 581
- Rivers, Broads and, of Norfolk and Suffolk, Notes on the, Harry Brittain, 457 ; Hand-book to the, G. C. Davies, 457
- Rivista Scientifico-Industriale, 45, 262
- Roberts-Austen (Prof., F.R.S.), Experiments on the possible Electrolytic Decomposition of Alloys, 547
- Robertson (J. H.), Modification of Cowper's Writing Telegraph, 540
- Rocks, Devonian, of West Somerset on the Borders of the Trias, W. A. E. Ussher, 572
- Rocks, Crystalline, Gastaldi on Italian Geology and the, Dr. T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., 575
- Rocks of the Lizard District, on the Occurrence of Porphyritic Structures in some, Howard Fox and Alex. Somervail, 590
- Rocks, Sedimentary, of North Devon, some Effects of Pressure on the, J. E. Marr, 591
- Rocks, Triassic, of West Somerset, W. A. E. Ussher, 572
- Rolfe (R. A.), on Bigeneric Orchid Hybrids, 70
- Rolling Contact of Bodies, Prof. Hele Shaw, 92
- Roman Dominion in South-East Britain, on the Establishment of, Sir G. B. Airy, F.R.S., 78
- Roman Numerals, Natural History of the, J. Lymburn, 555
- Romanes (Dr. G. J., F.R.S.) : Preyer's Locomotor System of Star-fish, 20 ; Thought without Words, 171 ; Experiments on the Sense of Smell in Dogs, 273 ; Physiological Selection, 341 ; Factors of Organic Evolution, 401 ; Origin of the Fittest, Essays on Evolution, E. D. Cope, 505
- Rome, Recent Additions to the Prehistoric and Ethnological Museum of, Dr. G. A. Collini, 526
- Roscoe (Sir Henry E., F.R.S.), Inaugural Address at the British Association, 416
- Rosebrugh (Dr.), Photography of Interior of Living Eye, 110
- Roses of India, Garden, Sir D. Brandis, F.R.S., 509
- Roshydrazine Colours, New, Dr. J. H. Ziegler, 111
- Routh (H. F.), Overwork and Premature Mental Decay, 507
- Rowan (D. J.), Luminous Boreal Cloudlets, 245
- Rowland (Prof. H. A.) : Description of a Map of the Solar Spectrum, 523 ; Chemical Action in a Magnetic Field, 547 ; Final Value of the B.A. Unit of Electrical Resistance as determined by the American Committee, 549
- Royal Geographical Society, 83, 138, 478
- Royal Horticultural Society, 207

- Royal Institution, 41
 Royal Institution of Civil Engineers, 41
 Royal Meteorological Institute of the Netherlands, 231
 Royal Meteorological Society, 118, 214
 Royal Microscopical Society, 47, 167, 239; *Journal of, Retrospective and Prospective*, 78
 Royal Observatory, Annual Visitation of the, 139
 Royal Society, 45, 70, 95, 135, 158, 190, 214, 239, 262, 285, 358; Selected Candidates for Fellowships, 5; Soirée, 41; *Conversazione*, 66; the Ladies' Soirée at the, 158; Royal Society and Coal-Mines, Viscount Cross, 475
 Royal Society of Canada, Proceedings and Transactions of, 563
 Royal Society of Tasmania, 184
 Royal University of Ireland, 109
 Royal Victoria Hall, Science and Technical Classes at the, 526
 Royère (W. de la), on the Two Tetrabromureted Hydrocamphenes, 45
 Ruby Mines of Burmah, G. Skelton Streeter, 596
 Rücker (Prof. Arthur W., F.R.S.): on the Constant P in Observations of Terrestrial Magnetism, 508; the *Spectator* and Science, 580
 Ruete (Capt. D.), Typhoons of the China Seas, 565
 Rugby School Natural History Society, 111
 Rusden (H. K.), *Physiological Selection*, 268
 Rushmore, Observations on Recent Explorations made by Gen. Pitt-Rivers at, J. G. Garson, 600
 Russell (W. J., F.R.S.), the Sense of Smell in Dogs, 317
 Russia, Meteorology in, 324, 399
 Russian Geographical Society, 309
 Russian Geological Literature, 400
 Rye (Walter), a Month on the Norfolk Broads, 457
- Saccharimeter, a Projection, M. Léon Laurent, 456
 Sachs (Julius von), Lectures on the Physiology of Plants, 361
 Safranines, on a New Mode of Formation of the Substituted, MM. Ph. Barbier and Léo Vignon, 615, 624
 St. Clair (Geo.), Boat-shaped Graves in Syria, 598
 St. Erth, Cornwall, the Pliocene Beds of, Robert Geo. Bell, 591
 Salmon Fry at Malvern Wells, 431
 Salol in the Stomach, the Behaviour of, Prof. Ewald, 287
 Salt-District of Cheshire, the History and Cause of the Subsidence at Northwich and its Neighbourhood in the, Thos. Ward, 572
 Salt-Marshes, Disappearance of Moths at High Water in, J. T. Carrington, 137
 Salts, a Series of New, M. Klobb, 500
 Sambuc, Electricity and Hygiene, 280
 San Domingo, Botany of, W. T. Thiselton-Dyer, F.R.S., Baron Eggers, 367
 Sand, Zircons and other Minerals contained in, Allan B. Dick, 91
 Sandmann (Dr.), Respiratory Reflex originating in Nasal Mucous Membranes, 384
 Sandrucci (Dr. Alessandro), a New Method of measuring the Specific Weights of Fluids, 45
 Sanitary Institute of Great Britain, 374, 499
 Sanitary Science, the Death-rate as Index of Sanitary Condition of Community, R. M. Johnston, 184
 Santa Lucia, &c., Earthquakes in, 110
 Saskatchewan, Places of Geological Interest on the Banks of the, Prof. Hoyes Panton, 571
 Satellite of Venus, the, M. Stroobant, 543
 Saturn's Ring, Present Appearance of, M. Struyvaert, 65
 Sawyer (E.), New Variable of the Algol Type, 376
 Sayce (Prof. A. H.), Opening Address in Section H (Anthropology) at the British Association, 511
 Scandinavia, Remarkable Weather in, 256
 Scandinavian Ice, on the Extension of the, to Eastern England in the Glacial Period, Prof. Otto Torell, 573
 Scarlatina, Bovine Origin of, Researches on the, M. Picheney, 624
 Scarlet Fever, Etiology of, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 126
 Scenery of Scotland viewed in Connection with its Physical Geology, Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 553; the Duke of Argyll, F.R.S., 603; Dr. Chas. Callaway, 604; Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 604
 Schäfer (Prof. E. A.), Essentials of Histology, Dr. E. Klein, F.R.S., 292; the Present Aspect of the Cell Question, 592
 Schinz's (Dr. Hans) Exploration of Luderitzland, 309
 Schools, Natural History in, Rev. S. A. Preston, 209
 Schrader (Wilhelm), Beiträge zur Theorie der Determinaten, 51; Ten Years' Study of the Pyrenees, 589
 Schultz (Dr.), Contrast between the Popular Names and Real Nature of Meteorological Phenomena, 119
 Schunck (Edward, F.R.S.), Opening Address in Section B (Chemical Science) at the British Association, 442
 Schuster (Prof. A., F.R.S.): Experiments on Discharge of Electricity through Gases, 285; Conduction of Electricity through Gases, 522
 Science: and Art and Literature, the Connection between, Prof. Huxley, F.R.S., 14; Prof. Judd, F.R.S., 88; Science and Gunnery, 31, 58; Science and the Jubilee, 135; Science for Artists, 199; Edward L. Garbett, 221; Prof. Tyndall and the Scientific Movement, 217; Science at the Naval Review, 254, 305; Dr. Gunning's Jubilee Gifts for the Advancement of Science, 308; Science and Revelation, Prof. G. G. Stokes, P.R.S., 333; Government Aid to Science in Scotland, 399; First Lessons in Science designed for the use of Children, Rev. J. W. Colenso, D.D., 436; Grants for Science and Art Instruction, 478; Report of the B.A. Committee on the Translation of Foreign Scientific Memoirs, 499; Teaching of Science in Elementary Schools, Report of the B.A. Committee appointed for the Purpose of continuing the Inquiries relating to the, 518; Scientific Voyage of Prince Albert of Monaco, 541; the *Spectator* and Science, Prof. Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 580; Scientific Revival in the Southern States of America, 587
 Schlater (W. L.), appointed to the Indian Museum, Calcutta, 306
 Scorodite from Arsenical Waters, Notes on the Deposition of, in the Yellowstone National Park, Arnold Hague, 575
 Scorpion Virus, Prof. A. G. Bourne, 53
 Scotland, the Scenery of, viewed in Connection with its Physical Geology, Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., 14; Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 553; the Duke of Argyll, F.R.S., 603; Dr. Charles Callaway, 604; Prof. A. H. Green, F.R.S., 604
 Scotland, Statistics of Fish landed in, 160
 Scotch Universities, the Progress of, 252; M.A. and Medicus on, 294
 Scotch Coasts, Fish landed on, 256
 Scotch Technical Education Bill, the, 347, 430, 475
 Scotland, Government Aid to Science in, 399
 Scott (Robert H., F.R.S.), After-Glows at Helensburgh, 175; Earthquakes observed at Shetland Lighthouses, 325
 Scribner (L.) and Pierre Viala, Note on *Greeneria fuliginea*, 504
 Scripta Botanica Hortae Universitatis Petropolitanae, 325
 Sea, Means of avoiding Collisions at, Moise Lion, 432
 Seal-hunting Fleet, Norwegian, 208
 Secohmmeter, the, Prof. W. E. Ayrton, F.R.S., and Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., 129
 Sectional Procedure, British Association, Prof. Silvanus P. Thompson, 151
 Sectional Procedure, British Association, Dr. Alfred W. Bennett, 197
 Sedimentary Rocks of North Devon, some Effects of Pressure on the, J. S. Marr, 591
 Seeley (Prof. H. G., F.R.S.), the Classification of the Dinosauria, 591; on the Reputed Clavicles and Interclavicles of Iguanodon, 591
 Seismology: Earthquake in the Western Riviera, Prof. Henry H. Giglioli, 4; the Earthquake of February 23, 1887, Albert Offret, 72; the Protection on Buildings from Earthquakes, Prof. Milne, 89; the Recent Earthquakes in Arizona, 89; a Recent Japanese Earthquake, Prof. J. A. Ewing, 107; Seismological Society of Japan, 350; Japanese Earthquake of January 15, 1887, Prof. S. Sekiya, 379; Recent Earthquakes in Mexico and Turkestan, Prof. J. P. O'Reilly, 151; the Late Earthquake on the Riviera, February 23, 1887, J. E. H. Peyton, 151; Earthquake in Greece, 541; the Different Varieties of Thunderstorms, and a Scheme for their Systematic Observation in Great Britain, Hon. R. Abercromby, 548; the Sonora Earthquake of May 3, 1887, Dr. T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., and Jas. Douglas, 572. (*See also* Earthquakes.)
 Sekiya (Prof. S.), University of Tokio, 198; Japan Earthquake of January 15, 1887, 379
 Selection, Physiological, H. K. Rusden, 268; Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 341

- Selenic Acid, on the Alums formed by, C. Fabre, 287
 Self-Induction and Conductivity, Names for Electric Units of, Prof. Oliver J. Lodge, F.R.S., 174
 Self-Induction of Two Bobbins combined in Quantity, on Co-efficient of, Maneuvrier and Ledebor, 432
 Sendall, Governor, 135
 Sense of Smell in Dogs, 412; Experiments on the, Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 273; W. J. Russell, 317
 Sense, Studies in Life and, Andrew Wilson, 316
 Serpent Mound in Ohio, the, 281
 Sewage, Treatment and Utilization of, W. H. Corfield, F.R.S., 73
 Sexton (A. H.), Outlines of Quantitative Analysis, 410
 Shadow of Adam's Peak, R. Abbay, 152; Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 197
 Sharpe (H.), the Brocken Spectre, 118
 Sharpe (R. Bowdler), Obituary Notice of Spencer F. Baird, 397; Ocean Birds, J. F. Green, Bird Life in England, Edwin Lester Arnold, 435
 Shaw (Prof. Hele), Rolling Contact of Bodies, 92
 Shells, Marine, on the Pliocene Deposit of, near Lattakia, and a Similar Deposit in the Island of Zante, Dr. Geo. E. Post, 245
 Shenstone (W. A.), the Volumetric Relations of Ozone and Oxygen, 118
 Shetland Lighthouses, Earthquakes observed at, R. H. Scott, 325
 Shipley (Arthur), on the Disease of the Onion Crop at the Bermudas, 563
 Shooting-Stars at Patagones, Remarkable Display of, 15
 Shooting-Stars and Fires of Unknown Origin, Possible Relation between, C. V. Zenger, 476
 Shores and Alps of Alaska, H. W. Seton Karr, 220
 Shorthand, International Shorthand Congress, 500
 Shrubsole (W. H.), Diatoms in the Thames, 125
 Siberia, Earthquakes in, 210; the Eclipse in, 430; Von Soll's Exploration of Wood Mountain in, 478; New Siberian Islands Expedition, Return of the, 113
 Sienberger (Adolf), Die Determinanten in genetischer Behandlung, 51
 Sidgwick (Alfred), the Game of Logic, Lewis Carroll, 3
 Siemens Steel Tubes, Männermann's New Method of preparing, 216
 Signals, Storm, 617
 Signals, a Mechanical and Automatic Registering Apparatus of, transmitted by Telegraph and by Optical Projectors, M. E. Ducretet, 624
 Silicon, Influence of, on the Properties of Steel, Report of the B.A. Committee on the, 516
 Silk Industry of India, 63, 452
 Silver, Salts of, as used in attempting to obtain Photographs in Natural Colours, Carey Lee, 64
 Sinclair (A. C.) and Lawrence R. Fyfe, the Hand-book of Jamaica for 1887-88, 555
 Siret (Henri and Louis), the Early Ages of Metal in South-East Spain, 599
 Sirius, Companion of, Prof. A. Hall, 186
 Skalweit (Dr. Johannes), Death of, 475
 Skiddaw High Man, Slate Ripples on, J. Edmund Clark, 388
 Sky-coloured Clouds, T. W. Backhouse, 269, 365, 556
 Slag, Occurrence of Apatite in, W. M. Hutchings, 460
 Slate Ripples on Skiddaw High Man, J. Edmund Clark, 388
 Smell, Experiments on the Sensitiveness of the Sense of, Drs. Fischer and Penzoldt, 90
 Smell, Sense of Taste or, in Leeches, Prof. A. G. Bourne, 125
 Smell, Sense of, in Dogs, 412; Experiments on the, Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 273; W. J. Russell, F.R.S., 317
 Smets (Abbé G.), Carapaced Hydrosaurian discovered by, 262
 Smith (B. Woodd), Pear-shaped Hailstones, 102
 Smith (Fredk.), Spherical Integrator, 31
 Smith (Robert H.), Dynamical Units, 53
 Smith (Samuel), Education in Germany, 567
 Smith (Watson), on the Constituents of the Light Oils of Blast-furnace Coal Tar from the Garthsherie Works, 569
 Smithsonian Institution Papers, 255, 281
 Smyth (R. Brough), a Remarkable Meteor, 93
 Sneezing, Paroxysmal, Hay Fever and, Morell Mackenzie, 363
 Snowfall in Central Germany, Statistics of, 42
 Snow, Air-Bubbles from, Rev. A. Bonney, 215
 Snow in Central Germany, Dr. Otto Knopf, 198
 Snowstorms, Heavy, in Germany, 210
 Social History of the Races of Mankind, A. Featherman, Prof. A. H. Keane, 147
 Soda, Nitrate of, A. Stutzer, 4
 Solar Eclipse, Total: of 1886, W. H. Pickering, 308; of August 19, 1887, 45, 60, 398; Arrangements for the Observation of, 373; H. G. Madan, 437; M. Niesten, 455
 Solar Radiation, Direct Intensity of, Fourth Report of the B.A. Committee, 497
 Solar Rays, Luminous, Observations on, 45
 Solar Spectrum, Map of the, Prof. H. A. Rowland, 523
 Solar System in Space, Determination of the Direction and Velocity of the Movement of the, 45
 Sollas (Prof.), Primary Observations on the Geology of Wicklow and Wexford, 591
 Soll's (Von) Exploration of Wood Mountain in New Siberia, 478
 Solms-Laubach (Count), on Bennetites, 593
 Solubility of Isomeric Organic Compounds, Prof. Carnelley, 569
 Solution, Chemical Affinity and, Wm. Durham, 318
 Solution, Nature of, Report of the B.A. Committee on, 516
 Solution, on, W. Durham, 570
 Solution, on a Partial Separation of the Constituents of a, during Expansion by Rise of Temperature, J. W. Mallet, F.R.S., 570
 Solvent, on the Action of the, in Electrolytic Conduction, T. C. Fitzpatrick, 547
 Somerset, West, the Triassic Rocks of, W. A. E. Ussher, 572
 Somerset, West, the Devonian Rocks of, on the Borders of the Trias, W. A. E. Ussher, 572
 Sommer (Dr.), on Method of determining Specific Weight of Bodies by weighing them in Water, 216
 Sonora Earthquake of May 3, 1887, Dr. T. Sterry Hunt, F.R.S., and Jas. Douglas, 572
 Sound-Mirage, on, H. Fizeau, 95
 Southern Double Stars, 588
 Spain, South-East, the Early Ages of Metal in, Henri and Louis Siret, 599
 Sparrow chasing Pigeons, W. Harcourt Bath, 4
 Spawn of Sun-Fish? W. S. Green, 245
 Specific Heat, Measurement of, Geo. N. Huntley, 438
 Specific Weights of Fluids, New Method of measuring the, Dr. Alessandro Sandrucci, 45
 Spectator and Science, Prof. Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 580
 Spectrum Analysis: Stars with Remarkable Spectra, 461; Spectra of Hydrogen, Oxygen, and Water Vapour, Prof. Grünwald, 501; Dr. K. Olszewski on the Absorption-Spectrum of Liquid Oxygen and Liquid Air, 42; New Fluorescences with well-defined Spectral Rays, L. de Boisbaudran, 383, 408; Spectrum of Didymium, Note on the, Dr. Claude M. Thompson, 115
 Speeds of Ions, Experiments on the, Prof. Lodge, F.R.S., 547
 Spherical Integrator, Fredk. Smith, 31
 Spider allowing for the Force of Gravity, Major C. B. Lyster, 366
 Spiders, Classification of, Rev. O. P. Cambridge, 12
 Spinal Ganglia, Anatomical Researches on the Physiology of the, Dr. Joseph, 120
 Spitaler (Herr), Variable Star in Nebula in Lyra, 431
 Spitzbergen, Measurements of the Heights and Motion of Clouds in, Dr. Nils Ekholm, 459
 Spot, Red, upon Jupiter, 65
 Spring (M.), Nature of Chemical Action between Acids and Zinc, 400
 Spring's (Dr. W.) Compressing Machinery, Decomposition by, 160
 Springer (Dr. A.), Torsion Balances, 569
 Standards of Light, Report of the B.A. Committee on, 499
 Stanford's Tourists' Guides, 185
 Stanley (H. M.): the Rumoured Death of, 309; News of, 475
 Stanley (Wm. F.), Stature of the Human Race, 366
 Stanoiéwitch (G. M.), Solar Photography, 72
 Stars: Relative Positions of the Principal Stars in the Pleiades, Dr. W. L. Elkin, 232; Magnitudes of Nautical Almanac, Prof. Pickering, 401; New Variable, Mr. Espin, 431; Variable, in the Ring Nebula in Lyra, Herr Spitaler, 431; Stars with Remarkable Spectra, 461; Shooting-Stars and Fires of Unknown Origin, possible Relation between, C. V. Zenger, 476; Flamsteed's Stars, "Observed but not Existing," Prof.

- C. H. F. Peters, 542; Southern Double, 588; Corrigenda in Various Star-Catalogues, Prof. Peters 543
 Star-fish, the Locomotor System of, Prof. Preyer, 20
 Star-fish from the Yorkshire Lias, on a, Prof. J. F. Blake, 591
 State, University Colleges and the, 237
 Statics, Analytical, a Treatise on, I. Todhunter, 459
 Statistical Atlas of India, 615
 Stature of the Human Race, Wm. F. Stanley, 366
 Stains (Wm. J.), the Valley of the Rio Dôce, Brazil, 596
 Steam Cylinder, Initial Condensation in a, Major Thomas English, 551
 Steam Tricycle, New, 564
 Steel, Hadfield's Manganese, Magnetization of, in Strong Fields, Prof. A. Ewing, F.R.S., and William Low, 548
 Steel, on the Influence of Silicon on the Properties of, Report of the B.A. Committee, 516
 Steel Tubes, New, Männermann's, Method of Preparing Siemens, 216
 Steel, Viscosity of, and its Relations to Temperature, Carl Barus, 479
 Steering of H.M.S. *Ajax*, 61
 Stellar Photography, Instruments for, Sir Howard Grubb, F.R.S., 523; New Forms of Construction of Object-glasses intended for, Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 562
 Stellar Spectra, Photographic Study of, Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 31
Sterna anglica in Belfast Lough, Occurrence of, Prof. Robert O. Cunningham, 582
 Stevenson (D. A.), Lighthouse Work, 243
 Stewart (Prof. Balfour, F.R.S.): Obituary Notice of Joseph Baxendell, F.R.S., 585; and W. W. Haldane Gee, Lessons in Elementary Practical Physics, 241
 Stiang Tribe, Père Azemar on the, 501
 Stockholm Royal Academy of Sciences, 24, 120, 216
 Stokes (Prof. G. G., P.R.S.): on the Beneficial Effects of Light, Prof. P. G. Tait, 98; Science and Revelation, 333
 Stone (J. H.), *Nicotiana glauca*, 70
 Stone (Prof. Ormond), the Leander McCormick Observatory, 543
 Stone (Dr. William H.), Harveian Oration, 589
 Stone Age in Congo State, Discovery of Instruments of, Ed. Dupont, 116
 Stone Men of Corea, Miryeks or, Prof. de Lacouperie, 615
 Stones, Precious, in Nature, Art, and Literature, S. M. Burnham, 482
 Stonyhurst College, Results of the Meteorological and Magnetical Observations made at, 565
 Storm Signals, 617
 Storm Warnings and Ben Nevis Observatory, 430
 Storms, the Law of, 617
 Strachey (General Richard, F.R.S.): the Progress of Geography, 258; Carnatic Rainfall, 267
 Streeter (G. Skelton), Ruby Mines of Burmah, 596
 Stromeyer (C. E.), Perception of Colour, 246
 Stroobant (Prof.), on the Problematic Satellite of Venus, 503, 543
 Stroud (Prof. William): Sounding Coils, 262; a Null Method in Electro-calorimetry, 483; and W. W. Haldane Gee, a Null Method in Electro-calorimetry, 523
 Structure of Nostochineae, Walter Gardiner, 125
 Studer (Bernard), Obituary Notice of, 87
 Stutzer (A.), Nitrate of Soda, 4
 Stuyvaert (M.), Present Appearance of Saturn's Ring, 65
 Subsidesces at Northwich and its Neighbourhood and in the Salt District of Cheshire, the History and Cause of the, Thos. Ward, 572
 Suffling (Ernest R.), Land of the Broads, 457
 Sulphites in the Presence of the Hyposulphites and Sulphates, Qualitative Study of the, 24
 Sulphurous Acid, Density in Liquid and Vapour State, Cailletet and Mathias, 167
 Sumatra, Proposed Railway in, 63
 Summer Clouds, Height of, 206
 Sun and Fire Symbolism, Mrs. J. C. Murray-Aynsley, 364
 Sun, Meteorological Observations during Eclipses of the, Prof. Upton, 24
 Sun, Researches on the Diameter of the, Prof. Auwers, 256
 Sun-fish, Spawn of, W. S. Green, 245
 Sunday Lecture Society, Meeting of the, 615
 Sunlight Colours, Prof. S. P. Langley, 76
 Sunspots, 53
 Supan (Dr.), the Climate of Europe, 257
 Surfaces, on the Normal Derivatives of the Potential Function of, G. Morera, 455
 Suspended Magnet, Earthquakes and the, Dr. M. A. Veeder, 102
 Suzor (Renaud), Hydrophobia: an Account of M. Pasteur's System, 482
 Svastika on English Walls, H. G. Madan, 437
 Swainson (Rev. Chas.), Provincial Names and Folk-Lore of British Birds, 49
 Sweden, Central, Discovery of Fossil Remains of an Arctic Flora in, Prof. A. G. Nathorst, 211
 Sweden, Oyster-Culture in, 111
 Swifts, Aubrey Edwards, 605
 Switzerland, Earthquakes in, 110
 Sylvester (Prof. J. J., F.R.S.), on Hamilton's Numbers, 557
 Symbolism, Sun and Fire, Mrs. J. C. Murray-Aynsley, 364
 Symonds (Rev. William S.): Death of, 527; Obituary Notice of, 562
 Symons (G. J., F.R.S.): Distribution of Rain over the British Isles, during the Year 1886, 388; British Rainfall, 430; Monthly Meteorological Magazine, 617
 Synthesis of Water by Weight, Experiments upon the, Dr. E. H. Keiser, 541
 Syria, Boat-shaped Graves in, Geo. St. Clair, 598
 Syrphidæ, North American, 208
 Tabasheer mentioned in Older Botanical Works, Dr. Ernst Huth, 29
 Taconic System, 576
 Tait (Prof. P. G.): on the Beneficial Effects of Light, Prof. G. G. Stokes, 98; Obituary Notice of Prof. Kirchhoff, 606
 Taste or Smell, Sense of, in Leeches, Prof. A. G. Bourne, 125
 Tattooing, a New Work on, 586
 Tattooing, Miss A. W. Buckland, 399
 Tauri, α , Parallax of, Prof. Asaph Hall, 138
 Taylor (Rev. Canon Isaac), the Primitive Seat of the Aryans, 597
 Taylor (R. L.), Chemistry for Beginners, 28
 Teaching of Chemistry, on the, M. M. Pattison Muir, 536
 Teaching University, London, the Case for a, 329
 Teall (J. J. H.), the Origin of Banded Gneisses, 590
 Tebbutt (J.), Proper Motion of L1 26481, 564
 Technical College, Finsbury, 256
 Technical Education, 87, 135, 279; Sir Lyon Playfair on, 16; Industry for Country Schools, 16; City and Guilds of London Institute for Advancement of, Sir Philip Magnus's Report, 349; Technical Education Bill, 283, 305, 309, 323, 347; Abandonment of, 398; the Scotch Technical Education Bill, 347, 430, 475; National Association for Promotion of, 229; Proposed Technical School for Preston, 254
 Technological Examinations, City and Guilds of London Institute, 476
 Technology Quarterly, the, 185
 Teeth of Mammalian, on the History of the Evolution of, Oldfield Thomas, 94
 Telegraph, Writing, Modification of Cowper's, J. H. Robertson, 540
 Telegraphy, Determination of Longitude of Haiphong, Tonquin, F. Laporte, 456
 Telegraphy in London, the Jubilee of, 230
 Telluric Currents, on the Variations of, J. J. Landerer, 504
 Tellurides (Crystallized), Heat of Formation of some, Ch. Fabre, 360
 Tellurium, the Different States of, Berthelot and Fabre, 118
 Temperature of the Western Lakes and Locks, on the, Dr. Mill, 110
 Temperature and Pressure, Maxwell Hall, 197
 Temperature in Relation to Fish, 213
 Temperature, Effects of Change of, in twisting and untwisting Wires which have suffered Permanent Torsion, Herbert Tomlinson, 263
 Temperature of the Clyde Sea Area, Dr. Hugh Robert Mill, 37, 56
 Temperature, Viscosity of Steel, and its Relations to, Carl Barus, 479

- Temperature, on a Partial Separation of the Constituents of a Solution during Expansion by Rise of, J. W. Mallet, F.R.S., 570
- Temple (Sir Richard), Journals kept in Hyderabad, Kashmir, Sikkim, and Nepal, 75
- Teneriffe and its Six Satellites, Mrs. Olivia M. Stone, 541
- Tennant (F. R.), a Monstrous Foxglove, 482
- Terminology of Science for Teaching Chinese, Question of, 307
- Terquem (Alfred), Obituary Notice by Mascart, 336
- Terrestrial Magnetism, on the Constant P in Observations of, Wm. Harkness, 366; William Ellis, 436; Prof. Arthur W. Rücker, F.R.S., 508
- Tertiary Outliers on the North Downs, Rev. A. Irving, 531
- Tetens (Herr A.), Olbers' Comet, 588
- Thames, Diatoms in the, W. H. Shrubsole, 125
- Thin Plates, Colours of, Lord Rayleigh, F.R.S., 391
- Thermo-dynamical Relation, on a, Prof. Ramsay and Dr. S. Young, 23
- Thermo-dynamics, M. J. Bertrand, 528
- Thermometers, on Delicate Calorimetric, Prof. Pickering, 22
- Thermometrical Observations on Boston Church Tower, W. Marriott, 118
- Tholozan (J. D.), Varying Aspects and Intensity of the Pestilence in the Caucasus, Persia, Russia, and Turkey, since 1835, 504
- Thomas (Oldfield), on the History of the Evolution of Mammalian Teeth, 94; the Teeth in the Dasypodidae, 94
- Thome (Dr. J. M.), the Great Southern Comet (1887 *a*), 161
- Thompson (Dr. Claude M.), Note on the Spectrum of Didymium, 115
- Thompson (C.) and Dr. C. R. A. Wright: a New Class of Voltaic Combinations in which Oxidizable Metals replaced by Alterable Solutions, 166; Novel Series of Voltaic Combinations, 349; Notes on some Peculiar Voltaic Combinations, 570
- Thompson (Prof. Silvanus P.): on Transformers for Electric Distribution, 42; British Association Sectional Procedure, 151; on the Ratio of the Two Elasticities of Air, 523; on the Electro-deposition of Alloys, 547; English and Foreign Technical Education, 614
- Thomson (Prof. J. J., F.R.S.), some Applications of Dynamical Principles to Experimental Philosophy, 45
- Thomson (Sir William, F.R.S.): on the Application of the Centi-ampere or the Deci-ampere Balance for the Measurement of the E.M.F. of a Single Cell, 522; New Electric Balances, 522; on the Turbulent Motion of Water between Two Planes, 523; on the Vortex-Theory of Luminiferous Ether, 550
- Thorine, Silicates of Troost and Ouvrard, 360
- Thorium, Drs. Krüss and Nilson, 255
- Thought without Words, Francis Galton, F.R.S., 28, 100; Duke of Argyll, Dr. Hyde Clarke, T. Mellard Reade, 52; Prof. F. Max Müller, 100; Colonel H. Stuart Wortley, 124; Harold Picton, 124; Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 171; Joseph John Murphy, 172; Arthur Ebbels, 173; A. Grenfell, 173; Arthur Nicols, 173
- Thunderbolt, Effect of a, Prof. Ferrini, 116
- Thunderbolt, Unusually Destructive, M. Daniel Colladon, 23
- Thunderstorms, Different Varieties of, and a Scheme for their Systematic Observation in Great Britain, Hon. R. Abercromby, 548
- Thunderstorm in London, Chas. Harding, 397
- Thuringian Fisheries Union, 160
- Tidal Observations in Canada, Report of the B.A. Committee on, 499
- Tidal Velocities of Pacific and Atlantic Oceans in Canal between the two, Bouquet de la Grye, 143
- Tides of Tunisian Coast, Héraud, 383
- Till or Lower Boulder-Clay, Comparative Study of the, in several of the Glaciated Countries in Europe, Hugh Miller, 573
- Tillo (General), on the Water-partings of the Earth, 17
- Tissandier (G.), Hailstone with Stony Nucleus, 312
- Time-signalling on the European Coasts, Prof. Foerster, 307
- Timehri, 309
- Titanates of Zinc, Lucien Lévy, 432
- Tobacco Culture, English, 124
- Todd (Prof. David P.), Total Eclipse of last August in Japan, 609
- Todhunter (I.), a Treatise on Analytical Statics, 459
- "Toeing" and "Heeling" at Golf, T. Mellard Reade, 580
- Tokiō, University of, Prof. S. Sekiya, 198
- Toluylendiamine, MM. Engel and Kiener, 504
- Tomlinson (Herbert), Effects of Changes of Temperature on Wires which have suffered Permanent Torsion, 263
- Tonquin, Return of M. Pavie from, 452
- Topography of Galloway, Studies in the, Sir Herbert Eustace Maxwell, Jos. Lucas, 337
- Torell (Prof. Otto), on the Extension of the Scandinavian Ice to Eastern England in the Glacial Period, 573
- Tornado, Photographs of a, 255
- Tornadoes in United States, H. Faye, 456
- Torpedo marmorata*, the Electromotive Properties of, Francis Gotch, 262
- Torpedo (Cyclobatis, Egerton), on the Affinities of the so-called, from the Cretaceous of Mount Lebanon, A. Smith Woodward, 591
- Torsion Balances, Dr. A. Springer, 560
- Totemism, the Origin of, C. Staniland Wake, 599
- Town Life, the Effect of, upon the Human Body, J. Milner Fothergill, 598
- Toynbee (Capt. Henry), the *Umbria's* Wave, Capt. W. Watson, 508
- Transit of Venus in 1882, Results from the British Observation of, 44
- Traverses of the Western and of the Eastern Alps, Preliminary Note on, made during the Summer of 1887, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 590
- Trechmann (Dr. Chas. O.), Mirage, 197
- Trécul (A.), Radicular Nature of Stolons in Nephrolepis, 408
- Tree, a Real Weeping, near Auchnagie, 564
- Trephining in the Neolithic Period in Europe, Prof. Victor Horsley, 117
- Trias, Devonian Rocks of West Somerset on the Borders of the, W. A. E. Ussher, 572
- Triassic Rocks of West Somerset, W. A. E. Ussher, 572
- Trinidad Superstition as to the Influence of the Moon upon Vegetation, 586
- Tripe (Dr. J. W.), Ball Lightning, 215
- Trichomanes alata*, on Cramer's Gemma borne by, Prof. Bower, 593
- Tricycle, New Steam, 564
- Troglodyte Remains in Southern Morocco, 542
- Troost (L.), Silicates of Thorine, 360
- Tropical Agriculture, Premium offered for the Best Text-book of, 499
- Trout, the Rainbow, 209
- Trouton (F.), Prof. Fitzgerald, F.R.S., and, on the Accuracy of Ohm's Law in Electrolysis, 547
- Truffle, on a New Species of, Ad. Chatin, 23
- Trumpet, Electric, Zigang's, 160
- Tuberculous Substances, the Danger of Infection from, Galtier, 336
- Tunisian Coast, Tides of, Héraud, 383
- Tunney, the Migrations of the, Prof. Pavesi, 116
- Turbulent Motion of Water between Two Planes, on the, Prof. Sir William Thomson, F.R.S., 523
- Turkestan, Earthquake in, 159; Earthquakes in Mexico and, Prof. J. P. O'Reilly, 151
- Tutton (A. E.): Condensation of Gases, 105; Chemistry of the Rare Earths, 357
- Tweeddale Collection, the, 279
- Two Friends, 173
- Tyndall (Prof., F.R.S.): the Dinner to, 133, 158, 183, 207, 222; and the Scientific Movement, 217; on Imperfect Construction of Lightning Conductors, 430
- Typhoons, 349; of the China Seas, Captain D. Ruete, 565
- Typhus Abdominalis, M. Brouardel, 524
- Ubaghs (P.), on the Movement of the Solar System in Space, 45
- Ullherr (Prof. Johann Konrad), Death of, 586
- Umbria's* Wave, the, Captain Henry Toynbee, Captain W. Watson, 508
- Undergraduates, Harvard, Annual Expenditure of, Prof. G. H. Palmer, 325
- Underwood (Lieut.), on the Use of Oil at Sea, 112
- United Kingdom: a Review of Lighthouse Work and Economy in the, during the Past Fifty Years, J. Kenward, 103, 179, 201

- United States: Monthly Weather Review, 110, 324, 375 ;
 Meteorology in, 255 ; Report on the Mining Industries of the,
 R. Pumpelly, 315 ; Mineral Wealth of the, Dr. A. E. Foote,
 619 ; Earthquakes in, 376 ; Tornados in, H. Faye, 456
- Units, Dynamical, Robert H. Smith, 53
- Units of Weight, Mass, and Force: Rev. Edward Geoghegan,
 4 ; J. Lancaster, 102 ; Prof. D. H. Marshall, 102 ; Rev.
 John B. Lock, 174, 317 ; Prof. Alex. Macfarlane, 174
- University, the Case for a London Teaching, 329
- University for Brisbane, Proposed, 13
- University College, Bristol, Engineering Education at, 499
- University College, London: Appointments at, 135 ; Prospectus
 of Engineering Department, 525
- University Colleges of England: Claims on Government of,
 159 ; State Aid for, 229, 237
- University of Dublin, Chair of Civil Engineering at, 255
- University of Göttingen, Anniversary of, 282
- University Intelligence, 22, 69, 115, 142, 165, 189, 261, 382,
 575, 623
- University of Tokio, Prof. S. Sekiya, 388
- University of Upsala, Opening of, 109
- Universities, Scottish, Progress of the, M.A. and Medicus,
 294
- Unwritten Chapter on Golf, the, 502
- Upper Cloud Movements in the Equatorial Regions of the
 Atlantic, Captain David Wilson-Barker, 197 ; Hon. Ralph
 Abercromby, 222
- Upper Wind-currents near the Equator, and the Diffusion of
 Krakatão Dust, E. Douglas Archibald, 152
- Upsala: Opening of University of, 109 ; Meteorologiske In-
 stitut at, and Cloud Measurements, Hon. Ralph Abercromby,
 319
- Upton (Prof.), Meteorological Observations during Eclipses of
 the Sun, 24
- Uric Acid, a New Synthesis of, Prof. Horbaczewski, 209
- Urine, Hæmatin in, Dr. Lewin, 120
- Use of Flowers by Birds, William White, 173
- Ussher (W. A. E.), the Triassic Rocks of West Somerset, 572 ;
 the Devonian Rocks of West Somerset on the Borders of the
 Trias, 572
- Vaccinium intermedium*, N. E. Brown, 70
- Valency, Note on, Prof. Armstrong, 569
- Valentiner (Dr. W.), Orbit of the Minor Planet Eucharis, 77
- Vanadates, Alkaline, 24
- Vanadates, on Organic, J. A. Hall, 570
- Vane, Wind, Theory of the, G. E. Curtis, 480
- Vapour-Calorimeter, a, Prof. Neesen, 288
- Variable Star, New, Mr. Espin, 431 ; Prof. Lewis Boss, 501
- Variable Star of the Algol Type, New, E. Sawyer, 376
- Variable Star in the Ring Nebula in Lyra, Herr Spitaler, 431
- Variation, Proposed Contributions to the Theory of, Patrick
 Geddes, 592
- Varnish for Textile Materials, a New, Jovis, 376
- Veeder (Dr. M. A.), Earthquakes and the Suspended Magnet,
 102
- Vegetable Kingdom, a German Treatise on the, A. Engler and
 K. Prantl, 123
- Vegetation, Nitrogen in, the Present Aspect of the Question of
 the Sources of, Sir J. Lawes, F.R.S., and Dr. Gilbert, F.R.S.,
 570
- Vegetation, Influence of the Moon upon, Superstition as to the,
 at Trinidad, 586
- Velocity of the Movement of the Solar System in Space, Deter-
 mination of the Direction and, 45
- Velocity of Formation of Acetic Ether, Prof. Menschutkin,
 569
- Venn (John), the Game of Logic, 53 ; Law of Error, 411
- Venukoff, Earthquake of June 9, 1887, in Central Asia, 312
- Venus, on the Problematic Satellite of, Prof. Stroobant, 503,
 543
- Verhandlungen of the Vienna Geographical Society, 283
- Verhoje, the Earthquake at, M. Wilkins, 230
- Vertebrates, on the Presence of Bacteria in the Lymph, &c., of
 Living Fish and other, Prof. J. C. Ewart, 251
- Viala (Pierre) and L. Scribner, Note on *Greeneria fuliginea*, 504
- Vian-Williams (H.), Singular Nesting-place of Linnets, 154
- Vicia Faba*, the Tubercular Swellings on Roots, Prof. H. M.
 Ward, 214
- Victoria Institute, 256
- Victoria, Meteorology in, 324
- Vienna, Hygienic Congress at, 429, 524, 618
- Vignoli (Tito) on Influence of Sensuous Images on Reasoning
 Faculty, 455
- Vignon and Barbier (MM.), Safranines, 615
- Vine-Mildew, Sulphate of Copper as a Remedy against, Prof.
 Pollacci, 262
- Vineyards, Artificial Clouds for Protection from Frost of, 160
- Virus, Scorpion, Prof. A. G. Bourne, 53
- Viscosity and the Rigidity of Iron and Steel, Effects of Magneti-
 zation on the, C. Barus, 575
- Volcanic Ashes, Fall of, in New Guinea, 136 ; in Kaiser
 Wilhelm's Land, 281
- Volcanic Eruption on Algerian Coast, 376
- Voltaic Combinations in which Oxidizable Metals replaced by
 Alterable Solutions, a New Class of, Dr. C. R. A. Wright
 and C. Thompson, 166
- Voltaic Combinations, Notes on some Peculiar, C. R. A.
 Wright, F.R.S., and C. Thompson, 570
- Vortex-Theory of Luminiferous Ether, on the, Prof. Sir W.
 Thomson, F.R.S., 550
- Vulpian (Prof.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 88
- Wagner (Dr. Moritz), Death of, 160
- Wake (C. Staniland), the Origin of Totemism, 599
- Wales, North, Dr. H. Hicks's Explorations of Caverns in, 185
- Walks in the Ardennes, Percy Lindley, 340
- Wallace (Dr. Alfred R.), Return of, 399 ; British Museum and
 American Museums, 530
- Ward (Prof. H. M.), the Tubercular Swellings on Roots of
Vicia Faba, 214
- Ward (Thos.), the History and Cause of the Subsidence at
 Northwich and its Neighbourhood in the Salt District of
 Cheshire, 572
- Ward (Dr. W. H.) Babylonian Seals, 111
- Warren (Colonel Sir Chas., F.R.S.), Opening Address in Sec-
 tion E (Geography) at the British Association, 465
- Warren (Dr. William F.), a Suggestion for Anthropologists,
 198
- Washington Observatory, 564
- Washington, International Medical Congress, 453, 475
- Wasps, Dr. Peckham, 111
- Watches and Clocks, Fifty Years' Progress in, Henry Dent
 Gardner, 392, 484
- Water: Expansion and Compressibility of, M. E. H. Amagat,
 24 ; on some Method of testing the Purity of Drinking, Prof.
 Maggi, 116 ; Influence of Development of Bacteria on Organic
 Substances in, S. Leone, 209 ; Importance of Qualitative
 Bacteriological Examination of Potable Waters, Prof. L.
 Maggi, 335 ; on the Turbulent Motion of Water between Two
 Planes, Prof. Sir William Thomson, F.R.S., 523 ; Synthesis
 of Water by Weight, Experiments upon the, Dr. E. H.
 Keiser, 541 ; Further Researches concerning the Electrolysis
 of Water, Prof. von Helmholtz, 547 ; Combinations of Water
 and Alcohol, Prof. Mendeléeff, 570
- Water-Partings of the Earth, General Tillo on, 17
- Waterspout of August 19, 1887, on Lake of Geneva, Ch.
 Dufour, 456 ; M. H. Faye, 552
- Waterspout, M. D. Colladon's Artificial, M. Mascart, 576
- Watson (Capt. W.), the *Umbria's* Wave, Capt. Henry Toynbee,
 508
- Watts (Arthur), Relation of Coal-Dust to Explosions in Mines,
 221
- Wauters (A. J.), Lake Muta-Nzige, 617
- Wave, the *Umbria's*, Capt. Henry Toynbee, Capt. W. Watson,
 508
- Wave-length, Recent Determination of Absolute, L. Bell, 524
- Weather Charts, German and Danish, 88
- Weather Charts and Storm Warnings, 563
- Weather Forecasting, B. G. Jenkins, 117
- Weather Reports, German, 159
- Weather, Remarkable, in Scandinavia, 256
- Weber (Prof. L.), Observations of Atmospheric Electricity, 548
- Wedge Photometer, Prof. Pickering, 477
- Weight (Human), Diminishable by Deep Inspiration, Prof.
 Wolff, 120
- Weight and Mass, 53

- Weight, Mass, and Force, Rev. Edward Geoghegan, 4; Prof. A. G. Greenhill, 196, 269; R. B. Hayward, F.R.S., 221; J. Lancaster, 102; Prof. D. H. Marshall, 102; Prof. Alex. Macfarlane, 174; Rev. John B. Lock, 174, 317
- Weights and Measures, Report of the Board of Trade on, 204
- Weismann (Prof. August), on the Signification of the Polar Globules, 607
- Weldon (W. F. R.), on the Structure of *Haplodiscus piger*, 592
- Welford (W. D.), the Photographer's Hand-book, 603
- Wells (Sir Spencer), Banquet to, 540
- Wentz (M. A.), Remarkable Hailstones, 45
- Wertheim (Dr.), Experiments on the Number of Visual Units in Centre of Retina, 384
- Wertheimer (J.), Sounding Coils, 262
- West Indies, Botanical Federation in the, D. Morris, 135
- West Indian Islands, Proposed Botanical Stations on, 279, 348
- Wettstein and Kerner, German Carnivorous Plants, 209
- Wexford, Primary Observations on the Geology of Wicklow and, Prof. Sollas, 591
- Wharton (Capt. W. J. L., F.R.S.), Christmas Island, 12; Masámarhu Island, 413
- Wheat Crop of 1887, Sir J. B. Lawes, 622
- White (C. P.), on the Inter-Relation of Fossil Faunas and Floras, 116
- White (William), Use of Flowers by Birds, 173
- White Races, Non-Aryan and Non-Semitic, and their Place in the History of Civilization, J. S. Stuart Glennie, 598
- Whitehead's Borneo Expedition, 279
- Wicklow Mountains, Note on a Few of the Remarkable Boulder Stones to be found along the Eastern Margin of the, Prof. Edward Hull, F.R.S., 574
- Wicklow and Wexford, Primary Observations on the Geology of, Prof. Sollas, 591
- Wiedemann (Prof. G.), on some Points in Electrolysis and Electric Conduction, 546
- Wiedersheim (Prof.), on the Degeneration of the Olfactory Organ of Certain Fishes, 592; on the Torpid State of Protopterus, 592
- Wiesbaden, Meeting of German Naturalists and Physicists at, 136
- Wilkins (M.), the Earthquake at Verboje, 230
- Wilkinson (C. S.), the Diamond-Drill Bore in Australia, 210
- Wilkinson (H. S.), on some Defects in the Ordnance Survey, 597
- Williamson (Dr. A. W.), Proposed Testimonial to, 306
- Williston (Dr. Samuel W.), North American Syrphidæ, 208
- Wilson (Andrew), Studies in Life and Sense, 316
- Wilson (Sir Chas.), the Utilization of the Ordnance Survey, 597
- Wilson (Rev. Jas. M.), Essays and Addresses, 195
- Wilson (Thos.) and Prof. Carnelley, a New Method for determining Micro-organisms in Air, 570
- Wilson-Barker (Capt. David), Upper Cloud Movements in the Equatorial Regions of the Atlantic, 197; Destruction of Young Fish, 557
- Wind-Currents, Upper, near the Equator and the Diffusion of Krakatão Dust, Hon. Ralph Abercromby, 85; E. Douglas Archibald, 152
- Winkler (Dr. Clemens), the New Element Germanium, discovered in the Freiberg Mineral Argryrodyte, 525
- Wissinger (C.), on some Derivatives of Propane, 116
- Wires which have suffered Permanent Torsion, Effects of Changes of Temperature on, Herbert Tomlinson, 263
- Wires, Expansion by Heat of, under Pulling Stress, J. T. Bottomley, 550
- Wires and Wires, Induction between, W. H. Preece, F.R.S., 549
- Wislicenus (Prof. J.), the Inter-molecular Arrangement of Atoms, 280; the Relation of Geometrical Structures to Chemical Properties, 569
- Wissmann's (Lieut.) African Expedition, 283; Return of, 431, 616
- Woelikof (Dr. A.), Eclipse of August 19, 1887
- Wolf (Prof.), Weight, Human, Diminishable by Deep Inspiration, 120
- Wood (E. Malcolm) Structure and Progress of the Forth Bridge, 353
- Wood (Theodore), our Bird Allies, 99
- Wood, Fossil, from the Western Territories of Canada, Sir J. William Dawson, F.R.S., 274
- Woodward (A. Smith), on the Affinities of the so-called Torpedo (Cyclobatis, Egerton) from the Cretaceous of Mount Lebanon, 591
- Woodward (C. J.), A B C Five-Figure Logarithms, 243
- Woodward (Dr. Henry R., F.R.S.): on the Natural History Branch of the British Museum, 345; Opening Address in Section C (Geology) at the British Association, 447
- Woodward (Horace B.), Geology of England and Wales, 218
- Words, Thought without, Francis Galton, F.R.S., 28, 100; Duke of Argyll, Dr. Hyde Clarke, 52; T. Mellard Reade, 52; Prof. F. Max Müller, 100; Colonel H. Stuart Wortley, 124; Harold Pictou, 124; Dr. Geo. J. Romanes, F.R.S., 171; Joseph John Murphy, 172; Arthur Ebbels, 173; A. Grenfell, 173; Arthur Nicols, 173
- Worms (Earth), H. B. Benham, 70
- Worsaae (J. J. A.), Pre-History of the North, Dr. John Evans, F.R.S., 97
- Wortley (Colonel H. Stuart) Thought without Words, 124
- Wright (Dr. C. R. A.) and C. Thompson, a New Class of Voltaic Combinations in which Oxidizable Metals replaced by Alterable Solutions, 166; Novel Series of Voltaic Combinations, 349; Notes on some Peculiar Voltaic Combinations, 570
- Wright (Lewis), Zirconia, 175
- Wylie (Alexander), Obituary Notice of, in Last Number of Royal Asiatic Society, 586
- Yale College, Measurement of the Pleiades, A. M. Clerke, 372
- Yellow Fever, Inoculation against, Dr. Freire, 209
- Yorkshire Naturalists' Union, 282
- Yorkshire Lias, on a Star-Fish from the, Prof. J. F. Blake, 591
- Young (Prof. C. A.): Astronomical Photography, 113; the Princeton Eclipse Expedition, 547
- Young (Dr. Sydney): on a Thermo-dynamical Relation, 23; Questions on Physics, 293
- Yukon Expedition, the, 113
- Yukon District, Geological Exploration of the, 525
- Zagazig, Boring at, 563
- Zambesi and the Limpopo, Matabeleland and the Country between the, Capt. C. E. Haynes, 595
- Zante, on the Pliocene Deposit of Marine Shells near Lattakia, and a Similar Deposit in the Island of, Dr. Geo. E. Post, 245
- Zeitschrift of the Berlin Geographical Society, 113, 589
- Zeitschrift für Physikalische Chemie, 255
- Zeitschrift für Wissenschaftliche Zoologie, 95
- Zenger (C. V.), Shooting Stars and Fires of Unknown Origin, Possible Relation between, 476
- Zenith Distances, a Short Method of Computing Refractions for all, by Schaeberle, 186
- Ziegler (Dr. J. H.), New Roshydrazine Colours, 111
- Zigang's Electric Trumpet, 160
- Zinc, Titanates of, Lucien Lévy, 432
- Zirconia, Hopkins and Williams, 53; Lewis Wright, 175
- Zirconium, the Atomic Weight of, Dr. G. H. Bailey, 568
- Zircons and other Minerals contained in Sand, Allan B. Dick, 91
- Zirknitzer Lake, Herr Putik, 564
- Zoja (Prof. G.), Measurement of the Muscular Forces in Man, 45
- Zoological Gardens, Additions to, 16, 43, 64, 90, 112, 161, 185, 138, 210, 231, 256, 263, 282, 308, 326, 350, 376, 400, 431, 454, 477, 501, 527, 542, 564, 587, 616
- Zoological Results of the *Challenger* Expedition, 26, 121
- Zoological Society, 23, 47, 71, 109, 117, 166; Prof. Flower, F.R.S., on the Jubilee, 186
- Zoology of the Voyage of H.M.S. *Challenger*, Geo. Busk, F.R.S., 74
- Zoology: a Junior Course of Practical, Prof. A. G. Bourne, 77, 102; the Teeth in the Dasypodidæ, Oldfield Thomas, 94; Zeitschrift für Wissenschaftliche Zoologie, 95; Zoology of the Caucasus, 376
- Zootrope, Attitudes of Pigeons on the Wing on, Marey, 192
- Zug, Landslip at, on July 5, 1887, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 389; Rev. E. Hill, 572

NATURE

A WEEKLY ILLUSTRATED JOURNAL OF SCIENCE.

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

THURSDAY, MAY 5, 1887.

LOOMIS'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO METEOROLOGY.

Contributions to Meteorology. By Elias Loomis, LL.D., Professor of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy in Yale College, &c. Revised Edition. Chapter II. (New Haven, Conn., 1887.)

IN Chapter I. of the revised issue of these valuable contributions to meteorology, Prof. Loomis summarised, and in some directions materially extended, the laborious investigations on which he had been engaged for the previous ten years, with reference to areas of low atmospheric pressure—their form, magnitude, direction, and velocity of movement (*NATURE*, vol. xxxiii. p. 49). In Chapter II. he similarly deals with the allied problems of meteorology which group themselves round areas of high atmospheric pressure, investigates their form, magnitude, direction, and velocity of movement, and concludes by tracing some of the more important relations of areas of high to areas of low atmospheric pressure.

It is premised that areas of high pressure exhibit characteristics quite unlike those which attend areas of low pressure. A typical example, contrasting the two sets of phenomena, is given in the great storm of February 5, 1870, where, in the centre of the Atlantic, pressure fell to 27.33 inches, whilst at the same time, and contiguous to this great cyclone, there occurred a strongly-marked anticyclone in Europe, where, over an extensive region, pressure rose to upwards of 31.00 inches. Near the centre of the cyclone the winds blew with hurricane force, but near the centre of the anticyclone the atmosphere was well-nigh calm. In the cyclone the winds circulated about the low centre in a direction contrary to the hands of a watch, with, at the same time, a decided tendency inwards upon the centre of low pressure; whereas in the anticyclone the winds circulated about the high centre in the same direction as that of the hands of a watch, with a decided tendency outwards from the centre of high pressure.

As regards their form, cyclones nearly always approxi-

mate closely to the circular, elliptical, or oval forms; but on the other hand, the departures of anticyclones from the circular form are nearly always quite palpable; indeed, we rarely find an isobar about a centre of high pressure which does not clearly deviate from the figure of an exact circle. The isobars are generally elongated, and are thus elliptical rather than circular, and the elongation is sometimes very great.

In order to ascertain the general form of the isobars of anticyclones, Prof. Loomis has examined and measured with care 238 well-defined cases, shown on the United States weather-maps. The result indicates that the average ratio of the longest to the shortest diameter was 1.91. Whilst the longest diameter may be turned in any direction, 72 per cent. of the cases occurred in the azimuth from 0° to 90°, the direction of maximum frequency being N. 44° E. It is noteworthy that these results intimately agree with those found for low-pressure areas, showing, together with other results, how intimately cyclones and anticyclones are connected.

A similar investigation has been carried through as regards these two great systems of pressure for the Atlantic and Europe. In this part of the inquiry the number of cases examined was 252, which showed that the average ratio of the longest to the shortest diameter was 1.84; and as respects the direction of the longest diameter, 69 per cent. of the cases occurred in azimuth from 40° to 130°, the direction of maximum frequency being N. 75° E. Thus, while there is a remarkable correspondence between the results for these two great regions of the globe as respects the form of anticyclonic isobars, there is not the same accord as to the prevalent direction of the longest diameter. It may be well to emphasise here this vital difference between the anticyclones of North America, and those of the much larger Europasian continent. About three-fourths of these anticyclones occurred during the six colder months of the year.

When an area of high pressure is situated between two areas of low pressure not far apart from each other, the anticyclone generally takes a very elongated form, and sometimes the isobars surrounding this high area extend a distance of several thousand miles, with but little

curvature. The isobars for January 14, 1876, show between one widespread low-pressure area over the North Atlantic and Arctic Oceans, and another over the Mediterranean, a belt of high pressure, with nearly straight and parallel isobars of 30·3 and 30·5 inches, extending from south-west to north-east for about 3000 miles.

With the view of throwing some light on the origin of anticyclones, all those cases in the States in which the barometer rose to 30·85 inches or upwards during the twelve years ending with 1884 were examined. Of such anticyclones there were fifty-two cases, distributed as follows: in October one, November ten, December eight, January fourteen, February sixteen, and March three; the earliest having occurred on October 26, and the latest on March 12. The majority of the whole number of cases occurred north of lat. 46°, only two being south of lat. 40°; and the influence of longitude was equally strongly marked: 82 per cent. of the cases occurred west of long. 90° W., and nearly half of the number west of long. 100° W. These areas of high pressure indicate a general movement towards the south-east, the prevalent direction being S. 40° E. at a mean velocity of twenty-one miles an hour.

An instructive point in the history of anticyclones is the low temperature which accompanies them. It is shown from a somewhat exhaustive examination that, when pressure is unusually high, temperature is generally very much below the mean, and that the amount of the depression increases with the height of the barometer; and it is further shown that with a given barometric pressure the temperature depression is greatest in the neighbourhood of Manitoba, or approximately in the centre of the continent. These relations are sometimes shown on the weather-maps with a surprising closeness, of which an instructive instance is figured on Plate XXV., which gives the isobars and thermic isabnormals for December 24, 1872. In the case of the more strongly pronounced anticyclones, the depression of the temperature below the mean for the season is on the average 38°·7. The maximum temperature depression may occur in any direction from the place of highest pressure, but it is generally about 400 miles distant from it, and most frequently on its northern side. Indeed, in only 12 per cent. of the cases examined did the place of greatest temperature depression correspond exactly with the place of highest pressure. Similar relations exist as regards the summer anticyclones, with the important differences that their maximum pressure is generally about half an inch less than that of winter cyclones, and their temperature depression below the mean of the season only about 8°·0.

The average breadth of the American anticyclones is 2587 miles, which is nearly equal to the breadth of the continent in lat. 40°, and an examination of the maps of the *International Bulletin* show that a large number of high-pressure areas are 4000 miles in length. The average distance from the centre of an anticyclone to the centre of the cyclone on its east side is 2371 miles, and to the centre of the cyclone on its west is 2381 miles, being thus nearly equal. Since, however, the average value of the lowest isobars of the cyclones on the east side is 29·190 inches, and on the west 29·570 inches, it follows that the gradients on the east side of the United States anticyclones are about twice as great as those on

the west side. This is an extremely valuable result, as showing the powerful influence of the Atlantic in lowering atmospheric pressure, and thus intensifying storms as they near its seaboard in their course eastwards. Indeed, as regards those cyclones which show a pressure not exceeding 29·00 inches at their centre—in other words, the more important storms—five-sixths of the number occurred near the Atlantic. The cases examined numbered 131, and were distributed through the months as follows, beginning with January: 14, 16, 25; 10, 4, 1; 0, 2, 2; 7, 26, and 24; there having thus occurred 105 during the five months from November to March, and only 5 during the four months from June to September.

It is shown that, while an area of extraordinarily high pressure uniformly has an area of low pressure both on its east and west sides, the barometer in these areas seldom sinks very low, and when it does sink very low the centre of the low pressure is very remote; and on the other hand that an area of very low pressure has an area of high pressure both on its east and west sides, but in these areas of high pressure the barometer seldom rises very high.

As regards anticyclones, Prof. Loomis makes it abundantly clear that the height to which pressure rises in their centres is approximately proportioned to the depression of temperature over the region at the time. In these circumstances, the air, being condensed by the cold, sinks more and more into the lower regions of the atmosphere, thus leaving a less pressure in the upper regions than prevails all round at these heights, and consequently upper currents set in all round towards and upon the anticyclonic region, by which its high pressure is further increased. Hence it follows that it is over one and the same region, viz. the more inland portions of the European continent, where depressions of temperature are greatest, most widespread, and most persistent, and where the best-pronounced anticyclones occur in the colder months of the year. This state of things is entirely due to the great extent of the Old continent, by which a very large portion of it is remote from the disturbing influence of the ocean. The same cause explains a singular feature of the anticyclones of this part of the globe, viz. the absence they frequently show, sometimes for weeks together, of any movement of translation over the earth's surface, being so different in this respect from the anticyclones of the comparatively narrow continent of America, which have a distinctly progressive movement towards the south-east, already referred to.

On the other hand, low pressures are distinguished by the relatively high temperature which accompanies them. The highest temperature occurs about 300 miles on the south or east side of the low centre of the cyclone, the average excess above the mean temperature being 22°·3. No inconsiderable part of the low pressure of cyclones is occasioned by the high temperature and excessive moisture which accompanies them. But, while all, or nearly all, of the high pressure of anticyclones may be accounted for by the very low temperatures which over-spread the same region at the same time along with the resulting upper currents concentrating upon them from adjoining cyclonic regions, it is quite different with the low pressures of cyclones. In the case of cyclones the

problem is complicated by the strong winds, the copious precipitation, and the ascending currents, which affect the results in ways which no physicist has yet been able to explain.

The problem of the weather would be immensely simplified if it could be explained, first, how it is that air highly heated and approximately saturated with aqueous vapour comes to overspread a definite well-marked region, usually a very extensive one, while the atmosphere over contiguous regions remains relatively cold and dry; and, secondly, how the low temperature which is so characteristic a feature of anticyclones and of the rear of cyclones has its origin. The complete changes which weather-maps show us to take place in these respects over enormous tracts of the earth's surface within even such brief spaces of time as twenty-four hours, point to volumes and velocities of translation of masses of air through the upper currents which meteorologists have yet scarcely taken cognisance of. Prof. Loomis's paper is a well-worked-out and valuable contribution towards the solution of this all-important practical problem.

THE GAME OF LOGIC.

The Game of Logic. By Lewis Carroll. (London: Macmillan and Co., 1887.)

MR. "LEWIS CARROLL'S" new book has both the merit and the sterility which might be expected from a fresh and rather independent system of diagrammatic or visual logic. That is to say, it is ingenious and closely worked out, but cannot be said to advance either our theoretic knowledge of reasoning processes or the more practical craft of dealing with assertions and arguments as found in ordinary life. Perhaps so trying a standard ought not in fairness to be applied to the work before us, which is intended—so the preface and the title hint—to amuse those who would otherwise play with some less instructive puzzle. But it is because it seems unlikely that "The Game of Logic" will be patiently studied as a game, or would reward such patience by providing "an endless source of amusement," that one is inclined to consider it rather as a contribution to visual logic than to any other form of literature.

Technically speaking, the propositions contemplated are "extensive" and "existential." That is to say, all assertions are supposed to be concerned with things as members of classes, and to be translatable into the form "Of the class ux there are none (or 'some') which are uy "; so that, for example, "I feel much better" becomes (pp. 59, 70, and 9) "Of the class of persons who are I, there are none who do not feel much better, and there are some who do"; and "There is no one in the house but John" becomes "Of the class of persons who are not John, none are in the house." Of course these are here chosen as examples of difficulty in translation: a great many propositions can be much more naturally treated as expressing class-relations.

Every assertion is thus supposed to perform two functions: it provides a certain number of labelled compartments, and it tells us that one or more of these is either empty or "occupied." If, for example, we regard a given proposition as containing only two terms, x and y , the compartments provided are four in number: xy ,

x non- y , non- x y , and non- x non- y . (Mr. Lewis Carroll however adopts Mr. Maccoll's neater notation for the negative terms.) And if two such propositions have one term in common—say, if the first speaks of x and m , and the second of y and m —the two can be taken together as one complex assertion providing eight compartments, and giving, under certain conditions, more information about x and y than is to be found in either proposition when taken singly.

As regards the division of the universe into compartments, there is little to distinguish Mr. Lewis Carroll's system from others which, like Boole's or Jevons', make use of a similar framework; and nothing to distinguish it from Mr. Venn's, except the form of picture employed. But the special features consist in (1) making all affirmative propositions assume the real existence of the subject, and (2) providing for the expression of certain forms of proposition which are usually found difficult to put into diagrams. For example, by means of the restricted sense given to the assertion that a compartment is *occupied*, the "particular" proposition, which often causes trouble, becomes easily expressed. In Mr. Venn's scheme, propositions either tell us that a compartment is empty or else tell us nothing about it, whereas here the information that a compartment is *occupied* (meaning merely "not empty") can also be distinctly given; so that to mark the compartment xy as "occupied" expresses "some x are y " and "some y are x " together. Again, "some x exist," "no x exist," and "only some x are y " are readily and neatly represented; and a distinction, due to the assumption of real existence, is drawn between "all x are y " and "no x are non- y ," and similarly between "no x are y " and "all x are non- y ."

The author is in one or two instances not quite fair to the more old-fashioned logicians. It is not the case, as stated on p. 30, that those who regard the universal negative as asserting incompatibility of attributes would therefore regard the assertion "No policemen are eight feet high" as *false*. They might rather be inclined to consider any such *a priori* treatment of it as a case of *petitio principii*, since, if the assertion be supposed to intend giving information at all, the question whether or no the attributes *are* compatible is supposed to be at issue. Again, there are probably few logicians in existence who would simply turn away with scorn from the premises given on p. 35. Even the more pedantic would rather suggest that a very slight verbal alteration performed on the minor premise by recognised processes (conversion and obversion) would give a legitimate syllogism in *celarent*. But no doubt Mr. Lewis Carroll's method deals with such premises more directly.

It is held by some who ought to know, that logic might be taught at a much earlier age than is now the fashion; and possibly the book should be regarded as an attempt to make a beginning in this direction. If so, the advantages and disadvantages of the scheme seem about evenly balanced. Certainly the diagram is simple to draw, full in its information, and easily read; but these good qualities are gained at some expense. The difficulty of forcing all assertions into the forms of class-inclusion is not indeed peculiar to Mr. Lewis Carroll's system; but the assumption of the real existence of the subject leads, in certain cases, to additional troubles of interpretation.

For example, the whole range of hypothetical and abstract assertions would require to undergo some preliminary torture: wherever a sentence intends to assert that one fact conditions another, without expressing an opinion as to the actual fulfilment of the condition, we should have to contrapose the sentence and restrict it to the negative form. Thus "policemen seven feet high would attract a crowd" seems to require reading: "Things that would fail to attract a crowd are not policemen seven feet high"—a form which most children would think unnatural. Indirectly the child might learn, by this system as well as by any other, that the real difficulty of avoiding logical blunders lies more in translating ordinary language into carefully-defined symbols, than in the operations afterwards performed by merely mechanical rules. But teachers who desire rather to show by diagrams the direct binding force of deductive reasoning would do well to select for illustration those propositions which can be most simply and naturally regarded as expressing the "extensive" comparison of classes. It is only fair to Mr. Lewis Carroll to add that the examples he provides for exercise will not perhaps do more to keep alive the notion that logic is trivial than many of those that are given in perfectly sober text-books. As things are, the junior student seems, not unnaturally, to believe that the safest plan of answering logical conundrums is to find out the most ingenious and roundabout way of avoiding the answer that would be dictated by common-sense. It is worth considering whether the correction of this tendency is not a more pressing need in the teaching of elementary logic than even the best new variations on the old surprise of finding that absurdity in matter is no bar to legitimacy in form.

ALFRED SIDGWICK.

OUR BOOK SHELF.

Nitrate of Soda: its Importance and Use as a Manure. A Prize Essay. By A. Stutzer, Ph.D., re-written and edited by P. Wagner, Ph.D. (London: Whittaker and Co., 1887.)

IN the spring of 1885 a committee of South American nitrate of soda manufacturers offered a prize for the best popular essay on the above subject. The judges were Profs. Grandeau (France), Adolf Mayer (Holland), Petermann (Belgium), Thoms (Russia), P. Wagner (Germany), and Mr. Warington (England). The prize was divided between two of the competitors, Dr. A. Stutzer, President of the Bonn Agricultural Experiment Station, and Prof. Adolphe Damseaux, of Gembloux.

The book now presented embodies the main points of Dr. Stutzer's essay, combined with the views expressed by the committee of judges, and important matter contained in the second prize essay. The subject is divided into two parts, in the first of which theoretical questions as to the advantages to be derived from the use of nitrate of soda are ably and thoroughly sifted, and the error of many popular prejudices is exposed. The important question of the impoverishment of the soil is carefully discussed, and the conclusion arrived at that it causes an increased consumption of nutrient substances only in proportion to the increase of crop, and does not increase the percentage of potash and phosphoric acid in the crop, and even that a larger crop is produced with proportionally smaller use of the two latter materials. It is also shown that, although nitrate of soda does cause a large increase of straw, yet it quite as certainly causes an increase in the quantity of grain.

The second portion of the book contains very clear instructions for the use of nitrate of soda with various crops, and will prove a capital practical guide for farmers.

A. E. T.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

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

[The Editor urgently requests correspondents to keep their letters as short as possible. The pressure on his space is so great that it is impossible otherwise to insure the appearance even of communications containing interesting and novel facts.]

Units of Weight, Mass, and Force.

IN a letter to NATURE, dated March 29, I stated that we have "no names for units of velocity, acceleration, impulse, momentum, &c." This cannot be said now. Through the kindness of Messrs. Macmillan and Co., I have, this morning, received a copy of "Dynamics for Beginners," by the Rev. J. B. Lock, M.A. In this book the units of velocity and of acceleration are named a velo, and a celo, respectively. Other units also have received names, "the use of which" (as the author justly observes) "will be found to simplify considerably the language of the subject." The preface to this book is dated April 1887.

Bardsea, April 23.

EDWARD GEOGHEGAN.

Earthquake in the Western Riviera.

AN interesting fact in connexion with the late disastrous earthquake which did such damage along the Western Riviera of Liguria on the morning of February 23 last, and with which I only lately became acquainted through my friend Dr. Bellotti, of Milan, who was at Nice at the time, is that during the days immediately following the catastrophe quite a large number of deep-sea fish were taken dead or half dead in shallow water or found stranded on the beach. This happened more especially in the immediate neighbourhood of Nice, whose sea, as that of Messina, has long been well-known for its richness in deep-sea fish.

I have since taken the pains to inquire more fully into the subject, which has a very special interest for me, and through Gal freres I have learnt that the following species were taken: *Alepocephalus rostratus* (mostly dead and floating), numerous; *Pomatomus telescopium*, several; *Tetragonurus cuvieri*, one specimen; *Dentex macropthalmus*, many; *Scopelus elongatus*, several; *Scopelus humboldti*, several; *Spinax niger*, abundant.

Alepocephalus rostratus is a typical deep-sea form, only found as yet, and rarely, during the summer along the Western Riviera by deep-sea liners.

Several of the fish above mentioned are in my possession.

Firenze, April 20.

HENRY H. GIGLIOLI.

The Boiling-Point and Pressure.

A VERY convenient lecture experiment to show that the boiling-point of liquids is lowered by diminishing the pressure of the surrounding medium, may be made with one of Ducretet's carbon-dioxide tubes. The lower part of the tube contains the CO₂ in the liquid condition, while the upper part is, of course, filled with the same body in the gaseous state. By subjecting this upper half of the tube to a jet of ether spray, the pressure of the inclosed gas will gradually diminish, and after a few seconds the liquid below will enter into brisk ebullition.

The experiment is readily adaptable for projection on a screen.

M. F. O'REILLY.

St. Joseph's College, Clapham.

A Sparrow chasing Pigeons.

MR. J. JENNER WEIR (NATURE, vol. xxxv. p. 584) says that he has never observed a sparrow to chase a pigeon *except when on the wing*. I wish to say that I have frequently witnessed the occurrence, having kept pigeons for a number of years. I have

often seen sparrows chase pigeons on the house-tops, particularly when the former have had their nests in the vicinity. One season, about ten years ago, I well remember the annoyance these impudent birds caused to the pigeons, for whenever the latter were let out in the morning to air themselves the sparrows would immediately attack them and continue the harassment without intermission all day long. On one occasion, during the same year, I recollect a very amusing scene between a cock sparrow and a cock tumbler pigeon. The former had just flown on to the house-top with a large piece of bread in his bill, when the pigeon advanced rapidly towards him with the intention of seizing the dainty morsel. The plucky sparrow, however, was in readiness for him, and dropping the bread he made a bold onslaught on his larger feathered relation, pecking vigorously at his rear quarters. The pigeon not expecting an attack from such an insignificant foe, and being utterly unprepared for a "round," did not attempt to use its wings as weapons, as is its custom, but contented itself with cooing, and aiming a few rapid pecks with its beak, and then ignominiously took to flight, leaving a few feathers behind in its hurry. No sooner, however, had it quitted the field than about half a dozen other sparrows, who had been sitting on the chimney-pots in the neighbourhood watching the affray, dashed after it and chased it round and round the house, about half a dozen times, before they considered that it had had sufficient punishment. Such is an example of the annoyance my pigeons were sometimes subjected to by the sparrows. I may add that I have frequently observed sparrows and starlings fighting, and also on one occasion saw a sparrow chase a jackdaw which had evidently been attempting to take the sparrow's eggs or young ones. The records of a few other curious instances of birds fighting which I will briefly extract from my diary may perhaps be interesting. "1880 May. Saw a starling attack and drive away two jackdaws which had gone in quest of its eggs. 1880 June. Saw a cloud of redpolls chase a cuckoo. 1883 June. Witnessed a desperate fight between a flock of jackdaws and a heron, in mid air. 1885 June. Saw a skylark chase a cuckoo and drive it away. 1885 August. Saw a mistletoe thrush chase a sparrow-hawk and drive it away. 1886 July. Witnessed a great battle between a large flock of starlings and a flock of rooks, the former having invaded the feeding-grounds of the latter."

W. HARCOURT BATH.

Ladywood, Birmingham, April 25.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY SELECTED CANDIDATES.

THE following is the list of the fifteen candidates selected by the Council of the Royal Society, at their meeting last Thursday, to be recommended for election into the Society. The ballot will take place on Thursday, June 9, at 4 p.m. We print with the name of each of the candidates the statement of his qualifications.

JOHN YOUNG BUCHANAN, M.A. (Glasgow),

F.R.S.E., F.C.S. Chemist and Physicist to the *Challenger* Expedition, 1872-76. Invented and improved apparatus and methods for collecting and analysing ocean water. Author of "Report of the Specific Gravity of Ocean Water" (Part 2, vol. i., of "The Voyage of H.M.S. *Challenger*"). Since the return of the *Challenger*, Mr. Buchanan has continued his investigations in the steam-yacht specially fitted up by him for the purpose. The following are the titles of some of the papers contributed by him to scientific Transactions and Journals: "Sur l'acide chloropropionique" (*Comp. Rend.*, lxx., p. 417); "On the Formation and Decomposition of some Chlorinated Acids" (*Proc. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, vii., p. 419); "On the Absorption of Carbonic Acid by Saline Solutions" (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, xxii., pp. 192 and 483); "On the Specific Gravity of Ocean Water" (*Proc. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, ix., 283); "On the Compressibility of Glass" (*Trans. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, 1880); "On a Solar Calorimeter, and some Observations made with it in Upper Egypt" (*Proc. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, xi., 827).

J. THEODORE CASH, M.D., C.M.,

Has devoted himself to physiological and pharmacological science, and has made discoveries in these as described in the following works, of which he is the author:—"On the Relationship between the Muscle and its Contraction" (*Journ. Anat. Phys.*, vol. xv.); "Ueber den Antheil des Magens und des Pankreas an der Verdauung des Fettes" (*Arch. für Physiol.*,

1880); "Description of a Double Cardiograph for the Frog's Heart" (*Journ. of Physiol.*, vol. iv.). With Dr. Lauder Brunton:—"Contributions to our Knowledge of the Connexion between Chemical Constitution, Physiological Action and Antagonism" (*Phil. Trans.*, 1884); "Action of Alkaloids on Oxidation" (*St. Barth. Hosp. Rept.*, vol. xviii.); "Influence of Heat and Cold on Muscles poisoned by Veratria" (*Journ. of Physiol.*, vol. iv.); "On the Valvular Action of the Larynx" (*Journ. Anat. Phys.*, vol. xvii.); "On the Effect of Electrical Stimulation of the Frog's Heart, and its Modification by Heat, Cold, and the Action of Drugs" (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, vol. xxxv.); "Ueber Vorbeugende Gegengifte" (*Centralb. für d. Med. Wiss.*, 1884); and several other papers. With Dr. Yeo:—"The Effects of certain Modifying Influences on the Latent Period of Muscle Contraction" (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, vol. xxxiii.); "The Variations of Latency in certain Skeletal Muscles" (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, vol. xxxv.); "On the Relationship between the Active Phases of Contraction and the Latent Period of Skeletal Muscle" (*Journ. of Physiol.*, vol. iv.).

SIR JAMES NICHOLAS DOUGLASS,

Civil and Mechanical Engineer. Engineer-in-Chief to the Hon. Corporation of Trinity House. Is a Member of the Smeatonian Society of Civil Engineers and a Member of the Council of the Inst. Civ. Eng. Member Inst. Mech. Eng. Has been attached to coast signalling since 1847, and the development of electricity for coast lighting since 1862. Has designed and erected several rock lighthouses on the coasts of this country and abroad; some of these works being of exceptional difficulty, for which he received on two occasions a testimonial from the Hon. Corporation of Trinity House. He designed and erected the new Eddystone Lighthouse. On the completion of this work he received the honour of knighthood. He has very materially improved the optical apparatus, lamps, lanterns, and fog-signal apparatus of lighthouses and light-vessels. Is the author of several papers. For one on "The Wolf Rock Lighthouse," and another on "The Electric Light applied to Lighthouse Illumination" (*Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng.*, vols. xxx. and lvii.), he received the Telford and Watt Gold Medals of the Institution of Civil Engineers.

PROF. J. A. EWING, B.Sc. (Edin.),

Professor of Engineering, University College, Dundee. Author of papers contributed to the Royal Society treating of the Thermo-electric quality of metals; the Electric effect due to twisting Iron and Steel wire when magnetised; and various papers on the Magnetic Qualities of Iron and Steel, all of which have been published (see *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, Nos. 205, 210, 214, 216, 220, and the present volume of the Transactions). Well known for his work in connexion with the observation and recording of Earthquake Phenomena, having contributed numerous papers on this subject to the Seismological Society of Japan; is also joint author with the late Prof. Fleeming Jenkin of several papers communicated to the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and published in the Transactions of that Society. Was for five years in Japan as Professor of Engineering, and has held his present Chair (Dundee) for two and a half years.

PROF. GEORGE FORBES, M.A.,

F.R.S. Edin., F.R.A.S. Member of the Astronomische Gesellschaft, of the Electro-technical Society of Vienna, and of the Society of Telegraph-Engineers. Associate of the Inst. Civil Engineers. Chevalier of the Legion of Honour. Formerly Professor of Natural Philosophy at Anderson's College, Glasgow. Consulting Engineer (Electrical). Author of the following amongst other papers:—"On the Meteoric Shower of November 14, 1866" (*Phil. Mag.*, 1867); "On the Meteor-Shower of August 1867"; "On Astronomical Refraction"; "On certain Connexions between the Molecular Properties of Metals"; "On Irradiation"; "On Thermal Conductivity"; "On an Instrument for Indicating and Measuring the Fire-damp in Mines," &c. (*Brit. Assoc. Rep.*, 1867, 1872, 1873, 1878, &c.); "Note on the Zodiacal Light"; "On the After-glow of Cooling Iron at a Dull Red Heat"; "On Diamagnetic Rotation"; "On Comets"; "On the Theory of the Telephone"; "On an Ultra-Neptunian Planet, &c." (*Proc. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, vols. viii., ix., x.); "On the Velocity of White and Coloured Light" (in conjunction with the late Dr. James Young, F.R.S.—*Phil. Trans.*, 1882). Also author or joint author of the following separate works, published by Macmillan & Co.—I. "The Transit of Venus"; II. "Rendu's Theory of Glaciers."

WILLIAM RICHARD GOWERS, M.D. (Lond.),

F.R.C.P. Fellow of University College, London. Physician to University College Hospital, and to the National Hospital for the Paralysed and Epileptic. Distinguished as a Physiologist and Physician. Attached to science and anxious to promote its progress. Contributor of papers on:—"The Automatic Action of the Sphincter Ani" (Proc. Roy. Soc., 1877); "The Decupation of the Optic Nerves" (*Centralb. für d. Med. Wiss.*, 1878); "The Enumeration of Blood-Corpuscles" (*Practitioner*, 1878); "The Estimation of Hæmoglobin" (Trans. Clin. Soc., 1878); "The Nature of the So-called Tendon-reflex Phenomena" (Trans. Roy. Med. Chir. Soc., vol. lxii.); "The Mechanism of the Movements of the Eyelids" (*ibid.*); "A Reflex Mechanism in the Fixation of the Eyeballs" (*Brain*, vol. ii.); "The Relation of the Fifth Nerve to Taste" (*Journ. of Phys.*, 1883); "The Origin of the Sixth Nerve" (*Centralb. für d. Med. Wiss.*, 1878); "Unilateral Lesion of the Spinal Cord" (Trans. Clin. Soc., vol. xi.). Author of treatises:—"Manual and Atlas of Medical Ophthalmoscopy," second edition; "Epilepsy and other Chronic Convulsive Diseases;" "Diagnosis of Diseases of the Spinal Cord," second edition; "Diagnosis of Diseases of the Brain;" "Pseudo-hypertrophic Muscular Paralysis;" "Diseases of the Walls of the Heart;" "Leucocythæmia;" "Hodgkin's Disease;" "Reynold's System of Medicine;" "Path. Anat. of Hydrophobia;" "Mode of Development of Spindle Cells," &c., &c.

ALEXANDER BLACKIE WILLIAM KENNEDY, M.I.C.E.

Civil Engineer. Professor of Engineering and Mechanical Technology, University College, London. Has rendered considerable services to Engineering Education by the establishment of an Engineering Laboratory at University College, and by his investigations there made into the strength of materials (*Journ. Soc. Arts*, 1875). The students are there taught systematic experimental work, and the plan first introduced by Prof. Kennedy has been generally followed. Tests were there made on strength and elasticity for the Indian Government, and accounts of other tests are given in the reports on riveted joints for Institution of Mechanical Engineers, and in a paper on mild steel written for Roy. Inst. Brit. Architects. He translated and edited "Theoretische Kinematik." He is the author of numerous papers connected with Engineering, as the "Critical Description of the Steam-Engines, &c.," in the Vienna Exhibition, 1873 (*Engineering*, June, December, 1873); "Air-Engines" (*Engineering*, 1875); "Geometrical Solutions of some Statical Problems" (Proc. Lond. Math. Soc., vol. ix.). He has also designed the iron and concrete framework and roof of the new Alhambra Theatre.

GEORGE KING, M.B.,

F.L.S. Superintendent of the Royal Botanical Gardens, Calcutta, and of the Government Cinchona Plantations of Darjeeling. Formerly Superintendent of the Botanical Gardens of Saharunpur. Author of "Notes on the Lion of Aboo" (Proc. Asiat. Soc. Beng., 1868); "On the Birds of the Goona District" (*Journ. Asiat. Soc. Beng.*, 1868); "Notes on the Vegetable Products and Farm Foods of Rajpootana and Marwan;" "Observations on the genus *Ficus*, and on the Fertilisation of *F. hispida*;" "A Monograph of Indian Fici" (in course of publication). Eminent as an Indian Botanist and Quinologist, and for the services he has rendered to Botanists and Naturalists in India.

SIR JOHN KIRK, G.C.M.G., M.D.,

F.L.S. H.M. Agent and Consul-General, Zanzibar. Chief Officer and Naturalist of Dr. Livingstone's Government Expedition to the Zambesi, Nyassa Country (1858-63), during which he made large collections, observations, and drawings of great scientific value. Author of numerous contributions to the Botany, Zoology, and Geography of Eastern Tropical Africa, published in the Journals of the Linnean and Zoological Societies, the *Ibis*, &c. During Sir John Kirk's residence, of nearly twenty years, in Zanzibar, he has rendered most important services to the various Expeditions despatched by English and Foreign Governments and by private bodies for the exploration of Central Africa, directing their routes, superintending their equipments, and encouraging them in the formation and transmission of Zoological, Botanical, and Ethnological Collections.

OLIVER JOSEPH LODGE, D.Sc. (Lond.),

Professor of Physics in University College, Liverpool. Distinguished for his acquaintance with the science of Physics. Author of numerous papers on Physics published in the *Philosophical Magazine*, Proceedings of the Physical Society of London, Reports of the British Association, and elsewhere, including (among many others) the following:—"On some Problems connected with the flow of Electricity in a Plane;" "On a Model illustrating mechanically the passage of Electricity through Metals, Electrolytes, and Dielectrics according to Maxwell's Theory;" "On a Mechanical Illustration of Thermo-electric Phenomena;" "On a Modification of Mance's Method of measuring Battery Resistance;" "On a Method of measuring absolutely the Thermal Conductivity of Crystals;" "An attempt at a Systematic Classification of some of the Forms of Energy;" "On Intermittent Currents and the Theory of the Induction Balance;" "On the Dimensions of a Magnetic Pole in the Electrostatic System of Units;" "On the Phenomena exhibited by Dusty Air in the neighbourhood of strongly Illuminated Bodies" (jointly with the late J. W. Clark); "On the seat of Electromotive Force in the Galvanic Circuit;" "On the Identity of Energy;" "On Electrolysis;" author of a book on "The Elements of Mechanics" (W. and R. Chambers).

PROF. JOHN MILNE,

F.G.S., Associate and Hon. Fellow of King's Coll. Lond. Royal Exhibitioner at Royal School of Mines, Lond. Professor of Mining and Geology in the Imperial College of Engineering, Department of Public Works, Japan. Studied in Freiberg; travelled in Iceland; engaged, in 1873-74, in mining in Newfoundland; accompanied Dr. Beke as geologist to North-West Arabia; travelled across Russia, Siberia, Mongolia, and China to Japan; visited the Kurile Islands, the Corean frontier, California, &c. Author of "Travelling Notes" (*Geol. Mag.*, 1877, pp. 237, 289, 389, 459, 511, 557; 1878, pp. 29, 62); "The Volcano of Oshima" (*op. cit.*, 1877, p. 193); "On the Form of Volcanoes" (*op. cit.*, 1878, p. 337, pl. IX.; and 1879, p. 506); "The Volcanoes of the Kurile Islands" (*op. cit.*, 1879, p. 337, pl. IX.); "On the Cooling of the Earth" (*op. cit.*, 1880, p. 99); "Physical Features and Mineralogy of Newfoundland" (*Quart. Journ. Geol. Soc.*, 1874, vol. xxx., p. 722); "Geological Notes on the Sinaitic Peninsula and N.W. Arabia" (*ibid.*, vol. xxxi., pp. 1-28); "Seismic Science in Japan" (Trans. Seismol. Soc., Yedo, vol. i., pp. 1-34); "The Earthquake of February 22, 1880" (*op. cit.*, vol. i., part ii., pp. 1-116); "The Earthquakes of Yedo Plain" (*ibid.*, vol. ii., pp. 1-38); "The Peruvian Earthquake of May 9, 1877" (*ibid.*, vol. ii., pp. 51-96); "Experiments in Seismology" (*ibid.*, vol. iii., pp. 12-64); "Notes on the Great Earthquakes of Japan" (*ibid.*, vol. iii., pp. 65-102); "The Earthquake of March 8, 1881" (*ibid.*, pp. 127-136); "Distribution of Seismic Activity in Japan" (vol. iv., pp. 1-30); "The Systematic Observation of Earthquakes" (*ibid.*, vol. iv., pp. 87-117; joint papers with Mr. T. Gray, B.Sc., F.R.S.E.); "On Seismic Experiments" (*Phil. Trans.*, 1882, and Proc. Roy. Soc., 1881); "Earthquake Observations in Japan" (*Phil. Mag.*, November 1881); "Elasticity and Strength, Constants of Certain Rocks" (1882); "Reports on Investigation of the Earthquake Phenomena of Japan" (Brit. Assoc. Rep., 1881 and 1882). Intrusted with three grants from British Association for the investigation of earthquake phenomena. Author of numerous other papers on geology, mineralogy, mining, &c. Has specially devoted himself to the study of earth-movements.

REV. OCTAVIUS PICKARD-CAMBRIDGE, M.A.,

Rector of Bloxworth, Dorset. Distinguished for his acquaintance with Zoology, particularly Arachnology. Has published the following works:—"A History of British Spiders to 1881," entitled "Spiders of Dorset," with Preface and General Introduction in two vols., pp. 1-625, plates 1-6; numerous papers in the Proc. Zool. Soc. of London, especially "On the Spiders of Palestine and Egypt from 1869 to 1883;" article "Arachnida" in "Encyclop. Brit.," 1874; articles "Arachnida" in "Zoological Record," 1870-1883; numerous papers "On Arachnida of various Countries" in *Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist.*, 1860-83; articles "On British Spiders" in Trans. Linn. Soc., 1868-70; articles "On British and Exotic Spiders" in Proc. Linn. Soc., vols. x. and xi.

GEORGE JAMES SNELUS,

A.R.S.M., F.C.S., Memb. I.M.E. Metallurgist. Is distinguished as a chemist and metallurgical engineer. He was the first to make pure steel from phosphoric pig iron in a Bessemer converter lined with basic materials, a discovery of national importance, for which he was, in 1883, awarded the Bessemer Gold Medal of the Iron and Steel Institute. He has developed points of much scientific interest in connexion with the mode of existence of carbon and silicon in iron and steel, and has specially studied the liquidation of fluid bodies during the solidification of steel. He has also conducted important researches on the relation between the chemical composition and mechanical properties of steel used for rails. Is the author of the following papers:—"On the Condition of Carbon and Silicon in Iron and Steel"; "On the Composition of the Gases evolved from the Bessemer Converter"; "On the Scientific Features of the Danks' Puddling Furnace"; "On the Manufacture and Use of Spiegeleisen"; "On Fire-Clay and other Refractory Materials"; "On the Direct Process of Steel Making"; "On the Removal of Phosphorus and Sulphur in the Bessemer Process"; "On the Distribution of Elements in Steel Ingots"; "On the Chemical Composition and Testing of Steel Rails."

THOMAS LORD WALSHINGHAM.

Trustee of the British Museum. A practical Entomologist and ardent student and collector of the Microlepidoptera, of which he has an extensive private collection. In 1872, Lord Walsingham made a special expedition to Northern California and Oregon, and besides forming a large series of the Microlepidoptera of that district, many of which were unknown, obtained a good collection of other Natural History specimens, which he presented to the Cambridge Museum.—[ADDENDUM.—Author of "Catalogue of North American Tortricidae in the British Museum," 4to., being Part 4 of "Illustrations of Typical Specimens of Lepidoptera Heterocera," 1879, and published by the Trustees. "On some Probable Causes of a Tendency to Melanic Variation in Lepidoptera of High Latitudes" (Presidential Address, Trans. Yorksh. Nat. Union, 1885); and various papers in the Trans. Ent. Soc. and Proc. Zool. Soc., 1880-84.]

WILLIAM WHITAKER, B.A. (Lond.),

F.G.S. Assoc. Inst. C.E. District Surveyor on the Geological Survey of England and Wales. Contributor to, or author of, ten of the Memoirs of the Geological Survey, among these being—"The Geology of the London Basin"; "The Geology of the N.W. part of Essex, and the Geology of the country round Ipswich"; "of Papers in the Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society on the "Western end of the London Basin"; "The Lower Tertiaries of Kent"; "On some Borings in Kent, and other subjects"; and of many other papers on geology, more especially of the Cretaceous and Tertiary Beds, and on the subject of water-supply. Has also drawn up many lists valuable to the student of geological literature, and was for several years Editor of the *Geological Record*. Awarded the Murchison Medal of the Geological Society, 1886.

THE PARIS ASTRONOMICAL CONGRESS.

WE have now received a considerable instalment of the *procès-verbaux* of the sittings of the Conference, and although those of the final meeting are not yet to hand, we think it important to give, in continuation of our article in a recent number, an account of the work done, so far as the information has reached us, the Conference having sat every day, except Sunday, from the 16th to the 25th.

The meetings, which took place in the large hall of the Paris Observatory, were attended by the following astronomers and physicists, the names being given alphabetically:—Auwers, Berlin; Baillaud, Toulouse; Bakhuyzen, Leyden; Bertrand, Paris; Beuf, La Plata; Bouquet de la Grye, Paris; Brunner, Paris; Christie, Greenwich; Cloué, Paris; Common, Ealing; Cornu, Paris; Cruls, Brazil; Donner, Helsingfors; Dunér, Lund; Eder, Vienna; Elkin, America; Faye, Paris;

Fizeau, Paris; Folie, Brussels; Gautier, Geneva; Gill, Cape of Good Hope; Gylden, Stockholm; Hasselberg, Pulkova; Henry (Brothers), Paris; Janssen, Meudon; Kapteyn, Gröningen; Knobel, London; Krueger, Kiel; Laussedat, Paris; Liard, Paris; Löwy, Paris; Lohse, Potsdam; Mouchez, Paris; Oom, Lisbon; Oudemans, Utrecht; Pechüle, Copenhagen; Perrier, Paris; Perry, Stonyhurst; Peters, Clinton; Pujazon, Cadiz; Rayet, Bordeaux; Roberts, Liverpool; Russel, Sydney; Schönfeld, Bonn; Steinheil, Munich; Struve, Pulkova; Tacchini, Rome; Tennant, Ealing; Thiele, Copenhagen; Tisserand, Paris; Trépied, Algiers; Vogel, Potsdam; Weiss, Vienna; Winterhalter, Washington; Wolf, Paris. With a few exceptions we have in this list all the men engaged in astronomical photography.

In our former article we gave an account of the first general meeting, held on April 16. The second took place on the 19th. The names of those present were as follows:—

President, M. Struve; Vice-President, Mr. Christie; Messrs. Auwers, Baillaud, Bakhuyzen, Beuf, Bigourdan, Bouquet de la Grye, Common, Cornu, Cruls, Donner, Dunér, Eder, Elkin, Fizeau, Gautier, Gill, Gylden, Hasselberg, Paul Henry, Prosper Henry, Janssen, Kapteyn, Knobel, Krueger, Löwy, Lohse, Mouchez, Oom, Oudemans, Pechüle, Perry, Peters, Pujazon, Rayet, Roberts, Russell, Schönfeld, Steinheil, Tacchini, Thiele, Tisserand, Trépied, Vogel, Weiss, Winterhalter, and Wolf.

M. Struve commenced the proceedings by giving an account of the resolutions adopted by a small technical Committee, which resolutions had been prepared by M. Löwy. They had been suggested by the desire that a great number of Observatories should participate in the work; that the price of the instruments should be moderate; and that the work should be completed in the smallest time possible compatible with thoroughness.

The following conclusions of the Committee were adopted without discussion, and agreed to unanimously:—

(1) The instruments employed shall be exclusively refractors, and may be made locally provided the conditions laid down by the Conference are fulfilled.

(2) The stars shall be photographed as far as the fourteenth magnitude inclusively; this magnitude being indicated provisionally by the scale actually in use in France, and with the reservation that the photographic value shall be definitely fixed afterwards.

The third conclusion gave rise to a considerable amount of discussion, and was finally approved as follows:—

(3) The aperture of the object-glasses shall be 0.33 metre, and the focal length about 3.43 metres, so that a minute of arc shall be represented approximately by 0.001 metre.

The division of the Congress into sections for the study of special questions was next considered, and it was determined that there should be two sections, one to deal with purely astronomical questions, and the other with those involving photography.

It was arranged that these sections should not meet at the same time, and that each section should appoint its officers at the first meeting.

We next come to the work of the Photographic Section, which held two meetings on April 20 and 21.

M. Auwers, the Vice-President of the Conference, took the chair, and proposed that M. Janssen should be appointed President. This proposition was adopted with acclamation. The bureau of this section was composed as follows:—

President, M. Janssen; Secretaries, MM. Dunér and Trépied; and MM. Auwers, Bakhuyzen, Christie, Cloué, Common, Cornu, Cruls, Eder, Fizeau, P. Gautier, Gill, Hasselberg, Paul Henry, Prosper Henry, Kapteyn, Knobel, Krueger, Laussedat, Löwy, Mouchez, Oudemans, Pechüle,

Peters, Pujason, Roberts, Steinheil, Tacchini, Thiele, Vogel, Weiss, Winterhalter, and Wolf.

The proceedings of the section were opened by M. Cornu in a long speech which gave rise to a very lengthened discussion.

The three following resolutions were finally arrived at:—

(1) All the plates to be used should be prepared according to an identical formula to be subsequently determined.

(2) A permanent control of these plates from a point of view of their relative sensibility to the different radiations shall be instituted.

(3) The applanatism and achromatism of the object-glasses employed shall be calculated for the wave-lengths near Fraunhofer's G.

At the second meeting the last resolution was re-discussed, and another one was passed modifying it as follows:—

"The resolution adopted at the last meeting relating to the applanatism and achromatism of the object-glasses shall be understood in the sense that the minimum focal distance shall be that of a ray near G with a view to obtain the maximum sensibility of the photographic plates."

An important letter was read from Mr. Vogel, the Director of the Potsdam Observatory, relating to the preparation of the plates and suggesting the construction of a sensitometer.

The Committee then passed on to consider the extent of the photographic field.

With regard to the question of the distortion of images of stars away from the centre of the field, the Astronomer-Royal gave the results of calculations which he had made to determine the dimensions of the elliptic images of stars at different distances from the centre of the field, supposing that at the centre the image is reduced to a point.

Calling the axes of the ellipses a and b , the Astronomer-Royal's results are as follows:—

Angular distance from the centre of the field.	a .	b .
0°0' ...	0°0' ...	0°0'
0°5' ...	3°0' ...	1°3'
1°0' ...	11°0' ...	5°0'
1°5' ...	24°0' ...	11°0'
2°0' ...	44°0' ...	20°0'

The results of these calculations agree very satisfactorily with measurements actually made on some of the Brothers Henry's star photographs.

It was suggested that, by placing the centre of the plate slightly inside the focus, one might be able by a sort of compensation to diminish the distortions of the more distant parts of the field, and thus to augment the usable extent of field.

Finally, the following resolution was passed:—

"The object-glasses shall be constructed in such a manner that the field to be measured shall extend at least 1° from the centre."

The decision was almost unanimous, three only voting against it.

Dunér then raised the question of duplicating the observations on the same or different plates.

There was a unanimous feeling that, although more than 10,000 plates would be required if four square degrees of surface were agreed upon for the field, two series of negatives must be obtained for the whole heavens; the plates being so arranged that the star at the corner of one plate shall be at the centre of another.

The work of the meeting was terminated by suggestin

the appointment of two special Commissions to consider questions relating to the safe keeping and reproduction of the negatives, and also to the determination of photographic magnitudes.

We next come to the meetings of the Astronomical Section, which met on April 20, 21, and 22.

The first part of the programme of this section was the examination of the methods and instrumental details which will enable the orientation of the plates and the value of the scale to be precisely determined. The question discussed was whether the actual plates recording the stars down to the fourteenth magnitude could be used for the determination of fundamental positions. It was ultimately determined to have two series of photographs, but no resolution was arrived at at the first meeting.

At the second meeting this matter was settled by the following resolution, which was carried unanimously, with one exception:—

"Besides the negatives giving the stars down to the fourteenth magnitude, another series should be made with shorter exposures, to assure a greater precision in the micrometrical measurement of the fundamental stars, and render possible the construction of a catalogue."

At the third meeting the President remarked that, as the section had finished its deliberations, it was desirable to arrive at final resolutions on the questions referred to it.

M. Auwers proposed the following resolution:—

"The supplementary negatives destined for the construction of the catalogue shall contain all the stars down to the eleventh magnitude inclusive. The Executive Committee shall determine the steps to be taken to insure that this condition is fulfilled."

This was carried by 25 votes to 6; some members being in favour of tenth magnitude only.

The second resolution, which was unanimously agreed to, ran as follows:—

"The photographic plates to be used in formation of the catalogue shall be accompanied by all the data necessary to obtain the orientation and the value of its scale; and as far as possible these data shall be written on the plate itself.

"Each plate of this kind shall show a well centred copy of a system of cross-wires to insure the determination of errors of the field, and to eliminate those which may be produced by a subsequent deformation of the photographic film.

"Further details of this nature shall be determined by the Executive Committee."

The following resolutions were next carried:—

"In the negatives destined for the map the number of cross-wires to be used in their control and reduction shall be reduced to a minimum."

"The tubes of the photographic instruments shall be constructed of the metal most likely to give an invariable focal plane, and shall carry a graduation for the determination and regulation of the position of the plate."

"The Executive Committee shall choose the reference stars to be used."

"The question of the methods of measurement and the conversion of the numbers obtained in right ascension and declination for the equinox of 1900 is left to the Executive Committee."

"That Committee shall first occupy itself with the study, and methods of use, of measuring-instruments giving either rectangular or Polar co-ordinates, and based upon the simultaneous use of scales for the larger distances and micrometer eye-pieces for scale subdivisions."

Although we are unable to give, this week, a complete account of the final doings of the Conference, what was done at the last meeting is partly known, and it is clear that the Conference has been a great success, and that much solid work has been accomplished by the forty or fifty astronomers who attended one meeting or the other.

At the final general meeting Admiral Mouchez announced that all necessary arrangements had been made with the French Government to enable the Observatories of Paris, Algiers, Bordeaux, and Toulouse, to accept at once the conditions proposed by the Conference. M. Cruls, Director of the Rio Observatory, and M. Beuf, Director of the La Plata Observatory, also accepted at once the same conditions; their instruments being already ordered, and all expenses provided for. Most of the official astronomers had not as yet obtained the necessary grants of money from their respective Governments; but among those who expressed their readiness to take a share in the work, if funds can be provided, were Struve, of Pulkova; Weiss, of Vienna; Auwers, of Berlin; Christie, of Greenwich; Pujazon, of San Fernando; Oom, of Lisbon; Gill, of the Cape; and Russell, of Sydney, who answered also for Ellery, of Melbourne. Prof. Peters, speaking for the United States, said that ten of their Observatories were anxious to join in this undertaking, but he did not know whether they would accept the conditions proposed by the Conference. Omitting, therefore, these ten doubtful Observatories, we see that already four Observatories in the North and two in the South have given in their adhesion, and these will probably soon be joined by six other leading Observatories in the northern hemisphere and by three in the southern. Henceforward we need have no time or money spent on stellar photographs which will not find their place in a well-thought-out and general scheme.

The estimated cost for each Observatory, including instruments, extra assistant, plates, measurements, &c., is about £4000.

We believe that among the resolutions arrived at at the last meeting was one recommending the erection by France of an Observatory at Réunion, and by England of one in New Zealand.

The Permanent Committee appointed consists of all the Directors of the Observatories taking part in the work, with a certain number of members not necessarily actually engaged in this work. The names of the Committee are Christie, Dunér, Gill, Prosper Henry, Janssen, Lœwy, Pickering, Struve, Tacchini, Vogel, Weiss; and, as Directors of Observatories who have decided already to join, Cruls, Beuf, Mouchez, Trépied, Baillaud, and Rayet.

The Conference nominated Janssen and Common as a Committee to consider the application of photography to other celestial bodies not included in the scheme of a photographic chart.

The hospitality of the French Government and men of science to the members of the Conference can be judged from the following list of festivities provided in their honour. In addition to the welcome of the Conference by the Minister of Foreign Affairs already mentioned, Admiral Mouchez gave a *soirée* at the Observatory on Tuesday evening, April 19. The Bureau of the Conference were presented to the President of the Republic on Wednesday, the 20th. A banquet was given by the Minister of Foreign Affairs at his official residence, on Thursday, the 21st. M. Janssen invited the Conference to his Observatory at Meudon on Friday afternoon, the 22nd. On Saturday there was a ball at the Hôtel Continental and a special performance of "Hamlet" at the Comédie Française on Sunday. A banquet was given by Admiral Mouchez at the Observatory, on Sunday, to all the members of the Conference and many of the

leading French *savants*, including MM. de Lesseps, Frémy, Becquerel, Hébert, and others. On Saturday, the 23rd, the English astronomers gave a dinner to their French *confrères*; the Astronomer-Royal presided, Mrs. Christie was also present.

ON ICE AND BRINES.¹

II.

THE second part of the paper is occupied by the study of the melting of pure ice in sea-water and other saline solutions. A large number of experiments were made with solutions of concentration comparable with that of sea-water, and in one or two cases the experiments were extended to low temperatures and strong solutions. As a rule, from 50 to 100 grammes of solution, cooled to 0° C., were mixed with an equal weight of pounded ice, also at 0° C. The thermometer used for all these determinations was one of Geissler's normal ones, divided into tenths of a degree Centigrade; and its zero-point was verified almost daily. Along with the thermometer, a pipette of suitable capacity was immersed in the beaker, and used with the thermometer for keeping the mass well mixed. Its upper aperture was closed with a small cork, which was removed from time to time to permit of some of the brine being sucked up and allowed to run back again. The inside of the pipette was thus kept constantly moistened with the slowly altering solution in the beaker. The temperature was read after very thorough mixing and the sample thereupon immediately removed and preserved for analysis.

As a rule samples were taken for analysis at intervals of 0·4 C. The results for three classes of salt in dilute solutions are arranged in Tables IV., V., and VI.

TABLE IV.—Giving the percentage of chlorine in solutions of various chlorides in which ice melts at given temperatures.

Temperature of melting ice.	Chloride in solution.						
	HCl.	NaCl.	KCl.	(Sea-Water.)	MgCl ₂ .	CaCl ₂ .	BaCl ₂ .
	Per cent. chlorine in solution.						
0° C.							
-3·5	3'06	3'30	—	—	4'12	—	—
-3'0	2'68	3'02	3'00	—	3'62	3'70	—
-2'5	2'88	2'53	2'50	—	3'12	3'20	—
-2'0	1'85	2'02	2'00	—	2'62	2'70	2'72
-1'5	—	1'50	1'50	1'500	1'19	2'15	2'10
-1'0	—	1'02	1'02	1'024	1'51	1'50	1'47
-0'5	—	0'50	0'52	0'588	0'87	—	—

TABLE V.—Giving percentage of K in solutions of various potassium salts in which ice melts at given temperatures.

Temperature of melting ice.	Salt in Solution.			
	KCl.	KI.	K $\frac{Cl+I}{2}$	KOH.
	Per cent. K in Solution.			
0° C.				
-3'0	3'29	3'02	3'15	—
-2'5	2'79	2'59	2'68	2'60
-2'0	2'88	2'13	2'17	2'08
-1'5	1'74	1'63	1'66	1'57
-1'0	1'18	1'13	1'12	—
-0'5	0'59	0'60	0'57	—

¹ Paper read before the Royal Society of Edinburgh, by J. Y. Buchanan, on March 27 last. Continued from vol. xxxv. p. 611.

TABLE VI.—Giving percentage of hydrogen in solutions of various hydrogen salts in which ice melts at given temperatures.

Temperature of melting ice.	Salt in solution.			
	H ₂ SO ₄ .	HCl.	HNO ₃ .	HKO.
	Per cent. H in solution.			
° C.				
-3°0	0'144	0'076	0'077	—
-2°5	0'119	0'065	0'065	0'066
-2°0	0'097	0'052	0'052	0'053
-1°5	0'073	—	0'042	0'041
-1°0	0'048	—	0'032	—

On considering them, it was at once evident that the lowering of the melting-point of ice followed the concentration of the solution, but the law deviated in all cases from that of strict proportionality to the amount of salt dissolved, in some cases to a greater extent than in others. In comparing the effects of different salts in solution on the melting-points of ice, no simple connexion could be traced between their absolute weights and the effects produced; but on comparing chemically equivalent weights, a very close connexion was discovered. This will be evident from the inspection of the tables. In each the first column contains the temperatures at which pure ice melts; and in the parallel columns, the percentages of chlorine, potassium, or hydrogen in the solutions of the salts indicated at the head of each column, when ice melts in them at the temperature indicated. The figures thus give numbers proportional in each table to the chemically equivalent weights of the different salts. They show at first that, whereas the presence of equal absolute weights in solution produces very different effects, the presence of chemically equivalent weights produces very similar effects. On closer inspection, it is seen that the effects are almost identical where the elements to which the common constituent is united belongs to the same group of the periodic series, and differ sharply where these elements belong to different groups. In the case of the chlorides of sodium and potassium the number expressing the percentage¹ of chlorine in the solution expresses equally the depression of the melting-point of ice in terms of the Centigrade scale. The same depression of melting temperature is produced by 10 per cent. less of chlorine united to hydrogen, and by 30 to 35 per cent. more of chlorine when united to magnesium, calcium, or barium.

The results obtained with sea-water are also given, for comparison. It will be seen that it behaves very approximately as a solution of chloride of sodium containing the same amount of chlorine.

It is perhaps not very astonishing that unit weight of potassium in saline solution should produce the same effect in lowering the melting-point of ice, whether it is united to Cl, to I, or to OH; but it shows clearly how independent this action is of the character of the body in solution when we find the effect produced by unit weight of hydrogen identical whether it is united to such opposite radicles as Cl or OK. Table VI. shows further the effect of valence. While a given weight of hydrogen produces the same effect in solution whether it be united to the very different but both univalent radicles Cl and OK, its effect is reduced by one-half when united to the bivalent SO₄. That valence is not the only factor is shown by comparing the effects of hydrogen and potassium when united to the common element, chlorine. Hydrochloric acid in solution produces a markedly more powerful lowering effect on the melting-point of ice than the equivalent amount of chloride of potassium. Of all

¹ All percentages are by weight.

the substances that I have experimented on, hydrochloric acid is the most energetic in reducing the melting-point of ice, and with ordinary strong acid and pounded ice there is no difficulty in producing temperatures as low as the freezing-point of mercury. In the case of hydrochloric acid, sulphuric acid, chloride of sodium, and chloride of calcium, I have carried my experiments to low temperatures and great concentration. But before passing to them it is well to consider the more dilute solutions with regard to their density.

That the mere density of the solution in which the ice is melting has no direct connexion with the lowering of its melting-point is shown by the following table, in which the specific gravities (at 15° C.) are given of the solutions of different salts which give the same depression of melting-point.

Temperature of melting.	Specific gravity of solutions of				
	NaCl.	KCl.	MgCl ₂ .	CaCl ₂ .	BaCl ₂ .
° C.					
-2°86	1'03370	1'03850	1'03893	1'04756	—
-1°8	1'02174	1'02535	1'02715	1'03262	1'06633

There are many similarities in the effects produced by greatly increasing the pressure upon pure water and by dissolving salts in it. First, there is an absolute diminution in the volume of the solution as compared with the sum of the volumes of its components; second, in virtue of this compression by molecular forces it has become less compressible by mechanical means; third, the temperature of maximum density and the freezing temperature are lowered; and fourth, the former of these two temperatures is lowered more rapidly than the latter. All these effects are produced *in kind* by increasing the pressure on pure water. Whether, or in how far, they agree in degree must be decided by future experiments.

Experiments with Concentrated Solutions.—Several series of experiments have been made with hydrochloric acid, chloride of sodium, and chloride of calcium, and also with sulphuric acid. Table VII. gives the results, in the same form as preceding tables, for the chlorides:—

TABLE VII.

Temperature of melting ice.	Salt dissolved.		
	HCl.	NaCl.	CaCl ₂ .
	Per cent. Cl in solution.		
° C.			
-35	15'26		
-30	13'98		15'97
-25	12'60		14'47
-20	11'00		12'65
-15	9'17	11'10	11'29
-10	7'02	8'40	8'93
-5	4'15	4'72	5'65

It will be seen that, in proportion as the solution becomes more concentrated, further additions of salt produce a greater effect in lowering the melting-point of ice, and at a temperature of -15° C. equivalent weights of NaCl + CaCl₂ produce identical results. In Table VIII. the results for hydrochloric acid and sulphuric acid are given in terms of the percentage of hydrogen in the solution.

TABLE VIII.

Temperature of melting ice.	Acid dissolved.	
	HCl.	H ₂ SO ₄ .
	Per cent. H in solution.	
°C.		
-25	0·355	0·538
-20	0·310	0·487
-15	0·258	0·418
-10	0·198	0·332
-5	0·117	0·205

The temperatures given in these tables are all in terms of the same thermometer, which has not been verified for this part of its scale by comparison with a standard or with the air thermometer.

It is exceedingly difficult, as a rule, to ascertain the trustworthiness of a thermometer at low temperatures. This difficulty would be removed if the temperature at which ice melts in solutions of some very soluble salts of different concentrations were carefully and accurately determined with a good air thermometer. If, for instance, this were done for chloride of calcium solution, which in many ways would be a particularly convenient one, there would be no difficulty in verifying a thermometer at any moment at temperatures as low as -30° C. by mixing pounded ice with the strong solution, immersing the thermometer in it, taking a series of readings of the instrument, while a series of samples of the liquid is taken and in them the chlorine determined. There are considerable advantages in this method of verification of thermometers by chemical means, especially as it obviates the use of the air thermometer, which is always inconvenient. The experiments of Pfaundler and Schegg on the freezing of aqueous solutions of sulphuric acid can be used for this purpose. But it would be better to have a series of observations made for the purpose with the more convenient chloride of calcium solution.

Freezing Mixtures.—The results obtained in examining the melting-point of ice in saline solutions affords data for mixing freezing baths of any degree of cooling power. With chloride of sodium, for instance, a rough rule is to have such an amount of salt dissolved in the brine that the percentage of chlorine shall give the desired temperature in Centigrade degrees below the freezing-point. In my experiments in freezing sea-water in quantities of 300 grammes, I usually made up the bath of 500 grammes pounded ice, 400 grammes water, and 45 grammes common salt. When mixed, the liquid contained about 4 per cent. Cl, and gave a temperature a little below -4° C. In the course of an hour the liquid would contain 3 per cent. to 3·25 per cent. Cl, and the temperature have risen to -3° C. By using such baths freezing operations can always be kept completely in hand.

Summary.—Owing to its peculiar physical properties it is impossible to prepare the crystalline solid which separates from sea-water and analogous saline solutions in a condition to enable the question, whether the salt does or does not form part of the solid matter of the crystals, to be solved directly by chemical analysis.

So far as chemical analysis is applicable, it is in favour of the salt belonging exclusively to the adhering brine. When sea-water is carefully frozen artificially, the ratio between the chlorine and the sulphuric acid is the same for the solid contents of the original water, the crystals, and the mother-liquor. It is exceedingly unlikely if part of the salt went into the crystals, leaving the remainder in the

brine, that there would be no selective separation of its constituents.

It has been shown (and the whole of the second part of the paper is taken up with this subject) that snow or pure lake ice, which, when melting by itself or immersed in pure water at atmospheric pressure, melts at the constant temperature called 0° C. or 32° Fahr., changes its melting temperature when immersed in a saline solution. The altered melting temperature, however, is the same for solutions of the same composition (no doubt with some allowance for pressure) and different for solutions of different composition.

The temperature at which pure ice melts in a solution is identical with that at which ice separates from the same solution on being sufficiently cooled.

When sea-water is frozen to the extent of 15 per cent. of its mass, and the crystals so formed are allowed to melt in the liquid in which they have been produced, they melt exactly as they have been formed. If snow or pure ice be immersed in the brine formed by partially freezing sea-water, it melts at the same temperature as the ice which had been formed by freezing the sea-water, so long as the chemical composition is the same in each case.

When saline solutions are cooled for a sufficient length of time at a sufficiently low temperature, there arrives a certain concentration at a certain temperature, when further removal of heat causes solidification of the brine as a whole (cryohydrate).

The concentration necessary for the solidification of even the cryohydrate of highest melting temperature is such that in the *primary* freezing of sea-water in nature no such body can be formed. It would follow from this consideration alone that the first ice formed on the sea in Arctic regions consists of pure ice, and it is also certain that it would retain a large quantity of the residual sea-water in its interstices. During the winter this inclosed liquor would solidify in the interstices of the crystals to ice and cryohydrates, in so far as the temperature and the nature of the salts in solution would permit. From my experiments with chloride of calcium, and the existence of brines observed to remain liquid at -30° C. at the winter-quarters of the *Vega*, it is unlikely that sea-water, as a whole, can ever be completely solidified in nature. The presence of unfreezable or difficultly freezable brine in freshly-formed sea-water ice explains its eminently plastic character even at very low temperatures. The presence of similar unfrozen brine in natural land ice at temperatures neighbouring to 0° C. explains its slightly plastic character, which is sufficient to account for the slow fluid motion of glaciers under the long-continued pressure of their own weight.

The fact that cryohydrates of different salts solidify and melt at different temperatures, sufficiently explains the various composition of different specimens of *old* sea ice.

The physical phenomena observed in freezing sea-water and saline solutions of moderate concentration, are all easily and simply explained on the hypothesis that the crystalline body formed is pure ice. Thus, the heat removed in freezing sea-water to the extent of 15 per cent. of its mass accounted for the production of the same amount of ice as was given by calculation on the basis of the chlorine found in the mother-liquor.

The apparent expansion, near the melting-point, of ice formed by the freezing water which contains any salt at all is perfectly explained on the hypothesis that in the act of freezing the water rigidly excludes all saline matter from participation in its solidification.

The same applies to the latent heat of water containing salt in matter. Pettersson made two determinations of the latent heat of sea-water containing 1·927 per cent. Cl and 3·53 per cent. salt. The freezing took place in the one case between the temperatures $-9^{\circ}0$ and $-7^{\circ}47$ C., and in the other between $-8^{\circ}35$ and $-6^{\circ}94$ C., and the

results he found were 52.7 and 51.5. The mean initial temperature in these two experiments is $-8^{\circ}7$ C., and the mean final temperature $-7^{\circ}2$ C. At $-7^{\circ}2$ C., ice would form on cooling, and would melt on warming a solution of chloride of sodium containing 6.48 per cent. Cl, which represents 11.87 per cent. of the sea salt. In order to concentrate a brine containing 3.53 per cent. salt to one containing 11.87 per cent., 70 per cent. of the water in it must be removed. Hence in sea-water freezing at a final temperature of $-7^{\circ}2$ C., there is formed 70 per cent. of ice, and there remains liquid 30 per cent. of brine. Freezing began at the mean temperature $-8^{\circ}7$ C., and the latent heat of pure ice at this temperature is 75. Calculating the latent heat of this mixture from the heat liberated in the calorimeter during freezing, and assuming that the whole mass had solidified, Pettersson's results give the mean latent heat of this sea-water as 52.1. Calculating the apparent latent heat on the assumption that 70 per cent. of the mass solidifies into pure ice and that 30 per cent. remains liquid, we get the number 51.5. On all grounds therefore we must conclude that pure ice is the primary product in freezing sea-water and saline solutions of moderate concentration.

The fact that ice melts in sea-water at a temperature of $-1^{\circ}6$ C. to $-1^{\circ}8$ C., according to its saltness, explains the anomalous distribution of temperature in Antarctic waters, and furnishes an account of the motive power which draws the surface water of cold temperate regions into the deeper layers, and after dilution with the melted matter of the icebergs, to the surface layers of Antarctic latitudes. Forming as it does an important factor of oceanic circulation, this part of the subject was treated in a separate paper, of which an account has already been given in NATURE (vol. xxxv. p. 516).

THE CLASSIFICATION OF SPIDERS.¹

ALTHOUGH Dr. Thorell's paper is nominally only a criticism of Dr. Bertkau's views, it is really a masterly sketch of the literature on the subject of the classification of spiders, and a review of the methods of various authors from Lister downwards. The two leading views at present held on this subject appear to be represented by the author (Dr. Thorell) and Dr. Bertkau. These two views may be stated generally as *anatomical v. biological*, the former being the basis of Dr. Bertkau's classification, the latter (combined with considerations of external structure) that of Dr. Thorell. Dr. Thorell successfully, as it appears to us, defends the classification provisionally adopted in 1869, in his work "On European Spiders," from the sweeping charge that it is neither natural nor equal, nor based on characters of sufficient importance and distinctly expressed, though at the same time he freely admits its inevitable imperfection. He shows that in no branch of Nature are the subordinate groups of exactly equal value, nor should it be expected that the same equal systematic value would be found in the subordinate groups of the class Arachnida. It is well to remember that zoologists have to form their groups out of such materials as have come to their hands ready provided for them by Nature. They cannot expect to advance natural science by constructing out of limited materials a perfectly symmetrical system, and then insisting that all the diverse forms of Nature shall, *nolens volens*, be stuffed somewhere or other into it. Equality, therefore, of systematic value in the various groups into which spiders (Araneidea) may be divided can at best be only approxi-

¹ "On Dr. Bertkau's Classification of the Order Araneæ, or Spiders," by Dr. T. Thorell (*Ann. and Mag. N.H.*, April 1886, pp. 301-26). (See especially the following works by Dr. Bertkau:—"Versuch einer natürlichen Anordnung der Spinnen," *Archiv. für Naturgeschichte*, xlv. 1, pp. 351 et seq., 1875; and "Ueber das Cribellum und Calamistrum; ein Beitrag zur Histologie, Biologie, und Systematik der Spinnen," *ibid.*, xlviii. 1, pp. 316 et seq., 1882.)

mate; and it seems evident that as our knowledge of structure, whether external or internal, or of habits as dependent on and arising out of structure, becomes more extensive and exact, so some further modifications may become necessary in the primary divisions of spiders. After subjecting Dr. Bertkau's classification (which is based principally on the breathing-organs) to a minute and destructive criticism, Dr. Thorell modifies his former views by reverting, in some measure, to the Latreillian division of spiders into (1) those possessing four air-sacs, *Tetrapneumones*; (2) those with two, *Dipneumones*; still, however, retaining the old Latreillian biological divisions, *Territelaria*, *Tubitelaria*, *Orbitelaria*, &c., based on habits, because the groups so divided may yet be thoroughly and scientifically differentiated by important and trustworthy structural characters. These divisions (now called by Dr. Thorell "tribus") are, as is well known, seven in number, and each is subdivided into families, which, with few exceptions, include only European species, Dr. Thorell's opportunities for the study of exotic groups not enabling him to construct a more complete subdivision of all known spiders. Dr. Bertkau's primary division of the Araneidea is into two groups, called suborders—*Tetrasticta*, with four breathing-apertures, and *Tristicta*, with three. Dr. Thorell shows conclusively that in the present state of our knowledge of the respiratory system of spiders (though this is far advanced beyond what it was in Latreille's days, and in a great degree the advancement is admitted to be due to Dr. Bertkau's labours) these two suborders are artificial rather than natural; as are also his subdivisions of the *Tristicta*, which are based on the undoubtedly remarkable characters to which such great prominence was given by the late Mr. Blackwall, that is, the possession or absence of a *cribellum* and *calamistrum*, the use of these in primary subdivision bringing together spiders not closely allied by any other natural characters. Dr. Thorell attributes a certain amount of classificatory importance to these organs by his intercalation of the families of his largest "tribus" possessing them, in a kind of osculant or collateral way, and of the other "tribus" in which they are found, in a linear arrangement, guided, however, in both cases by their possessing such other characters as, in all instances, fully warrant the position assigned to them. The anatomical study of the *tracheæ* (properly so called) of spiders seems to be yet in its infancy. Certainly at present these organs of respiration do not appear to warrant the importance attributed to them by Dr. Bertkau; and although Dr. Thorell's primary subdivisions are, in their names, strictly speaking, based on only biological characters, yet in reality they severally enshroud the most important structural ones, and hold all known spiders in a fairly natural system. They are, moreover, well known, and appear likely to be adopted for some time yet to come, with more or less modification, by the majority of araneologists.

O. P. CAMBRIDGE.

CHRISTMAS ISLAND.

THE following account of the little-known Christmas Island, situated in the Indian Ocean, south of Java, may be of interest. Capt. Maclear and his officers collected a variety of specimens, which have been forwarded to the Museum of Natural History and to the Royal Gardens, Kew, but they do not seem to have succeeded in making their way through the dense jungle to the upper part of the island, to ascertain the geological character of the mountain originally protruded from the depths. It is a little remarkable that, in a sea so calculated to encourage coral growth, no new reefs should have formed round the island since the ancient ones were elevated above the surface. The Cocos or Keeling

Islands, 500 miles to the westward, are a well-known example of thriving coral life.

W. J. L. WHARTON.

*H.M. Surveying-Vessel "Flying-Fish,"
January 31, 1887.*

Christmas Island is 190 miles from the nearest point of Java, from which it is separated by a depth of 2450 fathoms. It is formed of coral limestone, has no fringing reef, but rises abruptly from the sea in cliffs about 30 feet high, very much underworn, and in many places hollowed out in caverns; the shore is steep-to: generally a depth of 100 fathoms is found at one to two cables from the cliffs.

In appearance it is somewhat saddle-shaped, rising from a long back in the middle, 700 to 800 feet high, to hills at the north-eastern and at the western sides; the western summit is double, and is the best-defined mark: its height is 1580 feet. The shape is irregular quadrilateral; it extends through 12' of latitude, and about the same in longitude.

The island is densely wooded all over, except where the cliffs are too steep to allow anything to grow. From the northern side the ascent is gradual to the highest parts; but on the southern side, after rising gradually for half a mile from the sea cliffs, a second wall of limestone cliffs is met, estimated at 200 to 300 feet high, and thence slopes gently again to the top.

The shore cliffs are almost continuous, making the island inaccessible except at a few places. These cliffs are split by deep fissures extending several feet below water; where these have become enlarged, and the adjacent cliffs have fallen in, a small white beach of fragmentary rock is thrown up, and at such places on the lee-side landing can be effected.

From the blown direction of the trees on the south side, and from the weather-worn aspect of rocks exposed to the southward, it is manifest that the south-eastern is by far the prevailing wind.

The north side of the island forms a large bight, in which the water is quite smooth, so that a boat can go close up to the cliffs, but on the southern and eastern sides a heavy sea dashes against the rocks.

The *Flying-Fish* steamed close round the island looking for anchorage, but found none, except in a small cove two miles to the westward of the north point of the island—this has been named Flying-Fish Cove; here she anchored in 22 fathoms, with her stern secured by hawsers to the trees, to prevent slipping off the bank.

The hill rises nearly perpendicularly at the head of the cove in the form of a horseshoe, and slopes gradually down to the two arms forming the cove. The bare beach is not more than 20 yards wide, and, from the look of the fragments that compose it, must be thrown up in northerly gales; the upper part of the beach to the foot of the hill, a distance of some hundred yards, is of just the same material, viz. fragments of coral rock and coral limestone, but it has a covering of mould from fallen leaves, and is thickly wooded, many of the trees on it being forest trees of 12 feet girth and of great height, apparently hundreds of years of age, showing that a very long time must have elapsed since that beach was raised from the water.

One very large tree had something like the letters **WW** cut inside a scroll, and nearly illegible from time; this was the only sign of the island having been visited before; but one of our officers heard at Batavia that a Dutch vessel was wrecked on the south-east point of the island in a calm about fifteen years ago, and that the crew escaped and lived many months on the island before they were taken off, but I have no other details about the affair.

No running water was seen, but the droppings from the leaves during rain and dew must be great, as holes

in the rocks and cup-shaped leaves were filled with water. As it was raining over some part of the island (generally the western) great part of the time the *Flying-Fish* was in the neighbourhood, and clouds were continually being formed over the island from the moist air driven up the side by the south-east wind, a great deal of water must be deposited, and probably be absorbed by the soil. At the eastern end of the cove, among the trees, where had seemed at first the most likely place for a watercourse, a few volcanic stones were found, but everywhere else the only rock seen was coral limestone; the cliffs above from which detached pieces had fallen to the beach were the same; the soil under the trees was a rich moist mould, apparently formed from decaying vegetation.

Landing was also effected at another small beach in the northern bight near the north-west point; the general features were the same, but there was no anchorage at half a cable from the shore. A few cocks and hens were landed here, but as the crabs immediately began to chase them, I doubt if they will survive and produce.

No large animals were seen, nor marks of any. An iguana, said to be 4 feet in length, was seen in a tree, high up, but was not captured. Rat-holes were numerous, and one rat was secured, also a large bat. Several insects, spiders, flies, beetles, and butterflies, were collected; there were sand-flies, but no mosquitoes. Large crabs were very plentiful, and appeared equally at home running over the sea-cliffs and climbing up the trees; they were very ravenous, pouncing quickly on a dead gannet and devouring other injured crabs, and they must be terrible enemies to the birds generally.

Gannet and frigate-birds frequent the island, and evidently breed there, but it was not the breeding-season, and very few eggs were found; the young birds were nearly grown. Besides the sea-birds there was the large green Torres Strait pigeon: one was shot, with three large red berries in his crop. These pigeons seemed to frequent the higher trees well up the hill. Also a ground-thrush, of a sooty-brown colour, just the colour of the fallen leaves among which it ran nimbly, apparently looking for insects; and a little fly-catcher of the same sombre colour. As evening advanced, a small swift appeared, which flew about the jungle on the margin of the beach, fly-catching: none of these three last were secured. No bones were found on the beach, nor remnant of any animal; not even turtle-remains.

The flora appeared to be the same as that of the neighbouring islands, the Moluccas. As before stated, the island is densely wooded, and many of the trees attain great size. Chief amongst them I recognized two iron-wood trees, one with straight stem and round trunk, and the other with strong buttresses from the roots; both are natives of Celebes. Creepers were as thick as in the Moluccas, and covered the top branches of the trees.

Two palms—one I take to be the sago-palm, growing to a great height; and the pandanus—were abundant: cocoa-nut trees were not seen, though husks were found on the beach, apparently washed up from elsewhere. At a small beach on the eastern side there appeared to be banana-trees, but they looked withered and there were no signs of fruit.

No mangroves were seen: the flora of the coast was generally such as is found in all tropical islands.

I regret to say that nearly all the botanical specimens that were collected were destroyed by insufficient drying in the exceedingly damp weather we experienced.

(Signed) J. P. MACLEAR,
Captain.

NOTES.

ON March 9, on the invitation of the Chief Justice of Queensland, a public meeting was held at Brisbane, to consider the establishment of a University for that colony. A resolution was

passed inviting ministers of religion, the various professions, and every representative body to petition Parliament to establish a University for Queensland in perpetual commemoration of the Jubilee year of the Queen's reign. A Committee was appointed to prepare a petition and make arrangements for united action.

ACCORDING to the *Calcutta Englishman*, the Indian Government has arranged a scheme for the complete and systematic botanical survey of India. The country will be divided into four great districts, the first under Mr. Duthie, Superintendent of the Government Botanical Gardens at Saharanpur; the second under Surgeon-Major King, Superintendent of the Royal Botanical Gardens at Calcutta; and the third and fourth under the Madras and Bombay Government Botanists respectively.

THE rich flora of the Philippine Islands has hitherto been most imperfectly known. In fact, it has been practically only represented in European herbaria by the collections of Cuming, which, though rich, were made in a limited area. It was only, therefore, to be expected that the explorations made by Dr. Sebastian Vidal, of Soler, Director of the Botanic Garden at Manilla, and of the Commission for studying the forest flora, would add to our knowledge a profusion of new and interesting species. Dr. Vidal has on two occasions visited Kew with his collections, which have quite realised the expectations that had been formed of them. There was some reason to fear that the work might, on financial grounds, have to be interrupted. But from a communication made to Kew by the Spanish Minister, we are glad to learn "that although the Botanical Survey Commission intrusted to Dr. Sebastian Vidal had been at one time suppressed in the Budget of 1887-88, it was afterwards re-established in view of the great importance of the work."

THE thirty-sixth meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held in New York during the week beginning August 10, 1887. The New York Academy of Sciences has appointed a Committee to secure concert of action among those who are anxious that adequate preparations may be made for the meeting.

• IN his speech at the Royal Academy banquet, Prof. Huxley offered some suggestive and interesting remarks on the relations between science on the one hand and art and literature on the other. "I imagine, he said, "that it is the business of the artist and of the man of letters to reproduce and fix forms of imagination to which the mind will afterwards recur with pleasure; so, based upon the same great principle by the same instinct, if I may so call it, it is the business of the man of science to symbolize, and fix, and represent to our mind in some easily recallable shape, the order, and the symmetry, and the beauty that prevail throughout Nature. I am not sure that any of us can go much further from the one to the other. We speak in symbols. The artist places his colours upon the wall; the colours have no relation to the actual objects, but they serve their purpose in recalling the emotions which were present when the scenes which they depict were acted. I am not at all sure that the conceptions of science have much more correspondence with reality than the colours of the artist have; but they are the symbols by which we are constantly recalling the order and beauty of Nature, and by which we by degrees force our way further and further into her penetralia, acquiring a greater insight into the mystery and wonder which are around us, and at the same time, by a happy chance, contributing to the happiness and prosperity of mankind." Referring to the fact that in these days scientific men are in danger of becoming specialists, occupied with a comparatively small field, Prof. Huxley maintained that the remedy lies in the recognition of "the great truth that art and literature and science are one, and that the foundation of every sound education and preparation for active life in which a special

education is necessary should be some efficient training in all three." He concluded as follows:—"I sincerely trust, Sir, that, pondering upon these matters, understanding that which you so freely recognise here, that the three branches of art and science and literature are essential to the making of a man, to the development of something better than the mere specialist in any one of these departments—I sincerely trust that that spirit may in course of time permeate the mass of the people, that we may at length have for our young people an education which will train them in all three branches, which will enable them to understand the beauties of art, to comprehend the literature at any rate of their own country, and to take such interest not in the mere acquisition of science, but in the methods of inductive logic and scientific inquiry as will make them equally fit, whatever specialised pursuit they may afterwards take up. I see great changes; I see science acquiring a position which it was almost hopeless to think she could acquire. I am perfectly easy as to the future fate of scientific knowledge and scientific training; what I do fear is, that it may be possible that we should neglect those other sides of the human mind, and that the tendency to inroads which is already marked may become increased by the lack of the general training of early youth to which I have referred."

THE first edition of "Scenery of Scotland viewed in Connexion with its Physical Geology," by Mr. Archibald Geikie, was published twenty years ago. It was one of the first books in which the origin of the scenery of a country was traced out in some detail with reference to geological structure. Since the appearance of the work, the author has extended his experience by journeys all over Europe and through the western territories of America, and he is engaged, we understand, upon a general treatise on the origin of the surface features of the land. In the meantime, in response to repeated requests, he has prepared a new edition of his first work on the subject—the "Scenery of Scotland." The book has been thoroughly revised and in great part re-written. The illustrations are almost all new. It is expected that the volume will be ready in time for the visitors who crowd into Scotland in the summer and autumn.

MESSRS. KEGAN PAUL, TRENCH, AND CO., will publish immediately "Three Lectures on the Anatomy of Movement: a Treatise on the Action of Nerve Centres and Modes of Growth," delivered at the Royal College of Surgeons by Dr. Francis Warner, Hunterian Professor of Comparative Anatomy and Physiology.

REGULARLY during twenty-five years, on the first of each quarterly month, Mr. Van Voorst published a part of Hewitson's "Exotic Butterflies," containing coloured figures of new species. The work was completed a few years ago. Since that time, material for its continuation has accumulated in the collection of Mr. Henley Grose Smith, who will now, with the assistance of Mr. W. F. Kirby, bring out another series under the title of "Rhopalocera Exotica." Part I will be published by Mr. Van Voorst's successors, Messrs. Gurney and Jackson, in July.

In continuation of Hooker and Baker's "Synopsis Filicum," a hand-book of the other orders of Vascular Cryptogamia, by Mr. J. G. Baker, will be published shortly by Messrs. G. Bell and Son. It will include Equisetaceæ, Fycopodiaceæ, Selaginellaceæ, and Rhizocarpeæ, in which, excluding the fossil types, there are eleven genera and about 700 species.

MR. ARTHUR DENDY, B.Sc. of the Victoria University, and Associate in Science of Owens College, has been appointed by the Trustees of the British Museum an Assistant in the Department of Zoology in the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Mr. Stewart O. Ridley, whose work in connexion with

the sponges and corals Mr. Dendy will continue. The vacancy in the Botanical Department occasioned by Mr. Fawcett's appointment to the Curatorship of the Botanical Gardens in Jamaica has been gained, after competitive examination, by Mr. Edmund Gilbert Baker, a son of the well-known botanist of Kew Gardens.

THE Council of the British Medical Association have recently appointed Mr. Watson Cheyne and Dr. Sidney Martin as Science Scholars for one year. The former proposes to continue his research of Bacteria in relation to disease, and the latter to carry on researches on the vegetable albuminose, especially with relation to their alleged toxic action.

ON Monday last, Mr. J. M. Thomson delivered the first of the concluding course of Cantor Lectures at the Society of Arts. The remaining lectures of the course will be delivered on May 9, 16, and 23. The subject is the "Chemistry of Substances taking Part in Putrefaction and Antiseptis."

ANOTHER synthesis of a natural product has just been added to the long score of successes which have followed Wöhler's initiative. About a dozen years ago it was observed that the outer coatings of walnuts collected at the end of June became covered with small yellow needle-shaped crystals, of a substance which was found by Vogel and Reischauer in the expressed juice of the same, and named by them nucine or juglon. Bernthsen and Semper have very recently (*Ber. Deut. Chem. Ges.* 1887, No. 6) proved conclusively that this substance is an α -hydroxy- α -naphthoquinone, $C_{10}H_6O_2(OH)$, and to complete the proof have actually built up the same substance directly from naphthalene. They first prepared $\alpha_1 \alpha_3$ dihydroxynaphthalene, $C_{10}H_8(OH)_2$, by Armstrong's method, which was then oxidized by chromic acid; the brown precipitate obtained was afterwards digested with warm ether, and after removal of the ether by distillation, crystallization from chloroform yielded beautiful acicular crystals identical in all respects with juglon, of nutshell odour, producing violent sneezing. As naphthalene itself can be built up from its elements, it follows that juglon, undoubtedly a product of vegetable growth, has been synthesized by artificial means.

SOME important observations on the structure and origin of the gelatinous sheath which invests the filaments of many Algae, and also some Flagellata, have recently been published by Herr G. Klebs. In the Zygnemaceæ this sheath is composed of a substance entirely independent of the cell-walls. It consists of two portions: a homogeneous substance which is but slightly refringent, and which is indifferent to the action of staining reagents; and a portion which absorbs pigments with avidity, and which is composed of minute rods at right angles to the cell-wall. This substance does not exhibit the reactions of the ordinary mucilage of vegetable cells; it is not dissolved by alkalis. The author maintains that the substance of the sheath is derived directly from the cytoplasm of the cell through the cell-wall; it is always quite distinct from the cell-wall, and must be formed by apposition rather than by intussusception. Similar results were obtained from the gelatinous sheath of the Desmidiæ and of some other Algae. A gelatinous sheath can be detected in nearly all the Flagellata by the use of sufficiently dilute staining materials; and here, also, the sheath is due directly to the activity of the protoplasm. In *Euglena sanguinea* it is secreted in the form of more or less curved filamentous bodies. In the social forms the gelatine consists of a fundamental substance, immersed in which are denser granular corpuscles. The brown or black colour is due to the deposition of oxide of iron.

THE preparations for the making of a canal between the Baltic and the German Ocean are so far advanced that the construction of the earthworks will be begun on June 18.

ON March 17 we stated in a note that the Berlin Academy of Sciences had granted a sum of money "for the printing of some important zoological works," among which we mentioned Dr. Taschenberg's "Bibliothek." Herr Engelmann, the publisher of the "Bibliothek," writes to us that the grant was made to Dr. Taschenberg personally, in recognition of his labours as editor, and that it does not in the slightest degree diminish the publisher's responsibilities in connexion with the work.

THE Council of the Parkes Museum believe that there are many medical men who would be glad to make use of the Museum under the guidance of someone able to point out the object and advantages of the various appliances exhibited. They have therefore arranged, for the month of May, three demonstrations, which will be open to all members of the medical profession on presentation of their cards. Prof. W. H. Corfield has consented to give a demonstration on Monday, May 9; Mr. Rogers Field on Monday, May 16; and Mr. Percival Gordon Smith on Monday, May 23. The demonstrations will begin at 5 p.m.

SIX years ago a seaside laboratory for the study of biology was started at Annisquam, near Cape Ann, by the American Woman's Education Association. The Society, which does not give permanent support to any of its enterprises, has always been anxious that this institution should be placed on a secure basis; and accordingly a circular letter was lately sent to teachers of science in different parts of the United States, giving an account of the work done, and asking for opinions as to the need of such an establishment. The answers were so satisfactory that a number of naturalists met to consider the question; and this meeting appointed a Committee with full power to establish a new and greatly improved laboratory. An appeal for 15,000 dollars has now been issued, and if the response is liberal, the laboratory may be opened in the summer of the present year.

THE Italian Meteorological Society reports that its observer at Patagones (lat. $40^{\circ} 49' S.$, long. $62^{\circ} 45' W.$), while taking observations at 2 a.m. on December 1 last—observations being then taken every two hours—was surprised by a continuous shower of innumerable shooting-stars proceeding from all visible parts of the sky. They were of varying brilliancy, the majority appearing to be of the brightness of stars of the second and third magnitude. He was unable to take an exact observation, for want of necessary materials; but during the fifteen or twenty minutes that he stood observing them, the stupendous display constantly maintained the same intensity.

M. L. TEISSERENC DE BORT has published in *Ciel et Terre* a summary of his charts showing the mean amount of cloud over the surface of the globe, presented to the Académie des Sciences, Paris, on February 7. The paper is of interest from the fact that up to the present time the amount of cloud has not been treated in the same general way as the other meteorological elements, except for limited areas. The charts in question are based on observations made at 700 stations, and on an immense number of observations collated by the Meteorological Office in Paris. The following are the principal conclusions arrived at: (1) there is a marked tendency in all months towards a distribution of cloud in zones parallel to the equator; (2) when disturbing influences are eliminated it is seen that there is a maximum amount of cloud near the equator, that there are two belts of slight nebulosity from 15° to 35° of north and south latitude, and two zones of greater cloudiness between latitudes 45° and 60° , and that beyond this (so far as can be judged from observations in the northern hemisphere) the sky appears to become clear towards the Poles; (3) these zones have a marked tendency to follow the march of the sun's declination; they are transferred towards the north in

spring, and towards the south in autumn; (4) if the charts of nebulosity are compared with isobaric and wind charts it will be seen that the zones of clear sky correspond to the regions of high pressure which lie on each side of the equator, and which give rise on the one hand to the trade winds, and, on the other, to the westerly winds which prevail towards the temperate regions of the two hemispheres. The zones of greater cloudiness extend above the regions of low pressures, viz. near to the equator, on the one hand, and near to 60° of north and south latitude. The distribution of cloud, taken as a whole, appears therefore to be a direct result of the march of the winds, and is regulated by the distribution of the atmospheric pressures.

THE new Industrial Institute at Bromley, Kent, was opened on Saturday last by Sir Lyon Playfair. Hitherto, he said, the country had prided itself upon the practical knowledge of its artisans, but it had relied too entirely upon that knowledge, and the consequence had been that countries which nurtured the intellects of their people had stepped in, and with their superior mental education had shown the world that the competition of the day was not one of local advantages, such as the possession of raw material applicable to industries, but a competition of intellect. England was realizing her position now, and training her sons by technical schools to compete intellectually with the countries round her, from whom she had learnt her lesson.

Science lately invited certain eminent American authorities on education to discuss in its columns the question, "What industry, if any, can profitably be introduced into country schools?" Mr. Samuel G. Love writes enthusiastically on the effects which may be produced on children by industrial or manual training. It "opens a way," he thinks, "to interest them, to develop and employ their perceptive faculties, and to make the otherwise unattractive experiences of school life cheerful and pleasant." As for the particular kinds of industry that may be most advantageously introduced, he contents himself with the general statement that "there are many things that can be done with profit in any and all schools; and, as soon as the pupil enters upon school life, one of them should be taken up, and each carried forward one after the other, just as the subjects of study are taken up and completed." Mr. Francis A. Walker is more precise. He proposes that approved methods of the Kindergarten should be carried upwards through the primary grades; that at the age of twelve, or thereabouts, there should be semi-weekly exercises with tools, preferably wood-working tools, and in clay-modelling; and that at the age of about fourteen, exercises in metal-working should be begun. Mr. Charles H. Ham takes a wholly different view. He objects to the introduction of "industrial features" into courses of popular education in rural districts, partly because industrial training is very costly, but chiefly because children in the country learn so many things in their ordinary work and play that they do not seem to him to need any special industrial training at school.

THE additions to the Zoological Society's Gardens during the past week include two Green-winged Doves (*Chalcophaps indica*) from Penang, presented by Mr. S. A. Clarke; two Alpine Newts (*Molge alpestris*) from Algiers, presented by Mr. Alban Doran; twenty Ruffe or Pope (*Acerina cernua*) from British fresh waters, presented by Mr. T. E. Gunn; a Whinchat (*Pratincola rubetra*), British, two White-faced Tree-Ducks (*Dendrocygna viduata*) from Brazil, purchased; two White-necked Storks (*Dissura episcopus*) from West Africa, two Demoiselle Cranes (*Grus virgo*) from North Africa, received in exchange; a Gayal (*Bibos frontalis* ♂), a Persian Gazelle (*Gazella subgutterosa* ♂), born in the Gardens.

OUR ASTRONOMICAL COLUMN.

THE ORBIT OF THE MINOR PLANET EUCHARIS.—Dr. L. de Ball has published, in *Mémoires de l'Académie Royale de Belgique*, tome xlix., an investigation of the orbit of *Eucharis* (No. 181), deduced from all the available observations made during the years 1878 (the year of its discovery) to 1886 inclusive. The discussion of the orbit of this minor planet is of considerable interest, as in part of its path it approaches Jupiter, and its consequent perturbations will afford material for a determination of the mass of that planet. To attempt such a determination at present would be premature, but a necessary preliminary to it is the determination of a sufficiently accurate orbit for the perturbed planet, and this is furnished by Dr. de Ball in the paper before us. The perturbations due to Jupiter and Saturn, using Bessel's values of the masses, have been taken into account, and great pains have been taken to reduce the places of the comparison-stars used to a uniform system—that of Auwers's Fundamental Catalogue. The great mass of observations discussed in this paper are equatorial observations; a considerable number of meridian observations made with the Washington transit-circle in 1878 are, however, also discussed. These do not harmonize very well with the equatorial observations, and Dr. de Ball is led to the conclusion (for which he is unable to account) that the corrections to reduce the Washington meridian observations to the system of the Fundamental Catalogue deduced from fundamental stars are not applicable to the observations of *Eucharis*, and gives the latter consequently a very small combining weight. But this want of harmony it doubtless due to the circumstance that the observations of fundamental stars are made in a bright field, whilst those of the planet must have been made in a dark field with illuminated threads—a difference which is quite sufficient to account for such a systematic discordance as Dr. de Ball has found to exist.

ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA FOR THE WEEK 1887 MAY 8-14.

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

At Greenwich on May 8.

Sun rises, 4h. 22m.; souths, 11h. 56m. 20' S.; sets, 19h. 31m.; decl. on meridian, 17° 5' N.: Sidereal Time at Sunset, 10h. 36m.

Moon (at Last Quarter on May 14) rises, 7h. 24m.*; souths, 0h. 26m.; sets, 5h. 19m.; decl. on meridian, 13° 41' S.

Planet.	Rises.	Souths.	Sets.	Decl. on meridian.
	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.	
Mercury ...	3 56 ...	10 43 ...	17 30 ...	8° 29' N.
Venus ...	6 1 ...	14 30 ...	22 59 ...	25 10 N.
Mars ...	4 16 ...	11 44 ...	19 12 ...	16 2 N.
Jupiter ...	17 30 ...	22 44 ...	3 58* ...	9 42 S.
Saturn ...	8 5 ...	16 13 ...	0 21* ...	22 17 N.

* Indicates that the rising is that of the preceding evening and the setting that of the following morning.

Variable Stars.

Star.	R.A.	Decl.	h. m.
	h. m.		
U Cephei ...	0 52'3 ...	81° 16' N. ...	May 9, 3 19 m
			" 14, 2 59 m
U Monocerotis ...	7 25'4 ...	9 33 S. ...	" 9, M
W Virginis ...	13 20'2 ...	2 48 S. ...	" 12, 2 0 m
δ Libræ ...	14 54'9 ...	8 4 S. ...	" 14, 3 36 m
U Coronæ ...	15 13'6 ...	32 4 N. ...	" 14, 19 50 m
S Libræ ...	15 14'9 ...	19 59 S. ...	" 13, m
U Ophiuchi ...	17 10'8 ...	1 20 N. ...	" 9, 3 22 m
		and at intervals of 20 8	
U Sagittarii ...	18 25'2 ...	19 12 S. ...	May 8, 20 0 m
R Scuti ...	18 41'3 ...	5 50 S. ...	" 13, M
η Aquilæ ...	19 46'7 ...	0 43 N. ...	" 8, 0 0 M
S Sagittæ ...	19 50'9 ...	16 20 N. ...	" 14, 1 0 m
U Cygni ...	20 16'1 ...	47 32 N. ...	" 13, m
W Cygni ...	21 31'8 ...	44 52 N. ...	" 9, M
S Cephei ...	21 36'6 ...	78 7 N. ...	" 13, m
δ Cephei ...	22 25'0 ...	57 50 N. ...	" 10, 0 0 m

M signifies maximum; m minimum.

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

May.	Star.	Mag.	Disap.	Reap.	Corresponding angles from vertex to right for inverted image.
			h. m.	h. m.	
8 ...	γ Libræ ..	4½ ...	1 4	near approach	168 —
13 ...	π Capricorni ...	5 ...	3 35	4 57	93 274

GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES.

IN the new number (iv.) of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* we find an interesting note by General Tillo on what he calls the chief water-partings of the earth. He points out that it is usual to indicate for each region the great water-partings, and to come down from that to what are considered as smaller or subordinate water-partings. But it seems to him that, from a general consideration of the earth's surface, the idea of a great world-water-parting may be worked out. This he illustrates by a Polar projection map in which the Old and the New World continents are brought face to face. On this he lays down one continuous line, broken only by Bering's Straits, extending from the south point of America, north along the west side of South and North America, in an irregular diagonal across Asia to the Isthmus of Suez, and down Eastern Africa to the Cape. No doubt there is much to be said for this general conception, especially as General Tillo admits that there are special continental water-partings which do not quite conform to the line of the great parting, though, as a matter of fact, nearly all the great rivers of the world are divided by this parting into two directions. It brings out strikingly the fact that the greater portion of the landmass of the Old World, and by far the larger portion of the New World are drained into the Polar Atlantic basin.

AMONG the other papers in the new number of *Petermann* is one on the caravan routes between Suakim and Kassala, by Josef Menges. Dr. Ed. Petri contributes a paper of great interest containing some fresh and curious data on the Yakuts, of whose persistence, activity, and culture, he, like others, has formed a high estimate. Dr. Posewitz contributes a first paper on the geological condition of the Island of Billiton, with special reference to mining.

M. CHAFFAUJON has completed his exploration of the Orinoco and returned to Ciudad Bolivar. He states, in a letter dated March 15 last, that he has discovered the sources of the Orinoco, and found that the River Cassiquari is only a branch of that river, uniting its basin with that of the Amazon; which seems pretty much what we knew before. M. Chaffaujon has sent a complete report of his exploration to the French Minister of Public Instruction, as well as some ethnographical curiosities, and a fairly complete collection of the fishes of the Orinoco.

AT a recent meeting of the Hungarian Geographical Society, Herr Moriz Von Déchy gave an account of his exploration of the Caucasus last year, in company with the geologist Dr. Schafurzik. The exploration has been rich in scientific results. Besides taking numerous observations on glaciers, measurements of heights, and many fine photographs, the explorers have brought back with them large collections, which have been deposited in the Museum of the Society, the University of Buda-Pesth, and the Hungarian Geological Institute. There are eighteen boxes of rocks and minerals. There is a small collection of beetles, and several highly interesting and valuable macrocephalic skulls. These, with the large collection of plants obtained in the Expedition of 1885, will be of the highest value to writers on the geology and natural history of this interesting region.

IT is stated in Copenhagen that an Expedition will be despatched late this summer by Herr A. Gamil, the equipper of the *Dijmphna* Expedition of 1882, to the north-east coast of Greenland. It is hoped that the explorers may reach a higher latitude than that attained by Lieut. Holm in 1884, and discern the "Sound" described by the East Greenlanders as running from the east to the west coast, somewhere in latitude 78° N. The Expedition will, if it starts, be commanded by Lieut. Hovgaard, who in 1882 commanded the *Dijmphna*.

FRANCE has succeeded in moving the eastern boundary of her Congo territory from the somewhat uncertain River Licona to the magnificent Mobangi. According to the *Times* Paris Correspondent, the *Thalweg* of the Mobangi is to be the boundary

between the French territories and the Congo Free State; but how far up the Mobangi the boundary goes we are not informed. As, by the Berlin Treaty, we understand France cannot go farther north than 4° N. lat., we do not see that she gains much by this new boundary, should the Mobangi turn out, as is probable, to be identical with the Wellé. Had the Paris Correspondent taken the trouble to look at a map, he would not have told us that by this new advance France becomes mistress of the greater part of the Congo basin; the statement is absurd.

WE are glad to learn of the safety of Mr. Carey, to whose extensive journeys in Central Asia we referred in a previous number. He has wintered at Hami, and is by this time probably well on his way to India.

THOSE interested in Dr. Junker will find a very full statement of his work, with a map, in the new number of the Proc. R.G.S., by Mr. J. T. Wills. Dr. Junker's travels in the Soudan and Central Africa have lasted from the spring of 1876 to the end of 1886, with the exception of about a year and a half in 1878-80. In his first journey he found the sources of the Wellé-Makua near Lake Albert Nyanza. In 1880-83 he explored the basin of the Makua and Kuta (probably the Upper Mobangi).

THE Government of Victoria are preparing to send out a well-equipped expedition to explore the Owen Stanley Range of New Guinea, from Port Moresby, and have, we learn from the Proc. R.G.S., offered the leadership to the man of all others best able to carry out so difficult an undertaking to a successful issue—the Rev. J. Chalmers.

A FURTHER step has been taken in promotion of an expedition towards the South Pole, by the colony of Victoria. Acting on an offer made by Sir Allen Young to lead such an expedition, it is stated that Sir Graham Berry has brought the question of a Government grant towards the cost of the enterprise before the Victorian Cabinet, and that the matter is being urged forward with a view to the expedition starting from Hobson's Bay in October or November next.

THE WORK OF THE IMPERIAL INSTITUTE.¹

II.

WHILE extolling the comprehensive and well-organised systems of technical education existing in all parts of the Continent and the United States, let us not undervalue the great progress which has been made in recent years in Great Britain in the advancement and extension of technical instruction. The Royal Commission on the Depression of Trade and Industry state, as the result of evidence collected by them, that "It would be difficult to estimate the extent to which our industries have been aided in various ways by the advance of elementary, scientific, and technical education during the last twenty years."

The important influence exercised by the admirable work which the organisation of the Science and Art Department has accomplished, upon the intellectual and material progress of the nation, is now thoroughly recognised. Prof. Huxley, the Dean of the Normal School of Science, in his recent important letter "On the Organisation of Industrial Education," has reminded us that "the classes now established all over the country in connexion with that Department, not only provide elementary instruction accessible to all, but offer the means whereby the pick of the capable students may obtain in the schools at South Kensington as good a higher education in science and art as is to be had in the country," and "that it is from this source that the supply of science and art teachers is derived, who in turn raise the standard of elementary education" provided by the School Boards. The extension of facilities for the education of those engaged in art-industries is constantly aimed at, as was recently demonstrated by the creation of free studentships for artisans in the Art Schools at South Kensington.

The necessity which has gradually made itself felt in the manufacturing towns of the United Kingdom for encouraging the study of science in its application to industries, by those who intend to devote themselves to some branch of manufacture or trade, has led to the establishment in about twenty-five towns in England and Scotland, and in two or three in Ireland, of colleges of science corresponding more or less to the Continental

¹ Lecture (abridged) delivered at the Royal Institution, on Friday, April 22, by Sir Frederick Abel, C.B., F.R.S.; H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, K.G., F.R.S., Vice-Patron, in the Chair. Continued from vol. xxxv. p. 621.

polytechnic schools, and accomplishing important work in training students in the different branches of science in their applications to manufactures and the arts.

The wealthier of the City Companies, some of which had long been identified with important educational establishments, associated themselves with the Corporation of the City of London nearly ten years ago to establish an organisation for the advancement of technical education, which has already carried out most important work. The Society of Arts, which initiated the system of examinations, afterwards so successfully developed by the Science and Art Department, set on foot and conducted for several years examinations of artisans in a few branches of technology. This useful work was relinquished in 1879 to the City and Guilds Institute, and its gradual extension since that period has been attended with most satisfactory results. The beneficial influence exercised by the examinations upon the development and extension of technical instruction in the manufacturing districts throughout the country being already very marked. The adoption of the system, originated by the Science and Art Department, of contributing to the payment of teachers in proportion to the successes attained by their pupils, is operating most successfully in promoting the establishment and extension of classes for instruction in technical subjects, in connexion with Mechanics' Institutes and other educational establishments in various centres of industry.

The Technical College at Finsbury was the first great practical outcome of the efforts made by the City and Guilds Institute to supplement existing educational machinery, by the creation of technological and trade schools in the metropolis, and the results, in regard to number and success of students at the day and evening schools of that important establishment, have afforded conclusive demonstration of the benefits which it is already conferring upon young workers who, with scanty means at their command, are earnest in their desire to train themselves thoroughly for the successful pursuit of industries and trades. The evening courses of instruction are especially valuable to such members of the artisan classes as desire, at the close of their daily labour, to devote time to the acquisition of scientific or artistic knowledge.

Another department of the City and Guilds Institute, of a somewhat different character, is the South London School of Technical Art, which is also doing very useful work, while the Chief or Central Institution for Technical Education, which commenced its operations about three years ago, if it but continue to be developed in accordance with the carefully matured scheme which received the approval of the City and Guilds Council, and with that judicious liberality which has been displayed in the design and arrangement of the building, bids fair to become the Industrial University of the Empire.

As one of the first students of that College of Chemistry which became part-parent of our present Normal School of Science, and the creation of which (forty-two years ago) constituted not the least important of the many services rendered towards the advancement of scientific education in this country by His Royal Highness the Prince Consort, most vividly I remember the struggling years of early existence of that half-starved but vigorous offspring of the great school of Liebig, born in a strangely unsympathetic land in the days when the student of science in this country still met on all sides that pride of old England, the practical man, inquiring of him complacently: *cui bono? quo bono?* That ardent lover of research and instruction, the enthusiastic and dauntless disciple of Liebig—my old master—Hofmann, loyally supported through all discouragement, and in the severest straits, by a small band of believers in the power of scientific research to make for itself an enduring home in this country, succeeded in very few years in developing a prosperous school of chemistry which soon made its influence felt upon British industry; and it is not credible that less important achievements should be accomplished, and less speedily, in days when the inseparable connexion of science with practice has become thoroughly recognised, by an Institution created, and launched under most auspicious circumstances, by those powerful representatives of the commercial and industrial prosperity of the Empire, who, before all others, must realise the vital necessity for ceaseless exertions, even for much self-sacrifice in the immediate present, to recover our lost ground in the dominions of industry.

One of the most important functions of the Central Technical College should consist in the thorough training of teachers of applied science. The statistics furnished by the technological

examinations show that, while their successful organisation has led to the establishment of classes of instruction, supplementary to the general science teaching in every large manufacturing centre, the increase in the number of candidates examined has been accompanied by an increase in the percentage of failures to pass the examinations, and that the supply of a serious deficiency in competent teachers was essential to a radical improvement in technical education. The work of the City and Guilds Institute in this direction has already been well begun, and it is in the furtherance of this, by the organisation of arrangements for facilitating the attendance of science teachers for sufficient periods at the Central Institute, or at more accessible provincial technical colleges, that the Imperial Institute may hope to do good work.

Without taking any direct part in the duty of education, it is contemplated that the Imperial Institute will actively assist in the thorough organisation of technical instruction, and its maintenance on a footing, at least of equality, with that provided in other countries, by the system of intercommunication which it will establish and maintain between technical and science schools; by the distribution of information relating to the progress of technical education abroad, to the progressive development of industries, and the requirements of those who intend to pursue them; by the provision of resources in the way of material for experimental work, and illustrations of new industrial achievements, and by a variety of other means.

The provision of facilities to teachers in elementary schools to improve their knowledge of science and their power of imparting information of an elementary character to the young, constitutes another direction in which important progress may be made towards establishing that continuity between elementary and advanced education which is so well developed on the Continent. The organisation of facilities, combined with material aid, to be provided to young artisans who shall afford some legitimate evidence of superior natural intelligence, and a striving after self-improvement, to enable them to abandon for a time the duty of bread-winning, and to work at one or other of the technical schools in London or the provincial centres, will be another object to which the resources of the Imperial Institute should be applied very beneficially. Not only will the intelligent workman's knowledge of the fundamental principles of his craft or trade be thereby promoted; his association in work and study with others who are pursuing the acquisition of knowledge in different directions, which at first seem to him alien to his personal pursuits and tastes, but come in time to acquire interest or importance in his eyes, will bring home to him the advantages of a wider and more comprehensive scope of instruction, and the enlargement of his views regarding the value and pleasure of knowledge will, in turn, exercise a favourable influence in the same direction upon those with whom he afterwards comes into contact. The cramping influence which the great subdivision of labour, resulting from the development of mechanical, physical, and chemical science, is calculated to favour, must thus become counteracted, and the workman will realise that if he is to rise above the level of the ordinary skilled labourer, mere dexterity in the particular branch of that trade which he has made his calling must be supplemented by an acquaintance with its cognate branches, by some knowledge of the principles which underlie his work, and by some familiarity with the trades allied to his calling.

The importance of bringing technical instruction within the reach of the needy scholars of the lower middle class need not be dwelt upon, and there can be no question that one of the most powerful means of promoting the extension of technical education will be the well-organised administration of a really comprehensive system of scholarships, to be judiciously utilised in connexion with the well-established colleges and schools of science and technics throughout the country, in such proportions as to meet local requirements and changing conditions. That a good foundation for such a system of scholarships is likely ere long to emanate from the resources of the Royal Commission of 1851, has already been officially indicated in one of its reports; may we not also hope that many will be found in our Empire ready to follow the example of the late Sir Joseph Whitworth, and to act in emulation of the patriotism of those men who, by munificent donations or endowments in aid of the work of bringing industrial education within the reach of all classes in the United States, have helped to place our cousins in the position to hold their own and aspire to victory, in the war of industry? The thoroughly representative character which it is

intended to maintain for the governing body of the Imperial Institute will secure the wise administration by it of funds of this kind, dedicated to the extension and perfection of national establishments for technical education, and to the encouragement of its pursuit, in the ways above indicated, by those whose circumstances would otherwise prevent them from enjoying the advantages secured to their fellow-workers in other countries. Several other directions readily suggest themselves in which the judicious administration of resources in aid of the technical training of eligible men of the the artisan class could well form part of the organised work of the Imperial Institute.

By the establishment of an Education branch of the Intelligence Department, which will form a very prominent section of the Imperial Institute, the working of the colleges and schools of applied science in all parts of the United Kingdom will be harmonised and assisted, and the information continuously collected from all countries relating to educational work and the application of the sciences to industrial purposes and the arts will be systematically distributed. A well-organised Inquiry Department will furnish to students coming to Great Britain from the colonies, dependencies, and India, the requisite information and advice to aid them in selecting their place of work and their temporary home, and in various other ways. The collections of natural products of the colonies and India, maintained up to the day by additions and renewals at the central establishment of the Institute, will be of great value to students in the immediately adjacent educational institutions, and will, moreover, be made subservient to the purposes of provincial industrial colleges by the distribution of thoroughly descriptive reference catalogues, and of specimens. Supplies of natural products from the Colonies, India, or from other countries, which are either new or have been but imperfectly studied, will be maintained, so that the material may be readily provided to the worker in science or the manufacturer, either for scientific investigation or for purposes of technical experiment.

The existence of those collections and of all information relating to them, as well as of the libraries of technology, inventions, commerce, and applied geography, in immediate proximity to the Government Museums of Science and Inventions, Art, and Natural History, to the Normal School of Science, and to the Central Technical Institute, present advantages so obvious as to merit some fair consideration by those who have hitherto declined to recognise any reason in favour of the establishment of the Imperial Institute at South Kensington.

In the powerful public representations which have of late been made on the imperative necessity for the greater dissemination and thorough organisation of industrial education, the importance of a radical improvement in commercial education, as distinguished from what is comprehended under the head of technical training, has scarcely received that prominence which it merits. It is true that, in some of our colleges, there are courses of instruction framed with more especial reference to the requirements of those who propose to enter into mercantile houses, or in other ways to devote themselves to commercial pursuits; but as a rule the mercantile *employés*, embraced under the comprehensive title of clerks, begin their careers in life but ill prepared to be more than mechanical labourers, and remain greatly dependent upon accident, or upon their desire for self-improvement which directs them in time to particular lines of study, for their prospects of future success in commercial life.

This impressed itself strongly upon the Royal Commission on the Depression of Trade and Industry, who state as the result of evidence collected by them that our deficiency in the matter of education as compared with some of our foreign competitors relates "not only to what is usually called technical education, but also to the ordinary commercial education which is required in mercantile houses." The ordinary clerk in a merchant's office is too often made to feel his inferiority to his German colleague, not merely in regard to his lamentable deficiency in the knowledge of languages, but in respect to almost every branch of knowledge bearing upon the intelligent performance of his daily work and upon his prospect of advancement. The preliminary training for commercial life on the Continent is far more comprehensive, practical, and systematic than that which is attainable in this country, and the student of commerce abroad has, afterwards, opportunities for obtaining a high scientific and practical training at distinct branches of the polytechnic schools and in establishments analogous to the technical colleges such as the High Schools of Commerce in Paris, Antwerp, and Vienna.

It will be well within the scope of the Imperial Institute, as an organisation for the advancement of industry and commerce, to promote a systematic improvement and organisation of commercial education by measures analogous to those which it will bring to bear upon the advancement of industrial education.

The very scant recognition which the great cause of technical education has hitherto received at the hands of our administrators has, at any rate, the good effect of rousing and stimulating that power of self-help which has been the foundation of many achievements of greatest pride to the nation, and we may look with confidence to the united exertions of the people of this country, through the medium of the representative organisation which they are now founding, for the early development of a comprehensive national system of technical education, of the nature foreshadowed not long since by Lord Hartington, in that important address which has raised bright hopes in the hearts of the apostles of education.

In connexion with some of the views which have been of late put forward regarding the possible scope of the Imperial Institute, the antagonism which has been raised and fostered against its location in the vicinity of some of our national establishments most intimately connected with the educational advancement of the Empire, has developed a tendency to circumscribe its future sphere of usefulness, and to place its functions as a great establishment of reference and resort for the commercial man in the chief foreground. I have endeavoured to indicate directions in which its relations to the Colonies and India, to the great industries of the country, and to the advancement of technical and commercial education, cannot fail to be at least as important as its immediate connexion with the wants of the commercial section of the community, and those are most certainly quite independent of the particular locality in which it may be placed, excepting in so far as the command of ample space, and the advantages to be derived from juxtaposition with the great national establishments to which I have referred, is concerned. At the same time, there is not one of the directions in which the development of the resources and activity of the Institute has been thus far indicated, which has not an immediate and important bearing upon the advancement of the commerce of the Empire. There are, however, special functions to be fulfilled by the Institute, which are most immediately connected alike with the great commercial work of the City of London and with that of the provincial centres of commerce. The provision, in very central and readily accessible positions, of commercial museums or collections of natural or import products, and of export products of different nations, combined with comprehensive sample-rooms and facilities for the business of inspection, or of commercial, chemical or physical examination, is a work in which the Institute should lend most important aid. The system of correspondence with all parts of the Empire which it will develop and maintain will enable it to collect and form a central depot of natural products from which local commercial museums can be supplied with complete, thoroughly classified economic collections, and with representative samples of all that, from time to time, is new in the way of natural products from the Colonies and Dependencies, from India, and from other countries. In combination with this organisation, the distribution to commercial centres of information acquired by a central department of commercial geography will constitute an important feature in the work of the Institute, bearing immediately upon the interests of the merchant at home, in the Colonies, and in India.

The formation of specially commercial institutions, of which inquiry offices, museums, and sample-rooms with their accessories, will form a leading feature, and which will supply a want long since provided for by the nations with whom we compete commercially, is already in contemplation in the Cities of London and Newcastle; other great commercial centres will also doubtless speedily take steps to provide accommodation for similar offshoots from the central collections of the Institute. So far as the Indian Empire is concerned, the organisation of correspondence by provincial committees which already exists in connexion with economic and geological museums established in the several Presidencies, affords facilities for the speedy elaboration of the contemplated system of correspondence in connexion with the Institute, and the establishment of similar organisations in the different Colonies will, it is hoped, be heartily entered upon and speedily developed.

The system of correspondence to which I have more than once alluded in indicating some of the work of the Institute, in relation to technical education and industry, and which will form

a most important part of the main groundwork of its organisation, is not in the least theoretical in its character. Its possible development has suggested itself to many who have given thought to the future sphere of action of the Institute in connexion with commerce and industry; to myself, who for many years have been, from time to time, officially cognisant of the work performed by what are called the Intelligence Departments of the Ministries of War abroad and at home, the direct and valuable bearing of such a system upon the work of the Institute, suggested itself as soon as I gave thought to the possible future of this great conception, and to Major Fitzgerald Law belongs the credit of suggesting that the well-trieved machinery of the War Office Intelligence Department should serve as a guide for the elaboration of a Commercial Intelligence Department. This Department, which will, it is hoped, ere long commence its operations by establishing relations with the chief colonies and India, will be in constant communication with the Inquiry Offices to be attached to the local commercial establishments and to other provincial representations of the work of the Institute, systematically distributing among them the commercial information and statistics continually collected. It will be equally valuable to the colonies and India by bringing their requirements thoroughly to the knowledge of the business men in the United Kingdom, and by maintaining that close touch and sympathy between them and the people at home which will tend to a true federation of all parts of the Empire.

In no more important direction is this system destined to do useful work than in the organisation of emigration, not only of labour, but also of capital. The establishment of emigration inquiry offices at provincial centres in connexion with a central department at the Institute, will be of great service to the intending emigrant, by placing within his reach the power of acquiring indispensable information and advice, and by facilitating his attainment of the special knowledge or training calculated to advance his prospects in the new home of his choice. Similarly, the capitalist may be assisted in discovering new channels for enterprise in distant portions of the Empire, the resources of which are awaiting development by the judicious application of capital and by the particular class of emigration which its devotion to public works or manufacturing enterprise in the Colonies would carry with it. The extent to which the State may aid in the organisation of systematic emigration, and the best mode in which it may, without burden to the country, promote the execution of such public works in the Colonies as will open up their dominions to commerce and at the same time encourage the particular class of emigration most advantageous to the Colonies themselves, are subjects of great present interest; but, in whatever way these important questions may be grappled with, such an organisation as the Institute should supply cannot fail to accelerate the establishment of emigration upon a sound and systematic footing, and to co-operate very beneficially in directing private enterprise into the channels best calculated to advance the mutual interests of the capitalists and the colonies.

I have already indicated that it is not only in connexion with purely commercial matters that the Intelligence Department of the Institute will occupy itself. The prospects of its value to the Colonies and to India in promoting the development of their natural resources and the cultivation of new fields for commercial and industrial activity are well illustrated by the valuable work which has been accomplished upon similar lines by the admirably directed organisation at Kew.

By the systematic collection and distribution of information relating to industries and to education from all countries which compete with ourselves in the struggle for supremacy in intellectual and industrial development, the Institute will most importantly contribute to the maintenance of intimate relationship and co-operation between educational, industrial, and commercial centres, between the labourer in science and the sources through which his work becomes instrumental in advancing national prosperity; between the Colonies and the Mother Country, between ourselves and all races included in the vast Empire of Her Majesty.

In conclusion, I venture to express the belief that the organisation which the Imperial Institute will have the power of developing, with a wisely constructed governing body at its head, may accomplish, and at no distant date, other most useful work, which has been already publicly indicated as destined to have an immediate bearing upon the federation of England and her colonies. Prof. Huxley, in his last Presidential Address to the Royal Society, uttered most suggestive words, indicative of

the value and the possibility of a *scientific* federation of all English-speaking peoples; and this subject is now receiving the careful consideration of that Society. It is firmly believed by leading men of science that such a federation of at any rate the Colonies and Dependencies with us will be brought about, and it is in harmony with that belief that the Imperial Institute should be expected, through its organisation, to afford important aid in the application of the principle of federation to the geological and topographical survey of the Colonies, in the establishment of a system of interchange of meteorological and scientific observations, and in the promotion, in various ways, of thorough co-operation between particular Colonies, or groups of Colonies, for applying the results of scientific research to the mutual development of their natural resources.

It may be that the programme of which I have given a very imperfect exposition, as indicative of the work which the Imperial Institute may be called upon to accomplish, will be regarded by some as almost too ambitious in its scope for practical fulfilment. The outline of this programme has been drawn by a combination of abler hands than mine; I have but ventured to sketch in some of the details as they have presented themselves to my mind, and to the minds of others who have given thought to this great subject; but I dare to have faith in its realisation, and to believe that, if the work be taken in hand systematically and progressively, the nucleus being first thoroughly established from which fresh lines of departure will successively emanate, the Imperial Institute is destined to become a glory of the land. And, as one whose mission it has been, through many years of arduous work, to assist in a humble way in the application of the resources of some branches of science to the maintenance of the country's power to defend its rights and to hold its own, I may perhaps be pardoned for my presumption in giving expression to the firm belief that, by the secure foundation and careful development of this great undertaking, and by its wise direction, by a government truly representative of its founders—all Nations and Classes composing the Empire—there will be secured in it one of the most important future defences of the Queen's dominions; one of the most powerful instruments for the maintenance of the unity, the strength, and the prosperity of her realms.

THE LOCOMOTOR SYSTEM OF STAR-FISH.

PROF. PREYER, of Jena, has recently concluded an elaborate research "Ueber die Bewegungen der Seesterne." This paper, which contains over thirty illustrations, appears in the Publications of the Zoological Station at Naples (vii.), where the investigation was carried on during a period of nearly five months. This investigation was exclusively physiological, and confined to the star-fish—the Holothurians, Echini, &c., not having fallen within its scope. Considering that Prof. Preyer thus selected a line of experimental inquiry which had been already pretty well worked out, he deserves to be congratulated on the everywhere interesting and frequently novel character of his results. The most important of these results, in so far as they are new, appears to me—as also to himself—to be his demonstration that a severed ray of a star-fish exhibits much more co-ordination in the management of its tube-feet, if the section has been arranged so that two or more of the central ganglia in the disk are left in connexion with the ray, than if only one of these ganglia be so left. It was previously known that under any circumstances the severed ray of a star-fish would not only crawl about, seek the light, &c., but also right itself when turned over on its back. In order to execute this manœuvre highly co-ordinated action on the part of the tube-feet is required, and therefore the interest attaching to Prof. Preyer's observation consists in its having shown that this co-ordination cannot be nearly so well effected by one of the central ganglia as it can be by two or more of them. Or, in his own words, "Also leisten 2 funktionell gleichwertige Theile des Nervensystems zusammen qualitativ mehr als jeder für sich. Man kommt auf die Vermuthung, dass auch bei den höheren Thieren, und vielleicht auch dem Menschen, es nicht allein die qualitative Beschaffenheit der Ganglienzellen, sondern auch ihre Anzahl und Verbindung ist, welche höhere psychische Leistungen ermöglichen."

Highly interesting also are the results of numerous ingenious experiments devised with a view of testing whether the adaptive movements of star-fish can be explained as due to mechanical reflexes alone, or require us to suppose something of the nature

of a rudimentary intelligence. These experiments consisted in placing the animals in various unnatural circumstances, and observing the means which they adopted in order to extricate themselves. For instance, a piece of narrow tube was pushed over one of the rays of a brittle-star, so as to tightly inclose that ray from its base to within an inch or two of its apex. In order to get rid of such an obstruction the star-fish did not always adopt the same method, as we should have expected if the adaptive actions were of a purely reflex kind. Sometimes they rubbed the tube off by friction on the ground; but if the tube were too closely fitting to admit of this mode of removing it, they would adopt sundry other devices—such as holding the tube firmly down by the other rays while drawing the imprisoned ray through its cavity; or by means of the serrated edges of the two adjacent rays progressively pushing the tube upwards over the end of the imprisoned ray; or, lastly, failing every other means, by amputating the imprisoned arm. Various other experiments were tried in the way of pinning down the star-fish in unnatural positions, and the expedients to which they resorted in order to regain their liberty appeared to Prof. Preyer amply to prove the presence in them of psychical as distinguished from merely physiological functions.

Although these are the results of most importance, many others are full of interest to the working physiologist. To me individually this is especially the case, seeing that the research has everywhere proceeded upon the same lines as those which Prof. Ewart and myself adopted while working out the physiological part of our inquiry concerning the locomotor system of Echinodermata. It is satisfactory to note that in almost every particular Prof. Preyer has corroborated our results. There are, however, four or five points—mostly of subordinate importance—with regard to which he expresses disagreement with these results. I have, therefore, carefully considered these points, and have come to the conclusion that the discrepancies admit of being explained, either (1) by our not having worked with the same species of star-fish; (2) where we did work with the same species, by our not having employed precisely the same methods of stimulation; or (3) by the temperature of the water at Naples being higher than that with which we worked in the north of Scotland. This explanation refers to the few, and comparatively unimportant, disagreements upon matters of fact. But Prof. Preyer's principal disagreement with us is upon a matter of inference. He objects to our over-caution in expressly refusing to credit the Echinodermata with any psychical faculties, remarking that many of our own results are sufficient to show that there must be something more than simple reflex mechanism concerned in the adaptive movements of these animals. Here, however, Prof. Preyer has misunderstood our meaning. We did not "expressly declare" that the star-fish are destitute of any psychical faculty: we merely excluded the question from our paper as one very difficult to answer, and as not strictly appertaining to a physiological research. But if Prof. Preyer will turn to a subsequent publication of my own, where this question does require to be considered, he will find that my views upon the subject are in very much closer agreement with his than he at present supposes.¹ Indeed, although I am perhaps less confident in attributing to them any psychical faculties other than that of a short-lived memory (which I argue admits of being proved), I think that the level in the psychological scale to which I do assign them in my book is just about the level to which, in his opinion, they ought to be assigned.

It only remains to add that for my own part I hope Prof. Preyer will next extend his researches to the Echini, which present even more abundant material for physiological investigation than the star-fish, and out of which, therefore, his observant mind may be expected to evolve even more interesting results.

GEORGE J. ROMANES.

THE REPORT OF THE SELECT COMMITTEE ON ENDOWED SCHOOLS.

DURING the present week the Report of the Committee, to the main results of which we were able to refer in our last issue, has been printed. It is a document of first-rate importance. Reserving a more detailed examination of some parts of it for a future occasion, we give this week an extract from the

general conclusion of the Report, and also a summary of some of the opinions formed, and recommendations made.

Conclusion.

A pressing need now seems to be that we should not forget, in the search for more immediate advantages of an obvious nature, the importance of preserving, even at some cost, a high ideal of secondary education, both on its own account and in its connexions either with the Universities or with the excellent Colleges which have been recently established in our large towns with the special object of education in relation to the needs of manufacturing and commercial communities. Your Committee find that the work done by the Charity Commissioners under the Endowed Schools Acts, while it has not lost sight of this ideal, has done much to bring higher instruction, in popular and necessary forms, within the reach of classes which otherwise would have been shut out from it. It has thus fulfilled a double function: to promote in all classes the creation of trained intelligence, and to build up a system under which, when created, it may find a free and prosperous scope. With such improvements as your Committee have recommended in future schemes, it is to be hoped that the intelligence of the working-classes will be trained in a direction which, while it develops their intellectual faculties, will at the same time enable these faculties to be more readily applied to the needs of productive industry.

Summary.

The great extension in elementary education under the Education Acts having, to a certain extent, altered the position and objects of elementary endowed schools, in any scheme for remodelling them, special attention should be directed to providing, as far as possible, for the children of the working-classes a practical instruction suitable to their wants in the particular circumstances of each locality.

The policy of the Commissioners has been to establish scholarships in elementary schools and exhibitions from them to schools of secondary education. On the whole these have worked well in large towns, but they are less adapted to the circumstances of a scattered rural population; and in any case scrupulous care should be taken where endowments have been appropriated to the poor, that the paramount interests of the poor should be secured in the application of scholarships or exhibitions provided out of the trust funds.

The abolition of gratuitous education in elementary endowed schools is generally opposed to the wishes of the poorer classes in the localities. It is only justifiable when the imposition of fees gives a higher and more useful character of education to the working-classes than they formerly enjoyed, and after provision made for payment of school fees of children whose parents stand specially in need of such assistance.

The application of non-educational endowments to educational purposes under Section 30 of the Act of 1869 has been beneficial, but the veto now possessed by the trustees of such endowments is, in some cases, a hindrance to reforms and an inadequate protection for the poor. It would be expedient to substitute, for the consent of the trustees, the concurrence of some local representative body.

The diversion of educational endowments from one locality, decreasing in population, to a neighbouring populous locality, is sometimes necessary, but should only take place after the requirements of the locality have been met.

The diversion of an endowment, partially or entirely, from the education of boys to that of girls, has been successful in numerous instances, but when opposed by the localities it requires discretion in its exercise.

The extension of technical and higher commercial education has risen to much importance since the Act of 1869, and should be carefully kept in view by the Commissioners in framing their schemes. When the value of the endowment is too small to provide laboratories and workshops for technical or scientific teaching, the local authorities might be empowered to initiate and aid them by local rates. But before applying local rates in aid of technical or scientific teaching, endowments, the purposes of which have failed, should, as far as practicable, be utilised.

The examination of endowed schools and inspection of the state of the buildings and apparatus, and of the discipline and general working, are subjects of urgent importance. Reports upon the actual condition of the schools should be periodically laid before Parliament. Those reports should be published in the locality in a cheap and convenient form.

¹ "Mental Evolution in Animals," pp. 76, 342, 348-49.

UNIVERSITY AND EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

CAMBRIDGE.—Applications to occupy the Cambridge table at the Naples Zoological Station should be sent to Prof. Newton on or before May 26.

Mr. S. F. Harmer has been approved by the Senate, on the recommendation of the Special Board of Medicine, as a teacher of Comparative Anatomy for the purposes of medical study.

The reports of Mr. H. Gadow, M.A., of King's College, and Mr. M. C. Potter, M.A., of Peterhouse, to whom grants were made from the Worts Travelling Scholars Fund last year, have just been published.

Mr. Gadow states that he began his researches on July 2, 1886, with the exploration of several caves on the Monte Junto and in the Serra de Athouguia, Province of Estremadura. In the caves were found a considerable number of human and other bones, many of which show unmistakable signs of being worked and cut by prehistoric man; they are now in the Museum of Zoology, awaiting further investigation. Fourteen celts, some worked flakes, and a flint arrowhead, collected in the caves or in the neighbourhood thereof, are now in the Museum of Archaeology.

Mr. M. C. Potter joined Dr. Gadow on August 14 at Porto, and immediately went in search of *Clemmys caspica* (the water tortoise which bears the Alga); finding this tortoise scarce in the North of Portugal, they went to Santarem, where it also was not procurable in sufficient numbers. They therefore proceeded to the Eastern Alemtejo to the mines of São Domingos; here, during several successful expeditions, they succeeded in obtaining a great number of *Clemmys caspica*, and with them a good supply of the parasitical Alga. At the mines of São Domingos, Mr. Potter was able to carry on his investigations through the kindness of his friend Mr. T. Warden, who placed his house at his disposal. The results have already been published in a preliminary form in the Proceedings of the Cambridge Philosophical Society, and will probably be published in full by the Linnean Society of London. To this Alga, hitherto undescribed, he has given the name of *Epiclennidia lusitanica*, thus describing its nature and to some extent its geographical distribution. The expedition was of great value in enabling him to study the geographical distribution of many plants, and to collect specimens for the Botanical Museum, especially at Coimbra, where the Scientific Staff of the University presented both gentlemen with many valuable specimens.

SCIENTIFIC SERIALS.

Botanische Fahrbücher (A. Engler), vol. viii. Part 3.—On the history of development of form in the Roburid Oaks, by Franz Krasan (two plates). The author points out, among other conclusions drawn from a comparison of ancient and modern forms, that the developmental series of forms of Oak extending continuously over immeasurable periods of time is compendiously summarised before our eyes in the development of the individual, i.e. that the ontogeny is an epitome of the phylogeny.—On *Eria chonclana*, a new species, by Fr. Kränzlin.—Descriptions of Lehmann's collections in Guatemala, Costa Rica, and Columbia: Cyperaceæ, by O. Böckeler; Liliaceæ, Hæmodoraceæ, Amaryllidaceæ, Dioscoreaceæ, and Iridaceæ, by J. G. Baker; Passifloraceæ and Aristolochiaceæ, by Maxwell T. Masters; Lythraceæ, by E. Koetner.—The Hungarian species of *Inula*, especially those of the *Enula* group, by Vincentius de Borbás.—The remainder of this number is taken up by the continuation of Dr. Winter's excellent epitome of the recent literature on the classification and geographical distribution of fungi, and by Dr. F. von Herders' article on new contributions to the geographical botany of Russia.—Notice is also given in this number of the joint work by Prof. Engler and Prantl, to be entitled "Die natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien." This will be a very comprehensive, profusely-illustrated work, while the names under which it is to be issued will be sufficient guarantee of its excellence.

THE principal article in the current number (vol. v. Part ii.) of the *Folk-Lore Journal* is the continuation of Miss Courtney's paper on Cornish folk-lore, which is very exhaustive. Mr. Kirby calls attention to five tales in the "Arabian Nights," which, though differing greatly from each other, are all based upon two simple fundamental ideas, viz. a door which it is forbidden to open, and the hero falling in love with a woman

seen from a house-top. The five tales which are examined lead by curious gradations from the simplest form of the story to the most complex. In response to an appeal issued by the local Secretary in Hong Kong to dwellers in the Far East, we get several Chinese and Japanese contributions. The most important of these relates to the folk-lore of aboriginal Formosa, and is written by Mr. G. Taylor, whose papers on Formosa and its aborigines in the *China Review* were noticed several times last year in these columns. From Formosa, as elsewhere in the world, the cry comes that the aborigines are either disappearing, or are becoming sophisticated by their contact with civilised races. "Come quickly, or you will be too late," says Mr. Taylor to inquirers. He is certainly losing no time in making the most of his opportunities as a resident, and it is to be hoped he will continue his researches. Mrs. Mansfield supplies some interesting Chinese superstitions respecting children; and Mr. Hartland writes on the somewhat hackneyed subject of Japanese New Year decorations. The late Mrs. Chaplin Ayerton almost exhausted this subject in a paper read about ten years ago before the Asiatic Society of Japan, and reproduced by her a few years later in a charming book on child-life in Japan. The other papers, dealing with Negro songs in Barbados, and American song-games and wonder-tales, show that this interesting Society is extending the area of its activity so as to include all parts of the globe. Cornwall, Arabia, Formosa, Barbados, the United States, Japan, do not form a bad assortment for a single number of this journal.

SOCIETIES AND ACADEMIES.

LONDON.

Physical Society, April 23.—Prof. W. G. Adams, Vice-President, in the chair.—The following papers were read:—On delicate calorimetric thermometers, and on expansion of thermometer-bulbs under pressure, by Prof. Pickering. The reading of a delicate mercurial thermometer, when placed in a bath at constant temperature, is found to depend on whether the thermometer was at a higher or lower temperature than the bath, before immersion. Capillarity was suggested as an explanation, but experiment showed that the effect was not always greatest at the narrow parts of the tube, and hence this idea was discarded. By using the same tube with different bulbs attached, the differences varied, and eventually the effect was found to be caused by exposing the inside of the tube to air and moisture; for when bulbs were attached to new tubes, without being so exposed, the differences between the rising and falling readings disappear. Hence, for very delicate thermometers great care should be taken not to expose the bore of the tube, and calibration of a tube before attaching the bulb must not be attempted. Even in the best tubes, after every possible precaution has been taken, the author finds some parts about which the mercury appears to stick, and in delicate observations these parts of the tube are to be avoided. He also finds it necessary to gently tap the top of the tube to relieve any friction, and has devised a clockwork arrangement for performing the operation uniformly. In the second part of the paper the author describes the want of concordance between the thermometers which have been compared with the same standard, and finds it due to the expansion of the bulbs not being in all cases proportional to the difference of pressure between the inside and outside. Thermometers with large thin bulbs show greatest discrepancies, and the remedy is found to be in making the bulbs more rigid. This is done by having a double bulb, making them from a cylindrical tube instead of by blowing, and increasing the thickness of the walls of the bulb. A knife-edge arrangement in the upper part of a thermometer is described, by which the same part of the graduated tube can be used, whatever the temperature (about which small changes are to be observed) may be. The proper amount of the mercury column can be cut off with the greatest nicety by its use. Mr. Whipple remarked that phenomena similar to those described in the paper were constantly coming under his notice, and mentioned the pressure-corrections they were applying to thermometers used *in vacuo*, during some pendulum experiments at present being carried out. He also described the Kew method of determining the pressure-correction in deep-sea thermometers, which are protected by an outer glass jacket filled with alcohol. Mr. Lant Carpenter described the first comparison experiments made at sea with protected and unprotected bulb thermometers. In answer to questions, Prof. Pickering said the range of pressure used was

from 0 to 3 atmospheres, and in his most delicate thermometer, where 200 millimetres correspond to 1°C ., the difference between readings taken in horizontal and vertical positions amounts to 30 millimetres.—Note on magnetisation; on sequences of reversals, by Mr. R. H. M. Bosanquet. Some experiments have recently been made on an iron bar whose magnetic properties under reversals with ascending values of current were first determined some years ago. The magnetic resistances have again been determined, first with ascending values of current, and afterwards with descending values. In all cases the induction was measured by reversing the current. The results generally show a greater magnetic resistance for descending values of current, except for small inductions where the resistance was less, when the experiments were performed in the above order. The paper concludes with a molecular hypothesis to explain the above results.—On a thermo-dynamical relation, by Prof. Ramsay and Dr. S. Young. The paper is an extension of one presented to the Society on February 26, and of which an abstract was read by the Secretary. The numerical results are given, from which the authors deduce the relation $p = bt - a$, for constant volume, and additional reasons are given for believing acetic acid (whose vapour-density at ordinary temperatures is abnormal) to be a mixture of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2$ and $\text{C}_4\text{H}_8\text{O}_4$, the former preponderating as the temperature rises. The authors ask the Society for a name to designate lines connecting pressure and temperature at constant volume, and for which they suggested "isochor" in their previous paper.

Zoological Society, April 19.—Mr. Osbert Salvin, F.R.S., Vice-President, in the chair.—The Secretary called attention to a set of eleven photographs representing the principal objects of natural history collected by the celebrated traveller Prjevalsky, during his four expeditions into Central Asia, and to an accompanying catalogue of them which had been presented to the Society's library by Dr. A. Strauch, of the Imperial Museum, St. Petersburg.—Mr. T. D. A. Cockerell exhibited and made remarks on some specimens of rare British slugs taken at Isleworth, Middlesex.—The Secretary read some extracts from a letter addressed to him by Mr. A. A. C. Le Souef, giving an account of a successful attempt to keep the duck-billed *Platypus*, or water-mole, alive in captivity in the Zoological Gardens at Melbourne.—Mr. J. Bland Sutton exhibited some specimens of diseased structures taken from mammals that had died in the Society's Gardens, and made comments thereon.—Mr. J. Bland Sutton read a paper on the singular arm-glands met with in various species of the family Lemuridae.—Mr. F. E. Beddard read a paper on the anatomy of earthworms, being a further contribution to his researches on that subject.—A communication was read from Mr. A. D. Bartlett, Superintendent of the Society's Gardens, containing remarks upon the mode of moulting of the Great Bird of Paradise (*Paradisæa apoda*), as observed in a captive specimen.—A communication was read from Mr. J. Douglas Ogilby, of the Australian Museum, Sydney, containing the description of a rare Australian fish (*Girella cyanea*).—A second paper by Mr. Ogilby contained the description of an undescribed fish of the genus *Prionurus*, obtained in Port Jackson, which was proposed to be called *Prionurus maculatus*.

Chemical Society, March 30.—Annual General Meeting.—Dr. Hugo Müller, F.R.S., President, in the chair.—The President delivered an address, some extracts from which we have already printed.—Prof. Odling proposed that the thanks of the meeting be given to the President for his address, and that he be requested to allow it to be printed. This motion was seconded by Dr. Gladstone, and accepted with acclamation by the Fellows present. The President acknowledged the compliment.—Dr. A. K. Miller and Dr. Rideal were appointed scrutators, and a ballot having been taken, the following were declared elected as Officers and Council for the ensuing year:—President: W. Crookes, F.R.S. Vice-Presidents who have filled the office of President: Sir F. A. Abel, C.B., F.R.S.; Warren De La Rue, F.R.S.; E. Frankland, F.R.S.; J. H. Gilbert, F.R.S.; J. H. Gladstone, F.R.S.; A. W. Hofmann, F.R.S.; H. Müller, F.R.S.; W. Odling, F.R.S.; W. H. Perkin, F.R.S.; Sir Lyon Playfair, K.C.B., F.R.S.; Sir H. E. Roscoe, F.R.S.; A. W. Williamson, F.R.S. Vice-Presidents: J. Dewar, F.R.S.; David Howard; H. McLeod, F.R.S.; Ludwig Mond; C. Schorlemmer, F.R.S.; W. A. Tilden, F.R.S. Secretaries: H. E. Armstrong, F.R.S.; J. Millar Thomson. Foreign Secretary: F. R. Japp, F.R.S. Treasurer: W. J. Russell, F.R.S. Ordinary Members of

Council: Messrs. T. Carnelley, M. Carteighe, A. H. Church, Frank Clowes, P. F. Frankland, R. J. Friswell, E. Kinch, R. Messel, H. F. Morley, J. A. R. Newlands, W. Ramsay, Thomas Stevenson.

April 7.—Mr. William Crookes, F.R.S., President, in the chair.—The following papers were read:—Researches on the constitution of azo- and diazo-derivatives; II. Diazoamido-compounds (continued), by Mr. R. Meldola, F.R.S., and Mr. F. W. Streatfeild.—Conjugated sulphates and isomorphous mixtures of the copper-magnesium group, by Mr. P. C. Roy.—Suboxide of silver, Ag_2O , by Mr. G. H. Bailey and Mr. G. J. Fowler.—Action of trimethylenebromide on the sodium compounds of ethylic acetoacetate, benzoylacetate, parinitrobenzoylacetate, and acetonedicarboxylate, by Dr. W. H. Perkin, Jun.

Institution of Civil Engineers, April 19.—Mr. Edward Woods, President, in the chair.—Four papers were read on the subject of obtaining water-supply from wells, namely, chalk springs in the London Basin, by Mr. J. W. Grover; borings in the chalk at Bushey, Herts, by Mr. William Fox; on a borehole in Leicestershire, by Mr. T. S. Stooke; and the wells and borings of the Southampton Waterworks, by Mr. William Matthews.

PARIS.

Academy of Sciences, April 25.—M. Janssen, President, in the chair.—Remarks on M. Colladon's note of April 18, by M. Faye. In reply to M. Colladon's statement that his observations had reference to whirlwinds and waterspouts and not to cyclones or tornadoes, the author points out the great analogy that exists between these two orders of phenomena, both being descending vortices with vertical axis originating in the upper atmospheric regions. The essential difference is that the cyclones are much larger, and that their movement takes its rise at a much higher elevation; but both are subject to the same laws, while it is quite impossible to separate waterspouts from tornadoes.—Experiments for determining the coefficient of nutritive and respiratory activity of the muscles at work and in repose, by M. A. Chauveau and M. Kaufmann. Here a solution is attempted of the physiological problem, to determine for a given weight of living muscular tissue and for all the normal and regular physiological conditions of such tissue (1) the quantity of blood flowing through it in a given time for purposes of nutrition; (2) the weight of oxygen absorbed by this tissue, and of the carbonic acid secreted by it in the same time; (3) the weight of the substances which supply the carbon contained in the carbonic acid gas.—On a new species of truffle, by M. Ad. Chatin. It is shown that the truffle produced in Champagne and Burgundy is not the common species known as *Tuber rufum* and *T. aestivum*, but another hitherto undescribed variety here specified and named *Tuber uncinatum*.—Remarks on a thunderbolt of an unusually destructive character, by M. Daniel Colladon. An electric discharge is described which occurred on April 7 at Schoren in the Canton Bern, and which, after striking a large poplar, spread havoc for some hundreds of metres around, comparable to the effects caused by the explosion of a powder magazine. The shock was felt in Langenthal, three-quarters of a mile off, where several windows in a house were smashed.—On acute pneumonia, by M. Jaccoud. The observations here described establish the fact that true pneumonia is due not to the accidental penetration of specific microbes into the system, as is usually supposed, but to the development under favourable conditions of microbic germs permanently present in the system. A chief condition of such development is a sudden chill, which explains the frequent coincidence of lung affections with abrupt changes of temperature.—Note on the method of research for determining the correlation between two orders of facts, by M. de Montessus. The reference is to M. de Parville's recent paper on the correlation between earthquakes and lunar declination. The difficulty of correlating such phenomena is commented upon, which sufficiently accounts for the failure of the numerous attempts hitherto made to establish a distinct relation between the movements of the moon and those of the terrestrial crust. Such a relation would be equivalent to an experimental demonstration of the hypothesis which assumes that the centre of the earth is in a fluid state.—On the earthquake of February 23, 1887, by M. Albert Offret. With the data supplied from the various localities affected, an attempt is here made accurately to determine the moment when the shock reached the different points in the central part of the seismic area. The results are shown in two separate tables for France and Italy.—Expansion

and compressibility of water, and displacement of the maximum of density by pressure, by M. E. H. Amagat. The author has carried his experiments on water as far as 3200 atmospheres, operating between 0° and 50° C. as limits of temperature, with the general result that a sufficient increase of pressure and temperature tends to bring water within the normal condition of other fluids. Towards 3000 atmospheres the last traces disappear of the perturbations of the general laws resulting from the existence of the maximum of density.—Isogonic magnetic curves, by M. C. Decharme. The author endeavours to show by a series of diagrams the double magnetic influence to which the needle is subjected in the vicinity of a magnet.—A study of the alkaline vanadates (continued), by M. A. Ditte. Here are examined the vanadates of lithine, to which is appended a general table of the well-defined crystallized salts yielded by potassa, soda, ammonia, and lithine.—Artificial production of magnetite, by M. Alex. Gorgeu. By the process here described a magnetic oxide is obtained apparently identical with natural magnetite. It is attracted by the magnet, shows a metallic lustre, and affects opaque octahedral forms, sometimes modified by minute facets of the rhomboidal dodecahedron, with hardness from 6 to 6.5, and density 5.21 to 5.25.—Qualitative study of the sulphites in the presence of the hyposulphites and sulphates, by M. A. Villiers. A convenient and rapid process is described for the research of the sulphites in the presence of the hyposulphites, which, like the former, liberate sulphurous acid by the action of the acids.—On the various sulphurous waters of Olette, Eastern Pyrenees, by M. Ed. Willm. A tabulated analysis is given of these waters on the assumption that all the carbonic acid is combined under the form of bicarbonates.—On synthetic acetonitril, by M. Louis Henry. The acetonitril obtained by the process here described is in every respect identical with that yielded by the dehydration of acetamide.—On some cases of morphinomania in animals, by M. Ludovic Jammes. Several instances are mentioned of cats, and especially monkeys, acquiring a decided taste for the fumes of opium through association with opium-smokers in Camboja and China.

BERLIN.

Meteorological Society, April 5.—Prof. von Bezold, President, in the chair.—Prof. Upton, of Providence (U.S.A.), spoke on meteorological observations during eclipses of the sun. After discussing the phenomena which may theoretically be expected during an eclipse, he gave a full account of his own meteorological observations, already known to the readers of NATURE, which he made during the eclipses of May 6, 1883, on the island of Carolina, and which have already been published in full. He then discussed an explanation of the barometric variations during the period of totality which had been appended to the report of his observations as published in the *Zeitschrift für Meteorologie*, and expressed his dissatisfaction with the same. He is rather inclined to believe that the very evident fall in the atmospheric pressure before the period of totality is due to an outrush of air which is becoming cooled in the moon's shadow, and that the rise of pressure which is observed shortly after the period of totality is due to a compensating inrush of air. In conclusion Prof. Upton pointed out the importance of making meteorological observations in Prussia, especially as regards the variations of barometric pressure, during the total eclipse of August 19, along the line of total eclipse, and more particularly along the boundaries of the area of totality. In the discussion which followed, Prof. Spörer gave a description of the dense clouds of mist which he observed close to the earth during the eclipse of August 18, 1868, in India. Several days previously to the eclipse there had been a heavy fall of rain; the unclouded sun which rose on the 18th heated the surface of the earth and the dark stones, and then, as soon as the totality began, long, dense bands of mist made their appearance, and with the sharp breeze which was blowing gave rise to a very obvious sensation of coolness. Dr. Zenker then pointed out that, inasmuch as in Prussia the period of totality would occur in the very early morning hours, it would be out of place to expect any very marked variations of either temperature or barometric pressure. On the other hand, he considered that the meteorological observations should be directed more especially to an investigation of Bishop's rings, and of the alternating light and dark bands which precede and follow the stage of totality; they are probably interference fringes, and could be most efficiently recorded by means of photography. Prof. von Bezold laid stress on the importance of observations on the twilight which occurs during the

eclipse, pointing out that specially favourable conditions for such observations will present themselves in Germany during this year. It is to be hoped that exact observations of the umbra, the penumbra, and the colours which simultaneously make their appearance will throw considerable light on the phenomenon. Prof. von Bezold intends to provide at the time for an adequately numerous participation in carrying out these observations.

STOCKHOLM.

Royal Academy of Sciences, March 9.—Sir Lowthian Bell, Bart., was elected a foreign corresponding member of the Academy.—On the species and varieties of the Coniferae found in Scandinavia, by Prof. Wittrock. He also exhibited *Viola Succiæ exsiccata*, prepared by Messrs. L. M. Neuman, L. J. Wahlstedt, and S. Murbeck.—Report of a visit to some lakes and fresh-water basins in Sweden for the purpose of studying the flora, by Dr. N. A. Lundström.—Remarks on the fishes of the Mediterranean and the Sea of Japan, by Prof. F. A. Smitt.—A description of the collection of Japanese fishes in the zoological museum of the University of Upsala, by Herr E. Nyström.—Researches on the volume and composition of the gases resulting from the solution of iron in acids, by Herr H. Bäckström and Herr G. Paykull.—On the effects of hardening on the volume and composition of the gases evolved on the solution of steel in acids, by Herr G. Paykull.—On the number and congruences of the roots of the second order, by Dr. A. Berger.—On the integration of the differential equations for a material point movement, by Dr. G. Kobb.—The Secretary announced the acceptance of the following papers for publication in the Academy's Proceedings:—On the application of a numerical-theoretic formula for the transformation of a definite double integral, by Dr. A. Berger.—Contributions to the theory relating to the undulating movement in a gaseous body, by Prof. A. V. Bäcklund.—On allaktite from the Långban Mines, by Herr A. Sjögren.

BOOKS, PAMPHLETS, and SERIALS RECEIVED.

The Problem of Evil: G. D. Thompson (Longmans).—Die Natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien, Lief. 1 and 2: A. Engler and K. Prantl (Engelmann, Leipzig).—A Popular History of Astronomy during the Nineteenth Century, 2nd edition; A. M. Clerke (Black, Edinburgh).—Bulletin de la Société Impériale des Naturalistes de Moscou, No. 4, 1886, and No. 1, 1887 (Moscou).—Botany Notes, 2 parts, 3rd edition: A. Johnstone (Livingstone).—Organic Materia Medica: R. Bentley (Longmans).

CONTENTS

	PAGE
Loomis's Contributions to Meteorology	1
The Game of Logic. By Alfred Sidgwick	3
Our Book Shelf:—	
Stutzer: "Nitrate of Soda"	4
Letters to the Editor:—	
Units of Weight, Mass, and Force.—Rev. Edward Geoghegan	4
Earthquake in the Western Riviera.—Prof. Henry H. Giglioli	4
The Boiling-Point and Pressure.—M. F. O'Reilly	4
A Sparrow chasing Pigeons.—W. Harcourt Bath	4
The Royal Society Selected Candidates	5
The Paris Astronomical Congress	7
On Ice and Brines, II. By J. Y. Buchanan	9
The Classification of Spiders. By Rev. O. P. Cambridge	12
Christmas Island. By Capt. W. J. L. Wharton, F.R.S.; Capt. J. P. Maclear	12
Notes	13
Our Astronomical Column:—	
The Orbit of the Minor Planet Eucharis	16
Astronomical Phenomena for the Week 1887	
May 8-14	16
Geographical Notes	17
The Work of the Imperial Institute, II. By Sir Frederick Abel, C.B., F.R.S.	17
The Locomotor System of Star-fish. By Dr. George J. Romanes, F.R.S.	20
The Report of the Select Committee on Endowed Schools	21
University and Educational Intelligence	22
Scientific Serials	22
Societies and Academies	22
Books, Pamphlets, and Serials Received	24