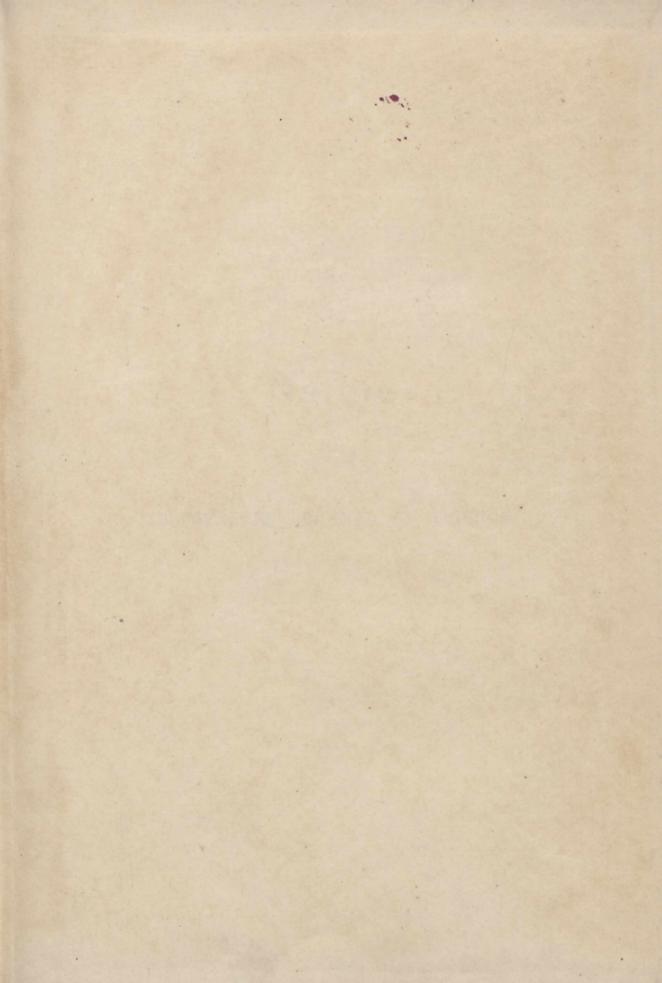
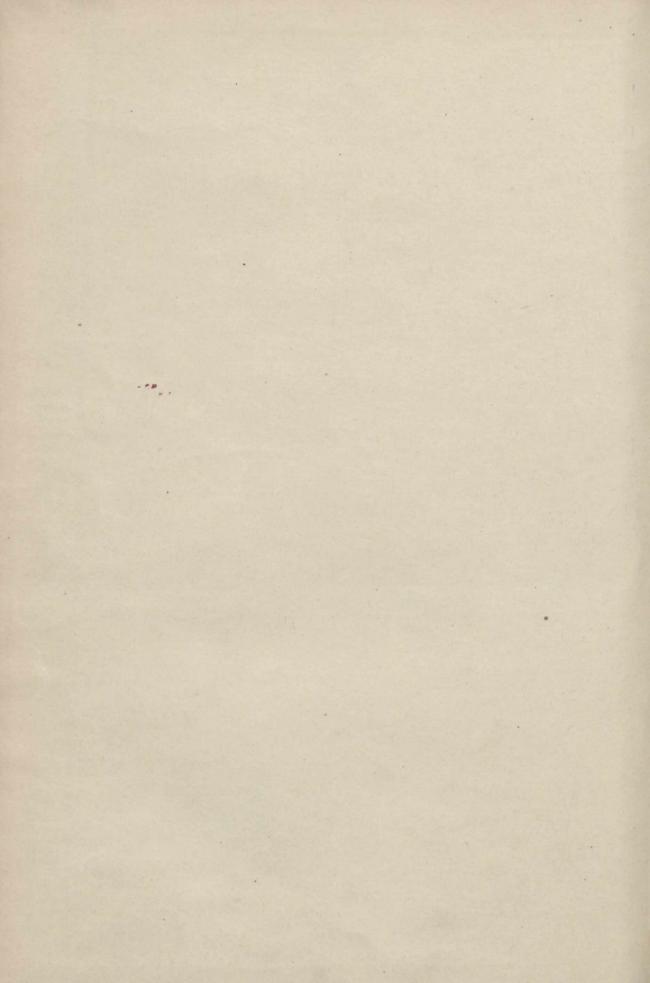


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Nature

A WEEKLY



ILLUSTRATED JOURNAL OF SCIENCE

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Nature, July 22, 1900]

Nature

A WEEKLY

ILLUSTRATED JOURNAL OF SCIENCE

VOLUME LXXX



MARCH to JUNE, 1909

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

1912.1942.

London

MACMILLAN AND CO., LIMITED NEW YORK: THE MACMILLAN COMPANY RICHARD CLAY AND SONS, LIMITED, BREAD STREET HILL, E.C., AND BUNGAY, SUFFOLK.





INDEX.

ABBOT (Mr.), the Determination of the Solar Constant, 468 Abbot (W. J. Lewis), Manmoth Skeleton, 225 Abbott (George), the Colours of Leaves, 429 Abel (O.), Bau und Geschichte der Erde, 367 Abruzzi (H.R.H. Prince Luigi Amedeo of Savoy, Duke of Abruzzi (H.R.H. Prince Luigi Amedeo of Savoy, Duke of

- the), Ruwenzori : an Account of the Expedition of, F. de Filippi, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 281 Absorption of Light, Electrons and the, R. A. Houston,

338

- Acoustics : Thermal Effects of a Musical Arc, M. La Rosa, 29, 89; the Gramophone as a Phonautograph, Prof. John G. McKendrick, F.R.S., 188
- Acquired Character, the Inheritance of, Dr. Wm. Woods
- Smyth, 277 Acquired Characters in Plants, the Heredity of, Rev. Prof. George Henslow, 93
- Actinium, the Radio-active Deposits of, S. Russ, 8
- Adams (W. Poynter), Motor-car Mechanism and Manage-

ment, 33 Adams (Prof. W. S.) the Rotation of the Sun, 141 Adler (E.), New Electrical Hardening Furnace, 209 Adriatic, the Shores of the, the Austrian Side, F. Hamilton Jackson, 274

- Jackson, 274 Aërolite, Fall of an, in Mokoia, New Zealand, on Novem-ber 26, 1908, W. F. Denning, 128 Aëronautics: the Aëro and Motor Boat Exhibition, 111; Count Zeppelin's Airship, 165; Count Zeppelin's Ascent, May 29, 405; the Royal Prussian Aëronautical Observa-tory's Aërological Expedition to Tropical East Africa, Profs. R. Assmann and A. Berson, 171; International Balloon Observations made by the Bavarian Meteor-ological Service, 199; Aërodonetics, F. W. Lanchester, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 221; Artificial and Natural Flight, Sir Hiram S. Maxim, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 221; Recent Progress in Aëronautics, Major George O. 221; Recent Progress in Aëronautics, Major George O. Squier, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 223; the Stabilisa-tion of Aëroplanes, Etienne Maigre, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 223; Astronomische Ortsbestimmung im Ballon, Prof. Adolf Marcuse, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 244; the Government and Aëronautical Research, Prof. G. H.Bryan, F.R.S., 313; the International Commission for - Scientific Aëronautics, 354; Rubber Balloons, Prof. Assmann, 354; Method of Ventilating the Instrument during Ascent, Prof. Assmann, 354; Theoretical Applications of Upper-air Observations, Prof. Bjerknes, 355; Results of Theodolite Observations on Ballons sondes at Trappes, Theoretical Applications of Statements of the Statement of Teisserence de Bort, 355; Experiments to determine the Rate of Ascent of Rubber Balloons in Still Air, Prof. Hergesell, 355; Award of the Osiris Prize to Louis Blériot and Gabriel Voisin, 499
- Aflalo (F. G.), Sunset Playgrounds : Fishing Days and Others in California and Canada, 431
- Africa: the Royal Prussian Aëronautical Observatory's Aërological Expedition to Tropical East Africa, Profs. R. Assmann and A. Berson, 171; die Blütenpflanzen Afrikas, Franz Thonner, Dr. Otto Stapf, F.R.S., 333; the Ore Deposits of South Africa, J. P. Johnson, 305; Rock-engravings in South Africa, L. Péringuey, 411; Com. P. Ludeldong 18 Corr., R. Lvdekker, 438 Agamennone (Dr. G.), Seismological Service established in

Italy after the Riviera Earthquake of February 23, 1887, 438

Age, Growth, and Death, the Problem of, a Study of Cytomorphosis, Prof. Charles S. Minot, 335 Agriculture: Peat Deposits of Connecticut, 48; Scientific Aid for the British Tenant Farmer, 51; Breeding for

- Aid for the British Tenant Farmer, 51; Breeding for Milk, 77; Correlations of Areas of Matured Crop and the Rainfall and Certain Allied Problems in Agriculture and Meteorology, S. M. Jacob, 89; Elementary Agricultural Chemistry, Herbert Ingle, Dr. E. J. Russell, 93; Agri-cultural Education, 101; Crows and Poultry, 106; Analyses of Brewers' and Distillers' Grains, Messrs. Fagan and Allan, 106; American Insect Pests, Dr. Ball, 138; Dr. Chittenden, 138; W. D. Hunter, 138; Indian Wheats, 138; Manurial Experiments on Wheat in South Australia, 108: Lucerne, 108: Some Aspects of the Wheat Australia, 198; Lucerne, 198; Some Aspects of the Wheat Problem, Dr. E. J. Russell, 282; Economic Value of Australian Pasture Grasses, F. Turner, 139; the Dry-rot of Potatoes, Sibyl Longman, 148; Black Scab or Potato-wart, Prof. T. Johnson, 179; the Powdery Scab of the Potato Spongospora subterranea, Prof. T. Johnson, 389; the Experimental Breeding of Indian Cottons, Part ii., on Buds and Branching, H. Martin Leake, 150; Cotton-growing in the West Indies, West Indian Bulletin, the Journal of the Imperial Agricultural Department for the West Indies, 164; Prickly Pear as Cattle Food, 167; the Journal of the South-eastern Agricultural College, the Journal of the South-eastern Agricultural College, Wye, Kent, 170; Parasites of the Cotton-worm, Mr. Jemmett, 197; Rainfall Conditions of Transvaal, Mr. Macdonald, 198; Plants Poisonous to Stock, J. Burtt-Davy, 225; Agriculture at Grenada, 286; Importation of Sugar-canes, Regulations for British Guiana, 286; Sussex Cattle, H. Birden, arts, Efforts of Niterer for the Plant Sugar-canes, Regulations for British Guiana, 286; Sussex Cattle, H. Rigden, 317; Effects of Nitrogen-fixing Bacteria on the Growth of Non-Leguminous Plants, Prof. W. B. Bottomley, 327; the Fertilisation of Tea, George A. Cowie, 385; Two New Parasites of the Black-currant Mite, Miss A. M. Taylor, 447; Relations between the Permeability of Soils and their Aptitude for Irrigation, A. Muntz and L. Faure, 449; Injurious Insects observed in Ireland during 1908, Prof. G. H. Carpenter, 479
 Aitken (Dr. J.), a Simple Radioscope and a Radiometer for showing and measuring Radio-activity, 478
 Alaska, ein Beitrag zur Geschichte nordischer Kolonisation, Prof. H. Erdmann, 121
 Aldrich (L. B.), the Determination of the Solar Constant, 468

- 468
- Alechin (W.), the Streletz Steppe, 500
- Algæ, Fresh-water, from Burma, including a few from Bengal and Madras, W. West and G. S. West, 125 Algebra, School, W. E. Patterson, 426 Algué (Prof. José), Meteorological Conditions in the Philip-
- pine Islands, 1908, 299 Allan (Mr.), Analyses of Brewers' and Distillers' Grains, 106
- Allcroft (A. Hadrian), Earthwork of England, Prehistoric, Roman, Saxon, Danish, Norman, and Mediæval, 60 Allen (H. Stanley), the Photo-electric Fatigue of Zinc,
- 178
- Alloys and their Industrial Applications, E. F. Law, 243 Alpine and Bog Plants, Reginald Farrer, 344

Alternating Circuit of Parallel Wires, the Simple Equivalent of an, Dr. J. W. Nicholson, 247

Amaftounsky (M. A.), the Constitution of the Sun, 51

- America: Higher Education in the United States, 112; Physiological and Medical Observations among the Indians of South-western United States and Northern Indians of South-Western United States and Northern Mexico, Aleš Hrdlička, 126; the American Philosophical Society, 443; Notes of a Botanist on the Amazon and Andes, Richard Spruce, 458; American and Canadian Waterways, 461; American Philosophy, the Early Schools, Prof. J. W. Riley, 489 Amulets, Tibetan and Burmese, Dr. W. L. Hildburgh, 387
- Anatomy: the Intracranial Vascular System of Sphenodon, Prof. A. Dendy, 268-9; Brains of Two White Philo-sophers and of Two Obscure Negroes Compared, Prof. B. G. Wilder, 443; Anatomical Results of Excavations in Nubia, Drs. G. Elliot Smith and Douglas E. Derry, 466
- Ancestry of the Marsupialia, the, Prof. Jas. P. Hill, 159; the Writer of the Note, 159
- André (Ch.), les Planètes et leur Origines, 274
- Andrewes (Dr.), Micro-organisms Present in Sewer Air, 203
- Andrewes (Ewart S.), the Theory and Design of Structures, 64
- Animal World, the Transformations of the, Charles Depéret, 452 Animals at Home, W. P. Westell, 192 Anschütz (Prof. Richard), Life and Chemical Work of
- Archibald Scott Couper, 329
- Archibald Scott Couper, 329
 Anstey (H. C.), Applications of the Internal-combustion Engine to Marine Propulsion, 173
 Antarctica: Return of the British Antarctic Expedition; 102; Lieut. Shackleton's Antarctic Expedition: (1) Explorations and Results, (2) the South Magnetic Pole, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., (3) Meteorological Observations, W. H. Dines, F.R.S., (4) Biological Results, 130; Scien-tific Achievements of British Antarctic Expedition under Lieut. Shackleton, 377; Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of S.Y. Scotia during the Years 1902, 1903, and 1904, under the Leadership of Dr. William S. Bruce, Vol. iv., Zoology, Part i., Zoological Log, David W. Wilton, Dr. J. H. Harvie Pirie, and R. N. Rudmose Brown, vol. v., Zoology, Invertebrates, 161; National Antarctic Expedition, 1901-4, Album of Photographs and
- Brown, vol. v., Zoology, Invertebrates, 161; National Antarctic Expedition, 1901–4, Album of Photographs and Sketches, 460; the French Antarctic Expedition, Com-munication from Dr. J. B. Charcot, 285 Anthropology: Reports of the Cambridge Anthropological Expedition to Torres Straits, Vol. vi., Sociology, Magic and Religion of the Eastern Islanders, 9; Curious Device for cheating Death, H. C. Brown, 48; Proportion of Sexes produced by Whites and Coloured Peoples in Cuba, Walter Heape, 57; an Imperial Bureau of Anthropology. Walter Heape, 57; an Imperial Bureau of Anthropology, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 73; Canoe Ornamental Carv-ings from South-eastern British New Guinea, Dr. Selig-mann, 106; the Veddas, Dr. C. G. Seligmann, 119; Photographs of the Veddas of Ceylon and of their Cere-monial Dances Dr. C. G. Seligmann, 119; mann, 100; the Veddas, Dr. C. G. Seingmann, 119; Photographs of the Veddas of Ceylon and of their Cere-monial Dances, Dr. C. G. Seligmann, 349; Royal Anthro-pologial Institute, 119, 298, 359, 387; Origin of the Terms of Human Relationship, A. Lang, 139; Moun-taineers of the Euphrates, E. Huntingdon, 167; German Anthropological Papers, 204; the Nuraghi of Sardinia, Dr. Duncan Mackenzie, 226; Australian Kinship, Dr. A. Lang, 247; Native Man in Southern India, E. Thurston, 257; the Blackfeet Indians of Montana, W. MacClintock, 298; the Romanichels, Bob Skot, 318; Baskets used in Repelling Demons, Kumagusu Mina-kata, 369; Crania and Bones from Ancient Ruins in Rhodesia, Dr. F. C. Shrubsall, 379; Tibetan and Bur-mese Amulets, Dr. W. L. Hildburgh, 387; Cranial Capacity of Fossil Men of the Type known as Nean-derthal, Marcellin Boule, 390; der Unterkiefer des Homo Heidelbergensis aus den Sanden von Mauer bei Heidel-berg, Otto Schoetensack, Dr. William Wright, 398; Origin of the People of Egypt, Dr. Elliot Smith, 407; Origin of the Turkish Crescent, Prof. Ridgeway, 407; the Burning Bush and the Origin of Judaism, Prof. P. the Burning Bush and the Origin of Judaism, Prof. P. Haupt, 444; Human Skeleton discovered in Cavern of Le Moustier, Dordogne, Dr. Ludwig Reinhardt, 466; Skeleton of the Fossil Man of La Chapelle-aux-Saints, Marcellin Boule, 480; Pre-animistic Stages in Savage

Religion, E. Clodd, 501; European Population of the United States, Prof. W. Z. Ripley, 501 Apiculture, Problems of, Dr. W. Malden, 356 Apnœa, the Production of Prolonged, in Man, W. G. Royal-Dawson, 8; Dr. H. M. Vernon, 39 April Meteors, John R. Henry, 188 Aquarium of the New York Zoological Society, 500 Arborioluture . Mitteilungen der deutschen deutschen

- Arboriculture : Mitteilungen der deutschen dendrologischen Gesellschaft, 325
- Archaeology : Excavation of Celtic Rubbish-heap near Oare, Mrs. M. E. Cunnington, 17; Geographical and Archaeo-logical Explorations in Chinese Turkestan in 1906-8, Dr. M. A. Stein, 47; Earthwork of England, Prehistoric, Roman, Saxon, Danish, Norman, and Mediaval, A. Hadrian Allcroft, Rev. John Griffith, 69; the Botallek Circles, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 97; Canoe Ornamental Carvings from South-eastern British New Guinea, Dr. Seligmann, 106; Palæolithic Implements, &c., from Hackpen Hill, Winterbourne Bassett, Rev. H. G. O. Kendall, 118; Stone Implements of the French Older Palæolithic Age, Dr. Hugo Obermaier, 139; Hand-book for Egypt and the Sudan, 155; Palæolithic Vessels of Egypt, or the Earliest Handiwork of Man, Robert de of Egypt, or the Earliest Handiwork of Man, Robert de Rustafjaell, 246; the Tomb of Horemheb, Egypt, A. E. P. Weigall, 437; Memoirs of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, Harvard Univer-sity, Explorations in the Department of Petén, Guatemalo and Adjacent Region, T. Maler, 160; Roman Metal-work found at Deep Dale Cave, W. Turner, 198; the Nuraghi of Sardinia, Dr. Duncan Mackenzie, 226; Open-ings in Knap Hill Camp, Wiltshire, Mrs. M. E. Cunning-ham, 287; the Uses and Dates of Ancient Temples, Sir Norman Lockver, K.C.B., F.R., 240; Ancient Sarco-Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 340; Ancient Sarco-Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 340; Ancient Sarco-phagi used in Modern Interments, 351; Stone Circles in Ireland, A. L. Lewis, 359; Steatite Figures (Nomori), T. A. Joyce, 437; Early Civilisation in Northern Greece, Messrs. Wace, Droop, and Thomson, 437; Anatomical Results of Excavations in Nubia, Drs. G. Elliot Smith and Douglas E. Derry, 466; the Welsh Gorsedd, Rev. W. Griffith, 468; Wall-paintings of Altamira Cavern, Lotus Péralté, 501; United States National Museum Collection of Rosaries, I. M. Casanowicz, 502 rchitecture : the Planning of Fever Hospitals and Dis-
- Architecture : the Planning of Fever Hospitals and Dis-infecting and Cleansing Stations, Albert C. Freeman, 185
- Ardern (Edward), Principles of Sewage Treatment, Prof. Dunbar, 5; Sewer Construction, Prof. Henry N. Ogden, Dunbar, 5; Sewer Construction, Prot. Henry N. Ogden, 5; Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal, W. H. Trentham and J. Saunders, 5 Armstrong (Prof. Henry E., F.R.S.), British Association, Winnipeg Meeting, 159 Ascherson (P.), das Pflanzenreich, Potamogetonaceæ, 424 Ascoli (W. S.), the Guatemalan Earthquakes and Eruption

- Ashworth (J. R.), Is there a Vertical Magnetic Force in a Cyclone? 40 Asia: the Morphology of Asia, 91; Dr. Sven Hedin on

- Asiatic Society of Bengal, 89, 150 Aspinall (John A. F.), the Electrification of Railways, Address at Institution of Mechanical Engineers, 260 Assheton (Ric.), the Germ-layer Theory, 492
- Assmann (Prof. R.), the Royal Prussian Aëronautical Observatory's Aërological Expedition to Tropical East Africa, 171; Rubber Balloons, 354; Method of Ventilat-ing the Instrument during Ascent, 354 Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions, the, 446 Association of Technical Institutions, the Functions of
- Technical Colleges, Dr. George T. Beilby, F.R.S., at, 22
- Astrographic Conference at Paris, the, 440 Astronomy: the Meteoric Fireball of February 22 and its Streak, W. F. Denning, 13; the Meteoric Streak of February 22, W. F. Denning, 42; Fireball of February 22, W. F. Denning, 69; the Spectra of Various Nebulæ, Prof. Wolf, 19; the Proposed Programme of Work for the Bernarde Pedestor at Helman Fourt Varos Shear the Reynolds Reflector at Helwan, Egypt, Knox Shaw, 19; Our Astronomical Column, 19, 50, 79, 108, 141, 169. 19; Our Astonomic Contract Contract, 19; 50; 79; 106; 141; 109; 200; 228; 259; 288; 320; 353; 380; 409; 430; 468; 502; Observations of Comet Temple₃-Swift, Prof. Barnard, 19; Comet Temple₃-Swift, 1908*d*, M.M. Ramband and Sy, 79; the Levels of Sun-spots, A. W. Dobbie, 19; Sun-spots

and Solar Temperature, Mr. Evershed, 169; a New "Cave-nebula" in Cepheus, Prof. Wolf, 19; the Recent Magnitude of Nova Persei, Prof. Nijland, 19; Double-star Measures, Prof. Burnham, 19; Measures of Double Stars, Dr. Lau and Herr Luplau-Janssen, 200; Anomalous Refraction and Spectroheliograph Results, Prof. Julius, 50; the Constitution of the Sun, J. F. Hermann Schulz, 51; M. A. Amaftounsky, 51; the Rota-tion of the Sun, Prof. W. S. Adams, 141; Partial Eclipse of the Sun in Canada, Dr. Downing, 320; Hale's Solar Vortices, A. Brester, 79; Pressure in the Sun's Atmo-sphere, MM. Fabry and Buisson, 229; the Upper Layers of the Solar Atmosphere, M. Deslandres, 354; Recent Solar Researches, Prof. Ricco, 288; the Present Solar Activity, W. E. Rolston, 320; Critical Examination of the Monochromatic Images of the Sun with the Hydrogen Lines, H. Deslandres and L. d'Azambuja, 389; Un-Lines, H. Deslandres and L. d'Azambuja, 389; Un-symmetrical Enlargement of the Lines of the Arc Spec-trum and their Comparison with those of the Solar Spectrum, Ch. Fabry and H. Buisson, 389; Changes in the Figure and Dimensions of the Sun, Prof. Moulton, A39; the Determination of the Solar Constant, Messrs. Abbot and Fowle, jun., L. B. Aldrich, 468; Stellar Evolu-tion, Prof. Moulton, 79; Radial Velocity of a Persei, F. Goos, 51; a Catalogue of 1625 Southern Stars, Ernest Cooke, 51; the Melbourne Observatory, Mr. Baracchi, 51; the Cape Observatory, 79; the Botallek Circles, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 97; Photographs of Morehouse's Comet, 1908c, Rev. Joel Metcalf, 108; Spec-trum of the Comet 1908c (Morehouse), A. de la Baume-Pluvine and F. Beldet and Participantic and Participantic Full of the Comet 19082 (Morehouse), A. de la Baunte-Pluvinel and F. Baldet, 149; Prof. Hartmann, 380; Posi-tions of Morehouse's (1908c) Comet, Dr. Ebell, 169; Observations made at Meudon Observatory on More-house's Comet, H. Deslandres, A. Bernard, and J. Bosler, 179; Comet Morehouse, 1908c, Prof. F. Ristenpart, 260; Observations of, Mr. Motherwell, 200; Theory to Account for Changes in the Tail of Comet c 1908, Prof. F. F. Barnard Act. Relation between the Magnitudes E. E. Barnard, 444; Relation between the Magnitudes and Colours of Stars, Herren Müller and Kempf, 108; Colours and Magnitudes of Stars, Mr. Franks, Miss Bell, 288; Photographic Determination of the Colours of the 288; Photographic Determination of the Colours of the Stars, Oesten Bergstrand, 299; a Remarkable Promin-ence, Father Chevalier, 108; a Treatise on Spherical Astronomy, Sir Robert Ball, F.R.S., 123; Fall of an Aërolite in Mokoia, New Zealand, on November 26, 1908, W. F. Denning, 128; Transactions of the International Union for Cooperation in Solar Research, 134; Astro-W. F. Denning, 128; Iransactions of the International Union for Cooperation in Solar Research, 134; Astro-nomical Occurrences in April, 141; in May, 259; in June, 409; Common Motions of the Principal Ursæ Majoris Stars, Dr. Ludendorff, 141; the Surface of Rotat-ing Mercury as a Reflecting Telescope, Prof. R. W. Wood, 141; Photographs of the Earthshine on the Moon, M. Quénisset, 141; Cosmical Matter in Space, Prof. Newall, 142; Observations of Variable Stars, Prof. Newall, 142; Observations of Variable Stars, Prof. Nijland, 142; Systematic Motion of the Stars, Prof. Bohuslav Brauner, 158; Position of Daniel's (1907d) Comet, H. H. Kritzinger, 169; Recent Observations of Daniel's Comet, 1907d, Prof. Wolf, 410; the Apparent Dispersion of Light in Space, Prof. Lebedew, 169; Coloured Stars in the Globular Cluster M. 13, Prof. Barnard, 169; the United States Naval Observatory, 170; Astronomy of To-day, Dr. Cecil G. Dolmage, William E. Rolston, 181; April Meteors, John R. Henry, 188; In-ternational Chart of the Heavens, 193; Diameter and Position of Mercury, Prof. Stroobant, 200; Mercury as an Evening Star, 230; the Vatican Observatory, 200; Position of Mercury, Prof. Stroobant, 200; Mercury as an Evening Star, 320; the Vatican Observatory, 200; a Chinese Planisphere, E. B. Knobel, 200; the 60-inch Reflecting Telescope of the Mount Wilson Observatory, California, Dr. G. W. Ritchey, 200; Royal Astronomical Society, 209, 387; Moving Force of Terrestrial and Celes-tial Bodies in Relation to the Attraction of Gravitation, Dr. U. Wilde coet the Abode of I if Darsingl Larget tial Bodies in Relation to the Attraction of Gravitation, Dr. H. Wilde, 209; Mars as the Abode of Life, Percival Lowell, 212; the "Original" Canals of the Martian Doubles, Prof. Lowell, 260; Mars, Prof. Lowell, 353; Develop-ment of Martian Canals, Prof. Lowell, 288; Halley's Comet, Mr. Crommelin, 228; the Meteoric Shower of Halley's Comet, W. F. Denning, 259; the Spectra of Nebulæ, Prof. Wolf, Dr. Eberhard, 229; Orbits of Spec-troscopic Binaries, R. H. Baker, F. C. Jordan, 229; Spec-troscopic Binaries, Prof. Campbell, 321; Dr. Heber D.

Curtis, 321; Prof. W. H. Wright, 321; the Circularity of Planetary Orbits, Prof. T. J. J. See, 229; Astronomische Ortsbestimmung im Ballon, Prof. Adolf Marcuse, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 244; Persistent Trail of a Meteor on March 14, Edward J. Steer, 248; Harvard Observa-tory Expedition to the Elevated Plateau of South Africa, 256; Harvard College Observatory, Prof. Pickering, 321; Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College, a Search for a Planet beyond Neptune. W. H. Pickering a Search for a Planet beyond Neptune, W. H. Pickering, A63; Chromospheric Calcium Lines in Furnace Spectra, Dr. A. S. King, 260; Mount Wilson Solar Observatory Report, Prof. Hale, 260; Determination of the Solar Parallax from Observations of Eros, Arthur R. Hinks, 270; the Solar Parallax from Observations of Eros, Prof. 270; the Solar Parallax from Observations of Eros, Prof. Perrine, 468; les Planètes et leur Origines, Ch. André, 274; the Gravitative Strain upon the Moon, Evan McLennan, 276; Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 307; Occulta-tions of Planets, Dr. Downing, 288; SS Aurigæ (31.1907) an Irregular Variable, Prof. Hartwig, 288; a Group of Red Stars in Sagittarius, Mrs. Fleming, 288; the Calculation of Cometary Orbits, Prof. Kobold, 288; Photometric Observations at Catania, A. Bemporad, 288; Photometric Observations at Catania, A. Bemporad, 288; the Intra-Mercurial Planet Problem, Prof. Campbell, 320; Dr. Perrine, 320; the Uses and Dates of Ancient Temples, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 340; Jupiter, Prof. Lowell, 353; a Remarkable Transit of Jupiter's Third Satellite, Mr. Innes, 409; the Perturba-tions of Brooks's Comet (1889 V) by Jupiter in 1886, Prof. Poor, 410; G. Deutschland, 410; Spectra of some Spiral Nebulæ and Globular Star Clusters, E. A. Fath, 354; a General Solution of the Spectroheliograph, M. Des-landres, 380; the Brightness of the Corona, Prof. Per-rine, 380; a Standard Scale of Photographic Magnitudes, Prof. Pickering, 380; the Origins of Satellites, Prof. Prof. Pickering, 380; the Origins of Satellites, Prof. See, 380; the Orbit of ξ Boötis, Prof. Doberck, 380; the Birth of Worlds, Prof. A. W. Bickerton, 380; Spectro-scopic Comparison of *o* Ceti with Titanium Oxide, A. Fowler, 387; the Spectrum of Magnesium in Hydrogen, E. E. Brooks, 410; Dispersion of Light in Interstellar Space, Dr. Ch. Nordmann, 409; the Variable Star 6.1909, Ursæ Majoris, Prof. Wolf, 410; the Rings of Saturn, Prof. Levi-Civito, 439; Camera Objectives for Saturn, Prof. Levi-Civito, 439; Camera Objectives for Saturn, Prof. Levi-Civito, 439; Camera Objectives for Spectrographs, Mr. Plaskett, 440; the Astrographic Con-ference at Paris, 440; Solar Activity and Terrestrial Mag-netic Disturbances, Dr. L. A. Bauer, 444; the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, 446; Death of Prof. Carl N. J. Börgen, 464; the Ensuing Return of the Perseid Meteors, 468; a Double Image Coelostat for determining the Moon's Position, Mr. Wade, 468; Discovery of a Comet, 1909a, Mr. Daniel, 502; M. Javelle, 502; Prof. Kobold, 502; M. Borrelly, 502; Elements and Ephemeris for Winnecke's Comet, 1909, Prof. Hillebrand, 502; the Recent Lunar Eclipse, June 3, MM. Borrelly and Coggia, 502; J. H. Elgie, 503; the Photoheliometer, Prof. Poor, 503; the Errors of Position of Images Photographed through Glass, Dr. Schlesinger, 503

- 503; the Errors of Position of Images Photographed through Glass, Dr. Schlesinger, 503 Astrophysics: the Yielding of the Earth to Disturbing Forces, Prof. A. E. H. Love, F.R.S., at Royal Society, 252; the Gravitative Strain upon the Moon, Evan McLennan, 276; Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 307 Atkins (W. R. G.), Osmotic Pressures of the Blood and Eggs of Birds, 179 Atlantic, General Results of the Meteorological Cruises of the Ologie on the in 1005, 1005, and 1007, L. Teisserenc
- the Otaria on the, in 1905, 1906 and 1907, L. Teisserenc de Bort and Prof. A. Lawrence Rotch, 219
- Atlas of the Empire, an, 213
- Atmosphere, Ionisation in the, Prof. A. S. Eve, 36
- Atmosphere, the Isothermal Layer of the, E. Gold, 68
- Atmosphere, the Upper Layers of the Solar, M. Deslandres, 354
- Atmosphere, Temperature of the Upper, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 127, 397; W. H. Dines, F.R.S., 455; Charles J. P. Cave, 456
- Atoms, Radio-activity in Relation to Morozoff's Theory of the Constitution of, Prof. B. de Szyszkowski, 276 SS Aurigæ (31.1907) an Irregular Variable, Prof. Hartwig, 288 Austerweil (Géza), New Method of Isomerisation in the
- Terpene Series, 330 Australian Kinship, Dr. A. Lang, 247

Austrian Side, the, the Shores of the Adriatic, F. Hamilton Jackson, 274

- Avasia (D. N.), Lac Cultivation in India, 436 Avery (Messrs. W. and T., Ltd.), New 300-ton Universal Testing Machine, 408

- Testing Machine, 408 Aviation: Aërodonetics, F. W. Lanchester, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 221; Artificial and Natural Flight, Sir Hiram S. Maxim, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 221 Awano (S.), Power of Plants to Absorb Moisture through the Leaf Surface, 436 Azambuja (L. d'), Examination of the Upper Layers of Calcium and Hydrogen in the Solar Atmosphere and of the same Black Filaments in the Two Layers, 269; Critical Examination of the Monochromatic Images of the Sun with the Hydrogen Lines, 280 the Sun with the Hydrogen Lines, 389
- Bacot (A.), Cross-breeding of Two Races of the Moth Acidalia virgularia, 58
- Determination of a Coefficient by which Bacteriology: the Rate of Diffusion of Stain and other Substances into Livings Cells can be Measured and by which Bacteria and Other Cells may be Differentiated, H. C. Ross, 27; Influence of Glucosides on Growth of Acid-fast Bacilli, Influence of Glucosides on Growth of Acid-fast Bacilli, F. W. Twort, 58; Physico-chemical Method of Sterilis-ing in the Cold and at a Distance, A. Billon-Daguerre, 59; So-called "Sexual" Method of Forming Spores in Bacteria, C. C. Dobell, 88; Evacuation of Tubercle Bacilli by the Bile in the Intestine in Animals affected with Latent Lesions, A. Calmette and C. Guérin, 89; Micro-organisms Present in Sewer Air, Dr. Andrewes, 203; Bacterial Contamination of Milk, Dr. Savage, 203; the Bacterial Contamination of Milk, Dr. Savage, 203; the Bacteriology of Diphtheria, 243; Invisible Patho-genic Micro-organisms and the Physical Proofs of their Existence, A. Chauveau, 299; Effects of Nitrogen-fixing Bacteria on the Growth of Non-leguminous Plants, Prof. W. B. Bottomley, 327; Spore-formation in the Disporic Bacteria, C. Clifford Dobell, 435; Can Opsonins be Obtained directly from Bacteria and Yeast, Dr. R. Greig-Smith, 479; the Coagulation of Condensed Milk, Dr. R.
- Greig-Smith, 479 Bailey (E. B.), the Cauldron Subsidence of Glen Coe and the associated Igneous Phenomena, 448
- Bailey (L. H.), First Course in Biology, 34
- Baillehache (le Comte de), Unités Électriques, 488 Bairstow (L.), Elastic Limits of Iron and Steel under Cyclical Variations of Stress, 359
- Baker (C.), Microscope Objectives of a New Formula, 320 Baker (Dr. H. Brereton, F.R.S.), the Influence of Mois-

- Baker (Dr. H. Brereton, F.R.S.), the Influence of Moisture on Chemical Change, Wilde Lecture at Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, 175
 Baker (R. H.), Orbits of Spectroscopic Binaries, 229
 Baldet (F.), Spectrum of the Comet 1908c (Morehouse), 149
 Balfour (Andrew), Third Report of the Wellcome Research Laboratories at the Gordon Memorial College, 495
- Ball (Dr.), American Insect Pests, 138 Ball (Sir Robert, F.R.S.), a Treatise on Spherical Astronomy, 123
- Ballistics: Flight of a Rifled Projectile in Air, Dr. J. B. Henderson, 57
- Ballon, Astronomische Ortsbestimmung im, Prof. Adolf Marcuse, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 244 Ballou (H. A.), "Millions" and Mosquitoes, 16 Bannister (C. O.), Cupellation Experiments: the Thermal
- Properties of Cupels, 388 Baracchi (Mr.), the Melbourne Observatory, 51 Barbier (Ph.), Transformation of Pinonic Acid into
- Barbier
- I: 3-Dimethyl-4-phenylacetic Acid, 89
 Barkla (Dr. C. G.), the Absorption of X-rays, 37; Ionisation by Röntgen Rays, 187; Phenomena of X-ray Transmission, 419
- Swift, 19; Coloured Stars in the Globular Cluster M 13, 169; Theory to Account for Changes in the Tail of
- Comet c 1908, 444 Barnes (H. T.), Phenomenon connected with the Discharge of Electricity from Pointed Conductors, with a Note by John Zeleny, 297 arnes (Prof. James), a Simple Fabry and Perot Inter-
- Barnes (Prof. ferometer, 187 Barometric Oscillation, W. H. Dines, F.R.S., 8

- Barratt (Dr. J. O. W.), Method of Estimating the Total Volume of Blood contained in the Living Body, 387
- Barre (M.), Double Sulphates of Calcium, 510 Barrett (J. W.), Seal-rocks at Westernport, Bass Strait, 257
- Barrett (Prof. W. F., F.R.S.), New Form of Optometer, 348; Methods of Determining the Amount of Light ir-regularly reflected from Rough Surfaces, 388; New Polarimeter for the Measurement of the Indices of Refraction of Opaque Bodies, 388 Baruch (Dr. M. P.), Flora von Paderborn, 105 Bashford (Dr. E. F.), Incidence of Cancer in Mice of

- Known Age, 387 Basic Steel, the Manufacture of, 135 Basidiomycetes, Synopsis of the British, a Descriptive Catalogue of the Drawings and Specimens in the Department of Botany, British Museum, Worthington G. Smith, 184
- Baskets used in Repelling Demons, Kumagusu Minakata, 360
- Baterden (J. R.), Timber, 94 Bateson (Prof. W., F.R.S.), the Method and Scope of Genetics, 396
- Bau und Geschichte der Erde, O. Abel, 367
- Bauer (Edmond), Radiation and Temperature of the Flame of a Bunsen Burner, 209; the Nature of Flame Spectra, 408; Preparation of the Three Oxy- and the p-dimethylamido and Diethylamidobenzylidenecamphors and the *p*- and *m*-tolylidenecamphors, 479 Bauer (Dr. L. A.), Solar Activity and Terrestrial Magnetic
- Bauer (Dr. L. A.), Solar Activity and Terrestrial Magnetic Disturbances, 444; Department of Commerce and Labour, Coast and Geodetic Survey, United States Mag-netic Tables and Magnetic Charts for 1905, 293
 Bauer (O.), Solubility of Steel in Sulphuric Acid, 384
 Bayard (P.), a New Isomeride of Indigo, 149
 Bayliss (Dr. W. M.), Osmotic Pressure of Congo Red, 320
 Bäz-Nama-yi-Näsiri, the, a Persian Treatise on Falconry, 277

- 371
- Becquerel (Jean), New Type of Magnetic Decomposition of the Absorption Bands of Crystals, 209
- Becquerel (Paul), the Suspension of Life in certain Seeds, 270
- Bees, the "Sense of Direction" in, Gaston Bonnier, 269 Beilby (Dr. George T., F.R.S.), the Functions of Technical Colleges, Address at Association of Technical Institutions,
- Bell (Miss), Colours and Magnitudes of Stars, 288
- Bell-Marley (H. W.), Hunting the Hump-backed Whale in
- Natal Waters, 16 Bemmelen (Dr. W. van), Magnetic Survey of the Dutch East Indies, 1903-7, 293 Bemporad (A.), Photometric Observations at Catania, 288

Benhorad (R.), Fluorescence of Lignum Nephriticum, 159; an Optical Phenomenon, 458
 Benson (Dr. Margaret), Structure and Relations of the Reproductive Organs of Heterangium Grievii, 239
 Bentley (Wilson L), Studies of Front and Los Controls, 239

- Bentley (Wilson J.), Studies of Frost and Ice Crystals, 492 Berger (A.), das Pflanzenreich, Liliaceæ-Aloineæ, 424 Berger (E.), New Method of Preparation of the β -halogen

- Derivatives of Naphthaline, 149 Berget (A.), Leçons de Physique générale, 6 Bergstrand (Oesten), Photographic Determination of the Colours of the Stars, 299
- Berkeley (Earl of), Osmotic Pressures of Weak Solutions of Calcium Ferrocyanide, 28
- Bernard (A.), Observations made at Meudon Observatory on Morehouse's Comet, 179 Bernthsen (Hofrath Prof.),
- Fixation of Atmospheric Nitrogen, 412
- Berson (A.), the Royal Prussian Aëronautical Observatory's Aërological Expedition to Tropical East Africa, 171 Bertrand (Gabriel), Action of the Bulgarian Ferment
- Yoghourt on Various Sugars, 390 Bessel's Functions, Wave Motion and, Prof. G. H. Bryan,
- F.R.S., 309 Besson (A.), Action of Gaseous Hydrochloric Acid on Amorphous Silicon, 59; New Silicon Chlorides of the Oridinate Adents Silicomethane Series, 180; Action of Oxidising Agents upon Silico-chloroform, 329
- Beženov (B. W.), Calendar of Algal Growth in the Bay of Sebastopol, 167

Bickerton (Prof. A. W.), the Birth of Worlds, 380 Billon-Daguerre (A.), Physico-chemical Method of Sterilis-

- Binon-Daguerre (A.), Physico-chemical Method of Sterilising in the Cold and at a Distance, 59
 Binaries, Spectroscopic, Prof. Campbell, 321; Dr. Heber D. Curtis, 321; Prof. W. H. Wright, 321; Orbits of, R. H. Baker, 229; F. C. Jordan, 229
 Biochemistry: Biochemie, ein Lehrbuch für Mediziner, Zoologen und Botaniker, Dr. F. Röhmann, 6; the General Characters of the Proteins, Dr. S. B. Schryver, 2007 307
- 95; the Cell as the Unit of Life, and other Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution, London, 1899–1902, an Introduction to Biology, Allan Macfadyen, 123; Ernst Haeckel, Prof. Walther May, 126; Lieut. Shackleton's Antarctic Expedition, Biological Results, 130; Biologia Centrali-Americana: Orthoptera, Vol. i., Dr. Henri de Saussure, Dr. Leo Zehntner, and A. Pictet, Forficulidæ, Count de Bormans, Vol. ii., Acridiidæ, Prof. Lawrence Brunner, Tettiginæ, Albert P. Morse, and Phasmidæ, Robert Shelford, 241; the Problem of Age, Growth, and Death, a Study of Cytomorphosis, Prof. Charles S. Minot, 335; zur Biologie des Chlorophylls, Laubfarbe und Himmelslicht, Vergilbung und Etiolement, Ernst Stahl, 393; the Method and Scope of Genetics, Prof. W. Bateson, F.R.S., 396; Capacity for Regeneration of One of the Brittle-stars, S. Morgulis, 465; the Germ-layer Theory, Ric. Assheton, 492; Meaning of Sexuality in Relation to the Formation of Gametes, Dr. Max Hart-mann, 500; "Chemical" Embryos, 507; Marine Biology: Relations of Marine Organisms to Light, Prof. B. Moore, 16: Say in Seaucoins chemical by Events 16; Sex in Sea-urchins obtained by Experimental Parthenogenesis, 29; Migration of the Thread-cells of Moerisia, C. L. Boulenger, 88; Specimen of Pelagothuria from the Seychelles, J. C. Simpson, 88; some Marine and Fresh-water Organisms, 174; Müller's Ostracod Crustacean Gigantocypris agassizi, L. Luders, 174; Fresh-water Species of Cyclops of Long Island, Dr. Esther Brynes, 174; Gigantocypris and the *Challenger*, Dr. W. T. Calman, 248; Amphipoda Hyperiidea of the *Sealark* Expedition to the Indian Ocean, A. O. Walker, Sealark Expedition to the Indian Ocean, A. O. Walker, 269; Marine Mollusca of the Sealark Expedition, Dr. J Cosmo Melvill, 269; Pecten, W. J. Dakin, 273; Photo-phores in Decapoda, S. W. Kemp, 328; a Problematical Organism thrown up during a Storm in Bass Strait, Prof. Baldwin Spencer, 350; Apical Pigment-spots in the Pluteus of *Echinus miliaris*, F. H. Gravely, 359; Marine Biology in the Tortugas, 382; Annual Breeding Swarm of the Atlantic Palolo, Dr. A. G. Mayer, 382; Experiments on the Scyphomedusan Cassiobea xama Experiments on the Scyphomedusan *Cassiopea xama-chana*, Dr. Mayer, 382; Origin of the Lung of Ampul-laria, Prof. W. K. Brookes and B. McGlone, 382; Significance of the Conspicuousness of the Coral-reef Fishes of the Tortugas, Prof. Reighard, 382
- Bircham (F. R. S.), Applications of the Internal-combustion Engine to Marine Propulsion, 173
 Birds: Moral Superiority among Birds, A. R. Horwood, 40; the Birds of Tierra del Fuego, Richard Crawshay, 155; Bird Notes, 295; Kunst und Vogelgesang in ihren wechselseitigen Beziehungen von naturwissenschaftlich-musikalischen Standpunkte beleuchtet, Dr. B. Hoffmann, 206
- 336 Birkeland (Kr.), the Norwegian Aurora Polaris Expedition, 1902-3, Vol. i., on the Cause of Magnetic Storms and the Origin of Terrestrial Magnetism, 410
- Birkeland (Prof.), Fixation of Atmospheric Nitrogen, 412
- Birth of Worlds, the, Prof. A. W. Bickerton, 380 Bishop (Rev. Dr. Sereno E.), Death and Obituary Notice
- of, 164 Bisiker (W.), the British Empire (and Japan), 213
- Upper-air Bjerknes (Prof.), Theoretical Applications of
- Observations, 355 Blaise (E.), Syntheses by Means of the Mixed Zinc Organometallic Derivatives, 29
- Blennerhassett (Sir Rowland), Death and Obituary Notice of, 103
- Blériot (Louis), Award of the Osiris Prize to, 499

- Bloch (Eugène), Part played by Impurities in the Photo-electric Effect with Liquids, 89
- Bloch (L.), Phosphorescence and Combustion Flames of ú
- Sulphur, 149 Blowing "Wells, Sydney H. Long, 339; Dr. A. Strahan,
- Blöwing Weils, Sydney H. Long, 339; Dr. A. Stranan, F.R.S., 370; Beeby Thompson, 429
 Blötenpflanzen Afrikas, die, Franz Thonner, Dr. Otto Stapf, F.R.S., 333
 Boas (Dr. J. E. V.), Lehrbuch der Zoologie für Studierende,
- 214
- Body at Work, the, Dr. Alex. Hill, 366 Bombay, the Flora of the Presidency of, Dr. Theodore
- Cooke, 362 Bonacina (L. C. W.), the "Daylight Saving" Bill, 69 Bone (Prof. W. A., F.R.S.), Explosive Combustion, with Special Reference to that of Hydrocarbons, Discourse at Royal Institution, 81 Bonnier (Gaston), the "Sense of Direction" in Bees, 269
- Book of Nature-study, the, 344 Books of Science, Forthcoming, 53 Books of Science, Supplementary List of Forthcoming, 85
- ξ Boötis, the Orbit of, Prof. Doberck, 380 Bordas (F.), the Diastases of Milk, 270

- Bordas (P.), the Diastases of Milk, 270
 Borgen (Prof. Carl N. I.), Death of, 464
 Bormans (Count de), Biologia Centrali-Americana, Orthoptera, Vol. i., Forficulidæ, 241
 Borrelly (M.), Discovery of a New Comet, 1909a, 502; the Recent Lunar Eclipse, June 3, 502
 (Borrelly-Daniel) Discovery of a Comet, 1909a, Mr. Daniel, 502; M. Javelle, 502; Prof. Kobold, 502; M. Borrelly, 503 502
- Bort (L. Teisserenc de), General Results of the Meteoro-logical Cruises of the Otaria on the Atlantic in 1905, 1906, and 1907, 219; Results of Theodolite Observations on Ballons sondes at Trappes, 355 Bosler (J.), Observations made at Meudon Observatory on
- Morehouse's Comet, 179
- Bosworth (G. F.), Cambridge County Geographies: Essex, Kent, Surrey, Sussex, 305 Botallek Circles, the, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S.,
- Botany: a Mould in Tanning with Oil, André Piedallu, 30; Variety of Organic Iron in Plants, P. J. Tarbouriech 30; Variety of Organic Iron in Plants, P. J. Tarbouriech and P. Saget, 30; Death of J. Barbosa Rodriguez, 47; Obituary Notice of, 104; Phylogeny of the Bryophytes and Ferns, Dr. H. Schenck, 49; Einleitung in die experi-mentelle Morphologie der Pflanzen, Dr. K. Goebel, 61; Parthenogenesis und Apogamie im Pflanzenreiche, Dr. Hans Winkler, 61; Sense-organs in Leaves, Prof. G. Haberlandt, 76; Plant Distribution on "Mesas" near Boulder, Colorado, W. W. Robbins and G. S. Dodds, 76-7; Alternation of Generations in Plants, Dr. W. H. Lang, 87: the Montane Flora of Fiil, Miss L. S. Gibbs. Lang, 87; the Montane Flora of Fiji, Miss L. S. Gibbs, 87; Linnean Society, 87, 148, 269, 359, 448, 478; Quan-tity of the Alkaloid Taxine in Yew, Richard J. Moss, 88; the Heredity of Acquired Characters in Plants, Rev. Prof. the Heredity of Acquired Characters in Plants, Rev. Prof. George Henslow, 93; Flora von Paderborn, Dr. M. P. Baruch, 105; Flora of Volcanic Region of Java and Sumatra, Dr. A. Ernst, 105; Ferments and Latent Life of Resting Seeds, Jean White, 118; Fresh-water Algæ from Burma, including a few from Bengal and Madras, W. West and G. S. West, 125; Davidia involucrata, Baill, A. S. Horne, 148; Index Kewensis Plantarum Phanerogamarum, 156; Fluorescence of Lignum Nephriticum, Charles E. Benham, 159; Dr. O. Stapf, F.R.S., 218; John H. Shaxby, 248; Plants with Magic Qualities, Dr. H. Marzell, 166; Calendar of Algal Growth in the Bay of Sebastopol, B. W. Beenov, 167; Prickly Pear as Cattle-food, 167; Black Scab or Potato-wart, Prof. T. Johnson, 179; the Powdery Scab of the Potato, Spongospora subterranea, Prof. T. Johnson, 380; the Rate of Fall of Fungus Spores in Air, Prof. A. H. Reginald Buller, 186; Death of Prof. F. E. Hulme, 197; Obituary Notice of, 224; Influence of Radium Rays on Reginald Buller, 186; Death of Prof. F. E. Hulme, 197; Obituary Notice of, 224; Influence of Radium Rays on Plants, Prof. C. S. Gager, 198; Sand-binding Plants, V. Subramania Iyer, 198; Oil-palm Kernels, a Variety with Soft Shells, 198; Lalang Grass, Material for Paper Pulp, J. M. Hillier, 198; Limitation of the Genus Athyrium, Dr. E. B. Copeland, 226; Structure and Rela-tions of the Reproductive Organs of *Heterangium Grievii*,

Dr. Margaret Benson, 239; Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, 1908, 246; Classification of the Geoglossaceæ, Dr. E. J. Durand, 258; Botanical Discoveries near Dover, Rev. J. Taylor, 258; W. R. Jeffery, 258; Suspension of Life in Certain Seeds, Paul Becquerel, 270; the New Flora of the Vol-tanic Island of Krakatau, Prof. A. Ernst, 279; Camp-fires on Desert and Lava, W. T. Hornaday, 279; Geo-tropism and the Statolith Theory, E. Maigre, 286; Philip-pine Species of Garcinia, E. D. Merrill, 286; Botany of the Færöes, 303; Anthocyanin, Miss M. Wheldale, 328; die Blütenpflanzen Afrikas, Franz Thonner, Dr. Otto Stapf, F.R.S., 333; Experiments with Cyclamen Seed-lings, Sir W. T. Thiselton-Dyer, 349; Flora of Ngami-land, Major and Mrs. E. J. Lugard, 351; the Flora of the Presidency of Bombay, Dr. Theodore Cooke, 362; Flower and Grass Calendars for Children, Agnes Fry, 368; Spermatogenesis in *Dioon edule*, Prof. C. F. Cham-berlain, 378; Transport of Carbon Dioxide in Leaves, Dr. V. Zijlstra, 379; Lectures on the Evolution of the Filicinean Vascular System, A. G. Tansley, 391; zur Biologie des Chlorophylls, Laubfarbe und Himmelslicht, Vergilbung und Etiolement, Ernst Stahl, 393; Cytology of Fucus, Dr. S. Yamanouchi, 407; Vegenetica, in 200 Biologie des Chlorophylls, Laubfarbe und Himmelslicht,
Vergilbung und Etiolement, Ernst Stahl, 393; Cytology of Fucus, Dr. S. Yamanouchi, 407; Vegetation in and around the Red-rock Lake, Colorado, Dr. F. Ramaley, 407; das Pflanzenreich, Scrophulariaceæ-Calceolarieæ, Fr. F. Kränzlin, Erythroxylaceæ, O. E. Schulz, Styracaceæ, J. Perkins, Potamogetonaceæ, P. Ascherson and P. Graebner, Orchidaceæ-Cœlogyninæ, E. Pfitzer and Fr. Kränzlin, Liliaceæ-Aloineæ, A. Berger, Sarraceniaceæ, J. M. Macfarlane, Stylidiaceæ, J. Mildbraed, Nepenthaceæ, L. M. Macfarlane, Araceæ-Monsteroideæ and Calcharea. Fr. Kränzlin, Liliaceæ-Aloineæ, A. Berger, Sarraceniaceæ, J. M. Macfarlane, Stylidiaceæ, J. Mildbraed, Nepen-thaceæ, J. M. Macfarlane, Araceæ-Monsteroideæ and Cal-loideæ, A. Engler and K. Krause, 424; the Colours of Leaves, George Abbott, 429; Causes of Autumnal Colour Effect in Leaves of *Terminalia catappa*, Dr. M. Miyoshi, 465; Power of Plants to Absorb Moisture through the Leaf-surface, S. Awano, 436; the Gardens of Achnashie, Rosneath, Rev. D. Landsborough, 436; Botanic Gardens and Government Domains in Sydney, New South Wales, J. H. Maiden, 436; Vegetative Cross between Nightshade and Tomato, Prof. H. Winkler, 436; Modifications of Colour in Plants, Prof. H. Kraemer, 443; New Observa-tion on the Moth of the Olive, Th. Dumont, 449; Plants and their Ways, E. Evans, 452; Mikroskopischer und physiologischer Praktikum der Botanik für Lehrer, G. Müller, 452; a First Book of Botany, Elizabeth Healey, 452; Familiar Swiss Flowers, F. E. Hulme, 452; the Pollination of the Primrose, John J. Ward, 457; W. E. Hart, 457, 492; The Reviewer, 457; Notes of a Botanist on the Amazon and Andes, Richard Spruce, 458; New South Wales Linnean Society, 479; Reddening of the Branches of Salicornia, H. Colin, 480; Influence of Nutritive Media on Development of the Embryos of *Pinus pinea*, J. Lefèvre, 480; the Streletz Steppe, W. Alechin, 500; the Flora of Prince Charles Foreland, Spitsbergen, R. N. R. Brown, 501; a Warm-water Bath as Means of Forcing Plants, Prof. H. Molisch, 501; Alge 501; Algæ and Lichens of Lake Selguer, A. A. Elenkin,

Bott (A. E. H.), Minimum Thermometer and Severe Cold, 140

- Bottomley (Prof. W. B.), Effects of Nitrogen-fixing Bacteria on the Growth of Non-leguminous Plants, 327
- Bouasse (Prof. H.), Cours de Physique conforme aux Pro-grammes des Certificats et de l'Agrégation de Physique,
- Optiques, Études des Instruments, 153 Bougault (J.), the Condensation of Glyoxylic Acid with

501

- Boulauit ().), the Condensation of Giyoxylic Acid with some Ketones, 389
 Boulanger (A.), Hydraulic Générale, 396
 Boule (Marcellin), Cranial Capacity of Fossil Men of the Type known as Neanderthal, 390; Skeleton of the Fossil Man of La Chapelle-aux-Saints, 480
 Boulenger (C. L.), Migration of the Thread-cells of Moerisia, 200
- 88
- Bourne (Prof. Gilbert C.), the Natural History Museum, 220
- Bowman (Dr. F. H.), the Structure of the Wool Fibre and its Relation to the Use of Wool for Technical Purposes, 4
- Bowman (Prof. H. L.), a Stage Goniometer for Use with the Dick Pattern of Microscope, 178

- Boyer (Jacques), Artificial Production of Precious Stones, 408
- Bragg (Prof. W. H.), Want of Symmetry shown by Secondary X-rays, 327 Brassey (Lord), Types of Warships omitted in Recent Programmes of Naval Construction, 172
- Brauner (Prof. Bohuslav), the Gases of the Ring Nebula in Lyra, 158
- Brauns (Prof. R.), the Mineral Kingdom, 275
- Breeding for Milk,
- Breeding for Milk, 77 Brendler (Dr. Wolfgang), Mineralien-Sammlungen, 423 Brester (A.), Hale's Solar Vortices, 79 Brethes (J.), Nests of the Argentine Spider Mastophora

- Brethes (J.), Nests of the Argentine Spider Mastophora extraordinaria, 137 Bridges (J. H.), Essays and Addresses, 217 Bridgman (P. W.), High Hydrostatic Pressures, 107 Brightwen (Eliza), Last Hours with Nature, 129; the Life and Thoughts of a Naturalist, 426 Briner (E.), Chemical Reactions in Gaseous Mixtures sub-mitted to very High Pressures 470
- mitted to very High Pressures, 479 British Antarctic Expedition, Return of the, 102
- British Association Committee appointed for the Investiga-
- tion of Gaseous Explosions, with Special Reference to Temperature, First Report of the, Prof. E. G. Coker, 505 British Association, Winnipeg Meeting, Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 159 British Association, Winnipeg Meeting of the, 432

- British Empire (and Japan), the W. Bisiker, 213 British Guiana, the Geology of the Goldfields of, J. B.
- Harrison, 395 British Islands, the Genitalia of the Noctuidæ of the
- Lepidoptera of the, F. M. Pierce, 246 British Museum: Synopsis of the British Basidiomycetes,
- a Descriptive Catalogue of the Drawings and Specimens Department of Botany, Worthington G. Smith, in the 184; Catalogue of the Lepidoptera Phalaenæ in the British Museum, Sir George F. Hampson, Bart., 338 British Science Guild, Sir William Ramsay, 52; Sir
- Frederick Pollock, 52
- Brizard (M.), the Charges of Chemical Fumes, 449 Brodrick (H.), Limestone Caves of Marble Arch, Co. Fermanagh, 88
- Broglie (M. de), Photographic Registration of Brownian Trajectories in Gases, 329; Measurements of the Brownian Movements in Gases and the Charge of Particles in Suspension, 389; the Charges of Chemical Fumes, 449 "Bromoil" Process, the, F. J. Mortimer, 324
- Bronson (Dr. Howard L.), on the a Rays from Radium B. 159
- Brooke (Gilbert E.), the Essentials of Sanitary Science, 182 Brookes (Prof. W. K.), Origin of the Lung of Ampullaria, 382
- Brooks (E. E.), Spectrum of Magnesium in Hydrogen, 410
- Brooks's Comet (1889 V), the Perturbations of, by Jupiter
- in 1886, Prof. Poor, 410; G. Deutschland, 410 Brown (E. and W.), Influence of Breed on Egg-production
- Brown (E. and W.), inhibitive of Breed of Egg-production in Poultry, 138 Brown (H. C.), Curious Device for Cheating Death, 48 Brown (R. N. Rudmose), Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of S.Y. Scotia during the Years 1902, 1903, and 1904, under the Leadership of Dr. William S. Bruce, Vol. iv., Zoology, Part i., Zoological Log, 161; the Flora of Driven Cheater Foreland Suitchergen 100 of Prince Charles Foreland, Spitsbergen, 501
- Brown (William), an Introduction to Social Psychology, William McDougall, 245; Lectures on the Elementary Psychology of Feeling and Attention, Prof. E. B. 245 Titchener,
- Browning (Dr. Phillip E.), Introduction to the Rarer Elements, 182
- Elements, 182 Bruce (Colonel Sir David), Kleine's Observations on the Period during which the Tsetse-fly was capable of trans-mitting a Trypanosome Infection, 315; Latency in Infectivity of Tsetse-flies, 436 Bruhat (G.), Coefficient of Diffusion of the Actinium Emanation, 89 Brunner (Prof. Lawrence), Biologia Centrali-Americana, Orthoptora Vol. ii Accidide ext
- Orthoptera, Vol. ii., Acridiidæ, 241

- Brussel (J. B. Van), Mechanical Irrigation Plants, Nile Irrigation Station at Wadi Kom-Ombo, 18
- Bruylants (P.), Derivative of Trimethylene, 228 Bryan (Prof. G. H., F.R.S.), Aërodonetics, F. W. Lan-chester, 221; Artificial and Natural Flight, Sir Hiram Maxim, 221; Recent Progress in Aëronautics, Major George O. Squier, 223; the Stabilisation of Aëroplanes, Etienne Maigre, 223; Wave Motion and Bessel's Func-tions, 309; the Government and Aëronautical Research, 313
- Buisson (H.), Comparison of the Lines of the Spectrum of the Electric Arc and of the Sun, Pressure of the Reversing Layer in the Solar Atmosphere, 149; Pressure in the Sun's Atmosphere, 229; Unsymmetrical Enlarge-ment of the Lines of the Arc Spectrum and their Com-parison with those of the Solar Spectrum, 389 Buller (Prof. A. H. Reginald), the Rate of Fall of Fungus Spaces in Air 296

- Buller (Prof. A. H. Reginald), the Rate of Fall of Fungus Spores in Air, 186
 Burbank's (Luther) Work, the Scientific Aspects of, D. S. Jordan and V. L. Kellogg, 337
 Burgess (G. H.), Melting Point of Platinum, 329
 Burnham (Prof.), Double-star Measures, 19
 Burtt-Davy (J.), Plants Poisonous to Stock, 225; Catalogue of Native Trees of the Transvaal, 318
 Butterflies, British, and Other Insects, 67
 Burnes (Dr. Erther), Freehwater Species of Cyclope of
- Byrnes (Dr. Esther), Fresh-water Species of Cyclops of Long Island, 174
- Calcium Lines in Furnace Spectra, Chromospheric, Dr.

- A. S. King, 260 Calculation of Cometary Orbits, the, Prof. Kobold, 288 Calculta: Asiatic Society of Bengal, 89, 150 California Earthquake of April 18, 1906, Andrew C. Lawson, 10
- Calman (Dr. W. T.), Gigantocypris and the *Challenger*, 248; a Treatise on Zoology, Part vii., Third Fascicle, Crustacea, 361 Calmette (A.), Evacuation of Tubercle Bacilli by the Bile
- in the Intestine in Animals affected with Latent Lesions, 80
- Cambridge: Reports of the Cambridge Anthropological Expedition to Torres Straits, Vol. vi., Sociology, Magic, and Religion of the Eastern Islanders, 9; Cambridge Philosophical Society, 88, 328, 419; Reform at Cambridge, 345; the Darwin Commemoration at Cambridge, 496
- Cambridge County Geographies : Essex, Kent, Surrey, Sussex, G. F. Bosworth, 305 Camera Objectives for Spectrographs, Mr. Plaskett, 440
- Cammidge (P. J.), the Urine in Diseases of the Pancreas,
- 386
- Camp-fires on Desert and Lava, W. T. Hornaday, 279 Campbell (A.), Method of Testing Photographic Shutters, 419
- Campbell (Prof.), the Intra-Mercurial Planet Problem, 320; Spectroscopic Binaries, 321 Campbell (Norman R.), an Electromagnetic Problem, 39
- Canada, Partial Eclipse of the Sun in, Dr. Downing, 320
- Canadian Waterways, American and, 461 Canals of the Martian Doubles, the "Original," Prof. Lowell, 260
- Canals, Development of Martian, Prof. Lowell, 288 Cancer, Incidence of, in Mice of known Age, Dr. E. F. Bashford and Dr. J. A. Murray, 387
- Cany (M.), Penetration of Pulverised Liquids into the Respiratory Tracts, 150
- Cape Observatory, the, 79
- Cape Town: Royal Society of South Africa, 360
- Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, the, Prof. John Edgar, 399 Carnegie Institution of Washington, the, 142

- Carnegie Institution of Washington, the, 142 Carnegie Trust, Scientific Research and the, 20 Caro (Dr. N.), Fixation of Atmospheric Nitrogen, 412 Caro (Prof.), Process for the Manufacture of Calcium Cyanamide by, 472 Carpenter (Prof.), Melting Point of Iron. 140 Carpenter (Prof. G. H.), a Student's Text-book of Zoo-
- logy, Prof. Adam Sedgwick, F.R.S., Vol. iii., the Introduction to Arthropoda, the Crustacea, and Xipho-

- sura, J. J. Lister, F.R.S., the Insecta and Arachnida. Dr. A. E. Shipley, F.R.S., 361; a Treatise on Zoology. Part vii., Third Fascicle, Crustacea, Dr. W. T. Calman, 361; Injurious Insects observed in Ireland during 1908, 479
- Carpenter (R. C.), Internal Combustion Engines, their Theory, Construction, and Operation, 124
- Carpentier (M.), Remarks on a Set of Standards of Length presented by M. Johansson, 209
- Carré (P.), Magnesium Derivatives of the Xylyl Bromides, 300
- Carus-Wilson (C.), the Pitting of Flint-surfaces, 448 Casanowicz (I. M.), United States National Museum Collection of Rosaries, 502
- Cassell's Elementary Geometry, W. A. Knight, 305
- Catania, Photometric Observations at, A. Bemporad, 288
- Cattle: Breeding for Milk, 77 Caucasus: la Côte d'Azur Russe (Riviera du Caucase), E. A. Martel, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 40 Cave (Charles J. P.), the Temperature of the Upper Atmo-
- sphere, 456
- "Cave-nebula " in Cepheus, a New, Prof. Wolf, 19

- Cave-nebula " in Cepheus, a New, Prof. Wolf, 19
 Cell as the Unit of Life, the, and Other Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution, London, 1899–1902, an Intro-duction to Biology, Allan Macfadyen, 123
 Cepheus, a New " Cave-nebula " in, Prof. Wolf, 19
 Ceramics : Transactions of the English Ceramic Society, 385; Gas-firing, Dr. Seligman, 385; Mr. Schmatolle, 385; Adsorption and Dissolution of Gases by Silicates, Messrs, Moore and Mellor, 285
- Messrs. Moore and Mellor, 385 Chadwick Lectures, the, University of London, Session 1907–8, W. D. Scott-Moncrieff, 397
- Challenger Society, 328 Chamberlain (Prof. C. F.), Spermatogenesis in Dioon
- edule, 378
- Chapman (A. C.), Estimation of Creatinine, 470 Chapman (F. M.), Manner in which Young Flamingoes
- Feed, 499 Chappuis (J.), Leçons de Physique générale, 6
- Charcot (Dr. J. B.), the French Antarctic Expedition, Communication from, 285
- Charpy (Georges), Action of Carbon Monoxide upon Chromium, Nickel, Manganese, their Oxides and Alloys, 59; Formation of Graphitic Oxide and the Definition of Graphite, 210
- Chattaway (Dr. F. D., F.R.S.), Ammonium Perhalides, 349
- Chauveau (A.), Invisible Pathogenic Micro-organisms and the Physical Proofs of their Existence, 299
- Chauvenet (Ed.), Anhydrous Combinations of Thorium
- Chauvenet (Ed.), Anhydrous Combinations of Thorium Chloride with the Alkaline Chlorides, 389
 Chemistry: Biochemie, ein Lehrbuch für Mediziner Zoologen und Botaniker, Dr. F. Röhmann, 6; Radio-thorium, Frederick Soddy, 12; Evolution of Heat by Radium, Drs. E. von Schweidler and V. F. Hess, 18; Decomposition of Water by Radium Salts, A. Debierne, 149; Chemical Action of the Penetrating Rays of Radium on Water, Miroslaw Kernbaum, 149; Production of Radium from Uranium, Frederick Soddy, 308; Liquid Radium Emanation, Sir William Ramsay, K.C.B., F.R.S., 347; Radium and Uranium contained in Radio-active Minerals, Ellen Gleditsch, 449; Variation of Re-fractive Indices of Mixtures of Liquids with their Com-position, Dr. V. F. Hess, 18; Osmotic Pressures of position, Dr. V. F. Hess, 18; Osmotic Pressures of Weak Solutions of Calcium Ferrocyanide, Earl of Berkeley, E. G. J. Hartley and J. Stephenson, 28; Spontaneous Crystallisation of Monochloracetic Acid and its Mixtures with Naphthalene, Dr. H. A. Miers and Miss F. Isaac, 28; Atomic Weight of Potassium, G. D. Hinrichs, 29; Syntheses by Means of the Mixed Zinc Hinrichs, 29; Syntheses by Means of the Mixed Zinc Organo-metallic Derivatives, E. Blaise and A. Kæhler, 29; Colloidal Properties of Starch with Respect to its Chemical Constitution, Eugène Fouard, 29; Handbuch der anorganischen Chemie, 32; Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. Julius Thomsen, M. M. Pattison Muir, 46; Supposed Effect of Crystallisation for modifying the Properties of the Solution of a Body resulting from the Direct Union of Two Solutions, D. Gernez, 59; Mole-cular Volumes, Densities, and Atomic Weights. A. Leduc, 59; Equilibria between the Liquid and Solid Phases in the Mixture NaCl+H₂O, Camille Matignon,

59; Determination of Physical Constants of the Peptones, 59; Determination of Physical Constants of the Peptones, L. Lematte and A. Savés, 59; Action of Gaseous Hydro-chloric Acid on Amorphous Silicon, A. Besson and L. Fournier, 59; Action of Carbon Monoxide upon Chromium, Nickel, Manganese, their Oxides and Alloys, Georges Charpy, 59; Condensation of the Mesoxalic Esters with Aromatic Hydrocarbons, A. Guyot and G. Esteva, 59; Sensitive Reactions for the Detection and Identification of Glycerol, Georges Denigès, 59; Action of Light upon Milk to which Potassium Bichromate has been Added. A. Gascard. 60: Sterilisation of Milk by been Added, A. Gascard, 60; Sterilisation of Milk by the Ultra-violet Rays, Victor Henri and G. Stodel, 60; Determination of Added Water in Decomposed Milks, André Kling and Paul Roy, 270; the Diastases of Milk, F. Bordas and F. Touplain, 270; Explosive Combus-tion, with Special Reference to that of Hydrocarbons, Decomposed and the second tion, with Special Reference to that of Hydrocarbons, Prof. W. A. Bone, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 81; Phosphides of Tin, Pierre Jolibois, 89; Transformation of Pinonic Acid into 1: 3-Dimethyl-4-phenylacetic Acid, Ph. Barbier and V. Grignard, 89; Elementary Agri-cultural Chemistry, Herbert Ingle, Dr. E. J. Russell, 93; Leakage of Helium from Radio-active Minerals, Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 147; Liberation of Helium from Radio-active Minerals by Grinding, J. A. Gray, 238; Cryoscopy of Colloids, Jacques Duclaux, 149; a New Isomeride of Indigo, A. Wahl and P. Bayard, 149; Action of Caustic Potash on Borneol, Camphor, and Isoborneol, Marcel Guerbet, 149; Phosphorescence and Combustion Flames of Sulphur, L. Bloch, 149; New Method of Preparation of the *B*-Halogen Derivatives of and Combustion Flames of Sulphur, L. Bloch, 149; New Method of Preparation of the β -Halogen Derivatives of Naphthalene, G. Darzens and E. Berger, 149; Action of Iron on Wine, M. Trillat, 150; Chemische Krystallo-graphie, Prof. P. Groth, 154; New Calcium Carbide Factory at Odda, Norway, 168; Application of the Platinum Resistance Thermometer to the Determination of Molecular Weights in Fused Potassium Nitrate as a Solvent, J. G. L. Stern, 168; the Influence of Moisture on Chemical Change, Wilde Lecture at Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, Dr. H. Brereton Baker, F.R.S., 175; the Hydrolytic Dissociation of Chloride of Bismuth, René Dubrisay, 180; Calculation of Molecular Weights by Means of Vapour Densities, Toluene, A. Leduc, 180; New Silicon Chlorides of the Silico-methane Series, A. Besson and L. Fournier, 180; Purification of Hydrated Sulphuric Acid from Arsenic Purification of Hydrated Sulphuric Acid from Arsenic by Freezing, M. Morance, 180; Colouring and Tinctorial Properties of Picric Acid, Léo Vignon, 180; Improved Method of preparing Allylcarbinol, H. Pariselle, 180; Introduction to the Rarer Elements, Dr. Phillip E. Browning, 182; New Crucible Support and Furnace, 204; Relation between Composition and Conductivity in 204; Relation between Composition and Conductivity in Solutions of meta- and ortho-Phosphoric Acids, Dr. E. B. R. Prideaux, 209; Radiation and Temperature of the Flame of a Bunsen Burner, Edmond Bauer, 209; Radiation of Potassium Salts, E. Henriot, 209; Electro-analysis of Mercury Compounds with a Gold Kathode, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 209; Action of Hydrogen on Sodium, A. Holt, jun., 209; New General Method for the Preparation of the Alcoholic Amines, Paul Sabatier and A. Mailhé, 209; Formation of Graphitic Oxide and the Definition of Graphite, Georges Charpy, 210: Preand A. Mailhé, 209; Formation of Graphitic Oxide and the Definition of Graphite, Georges Charpy, 210; Pre-paration of Pure Iodic Anhydride, Marcel Guichard, 210; Complete Synthesis of Laudanosine, Amé Pictet and Mlle. M. Finkelstein, 210; Catalytic Preparation of the Ketones, J. B. Senderens, 210; an Organic Chemistry for Schools and Technical Institutes, A. E. Dunstan, 215; an Intermediate Course of Laboratory Work in Chemistry, E. K. Hanson and J. W. Dodgson, 215; Laboratory Notes on Industrial Water Analysis, a Survey Course for Engineers, Ellen H. Richards, 215; Derivatives of Trimethylene, P. Bruylants, 228; Increase in the Migration Value of Hydrogen in Hydrogen Chloride, Mr. Chittock, 228; Action between Metals and Acids and the Conditions under which Mercury causes Chloride, Mr. Chittock, 228; Action between Metals and Acids and the Conditions under which Mercury causes Evolution of Hydrogen, Dr. S. W. J. Smith, 239; Study of the Gases disengaged by the Action of Copper Salts on Steels, E. Goutal, 230; Rapid Methods for the Chemical Analysis of Special Steels, Steel-making Allovs and Graphite, C. M. Johnson, 272; Radio-activity in Relation to Morozoff's Theory of the Constitution of Atoms, Prof. B. de Szyszkowski, 276; Atomic Weight

of Chromium, 288; Tantalum and its Industrial Applica-Ficher Strength and State of Gluten, 290; Electrolytes and Colloids, the Physical State of Gluten, Prof. T. B. Wood and W. B. Hardy, F.R.S., 296; Results of Cooling Hydrated Platin-cyanides in Liquid Prot. 1. B. Wood and W. B. Hardy, F.K.S., 296;
Results of Cooling Hydrated Platin-cyanides in Liquid Air, J. Emerson Reynolds, 297; Effect of Temperature on lonisation, J. A. Crowther, 297; Ionisation of Various Gases by Secondary γ Rays, R. D. Kleeman, 298; the Density of Acetylene, E. Mathias, 299; Cuprous Sulphate, A. Recoura, 299; Magnesium Derivatives of the Xylyl Bromides, P. Carré, 300; Oxidation of Aromatic Nitro- and Nitroso-derivatives by Ammonium Persulphate, A. Seyewetz and L. Poizat, 300; Influence of the Reaction of the Medium on the Activity of the Maltases from Maize, R. Huerre, 300; the General Characters of the Proteins, Dr. S. B. Schryver, 307; Seventh International Congress of Chemistry, 313; the International Congress of Applied Chemistry, 313; the International Congress of Applied Chemistry, 412; Fixation of Atmospheric Nitrogen, Hofrath Prof. Bernthsen, Prof. Birkeland and Dr. N. Caro, 412; Scientific Work of the International Congress of Applied Chemistry, 400; a Curious Property of Neon, Prof. J. Norman Collie, F.R.S., 326, 347; Osmotic Pressure of Congo-red, Dr. W. M. Bayliss, 326; Colour Demonstrations of the Dissociating Action of Water, R. L. Taylor, 328; Anthocyanin, Miss M. Wheldale, 328; Work of Archibald Scott Couper, Prof. Richard Anschütz, 329; Fusibility of Mixtures of Gold and Tellurium, H. Pélabon, 329; Melting Point of Platinum, W. Waidner and G. H. Burgess, 329; Action of Oxidising Agents upon Silicochloroform, A. Besson and L. Fournier, 329; New Method of Isomerisation in the Terpene Series, Géza Austerweil, 330; Suboxide of Casium, E. Rengade, 330; Leçons sur le Carbone, la Combustion, les Lois chimiques, H. le Chatclier, Prof. Arthur Smithells, F.R.S., 331; Ammonium Perhalides, Dr. F. D. Chattaway, F.R.S., 349; the York Air Tester, Messrs. John J. Griffin and Sons, 352; the Elements of Physical Chemistry, Dr. George Senter, 363; Chemical Physics Involved in the Decarburisation of Iron-carbon Alloys, W. H. Hatfield, 385; Anhydrous Combinations of Thori Air, J. Emerson Reynolds, 297; Effect of Temperature Combinations of Inforum Chloride with the Alkaline Chlorides, Ed. Chauvenet, 389; the Condensation of Glyoxylic Acid with some Ketones, J. Bougault, 389: Theory of Organic Bases according to the Viscosity of their Solutions, D. E. Tsakalotos, 390; Colouring Theory of Organic Bases according to the Viscosity of their Solutions, D. E. Tsakalotos, 390; Colouring Properties of Lead Chromate, Léo Vignon, 390; Action of the Bulgarian Ferment Yoghourt on Various Sugars, Gabriel Bertrand and F. Duchäcek, 390; the Theory of Valency, Dr. J. Newton Friend, 305; the Nature of Flame Spectra, E. Bauer, 408; Education and Research in Applied Chemistry, Prof. Raphael Meldola, F.R.S., at Society of Chemical Industry, 413; Tungsten, H. R. Van Wagenen, 439; Composition of Atmospheric Air, Georges Claude, 449; the Charges of Chemical Fumes, MM. de Broglie and Brizard, 449; a Chromyl Sub-chloride, P. Pascal, 449; Solubility of Lead Sulphate, J. Sehnal, 449; Revision of the Atomic Weight of Phos-phorus, G. Ter Gazarian, 449; Oxidation of the Poly-hydric Alcohols by a Peroxydasic System, E. de Stœcklin and E. Vulquin, 449; Vorlesungen über chem-ische Atomistik, Dr. F. Willy Hinrichsen, 453; First Principles of Chemical Theory, Dr. C. H. Mathewson, 453; Estimation of Phosphorus in Iron and Steel, Prof. Chesneau, 470; Estimation of Creatinine, F. C. Cook and A. C. Chapman, 470; Production of Pure Tellurium from its Ores, Prof. R. Schelle, 470; Experiments on the Action of the Silent Electric Discharge on Ethylene and Acetylene, Dr. M. Z. Jovitchitch, 471; Action of Dicarboxylic Acids on Cellulose, Prof. Knecht, 471; the Alcoholysis of Certain Esters, Prof. Haller, 471; New Method of preparing Ethyl Ether, Jean B. Senderens, 471-2; Experiments in Relation to the Theory of Dve-ing, L. Vignon, 472; the Hydrolysis of Proteins, Dr. L. Hugounenq, 472; Process for the Manufacture of 471-2; Experiments in Relation to the Theory of De-ing, L. Vignon, 472; the Hydrolysis of Proteins, Dr. L. Hugounenq, 472; Process for the Manufacture of Calcium Cvanamide by Prof. Caro, 472; Analysis of Beeswax, Prof. Hugh Ryan, 479; Montanin and Mon-tana Waxes, Prof. Hugh Ryan and T. Dillon, 470; Preparation of the Three Oxy- and the *p*-Dimethylamido and Diethylamidohenyriideneesmbors and the *b*, and and Diethylamidobenzylidenecamphors and the p- and

m-Tolylidenecamphors, A. Haller and Ed. Bauer, 479; Normal Butine and some of its Derivatives, George Normal Butine and some of its Derivatives, George Dupont, 479; the Maltase from Buckwheat, J. Huerre, 479-80; Chemical Reactions in Gaseous Mixtures sub-mitted to very High Pressures, E. Briner and A. Wroczynski, 479; Untersuchungen über Kohlenhydrate und Fermente (1884–1908), Emil Fischer, 485; die Grund-proben der "Deutschen Tiefsee-Expedition," Sir John Murray and Prof. E. Philippi, 486; "Chemical" Embryos, 507; Double Sulphates of Calcium, M. Barre, 510; the Metallic Character of the Pyryl Group, R. Fosse, 510 heneyeau (C.). Apparatus for Radio-active Measurements

Cheneveau (C.), Apparatus for Radio-active Measurements by the Electroscope Method, 228 Chesneau (Prof.), Estimation of Phosphorus in Iron and

- Steel, 470
- Chetwynd (Commander L. W. P.), an Explanation of the Adjustment of Ships' Compasses, 276 Chevalier (Father), a Remarkable Prominence, 108 Chick, the Development of the, F. R. Lillie, 271

- Children, Hours of Sleep for, 79 China, Western Teaching for, Dr. Henry Dyer, 99 Chittenden (Dr.), American Insect Pests, 138 Chittock (Mr.), Increase in the Migration Value of Hydro-gen in Hydrogen Chloride, 228
- Chlorophylls, zur Biologie des, Laubfarbe und Himmels-
- licht, Vergilbung und Etiolement, Ernst Stahl, 393 Cholesterol in the Animal Organism, the Origin and Destiny of, Part v., Mary T. Fraser and J. A. Gardner, 327
- Chree (Dr. C., F.R.S.), Temperature of the Upper Atmo-sphere, 127, 397; Lieut. Shackleton's Antarctic Expedition, the South Magnetic Pole, 130; Department of Com-merce and Labour, Coast and Geodetic Survey, United States Magnetic Tables and Magnetic Charts for 1005, L. A. Bauer, 293; Magnetic Survey of the Dutch East Indies, 1903-7, Dr. W. van Bemmelen, 293; Survey of India, 203
- Chromospheric Calcium Lines in Furnace Spectra, Dr. A. S. King, 260
- Chronometry : the Summer Season Time Bill, 45 ; the " Day-light Saving " Bill, L. C. W. Bonacina, 69 ; Daylight and Darkness, 230 Church (Prof. Irving P.), Mechanics of Engineering, 33
- Circularity of Planetary Orbits, the, Prof. T. J. J. See, 220
- Clark (Dr. G. Herbert), Histological Changes in the Liver and Kidney after Chloroform Administered by Different Channels, 328
- Claude (Georges), Composition of Atmospheric Air, 449
- Clay Modelling in Manual Training from Plan, Elevation, and Section, F. W. Farrington, 36
- Clay Modelling in Manual Training, Scholars' Handbook, 36
- Clerici (Dr. Enrico), Simple Method of Finding Indices of
- Refraction of Liquids under the Microscope, 319 Clinch (G.), Sculptures of the Chalk Downs in Kent, Surrey, and Sussex, 298 Clodd (E.), Pre-animistic Stages in Savage Religion, 501 Cloud Photographs from a Balloon, Dr. William J. S.
- Lockyer, 310 Clough (C. T.), the Cauldron Subsidence of Glen Coe and the Associated Igneous Phenomena, 448
- the Associated Igneous Fnenomena, 440 Clutterbuck (Rev. F. C.), Prospect of a Short Water Supply during the Coming Summer, 352 Coal: Practical Coal Mining, Prof. Henry Louis, 242; the Imperial Side of the Fuel Question, 277; Sir W. Ramsay, K.C.B., F.R.S., 278; Arthur McDougall, 309 Coblentz (Dr. W. W.) Investigation of the Radiation Con-
- stants of Metals, 288 Cockerell (Prof. T. D. A.), Another Fossil Tsetse-fly, 128 Codrington (T.), Notes on the Neighbourhood of the Vic-

- odrington (T.), Notes on toria Falls (Rhodesia), 147 toria Falls (Rhodesia), 167 Double-image, for determining the Moon's Cœlostat, a Double-image, Position, Mr. Wade, 468
- Coggia (M.), the Recent Lunar Eclipse, June 3, 502
- Cohen (J. B.), Dew-ponds, 309 Cohen (Louis), Influence of Terminal Apparatus on Tele-
- phonic Transmission, 18 Coker (Prof. E. G.), Laboratory Machine for Applying Bending and Twisting Moments Simultaneously, 87; the

Internal Combustion Engine, H. E. Wimperis, 124; Internal Combustion Engines, their Theory, Construction, and Operation, R. C. Carpenter and H. Diederichs, 124; First Report of the British Association Committee ap-pointed for the Investigation of Gaseous Explosions, with

- Special Reference to Temperature, 505
 Cole (Prof. Grenville A. J.), la Côte d'Azur Russe (Riviera du Caucase), E. A. Martel, 40
 Coleman (W. M.), First Course in Biology, 34
 Colin (H.), Reddening of the Branches of Salicornia, 480
 Collin (H.), Reddening of the Branches of Salicornia, 480

- Collie (Prof. J. Norman, F.R.S.), a Curious Property of Neon, 326, 347 Coloured Objects, the Photography of, Dr. C. E. Kenneth
- Mees, 489 Coloured Stars in the Globular Cluster M 13, Prof.
- Barnard, 169
- Colours of Leaves, the, George Abbott, 429 Colours and Magnitude of Stars, Mr. Franks, Miss Bell, 288
- Observations of Comet Tempel,-Swift, Comets : Prof. Barnard, 19; Comet Tempel₃-Swift, 1908d, MM. Ram-band and Sy, 79; Photographs of Morehouse's Comet, 1908c, Rev. Joel Metcalf, 108; Position of, Dr. Ebell, 169; Observations made at Meudon Observatory on Morehouse's Comet, H. Deslandres, A. Bernard, and J. Bosler, 179; Observations of Comet Morehouse, Mr. Motherwell, 200; Prof. F. Ristenpart, 260; the Spec-trum of Morehouse's Comet, Prof. Hartmann, 380; Position of Daniel's (1907d) Comet, H. H. Kritzinger, 169; Recent Observations of Daniel's Comet, 1907d, Prof. Wolf, 410; Halley's Comet, Mr. Crommelin, 228; the Meteoric Shower of Halley's Comet, W. F. Denning, 259; the Calculation of Cometary Orbits, Prof. Kobold, 288; the Perturbations of Brooks's Comet (1889 V) by 288; the Perturbations of Brooks's Comet (1889 V) by Jupiter in 1886, Prof. Poor, 410; G. Deutschland, 410; Discovery of a Comet, 1909a (Borrelly-Daniel), Mr. Daniel, 502; M. Javelle, 502; Prof. Kobold, 502; M. Borrelly, 502; Elements and Ephemeris for Winnecke's Comet, 1909, Prof. Hillebrand, 502
 Commerson (Philibert, D.M., Naturalist du Roi), the Life of, an Old-World Story of French Travel and Science in the Days of Linnæus, Captain S. Pasfield Oliver, 430
 Compasses, an Explanation of the Adjustment of Ships', Commander L. W. P. Chetwynd, 276
 Comstock (Prof. D. F.), an Electromagnetic Problem, 39
 Conchology, Growth of the Shell of Patella vulgata, L., E. S. Russell, 87

- Contan (M. J.), Theorems on the Twisted Cubic, 88
 Conwentz (Prof. H.), the Care of Natural Monuments with Special Reference to Great Britain and Germany, 275
- Cook (F. C.), Estimation of Creatinine, 470 Cook (T.), the Electrostatic Separation of Minerals, 178
- Cooke (Ernest), a Catalogue of 1625 Southern Stars, 51 Cooke (Dr. Theodore), the Flora of the Presidency of Bombay, 362
- Copeland (Dr. E. B.), Limitation of the Genus Athyrium, 226
- Cornish (Dr. Vaughan), Wind-waves in Water, Sand, and Snow, 119 Corona, the Brightness of the, Prof. Perrine, 380 Corona, the Brightness of the, Prof. Newall, 142

- Cosmical Matter in Space, Prof. Perfine, 300 Cosmical Matter in Space, Prof. Newall, 142 Cosmogony, Scientific Papers, Vol. ii., Tidal Friction and, Sir George Howard Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 421 Cotton Growing in the West Indies, West Indian Bulletin, the Journal of the Imperial Agricultural Department for the West Indies, 164 Cotton-weaving Sheds, Report of the Departmental Com-mittee on Humidity and Ventilation in, 101
- mittee on Humidity and Ventilation in, 101
- Coulomb's Law, Priestley and, C. J. Woodward, 8
- Coulomb's Law, Priestley and, C. J. Woodward, o Coulthurst (S. L.), the Oil and Bromoil Processes, 67 Couper (Archibald Scott), Life and Chemical Work of, Prof. Richard Anschütz, 329 Cournelles (Fouveau de), the Treatment of Nævus by Electrolysis and Radium Combined, 480

- Cowie (George A.), the Fertilisation of Tea, 385 Cox (C. F.), Darwin and the Mutation Theory, 16 Cracknell (A. G.), Geometry, Theoretical and Practical. 7 Cram (M. P.), Fractionation of Crude Petroleum by Capillary Diffusion, 409 Craniology : Relative Size of the Frontal Lobe of the Brain,

Prof. Franklin P. Mall, 166; Cranial Capacity of Fossil Men of the Type known as Neanderthal, Marcellin Boule, 390

- Crawford (W. J.), Dimensional Changes produced in Iron and Steel Bars by Magnetism, 339 Crawley (Rev. A. E.), Völkerpsychologie, eine Untersuch-
- Crawley (Rev. A. E.), Völkerpsychologie, eine Untersuchung der Entwicklungsgesetze von Sprache, Mythus und Sitte, Wilhelm Wundt, 334
 Crawshay (Richard), the Birds of Tierra del Fuego, 155
 Crew (Dr. Henry), General Physics, 122
 Crocodile's Nest, a, G. W. Grabham, 96
 Crommelin (Mr.), Halley's Comet, 228
 Crowther (J. A.), Passage of Röntgen Rays through Gases and Vapours, 57; Effect of Temperature on Ionisation, 2007

- 297
- Crucible Support and Furnace, New, 204
- Crustacea: Changes in the Common Shore Crab caused by Saculina, F. A. Potts, 88; an Account of the Crustacea of Norway, Prof. G. O. Sars, W. A. Cunnington, 184; Anaspidacea, Geoffrey Smith, 435
 Crystallisation, Influence of Radium on the Velocity of,
- Louis Frischauer, 389 Crystallography: Chemische Krystallographie, Prof. P. Groth, 154; Studies of Frost and Ice Crystals, Wilson J. Bentley, 492
- Cunningham (Mrs. M. E.), Openings in Knap Hill Camp, Wiltshire, 287
- Cunnington (Mrs. M. E.), Excavation of Celtic Rubbish-
- Cunnington (Mr. S.), Dectavation of Conte Australian heap near Oare, 17
 Cunnington (W. A.), an Account of the Crustacea of Norway, Prof. G. O. Sars, 184
 Curtis (Dr. Heber D.), Spectroscopic Binaries, 321
 Curves, Easement, Prof. R. H. Smith, 467
 Curves, Caller Conservation of Language Stable

- Cushman (Allerton S.), the Preservation of Iron and Steel, 384
- Cyclone? Is there a Vertical Magnetic Force in a, J. R. Ashworth, 40
- Cytology: the Cell as the Unit of Life, and other Lectures Delivered at the Royal Institution, London, 1899-1902, an Introduction to Biology, Allan Macfadyen, 123
- Cytomorphosis, the Problem of Age, Growth, and Death, a Study of, Prof. Charles S. Minot, 335

- Dakin (W. J.), Pecten, 273 Daniel (Mr.), Discovery of a New Comet, 1909a, 502 Daniel's Comet, 1907d, Recent Observations of, Prof. Wolf, 410
- Daniel's (1907d) and Morehouse's (1908c) Comets, Positions of, H. H. Kritzinger, 169; Dr. Ebell, 169 Dannemann (Dr. Friedrich), aus der Werkstatt grosser
- Forscher, 182
- Darbishire (A. D.), Experimental Estimation of the Theory of Ancestral Contributions in Heredity, 27 Darwin (Sir George Howard, K.C.B., F.R.S.), Scientific Papers, Vol. ii., Tidal Friction and Cosmogony, 421 Darwin Celebrations in the United States, 72
- Darwin Centenary Celebration, the, 433
- Darwin Commemoration at Cambridge, the, 496 Darwin and Modern Science, Essays in Commemoration of the Centenary of the Birth of Charles Darwin and of the Fiftieth Anniversary of the Publication of the "Origin of Species," Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 481
- Darwinism, Recent Papers on, 142 Darzens (G.), New Method of Preparation of the β -Halogen Derivatives of Naphthalene, 149 Dates : Scientific, Handbuch zur Geschichte der Natur-
- Dates: Scientific, Handbuch zur Geschichte der Naturwissenschaften und der Technik, 66
 Davenport (Gertrude and Charles), Heredity of the Colour of Hair in Man, 257
 Davis (J. J.), Biological Studies of Three Species of Aphididæ, 257
 Davis (J. R. Ainsworth), Nature Study, 192
 Davis (Jrof. W. M.), Glacial Erosion in North Wales, 179
 Daylight and Darkness, 230
 "Daylight Saving" Bill, the, L. C. W. Bonacina, 69
 Deacon (Dr. G. F.), Death of, 499
 Debierne (A.), Decomposition of Water by Radium Salts, 149; the Radium Emanation, 389
 Deegener (Dr. P.), die Metamorphose der Insekten, 156

- Deegener (Dr. P.), die Metamorphose der Insekten, 156

- Delage (Yves), Sex in Sea-urchins obtained by Experimental Parthenogenesis, 29
- Demons, Baskets used in Repelling, Kumagusu Minakata, 369
- Dendy (Prof. A.), the Intracranial Vascular System of Sphenodon, 268
- Sphenodon, 268 Denigès (Georges), Sensitive Reactions for the Detection and Identification of Glycerol, 59 Denning (W. F.), the Meteoric Fireball of February 22 and its Streak, 13; the Meteoric Streak of February 22, 42; Fireball of February 22, 69; Fall of an Aërolite in Mokoia, New Zealand, on November 26, 1908, 128; the Meteoric Shower of Halley's Comet, 259 Denérat (Charles) the Transformations of the Animal
- Depéret (Charles), the Transformations of the Animal World, 452 Deprez (Marcel), Coefficient of Self-induction of a very long

- Deprez (Marcel), Coencient of Self-induction of a very long Bobbin, 179
 Derry (Dr. Douglas E.), Anatomical Results of Excavations in Nubia, 466
 Design in Creation, the Evolution of the Atmosphere as a Proof of, John Phin, W. E. Rolston, 216
 Design in Nature, Dr. J. Bell Pettigrew, F.R.S., 151
 Design due (H.) Observations media at Mauden Observations
- Deslandres (H.), Observations made at Meudon Observatory on Morehouse's Comet, 179; a General Solution of the Spectroheliograph, 239, 380; Examination of the Upper Layers of Calcium and Hydrogen in the Solar Atmosphere and of the same Black Filaments in the Two Layers, 269; the Upper Layers of the Solar Atmosphere, 354; Critical Examination of the Monochromatic Images of the Sun with the Hydrogen Lines, 389 Despaux (A.), Explication méchanique des Propriétés de la
- Matière, Cohésion, Affinité, Gravitation, &c., 6 Deutschland (G.), the Perturbations of Brooks's Comet (1889 V) by Jupiter in 1886, 410 Devaux-Charbonnel (M.), Constitution of Subterranean Tele-
- phone Circuits in Large Towns, 29; the Standardisation
- of Condensers, 479 Dew-ponds, Geo. Hubbard, 223; Prof. J. B. Cohen, 309; Arthur Marshall, 429; L. Gibbs, 458
- Diederichs (H.), Internal-combustion Engines, their Theory, Construction, and Operation, 124
- Dilg (Carl), Post-embryonal Development of the Amazonian
- Manati, 166
 Dillon (T.), Montanin and Montana Waxes, 479
 Dines (W. H., F.R.S.), Barometric Oscillation, 8; Lieut. Shackleton's Antarctic Expedition, Meteorological Observa-tions, 130; the Temperature of the Upper Atmosphere,

- ⁴⁵⁵ Diphtheria, the Bacteriology of, 243
 Diseases, a Manual of Infectious, Dr. E. W. Goodall and Dr. J. W. Washbourn, 454
 Dixon (Prof. H. B., F.R.S.), Experiments on the Ignition Point of Gases by the Method of Adiabatic Compression suggested by Prof. Nernst, 119; Photographs showing the Generation and Nature of "Explosion Waves" in Concercies.
- Gases, 348 Dobbie (A. W.), the Levels of Sun-spots, 19 Dobell (C. C.), So-called "Sexual" Method of Forming Spores in Bacteria, 88; Spore-formation in the Disporic Bacteria, 435
- Bacteria, 435
 Doberck (Prof.), the Orbit of ξ Boötis, 380
 Dodds (G. S.), Plant Distribution on "Mesas" near Boulder, Colorado, 76-7
 Dodgson (J. W.), an Intermediate Course of Laboratory Work in Chemistry, 215
 Döflein (Prof. F.), Probleme der Protistenkunde, I., die
- Trypanosomen ihre Bedeutung für Zoologie, Medizin, und Kolonialwirtschaft, 489 Dolmage (Dr. Cecil G.), Astronomy of To-day, 181 Dorée (C.), Cholesterol in the Animal Organism, Part iii.,
- 28
- Double-image Coelostat for Determining the Moon's Posi-tion, Mr. Wade, 468 Double-star Measures, Prof. Burnham, 19
- Double Stars, Measures for, Dr. Lau and Herr Luplau-Janssen, 200
- Downing (Dr.), Occultations of Planets, 288; Partial Eclipse of the Sun in Canada, 320 Dowson (J. Emerson), Producer Gas for Engines, 200, 232 Dreaper (W. P.), Research and the Colleges, 128

- Droop (Mr.), Early Civilisation in Northern Greece, 437

xiv

- Drowning: Schäfer Method of Artificial Respiration in Case of the Apparently Drowned, 138 Dryness of Winter (1908–9), the, Alex. B. MacDowall, 40
- Duane (William), Evolution of Heat by Radio-active Bodies,
- Dublin: Royal Dublin Society, 88, 179, 388, 479; Royal
- Irish Academy, 88 Duboscq (O.), the Signification of the Rhabdospora, Sup-posed Parasitic Sporozoa in Fishes, 480
- Dubrisay (René), the Hydrolytic Dissociation of Chloride of Bismuth, 180
- Duchäcek (F.), Action of the Bulgarian Ferment Yoghourt on Various Sugars, 390

- Duclaux (Jacques), Cryoscopy of Colloids, 149 Duddell (W.), a Bifilar Vibration Galvanometer, 419 Dudgeon (L. S.), Hæm-agglutinins, Hæm-opsonins, and Hæm-lysins in the Blood from Diseases in Man, 58
- Duffield (G.), Emission Spectrum of Silver Heated in a Carbon-tube Furnace in Air, 168
- Dufour (A.), Examination of Zeeman Effect for Certain Bands in the Emission Spectra of Gases, 352 Dumont (Th.), New Observation on the Moth of the Olive,
- 449
- Dunbar (Prof.), Principles of Sewage Treatment, 5
- Dunstan (A. E.), an Organic Chemistry for Schools and Technical Institutes, 215
- Dupont (Georges), Normal Butine and some of its Derivatives, 479 Durand (Dr. E. J.), Classification of the Geoglossaceæ, 258 Dutch East Indies, Magnetic Survey of the, 1903–7, Dr. W. van Bemmelen, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 293

- Dutch East Indies, Meteorology of the, 356
- Dyeing, Experiments in Relation to L. Vignon, 472 the Theory of.
- Dyer (Dr. Henry), Western Teaching for China, 99 Dyke (G. B.), Production of Steady Electrical Oscillations in Closed Circuits and a Method of Testing Radio-tele-
- graphic Receivers, 239 Dynamics: a Brief Course in Elementary Dynamics for Students of Engineering, Ervin S. Ferry, 95; Notes on Dynamics, Sir G. Greenhill, 455
- Dyson (Prof.), Systematic Motion of the Stars, 148
- Earland (A.), Cycloloculina, a New Genus of Foraminifera, 285
- Earth, the Face of the, E. Suess, 91 Earth, the Yielding of the, to Disturbing Forces, Prof. A. E. H. Love, F.R.S., at Royal Society, 252 Earthquakes: the California Earthquake of April 18, 1906,
- Andrew C. Lawson, 10; Earthquake at Calabria, February 27, 15; Earthquake in Portugal and Spain, 255; at Winnipeg, 349; Reinforced Concrete as a Suitable Material for Buildings likely to be Subjected to Earthquakes, 353; the Guatemalan Earthquakes and Eruption of 1902, W. S. Ascoli, 359; the Cause of Earthquakes, Prof. Hobbs, 444; the Italian Earthquake of December 28, 1908, Dr. G. Martinelli, 445; Earthquake in Southern France, 464; see also Seismology
- Earthshine on the Moon, Photographs of the, M. Quénisset, 141
- Earthwork of England, Prehistoric, Roman, Saxon, Danish, Norman, and Mediæval, A. Hadrian Allcroft, Rev. John
- Griffith, 69
- Eastman (Dr. Charles R.), Devonian Fishes of Iowa, 318 Ebbinghaus (Prof. H.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 1.
- 14 Ebell (Dr.), Position of Morehouse's (1908c) Comet, 169
- Eclipses : Partial Eclipse of the Sun in Canada, Dr. Downing, 320; the Recent Lunar Eclipse, June 3, MM. Borrelly and Coggia, 502; J. H. Elgie, 503.
- Edgar (Prof. John), the Carnegie Foundation for the Ad-vancement of Teaching, 399
- Edinburgh Royal Society, 59, 148, 328, 478 Education : the Functions of Technical Colleges, Dr. George T. Bellby, F.R.S., at Association of Technical Institu-tions, 22; Handbook to the Technical and Art Schools and Colleges of the United Kingdom, 36; Secondary Education in England, 42; Western Teaching for China, Dr. Henry Dyer, 99; Agricultural Education, 101; Death and Obituary Notice of Sir Rowland Blennerhassett, 103;

- Higher Education in the United States, 112; the Encouragement of Research, Dr. E. H. Griffiths, F.R.S., 127; Research and the Colleges, W. P. Dreaper, 128; Rural Education in its Various Grades, 174; Functions of a University, Prof. C. Lloyd Morgan, F.R.S., 176; the Defects of English Technical Education and the Remedy, Dr. Robert Pohl at the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions in Huddersfield, 205; Death of in Technical Institutions in Huddersfield, 205; Death of Dr. J. Marshall Lang, 283; Sammlung Naturwissen-schaftlich-pädagogischer Abhandlungen, Prof. J. A. Green, 304; the Reform of Oxford University, 311; Re-form at Cambridge, 345; Goethe und Pestalozzi, Karl Muthesius, 368; the Carnegie Foundation for the Ad-vancement of Teaching, Prof. John Edgar, 399; Educa-tion and Research in Applied Chemical Industry, 413; the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions, 446; the Sumply of Secondary Education in England and Else the Supply of Secondary Education in England and Else-
- where, A. J. Pressland, 473 Edwards (Dr. W. H.), Death of, 164, 224 Egypt: Mechanical Irrigation Plants, Nile Irrigation Station at Wadi Kom-Ombo, J. B. van Brussel, 18; Hand-
- book for Egypt and the Sudan, 155 Egyptology : Palacolithic Vessels of Egypt, or the Earliest Handiwork of Man, Robert de Rustafjaell, 246; the Tomb of Horemheb, Egypt, A. E. P. Weigall, 437 Ekman (Dr. V. W.), Measurements of the Compressibilities
- of Pure Water and of Sea-water, 168 Electricity: Priestley and Coulomb's Law, C. J. Woodward, 8; Moving-coil Galvanometer, Methods of Making the Instrument Suitable for Measuring Small Currents, Dr. Instrument Suitable for Measuring Small Currents, Dr. M. Reinganum, 18; Rotation of the Electric Arc in a Radial Magnetic Field, J. Nicol, 27; Ionisation in the Atmosphere, Prof. A. S. Eve, 36; an Electromagnetic Problem, Prof. D. F. Comstock, 39; Norman R. Camp-bell, 39; Effect of Heat upon the Electrical State of Living Tissues, Dr. A. D. Waller, 58; Physico-chemical Method of Sterilising in the Cold and at a Distance, A. Billon-Daguerre, 59; Electromotive Force of Iodine Concentration Cells with One Electrode Saturated with Iodine, Principal A. P. Laurie, 59; Sterilisation of milk by the Ultra-violet Rays, Victor Henri and G. Stodel, 60; Suggested Effect of High-tension Mains, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 67; Measurement of Dielectric Constants Lodge, F.R.S., 67; Measurement of Dielectric Constants Lodge, F.R.S., 67; Measurement of Dielectric Constants by the Oscillations of Ellipsoids and Cylinders in a Field of Force, W. M. Thornton, 86; Attempt to Detect Some Electro-optical Effects, Prof. H. A. Wilson, 118; the Electrical Properties of Flame, Prof. H. A. Wilson, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 143; Effect of Radiations on the Brush Discharge, A. E. Garrett, 147; Pirani's Method of Measuring the Self-inductance of a Coil, A. E. Snow. 147-8: High-potential Primary Battery, W. S. Method of Measuring the Self-inductance of a Coil, A. E. Snow, 147-8; High-potential Primary Battery, W. S. Tucker, 148; Resonator Sparks, their Spectroscopic Analysis, G. A. Hemsalech and A. Zimmern, 149; Electro-motive Forces of Magnetisation, V. Posejpal, 149; In-tegration of the Equations of Motion of an Electron describing an Orbit about an Ion in a Magnetic Field, Deef Accurate Bichl, 168, the Dhate detrie Edition of Prof. Augusto Righi, 168; the Photo-electric Fatigue of Zinc, H. Stanley Allen, 178; the Flotbelettric Fatigue of Zinc, H. Stanley Allen, 178; the Electrostatic Separa-tion of Minerals, T. Cook, 178; Coefficient of Self-induc-tion of a Very Long Bobbin, Marcel Deprez, 179; New Electrical Hardening Furnace, E. Sabersky and E. Adler, 209; Relation between Composition and Conductivity in Solutions of meta- and ortho-Phosphoric Acids, Dr. E. B. R. Prideaux, 200; Electro-analysis of Mercury Compounds with a Gold Kathode, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 209; Electricité Industrielle, C. Lebois, Prof. Gisbert Kapp, 213; Two New Systems of Electric Wiring, 227; Specific Heat of Air and Carbon Dioxide at Atmospheric Pressure, by the Continuous Electrical Method, at 20° C. and at 100° C., W. F. G. Swann, 238; Production of Steady Electrical Oscillations in Closed Circuits, and a Method of Testing Radio-telegraphic Receivers, Dr. J. A. Fleming and G. B. Dyke, 239; Effect of an Air Blast-upon the Spark Discharge of a Condenser Charged by upon the Spark Discharge of a Condenser Charged by an Induction Coil or Transformer, Dr. J. A. Fleming and H. W. Richardson, 239; the Simple Equivalent of an Alternating Circuit of Parallel Wires, Dr. J. W. Nichol-son, 247; Measurement of the Energy of Negative Electrons given out by Metals Heated in a Vacuum, Dr. A. Wehnelt and F. Jentzsch, 258; the Electrification of Rail-

ways, John A. F. Aspinall at Institution of Mechanical Engineers, 260; Properties of Doubly-charged Ions, Drs. J. Franck and W. Westphal, 287; Tantalum and its Industrial Applications, Alex. Siemens at the Royal Institution, 290; Phenomenon connected with the Discharge of Electricity from Pointed Conductors, with a Note by John Zeleny, H. T. Barnes and A. N. Shaw, 297; Theory of the Alternate-current Generator, Prof. Lyle, Theory of the Anternate Anternation of the second state of the se charged Helium Atoms) by Prot. E. Rutherford's Method, T. H. Laby, 348; Electric Splashes on Photographic Plates, A. W. Porter, 348; Transformers for Single and Multiphase Currents, Prof. Gisbert Kapp, 365; Electrical Engineer's Pocket Book, Horatio A. Foster, 365; Selec-tive Wireless Telegraphy, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 381; the Charge of a Negative Ion of a Flame, Georges Moreau, 389; Measurements of the Brownian Movements in Gases 389; Measurements of the Brownian Movements in Gases and the Charge of Particles in Suspension, M. de Broglie, 389; Heavy Electrical Engineering, H. M. Hobart, Prof. Gisbert Kapp, 391; Electrical Conductivity of Pure Hexane, G. Jaffé, 409; a Bifilar Vibration Galvanometer, W. Duddell, 419; the Charges of Chemical Fumes, MM. de Broglie and Brizard, 449; New Electrode for Electro-lytic Determination of Metals, J. W. Turrentine, 470; Experiments on the Action of the Silent Electric Dis-charge on Ethylene and Acetylene, Dr. M. Z. Jovitchitch, 471; the Treatment of Nævus by Electrolysis and Radium Combined, Fouveau de Courmelles, 480: Unités Elect Combined, Fouveau de Courmelles, 480; Unités Elec-triques, le Comte de Baillehache, Dr. J. A. Harker, 488; the Theory of Electric Cables and Networks, Dr. Alexthe Theory of Electric Cables and Networks, Dr. Alex-ander Russell, 490; Inductance and Resistance in Tele-phone and Other Circuits, Dr. J. W. Nicholson, 509; New Wave Detector for Wireless Telegraphy and Tele-phony, G. E. Petit, 509; Method of Making Condensers with Pure Paraffin Wax, C. L. B. Shuddemagen, 502; the Arthur Wright Electrical Device for Evaluating Formulæ and Solving Equations, Dr. Russell and Arthur

Wright, 509 Elenkin (A. A.), Algæ and Lichens of Lake Selguer, 501

Elgie (J. H.), the Recent Lunar Eclipse, June 3, 503 Ellis (G. W.), Cholesterol in the Animal Organism, Part iv.,

Elsden (J. V.), Geology of the Neighbourhood of Seaford, 419

- Embryogeny : Experimental Zoology, Dr. Hans Przibram,

Embryogeny: Experimental Zoology, Dr. Hans Przibram, Dr. Francis H. A. Marshall, 2
Embryology: the Development of the Chick, F. R. Lillie, 271; Growth of Nerve Fibres, Ross Harrison, 325; Experimental Embryology, J. W. Jenkinson, 451; "Chemical" Embryos, 507
Engelmann (Prof. Wilh.), Death of, 375
Engineering: Mechanical Irrigation Plants, Nile Irrigation Station at Wadi Kôm-Ombo, J. B. van Brussel, 18; Lathe Design for High- and Low-speed Steels, Prof. John T. Nicholson and Demoster Smith. 33: Mechanics of T. Nicholson and Dempster Smith, 33; Mechanics of Engineering, Prof. Irving P. Church, 33; Motor-car Mechanism and Management, W. Poynter Adams, 33; Steam Plant Trials at the Communication of the Steam Plant Steam Plant Trials at the Greenvale Mill, Littleborough, G. B. Storie, 50; Recent Grain-handling and Storing Appliances at the Millwall Docks, Magnus Mowat, 50; the Theory and Design of Structures, Ewart S. Andrews, the Theory and Design of Structures, Ewart S. Andrews, 64; the Strength of Materials, Prof. Arthur Morley, 64; Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. W. C. Kernot, 75; Railway Tunnel under River Detroit, 76; Foundations of Lofty Buildings in American Practice, Frank W. Skinner, 78; the Internal-combustion Engine, H. E. Wimperis, Prof. E. G. Coker, 124; Internal-combustion Engines, their Theory, Construction, and Operation, R. C. Carpenter and H. Diederichs, Prof. E. G. Coker, 124; Construction and Wear of Roads, H. A. R. Mallock, F.R.S., 141; Laws of Heat and Transmission Deduced from Experiment, Prof. J. T. Nicholson at Junior Institufrom Experiment, Prof. J. T. Nicholson at Junior Institu-tion of Engineers, 144; New Calcium-carbide Factory at Odda, Norway, 168; the Panama Canal, 197; Producer Gas for Engines, J. Emerson Dowson, 200, 232; Laboratory Notes on Industrial Water Analysis, a Survey Course for Engineers, Ellen H. Richards, 215; the Plant Necessary in Warship Construction, 227; Oil Motors, G. Lieckfeld, 246; the Microscope in Engineering, Walter Rosenhain,

250; Automatic Recorder of Carbon Dioxide, Mr. Rosen-250; Automatic Recorder of Carbon Dioxide, Mr. Rosen-hain, 259; Problems Connected with the Construction of *New York Times* Building, C. T. Purdy, 259; the Elec-trification of Railways, John A. F. Aspinall at Institu-tion of Mechanical Engineers, 260; Death and Obituary Notice of Dr. Bindon Blood Stoney, F.R.S., 315; Road Motors and Problems Connected with Them, "James Forrest" Lecture at Institution of Civil Engineers, Colonel H. C. L. Holden, F.R.S., 323; Reinforced Concrete as a Suitable Material for Buildings likely to be Subjected to Earthquakes, 353; Elastic Limits of Iron and Steel under Cyclical Variations of Stress, L. Bairstow, 359; Transformers for Single and Multiphase Currents, Prof. Gisbert Kapp, 365; Electrical Engineer's Pocket Book, Horatio A. Foster, 365; Comparison Tests between New Féry Spiral Pyrometer and a Standardised Thermoelectric Fery Spiral Pyrometer and a Standardised Thermoelectric Féry Radiation Pyrometer, G. C. Pearson, 379; Heavy Electrical Engineering, H. M. Hobart, Prof. Gisbert Kapp, 391; Death of Eugène Grenet, 404; New 300-ton Universal Testing Machine, Messrs. W. and T. Avery, Ltd., 408; Briquette-making, Prof. W. Galloway, 409; Easement Curves, Prof. R. H. Smith, 467; Death of Dr. G. F. Deacon, 499; First Report of the British Associa-tion Committee appointed for the Investigation of Gaseous tion Committee appointed for the Investigation of Gaseous Explosions, with Special Reference to Temperature, Prof.

E. G. Coker, 505 England : Secondary Education in England, 42; the Supply of Secondary Education in England and Elsewhere, A. J. Pressland, 473; Earthwork of England, Prehistoric, Roman, Saxon, Danish, Norman, and Mediæval, A. Hadrian Allcroft, Rev. John Griffith, 69

Engler (A.), das Pflanzenreich, Araceæ-Monsteroideæ and

- Calloideæ, 424 Enteropneusta, Morphology of the, Dr. Arthur Willey, F.R.S., 218
- Entomology: Cross-breeding of Two Races of the Moth ntomology: Cross-breeding of Two Races of the Moth Acidalia virgularia, Louis B. Prout and A. Bacot, 58; British Butterflies and other Insects, 67; Papers and Reports on Insects, 81; Nests of the Argentine Spider Mastophora extraordinaria, J. Brethes, 137; American Insect Pests, Dr. Ball, 138; Dr. Chittenden, 138; W. D. Hunter, 138; die Metamorphose der Insekten, Dr. P. Deegener, 156; Death of Dr. W. H. Edwards, 164, 224; Parasites of the Cotton-worm, Mr. Jemmett, 197; Biologia Centrali-Americana, Orthoptera, Vol. i., Dr. Henri de Saussure, Dr. Leo Zehntner, and A. Pictet, Forficulidæ, Count de Bormans, Vol. ii., Acridiidæ, Prof. Lawrence Saussure, Dr. Leo Zenntner, and A. Pictet, Forneunder, Count de Bormans, Vol. ii., Acridiidæ, Prof. Lawrence Brunner, Tettiginæ, Albert P. Morse, and Phasmidæ, Robert Shelford, 241; die Termiten oder weissen Ameisen, K. Escherich, 245; Biological Studies of Three Species of Aphididæ, J. J. Davis, 257; Angolan Oil-beetles (Meloidæ), Dr. F. Creighton Wellman, 263; Variability of the Six Castes of South African White Ants or Ter-mites, Dr. Ernest Warren, 264; Catalogue of the Lepidoptera Phalænæ in the British Museum, Sir George F. Hampson, Bart., 338; the Tent-building Habits of the Ant *Lasius niger*, Linn., Dr. Marie Stopes and C. G. Hewitt, 388; Two New Parasites of the Black-currant Mite, Miss A. M. Taylor, 447; Economic Loss to United States through Disease-carrying Insects, Dr. L. O. Howard, 448; New Observation on the Moth of the Olive, Th. Dumont, 449; Injurious Insects observed in Ireland during 1908, Prof. G. H. Carpenter, 479 Erdmann (Prof. H.), Alaska, ein Beitrag zur Geschichte Olive,

nordischer Kolonisation, 121

- Eredia (Dr. F.), Discussion of the Temperature at Rome, 1855-1904, 106
- Erlangen, Festschrift der Physikalisch-medizinischen Societät zu, zur Feier ihres 100 jährigen Bestehens am 27 Juni, 1908, 411
- Erlangen, Sitzungsberichte der Physikalisch-medizinischen Societät in, 411
- Ernst (Dr. A.), Flora of Volcanic Region of Java and Sumatra, 105; the New Flora of the Volcanic Island of
- Krakatau, 279 Eros, Solar Parallax from Observations of, Prof. Perrine, 468

Escherich (K.), die Termiten oder weissen Ameisen, 245

Essays and Addresses, J. H. Bridges, 217 Estéva (G.), Condensation of the Mesoxalic Esters with Aromatic Hydrocarbons, 59

Etévé (A.), Measurements of the Coefficient of Resistance of Air, 149

- Ethnography: Death and Obituary Notice of Dr. J. D. E. Schmeltz, 405 Ethnology: Physiological and Medical Observations among
- the Indians of South-western United States and Northern Mexico, Aleš Hrdlička, 126; Death and Obituary Notice of Dr. William Jones, 196, 255; the Nandi: their Language and Folklore, A. C. Hollis, 249; Rock-engravings in South Africa, L. Péringuey, 411; Corr., R. Lydekker, 438

- Lydekker, 438 Eugenics, the Scope of, Prof. Karl Pearson, 203 Evans (E.), Plants and their Ways, 452 Evans (E. J.), Spectroscopic Researches, 508 Eve (Prof. A. S.), Ionisation in the Atmosphere, 36 Evershed (Mr.), Sun-spots and Solar Temperature, 169 Evolution: Darwin and the Mutation Theory, C. F. Cox, 16; Parallel Paths: a Study in Biology, Ethics, and Art, T. W. Rolleston, 35; Darwin Celebrations in the United States, 72; Recent Papers on Darwinism, 142; the Darwin Centenary Celebration, 433; Darwin and Modern Science, Essays in Commemoration of the Cen-tenary of the Birth of Charles Darwin and of the Fiftieth tenary of the Birth of Charles Darwin and of the Fiftieth Anniversary of the Publication of the " Origin of Species, Anniversary of the Publication of the "Origin of Species," Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 481; the Darwin Commemora-tion at Cambridge, 496; Stellar Evolution, Prof. Moul-ton, 79; the Evolution of the Atmosphere as a Proof of Design in Creation, John Phin, W. E. Rolston, 216; Man in the Light of Evolution, Dr. J. M. Tyler, 275; Lectures on the Evolution of the Filicinean Vascular System, A. G. Tansley, 391; Mendelian Action on Dif-ferentiated Sex, Dr. D. Berry Hart, 478 Ewart (Prof. J. C., F.R.S.), the Natural History Museum,
- 220
- Ewen (D.), the Bessemerising of Hardhead, 388 Explosive Combustion, with Special Reference to that of Hydrocarbons, Prof. W. A. Bone, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 81
- Explosives: the Manufacture of Explosives, Oscar Guttmann, 272; Detonation of Gun-cotton, Prof. C. E. Munroe, 443
- Eyre (Dr. J.), Pathogenesis of Micrococcus melitensis, 328
- Fabry (Ch.), Comparison of the Lines of the Spectrum of the Electric Arc and of the Sun, Pressure of the Reversing Layer in the Solar Atmosphere, 149; Pressure of the Reversing Layer in the Solar Atmosphere, 149; Pressure in the Sun's Atmosphere, 229; Unsymmetrical Enlargement of the Lines of the Arc Spectrum and their Comparison with those of the Solar Spectrum, 389 Fabry (Prof. E.), Traité de Mathématiques générales a l'usage des Chimistes, Physiciens, Ingénieurs, et des Élèves des Facultés des Science, 488 Fabry and Perot Interferometer, a Simple, Prof. James
- Fabry and Perot Interferometer, a Simple, Prof. James Barnes, 187
- Face of the Earth, the, E. Suess, 91
- Færöes, Botany of the, 303 Fagan (Mr.), Analyses of Brewers' and Distillers' Grains, 106
- Falconry: the Baz-Nama-vi-Nasiri, a Persian Treatise on
- Falconry, 371 Fallex (M.), la XXe Siècle, 368 France et ses Colonies au Début au

- Faraday Society, 209 Farrer (Reginald), Alpine and Bog Plants, 344 Farrington (F. W.), Clay-modelling in Manual Training from Plan, Elevation, and Section, 36 Fath (E. A.), Spectra of some Spiral Nebulæ and Globular
- Star Clusters, 354 Faure (L.), Relations between the Permeability of Soils and
- their Aptitude for Irrigation, 449
- Fauvel (Pierre), Effects of Chocolate and Coffee on Uric Acid and the Purins, 480 Feldtmann (W. R.), the "Wholesale Idea" in Gold-
- mining, 299
- Ferry (Ervin S.), a Brief Course in Elementary Dynamics for Students of Engineering, 95 Féry (C.), Determination of the Constant of Stefan's Law,
- 200
- Fever Hospitals and Disinfecting and Cleansing Stations, the Planning of, Albert C. Freeman, 185

- Field (J. H.), Kite Flights in India and Neighbouring Sea Areas during the South-west Monsoon Period of 1907,
- Figure and Dimensions of the Sun, Changes in the, Prof.
- Moulton, 439 Filippi (F. de), Ruwenzori: an Account of the Expedition of H.R.H. Prince Luigi Amedeo of Savoy, Duke of the Abruzzi, 281
- Filter with Regular Interstices of Variable Dimensions, a Metallic, Énile Gobbi, 300
- Finkelstein (Mlle. M.), Complete Synthesis of Laudanosine, 210
- Finlayson (A. M.), Nephrite and Magnesium Rocks of South
- Finlayson (A. M.), Nephrite and Magnesium Rocks of South Island, New Zealand, 359 Fireball of February 22, W. F. Denning, 69 Fischer (C. E. C.), Constructive Work for Restraining the Flow of Torrents and of the *Reboisement* of Mountain
- Slopes near Interlaken, 17 Fischer (Dr. Emil), the Paparudà Procession among the Roumanian Peasants, 204
- Fischer (Emil), Untersuchungen über Kohlenhydrate und
- Fermente, 485 Fisher (Willard J.), Variation of the Viscosity of a Gas with Temperature, 77 Fisher (W. R.), Schlich's Manual of Forestry, 35 Fishes, Recent Papers on, 357

- Fishing: Sunset Playgrounds: Fishing Days and Others in California and Canada, F. G. Aflalo, 431 Flame, the Electrical Properties of, Prof. H. A. Wilson,
- F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 143
- Fleece, the Golden, Dr. Felix Oswald, 96 Fleming (Dr. J. A., F.R.S.), an Elementary Manual of Radio-telegraphy and Radio-telephony for Students and Operators, 65; Production of Steady Electrical Oscilla-tions in Closed Circuits, and a Method of Testing Radiotelegraphic Receivers, 239; Effect of an Air Blast upon the Spark Discharge of a Condenser charged by an In-
- duction Coil or Transformer, 239 Fleming (Mrs.), a Group of Red Stars in Sagittarius, 288 Flies, Sense of Smell in, Dr. Alex. Hill, 308 Flora of the Presidency of Bombay, the, Dr. Theodore
- Cooke, 362 Flora of the Volcanic Island of Krakatau, the New, Prof. A. Ernst, 279
- Flower and Grass Calendars for Children, Agnes Fry, 368 Fluorescence, Early References to, and Light Transmitted by Thin Gold Films, John H. Shaxby, 128
- Fluorescence of Lignum Nephriticum, Charles E. Benham, 159; Dr. O. Stapf, F.R.S., 218; John H. Shaxby, 248 Foley (N.), British and American Customary and Metric
- Legal Measures for Commercial and Technical Purposes, 367
- Folklore: Plants with Magic Qualities, Dr. H. Marzell, 166; the Paparudà Procession among the Roumanian Peasants, Dr. Emil Fischer, 204; the Nandi: their Language and Folklore, A. C. Hollis, 249
- Foods, Human, and their Nutritive Value, H. Snyder, C.
- Simmons, 366 Forestry: Results of Destruction of Forests in Northern China, F. N. Meyer, 17; Constructive Work for Restrain-Mountain Slopes near Interlaken, C. E. C. Fischer, 17; Schlich's Manual of Forestry, W. R. Fisher, 35; Trees: a Handbook of Forest-botany for the Woodlands and the Laboratory, Prof. H. Marshall Ward, 126; Sand-binding Plants, V. Subramania Iyer, 198; Germination of Myra-bolan Seedlings, J. E. C. Turner, 258; the Production of "Sal" Shorea robusta, A. L. McIntire, 317; Cata-logue of Native Trees of the Transvaal, J. Burtt-Davy, 318; Rate of Growth of Palms, A. W. Lushington, 351; Trees on the Dawyck Estate in Peebles, W. B. Gourlay, 378; Over-consumption of Wood in the United States,
- 378; Overconsumption of wood in the officer states, 435; Lac Cultivation in India, D. N. Avasia, 436
 Fosse (R.), the Metallic Character of the Pyryl Group, 510
 Fossils: Untersuchungen fossiler Hölzer aus dem westen Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika, Dr. Paul Platen, 185

Foster (Horatio A.), Electrical Engineer's Pocket Book, 365 Fouard (Eugène), Colloidal Properties of Starch with respect to its Chemical Constitution, 29

Fournier (L.), Action of Gaseous Hydrochloric Acid on

Amorphous Silicon, 59; New Silicon Chlorides of the Silicomethane Series, 180; Action of Oxidising Agents upon Silicochloroform, 329

Fowle (Mr., Jun.), the Determination of the Solar Constant, 468

Fowler (A.), Spectroscopic Comparison of o Ceti with Titanium Oxide, 387

Fox (Francis), Pitchblende from Trenwith Mine, 349 France et ses Colonies au Début au XXe Siècle, la, M.

Fallex and A. Mairey, 368

Franck (Dr. J.), Properties of Doubly-charged Ions, 287 Franks (Mr.), Colours and Magnitudes of Stars, 288 Fraser (Mary T.), Origin and Destiny of Cholesterol in the

Animal Organism, 327 Fraser (Sir Thomas), Strophanthus sarmentosus, its Phar-macological Action and Use as an Arrow-poison, 328

Freeman (Albert C.), the Planning of Fever Hospitals and Disinfecting and Cleansing Stations, 185 Frenkel (Dr. M.), Method for Rendering Motor-car Escape

Gas Odourless, 413 Fresh-water Algæ from Burma, including a few from Bengal and Madras, W. West and G. S. West, 125 Freudenberg (Wilhelm), Fauna of the Hundsheim Cave in Lower Austria, 263

Friedenthal (Dr. Gustav), Beiträge zur Naturgeschichte des

Menschen, 211 Friend (Dr. J. Newton), the Theory of Valency, 395 Frischauer (Louis), Influence of Radium on the Velocity of

Crystallisation, 389 Fritz (Dr. F.), Carpal Vibrissæ and Underlying Structures on Under Surface of Lower Part of Fore-arm of the Cat, 105

Frost and Ice Crystals, Studies of, Wilson J. Bentley, 492 Fry (Agnes), Flower and Grass Calendars for Children, 368 Fry (G. Cecil), A Text-book of Geography, 31 Fryer (J. C. F.), the Percy Sladen Trust Expedition to the

Indian Ocean, 321 Fuel Question, the Imperial Side of the, 277; Sir W. Ram-

say, K.C.B., F.R.S., 278; Arthur McDougall, 309 Fuller (W. P.), Effect of Temperature on the Hysteresis Loss in Iron in a Rotating Field, 419 Fungi : Synopsis of the British Basidiomycetes, a Descrip-

tive Catalogue of the Drawings and Specimens in the Department of Botany, British Museum, Worthington G. Smith, 184; the Rate of Fall of Fungus Spores in Air, Prof. A. H. Reginald Buller, 186

Gager (Prof. C. S.), Influence of Radium Rays on Plants, 108

Galitzin (Prince), Records of the Calabrian Earthquake obtained at Pulkowa, 226 Galloway (Prof. W.), Briquette-making, 409 Gamgee (Dr. Arthur, F.R.S.), Death of, 136; Obituary

Notice of, 194 Gardening, Alpine and Bog Plants, Reginald Farrer, 344 Gardiner (J. H.), Origin, History, and Development of the

Röntgen-ray Tube, 438 Gardiner (J. Stanley, F.R.S.), the Percy Sladen Trust Ex-

pedition to the Indian Ocean, 321; the Germ-layer Theory, 428

Gardner (J. A.), Cholesterol in the Animal Organism, Parts iii. and iv., 28; Origin and Destiny of Cholesterol in

the Animal Organism, 327 Gardner (Prof. Walter M.), the Structure of the Wool Fibre and its Relation to the Use of Wool for Technical Pur-

Garrad (A. J.), New Method of Illumination for Photo-graphic Work, the "Petrolite" Photographic Lamp, 439 Garrett (A. E.), Effect of Radiations on the Brush Discharge, 147

Gas: Producer Gas for Engines, J. Emerson Dowson, 200, 232

Gascard (A.), Action of Light upon Milk to which Potassium Bichromate has been Added, 60

Gaseous Explosions, First Report of the British Association Committee appointed for the Investigation of, with Special Reference to Temperature, Prof. E. G. Coxer, 505 Gases: Number of Molecules in Unit Volume of a Gas, P.

Ghose, 39; the Gases of the Ring Nebula in Lyra, Prof.

Bohuslav Brauner, 158; Internal Pressure in Gases, A.

Leduc, 449 Gaskell (Dr. Walter Holbrook, F.R.S.), the Origin of Vertebrates, 301; Gaskell's "Origin of Vertebrates," 428 Gaupp (Prof. E.), Problem of Man's Right-handedness, 500 Gautrelet (Jean), Hypotensive Function of Choline in the

Organism, 240 Gazarian (G. Ter), Revision of the Atomic Weight of Phosphorus, 449

Gems: Artificial Production of Precious Stones, Jacques

Boyer, 408; the Famous Hope Diamond, 464 Genetics, the Method and Scope of, Prof. W. Bateson, F.R.S., 396 Geography : G

F.K.S., 390 ieography: Geography, Structural, Physical, and Com-parative, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 31; a Text-book of Geography, G. Cecil Fry, 31; la Côte d'Azur Russe (Riviera du Caucase), E. A. Martel, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 40; Geographical and Archæological Explorations in Chinese Turkestan in 1906-8, Dr. M. A. Stein, 47; Alaska, ein Beitrag zur Geschichte nordischer Kolonisa-tion Bref H. Erdensen eine Structural Contractor Brod Alaska, ein Beitrag zur Geschichte nordischer Kolonisa-tion, Prof. H. Erdmann, 121; Structural Geography, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 157; the Reviewer, 157; Royal Geographical Society's Medal Awards, 165; Mountaineers of the Euphrates, E. Huntingdon, 167; the British Empire (and Japan), W. Bisiker, 213; the Shores of the Adriatic, the Austrian Side, F. Hamilton Jackson, 274; Ruwenzori, an Account of the Expedition of H.R.H. Prince Luigi Amedeo of Savoy, Duke of the Abruzzi, F. de Filippi, Perof L.W. Gregory, F.R.S., 281; Mr. Boosevelt's Pro-Amedeo of Savoy, Duke of the Abruzzi, F. de Filippi, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 281; Mr. Roosevelt's Pro-jected Hunting Trip in East Africa, Sir H. Johnston, 285; Cambridge County Geographies: Essex, Kent, Surrey, Sussex, G. F. Bosworth, 305; Leonardo da Vinci and Geography, Prof. Dr. Eugen Oberhummer, 351; la France et ses Colonies au Début du XX^e Siècle, M. Fallex and A. Mairey, 368; Dr. Sven Hedin on Central Asia, 372; Revue de Géographie annuelle, 455 Geology: Limestone Caves of Marble Arch, Co. Fermanagh, H. Brodrick, 88; the Face of the Earth, E. Suess, ot.

H. Brodrick, 88; the Face of the Earth, E. Suess, 91; Geological Society, 118, 147, 179, 298, 359, 419, 448; Anniversary Address at, Time in Relation to Geological Events, Prof. W. J. Sollas, F.R.S., 118; Karroo System in Northern Rhodesia, and its Relation to the General Events, Frot. W. J. Sonas, F.R.S., 118, Kalrob System in Northern Rhodesia, and its Relation to the General Geology, A. J. C. Molyneux, 118; Notes on the Neigh-bourhood of the Victoria Falls (Rhodesia), T. Codring-ton, 147; Petrography of the New Red Sandstone in the West of England, H. H. Thomas, 147; Glacial Deposits of Western Carnarvonshire, Dr. T. J. Jehu, 148; the Glenboig Fireclay, its Halloysite and Sideroplesite, Prof. J. W. Gregory, 148; Sketch of the Mineral Resources of India, Sir T. H. Holland, 163; Glacial Erosion in North Wales, Prof. W. M. Davis, 179; Untersuchungen fossiler Hölzer aus dem westen Vereinigten Staaten von Nord-amerika, Dr. Paul Platen, 185; the Rhine-Rhone Water-parting, Dr. L. Ritter von Sawicki, 258; the Lahat "Pipe," J. B. Scrivenor, 298; Sculptures of the Chalk Downs in Kent, Surrey, and Sussex, G. Clinch, 298; a Direct Estimate of the Minimum Age of Thorianite, Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 308; the Percy Sladen Trust Expedi-tion to the Indian Ocean, J. Stanley Gardiner, F.R.S., 321; J. C. F. Fryer, 321; Permian Footprints, G. Hickling, 328; J. C. F. Fryer, 321; Permian Footprints, G. Hickling, 328; "Blowing" Wells, Sydney H. Long, 339; Dr. A. Strahan, F.R.S., 370; Beeby Thompson, 429; the Boulders of the Cambridge Drift, R. H. Rastall and J. Romanes, 359; Nephrite and Magnesium Rocks of South Island, New Nephrite and Magnesium Rocks of South Island, New Zealand, A. M. Finlayson, 359; Bau und Geschichte der Erde, O. Abel, 367; the Geology of the Goldfields of British Guiana, J. B. Harrison, 395; beath and Obituary Notice of T. Mellard Reade, 404; the Hartfell-Valentian Succession around Plynlimon and Pont Erwyd (North Cardiganshire), O. T. Jones, 419; Geology of the Neigh-bourhood of Seaford (Sussex), J. V. Elsden, 419; Cauldron Subsidence of Glen Coe and the Associated Igneous Phenomena, C. T. Clough, H. B. Muff, and E. B. Bailey, 448; the Pitting of Flint Surfaces, C. Carus-Wilson, 448; Geology of the Mount Flinders and Fassifern Districts, Queensland, Dr. H. I. Jensen, 479; die Grundproben der "Deutschen Tiefsee-Expedition," Sir John Murray and Prof. E. Philippi, 486; History of the Geological Society of Glasgow, 1858–1908, with Biographical Notices of Prominent Members, 487

- Geometry: Geometry, Theoretical and Practical, W. P. Workman and A. G. Cracknell, 7; Practical Solid Geo-metry, Rev. P. W. Unwin, 305; Cassell's Elementary Geometry, W. A. Knight, 305; the Teaching of Geometry, Prof. George M. Minchin, F.R.S., 373; Grundlagen der
- Germ-layer Theory, the, J. Stanley Gardiner, F.R.S., 428: the Reviewer, 428; Ric. Assheton, 492 German Anthropological Papers, 204 Germany: the Care of Natural Monuments with Special

- Reference to Great Britain and Germany, Prof. H. Con-wentz, 275; Mitteilungen der deutschen dendrologischen Gesellschaft, 325; Germany and the Patents and Designs
- Act, 1907, 401 Gernez (D.), Supposed Effect of Crystallisation for Modifying the Properties of the Solution of a Body Resulting from the Direct Union of Two Solutions, 59
- Geschichte der Naturwissenschaften und der Technik, Handbuch zur, 66
- Gesichtsempfindungen, Abhandlungen zur Physiologie der, aus dem physiologischen Institut zu Freiburg-i-B., 125 Gessard (C.), the Catalase of the Blood, 449 Ghose (P.), Number of Molecules in Unit Volume of a Gas,

- Gibbs (L.), Dew-ponds, 458 Gibbs (Miss L. S.), the Montane Flora of Fiji, 87 Gibson (A. H.), Depression of Filament of Maximum Velocity in a Stream flowing through an Open Channel, 147

- Gibson (Charles R.), Scientific Ideas of To-day, 181 Gigantocypris and the *Challenger*, Dr. W. T. Calman, 248 Giglioli (Dr. Henry H.), an Ornithological Coincidence, 188 Gill (Rev. H. V.), a New Kind of Glow in Vacuum Tubes,
- 35⁸ Gilmore (C. W.), Osteology and Affinities of the Jurassic American Iguanodont Reptiles of the Genus Campto-
- saurus, 378 Gilpin (J. E.), Fractionation of Crude Petroleum by Capil-lary Diffusion, 409
- Glasgow, History of the Geological Society of, 1858–1908, with Biographical Notices of Prominent Members, 487
- Glass, Errors of Position of Images Photographed through, · Dr. Schlesinger, 503 Glasson (J. L.), Want of Symmetry shown by Secondary
- X-rays, 327 Glazebrook (Dr. R. T., F.R.S.), Photometric Units, 374 Gleditsch (Ellen), the Radium and Uranium contained in
- Radio-active Minerals, 449
- Globular Star Clusters, Spectra of Some Spiral Nebulæ and, E. A. Fath, 354 Goadby (K.), Experimental Lead Poisoning, 436; Lead
- Poisoning, 472 Gobbi (Émile), a Metallic Filter with Regular Interstices of
- Variable Dimensions, 300 Goddard (S. F.), the Scalding and Sweating of Copper Bat-
- tery Plates, 388 Goebel (Dr. K.), Einleitung in die experimentelle Mor-
- phologie der Pflanzen, 61
- Goethe und Pestalozzi, Karl Muthesius, 368 Gold (E.), the Isothermal Layer of the Atmosphere, 68; Upper Air Temperatures, 217 Gold, the Story of, E. S. Meade, 306 Golden Fleece, the, Dr. Felix Oswald, 96

- Goldfields of British Guiana, the Geology of the, J. B. Harrison, 395
- Golf, the Physics of, Sir Ralph Payne-Gallwey, 237

- Golt, the Physics of, Sir Kalph Payne-Gallwey, 237 Goodall (Dr. E. W.), a Manual of Infectious Diseases, 454 Goodbody (Dr. F. W.), Lead Poisoning, 472 Goos (F.), Radial Velocity of a Persei, 51 Gorsedd, the Welsh, Rev. W. Griffith, 468 Göttingen, Royal Society of Sciences, 90, 420 Gourlay (W. B.), Trees on the Dawyck Estate in Peebles,
- 378 Goutal (E.), Study of the Gases Disengaged by the Action
- of Copper Salts on Steels, 239 Gouy (M.), Magneto-kathode Rays, 149
- Government and Aëronautical Research, the, Prof. G. H.
- Bryan, F.R.S., 313 Grabham (G. W.), a Crocodile's Nest, 96 Grablovitz (Prof.), Secondary Oscillation Recorded by the Tide-gauge at Ischia, 466

- Grace (H.), Effect of Temperature on the Hysteresis Loss in Iron in a Rotating Field, 419 Graebner (P.), das Pflanzenreich, Potamogetonaceæ, 424 Grain-handling and Storing Appliances at the Millwall

- Grambanding and Storing Apphances at the Minwan Docks, Recent, Magnus Mowat, 50 Grammar of Life, the, G. T. Wrench, 426 Gramophone as a Phonautograph, the, Prof. John G. McKendrick, F.R.S., 188 Gravely (F. H.), Apical Pigment-spots in the Pluteus of
- *Echinus miliaris*, 359 Gravitative Strain upon the Moon, the, Evan McLennan, 276; Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 307 Gray (Prof. A.), Lagrange's Equations of Motion and
- Elementary Solutions of Gyrostatic Problems, 59
- Gray (J. A.), Liberation of Helium from Radio-active Minerals by Grinding, 238 Gray (J. G.), Low-temperature Experiments in Magnetism,
- 59
- Gray (R. C.), Magnetic Properties of Certain Copper Alloys, 59
- Great Britain and Germany, the Care of Natural Monu-ments with Special Reference to, Prof. H. Conwentz, 275
- ²⁷⁵
 Greece, Early Civilisation in Northern, Messrs. Wace, Droop, and Thomson, 437
 Green (Prof. J. A.), Sammlung Naturwissenschaftlichpädagogischer Abhandlungen, 304
 Greenhill (Sir G.), Notes on Dynamics, 455
 Greenish (Prof. Henry G.), Handbuch der Pharmakognosie, Prof. A. Tsekirgh 2.
- Prof. A. Tschirch, 3 Greenly (Edward), the Ancient Greeks and Natural Science,
- 224
- Greenwich, the Royal Observatory, 446
- Greenwich Winter of 1908-9, the, Alex. B. MacDowall, 218
- Gregory (Prof. J. W., F.R.S.), Geography, Structural, Physical, and Comparative, 31; the Glenboig Fire-clay: its Halloysite and Sideroplesite, 148; Tuesite, 148; Structural Geography, 157; Ruwenzori: an Account of the Expedition of H.R.H. Prince Luigi Amedeo of Savoy, Duke of the Abruzzi, F. de Filippi, 281 Greig-Smith (Dr. R.), Can Opsonins be obtained directly from Bacteria and Yeast? 479; the Coagulation of Con-
- densed Milk, 479 Grenet (Eugène), Death of, 404 Griffin (Messrs. John J., and Sons), the York Air-tester,

- 35² Griffith (Rev. John), Earthwork of England, Prehistoric, Roman, Saxon, Danish, Norman, and Mediæval, A. Hadrian Allcroft, 69 Griffith (Rev. W.), the Welsh Gorsedd, 468 Griffiths (Dr. E. H., F.R.S.), the Encouragement of

- Research, 127 Grignard (V.), Transformation of Pinonic Acid into

- Grignard (V.), Transformation of Pinonic Acid into 1: 3-Dimethyl-4-phenylacetic Acid, 89
 Groth (Prof. P.), Chemische Krystallographie, 154
 Growth of Nerve Fibres, Ross Harrison, 325
 Grundproben der "Deutschen Tiefsee-Expedition," die, Sir John Murray and Prof. E. Philippi, 486
 Guatemala, Explorations in the Department of Petén, and Adjacent Region, Memoirs of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, Harvard Univer-sity, T. Maler, 160 sity, T. Maler, 160
- Guerbet (Marcel), Action of Caustic Potash on Borneol, Camphor, and Isoborneol Acid, 149 Guérin (C.), Evacuation of Tubercle Bacilli by the Bile
- in the Intestine in Animals affected with Latent Lesions, 80
- Guichard (Marcel), Preparation of Pure Iodic Anhydride,
- Guillemard (H.), Variations of Dehydrations Organism with Altitude, 510 Gun-cotton, Detonation of, Prof. C. E. Munroe, 443 Variations of Dehydrations of the

- Gun-cotton, Detonation 61, Frot. C. E. Munice, 443 Gun-firing Disturbances at Tiverton, Distant, 405 Guttmann (Oscar), the Manufacture of Explosives, 272 Guyot (A.), Condensation of the Mesoxalic Esters with Aromatic Hydrocarbons, 59 Gypsies: the Romanichels, Bob Skot, 318
- Gyroscopischen Horizon Fleuriais, Beschrijving en Onderzoek van der, (Model Ponthus et Therrode), L. Roosenburg, 455

- Haberlandt (Prof. G.), Sense-organs in Leaves, 76 Haddon (Dr. A. C., F.R.S.), an Imperial Bureau of
- Haddon (Dr. A. Anthropology, 73 Haeckel (Ernst), Prof. Walther May, 126 Hahn (Prof. Hermann), Handbuch für physikalische
- Hale (G. E.), Examination of the Upper Layers of Cal-cium and Hydrogen in the Solar Atmosphere and of the same Black Filaments in the Two Layers, 269
- Hale (Prof.), Mount Wilson Solar Observatory Report, 260
- Hale's Solar Vortices, A. Brester, 79 Haller (Prof.), the Alcoholysis of Certain Esters, 471 Haller (A.), Preparation of the Three Oxy- and the *p*-dimethylamido- and diethylamidobenzylidenecamphors and the p- and m-tolylidenecamphors, 479
- Halley's Comet, Mr. Crommelin, 228
- Halley's Comet, the Meteoric Shower of, W. F. Denning, 259 Hampson (Sir George F., Bart.), Catalogue of the Lepidoptera Phalaenae in the British Museum, 338
- Handbook to the Technical and Art Schools and Colleges of the United Kingdom, 36
- Hands (Alfred), Lightning and the Churches, 228 Hanson (E. K.), an Intermediate Course of Laboratory Work in Chemistry, 215
- Hardy (G. H.), a Course of Pure Mathematics, 36 Hardy (W. B., F.R.S.), Electrolytes and Colloids, the Physical State of Gluten, 296
- Harker (Dr. J. A.), Unités Électriques, le Comte de Baille-
- hache, 488 Harries (Hy.), Obituary Notice of Dr. von Neumayer, For.Mem.R.S., 402; Corr., 439 Harris (Rollin A.), Manual of Tides, 91
- Harrison (J. B.), the Geology of the Goldfields of British Guiana, 395 Harrison (Ross), Growth of Nerve Fibres, 325
- Hart (Dr. D. Berry), Mendelian Action on Differentiated Sex, 478 Hart (W. E.), the Pollination of the Primrose, 457, 492
- Hartley (E. G. J.), Osmotic Pressures of Weak Solutions of Calcium Ferrocyanide, 28
- Hartmann (Dr. Max), Meaning of Sexuality in Relation to the Formation of Gametes, 500 Hartmann (Prof.), the Spectrum of Morehouse's Comet, 380
- Hartwig (Prof.), SS Aurigæ (31.1907) an Irregular Variable,
- 288
- Harvard College, Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of, a Search for a Planet beyond Neptune, W. H. Pickering, 463 Harvard College Observatory, Prof. Pickering, 321 Hastings (Prof. C. S.), the Hevelian Halo, 444 Hatch (Dr. F. H.), Text-book of Petrology, 337 Hatfield (W. H.), Chemical Physics Involved in the Decar-

- burisation of Iron-carbon Alloys, 385 Haupt (Prof. P.), the Burning Bush and the Origin of
- Judaism, 444 Havelock (T. H.), the Wave-making Resistance of Ships, 208
- Healey (Elizabeth), a First Book of Botany, 452
- Healey (Maud), Fossils from Napeng Beds of Burma, 287
 Heape (Walter), Proportion of Sexes Produced by Whites and Coloured Peoples in Cuba, 57
 Heat: Thermal Effects of the Musical Arc, M. La Rosa,
- 29, 89; Effect of Heat upon the Electrical State of Living Tissues, Dr. A. D. Waller, 58; Laws of Heat and Transmission Deduced from Experiment, Prof. J. T. Nicholson at Junior Institution of Engineers, 144; Coma Standardised Thermoelectric Féry Radiation Pyrometer, G. C. Pearson, 379; Evolution of, by Radio-active Bodies, William Duane, 449; Effect of Temperature on the Hysteresis Loss in Iron in a Rotating Field, W. P. Fuller and H. Grace, 419; Condensation of the Radium Emanation, A. Laborde, 509
- Heavens, International Chart of the, 193 Heck (J. H.), Mechanical Method for Determining the Thrust of Propellers, 173 Hedin (Dr. Sven), on Central Asia, 372
- Heidelberg, der Unterkiefer des Homo Heidelbergensis aus den Sanden von Mauer bei, Otto Schoetensack, Dr. William Wright, 398

- Hemsalech (G. A.), Resonator Sparks, their Spectroscopic
- Analysis, 149 Henderson (Dr. J. B.), Flight of a Rifled Projectile in Air, 57; Elasticity of Ships as Deduced from Experiments on the Vibration of Dynamical Models, 173
- Henri (Victor), Sterilisation of Milk by the Ultra-violet
- Rays, 60 Henriot (E.), Radiation of Potassium Salts, 209 Henry (John R.), April Meteors, 188 Henslow (Rev. Prof. George), the Heredity of Acquired
- Characters in Plants, 93 Hepburn (Dr. A. Barton), Artificial Waterways and Com-
- mercial Development (with a History of the Erie Canal), 307
- deredity: Experimental Estimation of the Theory of Ancestral Contributions in Heredity, A. D. Darbishire, Heredity: 27; the Heredity of Acquired Characters in Plants, Rev. Prof. George Henslow, 93; the Inheritance of Acquired Character, Dr. Wm. Woods Smyth, 277; the Scope of Eugenics, Prof. Karl Pearson, 203; Heredity of the Colour of Hair in Man, Gertrude and Charles Davenport, 257; (1) the Theory of Ancestral Contributions in Heredity; (2) the Ancestral Gametic Correlations in Pre-delian Population Mating at Random, Prof. Karl Pearson, 268; Mendelian Action on Differentiated Sex, Dr. D. Berry Hart, 478
- Hergesell (Prof.), Experiments to Determine the Rate of Ascent of Rubber Balloons in Still Air, 355 Heron-Allen (E.), Mammoth Skeleton, 225; Cycloloculina,
- a New Genus of Foraminifera, 285
- Herter (Prof. C. A.), on Infantilism from Chronic Intestinal Infection, Characterised by the Overgrowth and Persist-
- Hess (Dr. V. F.), Evolution of Heat by Radium, 18; Variation of Refractive Indices of Mixtures of Liquids with their Composition, 18
- Heuse (Dr.), Methods of High Vacua, 50; Relative Efficiencies of Methods for the Production of High Vacua, 438
- Hewitt (C. G.), the Tent-building Habits of the Ant Lasius niger, Linn., 388 Heyl (P. R.), Physics of the Æther, 443
- Heyn (E.), Solubility of Steel in Sulphuric Acid, 384
- Hickling (G.), Permian Foot-prints, 328 Hickson (Prof. Sydney J., F.R.S.), the Natural History Museum, 229
- Higgins (Hugh), Low-temperature Experiments in Magnetism, 50
- High-tension Mains, Suggested Effect of, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 67 Hilbert (D.), Grundlagen der Geometrie, 394

- Hilbert (D.), Grundlagen der Geometrie, 394
 Hildburgh (Dr. W. L.), Tibetan and Burmese Amulets, 387
 Hilger (Dr. W.), die Hypnose und die Suggestion, ihre Wesen, ihre Wirkungsweise und ihre Bedeutung und Stellung unter den Heilmitteln, 273
 Hill (Dr. Alex.), Sense of Smell in Flies, 308; the Body at Work, 366; Vapour-density and Smell, 427
 Hill (Prof. Jas. P.), the Ancestry of the Marsupialia, 159
 Hillebrand (Prof.). Elements and Ephemeris for Winnecke's

- Hillebrand (Prof.), Elements and Ephemeris for Winnecke's
- Comet, 1909, 502 Hillier (J. M.), Lalang Grass, Material for Paper Pulp, 108
- Hinks (Arthur R.), Determination of the Solar Parallax
- from Observations of Eros, 270 Hinrichs (G. D.), Atomic Weight of Potassium, 29 Hinrichsen (Dr. F. Willy), Vorlesungen über chemische
- Atomistik, 453 Histological Changes in the Liver and Kidney after Chloroform Administered by Different Channels, Dr. G. Herbert Clark, 328
- Hobart (H. M.), Heavy Electrical Engineering, 391
- Hobbs (Prof.), the Cause of Earthquakes, 444 Hoffmann (Dr. B.), Kunst und Vogelgesang in ihren wechselseitigen Beziehungen von naturwissenschaftlich-
- musikalischen Standpunkte beleuchtet, 336 Holden (Colonel H. C. L., F.R.S.), Road Motors and Problems connected with Them, "James Forrest" Lec-
- ture at Institution of Civil Engineers, 323 Holland (Sir T. H.), Sketch of the Mineral Resources of India, 163

- Hollis (A. C.), the Nandi: their Language and Folklore,
- Holt (A., Jun.), Action of Hydrogen on Sodium, 209 Holt (E. W. L.), the Life-history of the Eel, 357
- Hopf (Ludwig), the Human Species, Considered from the Standpoints of Comparative Anatomy, Physiology, Pathology, and Bacteriology, 424 Hornaday (W. T.), Camp-fires on Desert and Lava, 279 Horne (A. S.), Davidia involucrata, Baill., 148 Horticulture: Treatment of Trees for Insect Pests, 138

- Horticulture : Treatment of Trees for Insect Pests, 138 Horwood (A. R.), Moral Superiority among Birds, 40; Calamites (Calamitina) Schutzei, Stur, 478 Hoskins-Abrahall (W.), a Winter Retreat for Snails, 96

- House in the Water, the, Charles G. D. Roberts, 129 Houston (Dr.), Water Examinations, Value of the Storage of Raw River-water Antecedent to Filtration as a Means of Purification, 286
- Houston (R. A.), Electrons and the Absorption of Light, 338
- Howard (Dr. L. O.), Economic Loss to United States through Disease-carrying Insects, 448 Hrdlička (Altš), Physiological and Medical Observations
- among the Indians of South-western United States and Northern Mexico, 126
- Hubbard (Geo.), Dew-ponds, 223 Huddersfield, Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions in, the Defects of English Technical Education and the Remedy, Dr. Robert Pohl at, 205
- Huerre (J.), the Maltase from Buckwheat, 479-80 Huerre (R.), Influence of the Reaction of the Medium on the Activity of the Maltases from Maize, 300
- Hugounenq (Dr. L.), the Hydrolysis of Proteins, 472 Hulme (Prof. F. E.), Death of, 197; Obituary Notice of, 224
- Hulme (F. E.), Familiar Swiss Flowers, 452 Human Species, the, Considered from the Standpoints of Comparative Anatomy, Physiology, Pathology, and Bac-
- Comparative Analysis, Physicology, Pathology, and Pate-teriology, Ludwig Hopf, 424
 Hunter (J. de Graaff), Apparatus for Measurements of the Defining Power of Objectives, 28
 Hunter (W. D.), American Insect Pests, 138
 Hunting, Brown-bear, in Alaska, G. Mixter, 378
 Hunting, Charles and the Superstance of the Superstance (5)

- Hunting, Brown-bear, in Alaska, G. Mixter, 378
 Huntingdon (E.), Mountaineers of the Euphrates, 167
 Hutchin (H. W.), Determination of Tungstic Acid in Low-grade Wolfram Ores, 388
 Huyghens (Christian), Œuvres complètes de, publiées par la Société hollandaise des Sciences, 307
 Hybridisation: Cross-breeding of Two Races of the Moth Acidalia virgularia, Louis B. Prout and A. Bacot, 58; the Scientific Aspects of Luther Burbank's Work, D. S. Jordan and V. L. Kellogg, 337
 Hydraulics: Depression of Filament of Maximum Velocity in a Stream Flowing Through an Open Channel, A. H.
- in a Stream Flowing Through an Open Channel, A. H. Gibson, 147; the Flow of Rivers, Bouquet de la Grye, 148; Hydraulic Générale, A. Boulanger, 396
- Hydro-carbons, Explosive Combustion with Special Refer-ence to that of, Prof. W. A. Bone, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 81
- Hydrodynamics: Wave Motion and Bessel's Functions, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 309
- Hydrogen, Spectrum of Magnesium in, E. E. Brooks, 410
 Hydrography: Manual of Tides, Rollin A. Harris, 91;
 Hydrographical Surveying, Rear-Admiral Sir William
 J. L. Wharton, K.C.B., 307; New Method of Plotting Currents from Observations of Drifters, Prof. Thompson, 328
- Hydrology: Artificial Waterways and Commercial Develop-ment (with a History of the Erie Canal), Dr. A. Barton Hepburn, 307; the Water Supply of Kent, with Records of Sinkings and Borings, William Whitaker, F.R.S., Dr. H. Franklin Parsons, Dr. H. R. Mill, and Dr. J. C. Thresh, 432; American and Canadian Waterways, 461; Water Power in the United States, 494
- Hydrostatics : High Hydrostatic Pressures, P. W. Bridgman, 107
- Hygiene : Hours of Sleep for Children, 70 ; Ventilation for Dwellings, Rural Schools, and Stables, F. H. King, 127; the Essentials of Sanitary Science, Gilbert E. Brooke, 182; Death of Dr. Letchworth Smith, 224; Water Examinations, Value of the Storage of Raw River Water Antecedent to Filtration as a Means of Purification, Dr.

- Houston, 286; Pollution of Sea-water, Prof. Kenwood and F. N. Kay-Menzies, 413 Hypnosis: die Hypnose und die Suggestion, ihre Wesen,
- ihre Wirkungsweise und ihre Bedeutung und Stellung unter den Heilmitteln, Dr. W. Hilger, 273
- Ice Crystals, Studies of Frost and, Wilson J. Bentley, 492 Ichthyology: Submerged Vegetation of Lake Windermere as Affecting the Feeding Grounds of the Fish, Prof. F. E. Weiss, 120; the Life-history of the Eel, E. W. L. Holt, 357; Recent Papers on Fishes, 357; the Signification of the Rhabdospora, Supposed Parasitic Sporozoa in Fishes, L. Léger and O. Duboscq, 480 Ihering (H. von), les Mollusques fossiles du Tertiaire et
- du Crétacé supérieur de l'Argentine, 262
- Images Photographed Through Glass, Errors of Position of, Dr. Schlesinger, 503 Imperial Bureau of Anthropology, an, Dr. A. C. Haddon,
- F.R.S., 73 Imperial Side of the Fuel Question, the, 277; Sir W. Ram-
- say, K.C.B., F.R.S., 278; Arthur McDougall, 309 Index Kewensis Plantarum Phanerogamarum, 156
- India: Sketch of the Mineral Resources of India, Sir T. H. Holland, 163; Survey of India, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 293; the Percy Sladen Trust Expedition to the Indian Ocean, J. Stanley Gardiner, F.R.S., 321; J. C. F. Fryer, 321; the Flora of the Presidency of Bombay, Dr. Theo-
- dore Cooke, 362; Natural History in India, 370 Infantilism from Chronic Intestinal Infection, on, Charac-terised by the Overgrowth and Persistence of Flora of the
- Nursling Period, Prof. C. A. Herter, 92
 Infectious Diseases, a Manual of, Dr. E. W. Goodall and Dr. J. W. Washbourn, 454
 Ingle (Herbert), Elementary Agricultural Chemistry, 93
 Innes (Mr.), a Remarkable Transit of Jupiter's Third Satel-
- lite, 409
- Insects: Papers and Reports on Insects, 81; die Metamor-phose der Insekten, Dr. P. Deegener, 156; Papers on Molluscs and Insects, 263; Insect Stories, Vernon L.
- Kellogg, 344 Institution of Civil Engineers, "James Forrest," Lecture at, Road Motors and Problems Connected with Them, Colonel
- H. C. L. Holden, F.R.S., 3²3 Institution of Mechanical Engineers, the Electrification of Railways, John A. F. Aspinall at, 260 Institution of Mining and Metallurgy, 29, 299, 388

- Institution of Naval Architects, the, 172 Interferometer, a Simple Fabry and Perot, Prof. James Barnes, 187
- Internal-combustion Engine, the, H. E. Wimperis, Prof. E. G. Coker, 124
- Internal-combustion Engines, their Theory, Construction, and Operation, R. C. Carpenter and H. Diederichs, Prof. E. G. Coker, 124
- International Chart of the Heavens, 193
- International Commission for Scientific Aëronautics, the, 354
- International Congress of Chemistry, Seventh, 313 International Congress of Applied Chemistry, 412; Scien-
- tific Work of the, 470
- International Union for Cooperation in Solar Research, Transactions of the, 134
- Interstellar Space, Dispersion of Light in, Dr. Ch. Nordmann, 409
- Intra-Mercurial Planet Problem, Prof. Campbell, 320; Dr. Perrine, 320

- Ionisation in the Atmosphere, Prof. A. S. Eve, 36 Ionisation by Röntgen Rays, Dr. Charles G. Barkla, 187 Iron, Malleable Cast, S. Jones Parsons, 454 Iron and Steel Bars, Dimensional Changes produced in, by Magnetism, W. J. Crawford, 339

- Iron and Steel Institute, the, 384 Iron and Steel, the Story of, J. Russell Smith, 126 Isaac (Miss F.), Spontaneous Crystallisation of Monochloracetic Acid and its Mixtures with Naphthalene, 28 Isothermal Layer of the Atmosphere, the, E. Gold, 68
- Italy: le precipitazioni atmosferiche in Italia dal 1880 al 1905, 192; the Italian Earthquake of December 28, 1908, Dr. G. Martinelli, 445 Iyengar (N. V.), Meteorology of Mysore for 1907, 140 Iyer (V. Subramania), Sand-binding Plants, 198

- Jackson (F. Hamilton), the Shores of the Adriatic, the Aus-
- trian Side, 274 Jacob (S. M.), Correlations of Areas of Matured Crop and the Rainfall and Certain Allied Problems in Agriculture the Rainfall and Certain Anter Problems in Agriculture and Meteorology, 89 Jaffé (G.), Electrical Conductivity of Pure Hexane, 409 Jarl (C. F.), the Quarrying of Cryolite, 470-1 Javelle (M.), Discovery of a New Comet, 1909a, 502 Jeffery (W. R.), Botanical Discoveries near Dover, 258 Jehu (Dr. T. J.), Glacial Deposits of Western Carnarvon-chica 448

- shire, 148

- shire, 148 Jemmett (Mr.), Parasites of the Cotton-worm, 197 Jenkinson (J. W.), Experimental Embryology, 451 Jensen (Dr. H. I.), Geology of the Mount Flinders and Fassifern District, Queensland, 479 Jentzsch (F.), Measurement of the Energy of Negative Electrons given out by Metals Heated in a Vacuum, 258 Johnson (C. M.), Rapid Methods for the Chemical Analysis of Special Steels. Steelemaking Allows and Graphite 272
- of Special Steels, Steel-making Alloys and Graphite, 272 Johnson (Dr. George Lindsay), Photographic Optics and
- Colour Photography, including the Camera, Kinematograph, Optical Lantern, and the Theory and Practice of Image Formation, 185 Johnson (J. P.), the Ore Deposits of South Africa, 395 Johnson (Prof. T.), Black Scab or Potato-wart, 179; the Powdery Scab of the Potato Spongospora subterranea,
- 389
- Johnston (Sir H.), Mr. Roosevelt's Projected Hunting Trip in East Africa, 285
- Johnston-Lavis (Dr.), the Eruption of Vesuvius of April, 1906, 289
- Jolibois (Pierre), Phosphides of Tin, 89
 Jones (Prof. H. C.), Effect of Temperature on the Absorption of Certain Solutions, 444
 Jones (L. M.), Practical Physics, 425
 Jones (LI. T.), Simple Apparatus to Measure the Diffusion
- of Gases, 438 Jones (O. T.), the Hartfell-Valentian Succession around
- Plynlimon and Pont Erwyd (North Cardiganshire), 419 Jones (R. L.), Analysis of the Records of the Anemograph at Madras Observatory, 18
- Jones (Dr. William), Death and Obituary Notice of, 196,
- ²⁵⁵ Jordan (D. S.), the Scientific Aspects of Luther Burbank's Work, 337 Jordan (F. C.), Orbits of Spectroscopic Binaries, 229

- Jourdain (Philip E. B.), the Relevance of Mathematics, 382 Jovitchitch (Dr. M. Z.), Experiments on the Action of the Silent Electric Discharge on Ethylene and Acetylene, 471 Joyce (T. A.), Steatite Figures (Nomori), 437 Julius (Prof.), Anomalous Refraction and Spectroheliograph
- Results, 50
- Jupiter : Jupiter, Prof. Lowell, 353 ; Mr. Lampland, 353 ; a Remarkable Transit of Jupiter's Third Satellite, Mr. Innes, 409; the Perturbations of Brooks's Comet (1889 V) by Jupiter in 1886, Prof. Poor, 410; G. Deutschland, 410
- Kapp (Prof. Gisbert), Électricité Industrielle, C. Lebois, Rapp (Intersection) in the section of the section of
- Kearton (R.), the Adventures of Cock Robin and his Mate, 120

- Keeling (B. F. E.), Climate Changes in Egypt, 319 Kellogg (Vernon L.), the Scientific Aspects of Luther Bur-bank's Work, 337; Insect Stories, 344 Kelman (Janet Harvey), Trees shown to the Children, 192 Kemp (S. W.), Photophores in Decapoda, 328 Kempf (Herr), Relation between the Magnitudes and Colours of Stars, 108
- Kendall (Rev. H. G. O.), Palæolithic Implements, &c., from Hackpen Hill, Winterbourne Bassett, 118 Kent, the Water Supply of, with Records of Sinkings and
- Kent, the Water Supply of, with Records of Sinkings and Borings, William Whitaker, F.R.S., Dr. H. Franklin Par-sons, Dr. H. R. Mill and Dr. J. C. Thresh, 432
 Kenwood (Prof.), Pollution of Sea-water, 413
 Kernbaum (Miroslaw), Chemical Action of the Penetrating Rays of Radium on Water, 149
 Kernot (Prof. W. C.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 75

- Kew: Index Kewensis Plantarum Phanerogamarum, 156; Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, Royal Botanic
- Gardens, Kew, 1908, 246 Khartoum, Third Report of the Wellcome Research Labora-tories at the Gordon Memorial College, Andrew Balfour, 495
- Kinematographic Vision without Vibrations, the Problem of, C. de Proszynski, 480
- King (Dr. A. S.), Chromospheric Calcium Lines in Furnace Spectra, 260
- King (F. H.), Ventilation for Dwellings, Rural Schools, and
- Stables, 127 Stables, 127 Kinship, Australian, Dr. A. Lang, 247 Kitchen (Dr.), Invertebrate Fauna of Uitenhage Beds in Cape Colony, 262 Kleeman (R. D.), Velocity of the Kathode Rays ejected by
- Substances exposed to the γ Rays of Radium, 86; Ionisa-tion of Various Gases by Secondary γ Rays, 298; Nature of the Ionisation produced in a Gas by γ Rays, 328
- Klein (P.), New Automatic Mercury Pump, 329 Kling (André), Determination of Added Water in Decom-Knecht (Prof.), Acid of Dicarboxylic Acids on Cellulose, 471 Knecht (Prof.), Acid of Dicarboxylic Acids on Cellulose, 471
- Knight (W. A.), Cassell's Elementary Geometry, 305 Knobel (E. B.), a Chinese Planisphere, 209 Knudsen (Martin), Molecular Effusion and Transpiration,
- 491
- Kobold (Prof.), the Calculation of Cometary Orbits, 288; Discovery of a New Comet, 1909a, 502
- Koehler (A.), Syntheses by Means of the Mixed Zinc Organo-metallic Derivatives, 29
- Kohlenhydrate und Fermente, Untersuchungen über, (1884-1908), Emil Fischer, 485 Köppen (Dr. W.), Study of the Upper Air, 408 Kraemer (Prof. H.), Modifications of Colour in Plants, 443 Krakatau, the New Flora of the Volcanic Island of, Prof. A.

- Ernst, 279 ränzlin (Fr.),
- Pflanzenreich, Kränzlin das Scrophulariaceæ-Calceolarieæ, 424; das Pflanzenreich, Orchidaceæ-Cœlogyninæ, 424 rause (K.), das Pflanzenreich, Araceæ-Monsteroideæ and
- Krause Calloideæ, 424 Kritzinger (H. H.), Position of Daniel's (1907d) Comet, 169

Krüger (Dr. O.), Addition to the Atwood Machine, 227

- la Baume-Pluvinel (A. de), Spectrum of the Comet 1908c (Morehouse), 149
- la Grye (Bouquet de), the Flow of Rivers, 148
- La Rosa (M.), Thermal Effects of a Musical Arc, 29, 89 Laboratory, the National Physical, during 1908, 109 Laborde (A.), Apparatus for Radio-active Measurements by
- the Electroscope Method, 228; the Condensation of the Radium Emanation, 509
- Laby (T. H.), Counting of a Particles (Electrically Charged Helium Atoms) by Prof. E. Rutherford's Method, 348

- Lampland (Mr.), Jupiter, 353 Lanchester (F. W.), Aërodonetics, 221 Landsborough (Rev. D.), the Gardens of Achnashie, Rosneath, 436 Lang (Dr. A.), Origin of the Terms of Human Relation-

- Lang (Dr. J. Marshall), Death of, 283
 Lang (Dr. J. Marshall), Death of, 283
 Lang (Dr. W. H.), Alternation of Generations in Plants, 87
 Lankester (Sir E. Ray, K.C.B., F.R.S.), the Need of a Great Reference Library of Natural Science in London, 427
- Larard (C. E.), Cylindrical Specimens Twisted to Destruction, 348
- Latham (Baldwin), Percolation, Evaporation, and Condensation, 298
- Lathe Design for High- and Low-speed Steels, Prof.
- John T. Nicholson and Dempster Smith, 33 Lau (Dr.), Measures for Double Stars, 200 Laurie (Principal A. P.), Electromotive Force of Iodine Concentration Cells with One Electrode Saturated with
- Iodine, 59 Laveran (A.), Trypanosome pecaudi, T. dimorphon, and T. congolense, 179
- Law (E. F.), Alloys and their Industrial Applications, 243

- Lawson (Andrew C.), the California Earthquake of April 18, 1006. 10 le Chatelier (H.), Leçons sur le Carbone, la Combustion,

- les Lois chimiques, 331 Lead Poisoning, K. Goadby, 472 Lead Poisoning, Experimental, K. Goadby, 436 Leake (H. Martin), the Experimental Breeding of Indian Cottons, Part ii., on Buds and Branching, 150
- Leaves, the Colours of, George Abbott, 429 Lebedew (Prof.), the Apparent Dispersion of Light in Space, 160
- Lebois (C.), Électricité Industrielle, 213 Leduc (A.), Molecular Volumes, Densities, and Atomic Weights, 59; Calculation of Molecular Weights by Means of Vapour Densities, Toluene, 180; Internal Pressure in
- Gases, 449 Lefèvre (J.), Influence of Nutritive Media on Development of the Embryos of *Pinus pinea*, 480 Leffingwell (Dr. Albert), the Vivisection Controversy, 63 Léger (Louis), Costiasis and its Treatment in Young Trout,

- Léger (Louis), Costiasis and its Treatment in Young Trout, 389; the Signification of the Rhabdospora, Supposed Parasitic Sporozoa in Fishes, 480 Leipzig, a Course of Lectures Delivered in the University of, Mental Pathology in its Relation to Normal Psychology, Dr. Gustav Störring, 216 Leishman (Lieut.-Colonel W. B.), Transmission of Tick Report and
- Fever, 349 Lematte (L.), Determination of Physical Constants of the
- Peptones, 59 Length, a Wave-length Comparator for Standards of, Dr. A. E. H. Tutton, 477; the Use of Wave-length Rulings as Defining Lines on Standards of Length, Dr. A. E. H. Tutton, 478
- Lepape (Adolphe), Radio-activity of the Thermal Springs of Bagnères-de-Luchon, 180
- Lepidoptera: the Genitalia of the Noctuidæ of the Lepidoptera of the British Islands, F. M. Pierce, 246; Catalogue of the Lepidoptera Phalænæ in Terce 240, Catalogue of the Lepidoptera Phalænæ in the British Museum, Sir George F. Hampson, Bart., 338 Levi-Civito (Prof.), the Rings of Saturn, 439

- Levis (D. M.), the Bessemerising of Hardhead, 388 Lewis (A. L.), Stone Circles in Ireland, 359 Leyst (Dr. E.), Meteorological Observations made in 1907 at Moscow Observatory, 258 Library of Natural Science, the Need of a Great Reference,
- in London, Sir E. Ray Lankester, K.C.B., F.R.S., 427 Lieckfeld (G.), Oil Motors, 246 Light, the Apparent Dispersion of, in Space, Prof. Lebedew,
- 169
- Light, Dispersion of, in Interstellar Space, Dr. Ch. Nordmann, 409
- Lightning and the Churches, Alfred Hands, 228 Lignum Nephriticum, Fluorescence of, Charles E. Benham, 159; Dr. O. Stapf, F.R.S., 218; John H. Shaxby, 248 Lillie (F. R.), the Development of the Chick, 271 Linnean Society, 87, 148, 269, 359, 448, 478; Medal
- Awards, 375
- Awards, 375 Linnean Society, New South Wales, 479 Lister (J. J., F.R.S.), a Student's Text-book of Zoology, Vol. iii., the Introduction to Arthropoda, the Crustacea, and Xiphosura, 361 Lloyd (Captain R. E.), Rats of Calcutta, 499 Local Government Board, 1906-7, Thirty-sixth Annual

- Local Government Board, 1906-7, Thirty-sixth Annual Report of the, 203
 Lockyer (Sir Norman, K.C.B., F.R.S.), the Botallek Circles, 97; the Uses and Dates of Ancient Temples, 340
 Lockyer (Dr. William J. S.), Astronomische Ortsbestimm-ung im Ballon, Prof. Adolf Marcuse, 244; Cloud Photographs from a Balloon, 310
 Locy (Prof. W. A.), Biology and its Makers, with Portraits and other Illustrations, 95
 Lodge (Sir Oliver, F.R.S.), Suggested Effect of High-tension Mains, 67; the Gravitative Pull upon the Moon, 307; Selective Wireless Telegraphy, 381
 London Institution, the, 283
- London Institution, the, 283 London Institution, the Royal Society of Arts and the, 100 London, the Need of a Great Reference Library of Natural Science in, Sir E. Ray Lankester, K.C.B., F.R.S., 427 Long (Sydney H.), "Blowing" Wells, 339 Longman (Sybil), the "Dry-rot" of Potatoes, 148

- Loud (F. H.), Meteorological Statistics of the Colorado
- College Observatory for 1907, 49 Louis (Prof. Henry), Practical Coal Mining, 242 Love (Prof. A. E. H., F.R.S.), the Yielding of the Earth to Disturbing Forces, Lecture at Royal Society, 253 Lowe (Messrs. F. C., and Son), Artificial Dew- and Rain-
- ponds made by, 437
- Lowell (Prof. Percival), Mars as the Abode of Life, 212; the "Original" Canals of the Martian Doubles, 260; Development of Martian Canals, 288; Mars, 353; Jupiter, 353
- Lucas (F. A.), Length of Skeletons of Great Whales, 104
- Ludendorff (Dr.), Common Motions of the Principal Ursæ Majoris Stars, 141
- Luders (L.), Müller's Ostracod Crutacean Gigantocypris
- Luders (L.), Multer's Ostracod Crutacean Gigantocypris agassizi, 174 Ludgate (Percy E.), Proposed Analytical Machine, 89 Lugard (Major and Mrs. E. J.), Flora of Ngamiland, 351 Lunar Eclipse, June 3, the Recent, MM. Borrelly and Coggia, 502; J. H. Elgie, 503 Luplau-Janssen (Herr), Measures for Double Stars, 200 Lushington (A. W.), Rate of Growth of Palms, 351 Lydekker (R.), Rock-engravings in South Africa, Corr., 438 Lyle (Prof.), Theory of the Alternate-current Generator, 328 Lyra. the Gases of the Ring Nebula in, Prof. Bohuslav

- Lyra, the Gases of the Ring Nebula in, Prof. Bohuslav Brauner, 158
- McAdie (Prof. A. G.), Suggestion for Reform of Meteoro-
- logical Methods, 227 MacClintock (W.), the Blackfeet Indians of Montana, 298 M'Conachie (William), Close to Nature's Heart, 129
- Macdonald (Mr.), Rainfall Conditions of the Transvaal, 198 McDougall (Arthur), the Imperial Side of the Fuel Question,
- McDougall (William), an Introduction to Social Psychology,
- MacDowall (Alex. B), the Dryness of Winter (1908-9), 40; the Greenwich Winter of 1908-9, 218
- Macfadyen (Allan), the Cell as the Unit of Life, and Other Lectures Delivered at the Royal Institution, London, 1899–1902, an Introduction to Biology, 123 Macfarlane (J. M.), das Pflanzenreich, Sarraceniaceæ, 424;
- Nepenthaceæ, 424 McGlone (B.), Origin of the Lung of Ampullaria, 382 McIntire (A. L.), the Production of "Sal" Shorea robusta,

- McKendrick (Prof. John G., F.R.S.), a Winter Retreat, 8; Are the Senses ever Vicarious? 38; The Gramophone as a Phonautograph, 188
- Mackenzie (Dr. A. P.), Strophanthus sarmentosus, its Pharmacological Action and Use as an Arrow-poison, 328
- Mackenzie (Dr. Duncan), the Nuraghi of Sardinia, 226 McLennan (Evan), the Gravitative Strain upon the Moon,
- 276
- McLennan (Prof. J. C.), on the Relation of "Recoil" Phenomena to the Final Radio-active Product of Radium, 490

Magnesium in Hydrogen, Spectrum of, E. E. Brooks, 410 Magnetism: Rotation of the Electric Arc in a Radial Mag-Iagnetism: Rotation of the Electric Arc in a Radial Magnetic Field, J. Nicol, 27; an Electromagnetic Problem,
Prof. D. F. Comstock, 39; Norman R. Campbell, 39;
Is there a Vertical Magnetic Force in a Cyclone? J. R.
Ashworth, 40; Magnetic Properties of Certain Copper Alloys, A. D. Ross and R. C. Gray, 59; Low-temperature Experiments in Magnetism, J. G. Gray and Hugh Higgins, 59; New Vessel to Continue the Magnetic Survey of the World, 78; Magnetic Rays, 80; Self-demagnetising Factor of Bar Magnets, Prof. S. P. Thompson and E. W. Moss, 87; Lieut. Shackleton's Antarctic Expedition, the South Magnetic Pole, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 130; Electromotive Forces of Magnetisation, V. Posejpal, 149; Magneto-kathode Rays, M. Gouy, 149; Integration of the Equations of Motion of an Electron Describing an Orbit about an Ion in a Magnetic reps. Integration of the Equations of Motion of an Elec-tron Describing an Orbit about an Ion in a Magnetic Field, Prof. Augusto Righi, 168; Meteorological and Magnetical Report of the Royal Cornwall Polytechnic Society, 287; Department of Commerce and Labour, Coast and Geodetic Survey, United States Magnetic Tables and Magnetic Charts for 1005. L. A. Bauer Dr. C. and Magnetic Charts for 1905, L. A. Bauer, Dr. C.

Chree, F.R.S., 293; Magnetic Survey of the Dutch East Indies, 1903-7, Dr. W. van Bemmelen, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 293; Survey of India, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 293; Dimensional Changes Produced in Iron and Steel Bars by Magnetism, W. J. Crawford, 339; Death of Dr. G. von Neumayer, For.Mem.R.S., 375; Obituary Notice of, Hy. Harries, 402; Corr., 439; Magnetic Storm at Kew, 376; the Magnetic Survey Yacht Carnegie, 465; the Norwegian Aurora Polaris Expedition, 1902-3, Vol. i., on the Cause of Magnetic Storms and the Origin of Terrestrial Magnetism, Kr. Birkeland, 410; Effect of Temperature on the Hysteresis Loss in Iron in a Rotat-ing Field, W. P. Fuller and H. Grace, 419; Meteoro-logical and Magnetical Observations at Storyhurst Col-lege Observatory for 1908, 438; Solar Activity and lege Observatory for 1908, 438; Solar Activity and Terrestrial Magnetic Disturbances, Dr. L. A. Bauer,

- Maiden (J. H.), Botanic Gardens and Government Domains in Sydney, New South Wales, 436 Maigre (Étienne), the Stabilisation of Aëroplanes, 223

- Maigre (E.), Geotropism and the Statolith Theory, 286 Mailhe (A.), New General Method for the Preparation of Mailhe (A.), the Alcoholic Amines, 209
- Mairey (A.), la France et ses Colonies au Début au XX Siècle, 368
- Makower (W.), Expulsion of Radio-active Matter in the Radium Transformations, 238 Malaria: "Millions" and Mosquitoes, H. A. Ballou, 16; the Campaign against Malaria, Prof. Ronald Ross, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 415 Malden (Dr. W.), Problems of Apiculture, 356
- Maler (T.), Memoirs of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, Harvard University, Explorations in the Department of Petén, Guatemala, and Adjacent Region, 160 Mall (Prof. Franklin P.), Relative Size of the Frontal Lobe
- of the Brain, 166 Malleable Cast Iron, S. Jones Parsons, 454
- Mallock (A.), Best Conditions for Photographic Enlarge-
- Mallock (A., F.R.S.), Utilisation of Energy Stored in Springs, 358 Mallock (H. A. R.), Construction and Wear of Roads, 141
- Man, the Production of Prolonged Apncea in, W. G. Royal-Dawson, 8; Dr. H. M. Vernon, 39 Man in the Light of Evolution, Dr. J. M. Tyler, 275
- Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, 119, 209, 28, 359, 388; Wilde Lecture at, the Influence of Moisture on Chemical Change, Dr. H. Brereton Baker, F.R.S.,
- 175 Mantoux (Charles), the Intra-dermo-reaction to Tuberculin

- Manufacture of Paper, the R. W. Sindall, 422 Manufacture of Paper, the, R. W. Sindall, 422 Marconi (Commendatore G.), Transatlantic Wireless Tele-graphy, Discourse at Royal Institution, 233, 264
- Marcuse (Prof. Adolf), Astronomische Ortsbestimmung im Ballon, 244
- Marine Biology: Relations of Marine Organisms to Light, Prof. B. Moore, 16; Sex in Sea-urchins Obtained by Experimental Parthenogenesis, Yves Delage, 29; Migration of the Thread-cells of Moerisia, C. L. Boulenger, 88; Specimen of Pelagothuria from the Seychelles, J. C. Simpson, 88; Some Marine and Fresh-water Organisms, 174: Müller's Ostracod Crustacean Gigantocypris agassizi, L. Luders, 174; Gigantocypris and the Challenger, Dr. W. T. Calman, 248; Amphipoda Hyperiidea of the Sealark Expedition to the Indian Ocean, A. O. Walker, 269; Marine Mollusca of the Sealark Expedition, Dr. J. Cosmo Melvill, 269; Pecten, W. J. Dakin, 273; Photophores in Decapoda, S. W. Kemp, 328; a Problematical Organism Thrown up during a Storm in Bass Strait, Prof. Baldwin Thrown up during a Storm in Bass Strait, Prof. Baldwin Spencer, 350; Apical Pigment-spots in the Pluteus of *Echinus miliaris*, F. H. Gravely, 350; Marine Biology in the Tortugas, 382; Annual Breeding Swarm of the Atlantic Palolo, Dr. A. G. Mayer, 382; Experiments on the Scyphomedusan *Cassiopea xamachana*, Dr. Mayer, 382; Origin of the Lung of Ampullaria, Prof. W. K. Brooks and B. McGlone, 382; Significance of the Conspicuousness of the Coral-reef Fishes of the Tortugas, Prof. Reighard, 382

- Mars: Mars as the Abode of Life, Percival Lowell, 212; the "Original" Canals of the Martian Doubles, Prof. Lowell, 260; Development of Martian Canals, Prof. Lowell, 288; Mars, Prof. Lowell, 353

- Lowell, 288; Mars, Prof. Lowell, 353 Marshall (Arthur), Dew-ponds, 429 Marshall (Dr. Francis H. A.), Experimental Zoology, Dr. Hans Przibram, 2 Marsupialia, the Ancestry of the, Prof. Jas. P. Hill, 159; the Writer of the Note, 159 Martel (E. A.), la Côte d'Azur Russe (Riviera du Caucase), 40; Phenomenon of Intermittence of the *Gouffre de* Poudak 440
- Poudak, 449 Martinelli (Dr. G.), the Italian Earthquake of December 28, 1908, 445 Marzell (Dr. H.), Plants with Magic Qualities, 166 Massarini (Dr. J.), Discussion of the Winds at Rome, 17 Materials, the Strength of, Prof. Arthur Morley, 64 Discussion of the Professional Provide Action of Provid

- Mathematics: Geometry, Theoretical and Practical, W. P. Workman and A. G. Cracknell, 7; a Course of Pure Mathematics, G. H. Hardy, 36; Lagrange's Equations of Motion and Elementary Solutions of Gyrostatic Problems. Based A. Crackment, 2014 (2014). Motion and Elementary Solutions of Gyrostatic Problems. Prof. A. Gray, 59; Mathematical Society, 87, 299, 359, 478; Theorems on the Twisted Cubic, M. J. Conran, 88; Proofs of Generalised Fourier Sum Theorems in Trigono-metrical and in Bessel Functions, Prof. W. McF. Orr, 88; Proposed Analytical Machine, Percy E. Ludgate, 89; Uniformity in Mathematical Notation and Printing, 102: Surfaces having a Family of Helices as One Set of Lines of Curvature, Eva M. Smith, 140; the Graphical Deter-mination of Fresnel's Integrals, J. H. Shaxby, 269; Prac-tical Solid Geometry, Rev. P. W. Unwin, 305; Cassell's Elementary Geometry, W. A. Knight, 305; Guvres com-plètes de Christian Huyghens publiées par la Société hol-landaise des Sciences, 307; the Teaching of Geometry. landaise des Sciences, 307; the Teaching of Geometry, Prof. George M. Minchin, F.R.S., 373; the Relevance of Mathematics, Philip E. B. Jourdain, 382; Grundlagen der Geometrie, D. Hilbert, 394; School Algebra, W. E. Pat-terson, 426; Traité de Mathématiques générales a l'usage des Chimistes, Physiciens, Ingénieurs, et des Elèves des Facultés des Science, Prof. E. Fabry, 488; the Nautic-Astronomical and Universal Calculator, R. Nelting, 490; the Arthur Wright Electrical Device for Evaluating For-mulæ and Solving Equations, Dr. Russell and Arthur Wright, 509 Mathewson (Dr. C. H.), First Principles of Chemical Theory,
- Mathias (E.), the Density of Acetylene, 299
- Matignon (Camille), Equilibria between the Liquid and Solid Phases in the Mixtures NaCl+H₂O, 59 Mattingley (A. H. E.), Mallee-fowl (*Lipoa ocellata*), 113 Maxim (Sir Hiram S.), Artificial and Natural Flight, 221 May (Prof. Walther), Ernst Haeckel, 126

- Mayer (Dr. A. G.), Annual Breeding Swarm of the Atlantic Palolo, 382; Experiments on the Scyphomedusan Cassiopea xamachana, 382 Meade (E. S.), the Story of Gold, 306 Mechanics : Mechanics of Engineering, Prof. Irving P.
- Church, 33; Utilisation of Energy Stored in Springs, A. Mallock, F.R.S., 358 Medicine: the Intra-dermo-reaction to Tuberculin in the
- Treatment of Tuberculosis, Charles Mantoux, 240; an Inquiry Concerning Scientific and Medical Journals, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 276; Strophanthus sarmentosus, its Pharmacological Action and Use as an Arrow-poison, Sir Thomas Fraser and Dr. A. P. Mackenzie, 328; Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. Heinrich von Ranke, 350; Festschrift der Physikalisch-medizinischen Societät zu Erlangen zur Feier ihres 100 jährigen Bestehens am 27 Juni, 1908, 411; Sitzungsberichte der Physikalisch-medi-zinischen Societät in Erlangen, 411 Mees (Dr. C. E. Kenneth), the Photography of Coloured

- Objects, 489 Melbourne Observatory, the, Mr. Baracchi, 51 Meldola (Prof. Raphael, F.R.S.), Education and Research in Applied Chemistry, Address at Society of Chemical Industry, 413; Darwin and Modern Science, Essays in Commemoration of the Centenary of the Birth of Charles Darwin and of the Fiftieth Anniversary of the Publication of the "Origin of Species," 481
- Melland (Charles H.), the Sense of Proximity, 456

Index

Mellor (Mr.), Adsorption and Dissolution of Gases by Sili-

cates, 385 Melvill (Dr. J. Cosmo), Marine Mollusca of the Sealark Expedition, 269

Mental Pathology in its Relation to Normal Psychology, a Course of Lectures delivered in the University of Leipzig, Dr. Gustav Störring, 216

Mercalli (Prof. G.), the Calabrian Earthquake of October

²³, 1907, 318 Mercury, Diameter and Position of, Prof. Stroobant, 200 Mercury as an Evening Star, 320 Merrill (E. D.), Philippine Species of Garcinia, 286 Merlin (Cooperly Palaietic) Palaietics of Garcinia, 286

- Meslin (Georges), Polarisation by Lateral Diffusion, 299 Metallurgy : the Story of Iron and Steel, J. Russell Smith, Ribbon Metals, Messrs. Strange and Graham, Ltd., 348; Cylindrical Specimers Twisted to Destruction, C. E. Law, 243; a Process of Making Ribbon Metals, Messrs. Strange and Graham, Ltd., 348; Cylindrical Specimens Twisted to Destruction, C. E. Larard, 248; the Iron and Steel Institute, 284; the Pro-Larard, 348; the Iron and Steel Institute, 384; the Pre-servation of Iron and Steel, Allerton S. Cushman, 384; Physical Tests for Protective Coatings for Iron and Steel, J. Cruickshank Smith, 384; Solubility of Steel in Sul-phuric Acid, E. Heyn and O. Bauer, 384; Chemical Physics Involved in the Decarburisation of Iron-carbon Alloys, W. H. Hatfield, 385; Ageing of Mild Steel and the Influence of Nitrogen, C. E. Stromeyer, 385; Determination of Tungstic Acid in Low-grade Wolfram Ores, H. W. Hutchin and F. J. Tonks, 388; Cupellation Experiments, the Thermal Properties of Cupels, C. O. Bannister and W. N. Stanley, 388; the Bessemerising of Hardhead, D. M. Levy and D. Ewen, 388; the Scalding and Sweating of Copper Battery Plates, S. F. Goddard, 388; Malleable Cast Iron, S. Jones Par-sons, 454; Production of Pure Tellurium from its Ores, Prof. R. Schelle, 470 Metcalf (Rev. Joel), Photographs of Morehouse's Comet, 10082 108
- 19086, 108
- Meteorology: Barometric Oscillation, W. H. Dines, F.R.S., 8; Weather for the Week ending February 27, 15; Dis-cussion of the Winds at Rome, Dr. I. Massarini, 17; Analysis of the Records of the Anemograph at Madras Observatory, R. L. Jones, 18; the Dryness of Winter (1908-9), Alex. B. MacDowall, 40; Is there a Vertical Magnetic Force in a Cyclone? J. R. Ashworth, 40; Meteorological Statistics of the Colorado College Observa-Arteorological Statistics of the Colorado Conege Observa-tory for 1907, F. H. Loud, 49; the Isothermal Layer of the Atmosphere, E. Gold, 68; Temperature of the Upper Atmosphere, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 127, 397; Upper Air Temperatures, E. Gold, 217; the Temperature of the Upper Atmosphere, W. H. Dines, F.R.S., 455; Charles J. P. Cave, 456; Kite Flights in India and Neighbour-ing Sea Areas during the South-west Monsoon Period of 1907. L. H. Field, 27; Correlations of Matured 1907, J. H. Field, 77; Correlations of Areas of Matured Crop and the Rainfall and Certain Allied Problems in Crop and the Rainfall and Certain Allied Problems in Agriculture and Meteorology, S. M. Jacob, 89; Discussion of the Temperature at Rome, 1855–1904, Dr. F. Eredia, 106; Mean Annual Rainfall of Wales and Monmouth-shire, G. B. Williams, 106; Royal Meteorological Society, 119, 298, 387; Wind-waves in Water, Sand, and Snow, Dr. Vaughan Cornish, 119; Lieut. Shackleton's Antarctic Expedition, Meteorological Observations, W. H. Dines, F.R.S., 130; Meteorology of Mysore for 1907, N. V. Iyengar, 140; Minimum Thermometer and Severe Cold, A.E. H. Bott, 140; Tidal Wave in the New Hebrides, 164; Correlation in Seasonal Variation of Climate, Gilbert Walker, F.R.S., 167; le precipitazioni atmosferiche in Walker, F.R.S., 167; le precipitazioni atmosferiche in Italia dal 1880 al 1905, 192; Mirage at Grimsby, 196; Rainfall Conditions of the Transvaal, Mr. Macdonald, 198; Weather for the Week ending April 10, 199; International Balloon Observations made by the Bavarian Meteorological Service, 199; the Greenwich Winter of 1908-9, Alex. B. MacDowall, 218; General Results of the Meteorological Cruises of the *Otaria* on the Atlantic in 1905, 1906, and 1907, L. Teisserenc de Bort and Prof. A. Lawrence Rotch, 219; Dew-ponds, Geo. Hubbard, 223; Prof. J. B. Cohen, 309; Arthur Marshall, 429; L. Gibbs, 458; Suggestion for Reform of Meteorological Methods, Prof. A. G. McAdie, 227; Weather Bureau of the Philippine Islands, Report for 1906, 227; Death and

Notice of Captain Henry Toynbee, 256: Obituary Meteorological Observations made in 1907 at Moscow Observatory, Dr. E. Leyst, 258; April Sunshine, 285; Distribution of the Polar Ice during 1908, 287; Meteorological and Magnetical Report of the Royal Cornwall Polytechnic Society, 287; Percolation, Evaporation and Condensation, Baldwin Latham, 298; Meteorological Conditions in the Philippine Islands, 1908, Rev. José Conditions in the Philippine Islands, 1908, Rev. José Algué, 299; Cloud Photographs from a Balloon, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 310; Climate Changes in Egypt, B. F. E. Keeling, 319; Prospect of a Short Water Supply during the Coming Summer, Rev. F. C. Clutterbuck, 352; Method of Ventilating the Instrument during Ascent, Prof. Assmann, 354; Theoretical Applications of Upper-air Observations, Prof. Bjerknes, 355; Results of Theodolite Observations on Ballons sondes at Trappes, Teisserenc de Bort, 355; Meteorology of the Dutch East Theodolite Observations on Ballons sondes at Trappes, Teisserenc de Bort, 355; Meteorology of the Dutch East Indies, 356; Death of Dr. G. von Neumayer, For.Mem.R.S., 375; Obituary Notice of, Hy. Harries, 402; Corr., 439; Report of Bombay and Alibag Observa-tories for 1908, 379; the Anticyclonic Belt of the Northern Hemisphere, Col. H. E. Rawson, 387; May Sunshine, 407; Study of the Upper Air, Dr. W. Köppen, 408; Artificial Dew- and Rain-ponds made by Messrs. F. C. Lowa and Son 422; Report of the Sonphlick Society for Lowe and Son, 437; Report of the Sonhlick Society for 1908, 437; Meteorological and Magnetical Observations at Stonyhurst College Observatory for 1908, 438; the Hevelian Halo, Prof. C. S. Hastings, 444

- Hevelian Halo, Prof. C. S. Hastings, 444 Meteors: the Meteoric Fireball of February 22 and its Streak, W. F. Denning, 13; the Meteoric Streak of February 22, W. F. Denning, 42; Fireball of February 22, W. F. Denning, 69; Fall of an Aërolite in Mokoia, New Zealand, on November 26, 1908, W. F. Denning, 128; April Meteors, John R. Henry, 188; Persistent Trail of a Meteor on March 14, Edward J. Steer, 248; the Meteoric Shower of Halley's Comet, W. F. Denning, 259; the Ensuing Return of the Perseid Meteors, 468 Metrology: Remarks on a Set of Standards of Length, pre-
- Metrology: Remarks on a Set of Standards of Length, pre-sented by M. Johansson, M. Carpentier, 209; British and American Customary and Metric Legal Measures for Commercial and Technical Purposes, N. Foley, 367; a Wave-length Comparator for Standards of Length, Dr. A. F. H. Tutton, Jr. the Lea of Wave length Pull A. E. H. Tutton, 477; the Use of Wave-length Rulings as Defining Lines on Standards of Length, Dr. A. E. H.
- As Denning Cincs of Tutton, 478 Meyer (F. N.), Results of Destruction of Forests in Northern China, 17 Meyer (Prof.), the Two Living Secret Languages Current in Ireland, Shelta and Béarlagar na Saor, 106 Meynier (J.), Catalytic Action produced by Moisture,
- 470
- Michelson (Prof. A. A.), the Ruling of Diffraction Gratings,
- 444 Microscopy: Apparatus for Measurements of the Defining Power of Objectives, J. de Graaff Hunter, 28; Royal Power of Objectives, J. de Graan Hunter, 28; Royal Microscopical Society, 59, 178, 327, 448; Simple Method of Illuminating Opaque Objects, J. E. Stead, F.R.S., 168; a Stage Goniometer for Use with the Dick Pattern of Microscope, Prof. H. L. Bowman, 178; Method of Mounting Rotifers and Protista in Canada Balsam, Rev. Eustace Tozer, 225; the Microscope in Engineering, Walter Rosenbain acro. Cordenation of New Construction Walter Rosenhain, 250; Cycloloculina, a New Genus of Foraminifera, E. Heron-Allen and A. Earland, 285; a Metallic Filter with Regular Interstices of Variable Dimensions, Émile Gobbi, 300; Simple Method of Finding Indices of Refraction of Liquids under the Microscope, Indices of Refraction of Liquids under the Microscope, Dr. Enrico Clerici, 319; Microscope Objectives of a New Formula, C. Baker, 320; Photographic Registration of Brownian Trajectories in Gases, M. de Broglie, 329; Spore-formation in the Disporic Bacteria, C. Clifford Dobell, 435; Mikroskopischer und physiologischer Prak-tikum der Botanik für Lehrer, G. Müller, 452 Miers (Dr. H. A.), Spontaneous Crystallisation of Mono-chloracetic Acid and its Mixtures with Nanhthalene as

chloracetic Acid and its Mixtures with Naphthalene, 28

Mildbraed (J.), das Pflanzenreich, Stylidiaceæ, 424 Mill (Dr. H. R.), the Water Supply of Kent, with Records

of Sinkings and Borings, 432 Millochau (G.), Contribution to the Study of Radiation, 149 Mimicry : Forms, Markings, and Attitudes in Animals and Plant-life, Dr. Arthur Willey, F.R.S., 247 Minakata (Kumagusu), Baskets Used in Repelling Demons,

Minchin (Prof. George M., F.R.S.), the Teaching of Geo-

- Minchin (Prof. George M., F.R.S.), the Teaching of Geometry, 373
 Mineralogy: the Glenboig Fireclay: its Halloysite and Sideroplesite, Prof. J. W. Gregory, 148; Tuesite, Prof. Gregory, 148; Mineralogical Society, 178; Identity of Guarinite and Hiortdahlite, Dr. F. Zambonini, 178; Dr. G. T. Prior, 178; the Mineral Kingdom, Prof. R. Brauns, 275; Artificial Production of Precious Stones, Jacques Boyer, 408; Mineralien-Sammlungen, Dr. Wolfgang Brendler, 423; the Quarrying of Cryolite, C. F. Jarl, 470-1
- Minerals: Sketch of the Mineral Resources of India, Sir T. H. Holland, 163; the Electrostatic Separation of
- T. H. Holland, 163; the Electrostatic Separation of Minerals. T. Cook, 178
 Mining: Practical Coal Mining, Prof. Henry Louis, 242; the Lahat "Pipe," J. B. Scrivenor, 298; Valuation of Mining Areas on the Rand, W. Fischer Wilkinson, 299; the "Wholesale" Idea in Gold Mining, W. R. Feldtmann,
- 299; Pitchblende from Trenwith Mine, Francis Fox, 349 Minot (Prof. Charles S.), the Problem of Age, Growth, and
- Death, a Study of Cytomorphosis, 335 Mixter (G.), Brown-bear Hunting in Alaska, 378
- Miyoshi (Dr. M.), Causes of Autumnal Colour Effect in Leaves of *Terminalia catappa*, 465 Modelling: Clay Modelling in Manual Training from Plan, Elevation, and Section, F. W. Farrington, 36; Clay Modelling in Manual Training, Scholar's Handbook, 36
- Moir (J.), Spectrum of the Ruby, 360 Moisture, the Influence of, on Chemical Change, Wilde Lecture at Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, Dr. H. Brereton Baker, F.R.S., 175 Mokoia, Fall of an Aërolite in, New Zealand, on November
- 26, 1908, W. F. Denning, 128
- Molecular Effusion and Transpiration, Martin Knudsen, 491 Molisch (Prof. H.), a Warm-water Bath as Means of Forcing Plants, 501
- Molluscs and Insects, Papers on, 263
- Molyneux (A. J. C.), Karroo System in Northern Rhodesia and its Relation to the General Geology, 118 Moog (R.), Variations of Dehydrations of the Organism
- with Altitude, 510 Moon, the Gravitative Strain upon the, Evan McLennan,
- 276; Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 307 Moon, Photographs of the Earthshine on the, M. Quénisset,
- 141
- Moon's Position, a Double-image Cœlostat for Deter-mining the, Mr. Wade, 468 Moore (Prof. B.), Relations of Marine Organisms to Light,
- 16
- Moore (Prof. J. W.), Death of, 103
- Moore (Mr.), Adsorption and Dissolution of Gases by Sili-
- cates, 385 Moral Superiority among Birds, A. R. Horwood, 40 Morance (M.), Purification of Hydrated Sulphuric Acid from Arsenic by Freezing, 180
- Morbology : " Millions " and Mosquitoes, H. A. Ballou, 16; Mosquitoes and Malaria at Port Said, E. H. Ross, 286; the Campaign against Malaria, Prof. Ronald Ross, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 415; Hæm-agglutinins, Hæm-opsonins, and Hæm-lysins in the Blood from Hæm-opsonins, and Hæm-lysins in the Blood from Diseases in Man, L. S. Dudgeon, 58; on Infantilism from Chronic Intestinal Infection, Characterised by the Overgrowth and Persistence of Flora of the Nursling Period, Prof. C. A. Herter, 92; Trypanosoma pecaudi, T. dimorphon, and T. congolense, A. Laveran, 179; Incidence of Cancer in Mice of Known Age, Dr. E. F. Bashford and Dr. J. A. Murray, 387; Invisible Patho-genic Micro-organisms and the Physical Proofs of their Existence, A. Chauveau, 299; Kleine's Observations on the Period during which the Tsetse-fly was Capable of Transmitting a Trypanosome Infection, Sir David Bruce, 315; Latency in Infectivity of Tsetse-flies, Colonel Sir Transmitting a Trypanosome Infection, Sir David Bruce, 315; Latency in Infectivity of Tsetse-flies. Colonel Sir David Bruce, 436; Transmission of Tick Fever, Lieut.-Colonel W. B. Leishman, 349; the Urine in Diseases of the Pancreas, P. J. Cammidge, 386; Experimental Lead Poisoning, K. Goadby, 436; Lead Poisoning, K. Goadby and Dr. F. W. Goodbodv, 472; the Trans-mission of "Spotted Fever," Dr. Ricketts, 436;

Economic Loss to United States Through Disease-carrying Insects, Dr. L. O. Howard, 448; a Manual of in-fectious Diseases, Dr. E. W. Goodall and Dr. J. W. Washbourn, 454; Third Report of the Wellcome Re-search Laboratories at the Gordon Memorial College, Khartoum, Andrew Balfour, 495 Moreau (Georges), the Charge of a Negative Ion of a

- Flame, 389 Morehouse, Comet, 1908c, 108; Prof. F. Ristenpart, 260; Photographs of Morehouse's Comet, 1908c, Rev. Joel Metcalf, 108; Position of Morehouse's (1908c) Comet, Dr. Ebell, 169; Observations made at Meudon Observatory on Morehouse's Comet, H. Deslandres, A. Bernard, and J. Bosler, 179; Observations of Comet More-house, Mr. Motherwell, 200; the Spectrum of More-house's Comet, Prof. Hartmann, 380 Morgan (Prof. C. Lloyd, F.R.S.), Functions of a Univer-
- sity, 176
- Morgan (Prof. J. Livingston R.), the Elements of Physical
- Chemistry, 363 Morgulis (S.), Capacity for Regeneration of One of the
- Brittle-stars, 465 Morley (Prof. Arthur), the Strength of Materials, 64 Morozoff's Theory of the Constitution of Atoms, Radio-activity in Relation to, Prof. B. de Szyszkowski, 276
- activity in Relation to, Prof. B. de Szyszkowski, 276 Morphology : Einleitung in die experimentelle Morphologie der Pflanzen, Dr. K. Goebel, 61; Beiträge zur Natur-geschichte des Menschen, Dr. Gustav Friedenthal, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, F.R.S., 211; Morphology of the Enteropneusta, Dr. Arthur Willey, F.R.S., 218; the Origin of Vertebrates, Dr. Walter Holbrook Gaskell F.R.S., 301; Gaskell's "Origin of Vertebrates," Dr. W. H. Gaskell, F.R.S., 428; the Germ-layer Theory, J. Stanley Gardiner, F.R.S., 428; the Reviewer, 428 Morse (Albert P.), Biologia Centrali-Americana, Orthop-tera, Vol. ii., Tettiginae, 241 Mortimer (F. J.), the Oil and Bromoil Processes, 67; the "Bromoil" Process, 324 Mosquitoes and Malaria at Port Said, E. H. Ross, 286 Mosquitoes, "Millions" and, H. A. Ballou, 16 Moss (E. W.), Self-demagnetising Factor of Bar Magnets, 87

- 87
- Moss (J.), Quantity of the Alkaloid Taxine in Yew, 88
- Motherwell (Mr.), Observations of Comet Morehouse, 200
- Motherweit (Mr.), Observations of Comet Morenouse, 200 Motors: Motor-car Mechanism and Management, W. Poynter Adams, 33; the Aero and Motor Boat Exhibi-tion, 111; Oil Motors, G. Lieckfeld, 246; Road Motors and Problems Connected with Them, "James Forrest" Lecture at Institution of Civil Engineers, Colonel H. C. L. Holden, F.R.S., 323; Method for Rendering Motor-car Escape Gas Odourless, Dr. M. Frenkel, 413 Moulton (Parch) Staller Evolution, 70, Changes in the
- Moulton (Prof.), Stellar Evolution, 79; Changes in the
- Moulton (Prof.), Stellar Evolution, 79; Changes in the Figure and Dimensions of the Sun, 439 Mount Wilson Solar Observatory Report, Prof. Hale, 260 Moureu (Charles), Radio-activity of the Thermal Springs of Bagnères-de-Luchon, 180 Mowat (Magnus), Recent Grain-handling and Storing Ap-pliances at the Millwall Docks, 50
- Muff (H. B.), the Cauldron Subsidence of Glen Coe and the
- Muir (H. B.), the Caluton Substance of other of the Associated Igneous Phenomena, 448 Muir (M. M. Pattison), Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. Julius Thomsen, 46
- Müller (Herr), Relation between the Magnitudes and Colours of Stars, 108
- Müller (G.), Mikroskopischer und physiologischer Prak-tikum der Botanik für Lehrer, 452 Munger (Captain F. M.), Volcanic Island near Bogloslof,
- Alaska, 226
- Munroe (Prof. C. E.), Detonation of Gun-cotton, 443
- Muntz (A.), Relations between the Permeability of Soils and their Aptitude for Irrigation, 449 Murray (Sir John), die Grundproben der "Deutschen Tief-see-Expedition." 486
- Murray (Dr. J. A.), Incidence of Cancer in Mice of Known Age, 387
- Museums : Synopsis of the British Basidiomvcetes, a Descriptive Catalogue of the Drawings and Specimens in the Department of Botany, British Museum, Worthington G. Smith. 184 : the Natural History Museum, Profs. J. C. Ewart, F.R.S., A. Sedgwick, F.R.S., Sydney J.

Hickson, F.R.S., and Gilbert C. Bourne, 229; the Natural History Museum, 254; Catalogue of the Lepidoptera Phalænæ in the British Museum, Sir George

F. Hampson, Bart., 338 Musiklehre, Physikalische, Dr. Hermann Starke, 338 Muthesius (Karl), Goethe und Pestalozzi, 368 Mycology: Synopsis of the British Basidiomycetes: a

- Descriptive Catalogue of the Drawings and Specimens in the Department of Botany, British Museum, Worthington G. Smith, 184 Myers (J.), thè Gypsy Poison Drab, 77 Mythology: the Golden Fleece, Dr. Felix Oswald, 96

Nagaoka (H.), the Complex Structure of Some Lines in Spectrum of Mercury, 319 Nandi, the, their Language and Folklore, A. C. Hollis, 249

National Antarctic Expedition, 1901-4, Album of Photo-

- Nandi, the, their Language and Folklore, A. C. Hollis, 249
 National Antarctic Expedition, 1901-4, Album of Photographs and Sketches, 460
 National Physical Laboratory during 1908, the, 109
 Natural History: a Winter Retreat, Prof. John 7.
 McKendrick, F.R.S., 8; a Winter Retreat for Snails, W. Hoskyns-Abrahall, 96; Moral Superiority among Birds, A. R. Horwood, 40; Linnean Society, 87, 148, 269, 359, 448, 478; a Crocodile's Nest, G. W. Grabham, 96; Last Hours with Nature, Eliza Brightwen, 129; the Adventures of Cock Robin and his Mate, R. Kearton, 129; Nature Studies by Night and Day, F. C. Snell, 129; the Nature-book, 129; the Story of the Sea and Seashore, W. Percival Westell, 129; the House in the Water, Charles D. G. Roberts, 129; Close to Nature's Heart, William M'Conachie, 129; Death of Dr. W. H. Edwards, 164, 224; Trees Shown to the Children, Janet Harvey Kelman and C. E. Smith, 192; Animals at Home, W. P. Westell, 192; Nature Study, J. R. Ainsworth Davis, 192; the Natural History Museum, Profs. J. C. Ewart, F.R.S., A. Sedgwick, F.R.S., Sydney J. Hickson, F.R.S., and Gilbert C. Bourne, 229; the Natural History Museum, 254; Forms, Markings, and Attitudes in Animals and Plant Life, Dr. Arthur Willey, F.R.S., 247; Seal-rocks at Westernport, Bass Strait, J. W. Barrett acre. the "Sansa of Direction" in Bees Natural History Museum, 254; Forms, Markings, and Attitudes in Animals and Plant Life, Dr. Arthur Willey, F.R.S., 247; Seal-rocks at Westernport, Bass Strait, J. W. Barrett, 257; the "Sense of Direction" in Bees, Gaston Bonnier, 269; Do Animals take Advantage of Experience? Dr. T. Zell, 317; the Book of Nature-study, 344; Insect Stories, Vernon L. Kellogg, 344; Alpine and Bog Plants, Reginald Farrer, 344; Life-histories of Familiar Plants, John J. Ward, 344; Natural History in India, 370; Brown-bear Hunting in Alaska, G. Mixter, 378; Eliza Brightwen: the Life and Thoughts of a Naturalist, 426; the Life of Philibert Commerson, D.M., Naturalist du Roi: an Old-World Story of French Travel and Science in the Days of Linnaeus, Captain S. Pasfield Oliver, 430; the Pollina-tion of the Primrose, John J. Ward, 457; W. E. Hart, 457, 492; the Reviewer, 457; New South Wales Linnean Society, 479
 Natural Monuments, the Care of, with Special Reference to Great Britain and Germany, Prof. H. Conwentz, 275; Nature, Design in, Dr. J. Bell Pettigrew, F.R.S., 151
 Naturgeschichte des Menschen, Beiträge zur, Dr. Gustav Friedenthal, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, F.R.S., 211

- Naturwissenschaftlich-pädagogischer Abhandlungen, Samm-
- lung, Prof. J. A. Green, 304 Nautic-Astronomical and Universal Calculator, the, R.
- Nelting, 490 Naval Architecture : the Institution of Naval Architects, 172 :
- Types of Warships Omitted in Recent Programmes of Naval Construction, Lord Brassey, 172; Sir Wm. White, 172; Elasticity of Ships as Deduced from Experiments on the Vibration of Dynamical Models, Prof. J. B. Henderthe Vibration of Dynamical Models, Prof. J. B. Hender-son, 173; Applications of the Internal-combustion Engine to Marine Propulsion, H. C. Anstey, 173; F. R. S. Bircham, 173; Steamer Trials with Various Kinds of Screws, Lieut.-Colonel G. Rota, 173; Mechanical Method for Determining the Thrust of Propellers, J. H. Heck, 173; the Plant Necessary in Warship Construction, 227; the Wave relations Paristones of Schize, T. H. Heuploof the Wave-making Resistance of Ships, T. H. Havelock, 298
- Navigation : Hydroplanes or Skimmers, Sir John I. Thornycroft, F.R.S., 107; a 40-Feet Gas-driven Launch, Mac-

laren Bros., 227; an Explanation of the Adjustment of Ships' Compasses, Commander L. W. P. Chetwynd, 276; New White Star Liner Laurentic, 320

Nebulæ, Spectra of, Prof. Wolf, 229; Dr. Eberhard, 229 Nebulæ, the Spectra of Various, Prof. Wolf, 19 Nelting (R.), the Nautic-Astronomical and Universal Cal-

culator, 490

- Nerve Fibres, Growth of, Ross Harrison, 325 Neumayer (Dr. G. von, For.Mem.R.S.), Death of, 375; Obituary Notice of, Hy. Harries, 402; Corr., 439 Neuroptera: die Termiten oder weissen Ameisen, K.
- Escherich, 245 New South Wales Linnean Society, 479 New York Zoological Society, Aquarium of the, 500 Newall (Prof.), Cosmical Matter in Space, 142 Newton (Prof. A., F.R.S.), Life and Letters of, A. F. R.

- Wollaston, 8
- Nicholson (Prof. John T.), Lathe Design for High- and Low-speed Steels, 33; Laws of Heat and Transmission Deduced from Experiment, Paper at Junior Institution of
- Beduced Holf Experiment, Faper at Junoi Histration of Engineers, 144
 Nicholson (Dr. J. W.), the Simple Equivalent of an Alternating Circuit of Parallel Wires, 247; Inductance and Resistance in Telephone and Other Circuits, 509
 Nicol (J.), Rotation of the Electric Arc in a Radial Magnetic Field, 27
 Nijland (Prof.), the Recent Magnitudes of Nova Persei, 19; Observations of Variable Stars, 142

- Nijland (Prof.), the Recent Magnitudes of Hova Person, 19, Observations of Variable Stars, 142 Noctuidæ of the Lepidoptera of the British Islands, the Genitalia of the, F. M. Pierce, 246 Noel (Mr.), Parasitic Habit of Quelea, 295 Nordmann (Dr. Ch.), Dispersion of Light in Interstellan
- Space, 409
- Norway, an Account of the C Sars, W. A. Cunnington, 184 an Account of the Crustacea of, Prof. G. O.
- Norwegian Aurora Polaris Expedition, the, 1902-3, Vol. i., on the Cause of Magnetic Storms and the Origin of Terrestrial Magnetism, Kr. Birkeland, 410 Nova Persei, the Recent Magnitudes of, Prof. Nijland, 19

- Nuth (A. J.), Habits of Australian Bower-birds, 113 Nutrition : Human Foods and their Nutritive Value, H. Snyder, C. Simmonds, 366

Oberhummer (Prof. Dr. Eugen), Leonardo da Vinci and

- Geography, 351 Obermaier (Dr. Hugo), Stone Implements of the French Older Palæolithic Age, 139 Observatories : the Melbourne Observatory, Mr. Baracchi,
- 51; the Cape Observatory, 79; the United States Naval Observatory, 170; the Vatican Observatory, 200; Mount Wilson Solar Observatory Report, Prof. Hale, 260; Har-vard College Observatory, Prof. Pickering, 321; the Royal
- Observatory, Greenwich, 446 Occultations of Planets, Dr. Downing, 288 Oddone (Dr. Emilio), Depth of the Epicentre of Recent Sicilian Earthquake, 168 Ogden (Prof. Henry N.), Sewer Construction, 5
- Oil and Bromoil Processes, the, F. J. Mortimer and S. L. Coulthurst, 67 Oil Motors, G. Lieckfeld, 246
- Oliver (Captain S. Pasfield), the Life of Philibert Commer-son, D.M., Naturalist du Roi, an Old-World Story of French Travel and Science in the Days of Linnæus, 430
- Ophthalmology : Death and Obituary Notice of Dr. Simeon Snell, 256
- Optics: Relations of Marine Organisms to Light, Prof. B. Moore, 16; Variation in Intensity of Light at Different Altitudes, Dr. M. Samec, 17; Action of Light upon Milk to which Potassium Bichromate has been Added, A. Gas-card, 60; Attempt to Detect Some Electro-optical Effects, card, 60; Attempt to Detect Some Electro-optical Effects, Prof. H. A. Wilson, 118; Abhandlungen zur Physiologie-der Gesichtsempfindungen aus dem physiologischen In-stitut zu Freiburg-i-B., 125; Cours de Physique, con-forme aux Programmes des Certificats et de l'Agrégation de Physique, Optique, Étude des Instruments, Prof. H. Bouasse, 153; the Photo-electric Fatigue of Zinc, H. Stanley Allen, 178; Photographic Optics and Colour Photography, including the Camera, Kinematograph, Optical Lantern, and the Theory and Practice of Image-

Formation, Dr. George Lindsay Johnson, 185; Polarisa-tion by Lateral Diffusion, Georges Meslin, 299; Simple Method of Finding Indices of Refraction of Liquids under Method of Finding Indices of Refraction of Liquids under the Microscope, Dr. Enrico Clerici, 319; New Form of Optometer, Prof. W. F. Barrett, F.R.S., 348; a New Kind of Glow in Vacuum Tubes, Rev. H. V. Gill, 358; Methods of Determining the Amount of Light Irregularly Reflected from Rough Surfaces, Prof. W. F. Barrett, 388; New Polarimeter for the Measurement of the Indices of Refraction of Opaque Bodies, Prof. W. F. Barrett, 388: the Chromatic Circle according to Young? Hypo. 388; the Chromatic Circle according to Young's Hypothesis, A. Rosenstiehl, 389; the Nature of Flame Spectra, E. Bauer, 408; Colour-vision in Monkeys, J. B. Watson, 435; an Optical Phenomenon, 398; Charles E. Benham, 458

Orbit of ξ Boötis, Prof. Doberck, 380 Orbits, the Circularity of Planetary, Prof. T. J. J. See, 229 Orbits of Spectroscopic Binaries, R. H. Baker, 229; F. C. Jordan, 229

- Ore Deposits of South Africa, the, J. P. Johnson, 395 Orientation : Earthwork of England, Prehistoric, Roman, Saxon, Danish, Norman, and Mediæval, A. Hadrian Allcroft, Rev. John Griffith, 69 Origin of Vertebrates, the, Dr. Walter Holbrook Gaskell,

F.R.S., 301 Origin of Vertebrates, Gaskell's, Dr. W. H. Gaskell, F.R.S., 428 "Original" Canals of the Martian Doubles, the, Prof.

Lowell, 260 Origins of Satellites, Prof. See, 380

Ornithology : Life and Letters of Prof. A. Newton, F.R.S., Drnithology: Life and Letters of Prof. A. Newton, F.R.S., A. F. R. Wollaston, 8; Some Bird Papers, 113; Mallee-fowl (*Lipoa ocellata*), A. H. E. Mattingley, 113; Habits of Australian Bower-birds, A. J. Nuth, 113; Use of Wind by Migrating Birds, F. Stubbs, 120; the Birds of Tierra del Fuego, Richard Crawshay, 155; Osmotic Pressures of the Blood and Eggs of Birds, W. R. G. Atkins, 179; an Ornithological Coincidence, Dr. Henry H. Giglioli, 188; Bird Notes, 295; Marked Storks and Swallows, Dr. Thienemann, 295; Parasitic Habit of Quelea, Mr. Noel, 295; Manner in which Young Flamingoes Feed, F. M. Chapman, 400

Chapman, 499 Orr (Prof. W. McF.), Proofs of Generalised Fourier Sum Theorems in Trigonometrical and in Bessel Functions, United States and Stat

Theorems in Trigonometrical and in Bessel Functions, 88
Orthoptera, Biologia Centrali-Americana, Vol. i., Dr. Henri de Saussure, Dr. Leo Zehntner, and A. Pictet, Forficulidæ, Count de Bormans; Vol. ii., Acridiidæ, Prof. Lawrence Brunner, Tettiginæ, Albert P. Morse, and Phasmidæ, Robert Shelford, 241
Osteology: Unusual Condition of Nasal Bones in Sphenodon, H. W. Unthank, 69
Oswald (Dr. Felix) the Golden Elecce of

Oswald (Dr. Felix), the Golden Fleece, 96

Otaria, General Results of the Meteorological Cruises of the, on the Atlantic in 1905, 1906, and 1907, L. Teis-serenc de Bort and Prof. A. Lawrence Rotch, 219

Oxford University, the Reform of, 311

Pädagogik, Psychologie als Grundwissenschaft der, 95

- Pådagogik, Psychologie als Grundwissenschaft der, 95
 Palæobotany: Plant-containing Nodules from Japan, Marie
 C. Stopes, 119; Fossil Flora of Tegelen-sur-Meuse,
 Clement Reid, F.R.S., and Eleanor M. Reid, 261;
 Cycadeoidea etrusca in Bologna, G. R. Wieland, 261;
 die Acanthicus-Schichten im Randgebirge der Wiener
 Bucht, Franz Toula, 262; the Flora of the Wealden Strata,
 Dr. D. H. Scott, F.R.S., 476; Calamites (Calamitina)
 Schutzei, Stur, A. R. Horwood, 478
 Palæoichthyology: Devonian Fishes of Iowa, Dr. Charles
- Palæoichthyology: Devonian Fishes of Iowa, Dr. Charles R. Eastman, 318
- Palæolithics : Stone Implements of the French Older Palæolithic Age, Dr. Hugo Obermaier, 139; Palæolithic Vessels of Egypt, or the Earliest Handiwork of Man, Robert de Rustafjaell, 245
- Palæontology : Discovery of Skeleton of Mammoth on the Shore of Selsey Bill, 104 ; Another Fossil Tsetse-fly, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 128 ; Cast of Skull and Mandible of Loor chinned Masteriat. Long-chinned Mastodont, Tetrabelodon angustidens, from Middle Miocene of Sansan, 196; Mammoth Skeleton, W. J. Lewis Abbott, 225; E. Heron-Allen, 225; Some Recent Palæontological Papers, 261; Invertebrate Fauna of Uitenhage Beds in Cape Colony, Dr. Kitchin, 262;

les Mollusques fossiles du Tertiaire et du Crétacé supérieur de l'Argentine, H. von Ihering, 262; Fauna of the Hundsheim Cave in Lower Austria, Wilhelm Freudenberg, 263; Cycloloculina, a New Genus of Foraminifera, berg, 263; Cycloloculina, a New Genus of Foraminifera, E. Heron-Allen and A. Earland, 285; Fossils from Napeng Beds of Burma, Maud Healey, 287; Permian Footprints, G. Hickling, 328; Osteology and Affinities of the Jurassic American Iguanodont Reptiles of the Genus Campto-saurus, C. W. Gilmore, 378; der Unterkiefer des Homo Heidelbergensis aus den Sanden von Mayer bei Heidel-berg, Otto Schoetensack, Dr. William Wright, 398; South American Fossil Cetacca, Dr. F. W. True, 444; the Transformations of the Animal World, Charles Depéret. 452 Depéret, 452 Paper, the Manufacture of, R. W. Sindall, 422

- Parallel Paths: a Study in Biology, Ethics, and Art, T. W. Rolleston, 35 Paris Academy of Sciences, 29, 59, 89, 148, 179, 209, 239,
- 269, 299, 329, 389, 449, 479, 509 Paris, the Astrographic Conference at, 440
- Pariselle (H.), Improved Method of Preparing Allylcarbinol, 180
- Parsons (Dr. H. Franklin), the Water Supply of Kent, with Records of Sinkings and Borings, 432

Parsons (S. Jones), Malleable Cast Iron, 454

Parthenogenesis und Apogamie im Pflanzenreiche, Dr. Hans Winkler, 61

- Hans Winkler, of Pascal (P.), a Chromyl Subchloride, 449 Patents and Designs Act, 1907, Germany and the, 401 Pathology: Mental Pathology in its Relation to Normal Psychology, a Course of Lectures delivered in the University of Leipzig, Dr. Gustav Störring, 216; the Bacteriology of Diphtheria, 243 Patterson (W. E.), School Algebra, 426 Payne-Gallwey (Sir Ralph), the Physics of Golf, 237

- Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology. Memoirs of the, Harvard University, Explorations in the Department of Peten, Guatemala, and Adjacent Region, T. Maler, 160 Pearson (G. C.), Comparison Tests between New Féry
- Spiral Pyrometer and a Standardised Thermoelectric Féry
- Radiation Pyrometer, 379 Pearson (Prof. Karl, F.R.S.), the Scope of Eugenics, 203; (1) the Theory of Ancestral Contributions in Heredity, (2) the Ancestral Gametic Correlations of a Mendelian Population Mating at Random, 268; an Inquiry con-cerning Scientific and Medical Journals, 276 Pecten, W. J. Dakin, 273 Pélabon (H.), Fusibility of Mixtures of Gold and Tellurium,

Péralté (Lotus), Wall Paintings of Altamira Cavern, 501 Péringuey (L.), Rock-engravings in South Africa, 411 Perkin (Dr. F. Mollwo), Electro-analysis of Mercury Com-

Perkin (Dr. F. Moliwo), Electro-analysis of Mercury Compounds with a Gold Kathode, 209
Perkins (J.), das Pflanzenreich, Styracaceæ, 424
Perman (Dr. E. P.), Vapour-density and Smell, 369
Perrine (Dr.), the Intra-Mercurial Planet Problem, 320; the Brightness of the Corona, 380; Solar Parallax from Observations of Free 468

Observations of Eros, 468 Persei, Nova, the Recent Magnitudes of, Prof. Nijland, 19 a Persei, Radial Velocity of, F. Goos, 51 Perseid Meteors, the Ensuing Return of the, 468 Persian Treatise on Falconry, the Bāz-Nāma-yi-Nāsirī, a,

371

Pestalozzi, Goethe und, Karl Muthesius, 368 Petit (G. E.), New Wave Detector for Wireless Telegraphy and Telephony, 509 Petrology, Text-book of, Dr. F. H. Hatch, 337 Pettigrew (Dr. J. Bell, F.R.S.), Design in Nature, 151 Pfitzer (E.), das Pflanzenreich, Orchidaceæ-Cœlogyninæ,

- 424
- Pflanzen, Einleitung in die experimentelle Morphologie der, Dr. K. Goebel, 61

Pflanzenreich, das, 424

Pflanzenreiche, Parthenogenesis und Apogamie im, Dr. Hans Winkler, 61 Pharmacognosy : Handbuch der Pharmakognosie, Prof. A.

Taimacegnosy - Handbuch der Phalmacegnosie, 191. A.
 Tschirch, Prof. Henry G. Greenish, 3
 Pharmacy Act, the Poisons of the, C. Simmonds, 191
 Philippi (Prof. E.), die Grundproben der "Deustchen Tiefsee-Expedition," 486

Philology: the Two Living Secret Languages Current in Ireland, Shelta and Béarlagar na Saor, Prof. Meyer, 106

- Philosophy: Death and Deathagar ha Saor, 1707, Areyor, H. Ebbinghaus, 14; the Grammar of Life, G. T. Wrench, 426; American Philosophy: the Early Schools, Prof. J. W. Riley, 489 Phin (John), the Evolution of the Atmosphere as a Proof
- of Design in Creation, 216
- Phonautograph, the Gramophone as a, Prof. John G. McKendrick, F.R.S., 188

Photoelectricity: Part played by Impurities in the Photo-electric Effect with Liquids, Eugène Bloch, 89

Photoelectricity: Part played by Impurities in the Photoelectric Effect with Liquids, Eugène Bloch, 89
Photography: Best Conditions for Photographic Enlargement of Small Solid Objects, A. Mallock, 29; the Oil and Bromoil Processes, F. J. Mortimer and S. L. Coulthurst, 67; the "Bromoil " Process, F. J. Mortimer, 324; Photographs of Morehouse's Comet, 1908c, Rev. Joel Metcalf, 108; Photographs of the Earthshine on the Moon, M. Quénisset, 141; Photographic Optics and Colour Photography, including the Camera, Kinematograph, Optical Lantern, and the Theory and Practice of Image Formation, Dr. George Lindsay Johnson, 185; the "Omicolore" Plate, 199; Photographic Determination of the Colours of the Stars, Oesten Bergstrand, 299; Cloud Photographs from a Balloon, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 310; Photographic Registration of Brownian Trajectories in Gases, M. de Broglie, 329; a Standard Scale of Photographic Magnitudes, Prof. Pickering, 380; Electric Splashes on Photographic Shutters, A. Campbell and T. Smith, 419; New Method of Illumination for Photographic Work, the "Petrolite" Photographic Lamp, A. J. Garrad, 439; National Antarctic Expedition, 1901–4, Album of Photographs and Sketches, 460; the Photography of Coloured Objects, Dr. C. E. Kenneth Mees, 489; the Problem of Kinematographic Vision without Vibrations, C. de Proszynski, 480; the Photoheliometer, Prof. Poor, 503; Errors of Position of Images Photographed through Glass, Dr. Schlesinger, 503

Photoheliometer, the, Prof. Poor, 503 Photometric Observations at Catania, A. Bemporad, 288

Photometric Units, Dr. R. T. Glazebrook, F.R.S., 374 Physics: Leçons de Physique générale, J. Chappuis and A. Berget, 6; Explication méchanique des Propriétés de la Matière, Cohésion, Affinité, Gravitation, &c., A. Despaux, 6; Thermal Effects of a Musical Arc, M. La Despaux, 6; Thermal Effects of a Musical Arc, M. La Rosa, 29, 89; Number of Molecules in Unit Volume of a Gas, P. Ghose, 39; Methods of High Vacua, Messrs. Scheel and Heuse, 50; Supposed Effect of Crystallisation for Modifying the Properties of the Solution of a Body Resulting from the Direct Union of Two Solutions, D. Gernez, 59; Variation of the Viscosity of a Gas with Temperature, Willard J. Fisher, 77; Laboratory Machine for Applying Bending and Twisting Moments Simultane-ously, Prof. E. G. Coker, 87; Physical Society, 87, 147, 239, 327, 419, 509; Death of Prof. J. W. Moore, 103; High Hydrostatic Pressures, P. W. Bridgman, 107; the Mational Physical Laboratory during 1908, 109; Experi-ments on the Ignition Point of Gases by the Method of Adiabatic Compression Suggested by Prof. Nernst, Prof. H. B. Dixon, 119; General Physics, Dr. Henry Crew, 122; Early References to Fluorescence and Light Trans-mitted by Thin Gold Films, John H. Shaxby, 128; Fluorescence of Lignum Nephriticum, Charles E. Benham, 150; Dr. O. Stanf F. P. S. ats. John H. Shaxbu, 200 159; Dr. O. Stapf, F.R.S., 218; John H. Shaxby, 248; Laws of Heat and Transmission Deduced from Experi-ment, Prof. J. T. Nicholson at Junior Institution of Engineers, 144; Depression of Filament of Maximum Velocity in a Stream flowing through an Open Channel, A. H. Gibson, Lett. the Flow of Pincer Boucout do la A. H. Gibson, 147; the Flow of Rivers, Bouquet de la Grye, 148; Measurements of the Coefficient of Resistance of Air, A. Etévé, 140; Cours de Physique conforme aux Programmes des Certificats et de l'Agrégation de Physique, Optique, Étude des Instruments, Prof. H. Bouasse, 153; Measurements of the Compressibilities of Pure Water and of Sea-water, Dr. V. W. Ekman, 168; the Rate of Fall of Fungus Spores in Air, Prof. A. H. Reginald Buller, 186; Moving Force of Terrestrial and Celestial Bodies in Relation to the Attraction of Gravitation, Dr. H. Wilde, 209; Death of Prof. F. L. Tufts, 224; Addition to the Atwood Machine, Dr. O. Krüger, 227; the Physics of

Index

xxix

Golf, Sir Ralph Payne-Gallwey, 237; Specific Heat of Air and Carbon Dioxide at Atmospheric Pressure, by the Continuous Electrical Method, at 20° C. and at 100° C., W. F. G. Swann, 238; the Wave-making Resistance of Ships, T. H. Havelock, 298; New Automatic Mercury Pump, P. Klein, 329; Physikalische Musiklehre, Dr. Hermann Starke, 338; Electrons and the Absorption of Light R A. Houston 238; Photographs chowing the Hermann Starke, 338; Electrons and the Absorption of Light, R. A. Houston, 338; Photographs showing the Generation and Nature of "Explosion Waves" in Gases, Prof. H. B. Dixon, F.R.S., 348; a New Kind of Glow in Vacuum Tubes, Rev. H. V. Gill, 358; the Elements of Physical Chemistry, Prof. J. Livingston R. Morgan, 363; Outlines of Physical Chemistry, Dr. George Senter, 363; Vapour-density and Smell, Dr. E. P. Perman, 369; Photometric Units, Dr. R. T. Glazebrook, F.R.S., 374; Ecactionation of Caude Patroleum by Carollary Diffusion Fractionation of Crude Petroleum by Capillary Diffusion, J. E. Gilpin and M. P. Cram, 409; Festschrift der Physikalisch-medizinischen Societät zu Erlangen zur Feier ihres 100 jährigen Bestehens am 27 Juni, 1908, 411; Sitzungs-berichte der Physikalisch-medizinischen Societät in Erlangen, 411; Practical Physics, L. M. Jones, 425; Handbuch für physikalische Schülerübungen, Prof. Hermann Hahn, 425; Relative Efficiencies of Methods for the Production of High Vacua, Drs. Scheel and Heuse, 438; Simple Apparatus to Measure the Diffusion of Gases, Ll. T. Jones, 438; Physics of the Æther, P. R. Heyl, 443; Effect of Temperature on the Absorption of Certain Solutions, Prof. H. C. Jones, 444; Internal Pressure in Gases, tions, Prof. H. C. Jones, 444; Internal Pressure in Gases, A. Leduc, 449; the Phenomenon of Intermittence of the *Gouffre de Poudak*, E. A. Martel, 449; Beschrijving en Onderzoek van der gyroscopischen Horizon Fleuriais (Model Ponthus et Therrode), L. Roosenburg, 455; the Standardisation of Condensers, M. Devaux-Charbonnel, 479; Catalytic, Action Produced by Moisture, J. Meynier, 479; Unités Électriques, le Comte de Baillehache, Dr. J. A. Harker, 488; on the Relation of "Recoil" Pheno-mena to the Final Radio-active Product of Radium. Prof. mena to the Final Radio-active Product of Radium, Prof. J. C. McLennan, 490; Molecular Effusion and Transpira-tion, Martin Knudsen, 491; First Report of the British Association Committee appointed for the Investigation of Gaseous Explosions, with Special Reference to Tempera-ture, Prof. E. G. Coker, 505 Physiology : the Production of Prolonged Apnœa in Man,

W. G. Royal-Dawson, 8; Dr. H. M. Vernon, 30; the Nerves of the Atrio-ventricular Bundle, J. Gordon Wilson, 27; Determination of a Coefficient by which the Rate of Diffusion of Stain and other substances into Living Cells can be Measured, and by which Bacteria and other Cells may be Differentiated, H. C. Ross, 27; Cholesterol Cens may be Differentiated, H. C. Koss, 27; Cholesterol in the Animal Organism, Part iii., C. Dorée and J. A. Gardner, 28, Part iv., G. W. Ellis and J. A. Gardner, 28; the Origin and Destiny of Cholesterol in the Animal Organism, Mary T. Fraser and J. A. Gardner, 327; Are the Senses ever Vicarious? Prof. John G. McKen-drick, F.R.S. 28; Effect of Heat unce the Elements Are the Senses ever Vicarious? Froi. John G. McKen-drick, F.R.S., 38; Effect of Heat upon the Electrical State of Living Tissues, Dr. A. D. Waller, 58; Hæm-agglutinins, Hæm-opsonins, and Hæm-lysins in the Blood from Diseases in Man, L. S. Dudgeon, 58; Ab-handlungen zur Physiologie der Gesichtsempfindungen aus dem physiologischen Institut zu Freiburg-i-B., 125; Physiological and Medical Observations among the Indians of South-western United States and Northern Mexico, Aleš Hrdlička, 126; Death of Dr. Arthur Gamgee, F.R.S., 136; Obituary Notice of, 194; Penetration of Pulverised Liquids into the Respiratory Tracts, M. Cany, 150; Beiträge zur Naturgeschichte des Menschen, Dr. Gustav Friedenthal, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, F.R.S., 211; Hypotensive Function of Choline in the Organism, Jean Gautrelet, 240; Death of Dr. Gerald F. Yeo, F.R.S., 283; Obituary Notice of, 314; Reciprocal Innervation of An-tagonistic Muscles, Note xiv., Double Reciprocal Innerva-tion, Prof. C. S. Sherrington, 326; Histological Changes in the Lines and Kidage of Collocation Administration tion, Prof. C. S. Sherrington, 326; Histological Changes in the Liver and Kidney after Chloroform Administered by Different Channels, Dr. G. Herbert Clark, 328; Microscopic Section of the Aorta of King Menephtah, S. G. Shattock, 349; the Body at Work, Dr. Alex. Hill, 366; Death of Prof. Wilh. Engelmann, 375; the Urine in Diseases of the Pancreas, P. J. Cammidge, 386; Method of Estimating the Total Volume of Blood contained in the Living Body, Dr. J. O. W. Barratt and Dr. W. Yorke, 387; the Human Species, considered from the Standpoints of Comparative Anatomy, Physiology, Pathology, and Bacteriology, Ludwig Hopf, 424; the Catalase of the Blood, C. Gessard, 449; the Sense of Proximity, Charles H. Melland, 456; Effects of Chocolate and Coffee on Uric Acid and the Purins, Pierre Fauvel, 480; Problem of Man's Right-handedness, Prof. E. Gaupp, 500; the New Institute of Physiology at Univer-sity College, London, 503; Variations of Dehydrations of the Organism with Altitude, H. Guillemard and R. Moog, 510

- Pickering (Prof.), Harvard College Observatory, 321; a Standard Scale of Photographic Magnitudes, 380 Pickering (W. H.), Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College, a Search for a Planet beyond
- Neptune, 463 Pictet (Amé), Complete Synthesis of Laudanosine, 210 Pictet (A.), Biologia Centrali-Americana, Orthoptera, Vol. i., 241 Piedallu (André), a Mould in Tanning with Oil, 30 Piedallu (André), the Genitalia of the Noctuidæ
- Pierce (F. M.), the Genitalia of the Noctuidæ of the
- Lepidoptera of the British Islands, 246 Pirie (Dr. J. H. Harvie), Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of S.Y. Scotia during the Years 1902, 1903, and 1904, under the Leadership of Dr. William S. Bruce, Vol. iv., Zoology, Part i., Zoological Log, 161 Pisciculture: Plaice-output at Port Erin, 284; Costiasis and its Treatment in Young Trout, Louis Léger, 389

Planets : Diameter and Position of Mercury, Prof. Stroobant, 200; Mercury as an Evening Star, 320; Mars as the Abode of Life, Percival Lowell, 212; the "Original" "Canals of the Martian Doubles, Prof. Lowell, 260; Development of Martian Canals, Prof. Lowell, 288; Mars, Development of Martian Canals, Prof. Lowell, 288; Mars, Prof. Lowell, 353; the Circularity of Planetary Orbits, Prof. T. J. J. See, 229; les Planètes et leur Origines, Ch. André, 274; Occultation of Planets, Dr. Downing, 288; the Intra-Mercurial Planet Problem, Prof. Camp-bell, 320; Dr. Perrine, 320; Jupiter, Prof. Lowell, 353; Mr. Lampland, 353; a Remarkable Transit of Jupiter's Third Satellite, Mr. Innes, 409; the Rings of Saturn, Prof. Levi-Civito, 439; Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College, a Search for a Planet bevond Neptune, W. H. Pickering, 46a beyond Neptune, W. H. Pickering, 463 Plants, Life-histories of Familiar, John J. Ward, 344

Plants and their Ways, E. Evans, 452 Plaskett (Mr.), Camera Objectives for Spectrographs, 440

- Platen (Dr. Paul), Untersuchungen fossiler Hölzer aus dem westen Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika, 185
- Pohl (Dr. Robert), the Defects of English Technical Education and the Remedy; Paper read at the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions in Huddersfield, 205

- Poisons of the Pharmacy Act, the, C. Simmonds, 101 Poizat (L.), Oxidation of Aromatic Nitro- and Nitroso-derivatives by Ammonium Persulphate, 300 Pollination of the Primrose, the, John J. Ward, 457; W. E.
- Hart, 457, 492; the Reviewer, 457 Pollock (Sir Frederick), the British Science Guild, 52 Poor Law Commission Report, the, 12

Poor (Prof.), the Perturbations of Brooks's Comet (1889 V) by Jupiter in 1886, 410; the Photoheliometer, 503

Popularising of Scientific Knowledge, 257 Porter (A. W.), Electric Splashes on Photographic Plates, 348

Posejpal (V.), Electromotive Forces of Magnetisation, 149 Potatoes, the Dry-rot of, Sibyl Longman, 148

Potts (F. A.), Changes in the Common Shore Crab caused by Sacculina, 88

Poultry, Influence of Breed on Egg-production in, E. and

W. Brown, 138 Pressland (A. J.), the Supply of Secondary Education in England and Elsewhere, 473 Pressure in the Sun's Atmosphere, MM. Fabry and

Buisson, 220

Prideaux (Dr. E. B. R.), Relation between Composition and Conductivity in Solutions of meta- and ortho-Phosphoric Acids, 209

Priest (Walter B.), the Promotion of Scientific Research, 68 Priestley and Coulomb's Law, C. J. Woodward, 8 Primrose, the Pollination of the, John J. Ward, 457; W. E.

Hart, 457, 492 ; the Reviewer, 457 Prior (Dr. G. T.), Identity of Guarinite and Hiortdahlite, 178

Producer Gas for Engines, J. Emerson Dowson, 200, 232

Prominence, a Remarkable, Father Chevalier, 108 Proszynski (C. de), the Problem of Kinematographic Vision without Vibrations, 480 Proteins, the General Characters of the, Dr. S. B.

Schryver, 307

- Protistenkunde, Problem der, i., die Trypanosomen ihre Bedeutung für Zoologie, Medizin und Kolonialwirtschaft, Prof. F. Döflein, 489
- Protozoa : a Treatise on Zoology, Part i., Introduction and Protozoa, 152

Prout (Louis B.), Cross-breeding of Two Races of the Moth Acidalia virgularia, 58 Proximity, the Sense of, Charles H. Melland, 456

Przibram (Dr. Hans), Experimental Zoology,

Przibram (Dr. Hans), Experimental Zoology, 2
Psychology: Psychologie als Grundwissenschaft der Päda-gogik, 95; Mental Pathology in its Relation to Normal Psychology, a Course of Lectures delivered in the University of Leipzig, Dr. Gustav Störring, 216; an Introduction to Social Psychology, William McDougall, William Brown, 245; Lectures on the Elementary Psychology of Feeling and Attention, Prof. E. B. Titchener, William Brown, 245; die Hypnose und die Suggestion, ihre Wesen, ihre Wirkungsweise und ihre Bedeutung und Stellung unter den Heilmitteln, Dr. W.
Hilder, 273; Völkerpsychologie, eine Untersuchung der Hilger, 273; Völkerpsychologie, eine Untersuchung der Finger, 273; Vonerpsychologie, eine Untersuchung der Entwicklungsgesetze von Sprache, Mythus und Sitte, Wilhelm Wundt, Rev. A. E. Crawley, 334
Purdy (C. T.), Problems Connected with the Construction of New York Times Building, 259
Purvis (J. E.), Influence of Dilution on the Colour and the Absorption Spectra of Various Permanganates, 420

Quénisset (M.), Photographs of the Earthshine on the Moon, 141

Radiography : the y Rays of Uranium, Frederick Soddy and Alexander S. Russell, 7; the Radio-active Deposits of Actinium, S. Russ, 8; Coefficient of Diffusion of the Actinium Emanation, G. Bruhat, 89; Radio-thorium, Actinium Emanation, G. Bruhat, S9; Kadio-thorium, Frederick Soddy, 12; the Absorption of X-rays, Dr. C. G. Barkla and C. A. Sadler, 37; the Rays of Uranium X. Frederick Soddy, 37; Radium Institutes, 45; Liquid Radium Emanation, Sir William Ramsay, K.C.B., F.R.S., 347; the Interpretation of Radium, Frederick Soddy, 368; the Radium Emanation, A. Debierne, 389; Ludwares of Padium on the Velocity of Crystallisation. Influence of Radium on the Velocity of Crystallisation, Louis Frischauer, 389; the Condensation of the Radium Emanation, A. Laborde, 509; Chemical Action of the Penetrating Rays of Radium on Water, Miroslaw Kern-baum, 149; on the α Rays from Radium B, Dr. Howard L. Bronson, 159; Influence of Radium Rays on Plants, Prof. C. S. Gager, 198; Expulsion of Radio-active Matter in the Radium Transformations, Sidney Russ and W. Makower, 238; Passage of Röntgen Rays through Gases and Vapours, J. A. Crowther, 57; Ionisation by Röntgen Rays, Dr. Charles G. Barkla, 187; Statistical Theory of the Form of the Curve of Oscillation for the Radiation Emitted by a Black Body, Prof. H. A. Wilson, 57: Magnetic Rays, 80: Velocity of the Kathode Rays Ejected by Substances Exposed to the γ Rays of Radium, R. D. Kleeman, 86; Effect of Radiations on the Brush Dis-charge, A. E. Garrett, 147; Leakage of Helium from Radio-active Minerals, Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 147; Liberation of Helium from Radio-active Minerals by Grinding, J. A. Gray, 238; Magneto-kathode Rays, M. Gouy, 149; Contribution to the Study of Radiation, G. Millochau, 149; Radio-activity of the Thermal Springs of Bagnères-de-Luchon, Charles Moureu and Adolphe Lepape, 180; Determination of the Constant of Stefan's Law, C. Féry, 209; Radiation and Temperature of the Flame of a Bunsen Burner, Edmond Bauer, 209; Radiation of Potassium Salts, E. Henriot, 209; Apparatus for Radio-active Measurements by the Electroscope Method, C. Cheneveau and A. Laborde, 228; Radio-activity in Rela-tion to Morozoff's Theory of the Constitution of Atoms, Prof. B. de Szyszkowski, 276; Properties of Doubly-charged Ions, Drs. J. Franck and W. Westphal, 287; Investigation of the Radiation Constants of Metals, Dr. W. W.

Coblentz, 288; Effect of Temperature on Ionisation, J. A. Crowther, 207; Ionisation of Various Gases by Secondary γ Rays, R. D. Kleeman, 298; Ionisation with γ Rays, L. Vegard, 328; Nature of the Ionisation Produced in a Gas by γ Rays, R. D. Kleeman, 328; a Direct Estimate of the Minimum Age of Thorianite, Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 308; a Want of Symmetry Shown by Secondary X-rays, Prof. W. H. Bragg and J. L. Glasson, 327; Transform-ations of X-rays, C. A. Sadler, 327; Phenomena of X-ray Transmission, C. G. Barkla, 419; Fatigue Effects of the Kathode in a Discharge Tube, R. Whid-dington, 420; Origin, History, and Development of the Röntgen-ray Tube, J. H. Gardiner, 438; Evolution of Heat by Radio-active Bodies, William Duane, 449; Radium and Uranium Contained in Radio-active Minerals, Ellen Gleditsch, 449; Small Part taken by Radiation in Heat Transmission through a Metal, Dr. M. Reinganum, 467; a Simple Radioscope and a Radioby y Rays, R. D. Kleeman, 328; a Direct Estimate of the M. Reinganum, 467; a Simple Radioscope and a Radio-meter for Showing and Measuring Radio-activity, Dr. J. Aitken, 478; on the Relation of "Recoil" Phenomena to the Final Radio-active Product of Radium, Prof. J. C. McLennan, 490; the Treatment of Nævus by Electrolysis

- McLennan, 456; the Treatment of Naevas by Electrolysis and Radium Combined, Fouveau de Courmelles, 480
 Radium Combined, Fouveau de Courmelles, 480
 Radium : Radium Institutes, 45; on the α Rays from Radium B, Dr. Howard L. Bronson, 159; Production of Radium from Uranium, Frederick Soddy, 308; Pitchblende from Trenwith Minc, Francis Fox, 349; the Interpretation of Radium, Frederick Soddy, 368; see also Radioranabu Radiography
- Railways, the Electrification of, John A. F. Aspinall at
- Institution of Mechanical Engineers, 260 Ramaley (Dr. F.), Vegetation in and around the Red Rock
- Ramaley (Dr. F.), vegetation in Anti-Lake, Colorado, 407 Rambaud (M.), Comet Tempel₃-Swift, 1908*d*, 79 Ramsay (Sir William, K.C.B., F.R.S.), the British Science Guild, 52; the Imperial Side of the Fuel Question, 278; Liquid Radium Emanation, 347 Ranke (Prof. Heinrich von), Death and Obituary Notice of,
- 350
- Rarer Elements, Introduction to the, Dr. Phillip E. Browning, 182
- Rastall (R. H.), the Boulders of the Cambridge Drift, 359 Rawson (Col. H. E.), the Anticyclonic Belt of the Northern
- Hemisphere, 387 Reade (T. Mellard), Death and Obituary Notice of, 404
- Reale Istituto Lombardo Prize Awards, 137 Recoura (A.), Cuprous Sulphate, 299
- Reform at Cambridge, 345
- Reform at Oxford University, 311 Reid (Clement, F.R.S., and Eleanor M.), Fossil Flora of Tegelen-sur-Meuse, 261
- Reighard (Prof.), Significance of the Conspicuousness of the Coral-reef Fishes of the Tortugas, 382
- Reinganum (Dr. M.), Moving-coil Galvanometer, Methods of Making the Instruments Suitable for Measuring Small Currents, 18; Small Part taken by Radiation in Heat
- Transmission through a Metal, 467 Reinhardt (Dr. Ludwig), Human Skeleton Discovered in Cavern of Le Moustier, Dordogne, 466
- Relevance of Mathematics, the, Philip E. B. Jourdain, 382
- Rengade (E.), Suboxide of Cæsium, 330 Research : Scientific Research and the Carnegie Trust, 20; the Promotion of Scientific Research, Walter B. Priest, 68; Prize Subjects for Scientific Research, 80; the Encouragement of Research, Dr. E. H. Griffiths, F.R.S., 127; Research and the Colleges, W. P. Drenber, 128
- Respiration, Schäfer Method of Artificial, in Case of the Apparently Drowned, 138

REVIEWS AND OUR BOOKSHELF.

- Science in Modern Life, 1 Experimental Zoology, Dr. Hans Przibram, Dr. Francis H. A. Marshall, 2
- Handbuch der Pharmakognosie, Prof. A. Tschirch, Prof. Henry G. Greenish, 3 The Structure of the Wool Fibre and its Relation to the
- Use of Wool for Technical Purposes, Dr. F. H. Bowman, Prof. Walter M. Gardner, 4

- Principles of Sewage Treatment, Prof. Dunbar, Edward Ardern, 5
- Sewer Construction, Prof. Henry N. Ogden, Edward
- Ardern, 5 Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal, W. H. Trentham and J. Saunders, Edward Ardern, 5 Explication Méchanique des Propriétés de la Matière, Cohé-
- Explication Méchanique des Propriétés de la Matière, Cohésion, Affinité, Gravitation, &c., A. Despaux, 6
 Leçons de Physique générale, J. Chappuis and A. Berget, 6
 Biochemie, ein Lehrbuch für Mediziner, Zoologen und Botaniker, Dr. F. Röhmann, 6
 Geometry, Theoretical and Practical, W. P. Workman and A. G. Cracknell, 7
 Geography, Structural, Physical, and Comparative, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 31
 A Text-book of Geography, G. Cecil Fry, 31
 Handbuch der anorganischen Chemie, 32

- Handbuch der anorganischen Chemie, 32 Lathe Design for High- and Low-speed Steels, Prof. John T.

- Nicolson and Dempster Smith, 33 Mechanics of Engineering, Prof. Irving P. Church, 33 Motor-car Mechanism and Management, W. Poynter-Adams,
- 33 First Course in Biology, L. H. Bailey and W. M. Coleman,
- Schlich's Manual of Forestry, W. R. Fisher, 35
- Parallel Paths : a Study in Biology, Ethics and Art, T. W.
- Rolleston, 35 A Course of Pure Mathematics, G. H. Hardy, 36 Clay Modelling in Manual Training from Plan, Elevation, and Section, F. W. Farrington, 36 Chelars' Handbook
- Clay Modelling in Manual Training, Scholars' Handbook, 36
- Handbook to the Technical and Art Schools and Colleges of the United Kingdom, 36 La Côte d'Azur Russe (Riviera du Caucase), E. A. Martel,
- Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 40 Einleitung in die Experimentelle Morphologie der Pflanzen,
- Dr. K. Goebel, 61
- Parthenogenesis und Apogamie im Pflanzenreiche, Dr. Hans Winkler, 61
- The Vivisection Controversy, Dr. Albert Leffingwell, 63 The Theory and Design of Structures, Ewart S. Andrews, 64
- The Strength of Materials, Prof. Arthur Morley, 64
- An Elementary Manual of Radio-telegraphy and Radiotelephony for Students and Operators, Dr. J. A. Fleming,
- F.R.S., Maurice Solomon, 65 La Télégraphie sans Fil et les Applications pratiques des Ondes Électriques, Albert Turpain, Maurice Solomon, 65 Jahrbuch der drahtlosen Telegraphie und Telephonie,
- Maurice Solomon, 65 Handbuch zur Geschichte der Naturwissenschaften und der Technik, 66
- British Butterflies and Other Insects, 67
- The Oil and Bromoil Processes, F. J. Mortimer and S. L.
- Coulthurst, 67 Earthwork of England: Prehistoric, Roman, Saxon, Danish, Norman, and Mediæval, A. Hadrian Allcroft, Rev. John Griffith, 69
- Manual of Tides, Rollin A. Harris, 91
- The Face of the Earth, E. Suess, 91
- On Infantilism from Chronic Intestinal Infection, Characterised by the Overgrowth and Persistence of Flora of the Nursling Period, Prof. C. A. Herter, 92 The Heredity of Acquired Characters in Plants, Rev. Prof.
- George Henslow, 93
- Elementary Agricultural Chemistry, Herbert Ingle, Dr. E. J. Russell, 93
- Timber, J. R. Baterden, 94
- Biology and its Makers, with Portraits and Other Illustra-tions, Prof. W. A. Locy, 95
- Psychologie als Grundwissenschaft der Pädagogik, 95
- Brief Course in Elementary Dynamics for Students of A
- Engineering, Ervin S. Ferry, 95 Report of the Departmental Committee on Humidity and Ventilation in Cotton-weaving Sheds. 101
- Alaska, ein Beitrag zur Geschichte nordischer Kolonisation, Prof. H. Erdmann, 121 General Physics, Dr. Henry Crew, 122 A Treatise on Spherical Astronomy, Sir Robert Ball, F.R.S.,
- 123

- The Cell as the Unit of Life, and Other Lectures Delivered at the Royal Institution, London, 1899–1902, an Introduc-tion to Biology, Allan Macfadyen, 123
- The Internal Combustion Engine, H. E. Wimperis, Prof. E. G. Coker, 124
- Internal Combustion Engines, their Theory, Construction, and Operation, R. C. Carpenter and H. Diederichs, Prof. E. G. Coker, 124 Abhandlungen zur Physiologie der Gesichtsempfindungen

aus dem physiologischen Institut zu Freiburg-i-B., 125 Fresh-water Algæ from Burma, including a few from Bengal and Madras, W. West and G. S. West, 125 Trees: a Handbook of Forest Botany for the Woodlands

- and the Laboratory, Prof. H. Marshall Ward, 126 The Story of Iron and Steel, J. Russell Smith, 126 Physiological and Medical Observations among the Indians
- of South-western United States and Northern Mexico, Aleš Hrdlička, 126 Ernst Haeckel, Versuch einer Chronik seines Lebens und
- Wirkens, Prof. Walther May, 126 Ventilation for Dwellings, Rural Schools, and Stables, F. H.
- King, 127
- Last Hours with Nature, Eliza Brightwen, 129 The Adventures of Cock Robin and his Mate, R. Kearton, 120
- Nature Studies by Night and Day, F. C. Snell, 129
- The Nature-Book, 129 The Story of the Sea and Seashore, W. Percival Westell,
- 120
- The House in the Water; a Book of Animal Life, Charles G. D. Roberts, 129 Close to Nature's Heart, William M'Conachie, 129
- Transactions of the International Union for Cooperation in Solar Research, 134 Design in Nature, Dr. J. Bell Pettigrew, F.R.S., 151

- A Treatise on Zoology, 152 Cours de Physique conforme aux Programmes des Certificats et de l'Agrégation de Physique, Prof. H. Bouasse,
- Chemische Krystallographie, Prof. P. Groth, 154 The Birds of Tierra del Fuego, Richard Crawshay, 155
- Handbook for Egypt and the Sudan, 155
- Index Kewensis Plantarum Phanerogamarum, 156
- Die Metamorphose der Insekten, Dr. P. Deegener, 156
- Memoirs of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, Harvard University, 160 Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of S.Y.
- Scotia during the Years 1902, 1003, and 1904, under the Leadership of Dr. William S. Bruce, Vol. iv., Zoology, Part i., Zoological Log, David W. Wilton, Dr. J. Harvie Pirie, and R. N. Rudmose Brown, Vol. v., Invertebrates, 161
- Sketch of the Mineral Resources of India, Sir T. H. Holland, 163

- West Indian Bulletin, 164 The Journal of the South-Eastern Agricultural College Wye, Kent, 170 Astronomy of To-day, Dr. Cecil G. Dolmage, William E.
- 181 Rolston,
- Scientific Ideas of To-day, Charles R. Gibson, William E. Rolston, 181
- Introduction to the Rarer Elements, Dr. Phillip E. Browning, 182
- Aus der Werkstatt grosser Forscher, Allgemeinverständliche erläuterte Abschnitte aus den Werken hervorragender Naturforscher aller Volker und Zeiten, Dr. Friedrich Danneman, 182
- The Essentials of Sanitary Science, Gilbert E. Brooke, 183
- An Account of the Crustacea of Norway, Prof. G. O. Sars,
- W. A. Cunnington, 184 Synopsis of the British Basidiomycetes : a Descriptive Catalogue of the Drawings and Specimens in the Department
- of Botany, British Museum, Worthington G. Smith, 184 The Planning of Fever Hospitals and Disinfecting and Cleansing Stations, Albert C. Freeman, 185
- Photographic Optics and Colour Photography, including the Camera, Kinematograph, Optical Lantern, and the Theory and Practice of Image Formation, Dr. George Lindsav Johnson, 185
- Untersuchungen fossiler Hölzer aus dem westen Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika, Dr. Paul Platen, 185

- Le precipitazioni atmosferiche in Italia dal 1880 al 1905, 192 Le precipitazioni atmosferiche in Italia dai 1880 al 1905, 192 Trees shown to the Children, Janet Harvey Kelman, 192 Animals at Home, W. P. Westell, 192 Nature Study, J. R. Ainsworth Davis, 192 Beiträge zur Naturgeschichte des Menschen, Dr. Hans Friedenthal, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, F.R.S., 211 Mars as the Abode of Life, Percival Lowell, 212 The British Empire (and Japan), its Features, Resources, Commerce Industries and Scenary.

- Commerce, Industries, and Scenery, together with the Physical and Economic Conditions of the World, W.
- Bisiker, 213 Electricité Industrielle, C. Lebois, Prof. Gisbert Kapp, 213 Lehrbuch der Zoologie für Studierende, Dr. J. E. V. Boas,
- 214 An Organic Chemistry for Schools and Technical Institutes,
- A. E. Dunstan, 215 An Intermediate Course of Laboratory Work in Chemistry,
- E. K. Hanson and J. W. Dodgson, 215 Laboratory Notes on Industrial Water Analysis, Ellen H. Richards, 215
- Mental Pathology in its Relation to Normal Psychology, Dr. Gustav Störring, 216
- The Evolution of the Atmosphere as a Proof of Design in Creation, John Phin, W. E. Rolston, 216 Essays and Addresses, J. H. Bridges, 217
- Aërodonetics, F. W. Lanchester, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 221
- Artificial and Natural Flight, Sir Hiram S. Maxim, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 221
- Biologia Centrali-Americana, Insecta, Orthoptera, Vol. i., Dr. Henri de Saussure, Dr. Leo Zehntner and A. Pictet; the Forficulidæ, Count de Bormans (1893–1899), Vol. ii., the Acridiidæ, Prof. Lawrence Bruner [the Tettiginæ, Albert P. Morse], and the Phasmidæ, Robert Shelford (1900–1909), 241 Practical Coal Mining, Prof. Henry Louis, 242 The Bacteriology of Diphtheria, 243 Alloys and their Industrial Applications, E. F. Law, 243

- Astronomische Ortsbestimmung im Ballon, Prof. Adolf Marcuse, Dr. W. J. S. Lockyer, 244
- An Introduction to Social Psychology, William McDougall, William Brown, 245 Lectures on the Elementary Psychology of Feeling and
- Attention, Prof. E. B. Titchener, William Brown, 245
- Die Termiten oder weissen Ameisen, K. Escherich, 245
- Oil Motors, G. Lieckfeld, 246 Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, 246
- The Genitalia of the Group Noctuidæ of the Lepidoptera of the British Islands, an Account of the Morphology of the Male Clasping Organs, F. M. Pierce, 246
- Palæolithic Vessels of Egypt, or the Earliest Handiwork of Man, Robert de Rustafjaell, 246
- The Nandi : their Language and Folk-lore, A. C. Hollis, 240
- The Development of the Chick, F. R. Lillie, 271 The Manufacture of Explosives. Twenty Years' Progress, Oscar Guttmann, 272
- Rapid Methods for the Chemical Analysis of Special Steels, Steel-making Allovs, and Graphite. C. M. Johnson, 272 Die Hypnose und die Suggestion, ihre Wesen, ihre Wirk-
- ungsweise und ihre Bedeutung und Stellung unter den Heilmitteln, Dr. W. Hilger, 273 Pecten, W. J. Dakin, 273 The Shores of the Adriatic, the Austrian Side, F. Hamilton
- Jackson, 274
- Les Planètes et leur Origine, Ch. André, 274
- The Care of Natural Monuments, with Special Reference to

- The Care of Natural Monuments, with Special Reference to Great Britain and Germany, Prof. H. Conwentz, 275 The Mineral Kingdom, Prof. R. Brauns, 275 Man in the Light of Evolution, Dr. J. M. Tyler, 275 An Explanation of the Adjustment of Ships' Compasses, Commander L. W. P. Chetwynd, R.N., 276 The New Flora of the Volcanic Island of Krakatau, Prof.
- A. Ernst, 279
- Camp-fires on Desert and Lava, W. T. Hornaday, 279
- Ruwenzori : an Account of the Expedition of H.R.H Prince Luigi Amedeo of Savoy, Duke of the Abruzzi, F. de Filippi, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 281 A. E. Humphries : Journal of the Royal Society of Arts, No. 2934; A. Howard and G. L. C. Howard : Bulletin 14,

Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa; A. E. V. Richard-son: Journal of Agriculture of South Australia, Vol. xii., No. 6; K. J. J. Mackenzie: Journal of the Board of Agriculture, Vol. xv., No. 10, Dr. E. J. Russell, 282 Scientific Transactions of the Royal Dublin Society, Vol.

ix. (Series ii.), 289 Department of Commerce and Labour, Coast and Geodetic Survey, United States Magnetic Tables and Magnetic Charts for 1905, L. A. Bauer, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 293

Magnetic Survey of the Dutch East Indies, 1903-7, Dr. W.

- van Bemmelen, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 293 Survey of India, Extract from Narrative Reports, 1906-7, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 293 The Origin of Vertebrates, Dr. Walter Holbrook Gaskell,

- F.R.S., 301 Botany of the Færöes, 303 Sammlung Naturwissenschaftlich-pädagogischer Abhandl-Sammlung Naturwissenschaftlich-padagogischer Abhalta-ungen, Prof. J. A. Green, 304 Cambridge County Geographies, G. F. Bosworth, 305 Practical Solid Geometry, Rev. P. W. Unwin, 305 Cassell's Elementary Geometry, W. A. Knight, 305 The Story of Gold, E. S. Meade, 306 Artificial Waterways and Commercial Development (with a Uticas of the Frie Canal). Dr. A. Barton Hepburn,

- a History of the Erie Canal), Dr. A. Barton Hepburn, 307
- Hydrographical Surveying, Rear-Admiral Sir William J. L. Whatton, K.C.B., 307 Œuvres complètes de Christian Huyghens publiées par la
- Société hollandaise des Sciences, 307 The General Characters of the Proteins, Dr. S. B.
- Schryver, 307 Mitteilungen der deutschen dendrologischen Gesellschaft,
- 325
- Leçons sur le Carbone, la Combustion, les Lois chimiques, H. le Chatelier, Prof. Arthur Smithells, F.R.S., 331
- Die Blütenpflanzen Afrikas, Franz Thonner, Dr. Otto Stapf,
- F.R.S., 333
 F.R.S., 333
 Völkerpsychologie, eine Untersuchung der Entwicklungs-gesetze von Sprache, Mythus und Sitte, Wilhelm Wundt, Rev. A. E. Crawley, 334
 The Problem of Age, Growth and Death : a Study of Cytomorphosis, Prof. Charles S. Minot, 335
 Vordelgesang in ihren wechselseitigen Bezie-
- hungen von naturwissenschaftlich-musikalischen Standpunkte beleuchtet, Dr. B. Hoffmann, 336
- The Scientific Aspects of Luther Burbank's Work, D. S. Jordan and V. L. Kellogg, 337 Text-book of Petrology, Containing a Summary of the Modern Theories of Petrogenesis, a Description of the Rock-forming Minerals, and a Synopsis of the Chief Types of the Igneous Rocks and their Distribution, as Illus-trated by the British Isles, Dr. F. H. Hatch, 337 Catalogue of the Lepidoptera Phalænæ in the British
- Museum, Sir George F. Hampson, Bart., 338 Physikalische Musiklehre, Dr. Hermann Starke, 338

- Physikalische Musiklehre, Dr. Hermann Starke, 338
 The Book of Nature-study, 344
 Insect Stories, Vernon L. Kellogg, 344
 Alpines and Bog Plants, Reginald Farrer, 344
 Life-histories of Familiar Plants, John J. Ward, 344
 A Student's Text-book of Zoology, Prof. Adam Sedgwick, F.R.S., Prof. G. H. Carpenter, 361
 A Treatise on Zoology: Crustacea, Dr. W. T. Calman, Prof. G. H. Carpenter, 361
 The Flora of the Presidency of Bombay, Dr. Theodore Cooke, 362
- Cooke, 362
- The Elements of Physical Chemistry, Prof. J. Livingston R. Morgan, 362
- Outlines of Physical Chemistry, Dr. George Senter, 363 Transformers, for Single and Multiphase Currents: a Treatise on their Theory, Construction and Use, Prof.
- Gisbert Kapp, 365 Electrical Engineer's Pocket Book, a Handbook of Useful Data for Electricians and Electrical Engineers, Horatio
- A. Foster, 365 Human Foods and their Nutritive Value, H. Snyder, C.
- Simmonds, 366 The Body at Work: a Treatise on the Principles of Physiology, Dr. Alex. Hill, 366 British and American Customary and Metric Legal Measures for Commercial and Technical Purposes, N. Foley, 367

- Leitfaden der Tierkunde für höhere Lehranstalten, K. Smalian, 367
- Bau und Geschichte der Erde, O. Abel, 367 Goethe und Pestalozzi, Karl Muthesius, 368
- La France et ses Colonies au Début du XX^e Siècle, M.

- Fallex and A. Mairey, 368 The Interpretation of Radium, Frederick Soddy, 368 Flower and Grass Calendars for Children, Agnes Fry, 368 The Bāz-Nāma-yi-Nāsiri, a Persian Treatise on Falconry,
- Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott, 371 Transactions of the English Ceramic Society, Vol. vii., 385
- The Fertilisation of Tea, George A. Cowie, 385 Lectures on the Evolution of the Filicinean Vascular System, A. G. Tansley, 391 Heavy Electrical Engineering, H. M. Hobart, Prof. Gisbert
- Kapp, 392 Zur Biologie des Chlorophylls, Laubfarbe und Himmelslicht, Vergilbung und Etiolement, Ernst Stahl, 393
- Grundlagen der Geometrie, D. Hilbert, 394 The Theory of Valency, Dr. J. Newton Friend, 395
- The Geology of the Goldfields of British Guiana, J. B. Harrison, 395
- The Ore Deposits of South Africa, J. P. Johnson, 395 The Method and Scope of Genetics, Prof. W. Bateson,
- F.R.S., 396 Hydraulic Générale, A. Boulanger, 396
- The Chadwick Lectures, University of London, Session 1907-8, W. D. Scott-Moncrieff, 397
- Der Unterkiefer des Homo Heidelbergensis aus den Sanden von Mauer bei Heidelberg, Otto Schoetensack, Dr. Wil-
- liam Wright, 398 The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Prof. John Edgar, 399 The Norwegian Aurora Polaris Expedition, 1902-3, Vol. i.,
- on the Cause of Magnetic Storms and the Origin of Ter-restrial Magnetism, Kr. Birkeland, 410
- Festschrift der Physikalisch-medizinischen Societät zu Erlangen, zur Feier ihres 100 Jährigen Bestehens am 27 Juni, 1908, 411
- Sitzungsberichte der Physikalisch-medizinischen Societät in
- Erlangen, 411 Scientific Papers, Sir George Howard Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 421
- The Manufacture of Paper, R. W. Sindall, 422
- Mineralien-Sammlungen, ein Hand- und Hilfsbuch für Anlage und Instandhaltung mineralogischer Sammlungen,
- Dr. Wolfgang Brendler, 423 Das Pflanzenreich: Scrophulariaceæ-Calceolarieæ, Fr. Kränzlin; Erythroxylaceæ, O. E. Schultz; Styracaceæ, J. Perkins; Potamogetonaceæ, P. Ascherson and P. Graebner; Orchidaceæ-Cœlogyninæ, E. Pfitzer and Fr. Kränzlin; Liliaceæ-Aloīneæ, A. Berger; Sarraceniaceæ, J. M. Macfarlane; Stylidiaceæ, J. Mildbraed; Nepenthaceæ, J. M. Macfarlane; Araceæ-Monsteroideæ and Calloideæ, A. Engler and K. Krause, 424 The Human Species, Considered from the Standpoint of
- Comparative Anatomy, Physiology, Pathology, and Bacteriology, Ludwig Hopf, 424 Practical Physics, L. M. Jones, 425 Handbuch für physikalische Schülerübungen, Prof. Her-

- mann Hahn, 425 School Algebra, W. E. Paterson, 426 Eliza Brightwen ; the Life and Thoughts of a Naturalist, 426 The Grammar of Life, G. T. Wrench, 426 The Life of Philibert Commerson, D.M., Naturalist du Roi : an Old-World Story of French Travel and Science in the Days of Linnæus, Captain S. Pasfield Oliver, 430 Sunset Playgrounds : Fishing Days and Others in Cali-
- Sunset Playgrounds : Fishing Days and Others in Cali-fornia and Canada, F. G. Aflalo, 431 The Water Supply of Kent, William Whitaker, F.R.S., Dr.
- H. Franklin Parsons, Dr. H. R. Mill, and Dr. J. C. Thresh, 432
- Experimental Embryology, J. W. Jenkinson, 451 Plants and their Ways, an Introduction to the Study of Botany and Agricultural Science, E. Evans, 452 Wikrockonjscher, und schweischer Preiteinum der
- Mikroskopischer und physiologischer Praktikum der Botanik für Lehrer, G. Müller, 452 A First Book of Botany, Elizabeth Healey, 452 Familiar Swiss Flowers, F. E. Hulme, 452 The Transformations of the Animal World, Charles

- Depéret, 452

- Vorlesungen über chemische Atomistik, Dr. F. Willy Hinrichsen, 453
- First Principles of Chemical Theory, Dr. C. H. Mathewson, 453
- Malleable Cast Iron, S. Jones Parsons, 454 A Manual of Infectious Diseases, Dr. E. W. Goodall and Dr. J. W. Washbourn, 454 Beschrijving en Onderzoek van den gyroscopischen Horizon
- Fleuriais (Model Ponthus et Therrode), L. Roosenburg, 455
- R⁴⁵⁵ Revue de Géographie annuelle, 455 Notes on Dynamics, Sir G. Greenhill, 455 Notes of a Botanist on the Amazon and Andes, Richard Spruce, 458
- National Antarctic Expedition, 1901-4, 460
- Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard Col-lege, a Search for a Planet beyond Neptune, W. H.
- Pickering, 463 Darwin and Modern Science, Essays in Commemoration of Fiftieth Anniversary of the Publication of the "Origin of Species," Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 481 Untersuchungen über Kohlenhydrate und Fermente (1884–
- 1908), Emil Fischer, 485 Die Grundproben der "Deutschen Tiefsee-Expedition," Sir
- John Murray and Prof. E. Philippi, 486 History of the Geological Society of Glasogw, 1858–1908, with Biographical Notices of Prominent Members, 487
- Unités Electriques, le Comte de Baillehache, Dr. J. A.
- Harker, 488 Traité de Mathématiques générales a l'usage des Chimistes; Physiciens, Ingénieurs, et des Élèves des Facultés des Science, Prof. E. Fabry, 488
- Probleme der Protistenkunde : I. Die Trypanosomen ihre Bedeutung für Zoologie, Medizin und Kolonialwirtschaft, Prof. F. Döflein, 489
- American Philosophy : the Early Schools, Prof. I. W. Riley, 489
- The Photography of Coloured Objects, Dr. C. E. Kenneth Mees, 489
- The Nautic-Astronomical and Universal Calculator, R. Nelting, 490
- The Theory of Electric Cables and Networks, Dr. Alexander
- Russell, 400 Studies of Frost and Ice Crystals, Wilson J. Bentley, 492 Third Report of the Wellcome Research Laboratories a Third Report of the Wellcome Research Laboratories a at the Gordon Memorial College, Khartoum, Andrew Balfour, 495
- Reynolds (J. Emerson), Results of Cooling Hydrated Platin-cyanides in Liquid Air, 297 Reynolds Reflector at Helwan, Egypt, the Proposed Pro-gramme of Work for the, Knox Shaw, 19 Ricco (Prof.), Recent Solar Research, 288
- Richards (Ellen H.), Laboratory Notes on Industrial Water Analysis, a Survey Course for Engineers, 215 Richardson (H. W.), Effect of an Air Blast upon the Spark
- Dicharge of a Condenser charged by an Induction Coil or Transformer, 239 Ricketts (Dr.), the Transmission of "Spotted Fever," 436
- Ridgeway (Prof.), Origin of the Turkish Crescent, 407 Rigden (H.), Sussex Cattle, 317
- Righi (Prof. Augusto), Integration of the Equations of Motion of an Electron Describing an Orbit about an Ion in a Magnetic Field, 168
- Right-handedness, Problem of Man's, Prof. E. Gaupp, 500 Riley (Prof. I. W.), American Philosophy: the Early
- Schools, 489 Rings of Saturn, the, Prof. Levi-Civito, 439 Ripley (Prof. W. Z.), European Population of the United
- States, 501

- Ristenpart (Prof. F.), Comet Morehouse, 1908c, 260 Ristenpart (Prof. F.), the 60-inch Reflecting Telescope of the Mount Wilson Observatory, California, 209 Road Motors and Problems Connected with Them, "James Forrest" Lecture at Institution of Civil Engineers, Colored W. C. L. Mathew B. P. S. Colonel H. C. L. Holden, F.R.S., 323
- Roads, Conference on, 292
- Roads, Construction and Wear of, H. A. R. Mallock, F.R.S., 141

- Robbins (W. W.), Plant Distribution on "Mesas" near Boulder, Colorado, 76-7 Roberts (Charles G. D.), the House in the Water, 129
- Rock-engravings in South Africa, L. Péringuey, 441; Corr., R. Lydekker, 438 Rodriguez (Joas Barbosa), Death of, 47; Obituary Notice
- of, 104
- Röhmann (Dr. F.), Biochemie, ein Lehrbuch für Mediziner,
- Rohmann (Dr. F.), Biochemie, ein Lehrbuch für Mediziner, Zoologen und Botaniker, 6
 Rolleston (T. W.), Parallel Paths: a Study in Biology, Ethics and Art, 35
 Rolston (William E.), Astronomy of To-day, Dr. Cecil G. Dolmage, 181; Scientific Ideas of To-day, Charles R. Ciber 2004 (December 2014) Gibson, 181; the Evolution of the Atmosphere as a Proof of Design in Creation, John Phin, 216; the Recent Solar Activity, 320 Romanics (J.), the Boulders of the Cambridge Drift, 359 Romanichels, the, Bob Skot, 318 Röntgen Rays, Ionisation by, Dr. Charles G. Barkla, 187;

- see Radiography
- Roosenburg (L.), Beschrijving en Onderzoek van der Gyro-scopischen Horizon Fleuriais (Model Ponthus et Ther-
- rode), 455 Rosaries, United States National Museum Collection of, I. M. Casanowicz, 502 Rosenhain (Walter), the Microscope in Engineering, 250
- Rosenhain (Mr.), Automatic Recorder of Carbon Dioxide, 259
- Rosenstiehl (A.), the Chromatic Circle according to Young's Hypothesis, 389 Ross (A. D.), Magnetic Properties of Certain Copper Alloys,
- 59
- Ross (E. H.), Mosquitoes and Malaria at Port Said, 286
- Ross (H. C.), Determination of a Coefficient by which the Rate of Diffusion of Stain and Other Substances into Living Cells can be Measured, and by which Bacteria and Other Cells may be Differentiated, 27 Ross (Prof. Ronald, F.R.S.), the Campaign against Malaria,
- Rossi (F.O., F.R.G.), the Campaign against Malaria, Discourse at Royal Institution, 415
 Rossi (R.), Emission Spectrum of Silver Heated in a Car-bon-tube Furnace in Air, 168
 Rota (Lieut.-Colonel G.), Steamer Trials with Various
- Kinds of Screws, 173
- Rotation of the Sun, the, Prof. W. S. Adams, 141
- Rotch (Prof. A. Lawrence), General Results of the Meteor-ological Cruises of the Otaria on the Atlantic in 1905, 1906, and 1907, 219
- Roy (Paul), Determination of Added Water in Decomposed Milks, 270

- Royal Anthropological Institute, 110, 298, 359, 387 Royal Astronomical Society, 209, 387 Royal Dublin Society, 88, 179, 388, 479; Scientific Transactions of the, 289
- Royal Institution: Explosive Combustion, with Special Reference to that of Hydrocarbons, Prof. W. A. Bone, F.R.S., at, 8; the Cell as the Unit of Life, and Other Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution, London, 1899-1902, an Introduction to Biology, Allan Macfadyen, 123; the Electrical Properties of Flame, Prof. H. A. Wilson, F.R.S., 143; Transatlantic Wireless Telegraphy. Commendatore G. Marconi at, 233, 264; Tantalum and its Industrial Applications, Alex. Siemens at, 290; the Cam-paign against Malaria, Prof. Ronald Ross, F.R.S., at, 415

- 415 Royal Irish Academy, Dublin, 88 Royal Meteorological Society, 119, 298, 387 Royal Microscopical Society, 59, 178, 327, 448 Royal Observatory, Greenwich, the, 446 Royal Prussian Aëronautical Observatory's Aërological Expedition to Tropical East Africa, the, Profs. R. Ass-
- Expedition to Tropical East Africa, the, Profs. K. Ass-mann and A. Berson, 171 Royal Society, 27, 57, 86, 118, 147, 178, 238, 268, 296, 326, 358, 386, 477; the Royal Society's Conversazione, 347: the Yielding of the Earth to Disturbing Forces, Prof. A. E. H. Love, F.R.S., at, 253 Royal Society of Arts and the London Institution, the, 100 Portal Society of Arts and the London Institution, the, 100

- Royal Society, Edinburgh. 59, 148, 328, 478 Royal Society of South Africa, Cape Town, 350 Royal-Dawson (W. G.), the Production of Prolonged Apnœa in Man, 8

Rural Education in its Various Grades, 174

- Russ (Sidney), the Radio-active Deposits of Actinium, 8; Expulsion of Radio-active Matter in the Radium Transformations, 238
- Russell (Dr. Alexander), the Theory of Electric Cables and Networks, 490

- Russell (Alexander S.), the γ Rays of Uranium, γ
 Russell (Dr.), the Arthur Wright Electrical Device for Evaluating Formulæ and Solving Equations, 509
 Russell (Dr. E. J.), Elementary Agricultural Chemistry, Herbert Ingle, 93; Some Aspects of the Wheat Problem, 282
- Russell (E. S.), Growth of the Shell of Patella vulgata, L., 87
- Rustafjaell (Robert de), Palæolithic Vessels of Egypt, or the Earliest Handiwork of Man, 246
- Ruwenzori : an Account of the Expedition of H.R.H. Prince
- Russian Andream of Savoy, Duke of the Abruzzi, F. de Filippi, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 281
 Ryan (Prof. Hugh), Analysis of Beeswax, 479; Montanin and Montana Waxes, 479
- Sabatier (Paul), New General Method for the Preparation of the Alcoholic Amines, 209

- of the Alcoholic Amines, 209 Sabersky (E.), New Electrical Hardening Furnace, 209 Sadler (C. A.), the Absorption of X-rays, 37; Transforma-tions of X-rays, 327 Saget (P.), Variety of Organic Iron in Plants, 30 Sagittarius, a Group of Red Stars in, Mrs. Fleming, 288 Salensky (Dr. W.), Development of the Nemertine Worm *Prosorochmus viviparus*, 197 Samec (Dr. M.), Variation in Intensity of Light at Different Altitudes 17
- Altitudes, 17 Sanitation : Principles of Sewage Treatment, Prof. Dunbar, Sanitation : Principles of Sewage Treatment, Prof. Dunbar, Edward Ardern, 5; Sewer Construction, Prof. Henry N. Ogden, Edward Ardern, 5; Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal, W. H. Trentham and J. Saunders, Edward Ardern, 5; the Essentials of Sanitary Science, Gilbert E. Brooke, 182; Death and Obituary Notice of Dr. John Thomson, 315; the Chadwick Lectures, University of London, Session 1907-8, W. D. Scott-Moncrieff, 397
 Sarcophagi, Ancient, used in Modern Interments, 351
 Sars (Prof. G. O.), an Account of the Crustacea of Norway, 184
- 184
- Satellites, Origins of, Prof. See, 380
- Saturn, the Rings of, Prof. Levi-Civito, 439
- Saunders (J.), Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal, 5 Saussure (Dr. Henri de), Biologia Centrali-Americana, Orthoptera, Vol. i., 241 Savage (Dr.), Bacterial Contamination of Milk, 203
- Savés (A.), Determination of Physical Constants of the
- Peptones, 59 Sawicki (Dr. L. Ritter von), the Rhine-Rhone Water-parting, 258
- Scallop, the Structure of the, 273 Schäfer Method of Artificial Respiration in Case of the
- Apparently Drowned, 138 Scheel (Dr.), Methods of High Vacua, 50; Relative Efficien-cies of Methods for the Production of High Vacua, 438 Schelle (Prof. R.), Production of Pure Tellurium from its
- Ores, 470 Schenck (Dr. H.), Phylogeny of the Bryophytes and Ferns,
- 49 Schlesinger (Dr.), Errors of Position of Images Photo-graphed through Glass, 503
- Schlich's Manual of Forestry, W. R. Fisher, 35
- Schnett's Manual Orbitsky, W. K. Fisher, 35 Schmatolle (Mr.), Gasfiring, 385 Schmeltz (Dr. J. D. E.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 405 Schoetensack (Otto), der Unterkiefer des Homo Heidel-bergensis aus den Sanden von Mauer bei Heidelberg,
- 398 Schryver (Dr. S. B.), the General Characters of the Pro-

- teins, 307 Schulz (J. F. Hermann), the Constitution of the Sun, 51 Schulz (O. E.), das Pflanzenreich, Erythroxylaceæ, 424 Schweidler (Dr. E. von), Evolution of Heat by Radium, 18 Science : Science in Modern Life, 1; Scientific Research and the Carnegie Trust, 20; Scientific Aid for the British

- Tenant Farmer, 51; the British Science Guild, Sir William Ramsay, 52; Sir Frederick Pollock, 52; Forth-coming Books of Science, 53; Supplementary List of Forthcoming Books of Science, 85; Scientific Societies and the Admission of Women Fellows, Dr. T. E: Thorpe, C.B., F.R.S., 67; the Promotion of Scientific Research, Walter B. Priest, 68; Prize Subjects for Scientific Research, 80; Scientific Work of the Smithsonian Institution, Dr. C. D. Scientific Work of the Smithsonian Institution, Dr. C. D. Walcott, 114; the Encouragement of Research, Dr. E. H. Griffiths, F.R.S., 127; Research and the Colleges, W. P. Dreaper, 128; Scientific Ideas of To-day, Charles R. Gibson, William E. Rolston, 181; Aus der Werkstatt grosser Forscher, Dr. Friedrich Dannemann, 182; the Ancient Greeks and Natural Science, Edward Greenly, Ancient Greeks and Natural Science, Edward Greenly, 224; Popularising of Scientific Knowledge, 257; an In-quiry concerning Scientific and Medical Journals, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 276; Sammlung Naturwissen-schaftlich-pädagogischer Abhandlungen, Prof. J. A. Green, 304; Scientific Papers, Vol. ii., Tidal Friction and Cosmogony, Sir George Howard Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 421; the Need of a Great Reference Library of Natural Science in London, Sir E. Ray Lankester, K.C.B., F.R.S., 427; the South-Eastern Union of Scientific Societies, 476 Scott (Dr. D. H., F.R.S.), the Flora of the Wealden Strata, 476
- 476
- Scott-Moncrieff (W. D.), the Chadwick Lectures, University of London, Session 1907-8, 397 Scrivenor (J. B.), the Lahat "Pipe," 298 Sea and Seashore, the Story of the, W. Percival Westell,
- 129

- Sedgwick (Prof. Adam, F.R.S.), the Natural History Museum, 229; a Student's Text-book of Zoology, 361
 See (Prof. T. J. J.), the Circularity of Planetary Orbits, 229; Origins of Satellites, 380
 Sehnal (J.), Solubility of Lead Sulphate, 449
 Seismology: the California Earthquake of April 18, 1906, Andrew C. Lawson, 10; Depth of the Epicentre of Recent Sicilian Earthquake. Dr. Emilio Oddone, 168: Records Sicilian Earthquake, Dr. Emilio Oddone, 168; Records of the Calabrian Earthquake obtained at Pulkowa, Prince Galitzin, 226; the Calabrian Earthquake of October 23, 1907, Prof. G. Mercalli, 318; Seismological Service estab-lished in Italy after the Riviera Earthquake of February ashed in Italy after the Riviera Earthquake of February 23, 1887, Dr. G. Agamennone, 438; the Cause of Earth-quakes, Prof. Hobbs, 444; the Italian Earthquake of December 28, 1908, Dr. G. Martinelli, 445; Secondary Oscillation Recorded by the Tide-gauge at Ischia, Prof. Grablovitz, 466; see also Earthquakes eligman (Dr.). Cas firing as
- Seligmann (Dr.), Gas-firing, 385 Seligmann (Dr. C. G.), Canoe Ornamental Carvings from South-eastern British New Guinea, 106; the Veddas, 119; Photographs of the Veddas of Ceylon and of their Cere-
- monial Dances, 349 Senderens (Jean B.), Catalytic Preparation of the Ketones, 210; New Method of Preparing Ethyl Ether, 471-2 Sense of Proximity, the, Charles H. Melland, 456 Senses of Smell in Flies, Dr. Alex. Hill, 308 Senses, Are the, ever Vicarious? Prof. John G. McKendrick, E.P.S. 28

- F.R.S., 38 Senter (Dr. George), Outlines of Physical Chemistry,
- 363 Serotherapy : Pathogenesis of Micrococcus melitensis, Dr. J. Eyre, 328
- ewage: Principles of Sewage Treatment, Prof. Dunbar, Edward Ardern, 5; Sewer Construction, Prof. Henry N. Ogden, Edward Ardern, 5; Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal, W. H. Trentham and J. Saunders, Edward Ardern, 5; the Chadwick Lectures, University of London, Session 2007-8, W. D. Scott Monorciaff Sewage : Session 1907-8, W. D. Scott-Moncrieff, 397 Seyewetz (A.), Oxidation of Aromatic Nitro- and Nitroso-
- derivatives by Ammonium Persulphate, 300 Shackleton (Lieut.), Scientific Achievements of British
- Shackleton (Lieut.), Scientific Achievements of British Antarctic Expedition under, 377
 Shackleton's (Lieut.) Antarctic Expedition: (1) Explora-tions and Results, (2) the South Magnetic Pole, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., (3) Meteorological Observations, W. H. Dines, F.R.S., (4) Biological Results, 130
 Shattock (S. G.), Microscopic Section of the Aorta of King Monother backstoper and the section of the Aorta of King
- Menephtah, 340 Shaw (A. N.), Phenomenon Connected with the Dicharge of Electricity from Pointed Conductors, with a Note by John Zeleny, 297

- Reynolds Reflector at Helwan, Egypt, 19 Shaxby (John H.), Early References to Fluorescence and Light Transmitted by Thin Gold Films, 128; Lignum Nephriticum, 248; the Graphical Determination of Fres-
- nel's Integrals, 269 Shelford (Robert), Biologia Centrali-Americana, Orthoptera,
- Vol. ii., Phasmidæ, 241 Sheppard (Dr. S. E.), Influence of their State in Solution
- on the Absorption Spectra of Dissolved Dyes, 118 Sherrington (Prof. C. S.), Reciprocal Innervation of Antagonistic Muscles, Note xiv., Double Reciprocal
- Innervation, 326 Shipley (Dr. A. E., F.R.S.), a Student's Text-book of Zoology, Vol. iii., the Insecta and Arachnida, 361
- Ships' Compasses, an Explanation of the Adjustment of, Commander L. W. P. Chetwynd, 276
 Shrubsall (Dr. F. C.), Crania and Bones from Ancient
- Ruins in Rhodesia, 379 Shuddemagen (C. L. B.), Method of Making Condensers with Pure Parafin Wax, 502 Siemens (Alex.), Tantalum and its Industrial Applications,
- Discourse at Royal Institution, 290 Simmonds (C.), the Poisons of the Pharmacy Act, 191; Human Foods and their Nutritive Value, H. Snyder, 366 Simpson (J. C.), Specimen of Pelagothuria from the Sey-
- chelles, 88
- Sindall (R. W.), the Manufacture of Paper, 422 Skinner (Frank W.), Foundations of Lofty Buildings in American Practice, 78
- Skot (Bob), the Romanichels, 318
- Sladen, the Percy, Trust Expedition to the Indian Ocean,
- Sladen, the Percy, Trust Expedition to the Indian Ocean,
 J. Stanley Gardiner, F.R.S., 321; J. C. Fryer, 321
 Sleep for Children, Hours of, 79
 Sleeping Sickness: Kleine's Observations on the Period during which the Tsetse-fly was Capable of Transmitting a Trypanosome Infection, Sir David Bruce, 315; Latency in Infectivity of Tsetse-flies, Colonel Sir David Bruce, 405 436
- Smalian (K.), Leitfaden der Tierkunde für höhere Lehranstalten, 367
- Smell, Sense of, in Flies, Dr. Alex. Hill, 308 Smell, Vapour-density and, Dr. E. P. Perman, 369; Dr. Alex. Hill, 427 Smith (C. E.), Trees shown to the Children, 192
- Smith (Dempster), Lathe Design for High- and Low-Speed Steels, 33 Smith (Eva M.), Surfaces having a Family of Helices as
- One Set of Lines of Curvature, 140
- Smith (Geoffrey), Anaspidacea, 435
 Smith (Prof. G. Elliot, F.R.S.), the Zoological Position of Tarsius, 38; Beiträge zur Naturgeschichte des Menschen, Dr. Gustav Friedenthal, 211; Origin of the People of Egypt, 407; Anatomical Results of Excavations in Nubia, 466
- Smith (J. Cruickshank), Physical Tests for Protective Coatings for Iron and Steel, 384
- Smith (J. Russell), the Story of Iron and Steel, 126 Smith (Dr. Letchworth), Death of, 224

- Smith (Prof. R. H.), Easement Curves, 467 Smith (Dr. S. W. J.), Action between Metals and Acids and the Conditions under which Mercury Causes Evolution of Hydrogen, 239
- Smith (T.), Method of Testing Photographic Shutters, 419 Smith (Worthington G.), Synopsis of the British Basidio-mycetes, a Descriptive Catalogue of the Drawings and Specimens in Department of Botany, British Museum, 184
- Smithells (Prof. Arthur, F.R.S.), Leçons sur le Carbone, la Combustion, les Lois chimiques, H. le Chatelier, 331
- Smithsonian Institution, Scientific Work of the, Dr. C. D. Walcott, 114
- Smyth (Dr. Wm. Woods), the Inheritance of Acquired

- Smyth (Dr. Will, Wood),
 Character, 277
 Snails, a Winter Retreat for, W. Hoskyns-Abrahall, 96
 Snell (F. C.), Nature Studies by Night and Day, 129
 Snell (Dr. Simeon), Death and Obituary Notice of, 256
 Snow (A. E.), Pirani's Method of Measuring the Self-inductance of a Coil, 147-8
 Sender (H.) Human Foods and their Nutritive Value, 366

Society of Chemical Industry, Education and Research in

- Applied Chemistry, Prof. Raphael Meldola, F.R.S., 413 Sociology: Völkerpsychologie, eine Untersuchung der Ent-wicklungsgesetze von Sprache, Mythus und Sitte, Wilhelm
- Wundt, Rev. A. E. Crawley, 334 Soddy (Frederick), the γ Rays of Uranium, 7; Radio-thorium, 12; the Rays of Uranium X, 37; Production of Radium from Uranium, 308; the Interpretation of Radium, 368
- Solar Activity, the Recent, W. E. Rolston, 320 Solar Atmosphere, the Upper Layers of the, M. Deslandres,
- Solar Constant, the Determination of the, Messrs. Abbot and Fowler, jun., 468; L. B. Aldrich, 468 Solar Parallax from Observations of Eros, Prof. Perrine.
- 468
- Solar Research, Recent, Prof. Ricco, 288
- Solar Research, Transactions of the International Union for Cooperation in, 134 Solar Temperature, Sun-spots and, Mr. Evershed, 169
- Solar Vertices, Hale's, A. Brester, 79 Solar Vertices, Hale's, A. Brester, 79 Sollas (Prof. W. J., F.R.S.), Anniversary Address, Time in Relation to Geological Events, 118
- Solomon (Maurice), an Elementary Manual of Radio-telegraphy and Radio-telephony for Students and Operators, Dr. J. A. Fleming, F.R.S., 65; la Télégraphie sans Fil et les Applications pratiques des Ondes élec-triques, Albert Turpain, 65; Jahrbuch der drahtlosen Telegraphie und Telephonie, 65 Songs of Birds: Kunst und Vogelgesang in ihren wechsel-seition Resibungen von returmiscenschoftlich musik
- seitigen Beziehungen von naturwissenschaftlich-musikalischen Standpunkte beleuchtet, Dr. B. Hoffmann, 336 South-Eastern Union of Scientific Societies, the, 475 Space, the Apparent Dispersion of Light in, Prof. Lebedew,
- 160
- Spectrographs, Camera Objectives for, Mr. Plaskett, 440 Spectrum Analysis: Variation of Refractive Indices of Mixtures of Liquids with their Composition, Dr. V. F. Hess, 18; the Spectra of Various Nebulæ, Prof. Wolf, 19; Spectra of Nebulæ, Prof. Wolf, 229; Dr. Eberhard, 229; Spectra of Nebula, Prof. Wolf, 229; Dr. Eberhard, 229; Anomalous Refraction and Spectroheliograph Results, Prof. Julius, 50; Wave-lengths of Lines in the Secondary Spectrum of Hydrogen, H. E. Watson, 86; a Remarkable Prominence, Father Chevalier, 108; Influence of their State in Solution on the Absorption Spectra of Dissolved Dyes, Dr. S. E. Sheppard, 118; Comparison of the Lines of the Spectrum of the Electric Arc and of the Sun Pressure of the Reversing Lawer in the Solar Sun, Pressure of the Reversing Layer in the Solar Atmosphere, Ch. Fabry and H. Buisson, 149; Spectrum of the Comet 1008c (Morehouse), A. de la Baume-Pluvinel and F. Baldet, 149; Observations made at Meudon Observatory on Morehouse's Comet, H. Deslandres, A. Bernard and J. Bosler, 179; the Spectrum of Morehouse's Comet, Prof. Hartmann, 380; Resonator Sparks, their Spectroscopic Analysis, G. A. Hemsalech and A. Zimmern, 149; the Gases of the Ring Nebula in Lyra, Prof. Bohuslav Brauner, 158; Emission Spectrum of Silver Heated in a Carbon-tube Furnace in Air, G. Silver Heated in a Carbon-tube Furnace in Air, G. Duffield and R. Rossi, 168; a Simple Fabry and Perot Interferometer, Prof. James Barnes, 187; New Type of Magnetic Decomposition of the Absorption Bands of Crystals, Jean Becquerel, 209; the Orbits of Spectroscopic Binaries, R. H. Baker, 229; F. C. Jordan, 229; Spectro-scopic Binaries, Prof. Campbell, 321; Dr. Heber D. Curtis, 321; Prof. W. H. Wright, 321; General Solution of the Spectroheliograph, H. Deslandres, 239; Chromo-rohesia, Calcium Lings in Furnace Spectra, Dr. A. S. of the Spectroheliograph, H. Deslandres, 239: Chromo-spheric Calcium Lines in Furnace Spectra, Dr. A. S. King, 260; Examination of the Upper Layers of Calcium and Hydrogen in the Solar Atmosphere and of the Same Black Filaments in the Two Layers, H. Deslandres and L. d'Azambuja, 269; G. E. Hale, 269: the Complex Structure of Some Lines in Spectrum of Mercury, H. Nagaoka, 310; Origin of the Colours of the Spectrum, Prof. P. Zeeman, 319; Examination of Zeeman Effect for Certain Bands in the Emission Spectra of Gases, A. Dufour, 352; Spectra of Some Spiral Nebulæ and Globular Star Clusters, E. A. Fath. 354; Spectrum of the Ruby, J. Moir, 360; a General Solution of the Spectroheliograph, M. Deslandres, 380; Spectroscopic Comparison of o Ceti with Titanium

Oxide, A. Fowler, 387; Critical Examination of the Mono-chromatic Images of the Sun with the Hydrogen Lines, H. Deslandres and L. d'Azambuja, 389; Unsym-metrical Enlargement of the Lines of the Arc Spectrum metrical Enlargement of the Lines of the Arc Spectrum and their Comparison with Those of the Solar Spectrum, Ch. Fabry and H. Buisson, 389; Spectrum of Mag-nesium in Hydrogen, E. E. Brooks, 410; Influence of Dilution on the Colour and the Absorption Spectra of Various Permanganates, J. E. Purvis, 420; Camera Objectives for Spectrographs, Mr. Plaskett, 440; the Ruling of Diffraction Gratings, Prof. A. A. Michelson, 444; Effect of Temperature on the Absorption of Cer-tain Solutions, Prof. H. C. Jones, 444; Spectroscopic Researches, E. J. Evans, 508; Prof. R. W. Wood, 508; the Echelon Spectroscope, H. Stansfield, 509 pencer (Prof. Baldwin), a Problematical Organism Thrown up during a Storm in Bass Strait, 350

Spencer (Prof. Thrown up during a Storm in Bass Strait, 350 Sphenodon, Unusual Condition of Nasal Bones in, H. W.

- Unthank, 69
- Spherical Astronomy, a Treatise on, Sir Robert Ball,

Spiral Nebulæ, Spectra of Some, and Globular Star Clusters, E. A. Fath, 354 Spruce (Richard), Notes of a Botanist on the Amazon and Andes, 458 Squier (Major George O.), Recent Progress in Aëro-

- nautics, 223
- Stahl (Ernst), zur Biologie des Chlorophylls, Laubfarbe und Himmelslicht, Vergilbung und Etiolement, 393 Standard Scale of Photographic Magnitudes, Prof. Picker-
- ing, 380 Stanley (W. N.), Cupellation Experiments, the Thermal Properties of Cupels, 388
- Stansfield (H.), the Echelon Spectroscope, 509 Stapf (Dr. Otto, F.R.S.), Fluorescence of Lignum Nephriticum, 218; die Blütenpflanzen Afrikas, Franz Thonner, 333
- S33 Starke (Dr. Hermann), Physikalische Musiklehre, 338 Stars : the Recent Magnitudes of Nova Persei, Prof. Nijland, 19; Radial Velocity of α Persei, F. Goos, 51; Double-star Measures, Prof. Burnham, 19; Measures for Double Stars, Dr. Lau and Herr Luplau-Jansen, 200; a New " Cave-nebula " in Cepheus, Prof. Wolf, 19; a Catalogue of 1625 Southern Stars, Ernest Cooke, 51; Stellar Evolution, Prof. Moulton, 79; Relation between the Magnitudes and Colours of Stars, Herren Müller and Kempf, 108; Colours and Magnitudes of Stars, Mr. Franks, 288; Miss Bell, 288; Common Motions of the Principal Ursæ Majoris Stars, Dr. Ludendorff, 141; Ob-servations of Variable Stars, Prof. Nijland, 142; Coloured Stars in the Globular Cluster M13, Prof. Barnard, 169; a Group of Red Stars in Sagittarius, Mrs. Fleming, 288; a Group of Red Stars in Sagittarius, Mrs. Fleming, 288; SS Aurigæ (31.1907) an Irregular Variable, Prof. Hartwig, 288; Mercury as an Evening Star, 320; Spectra of Some Spiral Nebulæ and Globular Star Clusters, E. A. Fath, 354; the Birth of Worlds, Prof. A. W. Bickerton, 380; the Variable Star (6.1909) Ursæ Majoris, Prof. Wolf, 410 Stead (J. E., F.R.S.), Simple Method of Illuminating Opaque Objects, 168

- Steam Boilers, Heat Transmission in, 144
 Steel: the Manufacture of Basic Steel, 135; Rapid Methods for the Chemical Analysis of Special Steels, Steel-making Alloys and Graphite, C. M. Johnson, 272
 Steer (Edward J.), Persistent Trail of a Meteor on March
- 14 248
- Stein (Dr. M. A.), Geographical and Archaeological Ex-plorations in Chinese Turkestan in 1906-8, 47 Stephenson (J.), Osmotic Pressures of Weak Solutions of
- Calcium Ferrocyanide, 28
- Stern (J. G. L.), Application of the Platinum Resistance Thermometer to the Determination of Molecular Weights in Fused Potassium Nitrate as a Solvent, 168
- Stodel (G.), Sterilisation of Milk by the Ultra-violet Rays, 60
- Stœcklin (E. de), Oxidation of the Polyhydric Alcohols by a Peroxydasic System, 449
- Stoney (Dr. Bindon Blood, F.R.S.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 315 Stopes (Marie C.), Plant-containing Nodules from Japan,
- 119

- Stopes (Dr. Marie), the Tent-building Habits of the Ant Lasius niger, Linn., 388 Storie (G. B.), Steam Plant Trials at the Greenvale Mill,
- Littleborough, 50
- Störring (Dr. Gustav), Mental Pathology in its Relation to Normal Psychology, a Course of Lectures delivered in
- the University of Leipzig, 216 Strahan (Dr. A., F.R.S.), "Blowing" Wells, 370 Strange and Graham, Ltd. (Messrs.), a Process of Making Ribbon Metals, 348 Stromeyer (C. E.), Ageing of Mild Steel and the Influence
- of Nitrogen, 385 Stroobant (Prof.), Diameter and Position of Mercury, 200 Structural Geography, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 157;
- the Reviewer, 157 Structures, the Theory and Design of, Ewart S. Andrews, 64
- Strutt (Hon. R. J., F.R.S.), Leakage of Helium from Radio-active Minerals, 147; a Direct Estimate of the Minimum Age of Thorianite, 308
 Stubbs (F.), Use of Wind by Migrating Birds, 120

- Sudan, Handbook for Egypt and the, 155 Sudan, Third Report of the Wellcome Research Laboratories at the Gordon Memorial College, Khartoum, Andrew Balfour, 495
- Suess (E.), the Face of the Earth, 91
- Sugar-canes, Importation of, Regulations for British Guiana, 286
- Summer Season Time Bill, the, 45
- Sumier Season Time Bill, the, 35 Sun: the Constitution of the Sun, J. F. Hermann Schulz, 51; M. A. Amaftounsky, 51; the Rotation of the Sun, Prof. W. S. Adams, 141; Pressure in the Sun's Atmo-sphere, MM. Fabry and Buisson, 229; Partial Eclipse of the Sun in Canada, Dr. Downing, 320; Changes 'n the Figure and Dimensions of the Sun, Prof. Moulton, 439
- Sun-spots, the Levels of, A. W. Dobbie, 19
- Sun-spots and Solar Temperature, Mr. Evershed, 169
- Sunset Playgrounds: Fishing Days and Others in California and Canada, F, G. Aflalo, 431
 Surveying: Conference on Roads, 292; Hydrographical Surveying, Rear-Admiral Sir William J. L. Wharton, WCC
- K.C.B., 307
 Swann (W. F. G.), Specific Heat of Air and Carbon Dioxide at Atmospheric Pressure, by the Continuous Electrical Method, at 20° C. and 100° C., 238
 Swiss Flowers, Familiar, F. E. Hulme, 452

- Sy (M.), Comet Tempel₃-Swift, 1908d, 79
 Szyszkowski (Prof. B. de), Radio-activity in Relation to Morozoff's Theory of the Constitution of Atoms, 276

Tabouriech (P. J.), Variety of Organic Iron in Plants, 30

- Tansley (A. G.), Lectures on the Evolution of the Filicinean Vascular System, 391 Tantalum and its Industrial Applications, Alex. Siemens at
- the Royal Institution, 290 Tarsius, the Zoological Position of, Prof. G. Elliot Smith,
- F.R.S., 38 Taylor (Miss A. M.), Two New Parasites of the Black-

- Taylor (Rev. J.), Botanical Discoveries near Dover, 258 Taylor (Rev. J.), Botanical Discoveries near Dover, 258 Taylor (R. L.), Colour Demonstrations of the Dissociating Action of Water, 328
- Tea, the Fertilisation of, George A. Cowie, 385 Teaching of Geometry, the, Prof. George M. Minchin, F.R.S.,
- F.R.S., 373 Technical Colleges, the Functions of, Dr. George T. Beilby,
- Technical Coneges, the Functions of, Dr. George T. Bellby,
 F.R.S., at Association of Technical Institutions, 22
 Technical Education, the Defects of English, and the Remedy, Dr. Robert Pohl at the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions in Huddersfield, 205

- In Technical Institutions in Huddersfield, 205 Technical Institutions, the Association of, 446 Technology: the Manufacture of Paper, R. W. Sindall, 422 Telegraphy: Wireless, Long-distance Messages, 14; an Elementary Manual of Radio-telegraphy and Radio-tele-phony for Students and Operators, Dr. J. A. Fleming, F.R.S., Maurice Solomon, 65; la Telegraphie sans Fil et les Applications pratiques des Ondes électriques, Albert Turnain, Maurice Solomon, 65; Laptbuch der drahtlosen Turpain, Maurice Solomon, 65; Jahrbuch der drahtlosen Telegraphie und Telephonie, Maurice Solomon, 65;

Transatlantic Wireless Telegraphy, Commendatore G. Marconi at Royal Institution, 233, 264; Selective Wireless Telegraphy, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 381; New Wave Detector for Wireless Telegraphy and Telephony, G. E. Petit, 509

- Teleology: Design in Nature, Dr. J. Bell Pettigrew, F.R.S., 151 Telephony : Influence of Terminal Apparatus on Telephonic
- Transmission, Louis Cohen, 18; Constitution of Sub-terranean Telephone Circuits in Large Towns, M. Devaux-Charbonnel, 29; an Elementary Manual of Radiotelegraphy and Radio-telephony for Students and Opera-tors, Dr. J. A. Fleming, F.R.S., Maurice Solomon, 65; Jahrbuch der drahtlosen Telegraphie und Telephonie, Maurice Solomon, 65; New Wave Detector for Wireless Telegraphy and Telephony, G. E. Petit, 509
- Telescope, the Surface of Rotating Mercury as a Reflect-
- Telescope, the Surface of Rotating Mercury as a Reflecting, Prof. R. W. Wood, 141
 Tempel₃-Swift, Observations of Comet, Prof. Barnard, 10; MM. Rambaud and Sy, 79
 Temperature of the Upper Atmosphere, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 127, 397; W. H. Dines, F.R.S., 455; Charles J. P. Cave, 456
 Temperatures, Upper Air, E. Gold, 217
 Temples, the Uses and Dates of Ancient, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 340
 Termiten oder weissen Ameisen, die, K. Escherich, 245

- Termiten oder weissen Ameisen, die, K. Escherich, 245 Terrestrial Magnetism : the Norwegian Aurora Polaris Expedition, 1902–3, Vol. i., on the Cause of Magnetic Storms and the Origin of Terrestrial Magnetism, Kr. Birkeland, 410
- Textiles : the Structure of the Wool Fibre and its Relation to the Use of Wool for Technical Purposes, Dr. F. H. Bowman, Prof. Walter M. Gardner, 4
- Therapeutics: the Treatment of Nævus by Electrolysis and Radium Combined, Fouveau de Courmelles, 480

- Thermometers, Charlottenburg Sensitivity Tests of, 49 Thienemann (Dr.), Marked Storks and Swallows, 295 Thiselton-Dyer (Sir W. T.), Experiments with Cyclamen
- Thiseton-Dyer (Sh W. 1.), Experiments with Cyclanier Seedlings, 349
 Thomas (H. H.), Petrography of the New Red Sandstone in the West of England, 147
 Thompson (Beeby), "Blowing" Wells, 429
 Thompson (Prof.), New Method of Plotting Currents from Observations of Drifters, 328
 Thompson (Prof. S. P.), Self-demagnetising Factor of Bar Magneta 87

- Magnets, 87 Thomsen (Prof. Julius), Death and Obituary Notice of,
- M. M. Pattison Muir, 46
- Thomson (Dr. John), Death and Obituary Notice of, 315
- Thomson (Mr.), Early Civilisation in Northern Greece, 437
- Thonner (Franz), die Blütenpflanzen Afrikas, 333
- Thorianite, a Direct Estimate of the Minimum Age of, Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 308 Thornton (W. M.), Measurement of Dielectric Constants
- by the Oscillations of Ellipsoids and Cylinders in a Field
- of Force, 86 Thornycroft (Sir John I., F.R.S.), Hydroplanes or Skimmers, 107
- Thorpe (Dr. T. E., C.B., F.R.S.), Scientific Societies and the Admission of Women Fellows, 67
- Thresh (Dr. J. C.), the Water Supply of Kent, with Records
- Thurston (E.), Native Man in Southern India, 257 Thurston (E.), Native Man in Southern India, 257 Tidal Friction and Cosmogony, Scientific Papers, Vol. ii., Sir George Howard Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 421
- Tides, Manual of, Rollin A. Harris, 91
- Tierkunde, Leitfaden der, für höhere Lehranstalten, K. Smalian, 367 Tierra del Fuego, the Birds of, Richard Crawshay, 155 Timber, J. R. Baterden, 94 Titchener (Prof. E. B.), Lectures on the Elementary

- Psychology of Feeling and Attention, 245 onks (F. J.), Determination of Tungstic Acid in Low-
- Tonks (F.
- grade Wolfram Ores, 388 Torres Straits, Reports of the Cambridge Anthropological Expedition to, Vol. vi., Sociology, Magic, and Religion of the Eastern Islanders, 9
- Tortugas, Marine Biology in the, 382
- Toula (Franz), die Acanthi jus-Schichten im Randgebirge der Wiener Bucht, 262

- Touplain (F.), the Diastases of Milk, 270 Toxicology: the Gypsy Poison Drab, J. Myers, 77; the Poisons of the Pharmacy Act, C. Simmonds, 191; Strophanthus sarmentosus, its Pharmacological Action and Use as an Arrow-poison, Sir Thomas Fraser and Dr. A. P. Mackenzie, 328
- Toynbee (Captain Henry), Death and Obituary Notice of, 256
- Tozer (Rev. Eustace), Method of Mounting Rotifers and Protista in Canada Balsam, 225
- Transatlantic Wireless Telegraphy, Commendatore G. Marconi at Royal Institution, 233, 264 Transformers for Single and Multiphase Currents, Prof.
- Gisbert Kapp, 365 Transpiration, Molecular Effusion and, Martin Knudsen,
- 491
- Trees: a Handbook of Forest-botany for the Woodlands
- and the Laboratory, Prof. H. Marshall Ward, 126 Trees shown to the Children, Janet Harvey Kelman and

- Trees shown to the Children, Janet Harvey Reinan and C. E. Smith, 192 Trentham (W. H.), Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal, 5 Trillat (M.), Action of Iron on Wine, 150 True (Dr. F. W.), South American Fossil Cetacea, 444 Trypanosomes : Probleme der Protistenkunde, (1) die Try-panosomen ihre Bedeutung für Zoologie, Medizin und Kolonialwirtschaft, Prof. F. Döflein, 489 Tsakalotos (D. E.), Theory of Organic Bases according to the Viscosity of their Solutions, 390
- the Viscosity of their Solutions, 390 Tschirch (Prof. A.), Handbuch der Pharmakognosie, 3 Tsetse-fly, Another Fossil, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 128 Tuberculosis : Evacuation of Tubercle Bacilli by the Bile

- in the Intestine in Animals affected with Latent Lesions, A. Calmette and C. Guérin, 89; the Intra-dermo-reaction to Tuberculin in the Treatment of Tuberculosis, Charles Mantoux, 240 Tucker (W. S.), High-potential Primary Battery, 148 Tufts (Prof. F. L.), Death of, 224

- Turner (F.), Economic Value of Australian Pasture Grasses, 139
- Turner (J. E. C.), Germination of Myrabolan Seedlings, 258 Turner (W.), Roman Metal-work Found at Deep Dale Cave, 198
- Turpain (Albert), la Télégraphie sans Fil et les Applications pratiques des Ondes électriques, 65 Turrentine (J. W.), New Electrode for Electrolytic Deter-
- mination of Metals, 470 Tutton (Dr. A. E. H.), a Wave-length Comparator for Standards of Length, 477; the Use of Wave-length Rul-ings as Defining Lines on Standards of Length, 478
- Twort (F. W.), Influence of Glucosides on Growth of Acidfast Bacilli, 58 Tyler (Dr. J. M.), Man in the Light of Evolution, 275

- Uniformity in Mathematical Notation and Printing, 102 United States : Darwin Celebrations in the, 72 ; Higher Education in the United States, 112; the United States Naval Observatory, 170; United States Magnetic Tables and Magnetic Charts for 1905, Department of Commerce and Labour, Coast and Geodetic Survey, L. A. Bauer, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 293; Water Power in the United States, 494
- Universities : University and Educational Intelligence, 26, Universities: University and Educational Intelligence, 26, 55, 85, 117, 146, 177, 208, 237, 267, 295, 326, 357, 386, 418, 448, 476, 508; Functions of a University, Prof. C. Lloyd Morgan, F.R.S., 176; the Reform of Oxford University, 311; Reform at Cambridge, 345; the New Institute of Physiology at University College, London, 503
 Unthank (H. W.), Unusual Condition of Nasal Bones in Spheroden 60.
- Sphenodon, 69 Unwin (Rev. P. W.), Practical Solid Geometry, 305
- Uranium, the y Rays of, Frederick Soddy and Alexander
- S. Russell, 7 Uranium X, the Rays of, Frederick Soddy, 37 Uranium, Production of Radium from, Frederick Soddy, 308
- Ursæ Majoris Stars, Common Motions of the Principal, Dr. Ludendorff, 141
- Ursæ Majoris, the Variable Star 6.1909, Prof. Wolf, 410

- Valdivia Expedition, the, 486 Valency, the Theory of, Dr. J. Newton Friend, 395 Vapour-density and Smell, Dr. E. P. Perman, 369; Dr.
- Alex. Hill, 427 Variable Stars: Observations of Variable Stars, Prof. Nijland, 142; SS Aurigæ (31.1907) an Irregular Variable, Prof. Hartwig, 288; Variable Star 6.1909, Ursæ Majoris, Prof. Wolf, 410
- Vascular System, Lectures on the Evolution of the Fili-cinean, A. G. Tansley, 391
- Vatican Observatory, the, 200
- Vegard (L.), Ionisation with γ Rays, 328 Ventilation : Report of the Departmental Committee on Humidity and Ventilation in Cotton-weaving Sheds, 101; Ventilation for Dwellings, Rural Schools and Stables, F. H. King, 127 Vernon (Dr. H. M.), the Production of Prolonged Apnœa
- in Man, 39 Vertebrate Development, 271
- Vertebrates, the Origin of, Dr. Walter Holbrook Gaskell, F.R.S., 301 "Vertebrates," Gaskell's "Origin of," Dr. W. H. Gaskell,
- F.R.S., 428 Vesuvius, the Eruption of, of April, 1906, Dr. Johnston-
- Lavis, 289
- Vignon (Leo), Colouring and Tinctorial Properties of Picric Acid, 180; Colouring Properties of Lead Chromate, 390;
- Experiments in Relation to the Theory of Dyeing, 472 Vinci (Leonardo da) and Geography, Prof. Dr. Eugen Oberhummer, 351
- Vivisection Controversy, the, Dr. Albert Leffingwell, 63 Voisin (Gabriel), Award of the Osiris Prize to, 499
- Voisin (Gabriel), Award of the Osiris Prize to, 499 Volcanoes : Ngauruhoe Volcano, New Zealand, in Eruption, 75; Death and Obituary Notice of Rev. Dr. Sereno E. Bishop, 164; Volcanic Island near Bogloslof, Alaska. Capt. F. M. Munger, 226; the Eruption of Vesuvius of April, 1906, Dr. Johnston-Lavis, 289; the Guatemalan Earthquakes and Eruption of 1902, W. S. Ascoli, 359 Wällseruchologia aing Untergubung day Entriciclum 1998
- Völkerpsychologie, eine Untersuchung der Entwicklungsge-setze von Sprache, Mythus und Sitte, Wilhelm Wundt, Rev. A. E. Crawley, 334 Vortices, Hale's Solar, A. Brester, 79 Vulquin (E.), Oxidation of the Polyhydric Alcohols by a
- Peroxydasic System, 449
- Wace (Mr.), Early Civilisation in Northern Greece, 437 Wade (Mr.), a Double-image Cœlostat for Determining the
- Moon's Position, 468 Wagenen (H. R. Van), Tungsten, 439 Wahl (A.), a New Isomeride of Indigo, 149

- Waidner (W.), Melting Point of Platinum, 329 Walcott (Dr. C. D.), Scientific Work of the Smithsonian
- Institution, 114 Walker (A. O.), Amphipoda Hyperiidea of the Sealark Expedition to the Indian Ocean, 269
- Walker (Gilbert, F.R.S.), Correlation in Seasonal Variation
- Walter (Onote), 167
 Walter (Dr. A. D.), Effect of Heat upon the Electrical State of Living Tissues, 58
 Ward (Prof. H. Marshall), Trees: a Handbook of Forest-botany for the Woodlands and the Laboratory, 126
- Ward (John J.), Life-histories of Familiar Plants, 344:
- the Pollination of the Primrose, 457 Warren (Dr. Ernest), Variability of the Six Castes of South African White-ants or Termites, 264
- Washbourn (Dr. J. W.), a Manual of Infectious Diseases,
- 454 Washington, the Carnegie Institution of, 142 Water Analysis, Laboratory Notes on Industrial, a Survey Course for Engineers, Ellen H. Richards, 215
- Water Power in the United States, 494 Water Supply of Kent, the, with Records of Sinkings and Borings, William Whitaker, F.R.S., Dr. H. Franklin Parsons, Dr. H. R. Mill, and Dr. J. C. Thresh, 432 Waterways, American and Canadian, 461 Waterways, Artificial, and Commercial Development (with a History of the Frie Canal) Dr. A. Baston Horbert
- a History of the Erie Canal), Dr. A. Barton Hepburn,
- 307 Watson (H. E.), Wave-lengths of Lines in the Secondary Spectrum of Hydrogen, 86

- Watson (J. B.), Colour-vision in Monkeys, 435 Wave Motion and Bessel's Functions, Prof. G. H. Bryan,
- Weive Information and Desser's Functional Free Free States
 Weinelt (Dr. A.), Measurement of the Energy of Negative Electrons given out by Metals heated in a Vacuum, 258
 Weigall (A. E. P.), the Tomb of Horemheb, Egypt, 437
 Weights and Measures : British and American Customary
- and Metric Legal Measures for Commercial and Technical
- Purposes, N. Foley, 367 Weiss (Prof. F. E.), Submerged Vegetation of Lake Windermere as affecting the Feeding Grounds of the Fish, 120
- Wellcome Research Laboratories at the Gordon Memorial College, Khartoum, Third Report of the, Andrew Balfour, 495
- Wellman (Dr. F. Creighton), Angolan Oil-beetles (Meloidæ), 263
- Wells, "Blowing," Sydney H. Long, 339; Dr. A. Strahan, Weish Gorsedd, the, Rev. W. Griffith, 468 Werkstatt grosser Forscher, Aus der, Dr. Friedrich Danne-

- mann, 182 West (W. and G. S.), Fresh-water Algæ from Burma, in-
- cluding a few from Bengal and Madras, 125 West Indies, Cotton Growing in the, West Indian Bulletin, the Journal of the Imperial Agricultural Department for the West Indies, 164 Westell (W. Percival), the Story of the Sea and the Sea-
- shore, 129; Animals at Home, 192

- shore, 129; Animals at Home, 192 Western Teaching for China, Dr. Henry Dyer, 99 Westphal (W.), Properties of Doubly-charged Ions, 287 Whales, Length of Skeletons of Great, F. A. Lucas, 104 Whaling: Hunting the Hump-backed Whale in Natal Waters, H. W. Bell-Marley, 16 Wharton (Rear-Admiral Sir William J. L., K.C.B.), Hydro-
- graphical Surveying, 307 Wheat Problem, Some Aspects of the, Dr. E. J. Russell,
- 282
- Wheldale (Miss M.), Anthocyanin, 328 Whiddington (R.), Fatigue Effects of the Kathode in a Discharge Tube, 420
- Whitaker (William, F.R.S.), the Water Supply of Kent, with Records of Sinkings and Borings, 43² White (Jean), Ferments and Latent Life of Resting Seeds,
- 118
- White (Sir Wm.), Types of Warships omitted in Recent Programmes of Naval Construction, 172
- Wieland (G. R.), Cycadeoidea etrusca in Bologna, 261 Wilde Lecture at Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, the Influence of Moisture on Chemical Change, Dr. H. Brereton Baker, F.R.S., 175 Wilde (Dr. H.), Moving Force of Terrestrial and Celestial
- Bodies in Relation to the Attraction of Gravitation,
- Wilder (Prof. B. G.), Brains of Two White Philosophers and of Two Obscure Negroes Compared, 443 Wilkinson (W. Fischer), Valuation of Mining Arcas on the
- Rand, 299
- Willey (Dr. Arthur, F.R.S.), Morphology of the Enteropneusta, 218; Forms, Markings, and Attitudes in Animal
- and Plant Life, 247 Williams (G. B.), Mean Annual Rainfall of Wales and
- Williams (G. B.), Mean Annual Kannan of Wales and Monmouthshire, 106
 Wilson (Prof. H. A., F.R.S.), Statistical Theory of the Form of the Curve of Oscillation for the Radiation Emitted by a Black Body, 57; Attempt to Detect Some Electro-optical Effects, 118; the Electrical Properties of Flame, Lecture at Royal Institution, 143
- Wilson (Prof. James), the Scandinavian Origin of the Hornless Cattle of the British Isles, 179 Wilson (J. Gordon), the Nerves of the Atrio-ventricular
- Bundle, 27
- Wilton (David W.), Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of the S.Y. Scotia during the Years 1902, 1903, and 1904, under the Leadership of Dr. William S. Bruce, Vol. iv., Zoology, Part i., Zoological Log, 161 Wimperis (H. E.), the Internal Combustion Engine, 124
- Winkler (Dr. Hans), Parthenogenesis und Apogamie im Pflanzenreiche, 61
- Winkler (Prof. H.), Vegetative Cross between Nightshade and Tomato, 436

Winnecke's Comet, 1909, Elements and Ephemeris for, Prof. Hillebrand, 502

- Winniceke Sobner, 1969, 1969, acceleration and Exploritents 164, Prof. Hillebrand, 502
 Winnipeg Meeting, British Association, 159, 432; Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 159
 Winter Retreat, a, Prof. John G. McKendrick, F.R.S., 8
 Winter Retreat for Snails, a, W. Hoskyns-Abrahall, 96
 Wireless Telegraphy : Long-distance Messages, 14; an Elementary Manual of Radio-telegraphy and Radio-telephony for Students and Operators, Dr. J. A. Fleming, F.R.S., Maurice Solomon, 65; la Télégraphie sans Fil et les Applications pratiques des Ondes électriques, Albert Turpain, Maurice Solomon, 65; Jahrbuch der drahtlosen Telegraphie und Telephonie, Maurice Solomon, 65; Transatlantic, Wireless Telegraphy, Commendatore G. Marconi at Royal Institution, 233, 264; Selective Wireless Telegraphy, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 381; New Wave Detector for Wireless Telegraphy and Telephony, G. E. Petit, 509
- Petit, 500
 Wireless Telephony: an Elementary Manual of Radio-telegraphy and Radio-telephony for Students and Oper-ators, Dr. J. A. Fleming, F.R.S., Maurice Solomon, 65; Jahrbuch der drahtlosen Telegraphie und Telephonie,
- 65; Jahrbuch der drahtlosen Telegraphie und Telephonie, Maurice Solomon, 65; New Wave-detector for Wireless Telegraphy and Telephony, G. E. Petit, 509
 Wolf (Prof.), a New "Cave-nebula " in Cepheus; 10; the Spectra of Various Nebula, 10; Spectra of Nebula, 220; Recent Observations of Daniel's Comet, 1907d, 410; the Variable Star 6,1909, Ursæ Majoris, 410
 Wollaston (A. F. R.), Life and Letters of Prof. A. Newton; F.R.S., 8
- Women Fellows, Scientific Societies and the Admission of,
- Woner T. E. Thorpe, C.B., F.R.S., 67
 Wood (Prof. R. W.), the Surface of Rotating Mercury as a Reflecting Telescope, 141; Spectroscopic Researches, 508
- Wood (Prof. T. B.), Electrolytes and Colloids, the Physical State of Gluten, 296
- Woodward (C. J.), Priestley and Coulomb's Law, 8
- Woodward (C. J.), Priestley and Coulomb's Law, 8
 Wool Fibre, the Structure of the, and its Relation to the Use of Wool for Technical Purposes, Dr. F. H. Bowman, Prof. Walter M. Gardner, 4
 Workman (W. P.), Geometry, Theoretical and Practical, 7
 Worlds, the Birth of, Prof. A. W. Bickerton, 380
 Wrench (G. T.), the Grammar of Life, 426
 Weight (Arthur) the Arthur Wright Floatrical Davies for

- Wright (Arthur), the Arthur Wright Electrical Device for Evaluating Formula and Solving Equations, 509 Wright (Dr. William), der Unterkieter des Homo Heidel-
- bergensis aus den Sanden von Mauer bei Heidelberg, Otto Schoetensack, 398
- Wroczynski (A.), Chemical Reactions in Gaseous Mixtures submitted to very High Pressures, 479 Wundt (Wilhelm), Völkerpsychologie, eine Untersuchung
- der Entwicklungsgesetze von Sprache, Mythus und
- Sitte, 334 Wye, Kent, the Journal of the South-Eastern Agricultural College, 170

X-rays, the Absorption of, Dr. C. G. Barkla and C. A. Sadler, 37 X-rays, a Want of Symmetry Shown by Secondary, Prof.

W. H. Bragg and J. L. Glasson, 327

X-rays, Transformations of, C. A. Sadler, 327 X-ray Transmission, Phenomena of, C. G. Barkla, 419

Yamanouchi (Dr. S.), Cytology of Fucus, 407 Yeo (Dr. Gerald F., F.R.S.), Death of, 283; Obituary

Notice of, 314 Yorke (Dr. W.), Method of Estimating the Total Volume of Blood Contained in the Living Body, 387

Zambonini (Dr. F.), Identity of Guarinite and Hiortdahlite,178

Zeeman (Prof. P.), Origin of the Colours of the Spectrum, 319

- Zehntner (Dr. Leo), Biologia Centrali-Americana, Orthop-
- tera, Vol. i., 241 Zeleny (Prof. John), Phenomenon Connected with the Discharge of Electricity from Pointed Conductors, with a

Note by, H. T. Barnes and A. N. Shaw, 297 Zell (Dr. T.), Do Animals take Advantage of Experience? 317

Zeppelin's (Count) Ascent, May 29, 405 Zijlstra (Dr. V.), Transport of Carbon Dioxide in Leaves, 379

Zimmern (A.), Resonator Sparks, their Spectroscopic Analysis, 149

Zoology: Experimental Zoology, Dr. Hans Przibram, Dr. Francis H. A. Marshall, 2; Zoological Society, 29, 87, 119, 239, 328, 387, 419; the Zoological Position of Tarsius, Prof. G. Elliot Smith, F.R.S., 38; Carpal Vibrissæ and Underlying Structures on Under-surface of Lower Part of Formation of the Cret De Ferrier of Lower Part of Forearm of the Cat, Dr. F. Fritz, 105; a Treatise on Zoology, Part i., Introduction and Protozoa, 152; the Ancestry of the Marsupialia, Prof. Jas. P. Hill, 150; the Writer of the Note, 159; Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of S.Y. Scotia during the Years 1902, 1903, and 1904, under the Leadership of Dr. Wil-liam S. Bruce, Vol. iv., Zoology, Part L., Zoological Log, David W. Wilton, Dr. J. H. Harvie Pirie, and R. N. Rudmose Brown, Vol. v., Zoology, Invertebrates, 161; Post-embryonal Development of the Amazonian Manati, Carl Dilg, 166; the Scandinavian Origin of the Hornless Cattle of the British Isles, Prof. James Wilson, 179; Development of the Nemertine Worm *Prosorochmus viviparus*, Dr. W. Salensky, 197; Lehrbuch der Zoologie für Studierende, Dr. J. E. V. Boas, 214; the Intra-cranial Vascular System of Sphenodon, Prof. A. Dendy, 268–9; a Student's Text-book of Zoology, Prof. Adam Sedgwick, F.R.S., Vol. iii., the Introduction to Arthro-Sedgwick, F.R.S., Vol. iii., the Introduction to Arthro-poda, the Crustacea and Xiphosura, J. J. Lister, F.R.S., the Insecta and Arachnida, Dr. A. E. Shipley, F.R.S., Prof. G. H. Carpenter, 361; a Treatise on Zoology, Part vii., Third Fascicle, Crustacea, Dr. W. T. Calman, Prof. G. H. Carpenter, 361; Leitfaden der Tierkunde für höhere Lehranstalten, K. Smalian, 367; Anas-pidacea, Geoffrey Smith, 435; Economic Zoology, 447; Probleme der Protistenkunde, i., die Trypanosomen ihre Bedeutung für Zoologie, Medizin und Kolonialwirtschaft, Prof. F. E. Döflein, 489; Rats of Calcutta, Captain R. E. Lloyd, 499; Aquarium of the New York Zoological Society, 500 Society, 500



A WEEKLY ILLUSTRATED JOURNAL OF SCIENCE.

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

THURSDAY, MARCH 4, 1909.

ASPECTS OF MODERN SCIENCE. Science in Modern Life. By several authors. Edited by Prof. J. R. Ainsworth Davis. Vol. i. Pp. xvi+ 188. Vol. ii. Pp. viii+187. (London: Gresham

Publishing Co., 1908.) Price, each volume, 6s. net. I T is intended in this work, which will be completed in six super-royal octavo volumes, to survey the whole ground of science in its modern developments and aspects, and to present the results in language capable of being comprehended by lay readers. "Briefly," the prospectus states, "its aim is to give a connected account of present-day science, with special reference to its influence on modern life." A number of illustrations in the text, and many full-page plates—some in black-and-white, and others in colour—add to the interest and attractiveness of the work.

In the first volume, Mr. A. C. D. Crommelin deals with astronomy, and Mr. O. T. Jones with geology. In some respects the treatment of both subjects is reminiscent of text-book style. There can, indeed, be little difference between a good text-book and a work of this character : the fault of both, from the point of view of the average reader, is that of attempting too much. The student desires conciseness and comprehensiveness in his science manuals, but for the general reader these qualities should be subservient to that of lofty and stimulating thought. Unless this is borne in mind, a work upon any branch of science must become chiefly a catalogue of facts and theories no more interesting than a Hebrew genealogy.

The opening volume cannot claim a high place as an apostolic statement of the scientific spirit, or as a work distinguished by scope or style from a multitude of others. It is, however, an accurate and orderly record of the chief results of scientific inquiry in the domains of astronomy and geology; and as such it should achieve success. Mr. Crommelin devotes more attention to modern problems of astronomy than is usually the case, and has managed to compress a large amount of information in the seventy-one pages

taken up by his section of the volume. Readers acquainted with the principles of physics will follow with interest the work described, but without this knowledge some parts will be unintelligible. For instance, about a dozen lines are devoted to the spectroscope and spectroheliograph; and it is obvious that unless the reader knows something more about these instruments, clear ideas as to the meaning of the results obtained by them can scarcely be anticipated. Mr. Jones begins with denudation and deposition, and passes to earth movements and igneous and metamorphic rocks, and cycle of denudation; he then indicates how the geographies of past ages can be reconstructed, and describes the changes and characteristics of the various periods. A good series of fullpage maps, and a coloured geological map of the British Isles, are valuable aids to the study of the text.

The second volume contains the conclusion of Mr. Jones's treatment of geology, a contribution on chemistry by Mr. J. P. Millington, and one on physics is commenced by Mr. J. H. Shaxby. As Mr. Millington has essayed to present the most prominent points of organic, inorganic, and industrial chemistry in about 40,000 words, his task has been a difficult one, but his performance of it is very creditable. Whether the significance of some of the statements made-particularly in the treatment of organic chemistry-will be understood without a preliminary study of the subject must be left to individual experience to decide. The noteworthy characteristic of Mr. Shaxby's chapters on measurement, motion, properties of matter and heat, and, indeed, of the greater part of the work, is the attention given to modern research and thought.

In a work by several authors, equality of treatment and the ability to distinguish between the essential and unessential can rarely be secured from all contributors; and no greater success in this direction can reasonably be hoped for than that realised in the present volumes. At the same time, we may remark that the three sections so far completed differ from each other in scope and style; one suggests the text-book, another is too systematic to be of

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

interest, and the third is difficult to follow in parts except by readers having some acquaintance with the subject. Probably the work will be best read Experimental

the subject. Probably the work will be best read and appreciated by readers who have already acquired a rudimentary knowledge of scientific principles and desire to know something of the problems and positions of branches of natural knowledge beyond the boundary of their own experience.

A sectional model of the frog, showing the external and internal parts of the animal, and its development from the fertilised egg to the stage in which the tail of the tadpole has nearly disappeared and the hind- and fore-legs are present, is presented with the second volume. The model should be of assistance in suggesting instructive observations to the student or teacher of natural history.

When the work is completed it will form a very useful compendium of pure and applied science, and should find a place on the shelves of many libraries. The editor is to be congratulated upon the plan, and the publishers upon the attractive form in which they have executed it.

THE EXPERIMENTAL METHOD IN ZOOLOGICAL RESEARCH.

Experimental Zoology. Part i., Embryogeny: an Account of the Laws governing the Development of the Animal Egg as ascertained through Experiment. By Dr. Hans Przibram. Pp. viii+124; 16 plates. (Cambridge: University Press, 1908.) Price 7s. 6d. net.

THE publication of a new work on experimental zoology is a sign of the times. Until comparatively lately the experimental method was not widely adopted in the pursuit of zoological inquiry. The morphologist, as a general rule, confined his attention to the form and structure of animals and the changes through which these pass in the progress of individual development, without regard to the different ways in which form and structure arise in embryogeny and the forces which control the modes of growth.

The founding of the Archiv für Entwickelungsmechanik was a new departure in serial zoological literature, and served to emphasise the growing importance of that branch of study which is called developmental mechanics, while the subsequent issue in America of a new journal, The Journal of Experimental Zoology, in which the range of subjects discussed is somewhat more extensive, was a further advance in the recognition of the experimental method as a means of zoological research. Still more recently Prof. T. H. Morgan has published a volume on "Experimental Zoology" in which he deals not only with problems of animal morphology, but with others which are in their essential nature physiological. But physiology, as ordinarily understood, still tends to signify human physiology, and the study of function in the lower forms of life, excepting in so far as it serves directly to elucidate the vital processes of the higher animals, and more particularly

man, remains as yet a much neglected department of biology.

Experimental zoology may be held to comprise all those branches of zoological inquiry, whether morphological or physiological, which are conducted by observation combined with experiment. That the fundamental problems in biology cannot be solved without recourse to the experimental method is a generalisation which zoologists have been a little slow to accept, and the complete absence in this country (and, indeed, in nearly every country) of experiment stations where animals can be kept under constant observation in a natural and healthy environment is a circumstance which contrasts strangely with the comparative wealth of equipment in other branches of observational science. It is greatly to be hoped, therefore, that the appearance of such works as Dr. Hans Przibram's, which is to treat of all departments of experimental zoology, will be the means of compelling greater attention to the pressing needs of this branch of study.

We are told in the preface that the work is to be issued in five parts, each of which is to be complete in itself. The present volume deals with fertilisation and the first development of the individual organism without regard to its origin; the phenomena of regeneration are to be discussed in part ii.; variation and heredity in part iii.; the growth of the developed organism and the relation between the cell nucleus and the cytoplasm in part iv.; while the last volume is to be devoted to general physiological problems, including that of sex. The part now under notice is an English translation by Miss Hertha Sollas of a German edition published last year.

We are informed at the end of the preface that "the author has read the proofs [of the translation] and has made such additions as were necessary to bring it up to date." Nevertheless, we can-not refrain from remarking on the absence of any reference to several not unimportant papers that have appeared in recent years, and in our opinion the first chapter is calculated to convey a wrong impression of the present state of the fertilisation problem. Thus it is recorded that Winkler succeeded in fertilising sea-urchin ova with the extracted juice of spermatozoa, but there is no mention of the subsequent work of Gies (published so long ago as 1001). which showed that Winkler's results were due to osmotic influences, and not to the action of the sperm extract. Gies's interpretation has since been accepted by Loeb, while Pichou's results (published in 1905) were confirmatory of those of Gies. There is at present no experimental evidence that spermatozoa contain specific substances which, when extracted, are capable of fertilising ova. Again, in the italicised conclusion at the end of the first chapter we read that

"the cause which determines the transition of the resting animal egg cell to a state of progressive development must be sought in an acceleration of the vital processes which, even in the resting egg, are always going on."

Loeb, however, has pointed out (1906) that if such a conclusion were correct, normal sea-urchin eggs

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

should segment if kept for a sufficiently long period, and, further, that it ought to be possible to induce segmentation by heat, since heat is known to accelerate chemical reactions, but neither of these results could be obtained. Loeb has suggested, therefore, that the spermatozoon, in conjugating with the ovum, may very possibly remove from the latter a negative catalyser or condition, the presence of which in the ovum somehow inhibits the process of development. Strangely enough, the present work contains no account of Loeb's conclusions in regard to this matter.

Delage's recent paper (1907) is referred to in a couple of lines, but there is no mention of the fact that his latest method of artificially fertilising sea-urchins' eggs differs radically from those employed by Loeb, and consequently there is no reference to the very important conclusions which Delage deduces from his results. Moreover, we should have expected an allusion to the fact that the symmetry of the seaurchins which Delage succeeded in rearing was hexameral instead of pentameral, an observation which seems to us to have an important bearing on recent Mendelian research and teaching. Furthermore, the statement on another page that Delage has described half the ordinary number of chromosomes for parthenogenetic echinoderms is misleading, since this author says distinctly that in such cases the normal number becomes restored by a process of "auto-regulation."

The account given of fertilisation is followed by interesting chapters on egg-structure, mitotic cell division, gastrulation, the mechanism of the development of differentiation, and the influence of external factors. We have no space left in which to criticise these. Although we have not refrained from pointing out certain shortcomings, this does not prevent us from congratulating both author and translator on the production of what is, on the whole, a very useful summary of embryogenetic research.

FRANCIS H. A. MARSHALL.

MODERN PHARMACOGNOSY.

Handbuch der Pharmakognosie. By Prof. A. Tschirch. Parts ii. to viii. (Leipzig: Chr. Herm. Tauchnitz, 1908.) Price 2 marks per part.

THE general scheme of this important work on pharmacognosy having been described in a previous issue of NATURE (vol. 1xxviii., p. 629, October 22, 1908), the manner in which the scheme is being carried out may now be examined.

The bulk of the first four parts, in all about 116 pages, is devoted to "pharmacoergasy," that is, the cultivation, collection, and preparation of drugs. Numerous instances, perhaps not very systematically arranged, of the cultivation of drugs in remote ages are cited, and accounts are given of modern attempts to acclimatise important medicinal plants. The great problem of pharmacoergasy is, according to the author, the determination, not only of the conditions of growth simply, but also of those conditions that most conduce to the formation of valuable constituents, a

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

problem which presents a boundless field for investigation. The irrationality of a number of the processes at present in use for drying drugs is indicated, and suggestions made for their improvement.

The times at which leaves and other organs should be collected are stated in general terms, but doubt may well be expressed whether these are not in several, perhaps many, instances incorrect; at least they have not been sufficiently substantiated either by chemical or biochemical assay. To allude to definite instances, it has recently been well established by the physiological experiments of Dixon supporting the assays of Fromme that the first year's leaves of the foxglove are practically of equal value with the second year's, although Prof. Tschirch would reject them as worthless. Chemical assay has also demonstrated the practical equality of the first and second year's henbane leaves, and probably also those of the annual plant were the leaves only of the latter collected and properly dried. Even the best period for the collection of aconite and belladonna cannot yet be regarded as firmly established. Schroff may well have been the first to indicate the time at which hemlock fruits should be gathered, but the admirable researches of Farr and Wright determined the point definitely by analysis.

In this section enzymes and their influence are considered, though perhaps more emphasis might be laid on their prejudicial action, and on the means now generally advocated and adopted for obviating it. A most comprehensive list of the plants cultivated in Europe and the United States is included in this part of the work, as well as a chapter on the collection of drugs, well illustrated by a number of photographs. The preparation of drugs is discussed at some length, and consists practically of well-known processes which are commonly given under each drug, but are here collected together.

Part iv. deals with "pharmacoemporia," or the commerce in drugs, a section of pharmacognosy which has until lately been only too much neglected, though of the greatest interest. Here the various routes that commerce between the East and the West has taken from ancient to modern times are briefly, though not too lucidly, traced and explained by three maps. Excellent accounts are given of the drug sales in London, Hamburg, and Amsterdam, those in London being accompanied by several illustrations identical with those first published in the *Pharmaceutical Journal* by Mr. Heap, an acknowledgment for which has doubtless escaped the author. Photographs of the most important harbours of the world illustrate this section of the work.

The commercial varieties of drugs and the packages in which they are exported form the chief subject of part v. In part vi, the advantages and disadvantages of the various pharmacognostical systems of classification that have from time to time been proposed are fully discussed, the author being in favour of one based upon the chemical relationships of the chief constituents, though he admits that such a system is at present impracticable, as the constitution of so few of the constituents is sufficiently well known. For all teachers of pharmacognosy the chapter on instruction in the science will probably possess the greatest interest; it certainly deserves to be most carefully studied, as it is replete with stimulating suggestions. Most welcome will also be the abundant literary references, constituting the first bibliography of pharmacognosy.

Pharmacozoology is very briefly dealt with, and stands in sharp contrast with the rest of the work. Considering the success that has attended the development in recent years of organotherapy, it is difficult to understand why such widely used parts of animals as the thyroid gland, suprarenal capsule, &c., and such products of animals as pepsin, pancreatin, wool fat, &c., have been excluded from the animal drugs enumerated by the author.

All the parts of the handbook that have appeared are most profusely illustrated, and Prof. Tschirch must be congratulated on the excellence of his work.

HENRY G. GREENISH.

SCIENCE IN THE TEXTILE INDUSTRIES.

The Structure of the Wool Fibre and its Relation to the Use of Wool for Technical Purposes. By Dr. F. H. Bowman. Pp. xx+475; with many coloured and other illustrations. (London: Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1908.) Price 8s. 6d. net.

THIS is a companion volume to the one on "The Structure of the Cotton Fibre," which was reviewed in these columns in July, 1908, and is to be followed by a third volume dealing with the silk fibre. The subject-matter is treated in a very thorough manner, commencing with a description of the structure of the skin and the genesis of the hair or wool fibre which clearly indicates the mode of its subsequent development. The physical structure of the fibre determines its behaviour during the various mechanical processes of spinning and weaving; and this important point is well brought out in the valuable and interesting portion of the book devoted to it.

Thirty-two distinct varieties of sheep are described, of which four are inhabitants of Europe, fifteen of Asia, eleven of Africa, and two of America; but there appear to be at least thirty-one subvarieties of the common sheep (*Ovis aries*), some of which differ to a greater extent than certain sheep which are regarded as distinct varieties. It is considered probable that all varieties were originally derived from two—the long- and the short-tailed sheep—both of which in the wild state grow an outer covering of hair and a softer, finer inner covering of wool, the latter increasing and the former being gradually eliminated by domestication.

The domestic sheep was first produced in Asia, and spread thence to Europe with advancing civilisation, its introduction into Greece being probably enshrined in the legend of the golden fleece.

The scientific breeding of sheep was first systematically carried out in England, but is now practised in all the important sheep-rearing countries. In this connection it is interesting to note the effect of the frozen-meat trade on the production of wool. Before the introduction of cold-storage transit, the carcase of the sheep at the Antipodes was of much less value than it is to-day. Sheep farmers therefore confined their attention to breeding for wool, but now have to pay more regard to the production of good mutton, the fleece being relatively less important.

In dealing with the question of sheep-dips, which are necessary on account of the parasites which infect all animals with a hairy or woolly covering, the author very properly condemns all compositions containing tar, or lime and sulphur, and advocates arsenical dips. The important question of the preparation of wool for the market receives, as it deserves, full attention, and the recommendations of the Wool Trade Committee of the Bradford Chamber of Commerce are given in full. Briefly, the trouble is caused by the presence of vegetable matter in wool, which may arise from want of care in packing or lack of cleanliness in the shearing house. The importance of this matter arises from the fact that the vegetable matter may accompany wool fibre throughout the whole of the manufacturing operations, and, on account of its very differing dyeing properties, may greatly detract from the appearance of the finished material even when present in very small amount.

The investigation of the mechanical structure of the wool fibre is traced back by the author to 1664, in which year a Dr. Hook read a paper before the Royal Society on the structure of various hairs, but, of course, the power of his microscope was very limited. About 1690 Leeuwenhoek published several illustrations of the microscopical structure of wool, and in 1742 H. Baker also read a paper on the subject before the Royal Society; but a Mr. Youatt, in 1835, using a compound microscope with a magnification of 300 diameters, claimed to have been the first to discover the true nature of the surface of the wool fibre.

The author of the present volume was, however, the first to make a systematic and comparative study of the microscopic structure of wools of various origin and at various stages of growth, and his illustrations, which are reproduced in the book, have for many years been considered as standards, and have been reproduced in most text-books dealing with wool manufacture or dyeing.

. The description of the chemical nature and properties of wool is not so exhaustive or quite as satisfactory as that portion of the book dealing with the mechanical structure, but the chapter on the strength and testing of worsted yarns is excellent, and emphasises the importance of spinners and manufacturers making full use of such scientific aids as are now available.

The chapter on the theory of dyeing and colour is the least satisfactory in the book, and the excellent coloured diagrams represent the only feature which warrants inclusion.

The book is one of considerable importance, and will doubtless take the position of a standard work in the libraries of all connected with the textile industries.

WALTER M. GARDNER.

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

MARCH 4, 1909]

- TREATMENT AND DISPOSAL OF SEWAGE.
 (1) Principles of Sewage Treatment. By Prof. Dunbar. Translated by Dr. H. T. Calvert. Pp. xxiii+271. (London: Charles Griffin and Co., Ltd.) Price 15s. net.
- (2) Sewer Construction. By Prof. Henry N. Ogden. Pp. xii+335. (New York : John Wiley and Sons; London : Chapman and Hall, Ltd., 1908.) Price 125. 6d. net.
- (3) Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal. By W. H. Trentham and J. Saunders. (London: Sanitary Publishing Co., Ltd., 1909.) Pp. viii+60. Price 2s. 6d. net.

(1) THE development of the investigation into sewage purification has proceeded on different lines in England and Germany, owing largely to the fact that practical necessities have compelled English towns to attempt some measure of purification in the absence of complete scientific information, whereas it has been possible in Germany to devote, in the first place, more attention to the theoretical aspect of the problem.

The author of this book is one of the foremost among German investigators, and consequently it cannot fail to be received with interest by those engaged in the problem of sewage purification in England; it fills a place in the literature of the subject, the requirements of which no existing work completely satisfies.

Presumably the favourable situation of many Continental towns in regard to the discharge of sewage into rivers of relatively large volume is responsible for the fact that the theory of sedimentation and technique of screening has received more attention in Germany than in England, as in certain cases thorough screening or efficient sedimentation of the sewage is all the prevailing conditions require. Where further biological treatment is necessary, it is doubtful, however, whether any elaborate screening device can be considered economical.

On pp. 47 to 59 a series of interesting and ingenious methods for screening sewage is described, and, later, valuable experiments of several German investigators are quoted with regard to the effect of varying rates of flow on the deposition of the suspended solids.

The author's conclusions in regard to the design of sewage sedimentation tanks, viz. that shallow tanks of simple construction are, as a rule, preferable to tanks of great depth, will doubtless meet with general approval.

When dealing with septic tanks the author's conclusion is that preliminary anaërobic treatment, so far from being beneficial, is actually detrimental to subsequent filtration, and he supports this conclusion by the statement that organic matter can be nitrified without the preliminary production of ammonia.

In view of the fundamental importance of this latter point, and that the author's results are not in accordance with those of Adeney, Boulanger and Massol, and other workers, it is disappointing that particular experiments are not given or specific references quoted. It may be here mentioned that the value of the extensive bibliography given at the commencement of the book is very considerably diminished by reason of the fact that no reference is made to the text of the book, and in the majority of the cases the subjecttitle is omitted; this is true for all references to the author's own publications.

The absorption theory of sewage purification, which is now generally accepted as affording the most rational explanation of one of the important phases in the biological purification of sewage, is very thoroughly dealt with on pp. 140 to 149, although the experiment given previously in regard to the time of passage of sewage through a filter cannot, on account of insufficient data, be considered conclusive. W. Clifford' has shown in a thorough manner that this question is dependent on the following factors :---(1) Rate of application of sewage; (2) depth of filter; and (3) interstitial water, which is determined by the size and character of filtering material. As an example of what may occur in a fine-grade filter he found, when liquid was applied at the rate of 200 gallons per sq. yard to a filter 3 feet deep, composed of clean clinker 1 inch to 3 inch size, the average time of percolation was rather more than three hours.

The chapter on contact beds is, in the opinion of the reviewer, one of the most valuable sections of the book, as it contains a series of interesting and complete experiments, the results of which help in the elucidation of the purification changes effected.

In view of the fact that the author appears to be in favour of complete aërobic treatment, it is somewhat surprising to find that Dibdin's slate filters are dismissed as irrational, although their object is to retain the suspended solids in such a manner that aërobic decomposition may be effective.

In general, the author favours the adoption of percolating filters, but in stating their disadvantages he omits the question of production of flies and increased fungoid growth, attendant on certain types of these filters. The use of a carefully graded layer of fine material on the surface of a filter, as a means of distribution, as recommended by the author, is supported by a considerable body of experience, both in this country and on the Continent.

Dr. Calvert is to be congratulated upon an admirable translation.

(2) A course of lectures given by the author in the College of Civil Engineering, Cornell University, forms the basis of this book, which is published as a continuation of a previous work of the author's on "Sewer Design."

Outstanding features of the book are the large number of well-produced diagrams and drawings, illustrative of a great variety of constructional work carried out in various towns in America, and the numerous references, which the engineering student will find very useful.

In view of the present tendency in America to use reinforced concrete for the construction of large sewers, the various examples of this class of work described in chapter vi. will be of interest to the English engineer.

¹ Proc. Inst. C.E., vol. clxxii., part ii.

NO. 2053, VOL. So]

Although the book is written from the point of view of American practice, and consequently certain sections, such as the chapter on estimates and costs, will not be found so useful to English workers, the general information on constructional work, which is mainly descriptive, should be found helpful by students and those engaged in English practice.

(3) The authors have performed the unenviable task of condensing the whole problem of sewerage and sewage disposal within fifty-six small pages, in such a manner as to give the lay mind a good and, on the whole, fairly accurate elementary idea of the subject. It necessarily follows that the information afforded will not be found so useful to those actually engaged in sewage work.

In view of the adverse opinion expressed in Dunbar's "Principles of Sewage Treatment," it is interesting to note that the authors strongly advocate the preliminary treatment of sewage in aërobic slate filters. EDWARD ARDERN.

OUR BOOK SHELF.

Explication méchanique des Propriétés de la Matière, Cohésion, Affinité, Gravitation, &c. By A. Despaux. Pp. 352. (Paris: Félix Alcan, 1908.) Price 6 francs.

THIS is an attempt to explain everything in terms of a mechanical hypothesis. The universality of application of his hypothesis is scarcely conveyed by the author in the title he has given to his book. Not only cohesion, affinity, gravitation, but also biological and psychological problems are brought within its range. What differences of opinion, therefore, may we not expect from those who read its pages! Such far-reaching generalisations must be backed up by exceptionally strong evidence before their acceptance can be reasonably entertained.

The author seems to anticipate that it will not be easy to secure adhesion to his views. He has little respect for what we may call the grand reserve of science. Official science, he says, is essentially conservative. When a discovery is made, it is said at first that it is not true; and then that it is not new. To some extent he is able to justify his belief in the "resistance" of science. Said Lavoisier, "I do not expect that my ideas will be adopted all at once." While he explained combustion by a simple combination, the partisans of phlogiston burned his effigy in Berlin. Avogadro received no attention from the French Academy, to which he presented his memoir, and it was only twenty years afterwards that he obtained recognition. Sadi Carnot's memoir remained unknown until, after twenty-four years; Lord Kelvin rescued it from oblivion.

Our author, therefore, does not expect impartiality from his contemporaries; it scarcely seems worth while to state our opinion upon his views. We will be content with indicating that he attempts to show that everything can be explained by supposing the molecule to consist of a sort of corkscrew which, spinning, sets up whirls and streams in the æther which he likens to those produced by a ventilating fan. If the molecule is "free," then by its own rotation it propels itself in space "like a fish in water or a bird in the air." It is then part of a gas. When it is part of a solid it is fixed in position, but by its rotation propels æther in front and sucks

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

it in behind. This flow of æther through the molecule constitutes the electric charge; and so on; but for the remainder of this explanation of the universe we must refer the unbiassed reader to the volume itself.

Leçons de Physique générale. By J. Chappuis and A. Berget. Tome I. Second edition; completely revised. Pp. xii+669; illustrations. (Paris: Gauthier-Villars, 1907.) Price 10 francs.

In a publishers' note it is claimed that the intention of this work is to fill up the gap between elementary treatises and those in which the exposition of physics is carried to its highest developments. With regard to any such works, of which numerous examples might be cited outside France, we may say there must necessarily be considerable resemblance one with another. It is in the higher developments that originality can come chiefly into evidence; so that it is not in any derogatory spirit that we assert that there is much in this book which can be obtained elsewhere, and which in such other places is as well presented as we find it here. But it would give quite an erroneous notion as to the contents of the volume if we were to be content with such an appraisement as this. For in many parts the treatment is so lucid, considering the difficulty of the matter, that we doubt whether it is possible to find a *better* book than this of the standard which it aims at attaining. It is specially rich in illustrations of classical apparatus employed in determinations for physical data.

The chapters dealing with thermodynamics are also exceedingly clear, and will be greatly appreciated by those who have mastered the mathematics necessary—which, it must be pointed out, is never very severe. The logic is beyond criticism, and the physical conceptions are accurate. We will only add that the present volume deals with measuring instruments, weight, elasticity, statics of liquids and gases, and heat. The second edition of the volume on electricity and magnetism has already appeared.

Biochemie. Ein Lehrbuch für Mediziner, Zoologen und Botaniker. By Dr. F. Röhmann. Pp. xvi+ 768. (Berlin: Julius Springer, 1908.) Price 20 marks.

PROF. RÖHMANN is a well-known physiological chemist, and has produced a work on that subject which will prove useful to teachers and students of that branch of science. The book is written from the standpoint of chemistry, and really is a textbook of organic chemistry which deals particularly with the substances found in animal and vegetable organisms. The biological and metabolic aspects of the subject are treated incidentally and, as a rule, with brevity. There is, for instance, no chapter that deals with the blood as a whole, but the pigment is dealt with in one place, the proteins in another, and so forth. The same is true for milk, urine, and the other secretions; there is no general survey of ferment action, of coagulation, of oxidation, and of other processes important from the point of view of the physiologist.

There are, however, many handbooks of biochemistry available to-day which deal adequately with its biological side. Prof. Röhmann's book is therefore useful as supplementary to these from the purely chemical side. To those engaged in research his book will be a great help; it contains a mine of bibliographical references, and chemical methods of analysis are described in detail. The pages bristle with chemical formulæ which make the book somewhat formidable to medical readers, to whom the book is partly addressed, and render it unsuitable for continuous reading except to those already well versed in organic chemistry. But to those who desire to find the latest authoritative information of a chemical kind it will prove an excellent work of reference.

W. D. H.

Geometry, Theoretical and Practical. Part iii. By W. P. Workman and A. G. Cracknell. Pp. ix+66. (London: W. B. Clive, 1908.) Price 1s. 6d.

THIS part of Messrs. Workman and Cracknell's textbook deals with the subject-matter of Euclid, book xi., on modern lines, and contains also an elementary account of the parallelepiped, sphere, and tetrahedron. The characteristics of previous parts are well main-tained; the brevity of treatment and the conciseness of arrangement will appeal specially to examination candidates.

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 intended for this or any other part of NATURE. No notice is taken of anonymous communications.]

The γ Rays of Uranium.

OUR knowledge of the γ rays of uranium has until now been confined to their discovery by Rutherford (*Phys. Zeit.*, 1902, 517) and to the observations of Eve (*ibid.*, 1907, 185). The latter directed attention to their extra-1907, 1837. The share and the interval attention to their exha-ordinary feebleness and to their relatively low penetrating power. Eve found that uranium gives out only about one-tenth as much γ radiation as thorium when examined through 0.64 cm. lead, which is most remarkable, considering that it gives about six times more β radiation. Whereas the γ rays of thorium have the same value for the absorption coefficient as those of radium $[\lambda(cm.)^{-1} =$ from 0.57 to 0.46 over a range of from 0.64 cm. to 3.0 cm. of lead], the uranium γ rays are far more easily absorbed. Eve gave the value 1.4 for λ for thicknesses of lead between 0.28 cm. and 0.92 cm. He stated that the radia-tion was homogeneous, that the absorption was exponential over this range, and that the rays were practically com-pletely absorbed in I cm. of lead. He worked with uranyl nitrate.

Having at our disposal 50 kilograms of pure uranyl nitrate, provided by the generosity of a friend in connection with the work of one of us on the parent of radium (NATURE, January 28, 366), we have been able greatly to extend and in part to correct the work on the uranium y rays. By a long sequence of chemical operations, known y rays. By a long sequence of chemical operations, known and new, but based largely on the magnificent chemical work of Sir William Crookes, who discovered the sub-stance (Proc. Roy. Soc., 1906, Ixvi., 409), we separated by far the greater part of the uranium X from the uranium, and obtained it, in the last separation, in the form of films weighing only a few milligrams. The operations absorb about twelve days. Uranium X con-vibutes as first shown by one of as (Trans Chem Soc tributes, as first shown by one of us (Trans. Chem. Soc., 1902, 860), none of the α rays, but all the β rays of the uranium, and, as is to be expected, and as the present work shows, the γ rays also. These have been found to decay at the same rate as the β radiation, namely, to one-half every twenty-two days. The initial β radiation of the bare preparation lit up an X-ray screen to about the in a sealed thin glass tube. The luminosity could be plainly seen in a fully lighted room when the screen was held in the shadow of the observer; but as Eve found, the γ radiation is extraordinarily feeble. It was accurately compared with that from a known quantity of pure radium bromide after passage through 2.5 cm. of lead by means of an electroscope. Under these conditions the uranium X was equivalent to 0.053 mg. of radium bromide. As shown later, it can be calculated that the lead screen cut down the γ rays of the uranium X to 20.6 per cent., and of the

NO. 2053, VOL. 80

radium to 55 per cent., of their initial values. From these data, allowing for the decay during the processes of separa-tion, it may be provisionally estimated that the radiation of the two elements, uranium and radium, is about as one to five hundred million when, as in the present case, absorption is eliminated and only the hard γ rays dealt with.

Before the activity of the preparation decayed too far we were able to determine accurately the absorption coefficient of the γ rays in fourteen substances. As Wigger found for the γ rays of radium (Jahrb. Radioakt., 1965, 430), the absorption follows a strict exponential law after a certain initial thickness of substance has been penetrated, and the absorption coefficient is very nearly proportional to the density of the substance. Thus for lead between the thicknesses of 1 cm. and 5 cm.—and for all other substances over corresponding thicknesses—the absorption is within the very small limit of experimental error abso-lutely exponential. The value of the absorption coefficient, λ (cm) -1, for lead is 0.62. In general, for all substances the value of λ/d , where d is the density, is about 0.055, as compared with 0.021 for the radium γ rays for thicknesses greater than 2.8 cm. of lead (Wigger). Thus the uranium γ rays are about two and a half times more strongly absorbed than those of radium.

The conditions of the experiment are of fundamental importance, as they affect very much the value obtained for the absorption coefficient. In our experiments the disposition was in the main similar to that of Wigger, in that the absorbing plates were clamped up tightly to form the base of the electroscope, and the preparation was placed in a definite position beneath. For insulators the upper surface was covered with a thin leaf of aluminium. Whenever practicable, the absorbing plates were all of the same material. Only for light substances, and for one experiment with mercury, was the base of the electroscope a plate of lead as in Wigger's experiments. Its thickness was 1.2 cm.

Our value for the absorption coefficient is entirely different from that given by Eve, and, indeed, it is a little doubtful what rays Eve observed. Over the range of thickness of lead he used, from 0.28 cm. to 0.92 cm., we find that the rays are not homogeneous, and the exponential law does not hold at all. There is present in relatively great intensity a very much less penetrating radiation, completely absorbed by 1 cm. of lead, with a value for λ from eight to ten times greater than for the penetrating type. The absorption and magnetic deviability of the second sec of these rays are under examination. They would have been far less prominent relatively in Eve's measurements with uranyl nitrate than in ours with uranium X, owing to the strong absorption in the former case. It may be mentioned that the existence is to be anticipated of a very soft γ radiation corresponding to the extremely soft β radiation of uranium X (Schlundt and Moore, Levin, H. W. Schmidt). There appears to be no radiation corresponding with Eve's value of λ , but then his value for the γ rays of radium, 0.46, is about as different from Wigger's, 0.24, as his value for the uranium γ rays, 1.4,

is from ours, 0.62. The value found in our experiments for λ/d , 0.055, was actually obtained exactly for substances so different in density and nature as mercury, lead, aluminium, slate, and pine-wood, showing the remarkable range of the "density law" in this case. At the same time, we do not think it holds strictly, for brass (density 840) actually absorbed more than copper (8.80), and zinc (7.07) more absorbed more than copper (8.80), and zinc (7.07) more than tin (7.25), in experiments which were strictly com-parable and under good conditions. The actual experi-mental values of λ/d obtained varied within the extremes of 0.045 (one value for iron) and 0.068 (paraffin wax). Part of this variation, but not, we think, the whole, is doubtless due to experimental error. Although the ex-ponential law holds, so far as we can see, quite strictly, the values obtained for λ appear to depend somewhat on the particular experiment in an as yet not completely exthe particular experiment, in an as yet not completely explained way. We propose carrying out similar experiments with the γ rays of radium, in the hope of obtaining further light on the nature of the variation. Beyond 5 cm. of lead, and corresponding thicknesses of other metals, λ appears to change and to become very

much smaller, indicating the existence of a still more penetrating type of radiation than the γ , but our preparations are hardly sufficiently active to enable us to establish this beyond doubt. Here again the experiments we propose with the radium γ rays may throw more light on the matter.

FREDERICK SODDY.

ALEXANDER S. RUSSELL. Physical Chemistry Laboratory, University of Glasgow, February 27.

The Radio-active Deposits from Actinium.

IN NATURE of February 25 there appeared a letter from Prof. McLennan containing the results of some experiments recently made by Mr. W. T. Kennedy on the behaviour of the active deposit from actinium emanation.

So far as may be judged from the details given of the observations, they substantially confirm the results obtained by the writer, which are to be found in the *Phil. Mag.*, May and June, 1908.

The suggestion that the differences in the quantity of active deposit observed on the positive and negative electrodes can be explained by the different rates of diffusion of the ions is an interesting one, but it seems likely that the determining factor is the frequency of collision between the active deposit particles and the gas molecules or ions with which they are mixed.

It is impossible to make a complete comparison between the experiments of Mr. Kennedy and myself until further data are available. S. Russ.

Physical Laboratories, Manchester University.

The Production of Prolonged Apnœa in Man.

NOTICING the letter by Dr. H. M. Vernon in NATURE of February 18 on "The Production of Prolonged Apncea in Man" it recalled to my mind some observations on the same subject communicated to the *Philosophical Magazine* in 1833, vol. iii., p. 241, by Michael Faraday, and reprinted in his collected "Researches in Chemistry and Physics," pp. 358-62. The effect of a bout of forced breathing in enabling a

The effect of a bout of forced breathing in enabling a person greatly to prolong the time during which they can hold their breath was brought under the notice of Faraday by Sir Graves C. Haughton.

Faraday was ever one who put things to a practical use, and he gives directions as to the mode of proceeding when one had to enter a noxious atmosphere to rescue a person overcome by the fumes of a poisonous gas. He says :— "Avoid all unnecessary action; for activity exhausts the air in the lungs of its vital principle more quickly, and charges it with bad matter. Go collectedly, coolly, and quietly to the spot where help is required; do no more than is needful, leaving what can be done by those who are in a safe atmosphere (as the hauling up of a senseless body, for example) for them to do. "Take the precautions usual in cases of danger in

"Take the precautions usual in cases of danger in addition to the one now recommended [namely, by preparing the lungs by several deep breaths]. Thus, in a case of choke-damp, as in a brewer's vat, hold the head as high as may be; in a case of fire in a room, keep it as low down as possible."

He concludes his communication with a remark on the effect of increasing the pressure of the air breathed by giving the case in which Mr. Brunel, jun., descended in a diving-bell to a depth of 30 feet below the surface of the water, when it was found that both he and his companion could remain under water (by descending from the bell itself) for about twice as long as they could had the air they breathed only been under normal pressure. It would be interesting to know how long the breath could have been held in the above case had Mr. Brunel employed forced breathing, supplemented by three or four breaths of pure oxygen. If the relation of pressure and time during which the breath could be retained held good for the time of Sm. 13s. given by Mr. Vernon, this period should be increased to 16m. 26s. when air under two atmo-

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

spheres (absolute) pressure was breathed, aided by about four breaths of oxygen. W. G. ROYAL-DAWSON. 40 Creffield Road, Ealing, February 23.

A Winter Retreat.

MR. GEORGE GILBERT, a market-gardener in Stonchaven, has shown me a curious phenomenon which I have not met with before, and which, I think, deserves to be recorded. About the beginning of November a number of children were playing at a tea-party, and they left among the herbaceous plants at the side of the walk an earthenware tea-pot, the dimensions of which were 4 inches by 3 inches. A few days ago the old tea-pot was discovered lying on its side and without a lid. In the interior, closely packed, were no fewer than thirty-seven of the common garden shelled-snail, and when ejected they were found to be all alive. They had spent the months in their winter retreat. Probably gardeners know that they can trap snails in some such way; at all events, one often finds snails in confined spaces and sheltered nooks. Still, the question arises, What led one mollusc to follow the others? Is it the sense of smell? What attracted no fewer than thirty-seven to this old tea-pot, probably a very snug and safe place? Still, there is a danger in being in a crowd. One can imagine how delighted a sea-gull would have been to have discovered this larder of fresh meat !

JOHN G. MCKENDRICK.

Priestley and Coulomb's Law.

In our text-books on electricity I do not remember to have seen Priestley's name associated with the proof of Coulomb's law as derived from the fact that no electrification can be obtained in the interior of a sphere charged with electricity.

In the article "Priestley" in the "Dictionary of National Biography" it is stated that Priestley anticipated Coulomb's law, and in looking into the matter I find foundation for the statement in the following paragraph from "The History and Present State of Electricity with Original Experiments," by Joseph Priestley, second edition, 1769, p. 711:—

1769, p. 711:--"May we not infer from this experiment" (absence of electrification within an electrified cup) "that the attraction of electricity is subject to the same laws with that of gravitation and is therefore according to the squares of the distances; since it is easily demonstrated that were the earth in the form of a shell a body in the inside of it would not be attracted to one side of it more than another." C. J. WOODWARD.

Birmingham, February 26.

Barometric Oscillation.

In my remark referred to by Mr. Braak (February 18, p. 459) I merely meant the increase of temperature which inevitably occurs when a gas is compressed. The compression and warming are simultaneous; this is shown in the passage of a sound wave where the air is compressed and warmed, and expanded and cooled alternately many hundreds of times in a second. If a barometric change is followed by a change of temperature at some subsequent time the result must be due to other conditions than those to which I alluded. W. H. DINES.

Life and Letters of Prof. A. Newton, F.R.S.

I HAVE been invited to write a life of the late Prof. Alfred Newton, F.R.S., of Magdalene College, Cambridge. If any of your readers who have letters or reminiscences or other interesting information about Prof. Newton will be kind enough to communicate with me, I shall be exceedingly grateful to them. I will, of course, undertake to return all letters, &c., to the senders.

A. F. R. WOLLASTON. Savile Club, 107 Piccadilly, W., March 1.

THE ANTHROPOLOGY OF THE MURRAY ISLANDERS.¹

N EVER, perhaps, has the anthropology of any people been studied so carefully and exhaustively as that of the islanders of the Torres Straits by the Cambridge Anthropological Expedition. Volumes have already been published on their physiology and psychology, on their linguistics, and on the sociology, magic, and religion of the western islanders. The present volume deals with the sociology, magic, and religion of the eastern islanders.

Under the somewhat vague term sociology are included chapters on folk-tales, birth and childhood customs, courtship and marriage, funeral ceremonies, trade, quarrels, and warfare, by Dr. Haddon; on genealogies kinship, personal names and social

genealogies, kinship, personal names, and social organisation, by Dr. Rivers; and on property and inheritance by Mr. Wilkin. The magic and religion are dealt with by Drs. Haddon and C. S. Myers. The volume is full of the

raw material from which a science of the psychological evolution of primitive societies may be built up, and is a model of careful and accurate methods of observation. In reading through the volume, however, one is impressed very much by the fact that the science of social psychology is still very much in its infancy. Is there anything, for example, in the race or in the environ-ment which determines the peculiar character of these folk-tales? Dr. Haddon classifies them as nature myths, culture myths, religious myths, and tales about people. The difference in character between tales in different categories is not always obvious.

The studies in genealogies and kinship by Dr. Rivers approximate a little more closely to exact science. By painstaking inquiry the kinship of each individual in a fraternity is ascertained, and this forms the basis of valuable discoveries on regulation of marriage, taboo, &c. The Murray Islanders are

exogamous, no marriages being permitted between contiguous villages. There appear to be certain definite functions attaching to kin; brothers or cousins preside at funerals, certain relatives can stop a fight, or take property without compensation.

The courtship and marriage customs are of considerable interest. The bride is stolen by the bridegroom from the house of the parents at night. "In the morning the parents would miss the girl and go in search of her. The map le then calmly informed them of what had happened, and the parents, calling on their friends to help, would rush off to the village of the abductor of their daughter brandishing their

¹ Reports of the Cambridge Anthropological Expedition to Torres Straits. Vol. vi., Sociology, Magic and Religion of the Eastern Islanders. Pp. xx+ 316+30 plates. (Cambridge : University Press, 1908.) Price 218. net.

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

clubs and spears, and a fight would ensue, but very rarely was anyone injured. The lovers meantime remained in hiding pending the result of the fight." The parents are finally appeased by a payment made by the bridegroom and his friends. Polygamy is rare among the Murray Islanders, and polyandry is unknown.

The elaborate funeral ceremonies of the islanders are minutely described, and the authors remark that these ceremonies would occupy almost the whole time of the natives, if they were not dispensed with in the case of the very old and the young.

Law and government was formerly in the hands of the heads of a religious body known as the Malu fraternity, but has now been taken over by the Government of Queensland. The chief crime is wife beating. There appears to be a high standard of



iFig. r.-A phase of the Ceremonial Dance of the Bomai-Malu zogo le. From vol. vi. of the Reports of the Cambridge Expedition to Torres Straits.

honesty in trade, as shown by the manner of purchasing a canoe, which is brought from a great distance and passes through the hands of a large number of intermediaries without any attempt to appropriate it or its price. A great deal of information is given about the native customs in trading which ought to be of considerable value to our traders.

The chapters on magic and religion will be of great interest to the students of these subjects. The authors endeavour to distinguish between "magic and religion by the criterion that magical objects produce the required result automatically, while "religious actions depend for their efficacy upon an "appeal to some extra human influence of a more or less personal nature. They have to confess, however, that in some ceremonies, such as the rain-making ceremony, the

two are mixed up together. Magical practices are in use among the natives to control the elements, to control vegetable life, to control animal life, and to control human beings. From this it may be inferred how important is the part that magic plays in the daily life of the native. To produce a good harvest, each plant or fruit has a special charm and ceremony. But magic may also be harmful, and is often used to injure an enemy or his property.

Religion, in the Murray Islands, appears to be chiefly represented by one important cult, known as the Bomai-Malu cult. A very strict secrecy is main-tained about the ceremonies of this cult, but the



G. z.-A phase of the Ceremonial Dance of the Bomai-Malu szero le. From vol. vi. of the Reports of the Cambridge Expedition to Torres Fig Straits.

authors appear to have succeeded in discovering every-thing of importance. The origin and nature of the ceremonies, their places and times, the participants, the ritual decoration, and ritual objects are all de-scribed at great length. The cult appears to have developed into a secret society or religious fraternity which has taken upon itself disciplinary functions. The cult includes initiation ceremonies for the young men, at which apparently some very good advice is given to the initiate.

There are a large number of valuable illustrations in the volume, including many figures in the text, and some thirty plates at the end. The work is produced in a manner which is highly creditable to the University Press.

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

THE CALIFORNIAN EARTHOUAKE OF 1906.3

WE owe so much to the activity of the institution **VV** founded at Washington by the generosity of Mr. Carnegie that it seems ungracious to find any fault, vet we must enter a plaint against the inconvenience of the form of publication which it has adopted. The instalment of the report on the California earthquake of April 18, 1906, now published, consists of two quarto volumes, of more than 450 pages in all, issued in paper covers, accompanied by an atlas which measures two feet in length and more than half a yard in breadth, a size which renders its accommodation in the libraries of most of those who will want to possess and use it a matter of great inconvenience, and necessitates its being stored and kept apart from the volumes which it accompanies. Yet this atlas might easily have been produced in a size that would match the text, for few of the twentyfive maps fill the whole of the sheets on which they are printed, and there are none which might not have been reduced in scale without any loss, and even in some cases with advantage; while those seismograms which could not be reproduced on a page of the same size as the text could have been folded, as is done by the Japanese Earthquake Investigation Committee, without any inconvenience.

Having given vent to this fault-finding we may turn to more congenial topics, and express our admiration of the thoroughness and completeness with which this important earthquake has been investigated and described. After a brief account of the geology of the region, we have a detailed account of that remarkable structural and topographical feature called the San Andreas Rift, which was closely associated with the earthquake. This rift follows a line of faulting, but appears to be the result of a different set of movements from those which produced the great upand-down throw; for 600 miles, from Humboldt county, on the Pacific coast, to the Colorado Desert, it is marked by a narrow zone of depression, referable either directly to recent deformation of the ground or to erosion controlled by the lines along which this deformation has taken place. Though associated with faulting, often of great throw, as between opposite sides, the rift itself is a narrow strip containing a number of minor faults and fractures, running more or less in the same general direction, and dividing the ground into blocks of unequal size, which have sunk unequally between the margins of the rift. Throughout its length it is marked by steep scarps, generally of small height, ponds, and irregularities in the drainage lines which proclaim it as a region where earth-movement is recent or still in progress; and the greater earthquakes of the district are so commonly accompanied by movement along the rift that it has acquired the local name of "earthquake crack." In 1906 the movement was confined to about 100 miles at the northern end of the rift line, and, as revealed at the surface, appeared in different forms; at times there was but a single fissure, hardly discernible except by its effect in breaking and displacing roads and fences, at others there were several roughly parallel faults, and again, where the rock was covered by surface accumulations or alluvium, there was a series of fissures running obliquely, but arranged in

¹ "The California Earthquake of April 18, 1006." Report of the State Earthquake Investigation Commission." By Andrew C. Lawson. Chairman, in collaboration with G. K. Gilbert, H. F. Reid, J. C. Branner, H. W. Fair-hanks, H. O. Wood, J. F. Hayford, A. L. Paldwin, F. Omori, A. O. Leuschner, George Davidson, F. E. Matthes, R. Anderson, G. D. Louder-back, R. S. Holway, A. S. Eakle, R. Crandall, G. F. Hoffman, G. A. Warring, E. Hughes, F. J. Rogers, A. Baird, and many others. 2 vols. Pp. xviii+451: 146 plates, 66 illustrations in text : atlas of 25 maps and 15 sheets of seismograms. (Washington : Carnegie Institution, 1908.)

echelon, so that the band of fissuring followed the general run of the movement in the underlying rock.

Following on the description of the surface movements along this rift, and the account of the retriangulation of the country on either side of it, is a detailed description of the distribution of the violence of shock, and discussion of the course of the isoseismals.

FIG. 1. -Characteristic Rift features south-east of Fort Ross. Fault-trace in foreground.

lence was along a narrow band closely adjacent to the rift line, where surface displacements were greatest, but the progressive diminution of violence, as this line is left, is interrupted by a number of isolated

areas of destructive violence. In discussing the explanation of these isolated centres of increased violence, the conclusion is reached that they are due to variations in the nature of the ground, and to be attributed to the well-known fact, illustrated by some interesting experiments contained in the report, that earthquakes are commonly more destructive on alluvium or made ground than on rock ; but in attempting to ascribe all the irregularities in the course of the isoseismals to this cause, we cannot but feel that the committee, or, rather, its chairman, has given its support to an obsolescent theory. So many instances are now known of extended origins, and of earthquakes with more than one centre of maximum vio-lence, that an attempt to refer an earthquake to a single centre of origin is no longer justifiable unless this hypothesis is easily reconcilable with observation. In this case it seems more reasonable

to accept the isolated centres of destruction, or of increased violence, as independent centres of origin of the same great earthquake, not of separate local earthquakes, as suggested and controverted in the report.

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

Only a few of the more striking These have a peculiar distribution; the maximum vio- | features of this report have been referred to; it would be impossible to deal in detail with the discussion on scales of intensity, the direction of vibratory move-ment, the effect of the shock on men and animals,

tion of the report.

lixity of detail, and "exprest" in a language which, with thankfulness be it said, has not yet become "thrly" unintelligible to the average Englishman.

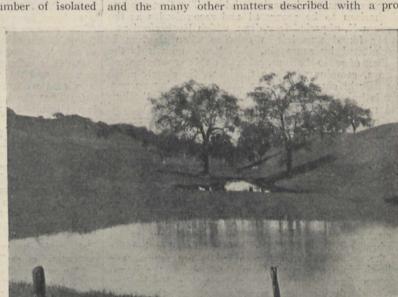


FIG. 2.-Ponds along Rift near San Benito.

with sand or gravel, dry, or mixed with different proportions of water, and determinations were made of the amplitude and character of movement of the surface of the sand as compared with that of the table. With closely packed dry sand there was little difference, but with wet sand the amplitude was greater, and, what is more im-portant, the reversal of motion much more abrupt, giving an acceleration which, in one experiment, was more than three times as great as that of the table. We have here a suggestion of the reason for this fact, which has often been observed; that the destructive effect of an earthquake is greater on alluvium near its junction with rock than on the rocks or further out on the alluvium, and it is to be hoped that this very interesting and suggestive line of experiment may be followed up more fully than was

possible in time for the publica-

The experiments, to which reference has been made, are of great interest, and throw light on some little understood earthquake phenomena. They were made with a shaking table, set in motion by a crank and connecting-rod, of the same type as that employed in the Japanese experiments on the overturn of columns; the table carried a box which was filled

II

RADIO-THORIUM.

D URING the past week accounts have appeared in the daily papers of a discovery emanating from America of "a new rival to radium" called radiothor; and as in name and in the circumstance that the body is spoken of as a cheap substitute for radium the body bears obvious resemblance to radio-thorium, well known as one of the most interesting and promising members of the radio-active hierarchy at the present time, it may be of interest to compare the two bodies.

It is obvious that the resemblance begins and ends with the two points referred to. Radio-thor, we read, was discovered by Dr. Bailey, of Hahnemann Medical College, Chicago, in pitchblende from Colorado. It is stated in the recent report with which the public has been favoured, that the new body possesses all the curative properties of radium and none of its baneful after-effects, that the supply is apparently unlimited, and that it is within the reach of persons of moderate means. When placed in contact with the negative pole of a magnet it becomes luminous (!); it colours common glass like Bohemian glass; and is of immense value financially. Dr. Bailey, adds the account, claims to have discovered a positive remedy for locomotor ataxy, cancer, and other maladies that have long baffled the medical profession. The prolongation of life and the cure of all ills by its aid are also referred to airily by a colleague.

It is a relief to turn from this monotonously familiar exploitation of knowledge to the radio-thorium of science, the intensely radio-active product of thorium, giving a rays, first separated from the new Ceylon giving a rays, first separated from the new Ceylon mineral thorianite, which consists mainly of thorium oxide, by Otto Hahn while working in Sir W. Ramsay's laboratory. Its period of half-change was determined to be two years by G. A. Blanc, who in-dependently separated the substance from the sediments of the hot springs of Baden-Baden. The subsequent developments formed as fascinating a chapter of progress as any in radio-activity. The first product of thorium to be separated and recognised was the thorium X, of period four days, which Rutherford and Soddy found was left in solution when thorium is precipitated by ammonia. We know now it is the product of radio-thorium, which in this separation, as always, remains with the thorium. So closely allied are they in chemical nature that even to-day no process is known of separating them. Yet both thorium and radio-thorium are known alone because though the one is the product of the other, it is not the direct product.

There is an intermediate body, "meso-thorium," produced from thorium, and producing radio-thorium. Its period is not yet accurately known, but is estimated at seven years. It gives β rays only. Boltwood showed that in the ammonia separation referred to the mesothorium goes with the thorium X, and leaves the radiothorium with the thorium. In the course of a few years the radio-thorium all changes, leaving thorium alone, while the meso-thorium grows new radiothorium, readily separable as before. In all probability all the radio-thorium yet prepared is not ready-made radio-thorium separated from thorium, as the investigators first thought, but re-formed radio-thorium produced during the separation from the easily separable meso-thorium.

As the result of these researches it was suggested by Rutherford that meso-thorium and its spontaneously appearing family of products—radio-thorium, thorium X, &c.—might serve as a cheap and effective substitute for radium for many purposes. In the Welsbach gasmantle industry thorium salts are manufactured by the ton. The readily separable meso-thorium plays no part in the commercial application of thorium, and could be removed without injury to the product and with no appreciable waste of the substance during the manufacturing process. At first it would only give β rays, but in the course of a few years α radiation would make its appearance as radio-thorium and its products were formed. The substance would then comprise practically the whole of the radio-activity of as large amounts of thorium in as small amounts of matter as desired. For most purposes such a body would be as valuable as radium. The activity, it is true, would not be permanent, like radium essentially is, but it would last a good many years—long enough to be very useful—and its cheapness and the practically unlimited supply of it would compensate for this lack of permanence. It is to be hoped that the thorium manufacturers of Germany and America are following up this suggestion. FREDERICK SODDY.

THE POOR LAW COMMISSION REPORT.

I T might be thought that this document would hardly furnish matter for consideration in a scientific journal, but those who have given the closest attention to subjects of poverty and public assistance are getting to be more and more convinced that it is to scientific study and the application of scientific principles, in other words, to the cultivation of a scientific spirit, that we have to look for the best remedies of the various evils of social life, and that it is by the want of that spirit that those evils have grown up.

The report in question will probably rank in future as an economic State paper of as great importance as that of 1832, upon which the reform of the Poor Law in 1834 was based. That report bore fruit for many years in a gradual reduction of the number of paupers and the volume of pauperism. Recently a reaction has taken place, and the number of paupers and the volume of pauperism have increased. The conclusion is irresistible that considerations other than scientific ones have been allowed to have undue weight.

(1) That relief should not be offered to able-bodied persons and their families otherwise than in a well-regulated workhouse.

(2) That the lot of the able-bodied should be made less eligible than that of the independent labourer outside.

With these principles there can be no quarrel, and to their having been carried into effect with more or less fidelity during the greater number of the years that followed must be attributed the decline in pauperism to which we have adverted. It is to the gradual weakening of these principles in later years that the reaction towards an increase in pauperism is due. The causes of this reaction and the remedy for it constitute the real problem which was submitted by the King in 1905 to the Commission which has just made its report after a patient investigation occupying more than three years.

One source of the failure of the present system has undoubtedly been the inefficiency of the local authorities charged with its administration. The boards of guardians are elected by popular vote, but that election attracts little popular interest. In London somewhat more than a quarter of the electorate trouble themselves to vote for a guardian, while nearly three times as many will vote for a member of Parliament. The result is that men are sometimes returned on those boards who are ignorant of the laws they are selected to administer, and who have other reasons for seeking

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

election than their knowledge of or interest in the poor. Accordingly their administration is often faulty and ill-informed; and the Commissioners direct attention to many cases in which the allowances made by the guardians are helping to perpetuate social and moral conditions of the worst type. Even when the relief is given to the right people, it is too often inadequate in amount, and ill-adapted to the particular needs of the case.

The object of the Commissioners, therefore, is to ensure that henceforth the local public assistance authority shall be largely nominated from amongst men and women of experience, wisdom, and unselfish devotion to the public good, and shall be served by officers fully qualified by knowledge and by experience. For the higher offices it is suggested that there should be qualifying examinations, and highly trained officers will be required in what are now regarded as less important posts, *e.g.* that of labour master. For these purposes a graded public assistance service should be set up, which should include all officers concerned with the supervision, control, and disciplinary treatment of the poor, both male and female. In this service there should be more opportunity of promotion from the lower to the higher ranks, and no question of superannuation should hinder the transfer of efficient and promising officers from one local authority to another.

The recommendations of the Commissioners tend not merely to securing better qualified administrators, but also to the adoption of sound principles, which we may fairly define as scientific, in the distribution of public assistance. For example, the principle of classification is insisted upon, in institutions adapted to the various needs of the dependent poor, in lieu of the aggregation of all classes in the present workhouses. For those trespassers on public hospitality called "ins-and-outs" a system of detention should be adopted. Outdoor relief should be administered under those conditions of strict investigation and adaptation to the particular needs of the individual which are expressed in the term "case-work," and in such a manner as to strengthen the hands of sanitary authorities, and to elicit the support and cooperation of voluntary aid committees. The aged should be adequately relieved, and their comfort and happiness considered. Many recommendations are made as to the care, education, and medical supervision of children. The detention of feeble-minded, idle, and immoral paupers is recommended, and is a step which may help to the solution of a problem in eugenics.

may help to the solution of a problem in eugenics. Among the questions dealt with in this report for the determination of which the scientific spirit is essential, that of the relation of public assistance to voluntary aid—that is to say, of the relative functions of the community, of the charitable individual, and of the charitable foundation in the relief of distress is one of the most important. Its consideration occupies eighty folio pages of the report, and we are glad to know that it has not been omitted from the programme of the British Science Guild, which has, at the suggestion of Sir William Bousfield, appointed a committee to work out this problem. The report will supply materials of great value to that committee. It bears testimony to the good results obtained by the labours of charity organisation societies in all parts of the country, which have long been imbued with that spirit; and it leads to nineteen specific recommendations, too minute to be referred to in detail, which justify the hope that that spirit will govern the administration of public aid and of charity in the future.

The report of the four members of the Commission who found themselves unable to sign that agreed

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

to by their fourteen colleagues also confirms the views we have endeavoured to express. It declares the breaking up of the present unscientific category of the aged and infirm, and the substitution of a method of dealing separately with distinct classes according to the age and the mental and physical characteristics of the individuals concerned, to be a necessary preliminary of any effective reform.

Other problems which are discussed in these able documents require actuarial science for their solution, as, for example, the distress due to unemployment, invalidity assurance, old age pensions, friendly societies and trade unions, and the other provident institutions which have been so marvellously efficient as prophylactics against pauperism; but space will not allow of further discussion. Enough if we have shown the place of the scientific spirit in dealing with a great social and economic question.

THE METEORIC FIREBALL OF FEBRUARY 22 AND ITS STREAK.

O NE of the most notable meteors of recent years appeared on February 22 at 7.30 p.m., and was observed from the southern counties of England. It was a brilliant object, at first emitting an orange light, varying in intensity, then when about half its flight had been performed it suddenly blazed out with a steely-blue lustre and lit up the foggy atmosphere as though a huge rocket had exploded. It left a short, luminous streak where the chief outburst occurred, but this streak immediately intensified and soon extended along the whole path traversed by the meteor. Becoming bent and contorted, it assumed a variety of shapes and drifted to north-west under the action of upper wind currents. Diffusing itself into a broad, faint band of irregular form, it was ultimately lost amid the Milky Way about two hours after the time of its first projection. The long duration of the streak is almost without parallel in this country, though the Madrid meteorite of 1896 February to left a luminous band or cosmic cloud visible in the sky for $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours !

The meteor of February 22 was a Leonid, but the radiant is not quite accurately defined, as the flight of the object was very similar at most of the stations, for it slightly descended from Canis Minor to the southern region of Orion. But there is no doubt that the direction was from Leo, and the point of radiation seems well indicated at $175^{\circ}+16^{\circ}$ near β Leonis. Just possibly the radiant may have been at $155^{\circ}+12^{\circ}$, for I saw a fairly bright meteor on the same night passing slowly from $150^{\circ}+40^{\circ}$ to $148^{\circ}+49^{\circ}$, and directed from this centre 5° E. of Regulus. The height of the large meteor was from about sixty to twenty-six miles over the English Channel, about forty miles south of the coasts of Sussex, Hampshire, and Dorset. The luminous course was about 135 miles in length, and the velocity 20 miles per second. Several observations indicate a greater length of path and a lower elevation (22 miles) at the end, vertically over a point 50 miles S. of Plymouth. The best estimates for the duration of flight are 5-6 secs., 6-7 secs., and 8 secs. The fireball of 1898 February 20 had a radiant at $177^{\circ}+12^{\circ}$, and probably belonged to the same system.

The great changes which affected it will, however, make this difficult. One bright bendget to the luminous

material moved to N.W. at a rate of eighty miles per hour, and appears to have retained approximately the same height of thirty-two miles while it travelled from over a point N. of Alderney Island to over Dartmoor. The streak of the fireball of 1894 August 26 moved to S.E. at a rate of 120 miles per hour, and was about fifty-one miles high. In fact, meteoric streaks from the swifter class of objects, such as Leonids, Perseids, and Orionids, are usually between fifty and sixty miles high. The streak or smouldering residue of the February 22 fireball was much lower than this, though the earlier portions of it exceeded fifty miles in height.

The burning or phosphorescence of the meteoric débris for so long a period after dispersion is remarkable. Moonlight could hardly have produced the effect, as our satellite was only $2\frac{1}{4}$ days old (setting at 8h. 19m.) and reflected little light. I have never observed meteor streaks to have a lengthened existence in the presence of the full moon, so that another cause inherent in the glowing material must be found for its extraordinary sustenance in the recent case. There must have been something special in its composition or in the condition of the air at the time.

I have received seventy-one observations of the meteor or of its trail, and other descriptions of very useful character ought to come from Havre, Cherbourg, and other places on the north coast of France and from the Channel Islands.

The phenomenon may be aptly described as *the* meteoric spectacle of a generation. As the nucleus sailed along its nearly horizontal course, its light was far from being even. It gave a series of outbursts, the brighter of which much exceeded the lustre of Venus. This comparison applies to a distance of 100 miles. The mate of a vessel in the Channel near Start Point says the light was astonishing, and broke out with startling vividness, so that anyone could have easily seen to read.

At the end of the meteor's flight it seemed to turn abruptly in its direction, and fragments or embers fell almost vertically earthwards about 3° . Then the trail bent to the east and extended rapidly in a horizontal path. The rate of this easterly drift, as seen at Dunstable, Farnham, and other places, was shown on drawings, and appears to have been more than 300 miles per hour, the visible length having increased about eighty miles between 7h. 30m. and 7h. 45m. Something more than mere wind currents would appear to have been instrumental in inducing this rapid translation. The easterly streak appears, in fact, to have occupied at 7.45 the place where the original train existed at 7.30, but which had risen about 20° a quarter of an hour later.

The nucleus of the meteor as it traversed its course threw off a train of fiery sparks, such as is often seen, but these quickly died away. Then slowly the durable streak or trail came out, intensifying rapidly and stretching across the sky like a silver ribbon very irregularly arranged. By one observer in the Channel it was watched for three hours, until it became faintly blended with the Milky Way in Cepheus and Cygnus.

The bend in the path of the fireball at the limits of its westerly flight and the remarkable streak which quickly formed far to the east are curious. It has been suggested that there may have been a second meteor responsible for the lower streak stretching to the eastward. But as hundreds of persons were watching the sky, it would have been and reported had it been visible. At the termination of the meteor's career it evidently suffered disruption by two violent explosions, the places of which were definitely marked by brilliant condensations at the angles of the bent streak. Is it

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

possible that on the bursting and disintegration of the mass one large fragment was hurled in a direction nearly opposite to that of the original course? The resistance of the air at the comparatively low altitude of the meteor must have been considerable in checking its velocity, but some more potent influence must have suddenly stayed the westerly rush of the object, diverted it or its material earthwards, and then, as abruptly, dispersed it far and rapidly eastwards.

W. F. DENNING.

NOTES.

THE following fifteen candidates have been selected by the council of the Royal Society to be recommended for election into the society :--Mr. E. C. C. Baly, Sir Thomas Barlow, Bart., Rev. E. W. Barnes, Dr. F. A. Bather, Sir Robert A. Hadfield, Mr. A. D. Hall, Dr. A. Harden, Mr. A. J. Jukes-Browne, Prof. J. G. Kerr, Prof. W. J. Lewis, Prof. J. A. McClelland, Prof. W. McFadden Orr, Dr. A. B. Rendle, Prof. J. Lorrain Smith, and Prof. J. T. Wilson.

THE *Times* announces that a well-equipped aërodynamic laboratory is about to be established by the Aéro Club de France with the assistance of the State. It is computed that more than 5000*l*. will be required to start this project, the utility of which is unquestioned. Practical tests in planes, propellers, engines, &c., will be carried out at this laboratory.

THE seventh annual session of the South African Association for the Advancement of Science will be held at Bloemfontein during the week ending October 2, under the presidency of Sir Hamilton J. Goold-Adams, K.C.M.G. The assistant general secretary is Mr. E. Hope Jones, P.O. Box 1497, Cape Town.

THE sixth International Psychological Conference will be held at Geneva from August 3 to 8 next. An exhibition is being arranged, and a special section is to be devoted to animal psychology. M. E. Claparède, 11 avenue de Champel, Geneva, is the general secretary, and M. Cellerier, Montchoisy, Geneva, is the treasurer.

THE Paris correspondent of the Daily Chronicle states that the wireless telegraph station on the Eiffel Tower has been receiving messages from the station at Glace Bay, Canada, a distance of 3250 miles. A new installation is being fitted at the Eiffel Tower, by means of which it is hoped to establish wireless telegraphic communication with Saïgon (Cochin China), a distance of 6800 miles.

ON Thursday next, March 11, Mr. A. D. Hall will begin a course of two lectures at the Royal Institution on "Recent Advances in Agricultural Science." The Friday evening discourse on March 12 will be delivered by Mr. S. G. Brown on "Modern Submarine Telegraphy," and on March 19 by Mr. R. Threlfall, F.R.S., on "Experiments at High Temperatures and Pressures."

THE Berlin correspondent of the *Times* announces the death of Prof. H. Ebbinghaus, professor of philosophy at the University of Halle, at fifty-nine years of age. Prof. Ebbinghaus contributed extensively to the *Zeitschrift für Psychologie*, of which he was the founder, while of his several books the best known are his work "On the Memory" (1885), and the first volume, which appeared three years ago, of the unfinished "Principles of Psychology."

AN exhibition of optical and ophthalmological appliances will be held in the rooms of the Medical Society of London on March 12 and 13, from noon to 10 p.m. each day. MUCH interest is being taken in the International Aëronautical Exhibition which will be opened at Frankfurt a. M. in the beginning of July next. Four sheds will be reserved for airships, which will make ascents, with passengers, from the exhibition grounds. Frequent ascents will also be made by ordinary balloons, and various aëronautical societies have been invited to take part in them. Flights with aëroplanes, in which some of the best-known aviators will compete, promise to be of special interest. Industries connected with aëronautics will be represented, and one section will be devoted to inventions and apparatus of the past. Wireless telegraphy and carrier pigeons will be employed for communications to and from the exhibition, and some prizes of considerable value will be awarded.

TELEGRAPHIC messages from Havana through Reuter's Agency announced that on February 27, beginning at 11.21 a.m., the seismograph there was disturbed intermittently for forty minutes. The earth waves moved from east-north-east to west-south-west. A message from Palmi, Calabria, on the same date states that a violent earthquake shock was felt there at 1.50 a.m., and that two other shocks followed later. From the same source it is reported that a slight shock was felt at Reggio di Calabria at 6.45 p.m. Reuter further reports that soundings taken in the Straits of Messina and in the ports of Messina and Reggio di Calabria show that no alteration in the ocean floor in those parts or in the coast-line was caused by the recent earthquakes. Prof. Milne recorded at Shide, Isle of Wight, on February 27, at 4.58 p.m., an earthquake of great intensity, which was at its maximum at 5.36 p.m. The origin of this disturbance was about 5000 miles distant.

THE thirty-first annual general meeting of the Institute of Chemistry was held on Monday, March 1, Prof. Percy F. Frankland, F.R.S., the retiring president, in the chair. In his presidential address, Prof. Frankland emphasised the fact that whilst the well-being of the community is greatly promoted by the services of competent chemists, the mischief which can be wrought by the ill-trained and incompetent is incalculable. It is one of the chief duties of the institute to maintain a high level of training for professional chemists by demanding of candidates for its membership evidence of thorough training, and by requiring them to pass searching examinations. Particular attention has been given lately to the educational side of the institute's activity. Referring to research, Prof. Frankland reminded the fellows that the results of research are not necessarily recorded in the Transactions or Proceedings of a scientific society or journal. There is a vast amount of research involving originality and attainments of the highest order which from its very nature cannot be published at all. Many chemists whose names are not associated with academic researches are nevertheless fully equipped and highly original investigators. There is much training in originality of thought and experimental procedure which is not called research, and much of what is called research involves no originality in the thought or deed. After congratulating the institute on the choice of Dr. George T. Beilby, F.R.S., as the new president, Prof. Frankland thanked the fellows and associates for their kindness and consideration during his term of office. On behalf of the fellows and associates the president then presented an illuminated address to Mr. David Howard, in recognition of his services to the institute in various capacities, as member of council, honorary treasurer (eighteen years), president, vice-president, and censor, extending altogether more than thirty years, at the same time congratulating him on the approach of his

seventieth birthday, while yet retaining remarkably his health and vigour.

THE Elizabeth Thompson Science Fund, to which reference has been made in previous years in these columns, established "for the advancement and prosecution of scientific research in its broadest sense," now amounts to 52001. As accumulated income will be available next month, the trustees of the fund desire to receive applications for grants in aid of scientific work. This endowment is not for the benefit of any one department of science nor for men of science of any particular nationality, but it is the intention of the trustees to give preference to investigations which cannot otherwise be provided for, which have for their object the advancement of human knowledge or the benefit of mankind in general, rather than to researches directed to the solution of questions of merely local importance. Applications for assistance from the fund must be accompanied by full information as to the precise amount required, the exact nature of the investigation proposed, the conditions under which the research is to be prosecuted, and the manner in which the grant asked for is to be expended. All applications must reach, before March 15, the secretary, Dr. C. S. Minot, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Mass., U.S.A. Decided preference will be given to applications for small amounts, and grants exceeding 60%. will be made only in very exceptional circumstances. Prior to 1898, eighty-one grants were made, and of these seven only have yielded no published result. Since 1898 sixty-five further grants have been made, and the work aided by some of them is still unfinished.

THE weather report for the week ending last Saturday, February 27, shows that the temperature over England was considerably below the average, especially in the south, the deficiency in the south-east of England amounting to 5°.4. In the south-west and south-east of England the shade temperature fell below 15°. At Greenwich the thermometer in the sun's rays registered 97° on February 22, whilst during the preceding and following nights the exposed thermometer on the grass registered 11°. The lowest shade temperature for February was 19°, on the morning of February 23. The mean temperature at Greenwich for February was 37°, which is about 2°.5 below the average of the previous sixty years. Frost occurred in the open each night with the exception of February 4 and 5. The rainfall was less than one-half of the normal, whilst the sun was shining ninety-one hours, which is thirty-four hours more than usual. The summary given by the Meteorological Office for the thirteen weeks which constitute the winter, ending February, shows that the mean temperature was generally below the normal, the extreme readings ranging from 59° in the south of Ireland, and 58° in the east of Scotland and the east of England, to 3° in the Midland counties and the southeast of England. The rainfall was deficient over the entire kingdom, the deficiency ranging from 4.21 inches in the south-west of England to 0.24 inch in the north of Ireland. The duration of bright sunshine was generally in excess of the average, especially over the southern portion of England. At the close of February and on the opening days of March a touch of real winter was experienced over the entire area of the British Islands, as well as generally over western Europe; sharp frosts occurred in all parts, with heavy snow.

THE Bill "to promote the earlier use of daylight in certain months yearly"—formerly known shortly as the Daylight Saving Bill—is down for the second reading in

The Bill the House of Commons to-morrow (Friday). represents the shape of the resurrection of a measure which massed its second reading in the House a year ago, and was referred to a select committee. The unscientific character of the proposal and the confusion which would follow should the measure ever find a place in the Statutebook were stated clearly in NATURE of July 9, 1908. To the views expressed in that article most competent authorities will subscribe. For the sake of history, we give the substance of the measure, but it is difficult to believe that the House of Commons will consent to the system of selfdeception which is advocated by the promoters of the Bill, with complete disregard of the consequences. The operative clauses of the Bill are as follows :--(1) From two, o'clock in the morning Greenwich mean time in the case of Great Britain, and Dublin mean time in the case of Ireland, of the third Sunday in April in each year until two o'clock in the morning' Greenwich mean time in the case of Great Britain, and Dublin mean time in the case of Ireland, of the third Sunday in September in each year the local time shall be in the case of Great Britain one hour in advance of Greenwich mean time and in the case of Ireland one hour in advance of Dublin mean time, and from two o'clock in the morning Greenwich mean time in the case of Great Britain, and Dublin mean time in the case of Ireland, of the third Sunday in September in each year until two o'clock in the morning Greenwich mean time in the case of Great Britain, and Dublin mean time in the case of Ireland, of the third Sunday in April in each year the local time shall be in the case of Great Britain the same as Greenwich mean time and in the case of Ireland the same as Dublin mean time. (2) The time hereby established shall be known as summer season time in Great Britain and Ireland, and whenever any expression of time occurs in any Act of Parliament, deed, or other legal instrument, the time mentioned or referred to shall, unless it is otherwise specifically stated, be held in the case of Great Britain and Ireland to be summer season time as prescribed by this Act. (3) Greenwich mean time as used for the purposes of astronomy and navigation shall not be affected by this Act. (4) This Act shall apply to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and may be cited as the Summer Season Time (Great Britain and Ireland) Act. 1909.

In the course of a paper published in vol. iv., Nos. 1 and 2, of the *Bio-chemical Journal* on the relations of certain marine organisms to light, Prof. B. Moore directs particular attention to the periodicity of their phosphorescence. That light from without influences this phenomenon is demonstrated by the fact that the periods of activity and rest in regard to phosphorescence follow, respectively, the hours of daylight and darkness. How deepseated is this periodicity has been demonstrated by experiments on copepods, in which it persisted for no less than twelve days in the absence of the accustomed recurring stimulus of nocturnal darkness and diurnal light. It is added that the phosphorescence of these copepods in captivity is spontaneous, and although increased by mechanical stimulation, goes on vigorously even when the organisms are at rest and undisturbed.

THE February number of the Zoologist contains a remarkably interesting account, by Mr. H. W. Bell-Marley, of hunting the hump-backed whale in Natal waters. For some years it has been observed that between May and August large numbers of hump-backs pass between Natal and the Delagoa Bay coast, and in May, 1908, some enterprising Norwegians obtained permission to set up a

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

whaling-station on the Bluff side of the channel. Their success may be judged from the fact that between July and the early part of September no fewer than one hundred and two hump-backs and two rorquals were taken. The supply is, however, not exhausted, as the writer describes steaming into the midst of a school of about a score of these monsters, the movements and gambols of which afforded a most wonderful and thrilling spectacle. Nevertheless, such vigorous fishing cannot long be carried on without seriously diminishing the numbers of the whales, and Mr. Bell-Marley is of opinion that, if their extermination is to be prevented, action ought forthwith to be taken by the Colonial Government.

An interesting pamphlet, written by Mr. H. A. Ballou, has just been issued by the Imperial Department of Agriculture for the West Indies on "millions" and mosquitoes. Millions are small fishes, the full-grown female measuring about 11 inches in length, while the male is much smaller; they belong to the species Girardinus, the particular variety dealt with in the pamphlet being G. *poeciloides*, De Filippi. They live in shallow water, and are such voracious feeders on the eggs, larvæ, and pupæ of mosquitoes that these insects are unable to breed in streams and ponds stocked with them. They commonly occur in Barbadoes, and in consequence the Anopheles mosquito, which disseminates malaria and breeds only in shallow streams, pools, or marshes, has never been able to spread, and Barbadoes is free from malaria. The Imperial Department has since 1905 made shipments of these fishes to several West India islands, and from all sources favourable reports have been received. At Antigua the Board of Health has undertaken the work of stocking all the ponds and streams, and the mosquito nuisance has abated in consequence. It is pointed out, however, that certain varieties of mosquitoes, e.g. Culex fatigans and Stegomyia fasciata, breed in small temporary collections of water, such as those found on house-tops, in rain-water tanks, bottles, the concavities of leaves, &c., and will therefore escape destruction by the " millions.'

DARWIN and the mutation theory form the theme of the opening article, by Mr. C. F. Cox, in the February number of the American Naturalist. After mentioning that the great evolutionist would not have accepted, at least in its entirety, the mutation theory of de Vries, the author states that " he was compelled to concede that what we now call mutation had occasionally taken place and become the starting point of new races, but he was none the less unshaken in the conviction that this process was exceptional and extraordinary, and that, as a rule, a new species originated by the gradual building up of minute and even insignificant deviations from the average characters of an old species. . . . For the doctrine of 'insensible gradations,' which touched mainly a minor premise in his general argument for evolution, Mr. Darwin was almost willing to relinquish the essence of the whole matter, which was his claim to the discovery of a vera causa in the evolutionary process. . . . The establishment of the theory of natural selection was Mr. Darwin's greatest and most original achievement. Time has proved that he could have afforded to stand upon the general validity of this theory, though everything in his argument in its favour had needed review and modification. . . . Properly regarded, the mutation theory does not antagonise or weaken the doctrine of natural selection-on the contrary, it merely offers itself as a helpful substitute for, or adjunct to, one of Darwin's subordinate steps in the approach to a consistent philosophy of the origin of species, leaving the great cause of

evolution as efficient as ever. It is, therefore, one of the tragedies of science that in this matter Darwin should have been ready to surrender his main position rather than to receive and to join forces with those who were coming to his aid."

In the number of Man for February Mrs. M. E. Cunnington describes the result of the excavation of a late Celtic rubbish-heap near Oare, in Wiltshire. From the number of potsherds unearthed it was supposed by some authorities that the mound represents the accumulated débris of a pottery; but there are no signs of distortion during baking in any of the fragments, and the number of animal bones points to the existence of a considerable settlement. The pottery falls into two classes, that of native manufacture and that imported. Most of the examples of the former type are not inelegantly shaped bowls with a contracted mouth and bead rim. These are of purely British manufacture, and are characteristic of the late Celtic period, like the examples from Weymouth in the British Museum and those of the same period at Colchester. The foreign ware is of various types-Belgic of the first century A.D., green-glazed Roman ware from Gaul, and several pieces of very thin white and creamcoloured pottery, which probably came from Rheims about the same time. More remarkable are examples of the rare Arretine ware, while the absence of the later Gaulish red Samian corroborates the date of this accumulation, which seems to have been made just before the Roman occupation of that part of the island. If the date of the neighbouring Martinsell Camp could be established, it is possible that its garrison may have had some connection with the inmates of this settlement.

THE National Geographic Magazine for January continues its campaign against the destruction of the State forests of America by lessons drawn from two countries of the old continent. Mr. E. L. Harris, in his notes on the buried cities of Asia Minor, shows that in the neighbourhood of Pergamus the ruin has been so widespread that it is doubtful if any rational system of forestry can now restore the trees which once covered the higher grounds and permitted a flourishing agriculture in that region. Mr. F. N. Meyer points out that in a large part of northern China, which in the time of Marco Polo was the seat of extensive silk culture, the mulberry trees have disappeared, the rivers once used for carriage of goods have shrunk in volume, and the deserted wells bear witness to the shameful destruction of the forests. The denudation of the hill-sides is said to have diminished the rainfall, the soil on the slopes has disappeared, and disastrous floods result from the rapid dissipation of the water in the rainy season. Here, too, the mischief seems to be almost past remedy, and unless the Chinese Government takes immediate and active measures the eastern extension of the Mongolian desert is inevitable.

THERE is certainly room for a popular, well-illustrated periodical dealing with the lighter side of geographical work, and this want seems likely to be supplied by the new magazine *Travel and Exploration*. The March number contains articles by competent writers describing expeditions in many parts of the world. The best of these is that by Lord Hindlip on a hunting trip in the Nahlin or Cassiar mountains, near the famous Dawson Trail leading to Klondike, in which he was successful in obtaining fine specimens of the wild sheep. Miss E. C. Sykes is also a little off familiar ground in her account of a ride along the little-known route in northern Persia from Meshed to the railway line which runs between Merv, Askabad, and Krasnovodsk. The scheme of this new NO. 2053, VOL. 80] periodical includes reviews of current geographical literature, which, it may be hoped, will soon develop into an adequate bibliography.

A SUMMARY and bibliography of literature dealing with Russian botany, that was published in 1906, has been issued as a supplement to the Bulletin du Jardin impériat botanique, St. Petersburg. The contents are, it may be mentioned, practically inaccessible except to Russian scholars.

SIR JOSEPH HOOKER has made a further contribution to the classification of the genus Impatiens in the first number of the *Kew Bulletin* for the current year, where he furnishes a description of species from Indo-China and the Malayan Peninsula. The comparison of selected characters leads to the conclusion that the species from these regions are closely allied, and show some affinity with Burmese species, but differ greatly from the Chinese. Four of the specimens are made the types of new species. Another systematic article is provided by Mr. T. A. Sprague, being a revision of the section Omphacarpus of the genus Grewia.

DR. M. SAMEC communicates to the Sitzungsberichte der kaiserlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften (vol. cxvii., part v.), Vienna, a note on the variation in the intensity of light at different altitudes. During a balloon journey he took a series of readings for comparison with measurements made by Prof. Wiesner in the course of his investigations regarding the amount and nature of the light falling upon plants. Readings were taken of the intensity of sun-light and of diffused light. The figures are somewhat irregular, but the intensity of sun-light increased with ascent, and more rapidly than the intensity of the diffused light. The measurements of light reflected from below showed a series of maxima corresponding with the passage of the balloon over water.

An account of the constructive work for restraining the flow of torrents and of the *reboisement* of mountain slopes near Interlaken contributed by Mr. C. E. C. Fischer to the *Indian Forester* (January) should indicate to the authorities in India the value attached to such precautions in Switzerland, and may possibly help towards the establishment of a similar policy. Although avalanches and storms are important factors in denudation, the prime agent is the browsing goat. The chief features in construction are the retaining walls built at intervals across the valley, the channels for leading off the streams, and wattle fences for checking the downward flow. Grass is planted between the fences, and prepares the ground for early settlers such as *Sedum annuum* and Adenostyles; later on, Parnassia, orchids, aconites, and other plants appear on the scene, and in two or three years alders or pines may be planted.

WE have received a discussion of the winds at Rome by Dr. I. Massarini, deduced from anemograph records for 1876-1905, and reprinted from the Annals of the Italian Meteorological Office, vol. xxvii., part i. The author has dealt with the subject in great detail, and has calculated, *inter alia*, the frequency of wind direction under sixteen points and their velocity with respect to the hours of the day, as well as for months, years, and for periods of ten and thirty years; also the velocity for the same periods, irrespective of direction, and has exhibited the results in fifty-four tables and nine plates. We can only note here the following general remarks :—(1) Direction. The most frequent winds are (in order of their frequency) N.N.E., N., and S.; the least frequent is the E. wind. (2) Velocity. The strongest winds are S.S.E., S., S.S.W., and N.N.E. (the last two having equal values). The weakest wind is from N.W. During three years, 1873-5, a Robinson anemometer was in operation; the author has supplemented his valuable work by a separate discussion of these data.

THE Memoirs of the Indian Meteorological Department, vol. xx., part v., contain a laborious and valuable analysis, by Mr. R. L. Jones, of the records of the anemograph (Meteorological Office pattern) at the Madras Observatory for eleven years, 1865-75. The tables give (1) the mean hourly movement of air, irrespective of direction, for each hour of the mean day of each month and for the year, and the constants of the periodical formulæ; (2) mean hourly southerly and westerly components, and the constants of the periodical formulæ, with computed values in each case. The chief features of the mean monthly air movement (irrespective of direction) are (a) a nearly uniform increase during the hot-weather period; (b) a more or less uniform decrease approximately during the south-west monsoon period; (c) a nearly uniform increase during the transition period; (d) a nearly uniform decrease approximately during the cold-weather period. The curves showing the daily variations exhibit a general resemblance to the daily variations in air temperature. The resultant air movement deduced from the southerly and westerly components is (1) between north and east during the transition and coldweather periods; (2) between east and south during the hot-weather period; and (3) between south and west during the south-west monsoon period.

Some of the troubles which have to be faced by engineers in Egypt are described by Mr. J. B. Van Brussel in an article on mechanical irrigation plants in the Engineering Magazine for February. Part of the Nile irrigation station at Wadi Kôm-Ombo consists of a steel canal 5200 feet in length and nearly semicircular in section, 20 feet diameter, and about 12 feet deep. The canal is used for conveying water from the service reservoir and distributing it to earth canals, or culverts, and is made up of seventeen sections, each about 310 feet long and constructed of riveted steel plates 6 millimetres thick. The sections are connected by expansion joints, and have a fall of level of I centimetre per 310 feet. Great difficulty was experienced in preserving the level while building, owing to the action of the wind passing through spaces where the dry foundation sand had been removed for riveting, thus causing the sand to drift and the wood cradles to sink. Often a whole section would sink several inches in a night. During the construction difficulty was also experienced due to unequal expansion. According to the side of the canal on which the sun was shining more strongly, the end of a section would move out of the centre line to one side or the other to the extent of as much as 4 inches. This movement stopped when the earth was banked up round the steel structural work, and the water began to flow through the canal.

THE January number of *Ion* contains a translation of the second memoir of the radium commission of the Academy of Sciences of Vienna. It deals with the evolution of heat by radium, and for it Drs. E. von Schweidler and V. F. Hess are responsible. Experimenting with more than a gram of radium-barium chloride enclosed in a glass tube a millimetre thick, surrounded by a copper vessel 5 millimetres thick, they have found that the heat generated by i gram of pure radium in these circumstances is 118 gram-degrees per hour. *Ion*, by a curious misprint, omits to give its readers this number.

An examination of the whole of the material at present stallable on the variation of the refractive indices of

mixtures of liquids with their composition has led Dr. V. F. Hess, of the University of Vienna, to formulate, in a paper which appears in the July, 1908, number of the Sitzungsberichte of the Academy of Vienna, a simple law for the refraction constant of a mixture. If the excess of the observed density of a mixture over that calculated from the densities of the constituents be divided by the observed density, and if the corresponding quotient for the refraction constants be found, Dr. Hess shows that if it is assumed that the two quotients for each mixture are proportional to each other, the calculated values of the refraction constants may, by a proper choice of the factor of proportion, be made to agree very closely with observation. The factor differs in value for each pair of liquids, changes a little with change of temperature, but is practically the same for all rays of the spectrum. Any one of the three refraction constants at present in use may be used in the calculations.

THE moving-coil galvanometer is now used so extensively on account of its insensibility to outside magnetic disturbances that Dr. M. Reinganum's article in the Physikalische Zeitschrift for February 1, describing two methods of making the instrument suitable for measuring smaller currents than it has been capable of measuring previously, will be welcomed by many of our readers. In the first method about 6 centimetres of soft iron wire, 0.33 millimetre diameter, is attached to the top of the coil outside the strongest part of the magnetic field, and at right angles to the lines of the field. In the second method a similar piece of magnetised steel wire is attached to the coil parallel to the field, but with its poles reversed. In each case the sensitiveness of the instrument is greatly increased, and in one case described by the author, with the steel wire, it was raised to ten times its original value without the deflections ceasing to be proportional to the current passing through the coil.

IN Reprint No. 101 from the Bulletin of the Bureau of Standards, v., 2 (Washington : Government Printing Office, 1908), Mr. Louis Cohen discusses the influence of terminal apparatus on telephonic transmission. It is pointed out that when a telephonic wave reaches the receiving instrument part of it is reflected, and that the proportion of the reflected and absorbed waves is a function of the frequency. Thus every harmonic will be affected differently, and a certain amount of distortion will be produced. The subject is eminently suited for the methods of mathematical analysis which the author applies. The outcome of the discussion is that in short-distance transmission the introduction of a condenser into the circuit will improve the transmission. This is the conclusion derived from an application to a cable 30 km. long. For long-distance transmission, taking as an example a length of 300 km., the author finds that the condenser has little effect.

MESSRS. MACMILLAN AND Co., LTD., have published the "Mathematical Papers for Admission into the Royal Military Academy and the Royal Military College for the years 1899–1908." The papers have been edited by Messrs. E. J. Brooksmith and R. M. Milne, who have also provided answers. The price of the volume is 6s.

MESSRS. CROSEY LOCKWOOD AND SON have just published the second edition of Dr. J. Erskine-Murray's "Handbook of Wireless Telegraphy." The original work was reviewed in NATURE of October 3, 1907 (vol. lxxvi., p. 563). About fifty pages of new matter have been added, and the whole text has been revised in the light of present knowledge of the subject.

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

MESSRS. H. W. COX AND Co. have issued a new catalogue of electromedical apparatus, which contains, in addition to the descriptions of the apparatus, short sketches of the theories of their action, and instructions how best to set them up. It should prove of exceptional value to medical practitioners who have not had the advantage of a practical training in the manipulation of physical apparatus.

WE have received from Washington a copy of the report of the Librarian of Congress and of the report of the superintendent of the library buildings and grounds for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1908. Like all American reports, it is of a detailed and exhaustive character, and provides information as to accessions, expenditure, new arrangements, and other matters of particular importance to librarians. It is of interest to note that, in addition to the Library of Congress, with its million and a half books -to say nothing of manuscripts, prints, maps, and charts -there are above a score of libraries maintained by the Federal Government at Washington. Among these may be mentioned those of the Department of Agriculture with 60,000 volumes, the Bureau of Education with 82,000, the Geological Survey with 80,000, the Patent Office with 80,500, and the National Museum with 20,000. Some of the special collections, like that of the U.S. Geological Survey, are unique in character, so it is easy to see that the American student is very fortunate in his facilities for reference to standard authorities and original sources.

OUR ASTRONOMICAL COLUMN.

THE SPECTRA OF VARIOUS NEBULÆ. The spectra of several nebulæ, as photographed at Heidelberg with the Waltz reflector, are briefly described by Prof. Wolf in No. 4305 of the Astronomische Nachrichten (p. 151, February 16).

February 16). Prof. Wolf states that the planetary nebula N.G.C. $6_{210} = B.D. + 24^{\circ}.3048$ is so bright that he is able to photograph the ten lines of its spectrum with only a brief exposure. These include six of the chief lines, at $\lambda\lambda$ 501 (i.), 434 (iii.), 410 (iv.), 397 (v.), 387 (vi.), and 373 (vii.), lines at $\lambda\lambda$ 412, 447, and 496, and H β ; the second nebula line, at λ 460, is not recorded, and H γ is clearly double.

at λ 460, is not recorded, and H γ is clearly double. The Ring nebula in Lyra shows the seven chief lines, H β , and the line at λ 496, but no spectrum of the central star is registered. Exposures without the spectrograph give an image of the ring in twenty seconds, but give no trace of the star, thus showing that the latter is less active, photometrically, than the ring itself. Using Wratten and Wainwright's "panchromatic" plates, Prof. Wolf also got the C line of hydrogen registered, and found it to be as bright as the other hydrogen lines. By using an open slit, annular images showing the monochromatic forms and sizes of the nebula were obtained; the ring at λ 469 was found to be the smallest, whilst that at λ 373 is the largest.

Long exposures on the cluster of nebulæ near the galactic pole (12h. 53m., $+28^{\circ}.6$) showed continuous spectra with maxima, but the condensations are too weak to measure. The spectrum of N.G.C. 6960, HV 15 Cygni, is purely gascous, the brightest line being that at λ 373, followed by λ 434 (H γ), and traces of other lines. N.G.C. 6992, HV 14 Cygni, shows the same spectrum with the addition of H β . The Milky Way nebula, N.G.C. 2023, again shows the lines at $\lambda\lambda$ 373, 434, and 486, but the line λ 373 is abnormally bright, and there is a suspicion of an additional line at about λ 345.

THE PROPOSED PROGRAMME OF WORK FOR THE REYNOLDS REFLECTOR AT HELWAN, EGYPT.—From a note in No. 27, vol. ii., of the *Cairo Scientific Journal* (p. 417, December, 1908), we learn that the Reynolds reflector at the Helwan Observatory is to be used, primarily, for the photography of nebulæ lying between the equator and 40° south declination. Mr. Knox Shaw shows that the instrument, owing to its comparatively short focal length, is unfitted for work on the sun and moon, whilst the absence of a large finder renders the photography of faint satellites impracticable; the ratio of the focal length to the aperture (30 inches) is only 4.5.

In the proposed zone there are between two and three thousand known nebulæ, of which the great majority have as yet only been observed visually, and, according to Keeler's estimate of their distribution, there should, in such a zone, be some 40,000; it therefore appears that the Reynolds reflector is provided with a very useful programme for a lengthy period.

OBSERVATIONS OF COMET TEMPEL₃-SWIFT.—In No. 4306 of the Astronomische Nachrichten (p. 159, February 18) Prof. Barnard records his observations of the periodic comet, Tempel₃-Swift (1908d), during its recent reappearance. Observations were made on four days in December, 1908, and the comet was found to be a small faint body of less than the sixteenth magnitude.

A new double star and two new nebulæ were discovered during the observation of the comet, and Prof. Barnard found that the star $B.D. + 43^{\circ}.53$ is one of the finest crimson stars in the heavens; on December 20, 1908, he recorded it as an exquisite object as seen in the 40-inch refractor.

THE LEVELS OF SUN-SPOTS.—From Mr. Dodwell, of the Observatory, Adelaide, we have received a stereogram which confirms Dr. Krebs's observation of the different levels of sun-spots, referred to in this column for August 27, 1008 (No. 2026, vol. lxxviii., p. 402).

which commiss bit. Arcess observation of the antilevels of sun-spots, referred to in this column for August 27, 1908 (No. 2026, vol. lxxviii., p. 402). The two photographs from which the stereogram was prepared were taken by Mr. A. W. Dobbie, of Adelaide, during the solar eclipse of 1905, and the two groups of spots then visible on the solar disc distinctly appear to be at different levels. Mr. Dobbie used an 18-inch Newtonian reflector of 13 feet focal length, made by himself, and stopped down to an aperture of 4.5 inches. The exposures given were of about 1/1000th of a second duration, and the interval between the two was about $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

A New "CAVE-NEBULA" IN CEPHEUS.—On a plate taken by him with the Bruce telescope at Heidelberg, on October 21, 1908, Dr. Kopff discovered an interesting nebula in the constellation Cepheus.

Later photographs taken by Prof. Wolf, with the Waltz reflector, show this object to be a good example of the singular phenomenon of cave-formation amongst Milky Way stars. The star B.D. $+69^{\circ}.1231$ is involved in the nebula, which is situated at the southern extremity of a long, starless space covered with intricate patches of nebulous matter and dark areas, and traversed by a bridge of stars, from east to west, at about 22h. 10m., $+70^{\circ}$ o'. The position (1855.0) of the B.D. star is $\alpha = 22h$. 10m. Is., $\delta = +69^{\circ} 31'.7$.

A reproduction of the region showing this interesting object accompanies Prof. Wolf's paper describing it in No. 2, vol. lxix., of the Monthly Notices (R.A.S.).

THE RECENT MAGNITUDE OF NOVA PERSEI.—In No. 4303 of the Astronomische Nachrichten Prof. Nijland publishes the results of a series of magnitude observations of Nova Persei (No. 2) made at the Utrecht Observatory between July, 1904, and April, 1908. The apparent variations, if real, are unimportant and irregular, the four yearly values being 10.63, 10.53, 10.58, and 10.59, mean 10.58; on Father Hägen's scale this magnitude lies half-way between his stars 42 and 49.

DOUBLE-STAR MEASURES.—Nos. 4301 and 4302 of the Astronomische Nachrichten are devoted, to the extent of eighteen three-column pages, to the results of recent micrometer measures of double stars, made by Prof. Burnham with the 40-inch refractor of the Yerkes Observatory. The measures form part of the observer's general programme of observing neglected doubles, to investigate proper motions, and to provide material which may in future have special value in any discussion of the pairs given in the general catalogue.

A series of notes, dealing respectively with the individual systems, is also given, and will undoubtedly prove useful in any subsequent discussions.

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH AND THE CARNEGIE TRUST.

THE seventh annual report, that for the year 1907-8, of the executive committee to the trustees of the Carnegie Trust for the Universities of Scotland, was submitted at a meeting held in London on February 24. The report contains a review of the activities of the trust during the seven years of its existence. In the first place, the committee directs special attention to the scheme of endowment of post-graduate study and research, which completed its first lustrum, on September 30, 1908. The committee submitted the results of the scheme over the five years to independent authorities for examination and report. For this purpose the services were obtained, in the physical and chemical sciences, of Dr. J. J. Dobbie, director of the Royal Scottish Museum, and formerly professor of chemistry in the University College of North Wales; in the biological and medical sciences, of Dr. J. Ritchie, superintendent of the Royal College of Physicians' Laboratory, and formerly professor of pathology in the University of Oxford; and in the historical, economic, and linguistic sciences, of Prof. P. Hume Brown, Historiographer-Royal for Scotland.

The assistance offered by the scheme was of three kinds —scholarships, fellowships, and grants—in order, so far as possible, to reach all classes of workers. Selection was made, not by competitive examination, but for fellowships on the merits of original work already published, and for scholarships on the evidence of experts regarding the applicant's special fitness for the work proposed. No fixed number of foundations, nor even a definite total sum, was assigned to any one year. The aim of the scheme was, within the limits of the trust deed, to discover and supply the demand for assistance in higher study and research throughout Scotland. The actual expenditure upon the scheme for the first quinquennial period was 27,7551.

scheme för the first quinquennial period was 27,755l. Two points in connection with the reports of the experts referred to above are mentioned. The first is that the reports must be taken as representing only part of the output of the universities of Scotland in higher study and research; for in many departments, and not merely in those outside the scope of the trust, much independent work of the kind is being done. The second is that in providing the scheme with so many able workers, as well as in affording laboratory accommodation and supervision, the universities deserve much of the credit due to its success.

In summarising the grants to universities and extramural colleges, the report states that, of the total grants during the past six years, amounting to 246,374*l*, 23,000*l*. has been allocated to libraries, 131,644*l*. to buildings and permanent equipment, and 91,730*l*. to teaching. In this allocation the committee was guided by the special needs of each institution as set forth by its governing body. It is gratifying to find, in the statements received from the universities and other institutions regarding their claims under the second quinquennial distribution, their general recognition of the great benefits that have accrued.

The second quinquennial scheme of distribution, besides making contributions of 65,250l. to buildings and permanent equipment and 20,500l. to libraries, will at the close of the period of five years have increased the resources of teaching in the four university centres by permanent endowments amounting to 87,500l., and have afforded during the five years an annual income of about 4150l. to meet ordinary expenditure. During the period of seven academic years in which the

During the period of seven academic years in which the scheme of payment of class fees has been in operation, the individual students whose fees have been paid by the trust number \$263, and the fees paid reach the total of 298,6871. Fifty-five beneficiaries under the scheme have made voluntary repayment of fees paid on their behalf, amounting in all to \$811.

With regard to school education of applicants, the committee has been able since the year 1907–8 to demand of all applicants a standard equivalent to that of the universities arts and science preliminary examination, or of the leaving certificate of the Scotch Education Department.

The expenditure for 1907-8 upon the research scheme and upon the laboratory was respectively 6340l. and 2185l.,

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

towards the latter of which the Colleges of Physicians and of Surgeons have together contributed 950l. Under the head of grants to university centres a sum of 73,998l. 5s. 9d. was available for distribution during 1907-8. The statistics of the payment of class fees for the academic year 1907-8 give the total number of beneficiaries as 3269, the total amount of fees paid as 43,256l., and the average amount in fees paid per beneficiary as 13l. 4s. 8d., an increase as compared with the preceding academic year of 107, 2154l., 16s., and 4s. 8d. respectively.

rist. 45, 54, and increase as compared with the preceding academic year of 107, 2154*l*., 16s., and 4s. 8d. respectively. In his report on the scheme of endowment of post-graduate study and research, Dr. J. J. Dobbie, dealing with the physical and chemical sciences, remarks that a careful examination of the papers relating to the work of the Carnegie fellows, scholars, and grantees in the mathematical and experimental sciences has confirmed and strengthened the conclusions expressed in the report of January 19, 1905, as to the satisfactory working of the scheme for the encouragement of post-graduate study and research. The high standard set in the appointment of the first fellows and scholars has been well maintained in subsequent appointments. With few exceptions, the beneficiaries have fully justified their selection by the trustees. They have carried out successfully a large amount of re-scarch work. During the past five years thirty-seven individuals have been appointed to fellowships or scholarships, and twenty-five, not including fellows, have received grants. The detailed numbers, excluding grantees, are :--mathematics, 2; physics, 8; engineering, 4; chemistry, 23. It is a noteworthy circumstance that the fellows and scholars in chemistry outnumber the total of all the other branches of the mathematical and physical sciences. This may, perhaps, be accounted for to some extent, but not altogether, by the fact that the comparatively fresh field of physical chemistry offers certain attractions to students who formerly would have devoted themselves to purely physical research. Some students are thus classed with the chemists, who might with equal reason be reckoned amongst the physicists.

The fellows and scholars have contributed together one hundred and seventeen, and the grantees twenty-two, papers to the scientific journals. The papers in every case embody the results of original investigations conducted by their authors, and in the aggregate contain a very large number of new observations, some of which have proved of real value in furthering the development of the branch of science to which they relate. Nearly all the papers of the beneficiaries have been published in the journals of one or other of the great societies. It is well known that since the inauguration of the trustees' scheme the output of experimental work by the Scottish universities has greatly increased. In chemistry alone, in the course of the last two years, the number of papers dated from the laboratories of the Scottish universities which have been published in the Journal of the Chemical Society is twice as great as the number appearing in the two years immediately preceding that in which the scheme came into operation; and a still more important result is to be found in the opportunity which the scheme has afforded for cooperation within our laboratories. Although Scotland has in the past produced many eminent investigators, they have, with a few notable exceptions, been solitary workers. It is only within the last few years that "schools" of research, such as have long been the strength of the scientific departments of the German universities, have come into existence there, and the encouragement which the Carnegie scheme has given to this movement is not the least of its claims upon the gratitude of the scientific world.

Dr. James Ritchie, in reporting on the biological and medical sciences, states that during the period under review eighteen fellows have been at work. Of the total number, ten had previous to election to fellowships been beneficiaries of the trust, either as scholars or grantees. The distribution of the fellowships as regards the different branches of science were as follows:--agriculture, two; zoology, two (including one in protozoology); anatomy, three (including one in embryology and one in anthropology); physiology, six (including one in experimental psychology); pathology, five (including one in neurology). Of those appointed to scholarships, numbering in all fortynine, eight have been promoted to fellowships. Of the others, eight resigned before the beginning of the academic year, and nine during the academic year in question. The departments of science in which the scholars proposed to work, or in which they have worked, are as follows, the numbers indicating the applicants in each branch: geology, onc; palæontology, one; botany, seven; agriculture, five; zoology, five; anatomy, two; embryology, two; physiology, three; pharmacology, two; pathology, eleven; surgery, two. The distribution of ninety-one grantees, according to their subjects, was as follows: meteorology, one; geology, six; palæontology, two; botany, three; agriculture, four; zoology, ten; anatomy, seven; embryology, four; anthropology, one; physiology, sixteen; pharmacology, four; pathology, twenty-eight; therapeutics, five. The grantees fall into three groups:— (a) cases where grants have been made to persons holding responsible positions as heads of scientific departments or to assistants in such departments; (b) cases where grants have been made to persons in other positions, and who are engaged in research work in leisure time; (c) cases where grants have been made to young workers often in lieu of scholarships for which they have applied. In concluding his report, Dr. Ritchie remarks that it is

In concluding his report, Dr. Ritchie remarks that it is not difficult, in reading between the lines of the papers relating to the beneficiaries, to see that in very many cases the work which has been done would never have been undertaken unless the assistance of the trust had been given, and that in no corresponding period in the history of the universities of Scotland has so much research work of such uniformly high character been successfully carried on.

As regards historical, economic, and linguistic subjects, Dr. Hume Brown reports that, out of eighteen scholars and fellows, there are only four who have failed in greater What or lesser degree to fulfil the conditions of the trust. is noteworthy is that the work done has been original work, which really advances the various subjects under-taken by the beneficiaries. There appear to be three chief cause's of the few failures that have occurred. Some candidates were recommended on the strength of their record of study in the universities, but it may happen that students who have distinguished themselves under the pressure of competition may show a lack of concentration when that pressure is removed. Such cases will occur, and can hardly be prevented. Another cause of failure is that the scholar had no clear conception of the work he undertook, with the result that time and labour were lost before he found his way to the essentials of his subject. The majority of the applicants for scholarships have had little or no previous experience in research, and it is important that they should be carefully supervised. The beneficiaries who have received grants are seventeen in all, of whom only one or two have proved more or less unsatisfactory.

At the annual meeting of the trustees on February 24 Lord Elgin moved the adoption of the report, Mr. Balfour seconded, and the motion was adopted unanimously.

In the course of his remarks, Mr. Balfour said :—This is a special occasion in the history of the trust. It is the first time that anything in the nature of a complete survey of the work that has been done under certain sections of the trust has been possible to us. It is the first time that the public can be really put in possession of information which will enable them to judge of the value of the great benefaction which the founder established for his countrymen and for the world. There is one department of the trust of which, since I am not a member of the executive, I may speak with a freedom of praise which would be quite impossible were any of the credit or any of the responsibility due to me. I refer to that portion of the work with which this great report is chiefly occupied—the portion of the work which consists in encouraging original research.

It is evident that this great object is partially ministered to by that portion of our endowment which is given to equipping libraries, laboratories, and providing our universities with all the modern appliances which seem ever more costly as the progress of science advances, and without which it is quite impossible for a modern university to do its proper work. But it is not on that portion of

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

our labours on which I should like, specially at the moment, to congratulate Mr. Andrew Carnegie and the executive. It is rather upon the portion of the work which deals with the encouragement of those competent to carry on original work-an encouragement over and above that of merely supplying universities with the necessary equipment of books and apparatus. It is obvious that the task of selecting people who can do this work is very difficult and very delicate. It is surrounded with puzzling questions of administration, but the way it has been solved by the executive committee of the universities concerned, and the success which has attended their efforts, raises even. the highest hopes of even the most optimistic and hopeful in connection with the movement. There is no greater waste in the world, and no more serious waste in the world, than waste of brains and intellect, of originality, and of scientific imagination, which may be used to further the knowledge of mankind of the history of the world, if men who are capable of carrying on investigations of this. sort are given the opportunity of doing so. Competitive examinations are literally no test whatever of ability for original research. What is wanted is something much higher, much rarer, than the mere capacity for absorbing knowledge, and reproducing it rapidly when the time for examination comes round. What is required is some spark of that divine genius which shows itself in many ways, but which is, after all, a great element to which we must look for the progress of our race and the improvement of our civilisation.

What is it we want to do? We want to catch the man immediately after he has gone through his academic course, before he has become absorbed in professional life. At the moment when ideas spring most easily to the mind, when originality comes most naturally to the happily endowed individual, we want to catch him and turn him with success. It is not an easy task to catch the man, and the number of men worth catching is not very large. The report speaks of a certain number of failures; there are not many among those who have been selected. It is amazing that the number is not much larger. No intuition will ever enable us to discover whether the man has anything beyond the ambition to do good work in original research. We have only to look at the reports of the experts who have dealt with the papers to consider the growth in the number of original papers accepted by scientific magazines which have issued from Scotland to see how much has been done to further this great cause of original research. We may divide the persons who are competent to carry on original research roughly into two classes, those who have the gift and ambition, but not one of those rare and overmastering ambitions which forces a man into this particular career for all his life. We have to catch them before they get absorbed in the necessary occupations of life and extract from them all we can in the way of invention and originality. Then there is a rare and higher class, those who seem born for research, to whom the penetration into the secrets of nature or into the secrets of history is an absorbing and overmastering passion, from which they will not be diverted or arrested except by absolute overmastering necessity of earning their daily bread and supporting themselves and their families. To these men it is all important, not for the sake of the men, but for the sake of the community, that they should have a chance of devoting their talents-rare talents-to that great work for which God undoubtedly intended them.

Work of the kind being done will never be able to be estimated by tables of statistics or measurement of output, but, in spite of that, will count, and count largely, among the affairs to which we shall owe the progress of knowledge, of invention, and of civilisation. Mr. Carnegie has, by this endowment of research, done a work which not only adds lustre to the history of his native country, but also has no provincial or national aspect about it, and will add to that stock of knowledge and invention which, when once made, is the common heritage of civilised mankind. In so doing Mr. Carnegie deserves not merely the thanks of those to whom he has entrusted the administration of his magnificent benefaction, but the thanks of the whole civilised world.

THE FUNCTIONS OF TECHNICAL COLLEGES.¹

N glancing over the early history of mcchanics' institutes in this country, it is not at all clear that their founders believed that the maintenance of the position of Britain as an industrial nation was likely to depend in any direct way on the more scientific education of the working classes. The industrial position of the nation was still unchallenged, British labour was still as efficient as that of any other country, the organisers of industry were second to none in shrewdness and enterprise, and the rising suns of America and Germany were still below the industrial torizon. While the exact date at which these orbs arose may be uncertain, there can be no doubt that early in the last quarter of the nineteenth century they were already well above the horizon, and were beginning to cast sharp shadows across the industrial fields of Great Britain. Long before these signs had become obvious to the commercial and industrial classes, a number of far-seeing men, some of them industrial leaders, but the majority men of science or education, had raised the cry of more extended and popular education in science. Thanks to their advocacy this policy of reform began to make itself felt, and before the final decades of the century were spent the modern technical education movement was well under way.

Even if I were sufficiently informed to sketch for you the history of this movement, it would be superfluous for me to do so, as you are already familiar with the various stages in its development. My purpose in recalling the past was rather to help me to present to you the situation to-day, as it appears to me, not as a professed educationist, but as one who has for more than a generation been closely associated with industry and with the application of scientific methods to its development. I am fully conscious that my own views on the subject of technical education are still in process of crystallisation, and I cannot do more than ask you to accept me among your number as a student who desires to cooperate with you in advancing the great cause you have at heart.

These yearly gatherings may be regarded as halting places on our journey, from which we may look backwards over the various routes along which we have been travelling, and forwards into the country which still stretches ahead. The particular route on which it has been my lot to travel has not been wanting in variety and interest for the traveller, but as I have not yet reached the age at which my personal reminiscences could have any claim on your indulgent attention, I only refer to the journey in these general terms, and mainly because it has been made over one of the less frequented routes. As some of the hilly parts of the route happened by good fortune to be traversed in stimulating company and under favourable conditions of the atmosphere, the views which were then absorbed have left many vivid impressions, some of which have no doubt influenced me in my choice of a subject on which to address you.

It appears to me that the time has arrived when we may profitably review the position of the technical institutions in their more direct relations to the industries of the country. If we are possessed by the belief that the industrial future of the nation must largely depend on the spread of education in science and in the application of its laws to the affairs of daily life, then we cannot escape from the conclusion that it is our particular duty to see to it that we are taking a leading part in this vitally important work. This is the task which has been laid upon us by our founders and supporters, public and private. It is also the task to which we have committed ourselves from the moment when we began to enrol students in our classes. These students have come to us in the belief that we in our superior wisdom can guide and train them for the more assured places in the world of industry, so that our obligations to them. also compel us to associate ourselves more and more closely with the industrial interests. It is hardly possible to over-estimate the importance of the task we have undertaken, and the more we appreciate its magnitude the more likely shall we

¹ Address delivered at the annual meeting of the Association of Technical Institutions on February 5 by Dr. George T. Beilby, F.R.S., president of the association.

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

be to cultivate only the broadest and most fully informed views of the lines on which we may hope to discharge it worthily.

While we must realise that this is essentially the task which is now laid upon the technical institutions, and that it devolves upon these bodies to take the lead in stating the problems which are involved and in working towards their solution, we none the less gratefully recognise the pioneer work of the universities in the same fields. It behoves us, therefore, to walk hand in hand with those universities which have established within their own boundaries faculties of applied science, and to avail ourselves of their experience, not only in this special department, but also in other fields of professional training. For the universities, however, this problem is only one among the many with which they are called upon to deal, while for the technical institutions it is the central problem. The very singleness of our aim, therefore, ought to give a force and concentration to our efforts which should go far to ensure success of a kind which has never before been attained.

The training of men for the practice of the learned pro-fessions has always been largely in the hands of the universities, and one of the principles which has been evolved in the organisation of this training is of the deepest interest for us, as it has an important bearing on the work we are called upon to perform. This principle is that the final judgment as to the courses of study and preparation should rest mainly with practising members of the professions. I think I am right in saying that in the faculties of law, of medicine, and of theology, this has been recognised, and that throughout their courses of study and preparation the students are brought into contact with practising members of the profession for which they are qualifying. They have thus the opportunity of realising the practical bearing of their intellectual studies on the work of their profession, and the intellectual atmosphere around them is that peculiar to their profession. One result of this is that when the graduates in these faculties leave the university they already possess the instincts of their profession, and are proud to be classed among its members. They may be, and probably are, very inexperienced members, but the fact remains that they have been professionally trained. This means that the knowledge they have acquired has already been to some extent correlated to the work which they are expected to perform. They have been trained to state the practical problems of their profession in a scientific way, and to look for their solution through the methods of accurate and intelligent observation and reasoning. This principle is equally recognised outside the universi-

This principle is equally recognised outside the universities in the training required for the newer professions. The professional bodies which regulate the admission to their membership of civil engineers, architects, accountants, and analytical chemists, all require that the education of the candidates shall be of a definitely professional character, and it is always supervised by practising members of the particular profession.

If the training in our institutions is to be modelled on the lines of the best professional standards, we shall have to secure the active cooperation of representative men from those industries for which we propose to train our students. With the help of these representatives we must organise courses of instruction, practical as well as theo-retical. We must give to the practical side the same kind of reality as is found in the clinical teaching of medical students, and it must be made compulsory for all who desire to obtain the full diploma of the college. It ought, therefore, to be supervised by a joint committee of the board of studies and the representatives of the industries. If the colleges, with the cooperation of industrial representatives who are themselves employers, can in this way organise and supervise the practical side of their training, the education of the engineer, the electrician, and the chemist will be rendered homogeneous from beginning to end, and the diploma will then be as definite a guarantee of complete professional training as the medical degree now is. In both cases the experience which only results from practice has still to be won, but the professional training will enable its possessor to begin to make his experience through his own practice.

You will perhaps say that this is a counsel of perfection. Well, even if it be so, I think it is worth while occasion-ally to indulge in such counsels. I will therefore ask you to follow me rather more closely into the question. Let us first consider what is the present position as regards the training of the class of students whom we are supposed to understand best, the engineers. In this matter our colleges have been satisfied to follow on the lines laid down by those universities which confer a degree in engineering science. This degree, like the diploma of our colleges, is granted without any reference to office or work-shop training. Under the "Sandwich system" time is given for the students who choose to do so to obtain a certain amount of experience in outside offices or workshops during the intervals between the university terms, but there is no direct supervision of this work, it is not even compulsory, and any student with the necessary intellectual capacity can take his degree quite as well with-out as with it. Though the universities and colleges take out as with the tability of the universities and congets are given to understand that if they desire to qualify them-selves for responsible posts in the engineering world they must serve either a full or a modified term of apprenticeship in some recognised office or workshop before, during, or after their college course. They must be prepared, therefore, to devote from six to eight years to obtaining the full training required for their profession. Even the longer of these periods is not too long, but we must admit that it is a fairly large slice out of the life of a man, so that it behoves us to make sure that it is used to the best advantage. If we analyse the total period of eight years, or ninety-six months, we shall find that from twenty to thirty months are spent in close study and examination work, eight to ten months in holidays, fifty-six to sixtyeight months_in the workshop or office. I find it difficult to believe that this is an ideal distribution of the time; at any rate, it appears to me that we ought to be able to put ourselves into a position from which we may be free to discuss it in its various aspects and to modify it in an authoritative way if it seems right that we should do so. Under present conditions these young men come to us and in effect say, "We want your degree or diploma, but as we shall also have to spend a number of years as apprentices we cannot afford to give you more than three years, therefore be good enough to do the best you can for us in that time," and we certainly try to do our best in the in that time," and we certainly try to do our best you can for us in that time," and we certainly try to do our best in the circumstances; but the circumstances are rather unfor-tunate, for do we not too often find ourselves helpless to contend against the "examination bogey" which obtrudes itself at every turn? So much book and lecture work has to be overtaken in three short years that if we attempt to develop the intelligence of the students in any directions which do not lie directly in the line of the degree, they are at once unsympathetic or even obstructive. The students cannot afford to give themselves any time to develop their own thinking and reasoning powers, and yet the time spent at college or university ought to be the great intellectual opportunity of their lives. Not once, but great intellectual opportunity of their lives. Not once, but many times, have I been shocked by the absolutely un-intellectual outlook of the bright and apparently capable young men who pass through our colleges. Now it appears to me that if these young men could come to us and say, "We know that we must give seven or eight years to preparing for our life's work, will you undertake to organise and supervise our training, practical as well as theoretical, for the whole period, and will you then give us a degree or diploma which will be a real mark of our professional training and fitness?" we could accept the larger responsibility with lighter hearts and with a hopefulness which we have no right to feel under present conditions.

Our larger institutions are in a unique position to deal with this matter in a courageous manner, for they hold a mandate directly from the people who are most deeply concerned in it. To put it at once on its broadest ground, the nation has a right to expect this from us. Some of the universities have given us a noble lead in our earlier development, but I am bold enough to think that we have outgrown that lead, and the sooner we recognise that fact the better it will be for those who are depending on us. Not only is public opinion on our side, but industrial

NO. 2053, VOL. 80

opinion is being rapidly permeated with more advanced views on the mutual relations of science and industry. The most practical result for us is that industrial leaders and manufacturers are beginning to give us their active sympathy and cooperation. This appears to me to be the real key to the situation.

Speaking for the college with which I am associated, I can say that this cooperation is an accomplished fact. It is now some years since the governors instituted a regular system of committees of management for the different departments of work. These committees are empowered to deal, not only with the purely business matters which arise in their departments, but also with questions of educational policy, and they act as the intermediaries between the board of studies and the governors. The board of governors itself is fairly representative of the leading industries of the district, but the departmental committees are made more directly representative by coopting as members the heads of the leading manufacturing firms and professional men of acknowledged standing and reputation. The industrial leaders are now within the inner circle in the management, and can not only assure themselves as to the nature and quality of the educational work which is being done, but are able to exert a real influence upon it. For the students of the college the cooperation of the industrial leaders has a double advantage, for not only have they the assurance that their education is being conducted on lines approved by practical men, but they know also that these men are the representatives of the class which holds the key to the principal openings for their future employment.

By securing the cooperation of the industrial leaders we have taken an important step towards securing for our students the full professional training which seems to me so desirable. We have also made a beginning in developing an atmosphere of practicality in the college; but all the advantages of this union are not on the side of the college. Speaking as myself an industrial man, I can say that we also stand in much need of the kind of education which our close association with this work is admirably adapted to give us. Many of us have still no clearly defined ideas as to the way in which more scientific methods and more highly trained experts can be of advantage to our particular industries. Many who have the will to avail themselves of these helps are at a loss to understand in what way the new wine of modern technological training can be introduced into the old bottles of industrial tradition without disastrous consequences for both. If it is frankly admitted that both sides in the combination have much to learn, first from each other and later from their joint experiences, I am exceed-ingly hopeful that the way will be opened up for a very real advance in the scientific organisation of industry. As regards our trade classes, this principle of cooperation had to be admitted very early in the day. It was obvious that apprentices and learners could only be trained in craftsmanship by teachers who were themselves craftsmen. For the management of these departments committees have been formed which consist mainly of master craftsmen and employers. The trade employers have responded to our call, for they have found in these trade classes the modern substitute for, or supplement to, the old system of apprenticeship. We have in this instance an almost ideal fusion of the practical and theoretical sides of the training. The student passes so freely from workshop to college and from college to workshop that there need be no sharp line of demarcation between the two methods of obtaining knowledge. The soundness and practicality of his training in handicraft is assured, while on this foundation of craftsmanship we can build an equally secure superstructure of intellectual training suited to his needs. can teach him to lay off his work with scientific method, and with a sound knowledge of the properties of the materials, and to conduct the various operations with a knowledge of the natural laws on which these operations depend.

The consideration of the system in force in the trade classes brings out more forcibly the weakness on the practical side of the training of engineers and chemists. The atmosphere of practicality which is so essential a feature in the one case is conspicuously wanting in the other; but this consideration may well encourage us to hope that the combined system which works so admirably in the trade classes may lend itself in a modified form to the solution of the more complex problem of the practical training of the engineer and chemist.

The problem is certainly more complex, but from the industrial point of view it is really not more serious than that which has already been faced by the handicraft trades. If the manufacturers and industrial leaders can be brought to realise, as the master craftsmen have done, that it is our central purpose to educate our students of all classes in the best possible way for their future work in industry, then I feel assured that we shall gradually secure more and more of their active help and cooperation. Without this help it would obviously be impossible for us to organise the workshop or other practical training of our students, but with it the difficulties may easily be surmounted.

If we are to undertake the organisation of the practical part of the training of our students, the cooperation of the employers will be necessary (i) to keep us supplied with a sufficient number of posts for temporary apprentices or learners in their works, and (2) to enable us to keep some kind of supervision over the students during their training. Probably a visiting inspector would be required, whose duty it would be to keep in touch with the managers of the works in which the apprentices are placed. This officer would be invaluable in making all detailed arrangements between the managers and the college, and in arranging for the distribution and re-distribution of apprentices among the various works.

It is well to remember that in seeking for opportunities for practical training we are not necessarily restricted to engineering works. In connection with the various municipal enterprises, electric lighting and power works, gas, water, and sewage works, employment may be found if the heads of these departments can be induced to take the necessary trouble. We shall return to this question in considering the position as regards students who are preparing to take their place in chemical industry.

While the colleges would be deeply indebted to the manufacturers who would cooperate with them in this matter, we need not neglect to represent to these gentlemen that the advantages would not all be on one side. By the cooperation the whole system of the apprenticeship of educated young men would be put on a more businesslike footing, "slackers" and "loafers" would be quickly found out and dealt with or dismissed, and intelligent hard work would be encouraged. I am not blind to the fact that there will be difficulties to be got over and asperities to be smoothed before the arrangement can be got into thorough working order, but none of these need be formidable, and we must expect to encounter little troubles in making any important change of practice.

The training of chemists for industry is a subject which has been much discussed again during the past year. Early in 1908 a subcommittee of the governing body of the newly created Imperial College of Science and Technology made a report on the subject to that body, but as that report has not been published I shall refrain from making any remarks upon it. Some of the provincial sections of the Society of Chemical Industry have also organised discussions on the subject. The first of these took place at the University of Birmingham.

At the British Association meeting in Dublin, Prof. Stanley Kipping made this the subject of his presidential address to the chemistry section. This widespread discussion shows at least that there is a healthy interest in the subject in quite a number of quarters. It occurred to me that the best way to introduce the subject on this occasion would be by a brief narrative of the action taken by the Institute of Chemistry some three or four years ago. The institute is a professional body, and it exacts a very high standard of attainment both in science and in the professional application of chemistry. Its examinations are largely practical, and any chemist who has attained to the associateship must be recognised as fully competent to take charge of all the ordinary chemical work of the laboratory. The full qualification of fellowship can only be attained after the associate has produced satisfactory evidence that he has been in successful prac-

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

tice as a professional or industrial chemist for five years subsequent to his admission to the associateship. The fellowship is therefore a direct guarantee of professional competency.

Some years ago the council of the institute formulated a supplementary scheme for the granting to its associates and fellows a further certificate in chemical technology, This scheme was only formulated after an exhaustive inquiry had been made, more especially as to the views of those chemical manufacturers who were themselves chemists. A practically unanimous opinion was expressed by these gentlemen that an ordinary laboratory training, even of the very thorough kind exacted by the institute, was not of itself a sufficient preparation for those who intended to make a place for themselves in chemical industry. In proceeding to formulate a scheme, the committee did me the honour of taking as their starting point a syllabus of chemical engineering which had been laid before the Society of Chemical Industry by me while I was its president in 1899. This scheme was greatly improved under the free criticism and discussion to which it was subjected by the able and practical men outside as well as inside the committee, and the syllabus which now forms part of the regulations of the institute ought to be regarded by our colleges and universities as a very valuable and authoritative pronouncement on the nature and scope of the study of chemical technology. As this subject had previously been either ignored or hopelessly misunderstood by the great majority of chemical professors and teachers, I think we must agree that the institute has earned the gratitude of all technical institutions by having placed on record this clear and compact synopsis of the subject. I am glad to have this opportunity of directing the attention of the heads of our technical colleges to this matter, and to suggest that those who are sending up students for the associateship of the institute should encourage them to take in addition the supplementary certificate in chemical technology.

During the formulation of this scheme there was considerable discussion on the question of practical works' training for students of chemical technology. This is a question on which there has often been misunderstanding. It has too readily been assumed that the chemical manufacturer who declines to throw open his works to students on the same lines as the mechanical engineer does is necessarily narrow-minded and obstructive. He is told from time to time by various learned persons that his supposed secret operations are a mere delusion, which delusion, which would at once be exploded and superseded by something open to the criticism of the bright young graduates from our universities, yet he obstinately refuses to unlock his doors. I cannot plead guilty to any lukewarmness where the application of science to industry is concerned, but I must confess that I have considerable sympathy with the If he point of view of the much-abused manufacturer. happens to be using a process the conditions of which have been worked out by himself and his staff at much expenditure of time and money, is it at all surprising that he should regard this experience as one of his most valuable assets? Yet, strangely enough, his rights over this asset are only protected by British law if he is in the fortunate position of being able to secure a patent and maintain it against all comers; but in very many cases the prospects of being able to obtain or to maintain a patent are so problematical that he does not care to risk everything upon them, especially as the publication of a patent at once informs his rivals exactly what he is doing. In Germany, on the other hand, though the protection of this kind of intangible property is far from complete, cases of piracy by employees or others can be dealt with under criminal law, and the employer is thus placed in a much stronger position to protect his property.

I quite concede that there are many chemical works which might be thrown open to expert inspection because in their operations there is nothing special to be divulged, and in works of this description there is no intrinsic reason why student apprentices should not be admitted. But the habit of secrecy has become instinctive with the chemical manufacturer, for he is well aware that, though at one time he may have nothing to lose by publicity, yet in the quick changes which occur in this industry he may any day find himself developing the kind of experience which finally becomes a real asset.

From the chemical manufacturer I fear there is not much to be hoped for in the provision of practical experience for our students, but fortunately there is much valuable experience for the young chemist to be obtained outside the chemical works. For him, as for the young engineer, the various departments of municipal enterprise ought to be made available. There is no finer school for the chemical technologist than the gas works which are to be found in every city. In these works the problems of fuel combustion and utilisation can be practically studied, and, in addition, destructive distillation, the handling and purification of gases, and the recovery and separation of by-products. The gas industry is still overflowing with interesting problems, and at the present time various revolutionary changes are looming ahead at no great distance. The gas manager who does not wish to be left behind in the race would do well to organise an experimental department, and to call to his assistance a staff of intelligent young men from our colleges. It may safely be said that there are very few chemical works which could afford so excellent a training ground for the chemist as the gas works might supply.

as the gas works might supply. In what has gone before it cannot be said that the importance of the practical and professional sides of our educational functions has been minimised; I may therefore without fear of misunderstanding on this point seek to spend the short time which remains in putting before you certain views on the place which pioneer work in science and technology may occupy in our colleges. It has been seriously suggested in certain quarters that

It has been seriously suggested in certain quarters that the technical colleges should limit their functions to the training of students and craftsmen in the more obviously utilitarian applications of science, and should leave to the universities the cultivation of the higher developments of science. I think you will agree with me that this suggestion is altogether wrong. It is based on a most inadequate conception of what the mutual relations of science and industry ought to be. The heavy emphasis which I have laid on the practical and professional aspects of our work was designed to prepare the way for an equally strong insistence on the still higher functions which are involved in our intimate relations with scientific industry. Our purpose may be single, but it cannot be narrow and restricted, for in its final expression it involves nothing less than this, that our colleges must become, not only centres of light and leading, but also makers of new knowledge. I have spoken of the necessity for the creation in our colleges of an atmosphere of practicality, but we must now, in addition to this, consider the creation of a yet rarer atmospheres are not incompatible; on the contrary, they ought to stand to each other as complement and supplement in the circle of our educational functions.

In the large number of students who are passing through our hands we have at our disposal an almost ideal gathering ground for the brightest and most intelligent young men from the middle and industrial classes. During their training we have the opportunity of subjecting them to a sifting process, by which they may be broadly separated into classes according to their different kinds and degrees of ability. During this process of sifting it would be surprising if we did not find a few men who are capable of developing into enthusiastic pioneers, a proportion of whom ought ultimately to find their way to the front as real leaders in science and industry. Clearly it is our duty to provide for these men an environment in which they may breathe the vitalising air of intellectual inquiry and enterprise. If we turn this duty round to its other side, we shall see that it is one and the same as our duty to industry, and therefore to the community, for every man whom we can find and inspire in this way will become a substantial asset to the nation as well as to industry.

I do not put forward the plea that research is a necessary and desirable element in the training of *all* students, for I am still unconvinced on this point. Indeed, I am under the impression that many of the less successful students and graduates in science whom I have met have NO. 2053, VOL. 80] been seriously injured through having been encouraged in the idea that the cultivation of original research is the duty of every student of science. The real pioneering work will never be done by mediocre men. My claim for the recognition and cultivation of pioneering ability is not made in the interest of students at large, but for the sake of the men of exceptional capacity in this respect.

When we turn to the relations of our professors and teaching staff to this question we are faced by considerations which compel us to look very closely into our whole scheme of work in its true proportions and perspective. As we have seen, the duty which bulks most largely is that of providing an adequate technical or professional training for a large number of average young men. These large numbers cannot be adequately dealt with unless the teaching is organised and carried out on the most businesslike lines. This practical side of the question naturally bulks largely in the minds of the heads of our colleges, and we need not, therefore, be surprised that one of the qualities in the teachers which is most appreciated is the capacity for businesslike organisation.

It is fortunate that the combination of these businesslike qualities with high attainments in science is not more rare than it is, so that in our colleges we do find brilliant examples of this combination. Where this is the case the problem of the creation of an atmosphere of inquiry and research is much simplified. It is only necessary that we should ensure, for the men who can use it, a sufficiency of leisure and opportunity for the prosecution of original work. It is to be desired, however, that there should be some recognised organisation within the college for so dealing with the distribution of the routine duties of theaching and examination that this leisure may be obtained in a normal and regular way.

The problem of creating the proper atmosphere becomes more difficult if the regular staff does not comprise within itself men who, by natural endowment and training, are fitted to inspire and to organise the work of a body of research students. So far as I know, few, if any, of our institutions are yet in a position to add to their staff and equipment solely with the object of fostering pioneer work. Yet it occurs to me that this is a direction in which we shall have to move ere long, and the sooner we begin to familiarise our governing bodies with the idea, the better it will be for all concerned.

Returning, however, to the case of those institutions which already have on their staff men with the necessary we may consider the further needs of the endowments, students, of those who have been selected for their special While mere pecuniary inducements are in capabilities. themselves the most unsatisfactory means for the stimulation of the right kind of original work, yet it must be recognised that pecuniary considerations are likely to bulk considerably in the minds of the majority of the students with whom we have to deal. It must be assumed, I think, that the pursuit of research work in any serious sense can only be taken up after the ordinary curriculum has been completed. This means that the selected students must continue their association with the college as research students. It would therefore be necessary to provide scholarships of sufficient value to compensate them for the postponement of their entry into the ranks of the paid workers in industry. In some institutions a beginning has already been made in this direction, and as these experiments grow in magnitude and success we look forward to a wider recognition of the benefit to all concerned.

On the financial side of this question 1 am tempted to detain you by a very brief digression. In seeking for financial help for schemes of this kind we may find it of advantage to disabuse the mind of the "generous donor" of the idea that the only way in which he can help is by endowing our schemes by large grants of capital. Endowments of this kind are invaluable in certain directions, but there are schemes of a more tentative kind for which all that is required is a guarantee of the expenditure for a very few years. For example, our first research student can start to work so soon as a donor can be found who will guarantee the income of the student for one, a year for three years at a total cost of 300. Whereas, if he were asked to endow a fellowship of this annual value he would immediately have to hand over 3000l. This method certainly lends itself admirably to the making of untried experiments in educational as well as in other matters. I do not speak altogether without practical experience of the method, and I have therefore ventured to make this digression in order to commend it to your attention.

It is of set purpose that I have discriminated sharply between the functions of the technical college; the training of large numbers of competent craftsmen or professional men, and the development of a smaller class of scientific pioneers. We must admit that the latter function is likely to make the less effective appeal to the general public; indeed, it would be surprising if it were to appeal to more than a select few. I take this to mean that within the managing body we must be satisfied to proceed cautiously in developing this function. There need be no doubt or hesitation as to the *objects* to be attained, but prudence and caution will be required in the application of the means at our disposal. Men are of far greater importance than money, and I confess to a certain distrust of schemes of scientific research which are splendid mainly because they are splendidly financed. No great research department can develop except by a process which is analogous to organic growth. If the right kind of nucleus can be placed in a suitable environment we may rest assured that nature will do the rest by her processes of cell division and multiplication. It is our part to see that the nucleus is sound and of the right kind, to provide for it the necessary environment, and to weed out all useless and undesirable growths.

UNIVERSITY AND EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

CAMBRIDGE.—Mr. R. C. Punnett has been appointed superintendent of the museum of zoology in succession to Dr. S. F. Harmer, F.R.S., who recently accepted the keepership in zoology at the British Museum (Natural History).

The Smith's prizes have been adjudged as follows:— H. W. Turnbull, Trinity College, for his essay, "The Irreducible Concomitants of Two Quadratics in *n* Variables"; G. N. Watson, Trinity College, for his essay, "The Solution of the Homogeneous Linear Difference Equation of the Second Order, and its Applications to the Theory of Linear Differential Equations of Fuchsian Type." The names are in alphabetical order. Dr. McTaggart has been appointed chairman of the examiners for the moral sciences tripos, and Mr. H. O.

Dr. McTaggart has been appointed chairman of the examiners for the moral sciences tripos, and Mr. H. O. Meredith chairman of the examiners for the economics tripos.

Sir Victor Horsley has been appointed Linacre lecturer at St. John's College, Cambridge. The lecture will be delivered on Thursday, May 6, the subject being "The Motor Area of the Brain."

LONDON.—Mr. G. A. Schott has been granted the degree of D.Sc. in applied mathematics as an external student, and Mr. G. W. C. Kaye has been granted the degree of D.Sc. in physics as an external student.

The medical college of the London Hospital has recently received a sum of 20,000*l*., which has been placed in the hands of trustees. The yearly income will be spent on the advancement of medical research and the promotion of higher education in medicine. The donor wishes to remain anonymous.

The Senate has taken exception to the terms of reference to the Royal Commission on the University on the ground that the scope of the inquiry is wider than was approved by the Senate at their meeting in December, 1908, and that the Senate has not been given the opportunity to consider extended terms of reference.

OXFORD.—The following is the text of the speech delivered by Prof. Love in presenting Dr. Sven Hedin for the degree of D.Sc. honoris causa on March 2:—"Gaudet profecto et sibi gratulatur Academia nostra dum salutat eum qui sicut Ulixes $mo\lambda \lambda \hat{w} r \, \delta w e p \, \delta \pi rea \, \kappa a l \, v \, \delta w$ $\ell \gamma v \omega$, qui Marci Poli, Christopheri Columbi, Alexandri Humboldt æmulus inter insignissimos orbis terrarum

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

[MARCH 4, 1909

exploratores iure numerandus est. Quippe hic ille est Sven Hedin cuius itinera periculosa hodie in ore animoque omnium sunt. Civiles palmas non minus illustres esse quam bellicas aiunt: quod si verum sit, hunc virum tanquam victorem ornare possumus, cum de ipsa Natura faciem novercalem ostendente atque atrocissime minante victoriam reportaverit. Multas hic personas eadem laude gessit, modo exploratoris impavidi qui vel multis comitantibus vel solus secum deserta perlustrat, modo ducis benigni sitim levat, modo scientiæ cultoris qui labores tæterrimos perpessus regiones incognitas pedetemptim recludit. Quam diu ingentes Indiæ fluvii in Oceanum volventur, quam diu Asiæ interioris montes nivibus vestiti et aviæ solitudines manebunt, monumento hic vir non egebit."

M. DELAFOND will on July 1 next succeed M. E. Nivoit as director of the Paris National School of Mines.

THE London Inter-collegiate Scholarships Board will hold a combined examination for twenty entrance scholarships and exhibitions, tenable at University College, King's College, and the East London College, on May 11 and following days. No candidates will be admitted to the examination unless they have passed the London University matriculation or an equivalent examination, and are under the age of nineteen on May 1. The total value of scholarships offered is about 1500l. Full particulars and forms of entry may be obtained from the secretary of the board, Mr. Alfred E. G. Attoe, University College, Gower Street, W.C.

ANNOUNCEMENTS have been made in the Press that the Aërial League of the British Empire purposes to establish immediately a national aëronautical college. It is intended that the new college shall provide instruction in the subjects bearing upon aërial flight and navigation. Courses of study will be arranged in the mathematics, dynamics, and mechanics involved in the problem of flight, the laws of air resistance and friction, the stability of air craft, and in the meteorological, physical, and other conditions affecting aërial navigation. Workshops and laboratories, where experiments and tests can be performed, are to be included in the college, and a trial ground is to be procured. The intention is to teach completely the science and art of flying. It is satisfactory to find that the promoters of the scheme appreciate the necessity for founding practice upon scientific knowledge, and it may be hoped that the experiments to be performed will be based upon exhaustive theoretical inquiries into the mathematical principles which underlie the problems it is sought to solve by practical means. '

The annual report on the work of University College, London, shows that the total number of students during the session 1907-8 was 1361, being an increase of 170 on that of the preceding session. Of these, 220 were postgraduate and research students. The principal benefactions during the year were a bequest of 5000*l*, by the late Mr. Thomas Webb, of London and Cardiff, which is to be used for the completion of the new physiology building; a bequest of 500*l*. by Mr. H. A. 'Kay, to be used for the re-arrangement and re-equipment of the college buildings; a bequest of 1500*l*. by the late Prof. Bunnell Lewis; a bequest of 1541*l*. by the late Madame 'Halfon, for the foundation of prizes to be known as the ''L. 'M. Rothschild'' and the '' Hester Rothschild'' prizes; a gift by the past engineering students' committee of 410*l*, for the new equipment of the engineering departments; and a donation of 50*l*. by Mr. Yarrow, for the provision of apparatus in the mechanical engineering department. Besides the grants from the Treasury, the India Office, and the London' County Council, the college benefited during the past year by grants from the Carpenters' Company for architecture, from the Chadwick trustees for municipal engineering and hygiene, from the Draper's' Company for applied 'mathematics, and from the Mercers' company for applied 'mathematics, and science, the office of sub-dean has been created to provide greater facilities for giving students advice. The organisation of the arrangements for post-graduate courses and for research has been improved. The report contains lists of original papers that have been issued during the past year. The activity of the department of applied mathematics, under Prof. Karl Pearson, including the Galton Laboratory for National Eugenics, is marked by the issue of twenty-seven publications, and that of the department of chemistry, under Sir William Ramsay and Prof. J. Norman Collie, by the publication of forty original papers. The report closes with a summary of the urgent needs of the college. The need for new buildings for the department of chemistry, at a cost of about 70,000., is placed in the forefront. The Chancellor, the Earl of Rosebery, has intimated his willingness to subscribe 1000. to a fund for the erection of new chemical laboratories. The expenditure for the year was 53,535l.

SOCIETIES AND ACADEMIES. London.

Royal Society, December 10, 1908.—"The Rotation of the Electric Arc in a Radial Magnetic Field." By J. Nicol. Communicated by Prof. H. A. Wilson, F.R.S.

It is well known that the electric arc is deflected by a transverse magnetic field. If the electrodes are tubular and the field is radial, spreading from an iron rod lying along the axis of the electrodes, the arc will travel round these continuously. If k_1 and k_2 are the velocities, due to unit electric force, of the ions carrying the charge, the transverse velocity of the arc is k_1k_2 HX, so that a measurement of this velocity will give the product k_1k_2 .

The measurement was made by placing a slit in front of the arc and allowing the light passing through this to fall on a rotating mirror, which reflected it into a photographic camera. The axis of rotation of the mirror almost coincided with the normal to its surface, and this caused the image of a point source to be a small circle. As the slit was only illuminated intermittently (once during each revolution of the arc) the image on the plate consisted of a number of dots arranged round a circle. Counting these enabled the velocity of the arc to be determined.

ing these enabled the velocity of the arc to be determined. Copper arcs 1.8-3.6 mm. long, carrying currents from 2-9 amperes, were used. The magnetic field varied from 35-140 C.G.S. units, and the resulting arc velocities from 200-1100 cm. per sec.

The results of the experiments led to the formula

v = H(2.55 + 0.74 i)

connecting the velocity with the magnetic force and arc current. The values deduced for k_1k_2 lie between 0.53×10^7 cm. per sec. per volt per cm. for a two-ampere arc and 1.5×10^7 for nine amperes.

Langevin has given an expression for k in terms of the mean free path, and the agitation velocity of the particle $k=e\lambda/mu$.

This gives k for a corpuscle 1.83×10^4 , and this, combined with the experimental result 10^7 for k_1k_2 , gives 5.5×10^2 as the velocity of the positive ion. Since mu^2 is the same for all gases, Langevin's expression shows that $k \propto 1/\sqrt{m}$. Hence in the arc the positive ion is 900 times as heavy as a corpuscle. This mass is about the same as that found by Sir J. J. Thomson for the positive ions in the Kanalstrahlen, but much less than that of the atoms (Cu, N, or O) present in the arc.

February 11.—Sir Archibald Geikie, K.C.B., president, in the chair.—The nerves of the atrio-ventricular bundle : J. Gordon **Wilson**. In the introduction the author refers to the discovery of this muscular bundle and its function by Gaskell, also to the valuable work of his and the important research of Tawara upon the structure of this bundle. He points out that both Tawara and Retzer made definite statements of the existence in the bundle of nerve cells and fibres. The material used for this research was obtained from the pig, calf, and sheep; the technique employed was the methylene blue "vital" method. Conclusions:—I. Anatomically, the atrio-ventricular bundle contains, not only a special form of muscle fibre distinct from the ordinary muscle of the atrium or

NO. 2053, VOL. 80

the ventricle, but also an important and intricate nerve pathway, in which we find :--(1) numerous ganglion cells, monopolar, bipolar, and multipolar, the processes of which may pass (a) to adjacent ganglion cells in the bundle, (b) to the muscle fibres in the bundle, and (c) through the (b) to the indice indice in the builde, and (c) through the muscle bundle so far as it was examined; (2) abundant nerve fibres running through it in strands, the processes of which may end (a) in ganglion cells in the bundle, (b) in the muscle plexus, or pass through the part examined; (3) an intricate plexus of varicose fibrils around and in close relation to the muscle fibres of the bundle; (4) an abundant vascular supply with well-marked vaso-motor nerves and sensory endings. II. Physiologically it has been shown that the atrio-ventricular band constitutes the pathway which assures the communication of the atrio-ventricular rhythm. When the bundle is sectioned or crushed, the ventricles cease momentarily to beat, though they soon regain pulsation, but with a rhythm much more slow than that of the atrium. Pathological anatomy supports this view; the allorhythmia of Stokes-Adams disease can be explained satisfactorily by lesions involving this pathway. As a result of these physiological experiments, and from these pathological conditions, it has been asserted that the contraction wave must be myogenic. To such a deduction the author's anatomical findings are opposed. They demonstrate that in these experiments and patho-logical conditions an important nerve pathway is equally involved with the muscle bundle.—An experimental estimation of the theory of ancestral contributions in heredity: A. D. **Darbishire.** The modern experimental study of (bi-parental) inheritance is based on the assumption that the character of an organism is determined by the potentialities existent in the germ cells which pro-duce it, and not by the nature of the parents of that organism or of its more remote ancestors. In other words, according to the former view, the attempt to predict the result of a given mating must be based on some theory as to the characters existent potentially in the germ cells of the two individuals mated, and the characters of the parents themselves and of the remoter ancestry may be left out of account altogether in the attempt to make this prediction. The present paper gives an account of an experiment designed to decide, in regard to a particular character, between these two fundamentally different theories. The result of a cross between a yellow-seeded pea and a green-seeded pea, both of pure race, is already pea and a green-seeded pea, both of pure race, is already well known. All the first generation (F_1) are yellow, and 25 per cent. of the next generation (F_2) , produced by mating these yellow hybrids *inter se*, are green, the rest being yellow. These "extracted" greens, as they are called, are said to be produced, by the yellow hybrids, in the same proportion, in each successive generation (F_3) , F_4 , ... &c.), according to a scheme which it is not neces-sary to give here. An extracted green in F_2 , therefore sary to give here. An extracted green in F_s , therefore, has a great "weight" of yellow ancestry behind it, inasmuch as no green appears in that ancestry nearer than inasmuch as no green appears in that ancestry nearer than the great-great-great-grandparental generation, whilst behind that half the ancestors are yellow and half green. The author has made a number of crosses between pure yellow strains and extracted greens in F_s . All the (F_1) hybrids thus raised were yellow, as might have been expected. With regard to the next generation, however, it is evident that if there is any truth in the view that the characters of the parents and ancestors play any part in determining the composition of a given generation lass in determining the composition of a given generation, less than 25 per cent, green should occur in F_a from this cross. No such result is obtained. The proportion of greens in F_2 is 24.88 per cent. the number of greens being 34.792 and of yellows 105,045. The probable error of the percentage is ± 0.078 . The actual deviation from the 25 per cent. expected, namely, 0.12 per cent., is not twice the probable error, and is therefore certainly not significant. probable error, and is therefore certainly not significant. —The determination of a coefficient by which the rate of diffusion of stain and other substances into living cells can be measured, and by which bacteria and other cells may be differentiated: H. C. **Ross.** When fresh blood is spread upon a film of agar jelly which contains Unna's stain and certain salts, the stain diffuses into the living cells, and the rapidity of diffusion depends on certain factors. It is accelerated by heat, and, of course, by time. If the ielly is alkaling diffusion is also accelerated Acids If the jelly is alkaline, diffusion is also accelerated. Acids

and neutral salts delay it. It has been found that when one class of cell stains on a given agar film, other classes do not. By slightly altering the constitution of the agar, i.e. by adding more alkali, acid, or salts, or by trying a different temperature, &c., that class of cell which previously refused to stain will now absorb it. It has also been found that bacteria and other cells are subject to the same conditions, and by this means it has been possible to differentiate them by their rate or coefficient of diffusion. A simple method is given for the arrangement of the agar jelly; and by measuring in units the factors, heat, alkalies, acids, salts, and time, the coefficients of diffusion can be expressed in numerals with the aid of a simple equation, the staining of the nucleus, or the cytoplasm in unnucleated cells, being the moment by which the coefficient is deter-mined. The staining of the nucleus is coincident with death. Conversely, when the coefficient of diffusion of a cell is known, the equation indicates how to arrange an agar film so as to cause staining of the cell in a given time at a given temperature. Examples are given, and among them is one which shows that the rate of diffusion of substances other than stains also appears to depend on the coefficient of diffusion of the cells. In addition there is a summary, and some suggestions are made as to possible practical applications of the subject considered in the paper.—The origin and destiny of cholesterol in the animal organism, part iii., the absorption of cholesterol in the intestine and its appearance in the blood : C. **Dorée** and J. A. **Gardner**. The authors, as a result of experiments already communicated to the society and a consideration of the work of previous observers, have been led, in the present paper, to formulate the following working hypothesis as to the origin and destiny of cholesterol in the animal organism:—(1) Cholesterol is a constant constituent of all cells, and when these cells are broken down the cholesterol is not excreted as a waste product, but is utilised in the formation of new cells. (2) A function of the liver is to break down dead cells, e.g. blood corpuscles, and to eliminate their cholesterol in the bile. (3) After the bile has been poured into the intestine in the process of digestion, the cholesterol is re-absorbed, prob-ably in the form of esters, along with the bile salts, and carried by the blood to the various centres and tissues for re-incorporation into the constitution of new cells. (4) Cholesterol is probably not synthesised in the animal body, and any wastage of cholesterol is replaced by direct absorption from the food. With the view of testing this hypothesis, the experiments detailed in the communication were carried out. On feeding rabbits on food freed from cholesterol or phytosterol, no cholesterol could be found in the fæces. When, however, weighed quantities of chole-sterol were added to this food, a certain proportion was always absorbed. Analyses of the blood of these animals showed an increase in the cholesterol content in the case of animals fed with cholesterol compared with those without cholesterol. Similar experiments carried out on dogs showed that cholesterol was also absorbed from their food. —The origin and destiny of cholesterol in the animal organism, part iv., the cholesterol content of eggs and chicks: G. W. Ellis and J. A. Gardner. This paper contains an account of a number of experiments carried out with the view of obtaining evidence of the truth of the hypothesis recently advanced, that cholesterol is strictly conserved in the animal organism, and that it is not synthesised by the animal, but taken into its organism as food, at any rate in the growing animal. The experiments detailed in this paper consist of a number of estimations of cholesterol in the total unsaponifiable matter obtained from hens' eggs and newly hatched chicks. The estimations were carried out with the greatest possible accuracy, and the results leave no doubt that there is no increase in cholesterol during the change of the ovum into the complex aggregate of cells constituting the newly hatched chick. The results seem to show a slightly lower percentage of cholesterol in the chick than in the egg, but this difference may be due to experimental difficulties in extracting all the cholesterol from the tissues of the chick. The average percentages of cholesterol in eggs and chicks are given in the accompanying table. The percentages of cholesterol in the chicks are given in terms of the weights of the original eggs :-

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

Per cent. 6 eggs, analysed together ... 0.4896 6 eggs, analysed separately ... 0.4121 Average ... 0.4508 ... 6 chicks, analysed together ... 0.4677 6 chicks, analysed separately 0.3633 Average 0.4155 Difference ... 0.0353

February 18 .- Sir Archibald Geikie, K.C.B., president, in the chair.—The osmotic pressures of solutions of calcium ferrocyanide, part ii., weak solutions: the Earl of **Berkeley**, E. G. J. **Hartley**, and J. **Stephenson**. This communication records the observed equilibrium osmotic pressures from 25 to 5 atmospheres, and also the electric conductivities of the more dilute solutions; it is shown that to bring the two sets of observations into accord it is necessary to assume that the salt molecule is associated when in solution. Similar remarks apply to strontium ferrocyanide, and are not inconsistent with the data found for the potassium salt.—The spontaneous crystallisation of monochloracetic acid and its mixtures with naphthalene: Dr. H. A. Miers and Miss F. Isaac. In this investigation three different modifications $(\alpha, \beta, and \gamma)$ of monochloracetic acid are described, and the transformations from one modification to another. behaviour of aqueous solutions of monochloracetic acid was investigated as the solutions cooled by means of observations on their refractive indices. These experiments lead to the establishment of three supersolubility curves separating the metastable and labile regions, corresponding These superto the three modifications of the acid. solubility curves have also been verified by an independent method. Aqueous solutions of monochloracetic acid of various concentrations were enclosed in sealed glass tubes and heated until the crystals had completely dissolved. The temperatures at which the solutions re-crystallised spontaneously as either α , β , or γ crystals were found to agree with the temperatures at which the corresponding solutions passed from the metastable to the labile state as determined by the previous experiments. The three solu-bility curves for the three modifications of monochloracetic acid have also been obtained. The second part of the paper deals with mixtures of monochloracetic acid and naphthalene. These substances Cady describes as forming mixed crystals and possessing a minimum, or eutectic, freezing point (Journ. Phys. Chem., 1899, iii., 127). In a long series of experiments, however, of which an account is given, there has never been any indication of the forma-tion of mixed crystals. The melting and freezing points of a large number of mixtures were carefully determined, but in no case was there found to be any appreciable difference between these points. The study of the crystallisation of these mixtures therefore yields results similar to those obtained for salol and betol (Proc. Roy. Soc., A, lixix, 1907), a new feature being introduced by the exist-ence of the three modifications of monochloracetic acid. Four solubility curves have been traced, *i.e.* the solubility Four solubility curves have been traced, *i.e.* the solubility curve for naphthalene in monochloracetic acid, and the three solubility curves for the modifications α , β , and γ of monochloracetic acid in naphthalene. Each of the latter meets the naphthalene solubility curve in a eutectic point, thus giving three eutectic points. Similarly, four super-idative source for these minters have been determined solubility curves for these mixtures have been determined, giving the temperatures at which naphthalene and the three modifications of the acid crystallise spontaneously. These curves intersect in three hypertectic points, showing the highest temperature at which naphthalene and each modification of the acid respectively can crystallise spon-taneously together. The four solubility and four super-solubility curves when plotted on a diagram show that in a mixture of two substances, of which one exists in three a mature of two substances, of which one exhibited by a cooling mixture.—An apparatus for measurements of the defining power of objectives: J. de Graaff **Hunter**. The general principle of the method of measurement employed may be stated as follows. The image of a knife-edge formed by a photographic lens, when viewed with a microscope, will no longer appear as a sharp edge; the illumination of the bright portion of the field will only gradually fade away to complete darkness at some position within

the line ideally representing the true image of the edge. The object aimed at is to measure the actual intensity of illumination in the image at different distances on either side of this ideal line. The variation in the illumination with the distance is, of course, very rapid, and the total distance over which it is necessary to carry the measure-ments is in general extremely small. To isolate the strip parallel to the knife-edge, the illumination of which is to be measured, a narrow slit is placed in the focal plane of the microscope objective, and is thus magnified by the eye-piece. To measure the intensity of the illumination seen through this slit-i.e. the illumination along a line parallel to the ideal image of the knife-edge-a special mechanism is employed, whereby this image is made to alternate with light from a constant source, which, how-ever, can be varied in a measurable proportion, so as to become of equal intensity with the illumination to be measured. This equality is judged by the absence of measured. This equality is judged by the absence of "flicker" when the alternations are made to succeed one another with appropriate frequency.—Best conditions for photographic enlargement of small solid objects: A. Mallock. When it is desired to take an enlarged photograph of an object which is not flat, and which cannot, therefore, be in focus in all parts, the question arises as to what form of lens should be used in order to secure the best results. It is shown in the paper that if a certain minimum fineness of definition is required, say, the separation of points the distance apart of which is a,, then, in the first place, the lens used must be capable of resolving points half this distance apart; and, secondly, that the greatest distance (b_3) of the surface from the focal plane must not exceed $a/2\alpha$, where α is the angular aperture of the lens. The resolving power of a lens being dependent on α and the wave-length, it is shown that if $a=n\lambda$, then $b=n^{2}\frac{1}{4}\lambda$ nearly. The best that can be done, therefore, in photographing a curved or uneven surface is to use a lens which will resolve half the least distance to be defined in the picture. If this be done, all points which are not within a distance a_1 of one another, and not more than $n^2 \lambda$ out of focus, will appear separated in the picture. On the other hand, if b is given, the least distance which will be resolved over the whole picture is $2\sqrt{(b\lambda)}$.

Zoological Society, February 16.—Mr. F. Gillett, vicepresident, in the chair.—Fauna of the Cocos-Keeling Atoll : Dr. F. Wood-Jones. The work was based on collections made by the author during a stay of fifteen months in 1905 and 1906, and in the case of most orders was believed to be fairly complete.—The anatomy of certain Ungulata, including Tapirus, Hyrax, and Antilocapra: F. E. Beddard.—Le Rhinocéros Blanc du Soudan (*Rhinoceros* simus cottoni): Dr. E. L. **Trouessart**.

Institution of Mining and Metallurgy, February 18.— Mr. Alfred James, president, in the chair.—Adjourned discussion on a theory of volcanic action and ore deposits, their nature and cause: Hiram W. Hixon.—The following papers were also discussed:—An instance of secondary impoverishment: H. H. Knox. This paper dealt with deposits on the private estates of Kishtim, in the government of Perm, Russia, in which are occurrences of unoxidised iron sulphides, which have been leached of their copper contents. The mines particularly dealt with were a group comprising the Tissoff, Koniukhoff, and Smirnoff lodes in the Soimonorsk Valley.—" Shrinkage" stoping in Western Australia: F. Percy Roffe. A description of the method of stoping used at the Lake View Consols Gold Mine, and a review of the advantages and disadvantages of the method as compared with the common system of stoping adopted in Western Australia by means of "mullock" or "filled" stopes. The reasons for utilising "shrinkage" stoping in this particular mine were stated, and the details of the method fully explained.

PARIS.

Academy of Sciences, Februarv 22.—M. Émile Picard in the chair.—Hertzian waves and Fredholm's equation : H. **Poincaré.** It is shown that several problems relating to Hertzian waves can be reduced to the integration of a Fredholm's equation.—The sex in sea-urchins obtained by

NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

experimental parthenogenesis: Yves **Delage.** Two sca-urchins, which had survived their metamorphosis sixteen months, were accidentally killed by a change in their conditions of life. The determination of their sex showed that one was certainly, and the other probably, male. From this the conclusion is drawn that sea-urchins produced by experimental parthenogenesis can be raised to the adult state, characterised by the presence of the sexual elements, and that males can be thus obtained.-Electrical discharges in intense magnetic fields: M. Gouy.—The principles of intrinsic projective geometry: A. Demoulin. -Some figures determined by the infinitely near elements of a skew curve : B. Hostinsky .- The application of the generalised theorem of Jacobi to the problem of Jacobi-Lie: W. **Stekloff.**—The search for roots of certain numerical transcendental equations: R. **de Montessus.** —The statical graphics of the aëroplane: Léon **Lecornu.** —The force and power of propulsion of aërial helices: René **Arnoux.**—The thermal effects of a musical arc; the probable fusion of carbon: M. La Rosa. The amount of energy in a singing arc is much greater than in an ordinary arc possessing self-induction, and hence should possess a much higher temperature than the latter. By the action of a singing arc on sugar charcoal masses of graphite have been obtained possessing such firmness and tenacity as to suggest that the charcoal had been fused. -The constitution of subterranean telephone circuits in large towns: M. Devaux-Charbonnel. It has been known for some time that the presence of an underground section of a telephone circuit diminishes considerably the intensity of the voice, and particularly affects the distinct-ness of certain consonants. In the present paper a calculation is given showing the relation between a given length of air line and the corresponding length of underground cable. The most advantageous diameter of wire for the cable is also worked out, and the important advantages possessed by cables of small capacity indicated.—The existence of positive electrons in vacuum tubes: A. **Dufour.** The author has repeated the experiments of J. Becquerel on the existence of positive electrons in vacuum tubes, and has obtained the same experimental results. The author's interpretation of the experimental results. The author's interpretation of the experiments is, however, different from that given by M. Becquerel, and does not necessitate the assumption of the existence of positive electrons in the vacuum tube.—The atomic weight of potassium : G. D. **Hinrichs.** The author applies his methods of calculation to the recent data of V. Lenher, and concludes that the true atomic weight of potassium is 39-125.—The colour reactions of indol bodies with sugars: Julius **Gnezda.** The chloralic acids: M. **Hanriot**. The substances obtained by combining chloral with various sugars have been submitted to oxidation; acids, which are called chloralic acids, are produced, the properties of a number of which are described.—Syntheses by means of a hamber of which are described.—Syntheses by means of the mixed zinc organo-metallic derivatives: E. **Blaise** and A. **Keehler.** This general method of synthesis starts from the ester-acids of the type $CO_2Et.(CH_2)_n.CO_2H$, details being given of the best methods of preparing these acids. These are then converted into the chlorides

CO2Et.(CH2)n.CO.Cl,

and then submitted to the reaction represented by the equation

$CO_2Et.(CH_2)_n COCl + R.ZnI = ZnICl + CO_2Et.(CH_2)_n.CO.R.$

Symmetrical diketones can also be obtained by a modification of the conditions, and the properties of a number of these are given.—The preparation of indazylic derivatives by means of hydrazo-orthoketones : P. **Carré**.—The nature of the cyano-compounds of Kirsch: X. **Rocques** and L. **Lévy**. The hydrocyanic acid in Kirsch two or three years old exists only partially in the free state, a part being combined with fatty derivatives of high molecular weight. —The coagulation of milk by the ferment of *Carica papaya*: C. **Gerber**.—Some new properties of the oxydases of *Russula delica*: J. **Wofff**.—The colloidal properties of starch with respect to its chemical constitution : Eugène **Fouard**. The rotatory power of a limpid solution of starch, obtained by filtration through a collodion film, is a function of the alkalinity of the liquid. As the amount of potash added is increased, the rotation tends to a limit of 141°; this figure is nearly identical with the specific rotatory power of maltose in dilute solution (140°.4). conclusion drawn from the whole of these experiments is conclusion drawn from the whole of these experiments is that starch is a unique chemical species, and is simply a condensation product of maltose.—The maltases of maize: R. **Huerre.**—The digestion of mannanes and galactanes: H. **Bierry** and J. **Giaja.**—A mould in tanning with oil: André **Piedallu.** An account of the appearance of *Monascus purpureus* in various culture media. This fungus acidifice oils thickness and column brown brown because fungus acidifies oils, thickens, and colours them brown; it secretes an oxydase, and appears to play an important part in the preparation of chamois leather.—The composi-tion and utilisation of the pulp from sisal hemp after removal of the fibre: A. **Hébert** and F. **Heim.**—Comparison between the commencement of the development of a perennial and annual plant: G. André.—A variety of organic iron in plants: P. J. Tarbouriech and P. Saget. The plant *Rumex obtusiflorus* contains the highest propor-The plant *Rumex obtastionas* contains the highest propor-tion of iron in any plant yet known, and this iron is pre-sent in a form not reacting with the ordinary reagents for iron. The iron compound, which contains carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, phosphorus, and iron (6.36 per cent.), is extracted from the root by alcohol containing I per cent. of hydrochloric acid.—Concerning the anatomy of the human thymus: Henri **Rieffel** and Jacques Le Mée. A reply to a criticism by M. Cruchet of a former paper by the authors.—The histological structure of the seminal receptacle of *Periplaneta orientalis*: L. **Bordas.**—The dangers of chloroform. Incoagulability of the blood and necrosis of the liver following after chloroform anæsthesia : M. Doyon .- The sterilisation of potable water by means of the quartz mercury vapour lamp : Jules Courmont and Th. Nogier. Potable water containing Eberth's bacillus or *Coli communis* is sterilised in one minute within a range of 30 cm. from the lamp.—Measurements in d'Arsonvalisation : E. **Doumer.**—The treatment of radio-dermatitis by the high-frequency spark : M. de Keating Hort.—Diaphylactic centres : Pierre Bonnier.—The sense of orientation and topographical memory in Patella vulgata : H. Piéron.—The study of the geological distribution of the Bryozoa : Ferdinand Canu.

DIARY OF SOCIETIES.

- THURSDAY, MARCH 4.
 ROVAL SOCIETY, at 4.30.—On the Presence of Hæm-agglutinins, Hæmonsonins, and Hæmolysins in the Blood obtained from Infectious and
 Non-infectious Diseases in Man (Second Report): L. S. Dudgeon.—The
 Action on Glucosides by Bacteria of the Acid-fast Group, wich a Arw
 Method of isolating Human Tubercle Bacilli directly from Tuberculous
 Material contaminated with other Micro-organisms (Preliminary Note):
 F. W. Twort.—The Effect of Heat upon the Electrical State of Living
 Tissues: Dr. A. D. Waller, F.R.S.
 ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 3.—Problems of Geographical Distribution in
 Mexico: Dr. Hans Gadow, F.R.S.
 RÖMTGEN SOCIETY, at 8.—Some Vacuum Tube Phenomena: A. A.
 Campbell Swinton.

- Campbell Swinton. LINNEAN SOCIETY, at 8.—A Contribution to the Montane Flora of Fiji, including Cryptogams, with Ecological Notes: Miss L. S. Gibbs. CIVIL AND MECHANICAL ENGINEERS' SOCIETY, at 8.—Some Commercial Aspects of the Management of Central Electricity Supply Stations: R. Borlase Matthews. EPUDdV Massurg
- R. Borlase Matthews. FRIDAY, MARCH 5. GEOLOGISTS' ASSOCIATION, at 8.—On the Sections of Inferior Oolite on the Midford-Camerton Section of the Limpley Stoke Railway, Somerset : L. Richardson, —The Geology of the Paris Basin: F. D Ilfus. INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS, at 8.—Slips in Railway Earthworks :
- E. G. L. Lovegrove.
- E. G. L. Lovegrove. SATURDAY, March 6. ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 3.-Properties of Matter: Sir J. J. Thomson, F.R.S. ESSEX FIELD CLUB, at 6 (at Essex Museum, Stratford).-Some Essex Well-sections (Part iv): W. Whitaker, F.R.S.-Remarks on a Bone Object found at Braintree, Essex, and Comparison of Similar Objects found elsewhere: Francis W. Reader.-Insect Transformations: F. Enoch. F. Enoch.

- MONDAY, MARCH 8. GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY, at 8.30.—Explorations in Central Asia: ROYAL
- Dr. M. A. Stein. ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS, at 8.—Modern Methods of Artificial Illumin-ation: Leon Gaster.

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NO. 2053, VOL. 80]

SOCIETY OF ARTS, at 8.-The Application of the Microscope to the Study of Metals ; Walter Rosenhain.

- Of Metals: Walter Rosenhain.
 THURSDAY, MARCH 11.
 ROYAL SOCHETY, at 4-30.—Probable Papers: Note on the Stability of Jacobi's Ellipsoid: Sir George H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S.—On the Wave-lengths of Lines in the Secondary Spectrum of Hydrogen: H. E. Watson.—The Measurement of Dielectric Constants by the Öscillations of Ellipsoids and Cylinders in a Field of Force: Prof. W. M. Thornton.
 ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 3.—Recent Advances in Agricultural Science: A. D. Hall.
- A. D. Hall. MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY, at 5.30.—The Kinetic Image of a Convected Electric System in a Conducting Plane Sheet: Prof. J. Larmor.—On an Integral Equation: G. H. Hardy.—The Use of Generalised Line, Sur-face, and Volume Integrals in Electrodynamics: H. Bateman. INSTITUTION OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS, at 8.—The Dielectric Strength of Compressed Air: E. A. Watson.

- of Compressed Air: E. A. Watson. FRIDAY, MARCH 12. ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 9.—Modern Submarine Telegraphy : S. G. Brown. PHYSICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—The Effect of Radiations on the Brush Dis-charge: A. E. Garrett.—On Pirani's Method of Measuring the Self-inductance of a Coil : E. C. Snow.—Exhibition of a High Potential Primary Battery : W. S. Tucker.—Un the Least Moment of Inertia of an Angle Bar Section : H. S. Rowell.¹ MALACOLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—Description of a New Species of Oliva from the Andaman Islands : F. G. Bridgman.—Notes on the Genera Cypræa and Trivia : H. O. N. Shaw.—On the Shell Mound at Sidon : On the Habitat of Certain Species of Clausilia from the Coast of Syria : Rev. H. A. Cooke.—Notes on the Species of Cyclophorus found at Hong Kong : Staff-Surgeon K. H. Jones, R. N.—On the "Conchological Illustra-tions," by G. B. Sowerby, jun., and the "Descriptive Catalogue of Sh-lls," by J. E. Gray: C. Davies Sherborn.—On the Date of Issue of Sowerby's "Conchological Illustrations ": H. O. N. Shaw.

CONTENTS.

PAGE

Aspects of Modern Science	I
The Experimental Method in Zoological Research.	
By Dr. Francis H. A. Marshall	2
Modern Pharmacognosy. By Prof. Henry G.	
Greenish . Science in the Textile Industries. By Prof.	3
Science in the Textile Industries. By Prof.	
Walter M. Gardner	4
Ardern	5
Our Book Shelf :	
Despaux : " Explication méchanique des Propriétés de	
la Matière, Cohésion, Affinité, Gravitation, &c." .	6
Chappuis and Berget: "Leçons de Physique	-
générale" Röhmann : "Biochemie. Ein Lehrbuch für Mediziner,	6
Röhmann : "Biochemie. Ein Lehrbuch für Mediziner,	-
Zoologen und Botaniker."-W. D. H Workman and Cracknell : "Geometry, Theoretical	6
Workman and Cracknell: "Geometry, Theoretical	
and Practical"	7
Letters to the Editor :	
The γ Rays of Uranium.—Frederick Soddy and	8
Alexander S. Russell	0
The Radio-active Deposits from Actinium 5.	0
Russ The Production of Prolonged Apnœa in Man.—W. G.	8
The Production of Prolonged Apnœa in Man W. G.	0
Royal-Dawson . A Winter Retreat.—Prof. John G. McKendrick,	8
F.R.S.	8
Priestley and Coulomb's LawC. J. Woodward	8
Barometric Oscillation.—W. H. Dines, F.R.S.	8
Life and Letters of Prof. A. Newton, F.R.S. – A. F. R.	0
	8
The Anthropology of the Murray Islanders. (Illus-	0
	~
trated.)	9
The Californian Earthquake of 1906. (<i>Illustrated.</i>). Radio-thorium. By Frederick Soddy	10
The Poor Law Commission Report	12
The Meteoric Fireball of February 22 and its	12
Streak. By W. F. Denning	
	13
Notes Our Astronomical Column :	14
The Spectra of Various Nebules	10
The Spectra of Various Nebulæ	19
Reflector at Helwan, Egypt	19
Observations of Comet Tempel ₃ -Swift	19
The Levels of Sup spots	19
The Levels of Sun-spots . A New "Cave-nebula" in Cepheus	19
The Recent Magnitude of Nova Persei	19
	19
Double-star Measures	20
The Functions of Technical Colleges. By Dr.	20
George T Beilby F R S	22
George T. Beilby, F.R.S	26
Societies and Academies	27
Diary of Societies	30
Liary of Docictico	30