Nature

A WEEKLY

ILLUSTRATED JOURNAL OF SCIENCE

VOLUME XXXI

NOVEMBER 1884 to APRIL 1885

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

London and New York

MACMILLAN AND CO.

1885

LONDON:
RICHARD CLAY AND SONS, PRINTERS
BREAD STREET HILL, E.C.

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THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 6, 1884

TWO BEE BOOKS

A Collection of Papers on Bee-keeping in India. Published under the Orders of the Government of India, in the Revenue and Agricultural Department, 1883. (Calcutta: Office of the Superintendent of Government Printing, India, 1883.)

The Honey-Bee: its Nature, Homes, and Products. By W. H. Harris, B.A., B.Sc. With Eighty-two Illustrations. (London: The Religious Tract Society, 1884.)

THE thin folio issued by the Indian Government is very redolent of red-tape, since it contains not only a large number of reports from forest and district officers, and other persons in various parts of India, but also the whole of the official correspondence, memoranda, and indorsements connected with the same. Moreover, it is almost a misnomer to call it a collection of papers on "Bee-keeping," since at least nine-tenths of the reports state that domesticated bees are quite unknown in their districts; and the bulk of the matter (nearly a hundred pages of close print) is occupied with accounts of native methods of taking the combs of wild bees and preparing the wax, and with very imperfect descriptions of the various kinds of honey-producing bees in each district. The general result of the inquiry, as stated in a "Resolution" of the Revenue and Agricultural Department, is the following:—

"The industry is unlikely ever to be one of great importance in India. It can only be followed in the hills, where flowers abound throughout the greater part of the year, or in forests, where food is equally plentiful. In the populous country of the plains, bee-keeping as a general industry seems impracticable. Under these circumstances there is little or no call for action on the part of the Government."

Notwithstanding this somewhat depressing outcome of a laborious inquiry, some interesting details may be found in the storehouse of facts here brought together. At the commencement of the Report attention is drawn to Moorcroft's account of bee-keeping in Cashmere:—

"Their domestication there is so general that in some parts of the country a provision is made for hiving them in every house as it is being built. Spaces are left empty in the walls about 14 inches in diameter, and 2 feet, the average thickness of the walls, in length, which are carefully lined with a mixture of mortar, clay, and chopped straw, and closed at the inner end with a flat tile. There are ten or a dozen of these hives built into the walls of every house. The bees are hived exactly as in Europe, but the comb is gathered differently and in a way well worth following at home. It is done by the father of the house removing the flat tile, and at the same time blowing the smoke of a smouldering wisp of straw he holds in the other hand vigorously through the hive, on which the bees at once leave the hive, and he gathers in their store of honey. He then replaces the flat tile at the inner end of the hive, and the bees, after recovering their stupefaction, gradually return to it. The same colony of bees thus produce honey year after year in the same hive, and generation after generation, and have probably done so from the original Aryan settlement of the Cashmere Valley. In consequence of their being thus literally domiciliated with the human race, the bees of Cashmere are milder in their manners than those of any other country, although they have a most villainous sting when unduly provoked to use it. Their honey is as pure, and clear, and sweet, Moorcroft says, as the finest honey of Narbonne."

In a statement on bee-culture in Cashmere by a zemindar, it is said that hives are now very numerous, as they have been on the increase for several years, and the method of keeping them is very similar to that described by Moorcroft. But Mr. R. Morgan, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Madras, protests against the recommendation of smoking out the bees, as barbarous. It is, however, no doubt well suited to native wants, as hives are not required to be indefinitely increased, and there is no sale for swarms.

A very simple mode of bee-keeping is described as practised by the people of Mysore:—

"In March or April they besmear the concave part of an old earthen pot with honey-wax, make holes in the pot, take it to the jungles, and place it upside-down on a piece of wood or a slab of stone. The bees are attracted to the pot by the smell of the wax, and, when the person intending to domesticate them finds, after a trial of four or six days, that they have taken to remain in the pot, he goes to the jungle on a dark night, removes the pot after having covered it with a blanket, and places it either on a tree near or under the eaves of his house, or in any adjoining place. Each man keeps pots varying in number from one to four. He need not do anything beyond keeping the pots as aforesaid. They store honey between April 15 and June 15; and between the latter date and the end of July the keeper gathers it in, leaving a small portion to serve as food for the bees."

Mr. R. Morgan, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Madras, gives an interesting account of the honey-bees of the Wynaad. He says that the best honey-producing flower of Southern India is the Strobilanthes, of which there are numerous species, which almost all flower once in seven years, dying down entirely, and afterwards a fresh growth springing up from seed. The Strobilanthes is a shrubby genus of Acanthaceæ, mostly with blue or purple flowers, and the statement about their flowering only once in seven years is probably a popular delusion, like that of the Aloe flowering once in a century. The bees build their combs on the ledges of inaccessible precipices, often overhanging rivers, or on lofty horizontal limbs of the largest forest trees, and the combs are usually 3½ to 4 feet in length and 2 feet in diameter. The natives take the honey on dark nights by means of long cane or bamboo ladders, either erected against the tree or rock or suspended from above, and they carry torches, and knives to cut away the combs. The bees are roused by the glare of the torches, but do not sting, although in the daytime they are terribly pugnacious, and many a sportsman and traveller has barely escaped with his life after disturbing them. Mr. Morgan states that he can give numerous instances of men, cattle, horses, and even fowls and pigeons being killed by these bees.

The Deputy Conservator of Forests, East Salween, describes some remarkably large combs, one of which was 7 feet long and 6 feet deep in the widest part. The bees are fond of particular trees, and he states that on one Kanyin tree (*Dipterocarpus alatus*) he counted no less than thirty-nine combs, some of prodigious size. The trees are here ascended by means of pegs driven in the trunk, as in Borneo, and the bees are partially stupefied by a smoke torch.

These are samples of the better kind of reports that have been obtained from hundreds of districts in India. There is a monotonous similarity in large numbers of them, and it may be doubted whether the information afforded is worth the labour and cost it has entailed.

Mr. Harris's little volume on "The Honey-Bee" affords a striking contrast to the preceding work, both in its elegant get-up and excellent illustrations, its wide range of matter, and the clearness and condensation of its style. It treats in a pleasant and well-informed manner not only of bee-keeping but of the bees themselves and all that relates to them. We have a chapter on the literature of bees, from the Egyptian monuments and the Vedas to Shakespeare, Huber, and modern writers. Each subject is treated in a separate short chapter, so that we have chapters on "The Queen Bee," "The Workers," "Wax," "Bee-bread," &c., and even one on "Mead," including its use in ancient times and Queen Elizabeth's receipt for its manufacture. Hives, the Enemies, and the Diseases of Bees are all separately treated, as well as their "Intellect and Instinct," their "Relation to Flowers," and the "Superstitions connected with Bees."

From so condensed a work it is difficult to find passages suitable for extract, but the following illustration of the powers of intellect manifested by bees may be taken as a fair specimen of the author's style:—

"Again, let us revert to the manufacture of queens by the workers. If at the time of the removal or loss of the mother-bee in any way, there should be unhatched princesses in the hive, no attempt will be made to follow the course adopted in the absence of such royal progeny. In the *latter* case—that is, when there is no royal brood—there must be a distinct conception, first, of their bereavement; secondly, of the hopelessness of a sovereign appearing in the ordinary way. Then a judgment is formed of the proceedings necessary for making a queen, and action immediately follows. Not only so, but as if to secure themselves against the repetition of their calamity, they prepare not *one* queen, but *several*, so that, if the first which comes to maturity be lost, there may be others in reserve. A further act of definite judgment appears in this; for if one only were produced and lost, they would be powerless to repeat the process, as all the rest of the worker brood would, in the meantime, have advanced far beyond the stage at which its transformation would be possible. The bees then, with admirable prevision, forbear to risk all the future of their community on one hope of a queen."

In adducing the construction of the cells as a proof of pure instinct of the highest order, Mr. Harris is hardly on secure ground, since he omits to notice the researches of Mr. Darwin proving that the method of cell-building is very simple, and consists, fundamentally, in forming circular cells the size of which is determined by that of the bee's body, and gnawing away all the superfluous wax in the angles till the hexagonal form is produced. He is also hardly justified in the statement that "all these and other circumstances connected with the construction of their dwellings attest the possession of an innate faculty *needing no instruction from the elders of the hive*." The last statement (which we have italicised) is surely unprovable, and as every young bee necessarily begins work in the midst of her elders, and has done so during the countless generations of the past, it seems more probable that a considerable portion, though not perhaps the whole, of the bees' wonderful constructive power, is due to direct imitation and instruction.

On the whole, we can recommend this little book as a very comprehensive summary of what is known about bees and bee-keeping, at once attractive to the young who wish to learn something about these marvellous little creatures, and at the same time containing all the information necessary for the beginner in apiculture. The illustrations are both well chosen and beautifully executed, and the work is altogether so daintily got up as to render it especially suited for a gift to intelligent boys and girls.

A. R. W.

DR. KLEIN ON MICRO-ORGANISMS

Micro-Organisms and Disease. By E. Klein, M.D., F.R.S. (London: Macmillan and Co., 1884.)

THERE can be no doubt of the value and excellence of this little book. Dr. Klein is one of the very few men in this country who are continually working and experimenting with Bacteria and similar forms. His instructions and advice as to methods of study are invaluable, and his opinions on the numerous debatable questions connected with micro-organisms entitled to the highest respect. Dr. Klein has descended, as it were, from his position of experimentalist and observer, in order to place before the scientific public in a compact form a *résumé* of what is known at this moment concerning disease-producing micro-organisms. He classifies these organisms as Micrococci, Bacteria, Bacilli, Vibriones, Spirobacteria, Yeast-fungi, and Mould-fungi, and gives *seriatim* under each head, accompanied by numerous figures, often original, an account of such forms as have been found in association with disease. He refers the reader to the original writings in which this or that organism has been described, and whilst he sometimes judiciously throws doubt on a claim to pathogenic powers, he is entirely relieved from the responsibility of a critic in all cases by the disclaimer in his preface and by the fact that he obviously intends to leave the question in most cases to further inquiry. As an illustrated catalogue of reputed pathogenic Schizophytes, with references to original authorities, the work is invaluable.

At the same time Dr. Klein does, as so ripe a student of these questions must, commit himself to very definite opinions on some of the great problems of what it is convenient to term "Bacteriology." Dr. Klein clings to the belief that speaking broadly the forms known as Micrococci, Bacteria, Bacilli, Vibriones, and Spirilla breed true and are to be recognised as true genera. This opinion is traceable to the fact that his studies have been chiefly (like those of Koch, who holds a similar view) carried out on parasitic (*i.e.* pathogenic) Schizophytes. And it is highly probable that it is more difficult (in some cases impossible) to break down the specific form by change of environment of a parasitic Schizophyte than of free-living kinds. But Dr. Klein has himself shown (p. 109) that Bacillus (*B. anthracis*) when cultivated in a certain way becomes Micrococcus (torula-form), and other similar instances are to be found in his book. Had he dealt with free-living Schizophytes as well as parasitic ones, he would have found ample evidence of the transformation, in the course of growth and division, of Micrococci into Bacteria, of these into Bacilli, and of these into Vibriones and Spirilla, and of each of these directly or indirectly into the other forms. The instability of the forms presented by particular kinds of Bacteria does not however imply, as has been assumed by some writers (Billroth *e.g.*), that there is only one "species" of Schizophyte. Such use of terms would lead to the statement that there is only one "species" of organism in all creation. The instability of the forms of Schizophytes merely implies that the range of presently observable specific characters taken as a whole (which forms the true limits of what mankind at the moment calls a "species") is *not* simply and directly coincident with the range of one particular and readily observed set of characters, namely, those of form. A great deal more depends upon the question of transmutability of the forms of Schizophytes than is admitted, at present, by pathologists. We would merely warn them that the doctrine of fixity of the forms of pathogenic Schizophytes is as much an *assumption* and as much to be received with caution as is the contrary doctrine of the universal transmutability of such forms. One great fact is certain, viz. that *some* Schizophytes do exhibit the *positive* evidence of change of form in the course of growth under varying conditions.

Dr. Klein has a most interesting chapter on the conversion of innocuous into pathogenic organisms and *vice versâ*, in which he criticises with great ability the results of Buchner and Nägeli on the one hand, and of Pasteur on the other. Valuable as such critical dissertations are, Dr. Klein will agree with us in thinking his experiments of greater value. We should be sorry were the test-experiments which they suggest to be delayed in consequence of the apparently satisfactory character of the reasonings which he and others have very properly adduced. The fact is that the proportion of what we know by careful experiment and observation in reference to Bacteria and their allies—as compared with what we must soon know and can see how to know if only time and ability are directed to the research—is so small that conclusions and generalisations are not useful except as suggestions to those who are in the thick of the work. More experiment, more trial of every conceivable condition of growth and nutrition, applied to every kind of Schizophyte observed and yet to be discovered, is imperatively called for.

Who can say that much is known as yet about these organisms, when even so earnest a student of them as Dr. Robert Koch did not know that his so-called "cholera comma-Bacillus" occurs in the mouths of nearly every healthy man, woman, and child?

Dr. Klein has rendered a generous service to future students of Bacteria by the publication of this little book. The woodcuts are very abundant, and sufficient to give an idea of the forms as they appear when stained by coloured reagents. The botanical and chemical aspects of the Schizophytes are necessarily not dealt with in this treatise.

E. RAY LANKESTER

OUR BOOK SHELF

A New Method of treating Glaucoma, based on recent researches into its Pathology. By Geo. Lindsay Johnson, M.A., M.B., B.C. Cantab. (H. K. Lewis, 1884.)

THIS little *brochure* is written by a Cambridge graduate who has devoted considerable time and attention to the study of diseases of the eye, and who has devised a new and very serviceable form of ophthalmoscope. The proposition he endeavours to establish is "that the ordinary method of treatment for glaucoma by iridectomy, though highly successful in acute forms of the disease, is nevertheless both uncertain and unsatisfactory in the chronic condition of glaucoma." The truth of this proposition all those who have had large experience in the performance of operations on the eye will freely admit: the reason is less easy to give. Dr. Johnson describes the lymphatic system of the eye, and adduces evidence to show that the aqueous humour is secreted by the ciliary processes and posterior surface of the iris, whilst it is drained off by the canal of Fontana, and the meshwork at the corneo-iridal angle. Any circumstance obliterating this angle is apt to induce glaucoma. It is certainly not due to swellings of the lens, since Brailey has shown that the lens is smaller in the glaucomatous than in the normal eye, but Dr. Johnson thinks that acute glaucoma may be referred to swelling and inflammation of the ciliary processes, whilst in chronic glaucoma there are slow and gradual changes in the ciliary body and in the lesions around the angle of the anterior chamber, which in his opinion explains the different effects of iridectomy in cases of acute and chronic glaucoma. Dr. Johnson then proceeds to describe an operation which he terms scleral paracentesis, and describes as new, but which we have seen performed both by Mr. Hancock and by Mr. Power many years ago. In point of fact, Mr. Hancock's operation was a scleral paracentesis, and his view, which is not altogether incorrect, and was based on observation, was that in glaucoma a circumcorneal depression could be seen which he imagined to be due to the ciliary muscle, and his section, made with the same instrument recommended by Dr. Johnson, namely, a Wenzel's double-edged knife, was made through the sclera with the object of dividing the ciliary muscle; and the excellent results obtained in some cases show clearly that the escape of the vitreous which followed the incision, accompanied, when the anterior chamber was opened, by the aqueous humour, was quite enough to afford relief to all the symptoms and to restore vision, even if the spasm of the ciliary muscle was quite imaginary. We do not, however, wish to deprive Dr. Johnson of the credit of having thought out this method of procedure, though he may rest assured that he will meet with many cases of chronic glaucoma that will derive no benefit from scleral paracentesis, and that he will have to be careful in promising success from his operation in such cases.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

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

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

An Unnoticed Factor in Evolution

Two observed biological facts seem to oppose great difficulties to any explanation on evolution principles; difficulties admitted by evolutionists as well as their opponents. I mean—

(1) The fact that varieties produced by artificial selection, however divergent, are always fertile among themselves, while species supposed to have been produced naturally by an analogous process are often not mutually fertile even when very slightly divergent; and

(2) The fact that species evidently derived from a common ancestor, and differing only in small points of marking, though not fertile with one another, are often found side by side in places where it would seem that cross-breeding must prevent any division of the ancestral species into divergent branches.

The first seems to require that a period much greater than that of artificial selection should be necessary to produce sterility between descendants from the same ancestor; a supposition which would require an almost incredible period for evolution as a whole. The second seems to require that many species now intermixed should once have been geographically separated, sometimes in cases where this is very difficult to imagine. Both these difficulties are completely removed if we suppose mutual sterility to be not the *result* but the *cause* of divergence.

As far as can be judged, "sports" are as likely to occur in the generative elements (ova and spermatozoa) as in other parts of the body, and from their similarity in widely unlike groups it seems certain that a very slight variation in these elements would render their owner infertile with the rest of its species. Such a variation occurring in a small group (say the offspring of one pair) would render them as completely separate from the rest of their species as they would be on an island, and divergence (as Wallace has sufficiently shown) would begin. This divergence might progress to a great or a small extent, or even be imperceptible, but in any case the new species would be infertile with the species it sprang from.

If this theory be admitted, we must distinguish between varieties and species by saying that the former arise by spontaneous variations in various parts of the body, and only gradually become mutually infertile (thus becoming species), while the latter arise sometimes in this way, but sometimes by spontaneous variations in the generative elements, and are in this case originally mutually infertile, but only gradually become otherwise divergent.

I would suggest the following tests, and should be glad of any facts, from experience or from books, which can help in applying them:—

(1) If this theory is true we ought to find species (incipient) mutually infertile, but not otherwise distinguishable; and

(2) We ought to find that island and other isolated species which have arisen not by limited fertility but by geographical instead of physiological separation are often mutually fertile even when as widely divergent as the artificial varieties of dogs or pigeons. EDMUND CATCHPOOL

The Grove, Totley, Sheffield, October 23

Earthquake Measurement

IN an article on "Earthquakes" in last week's NATURE (p. 608), Dr. H. J. Johnston-Lavis takes exception to the records of earthquake motion which I have published, on the ground of their complexity, and pronounces the Plain of Yedo unsuitable for earthquake observations.

Now this seems to me to be a very eclectic way of treating earthquakes. We can measure earthquakes only where we find them, and I suppose the first qualification in a site for an earthquake observatory is that there should be plenty of earthquakes. The Plain of Yedo possesses this qualification in a very high degree; and if the disturbances which occur in it are of a very much more complex character than our *a priori* notions about earthquakes may have led us to expect, it is not the Plain of Yedo that is to blame.

I fully agree that on a rocky formation the results will be different from those I found on an alluvial plain, but the instruments and methods which have been successful on the one are just as applicable to the other. The seismometers which have been used in Japan will serve to measure, with equal accuracy, earthquakes of a similar degree of destructiveness in other places, whatever be the nature of the ground. And several of the types already employed need little more than a change of scale in their construction to suit them for such formidable convulsions as the Ischian earthquake, to which your correspondent refers.

In describing and figuring a number of proposed seismographs, Dr. Johnston-Lavis has very frankly disclaimed a technical knowledge of mechanical construction, and for that reason all minute criticism of his suggestions may be withheld. If however he will refer to the *Transactions* of the Seismological Society of Japan, or to my "Memoir on Earthquake Measurement," he will see that some of the devices he suggests are not new. The plan of registering the amplitude of a pendulum's motion relatively to the earth by making the bob draw up a thread through a hole in a plate fixed below it was used some years ago by Dr. G. Wagener; and a massive slab free to roll on spherical balls formed in 1876 the seismometer of Dr. G. F. Verbeck. It was re-invented a year or two ago by Mr. C. A. Stevenson, and described by him before the Royal Scottish Society of Arts. The theory of the apparatus is discussed in §§ 31-32 of my memoir. Dr. Johnston-Lavis's plan of recording the azimuth of a movement by means of numerous electric contacts and "a pile of electro-magnets" is a very retrograde step from the perfectly successful method, used in Japan, of resolving all horizontal movements into components along two fixed directions, these components being independently recorded in conjunction with the time.

Speaking of the use of the common pendulum as a seismometer, the author says that by using a short pendulum we may measure oscillations of short period, and by using a long pendulum we may measure slow earth-tiltings. Almost the reverse of this is the case. A short pendulum acquires, by earth movements of short period, a swing which cannot be distinguished from the movements we wish to measure, and whose extent depends on the accidental agreement of its period with theirs; but a short pendulum can be properly used to record slow earth-tiltings, with respect to which it is sensibly dead-beat. A long pendulum can be used to measure short-period movements; it can also be used (and its only advantage over a short pendulum is greater sensitiveness) to measure slow tiltings.

For vertical motion Dr. Johnston-Lavis condemns (but without giving any reason) my own and another vertical-motion seismograph—which theory and experience agree in proving trustworthy—and proposes an instrument in which a weight drives a clock-train furnished with a centrifugal speed-indicator. The changes of apparent weight of the driver caused by the earth's up-and-down motion are to cause fluctuations in the speed of the driven train, which are to be recorded in conjunction with the time. The plan is, I think, new, but a less direct method of measuring vertical movement could scarcely be imagined. The fluctuations in speed will follow the changes of pull exerted by the driver with diminished amplitude and retarded phase, and superposed on them there will be fluctuations following no rule, due to inconstant friction and to mechanical imperfection of the train, as well as the continuous acceleration which follows the starting of the mechanism. To interpret the records would be altogether impracticable.

The design of a seismograph is a problem in applied dynamics which has of late years received a number of very satisfactory solutions. Of instruments capable of determining earthquake movements in absolute measure, and with reasonable exactness, there is now no lack; and it would be a pity if their wider employment were in any way retarded by the publication, on the authority of Dr. Johnston-Lavis, of suggestions which may fairly be said to lie outside the sphere of practical seismology.

University College, Dundee, October 27 J. A. EWING

The Sky-Glows

THE description of the sky-glows as seen by Prof. A. S. Herschel may justify an account of some seen near the University of Virginia, Virginia, during the past spring, from notes made at that time.

February 25.—For several days before this date there were (if one may so call them) the normal glows at and after sunset. On this day there was seen a single pink ray with well-defined edges, about 4° broad, perpendicular to the western horizon, reaching half way to the zenith.

March 24.—Ten minutes before sunset, the sun being behind a small cloud, the bright oval "glare" in the west, which preceded nearly all the after-glows, was seen with its centre at an elevation of 15° (all these heights are rough estimates). It was 10° in diameter, and was surrounded by a band of a hazy reddish ashen colour (this band was usually seen with the "glare") about 5° wide, which deepened in tint towards the horizon, and there spread out on each side of the "glare" so as to form a somewhat triangular support for it. At 6.30 the sun set. No colour had yet appeared on the eastern horizon. The "glare" now seemed almost triangular in shape, with the deepest ashen tints at the lower corners. As the sun descended, the "glare" diminished in intensity from the apex of the triangle. At 6.35 there was a ruddy colour on the eastern horizon, which spread in a triangular shape, apex upward, to a height of 25° to 30°, and at 6.40 was an exact image of the "glare" in the west, except that there were clear red tints instead of ashen, which were deepest at the lower corners of the triangle. The colour triangle then gradually rose from the eastern horizon, apparently following the sun, till at 6.48 the pink tint appeared in the western sky, increased in intensity, and was deepest at an elevation of 60°. The colour in the east was now gone. (Several attempts were made to observe the passage of colour across the zenith, but in no case was there success.) The western horizon was dazzling topaz-yellow, above the yellow pale blue, then faint pink to the deepest pink. The pink gradually descended toward the horizon, and when within 20° merged into the ordinary sunset colour at 7.0. The general phases of the glow were as follows:—Triangular ashen haze with oval "glare" in west, base of triangle on the horizon at sunset. Ten minutes later, triangular ruddiness in east, with base on the horizon. Another ten minutes, pink in the west. Ten minutes more, colour disappears. This succession was also noticed on March 15. On March 4 the glow in the west reached its most intense colour twenty minutes after sunset, but lasted twenty minutes, disappearing forty minutes after sunset.

On this evening (March 24) at 6.45, a cloud in the western sky, there being then no pink there, at an elevation of 35°, was coloured pale pea-green. This colour of the clouds floating at an elevation of 35° was seen on other days, while the clouds above and below retained their ordinary appearance.

March 26.—After the same phenomena as detailed in the last, even to the colour of the clouds, twenty minutes after the disappearance of the first glows, at 7.20 there was a pale rose-glow at an elevation from the western horizon of 30° to 35°, which reached almost to the Pleiades, of which six were then visible. This second glow lasted about twenty minutes, and seemed to descend to the horizon. It was almost identical with the first, but fainter.

March 29.—Same as preceding, without second after-glow; tints extended 60° to 70° from horizon.

These after-glows were noticed more or less during April, July, and September, and here in Cambridge during this month there have been several vivid displays. W. G. BROWN

Harvard College, Cambridge, Mass., October 23

I BEG to inclose you an extract from a letter lately received by me from my cousin, Mr. Leeming, in the hope that it may interest some of your readers. ELLEN A. DAY

Greycoat Hospital, Westminster, October 24

Extract from a Letter written by Thomas Leeming, Surgeon and Naturalist on Board H.M.S. "Gulnare," on the Admiralty Survey off Newfoundland

"*Galtois, Hermitage Bay, Newfoundland, September* 12, 1884

"There is one thing I have more than once forgotten to mention to you, that is, an unusual appearance in the sky there has been now for some months, which I think must be connected with the red sunsets of last winter. In the finest weather the sun has always about it a haze (not watery) extending some 20° or 30°, white in the day-time, but as the sun nears the horizon the sky has a pale salmon or ochrey tint. In the immediate neighbourhood of the sun, the sky is of a vivid whiteness. This appearance continues some time after sunset. I have tried more than once to reproduce this effect, with water-colours, but without success. Let me know if you have observed or heard of anything of the same kind. I may also mention that there has been until lately a great scarcity of stars; even on the fairest and darkest nights very few visible under the third magnitude, and the Milky Way scarcely to be seen at all. Things, however, are mending in this respect."

Peculiar Ice Forms

WALKING up from Chamounix to the Montanvert a fortnight ago, I came upon a form of ice which I think can hardly be of common occurrence, as I have not met with any description of it, and have only once before seen it, and then also on the same mountain side, and under similar conditions of season and weather.

The bank, which in this particular spot slopes at an angle of about 45°, and faces the north, is bare of vegetation for some 30 feet in depth, and 100 to 120 feet in length, the hillside above being clothed with moss, ferns, and the usual undergrowth. This bare slope was almost covered with a coating of ice nearly four inches in depth, and of very curious structure, being formed in four layers, the three upper layers each about an inch in depth, and the lowest, which rested on the soil, being from five-eighths to three-quarters of an inch. Each layer was composed of an aggregation of filaments or elongated crystals, one-sixteenth of an inch and downwards in diameter, and all of a length equal to the thickness of the layer, ranged side by side like organ-pipes or basaltic columns, and with pyramidal ends; the bottom points of one layer resting on the top points of the one below, so that the layers could be easily detached one from the other. The whole mass was pierced by vertical cylindrical cavities from half to a quarter of an inch or less in diameter, and in most cases penetrating from top to bottom, so that a pencil-case could be dropped through endways. A horizontal section presented somewhat the appearance of Gruyère cheese, minus the colour of course, and with the solid part showing the crystalline form described above.

The mass had evidently been pushed up from below, because, while the ice itself was perfectly white and colourless, it was covered at the surface by a layer of dirt which might very likely have concealed it from observation if it had not happened to be broken. There was a good deal of snow higher up—nine inches at the Montanvert—and the weather was fine, with bright sunny days and hard frost at night. This particular part of the bank was in shade all day, and hardly thawed at all. I imagine that the porous detritus forming the surface of the bank was underlain by hard rock (though it did not occur to me at the time to ascertain if it was so, and at what depth), and that the water resulting from the melting by the sun of the snow above had percolated down to the hard substratum, along which it had run till it reached the place where the bare earth above it no longer protected it from radiation, and it then cooled and crystallised in this curious way, pushing itself up by expansion in so doing, each layer being the work of one night's frost. If this is correct, it is not difficult to understand what I assume to be the comparative rarity of this form of ice, since it would be seldom that all the necessary conditions would co-exist.

May I add, as the result of seven seasons' experience, that no one who has not tried it knows the charm of Switzerland in October. It is too late, of course, for high ascents, and the flowers are nearly gone; but an ordinary visitor, so long as he avoids the mists and clouds of the lowlands, by keeping at an elevation of three thousand feet and upwards, will find that the brightness and crispness of the air, the *enjoyableness* of the sunshine (which in August can at best be *tolerated*), the purity of the fresh snow, giving grandeur and beauty to lower heights which in summer are mere barren rocks, and the glory of the autumn colouring, not to mention the freedom from the plagues of heat, flies, and tourists, render October in Switzerland the most enjoyable month of the year. B. WOODD SMITH

Hampstead, October 31

The Blackness of Tropical Man

A DECISIVE paper on the subject would have to be prepared elsewhere, but Hindostan presents an excellent field for amassing information with regard to the effects of an extraordinarily powerful sun on the human frame's exterior. In a very interesting article in NATURE for August 21 last (p. 401), "Why Tropical Man is Black," the cause is set down to the nerves of the skin being one and all highly sensitive to light, the optic nerves being merely some of those of the epidermis highly specialised by long-inherited modification, and the necessity for placing over them a pigment which will absorb light. Otherwise the intense nerve vibrations from a light of double degree power would soon degrade the tissues of the individual and exhaust his vitality.

It would have been all the better if a little more had been said about the way in which a patch of dark pigment cells round the transparent skin of the nerve endings, to be exalted into a special sense, heighten the rates of vibration; or how the selected tissue, at the same time securing the transmission of heat, as the constant accumulation of heat waves behind it, throws the molecular constituents of the protoplasm "into the highest rates of vibration possibly obtainable with the means at disposal."

Before turning to the experience India affords, it has to be noticed that, taking the centre of Europe as the standard of whiteness, it is not only going south that the population becomes successively blacker, but that there is a dark-skinned tendency in the races lying in the other direction, towards the Polar regions. Besides this, exposure in the bright days of August on the moors in the British Isles has the effect of browning the white skin exposed to light, and making it on the face and hands for a short time only a shade lighter than the lightest Indians. This can only be by the solar rays producing pigment in the skin.

On the contrary, the experience of Europeans in India is that the sun there does not burn; if anything, it rather whitens them and pales the complexion. It is only on certain occasions, when the sun is obscured by rain-clouds, it is cool, and the diffused light is of a particular but unascertained actinic quality, that the skin of a European is sunburnt. One may ride all day in the hottest sun and have no trace of sunburning.

Also were light the sole cause of a protection for the skin being required, this would be supplied by the clothing Europeans invariably have, except on hands and face; and they would be placed in about the same favourable position as the natives, if not more so, as those of the latter of the class of labourers prefer working almost entirely without clothes.

What is dreaded by Europeans all over India, and extending into Afghanistan, is the "Indian sun," when it is elevated more than ten or fifteen degrees above the horizon; and it is chiefly the head which it affects, and which has to be protected by non-conducting materials, forming the strange head-gear of the tropics. The playing of the sun on the rest of the body is disagreeable, but not dangerous.

Light and heat are one and the same, so that the nerves of sight are only a select number of those with which the skin is full, higher strung; but it is noticeable that, though heat is felt by any nerves of the skin indiscriminately, they are insensible to minute differences of heat, or in the periods of the heat-rays, so that no sense, so to speak, is conveyed by them. That is—though, as we know, all objects reflect as many heat-rays of different kinds as they do visual rays—we are not conscious of their form by a reception and discrimination of the varying periods of the heat-rays; we do not consciously see by heat.

The effect the Indian sun has on European health, sunstroke being said to be the work of a few minutes, shows that the nerves of the skin are sensitive to some rays besides those of light. In fact, the sun's rays of Hindostan must contain rays not found in the sunlight of most other parts of the world, which moreover penetrate the European's white skin tissues and clothing, while the natives can let it beat upon their bared heads with complete impunity.

There has never been a sufficiently minute comparison made between the pure solar diffraction spectrum, from the lowest lines to the highest, of India and that in other countries, such as Great Britain, America, the West Indies, and Australia. In many respects the West India Islands are as tropical as the East Indies, but those who have resided in the former and coming to the latter declare there is some quality they feel in the Indian sun that is absent in the West Indies; they can wear a simple straw hat in the one place, but could not attempt it anywhere throughout India. If the spectra were juxtaposed, it would no doubt be found that groups of rays in some portion of it, whether at the red or the violet end, were present to a much larger extent in the light of the Indian sun than either in Australia or the West Indies. It is of the greatest importance, in order to clear up this question, as well as to science in general, that those who have the means and time should analyse the spectra and give the results.

The only test available is sensation at present, but this is unmistakable, because, in addition to the burning feel of 140° Fahrenheit, there is a peculiarly unpleasant sensation even in the shade, whether it is that of a tree, an umbrella, a thin tent, or even a walled room with a window, if there is no veranda. This can only come from invisible rays to which all but the thickest coverings are pervious, and which the skin and tissues admit freely.

European "colonists" are, happily for themselves, unknown in India, and the race would immediately die out, as it is only by frequent visits to temperate climates that a European can preserve health. But if they did exist it is open to doubt if a white skin would ever become black. It is commonly supposed that the Black Jins of Cochin are converted Hindoos. The difference that a change in dress and diet makes in these is singular, many being termed Portuguese, for example, who are pure natives descended from converts whom the Portuguese for the most part made forcibly.

As a rule, the higher the caste and the higher in the scale a native of India is, the whiter he is; and the lower the caste and hotter the mean temperature of the place, the blacker. But this is not invariably the case, as the outcasts who work in leather in Upper India are rather lighter than some of the Brahmans. However, latitude has most effect, and wherever the sun is hottest all the year round the blacker the natives, down to the equator of heat shown on the atlases. The configuration of the country, however, shows that the shades of colour are due to successive waves of conquest from the north, and the Northern Asiatics, who were nearly white at first, degenerate the farther south they come, and are unfit for labour. A blackness of skin, therefore, confers an immunity from the effects of the sun, so that those having it can labour in the heat in a way that would soon cause the lighter races to give in.

Black radiates quicker than white, and though black coats are by no means unknown to Europeans in India, who are as often in those as in coats of any other colour, the black skin of the labourer would throw off accumulated heat much more quickly than if white, and perhaps in a ratio worth calculating. This must be one of the reasons; and it may be noticed that the exterior of buildings is frequently tinted a slate colour with this view, in India, instead of being whitewashed.

Still a more ready dissipation of heat is not the only advantage imparted by a pigmentary blackness in the human skin; and it is to be inferred that the real protection consists in there being a few of the invisible solar rays of the spectrum in tropical light injurious to man, which nevertheless possess unusual penetrative energy, and go through a thickness of what are ordinarily considered opaque substances, but which are intercepted by the contents of the epidermic pigment cells largely developed in the African, a little more sparingly in Hindoos, and not absolutely wanting in the sunburnt excursionist or sportsman in our own country.

The Australian will tell you that he has done hard work—in a shade temperature of 100°—in the sun in a light wideawake and not felt exhausted; while continuous labour of some hours in much less heat—75° in the shade and exposed to the sun—in Hindostan would be simple destruction of the European's powers of exertion with all a Bond Street hatter could devise on his head. A. T. FRASER

Equator of Heat, India, October 1

The Distribution of Scientific Works Published by the British Government

I HAVE read Dr. Valentine Ball's letter in your journal of October 30 (p. 634) expressing his astonishment that the scientific Reports of the British Government are not presented to the leading American scientific institutions. It may surprise Dr. Ball to learn that the Treasury recently refused to present one of the largest scientific libraries in Dublin with copies of the *Challenger* Reports on the ground that their "free list" was too limited! G. F. B.

A NEW METHOD OF HEATING IN THE REGENERATIVE GAS FURNACE

DURING the present age, which may be called that of Electricity, the sister science of Heat is not receiving so much attention at the hands of the natural philosopher as it did formerly. But still there remain some scientific men who are giving a life-long attention to it—MM. Hirn and Berthelot in France, Herren Clausius, Helmholtz, and Frederick Siemens in Germany, Mr. Joule and Sir William Thomson in this country. During the late Sir William Siemens's lifetime, the one brother worked here in the science of Heat, the other in Germany, and the work of both was applied everywhere; now Mr. Frederick Siemens works alone, and, from the recent evidence of that work, it promises to play an important part in the economical application of fuel. Mr. F. Siemens has recently had an opportunity given him of bringing his views forward in this country, having read a paper at the Chester meeting of the Iron and Steel Institute on a new method of heating in the regenerative gas furnace, in which he treated the practical side of the question, whilst in the discussion of the same paper he gave his views on the theory of the subject. Mr. F. Siemens's investigations have led him to the conclusion that combustion can only be perfect, and be maintained perfect, if the space in which it takes place is sufficiently large to allow the gases to combine out of contact with solid materials. Having proved by actual experiment that solid substances interfere with the formation of flame and that flame injures solid substances with which it comes in contact, he brings forward an hypothesis to account for the phenomena. According to the electrical hypothesis, which Mr. Siemens prefers, flame is the result of an infinite number of exceedingly minute electrical flashes, the flashes being due to the exceedingly swift motion of gaseous particles, and a solid body which opposes itself to these flashes is cut by them, whilst, the motion being more or less arrested by the solid body, the flame is damped.

Another important deduction from these investigations is that combustion should be considered in two stages or periods, which may be respectively called active and neutral. In the first the purely chemical combination of the gases takes place, during which, as soon as the temperature of ignition has been reached, the whole of the heat of the highest possible intensity is produced, of which a large portion is given off by radiation, whilst in the second the temperature having fallen in the proportion of the heat given off by radiation, the remainder of the heat which is no longer of an active character, is best transmitted by conduction. For the purpose of utilising this portion of the heat, as well as for raising the temperature of the gas and air before combustion, the regenerators are requisite which form an essential feature of all furnaces worked at an intense heat on the Siemens principle, care being taken to design the furnace so that the gases shall have combined perfectly before the products of combustion are allowed to pass away.

Mr. Siemens in applying his investigations to practice insists that flame must not be allowed to impinge upon bodies to be heated, but must simply heat the bodies by radiation, and furnaces must be so constructed as to allow the flame to develop out of contact, not only with the substance on its bed, but with the walls and roof of the furnace itself; it thus follows that large furnaces must replace small ones, and to meet the objection that the loss of heat into the atmosphere must increase in the proportion of the area of the furnace, Mr. Siemens explains that the heat developed in the furnace increases in a much larger ratio than its increase in area, because flame radiates in every direction from every portion of its entire volume, while a solid substance radiates from its external surface only. The details of construction of metallurgical and glass furnaces and of steam-boilers are given in the paper in question, and need not be considered here; the main point is that furnaces heated on the radiation principle have been proved both in Dresden and at Landore to have been economical of fuel, whilst the saving in the materials treated from reduced oxidation and in the construction of the furnace has been found to be very great.

There is another point of view of this important question which is daily demanding and commanding more attention, and that is the abatement of the smoke nuisance. As is well known, smoke is but incomplete combustion, and the only way to get rid of it is not to produce it. Mr. Siemens insists that this can only be effected by not permitting flame to touch any substance whatever so long as it exists in the active condition; for, just as carbon is precipitated upon a glass rod put into an ordinary gas flame, so is it with any flame whatever its temperature; but the greater the difference of temperature between the flame and the body brought into contact with it the greater will be the amount of smoke produced. Mr. Siemens tells how in Dresden he succeeded in extending his works, without the production of smoke, by the application of the system of heating he recommends, and trusts that here also not only may smoke be abated, but that the public may also derive benefit by manufacturers being able to supply goods at cheaper rates owing to being able to economise their fuel and the material heated within the furnaces as well as that of which the furnaces are constructed.

THE PRIME MERIDIAN CONFERENCE

THE greatly extended and ever increasing intercourse, both commercial and scientific, which has grown up between different nations in modern times has naturally caused especial attention to be drawn to the question of assimilation of the different systems of reckoning employed. Weights and measures and money have been already dealt with more or less successfully, but always with steady advance in the direction of unification. More recently, and in like manner because of practical difficulties and inconveniences, unification of the methods of counting longitude and time has in its turn become a question pressing for solution by the establishment of some international agreement in regard to all matters relating thereto.

The subject became first systematically discussed at the Conference of the International Geodetic Association held at Rome about a year ago, and the recommendations then formulated have since been further considered at a special International Conference recently assembled at Washington, the delegates at which, in some cases scientific men, in others the ambassadors accredited to the United States, were instructed by their respective Governments specially for the settlement of the questions of a prime meridian and universal time. Their final recommendations on the principal points involved are now before the world.

Unlike the related question of weights and measures, that of time becomes to a great extent simplified by the circumstance that no assimilation of units is necessary, since in the reckoning of time there exists one natural unit which already all nations alike employ, that of the solar day, divided in all centres of civilisation into twenty-four hours, each hour into sixty minutes, and each minute into sixty seconds, and reckoned generally from midnight to the midnight following. In the business and concerns of any single centre no anomaly arises, but if we travel to the east or west of our centre, say from Greenwich, we change—not our manner of counting time—not our unit—but only the zero from which we begin to count, that is, midnight in our new position will occur at a different absolute time. Thus midnight at Paris occurs nine minutes of time before midnight at Greenwich, and this difference between the natural time of the two places is their difference of longitude.

The practical navigator carries with him charts on which longitude is marked as reckoned from some particular meridian. Whilst some nations use the Greenwich meridian, others employ that of their own capital city or observatory, so that longitudes become differently reckoned on the charts of different nationalities. This, as regards practical navigation and in many questions of geography, was one inconvenience.

For many years all clocks throughout Great Britain have been regulated to Greenwich time. This causes no appreciable inconvenience in other parts of the country, because, on account of its small extent in the easterly and westerly direction, the natural time at any place (as referred to the sun) differs so little from Greenwich time that no violence is done to our conceptions of morning and evening as referred to the clock, whilst the advantage of having one standard time throughout the country is, in these days, enormous. Similarly the time of Paris is used in France, and so on. In the United States of America a more natural division into sections has been made, each having its own standard time, about which we shall have more to say further on. The standard time thus used throughout each particular country or section of country, whilst satisfying entirely internal needs, fails, on account of the difference existing between the standard times of adjacent countries, to meet international requirements, not only in questions of scientific interest, but also in matters commercial. The standard time counted in any district must continue to regulate its civil affairs, but for the efficient control of those of international concern, such as the railway, telegraphic, postal, and steamship services, an extension of the same principle to the whole globe by the establishment of some system of universal time, for use in conjunction with local standard time, became very desirable, for although such universal time could not be suitably employed in the ordinary way, the importance of its adoption in matters of international interest had become abundantly apparent. One other point. In civil affairs the day is counted from midnight, whilst astronomers count from the noon following, rendering troublesome conversions from one system to the other frequently necessary. These were other questions requiring consideration.

Clearly therefore the time had come for promoting a better understanding on points of this kind. The recommendations of the Roman Conference briefly stated were, that the initial meridian should be that of Greenwich, corresponding to the point midway between the piers of the Greenwich meridian circle, since such meridian fulfilled all the requirements of science, being already that most used and best likely to be generally accepted; also that longitude should be counted from the meridian of Greenwich in one direction only, from west to east, that is to say, the longitude of Berlin would be 0h. 54m., and that of Dublin 23h. 35m. The Conference further recommended, for purposes for which universal time would be convenient, that the universal day should commence at mean noon of Greenwich time, and be counted from 0h. to 24h., as was proposed in America in the year 1879 by Sandford Fleming and Cleveland Abbe, a proposition which had received the support also of well-known astronomers. It may be added that a proposition to assimilate the astronomical day with the civil day, and adopt it as the universal day, being scantily supported, was lost.

So far as regards the Roman Conference. Their proposals served to indicate the points requiring consideration, so that, attention having been thus directed to the whole question during the year since elapsed, the delegates attending the recent Washington Conference had full opportunity of forming deliberate opinion thereon. We are not yet in possession of the full discussions of the Conference, but we know their decision on all essential points. The recommendation of the Roman Conference that the meridian of Greenwich should be the universal prime meridian was confirmed. But on the question of reckoning longitude the Conference resolved that it should be counted from Greenwich in two directions up to 180°, the east longitude to be *plus*, and the west longitude *minus*, in this particular departing from the recommendation of the Roman Conference. The Washington Conference also disagreed with the resolution of the Roman Conference in regard to universal time, declaring the universal day to be the mean solar day to commence for all the world at the moment of mean midnight of the initial meridian, coinciding with the beginning of the civil day, and to be counted from 0h. up to 24h., a proposition which, as already mentioned, had been debated at the Roman Conference. Protocols were approved which will be made the basis of an international convention fixing Greenwich as the prime meridian.

Practically, therefore, the recommendations are:—

(1) That the prime meridian be that of Greenwich.

(2) That longitude be counted from this meridian in two directions up to 180°, calling east longitude *plus* and west longitude *minus*.

(3) That the universal day be the Greenwich civil day, commencing at midnight and reckoning from 0h. up to 24h.

After full discussion at two Conferences we may believe that, regarding scientific requirements on the one hand and practical considerations on the other, the conclusions arrived at are the best which, under the circumstances, were possible. We may now proceed to consider in various ways their practical bearing.

First, as affecting matters nautical and geographical. By the adoption of Greenwich as the prime meridian (which, if that of any one place were to be selected, was clearly from its extensive use the one which had by far the strongest claim to consideration), and by the retention of the system of counting longitude east and west up to 180°, all British maps and charts (already extensively used by most other nations) and all tables of longitude as hitherto prepared remain still in harmony with the recommendations of the Washington Conference. And since foreign nations thus so largely use charts which refer to Greenwich, the use of this meridian is likely in time to become universal. This being so, some labour of calculation might also be saved, for, considering that large portions of the existing astronomical and nautical ephemerides of different countries are prepared mainly for the purposes of navigation, and that these ephemerides are calculated generally for different meridians, should charts on which longitude from Greenwich only is counted come into universal use, such separate calculation would become unnecessary. A certain uniformity has already been arrived at, our own *Nautical Almanac*, the American *Ephemeris*, and the German *Nautical Almanac* being all alike calculated for the Greenwich meridian, with the result, however, that now a mass of information for navigators—practically identical information—is repeated in three separate works. This hardly saves labour, and it seems not unreasonable to suppose, as regards the needs of navigators, that one book might in some way be made to serve for all.

It may be remarked that the counting of longitude in both directions up to 180° instead of continuously from 0° to 360° has, as regards navigation, advantages. Because, when counted in both directions, a navigator or traveller, in journeying round the world and changing his reckoning of longitude from east to west, or from west to east, as the case may be, at the same time that he makes the change of one day in his date (of course somewhere near the 180th degree of longitude) will always correctly produce the Greenwich date, necessary when the *Nautical Almanac* has to be referred to, by simple combination of his local time and longitude, whereas if longitude be reckoned from 0h. to 24h., and the navigator makes, as before, the change of one day in his date in the usual way at or near the 180th degree of longitude, which he must do if his date is to be in harmony with that of the countries which he will next approach (America if voyaging east, Australia if voyaging west) it will be necessary, when between longitude 0h. and 12h. west, after subtracting the longitude (always east) from the local time, to further add one day, in order to produce the correct Greenwich date. It will be understood that a chronometer, though showing Greenwich time, does not indicate the *day*, only hours and minutes, &c., so that a voyager has to depend for the correct Greenwich date on his own numeration of days and a proper consideration of his longitude.

Then as regards the question of universal time, first in relation to our own country. Greenwich mean solar time, or Greenwich time reckoning from midnight and counting from 0h. to 24h., being adopted as the international universal time, is such as is shown on all railway clocks throughout Great Britain, excepting that the railway clocks require twelve hours to be added to their indications during the afternoon hours, that is, 1h. railway time is 13h. universal time, and so on. Thus the time of any circumstance or phenomenon occurring in Great Britain will be properly given in universal time by dropping the suffix a.m. or p.m., and in the afternoon adding twelve hours. October 20, 9h. a.m., and October 20, 3h. p.m., become in universal time October 20, 9h., and October 20, 15h. But independently of this the counting of hours from 0h. to 24h. is desirable also in civil affairs generally as being in itself explicit, and rendering unnecessary the distinguishing a.m. and p.m. If clocks, when convenient, were constructed so as to indicate hours in this way, instead of counting from 0h. to 12h. twice over, it would tend to familiarise people with the 24-hour system without at all forcing its use; or the division into twelve might be retained in clocks and watches, and two sets of hour figures engraved. The use of the system will, however, extend on account of various practical advantages. The plan could be introduced with benefit into railway time-tables, especially those dealing with long routes, in which the distinction between morning and afternoon is far from explicit. Morning hours would be 0, 1, 2, &c., afternoon hours 12, 13, 14, &c.

In other countries in which, as in England, the standard time employed is that of some one city or observatory, such time similarly reckoned from midnight, and counted from 0h. to 24h., would be used for all internal affairs. But to give the epoch of any occurrence in universal time it would be necessary to subtract from the time noted the longitude east from Greenwich of the city or observatory whose time is used, or add thereto the longitude west.

Whilst it is absolutely necessary for the regulation of the internal affairs of a country that the time of one meridian should be employed throughout, as in Great Britain, it is also important that the time so used should not be violently out of joint as it were with the natural day. In our diminutive Great Britain no inconvenience arises, as has been mentioned; but in America, owing to the vast extent of the country in an easterly and westerly direction, it becomes necessary to make some arbitrary division. The railway companies of Canada and the United States, for regulation of the time on railways, have solved the difficulty in the following way:—Four different meridians being selected, those of 5, 6, 7, and 8 hours west of Greenwich, four separate districts are created, in each of which the time of one of these meridians is employed. By this means a great step in the unification of time has been made, because on this plan the minutes and seconds in each district are the same as the minutes and seconds of Greenwich time, and also therefore of universal time, the actual universal time in each district being at once found if required by simply adding 5, 6, 7, or 8 hours respectively to the local standard time.

But it may be asked, if the surface of the earth be divided into districts counting in each, for use in civil affairs, the time of some particular place or meridian contained therein, what is the particular need of universal time? The question has been already touched upon; but let us illustrate. A telegram received at a telegraph office in India in the afternoon for transmission to London would arrive in the morning, according to the local time reckoned at these places. Is there nothing here that for some considerations it might not be desirable to arrange differently? Would it not be useful to have the power of indicating universal time in conjunction with local time, if necessary? And so also in other affairs. And in matters of science, especially the observational sciences, the introduction of universal time for use when required would be in many ways beneficial. When an astronomer has gathered together for discussion a long series of observations of, say, a new comet, made perhaps at many different observatories, one of the first things that he has to do is to reduce the times of observation to that of one meridian. Again, observations of solar and other physical phenomena cannot be properly collated unless the times are reduced to one standard. Or, in magnetism, on the occurrence of a great magnetic storm, how much would the comparison of the records obtained at different places be here also facilitated by the use of universal time?

There might be some disinclination as regards fixed observatories to give results in universal time, because of the fractional difference of longitude. But in civil affairs, admitting the practicability of adopting the system inaugurated in America, of forming districts and employing as local standards of time secondary meridians distant from Greenwich by integral numbers of hours, as before described, the indication of universal time in conjunction with local standard time becomes a matter of great simplicity. Objection may be made to the system because of the variation, amounting to half an hour, which would exist, between the natural day and the clock time employed, at the extreme borders of the districts so formed, but the Greenwich time long used in Cornwall differs (without reckoning the effect of the equation of time) twenty-three minutes from the natural time without inconvenience arising. Indeed, taken in conjunction with what has been done at the Washington Conference, the scheme is, outside of the Conference, the first really scientific step that has been taken in the practical unification of time throughout the world. Whether the number of meridians might be doubled is perhaps a question, but, as it stands, the scheme is extremely simple. For since the minutes and seconds counted in the several districts are the same as the minutes and seconds of Greenwich or universal time, the mere addition of another hour hand to the clocks in common use, placed in the proper position and travelling with the ordinary hour hand, would enable either local standard time or universal time to be read off at pleasure from the one clock. The ordinary hour and minute hands might be black and the additional hour hand of a lighter colour, in which way sufficient distinction would be produced. Such clocks should show hours from oh. to 24h. Or the conversion might be made in other ways. Referring to the American division before described, all entries might be distinguished as "local standard time," and a precept added to indicate that, to obtain universal time, 5, 6, 7, or 8 hours must be added, as the case may be. Or denoting the times as "standard times on the 5th meridian west," &c., the variation from universal time is at once shown. The reader will probably now have grasped the special merit of this system, the readiness with which either local time or universal time can be together indicated.

It may be interesting to show how the American plan of division into districts defined by hourly meridians would work if applied generally to the countries of the world. A scheme in regard to some of these countries is herewith annexed.

Countries	Longitude from Greenwich of meridian to be employed for local standard time	Local time at which universal date changes
Great Britain, France, and Spain	oh.	Midnight
Norway, Sweden, Germany, Austria, and Italy	1h. east	1h. morning
Western Russia, Turkey, and Egypt	2h. ,,	2h. ,,
Western India	5h. ,,	5h. ,,
Eastern India	6h. ,,	6h. ,,
Western Australia	8h. ,,	8h. ,,
South Australia	9h. ,,	9h. ,,
Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland	10h. ,,	10h. ,,
New Zealand	12h. ,,	Noon
California	8h. west	4h. evening
Eastern America (Washington)	5h. ,,	7h. ,,

In east longitude decrease, and in west longitude increase, the local standard time by the hours of longitude to obtain universal time.

The scheme in fact resolves itself into adopting in any country the time of the nearest integral hourly meridian. Russia would become divided in some such way as America. In each case the minutes and seconds of local standard time would be similar to those of Greenwich or universal time, change of the hour, according to the precept given at the foot of the table, converting the local standard time at once into universal time. We are quite aware that a scheme of this kind can scarcely be expected yet to take practical shape, but it seems well to point out generally the direction in which with the least inconvenience a satisfactory solution of the problem of counting universal time in conjunction with local time may be possible.

The right hand column of the preceding table indicates, in regard to the universal day proposed by the Conference, the hour of the local civil day at which, in the several districts, the universal date would change, the civil date of course changing at midnight. It will be remarked that in all countries in east longitude as far as Australia, the change of universal date (following that of the same civil date) takes place generally in the morning hours, before the business hours of the civil day, the universal and civil dates being then in accord until civil midnight. In America the universal and civil dates are in accord from civil midnight until towards the next evening when the universal date changes (before change of the same civil date). In all these cases the change of universal date occurs at an hour well away from business hours. Only in New Zealand would there be inconvenience, the change of universal date occurring at civil noon, twelve hours after change of the same civil date. Knowing approximately the local time at which the universal date changes, a clock fitted with an additional hour hand in the way described would indicate at once the precise time of change.

The resolution of the Washington Conference further expresses a hope that as soon as practicable astronomical and nautical days may be arranged everywhere to begin at mean midnight, which would simplify any desired conversion into the proposed universal time. Passing by the nautical aspect of the question we may remark, that astronomers as a rule count their mean solar day of twenty-four hours from noon, commencing twelve hours later than the civil day of the same date, and the day is thus understood in all published observations and astronomical works. There is another consideration, somewhat fanciful perhaps, that astronomical observations being taken mostly at night it seems objectionable to make a change of date at midnight in the middle of a series of observations; but this carries now with it much less weight since attention to solar phenomena has so increased observation by day. It was perhaps felt at the Conference that the local civil and astronomical days should correspond as a matter of convenience in itself, and as simplifying the relation of both with the proposed universal day, thus promoting the use of the latter as might become convenient, either in civil or scientific affairs. To effect such correspondence, one of the days had to be altered, but since any proposition to change the local civil date at noon could not be seriously entertained, it was better that the astronomer should assimilate his day with the civil day. Indeed it was formerly the practice in France to employ the astronomical day, commencing at midnight, in the construction of planetary and lunar tables.

The proposed change in the time of commencement of the local astronomical day will involve some present awkwardness from the circumstance that the different astronomical ephemerides are calculated for astronomical time as hitherto reckoned, in addition to which our own *Nautical Almanac* is prepared several years in advance. Temporary inconvenience more or less there must be, but the new reckoning, when fully established, will be found to possess some distinct advantages. As concerns the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, the Astronomer-Royal proposes to adopt the recommendation of the Washington Conference by commencing on January 1 of next year to count the astronomical day from the midnight preceding the nominal civil date, thus bringing the Greenwich astronomical day into correspondence with the Greenwich civil day, which is the universal day of the Conference; he proposes further to alter the indication of the public clock at the entrance gate of the Observatory, so that oh. of the clock shall also commence with midnight: all being counted from oh. to 24h. The time reckoned within the Observatory and that shown on its external wall will then be in accord. So far the astronomer. If, in addition, the civilian would relinquish the use of the confusing a.m. and p.m., and instead count the hours also from oh. to 24h., beginning with midnight, all parties would then be using the same system for reckoning both days and hours of the day.

WILLIAM ELLIS

THE ILLUMINATED FOUNTAINS AT THE HEALTHERIES

NOW that the most successful of International Exhibitions has been closed, we are able to give the final result of the accumulated experience that has been obtained in connection with the working of the illuminated fountains, which excited unqualified admiration. Even on the last night we believe new experiments were tried, and next season these fountains are likely to be finer than ever.

"I wonder how it is done?" This was one of the remarks most frequently heard in the dense crowd which nightly surrounded the large fountain at the Health Exhibition, watching the many party-coloured jets of water as they rose and fell with an ever-varying combination of brilliant hues. It is believed that an account of the means employed to produce these gorgeous and novel effects, and of the way in which the water and lights were managed, cannot fail to interest our readers.

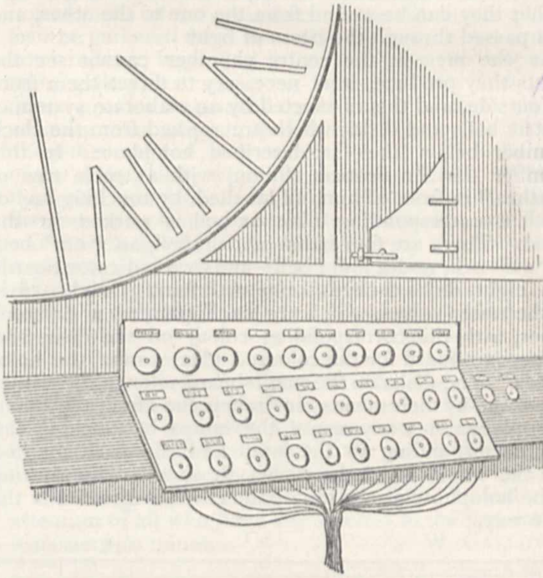
The water-supply is obtained from the West Middlesex Water Company by means of a nine-inch main, which is connected to one of their mains in Kensington Gore. As the water is paid for according to quantity used, it has to be measured, and in order to effect this with as little loss of pressure as possible, the water is passed through three eight-inch Tyler meters, which are to be seen at the north-west corner of the grounds in the vicinity of the fountains. These meters are connected at each end by a four-way junction piece to the nine-inch main, and they were afterwards supplemented by a twelve-inch one on a separate branch. From the four meters the main passes under the water into the central chamber in the basin, and it there branches into three pipes, two of nine inches diameter, and one of six inches. The two nine-inch pipes go round the two sides of the chamber, which is twenty feet square, and are connected together at the opposite side, thus forming a loop round the chamber. Off this main are taken the supplies to the four rings of jets in the basin, and also for the jets on the top of the chamber, each ring having two supplies at opposite sides in order to equalise the pressure. The third branch, which is in direct continuation of the main from the meters, is gradually reduced to three inches, and supplies the centre jet only.

All the supplies are furnished with screw valves worked by hand wheels. The jets on the top of the chamber consist of the centre jet and four other jets placed at the four corners; each of these jets is surrounded by a ring of twelve small jets, and there are also four dome and convolvulus jets placed between the corner jets. The supply to the four corner-jets is controlled by a plug-valve, so that they can be rapidly turned on and off. It is by this means that the jumping of the centre-jet is produced, the momentum of the water flowing through these jets being sufficient, on the sudden closing of the valve, to jerk the centre jet thirty feet higher than the point which it reaches from the pressure of the mains alone.

In order to light up the various jets on the top of the chamber, five circular sheets of glass two feet in diameter are let into the flat roof of the chamber, one under each jet. The pipes leading to these jets go through the roof close to the edge of the glass, and are then bent over it and upwards again, so as to bring the jet itself exactly over the centre, and it is under these panes that the lighting apparatus is placed. This consists of a simple bracket lamp with rack and pinion worked by hand for feeding the carbons, and a third-order holophote lens twenty-two inches in diameter. The carbons are placed at an angle of about 20° with the horizon, and the bottom carbon is the positive one, in order to have the crater turned upwards. The axis of the top carbon is also slightly above that of the lower one, although parallel to it. The carbons are eighteen millimetres in diameter, and the current is about sixty amperes. The five lamps are connected in parallel. Each lamp is inclosed in a case to protect the men from the light. Above each holophote is placed a frame with five grooves, in which run five frames containing the different coloured glasses by which the various colours are produced.

When first erected the jets were provided with glass bottoms, and a small lens was placed above the holophote so as to concentrate the centre portion of the ray on the interior of the rising column of water. It was however found that this arrangement considerably reduced the height of the jet, on account of the eddies produced in the chamber at the bottom of the jet, and also diminished the amount of light thrown on the spray, and it was therefore abandoned.

The principle of interior lighting of a stream of water was applied to three jets from the top of the Corinthian columns erected on each side of the statue of the late Prince Consort, and for this purpose two two-inch pipes were taken up each column, and connected with a cistern from which issue three jets, each illuminated from behind



by an electric lamp with twelve-millimetre carbons and twenty-ampere current. These lamps are in parallel arc on the same circuit as the large lamps in the centre chamber, suitable resistances being inserted. It was found that the two supplies provided did not allow of a column of water of sufficient diameter being thrown from each jet to prevent its being broken up by the wind, and as it was impossible to increase the supply while the Exhibition was open, these effects were rarely used. The current for these eleven lamps, amounting to 420 amperes, is generated by a compound shunt-wound Simens B_2 machine placed in the electric light shed. The armature of this machine is built up of copper strips with spaces between, and is thus especially adapted for the work it has to do, which at times is very severe, as, the lamps being hand-fed, the arc is not struck as rapidly as in an automatic lamp, and the machine is therefore short-circuited for an appreciable space of time on starting or relighting any lamp. The electromotive force at the machine is eighty-four volts. From the machine the current is conveyed to the small hut near the meters by two well-insulated cables of nineteen strands of No. 12 copper wire, and from the hut it is distributed to the island lamps by an insulated cable of nineteen No. 10 wires inclosed in a lead pipe, and to the columns by two cables of seven strands of No. 12. A separate return cable runs from each lamp to the hut, where it is connected to the necessary resistances, made of strip iron, and from there back to the dynamo through two cables of nineteen No. 12's. There is altogether very nearly a ton of copper in the various leads and branches. Besides these leads the centre chamber is connected to the circuit of the Sun light machine, so that, should any accident occur to the main circuit or machine, Sun lights could be substituted for the hand lamps.

As the falling spray cuts off the light from below when the jets are at their highest, a light is placed in the top of the clock tower to illuminate the top of the jets. This light is a focus-keeping Siemens automatic lamp, and takes a current of fifty amperes, supplied by a small Crompton-Burgin machine. The lamp is inclosed in a cast-iron casing swung on trunnions, and in front of it is a fifth-order holophotal lens by Messrs. Siemens.

The various coloured glasses are fixed in frames or sashes arranged with counterweights, in the same way as an ordinary window. Some of the best effects of colour are also obtained by sheets of gelatine, of which a large number are fastened end to end, and fixed to two rollers, so that they can be wound from the one to the other, and thus passed through the beam of light.

As the men in the centre chamber cannot see the effects they produce, it is necessary to direct them from the outside, and this is effected by an elaborate system of electric bells and disks, which are worked from the clock chamber below the last-described holophote. In this chamber sits Sir Francis Bolton, with a treble row of "pushes" in front of him, all labelled, by touching any of which a corresponding disk or bell is worked in the island. There are four bells—a call bell, an "on" bell, an "off" bell, and a lamp bell—and two indicator boards with eight disks each, and one with four. One board is for the water valves, which are each painted a different colour, with the corresponding colour on the disk, and the second board for the coloured glasses over the holophotes. The disks on the small board refer to the corner lamps, and by their means Sir Francis can direct any colour to be placed over any one of the lamps by touching the push corresponding to the lamp and the push marked with the colour which he wishes to show. The working of the holophote at the top of the clock is directed in the same way.

EXPERIMENTS WITH COAL-DUST AT NEUNKIRCHEN IN GERMANY

DURING the course of the last summer the Royal Prussian Fire-damp Commission has carried out a series of experiments in the Saarbrücken mining district with the view of ascertaining the influence which coal-dust has, alone and in conjunction with fire-damp, in propagating explosions in mines. The apparatus and the mode of experiment were suggested by retired Bergwerks-director and Bergassessor Hilt, of Aix-la-Chapelle, who is a member of the Commission, and the results hitherto obtained have been of the most interesting kind.

The experiments are conducted at the Royal Coal-Mine, König, near Neunkirchen, where there is a blower of fire-damp at a depth of 131 yards below the surface. The quantity of fire-damp given off by this blower amounts to about 0·9 cubic foot per minute, consisting of 86 per cent. of light carburetted hydrogen mixed with air, &c. It has been in existence for the last two years. The fire-damp is brought a distance of 1200 yards in pipes, and collected in a small gasometer whose capacity is 176 cubic feet.

Dr. Ad. Gurlt of Bonn lately called my attention to the fact that over two hundred experiments made with this apparatus on a large scale had proved the correctness of my theory of great colliery explosions (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, vol. xxiv. p. 354, &c.), and at the same time suggested that a visit to Neunkirchen would be of interest.

Accordingly I proceeded to the scene of the experiments on October 25, accompanied by Mr. Wm. Thomas Lewis, one of the members of the Royal Commission on Accidents in Mines, and we were met there by Dr. Gurlt, who had travelled from Bonn for the purpose, and by Herren Prietze, Nasse, Margraf, and Kreuser, directors and assistant-directors of König Grube and other Royal mines of the neighbourhood. Herr Margraf, under whose superintendence all the experiments are and have been made, has most kindly furnished me with a detailed description of the apparatus and of the experiments witnessed by Mr. Lewis and myself, and I am glad to avail myself of, and shall endeavour to reproduce, his account as nearly as may be, allowance being made for the difficulties of exact translation.

The experiments are made in a horizontal wooden gallery 167 feet long, closed at one end, and having a horizontal branch gallery 33 feet long standing out at right angles to it at a distance of 93 feet from its closed end. Both the main gallery and the branch consist of elliptical rings of double T-iron lined internally with planks 1·6 inch thick, which abut closely together and are grooved and feather-jointed lengthwise. The greater axis of the ellipse stands vertically, and is about 5 feet 7 inches long; the lesser axis is 3 feet 11 inches long. The main and branch galleries are both embedded in the pit-heap to such a depth that the rubbish is level with their top on one side and reaches to three-quarters of their height on the other side. Along the exposed part of the latter side there is a row of windows, thirty-two, in the main gallery, and three in the branch gallery, situated somewhat more than a yard apart. They are formed of sheets of glass about ⅝ inch thick set in cast-iron frames. There are also a number of openings in the top of the main gallery, one of which, near the closed end, is an ordinary man-hole, which can be closed by a man-hole door like that of a boiler, and serves as a means of ingress and egress. The others are circular, about 9 inches in diameter, and are lightly closed with wooden plugs attached to chains, which act as safety valves. All these openings assist in the removal of after-damp after an explosion.

The closed end of the main gallery is sunk about 3 feet 9 inches into a block of masonry whose dimensions are 12 feet 4 inches long, 9 feet 9 inches wide, and 13 feet high. Seven cast-iron cannon, with a bore similar to that of a shot-hole in hard ground, are built into the block in the position shown in the figure opposite, so that their mouths are flush with the face.

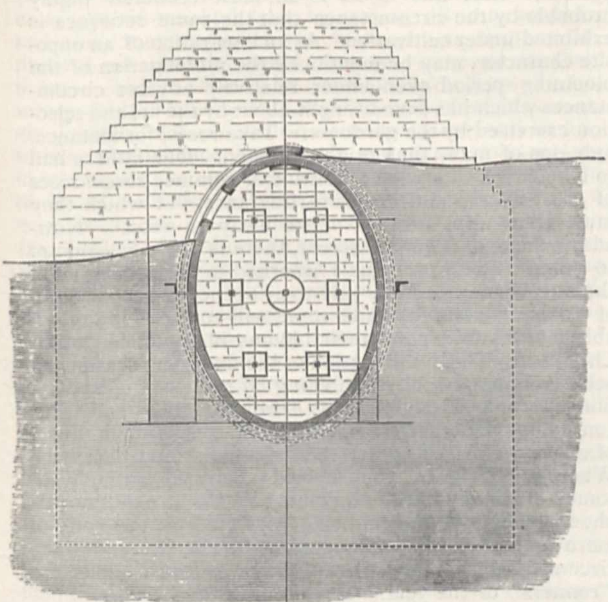
There are two holes near the top, two near the bottom, and three in the middle, grouped symmetrically in relation to the two axes of the ellipse. The middle hole is 37 inches deep by 1·57 inch in diameter; the others are 31½ inches deep by 1·37 inch in diameter. The axes of the two upper and of the two lower holes are placed in such a position that they form the angles of a four-sided regular prism whose apex is situated in the axis of the main gallery at a distance of 16·4 feet from the face. The axes of the three middle holes constitute a bundle of rays which meet at the same point as the last. Wooden hoops projecting inwards from the sides are placed at various distances apart in the main gallery within the first 65½ feet from the face. By fastening cloth diaphragms to these hoops, compartments of various capacity can be formed, that of the first next the face being 705 cubic feet.

The shots are fired electrically with Abegg's fuses by means of an exploder made by Mahler and Eschenbacher of Vienna. The charge, which consists of 230 grammes, or about half a pound, of powder, occupies a length of 8·64 inches in the central hole, leaving room for rather over 28 inches of stemming, and 11 inches in the other holes, leaving about 20 inches for stemming.

The coal-dust is strewn upon the floor of the gallery from the face towards the open end in a layer of about 1·17 inch thick immediately before firing the shots. The weight of dust in each ten yards of length is about thirty pounds. It has been found in practice that, notwithstanding the upward direction of their axes, the shots next the floor produce the greatest disturbance of the coal-dust and give rise to longer coal-dust flames than any of the others.

In all the experiments witnessed by Mr. Lewis and myself, *one shot-hole only*, namely, one of the two next the floor, was charged and fired. The charge consisted of 230 grammes of blasting-powder each time, and the tamping was damp clay. Both ends of the branch gallery were closed with a double board brattice 1·96 inch thick.

In the first experiment neither coal-dust nor fire-damp was employed, and the flame of the shot was seen through the windows to be a little over 13 feet long.



In the second experiment a length of 65 feet of the floor of the main gallery was strewn with coal-dust from Camphausen Colliery in the Saarbrücken mining district. The shot gave rise to a loud detonation, and the resulting flame filled the gallery to a distance of 88½ feet. When the thick black after-damp had been drawn off by means of two of Korting's exhausters, placed over two of the safety-holes and worked with compressed air, it was found that the inner brattice of the branch gallery had been broken, and small globules of coke were observed lying on the surface of the remaining coal-dust.

In the third experiment a length of 130 feet of the floor of the main gallery was strewn with coal-dust from Pluto Mine in Westphalia. When the shot was fired, the flame traversed the whole length of the gallery with great velocity, and came out at the open end to a distance of 16 feet, being thus altogether 183 feet long. Notwithstanding the entire absence of fire-damp, this was a true explosion of the most violent kind, and the clouds of after-damp which streamed from every opening darkened the air in the neighbourhood of the gallery for two or three minutes. The brattice at the inner end of the branch gallery had not been replaced before this experiment, and the one at its outer end was broken into small fragments, some of which were thrown to a distance of 115 feet. The flame was also seen to emerge from the branch gallery to a distance of several yards. The coal-dust remaining on the floor after the explosion was covered with a sooty film, in which coke globules were found embedded.

The brattice at both ends of the branch gallery was now replaced, and the floor of the main gallery swept clean as usual. In the fourth and last experiment coal-dust from Pluto Mine was strewn on the floor for a distance of 65 feet from the face. A diaphragm of prepared canvas was fastened in the gallery at the point where the space inclosed between itself and the face amounts to 705 cubic feet.

A volume of 35¼ cubic feet of fire-damp was introduced into this space, and complete diffusion was effected by beating the air with cloths. The mixture of fire-damp and air thus obtained is not inflammable or explosive by itself, and shows a cap of only $1\frac{5}{16}$ inch high on the reduced flame of a safety-lamp. The firing of the shot produced a flame 190 feet long, accompanied by a report like a thunder-clap. The inner brattice of the branch gallery was broken, and drawn several yards into the main gallery, but the outer one remained intact.

Some idea of the great force of the two last explosions may be gathered from the following facts:—An ordinary mine railway, beginning on a level with the floor of the main gallery, extends away from its open end in the direction of its length, and ascending at an angle of 4°. An ordinary mine waggon, loaded with iron so as to weigh altogether 15½ cwt., was standing on the rails at the mouth of the main gallery when the shots were fired. When the third shot was fired, it was driven up along the rails to a distance of 23 feet, and when the fourth shot was fired, it was literally hurled along the railway by the force of the explosion to a distance of 52½ feet, being driven off the rails and running on the ground for the last six feet. The boards constituting the end of this waggon next the gallery were broken, but not torn off. A small beam 4 inches square, bolted across the rails at the mouth of the gallery, so as to form a stop for the waggon, was torn from the bolts which held it, and sent flying after the train. Lastly, a shower of stones and debris was raised by the blast which swept out of the mouth of the gallery, and some of the pieces carried upwards of 100 feet.

The foregoing facts appear to me to be well worthy of the attention of all who have any interest in the prevention of explosions in mines. W. GALLOWAY

FLOWERS OUT OF SEASON

THE untimely flowering of trees and shrubs, like the occurrence of the extraordinary gooseberry, is a subject which crops up at such regular intervals as almost to belie the epithet applied to it. Nevertheless, the very frequency of the comment is an indication that the matter is ill understood.

The ordinary time-rate for the production of new cells, new leaves, new flowers, and so on, varies as we see within wide limits. Equally obviously those limitations are imposed by the conjoint effects of inheritance and of external conditions, such as climate or food, or both. An annual plant rushes through its life in hot haste as it were: save and except in the seeds of such plants there is comparatively little building up or maturing of new tissues to be done, and proportionately still less stores of potential food to be accumulated. If, on the one hand, the requirements of such plants are less than in the case of perennials, their exigencies are, on the other hand, more pressing. What they take from the soil, or atmosphere, what power they derive from solar light and heat, must be got quickly or not at all. One illustration of this is afforded by the paucity of annual species in the Arctic regions or at high altitudes. Neither heat nor light is absolutely deficient in such situations, but the length of time during which they are available is too short to allow annuals to profit by a sufficiently large aggregate to enable them to mature their seeds. Before they can accomplish their purpose, they are overtaken by frost and their activity is put a stop to. The energy of perennials, it is true, may be checked in the same manner, but they have been enabled, before the evil day arrived, to lay up stores of nutriment available for use when the increasing heat and light of the following year shall once more quicken their activity. The work to be done is spread over two or more seasons instead of one, and the chances of success are thus correspondingly enhanced. But if we suppose the conditions to be uniformly and continuously favourable, the abrupt cessation of growth will no longer be manifest, the annual will cease to be an annual, the perennial will not die down in winter, the growing points of the buds will not incase themselves in scales, vegetation will be continuous. Such halcyon conditions find their nearest realisation in moist equatorial climates like that of the Malay peninsula and adjacent islands. But even there the realisation is not perfect. Something happens to disturb the balance; and even if the conditions are generally uniform there is always the idiosyncrasy of individual plants to form a disturbing factor. Again, such conditions, though favourable to the continuance of vegetation, are less propitious to the establishment of fructification. The formation of stem, leaf, flower, even of fruit, is one thing, the maturation of the seed and of the embryo-plant within it is another; and the conditions propitious to either are correspondingly different. The ripe seed makes in proportion larger demands on the plastic matters formed as a result of metabolism, and has almost invariably the same composition according to its species, but this cannot be said with equal truth of any other part of the plant.

Again, the conditions for growth, that is, mere increase in bulk, are different, in degree at least, from those which favour progressive development or metamorphosis. Speaking in general terms, it may be said that vegetation approaches its end where fructification shows signs of commencement. There is indeed no fixed line of demarcation to be drawn, but while morphologically there are gradations and intermediate forms, physiologically there are also transitions, and periods of instability. It is easy to understand how this happens, and how it is the divergences are not greater. These matters indeed partake so much of the nature of truisms, that some apology might almost be needed for insisting on them, were it not that they are absolutely essential for the due comprehension of the phenomena of untimely blooming.

It is also desirable to draw attention to the fact that there is naturally a wide range in the period during which vital activity manifests itself even in individuals of the same species, and as these individuals vary in colour, stature, &c., even when derived from the same stock, so others may vary in their "time-rates." This is specially noticeable in the case of the horse-chestnut, and is perhaps more often manifest in the form of precocious development in spring than in that of tardy growth in autumn. In most cases the plant has to attain a certain age before it produces flowers, but occasionally we find individuals so precocious that they are scarce out of the seed before they burst into flower. A cocoa-nut has thus been seen in flower while the husk of the fruit was still attached to it. Gardeners, according to their requirements, have freely availed themselves of these individual differences by selecting for perpetuation late or early varieties. The whole subject of the "chronometry of life," it may here be mentioned, formed the text of a valuable lecture by Sir James Paget, at the Royal Institution, many years ago.

Cases of unseasonable blossoming may be ranged under three heads, according as growth and development are: (1) prolonged beyond the ordinary time; (2) premature or manifested aforetime; (3) renewed after a short interval of arrest. Categories (2) and (3) differ in detail rather than in essence, as will be explained further on.

Taking the cases of continuous or prolonged growth first, it is easy to see that many of them are due to a continuance of favourable conditions. A long spell of summer without excessive heat or drought will insure a longer period of blooming; flower will succeed to flower so long as the weather and the natural changes in the tissues of the plant, according to age, are held in abeyance. How small are the exigencies of some plants in these matters may be illustrated by the fact that there are few days in the year when a daisy or a white deadnettle may not be found in bloom, at least in the southern half of England. It is necessary, however, to introduce some qualification, because one has only to look into one's garden to see that in spite of apparently favourable conditions many plants are not to be induced to continue blooming. Although in duration perennial, in the matter of flowering they behave as annuals. Something in their organisation forbids the prolongation of the blooming period. That this is so is at least rendered highly probable by the circumstance that the same reticence is exhibited under cultivation. As an illustration of an opposite character, may be mentioned the prolongation of the blooming period even under relatively adverse circumstances which has been brought about by the art and selection exercised by the gardener. Take roses, for instance, only one of many that might be cited. Our fathers had to be content with what we now call summer roses, roses of great beauty and exquisite fragrance, but which they must have wept to see "haste away so soon." Nowadays, the case is very different, there is a whole legion of so-called "hybrid perpetuals" marked in the catalogues of the nurserymen as H.P. By their agency a second crop of roses is assured, while some will continue in favourable seasons to expand their blooms in succession up to Christmas. This prolongation of the flowering season has been brought about by combining by means of hybridisation the robust qualities of European roses with the continuous blooming tendencies of the Indian rose. Many varieties of pear, the common laburnum, the Wistaria, Weigela, the hybrid *Berberis stenophylla*, some rhododendrons, currants (*Ribes*), exhibit this phenomenon, the flowers being produced on the ends of more or less prolonged shoots, as strawberries under like circumstances produce their flowers on the ends of the "runners" of the year.

The premature development of flowers in autumn has a better title to be called unseasonable, because the phenomenon is really due to the unfolding of flowers which, under ordinary circumstances, would remain passive till the following spring. There is not, as in the former case, a new formation or a continuous growth, but merely what the French appropriately call *fleuraison anticipée*. And here for a moment it may be allowable to call attention to an essay of Linnæus entitled *Prolepsis Plantarum*, little read nowadays, although based on facts, and containing much that is still worthy of consideration. For him a flower was a shoot with lateral outgrowths, a morphological conception that would still satisfy a German transcendentalist. But, further, this shoot and its outgrowths were supposed to represent the outcome of six ordinary years' work contracted into one. A flower was, according to this theory, a shoot in which the differentiation of parts instead of being spread over six years was hurried on and completed within one season. For Linnæus leaves represented the work of one year, bracts that of the following one, sepals of the third, petals of the fourth, stamens of the fifth, and the pistil that of the sixth year. It is not necessary to discuss the morphological aspects of this theory, but it is relevant to our present purpose because it emphasises the relation of leaf-shoot to flower—a relation enunciated about the same time, and independently one of the other, by Wolf and by Linnæus, and thirty years before Goethe propounded a similar notion. Moreover, it brings into prominence not only the morphological relation of shoot and flower, but one manner in which the time of production of the shoot and of the flower respectively may be varied, a subject having an immediate bearing on the question of unseasonable flowering. If, says Linnæus (*Prolepsis*, § iii.), "a shrub which has been grown in a pot, and has borne flower and fruit every year, be transferred to richer soil in a hot-house, it will produce for many years numerous leafy shoots, but no fruit. From which it may be inferred that the leaves are produced from the same source whence the flowers previously sprang, and so in turn what now tends to form leaves would, by this agency of Nature, be converted into flower if the same tree were again placed in a pot so as to confine the roots; hence gardeners desirous of obtaining a more plentiful crop of strawberries, cut the fine roots of the plants in spring before they transplant them, in the hope that they will produce more abundant flowers and fruit." Here we see the same principle laid down as that upon which gardeners act when they wish to secure flower and fruit by cutting off the supplies, and thus making the plant, to a greater degree, dependent on the elaborated reserve stored up in their tissues. This is effected by growing plants in small pots, root-pruning, transplanting, ringing, and other processes, all of which tend to diminish root-absorption, and by disturbing the balance between it and other processes, to check vegetation, and in so far to promote the formation of flower. Charles Martins relates the production on a very large scale of inflorescence on the Agave, in Algeria, as the direct consequence of the excision of the leaf-buds by a troop of French cavalry, who hacked the plants with their sabres as they passed, and thus, by preventing or checking growth in one direction, stimulated it in another. In like manner I have seen flowers produced on the "suckers" of *Ailanthus glandulosa* when the plant was quite young, on the roots of *Pyrus japonica*, and on a sucker of Agave, as the result of injury, probably in all, certainly in some, of the instances.

The frequent production of flowers out of season on newly transplanted trees is accounted for in like manner. But many trees are flowering this autumn which have not been slashed with sabres nor moved by more peaceful weapons. One such tree, a horse-chestnut, I lately (September) saw, in which one limb, and one only, was full of young leaves and flowers, while the remaining limbs were fast losing their foliage. The reason for this partial production of bloom I was not able to divine; possibly it may have had some relation to injury to a certain portion of the root-system in more or less direct connection with the particular branch, but I have no evidence to offer in support of such a guess.

In speaking previously of one modification of unseasonable flowering dependent on activity protracted beyond the customary period, it was mentioned that the flower was in such instances developed at the ends of long slender shoots formed during the course of the summer. In such cases the shoot ends in a flower-bud instead of a leaf-bud as is usually the case. The conditions are no longer favourable for the extension of the shoot, and the energy of growth is diverted to the production of flower. But in the laburnum, in many fruit-trees, such as the apple and pear, the fruits are normally borne on short thick branches called by the gardeners "spurs." These are very interesting physiologically, as possessing intermediate transitional characteristics, such as those before alluded to, between vegetation and seed-production. In form, these spurs are short and thick, with very narrow interspaces between the leaves, and they bear a cluster of buds which ultimately all develop into flowers, or in which the central and terminal one is a leaf-bud. Internally these spurs are soft and spongy, with a great preponderance of cellular over fibro-vascular or woody tissue. The cells are moreover filled with starch. We have evidently here got to do with store-places, analogous to that furnished by the tuber of the potato and other formations, in which food, or matter capable of conversion into food, is stored up for future use at the growing points; in this case for the formation of fruit. Flowers are occasionally produced on these spurs out of due season: the flower-bud destined for a following season bursts into activity this year, affording an instance of a true *fleuraison anticipée*; but more often, according to my observations, when an untimely flower is produced (especially in the apple), it is from the development of a flower in the central bud of the spur, which is usually a leaf-bud as above stated. In such a case, then, we have not only an alteration in the character of the bud, but a change in the period of its expansion. A converse illustration to that just given is afforded by a case recorded by Mr. Berkeley, in which a bud of a walnut, which in the ordinary course of things should have produced a female inflorescence in the following spring, was developed in the autumn as a leafy shoot.

Renewal of growth after temporary arrest, "recrudescence" as it is sometimes called, occurs normally in the pine-apple, Eucomis, Metrosideros, and other plants. Abnormally, I have met with it in *Cytisus nigricans*, the common wallflower, Œnothera, and many others. It hardly differs from the first category mentioned in this note except in the fact that the new growth is the direct continuation of the old and not an entirely new lateral formation. It differs from the terminal bud of a "spur," in that the latter is normal as to position even if developed out of season, whereas in the class of cases now under consideration the activity of the growing point, which usually ceases with the development of the last flower, is exceptionally continued.

One other circumstance deserves mention, and that is the rarity with which true fruit, or at least ripe seed, is produced as a result of these untimely flowers. Sometimes, of course, ripe seed is produced; a plum is before me as I write the seed of which is as perfect, to all appearance, as that of the first crop could have been. But in the majority of the pears and apples which come under one's notice at this unseasonable period, the fruit is there (in the popular sense), but the core, which is in a botanical sense the true fruit, is absent, or, if present, the seeds it contains are usually abortive. Botanical readers will readily see the morphological reason why, and physiologists will recognise that in such cases the deviation from the ordinary course is not so great as it appears upon the surface, and the action of the "environment" is not so potent as it appears to be at first sight.

To sum up: these cases of unseasonable flowering appear to be due either to continuous growth and development, to renewal of growth after a longer or shorter period of arrest, or to the development of a flower-bud in the place of a leaf-bud. What produces these changes? To this no more precise answer can be given than has already been afforded. The absolute nature of the change, structurally and morphologically, depends upon the nature of the inducing causes, and varies accordingly; the degree of change may depend simply on the increased or prolonged intensity of action of the same causes which promote natural growth.

MAXWELL T. MASTERS

NOTES

THE Washington Prime Meridian Conference closed on November 1. Protocols were approved, which will be made the basis of an international convention, fixing Greenwich as the prime meridian.

MANCHESTER is determined to have the British Association in 1886, and its invitation will almost certainly be accepted.

THERE is no truth in the statement which is being repeated so often that Baron Nordenskjöld intends to lead an expedition into the Antarctic regions.

IN a letter from the Sagastyr Meteorological Station on the Lena, dated March 20, and appearing in the last issue of the *Izvestia*, M. Yurgens informs the Russian Geographical Society that twenty-six years ago a mammoth was discovered in the delta of the Lena, twenty-three miles from the station. Its head and tusks had already been taken away by a Russian merchant at the time of the discovery of the body, and the Yakuts of the neighbouring settlement have taken a leg, several ribs for making spoons, as also parts of its skin for straps, and fat for painting their sledges The body is lying on the right side in the lower part of a crag of alluvial deposits thirty feet high. The interior is said to be quite safe. Dr. Bunge went to the place pointed out by the Yakuts, and undertook regular excavations for a distance of 350 feet, the expedition not being sure that the Yakuts have shown the right place: they consider it a sin to take from the earth what it does not give itself. The work is very hard, the excavations being made in a frozen mass of snow, "as hard as sugar," M. Yurgens says. While the work was at a lull, news was received of another mammoth's body discovered only six years ago on the Moloda River, left bank tributary of the Lena, joining it thirty-five miles above Siktyakh, which has remained still untouched. If the news is confirmed, M. Yurgens will make an excursion to discover it.

IN a subsequent letter, dated April 16, M. Yurgens writes that M. Eigner has made magnetic measurements to the east of the station as far as Ust-Yansk. Full measurements were made at ten places, notwithstanding frosts of $-30°$ to $-40°$ C. Mr. Yurgens will make the same measurements to the west of the station. Preparations are already made for the return journey. Several magnetic instruments had to be packed at the end of April and sent on sledges to Bulun. M. Eigner proposed to leave the station at the same time, while MM. Bunge and Yurgens intended to stay at Sagastyr until June 15.

THE following papers were entered to be read, *Science* states, at the Newport meeting of the National Academy of Sciences, Oct. 14 to 16:—On the columella auris of the Pelycosauria, E. D. Cope; the brain of Asellus and the eyeless form of Cecidotæa, A. S. Packard; on the theory of atomic volumes, Wolcott Gibbs; on the complex inorganic acids, Wolcott Gibbs; notice of Muybridge's experiments on the motions of animals by instantaneous photography, Fairman Rogers; notice of Grant's difference-engine, Fairman Rogers; on the thinolite of Lake Lahontan, E. S. Dana; on the Mesozoic coals of the North-West, R. Pumpelly; on the work of the Northern Trans-Continental Survey, R. Pumpelly; the grasses mechanically injurious to live-stock, William H. Brewe; on gravitation survey, C. S. Peirce; on minimum differences of sensibility, C. S. Peirce and J. Jastrow; researches on Ptolemy's star-catalogue, C. H. F. Peters; on the operations of the U.S. Geological Survey, J. W. Powell; the motion of Hyperion, Asaph Hall; remarks on the civilisation of the native peoples of America, E. B. Tylor; some results of the exploration of the deep sea beneath the Gulf Stream by the U.S. Fish Commission steamer *Albatross* during the past summer, A. E. Verrill; recent progress in explosives, H. L. Abbot; on an experimental composite photograph of the members of the Academy, R. Pumpelly; report on meridian work at Carlsruhe, W. Valentiner; on the algebra of logic, C. S. Peirce.

THE meeting of the Cambridge Philosophical Society next Monday at 3 p.m. will be marked by the number and importance of the biological papers communicated. One will be by a lady, Miss F. Eves, Lecturer at Newnham College, on some experiments on the liver ferment. Mr. W. F. R. Weldon will contribute a paper on the supra-renal bodies, on which he has previously made valuable contributions. The remarkable recent development of the study of vegetable morphology and physiology under Dr. Vines will be further evidenced by Mr. Walter Gardiner's paper on the supposed presence of protoplasm in the intercellular spaces, and Mr. J. R. Green's, on a proteid occurring in plants. Prof. Michael Foster is the new President of the Society; Mr. Trotter, Mr. Glazebrook, and Dr. Vines are the Secretaries; and Prof. Cayley, Prof. Macalister, and Mr. Glaisher are the new Members of Council.

THE Statistical Society has issued in one handsome quarto a Catalogue of their most useful collection of books. The Catalogue has been compiled with great care, and on a simple and intelligible plan. The library is deemed to be a class library, and no classification therefore is attempted, the books being arranged in alphabetical order, with reference to size, under their authors' names or otherwise, as described in the preface. Secondly, their are no "*blind entries*," *i.e.* each entry, including cross-references, gives sufficient particulars, including size, to enable any person to recognise the book he is looking for, if there, and at the same time indicate to the attendant, without further reference to the Catalogue, where the book is to be found. Such features are a great comfort to the student.

MICHIGAN, like most other States, is going in for economic entomology. We have received a pamphlet of 31 pages on Injurious Insects, emanating from the Entomological Laboratory of the Michigan Agricultural College, in which Prof. A. J. Cook and Mr. Clarence M. Weed are the principal writers. Several of the usual American pests are noticed, and some are figured. We are sorry to say the figures are original, for although the practice of borrowing *clichés* has extended in the States to a degree that is almost nauseating, the results are usually satisfactory, and had the practice been followed in this instance it would have been to the advantage of this Michigan College. Probably for the first time in America the ubiquitous "Painted Lady" (*Vanessa cardui*) is stigmatised as "injurious"; it is accused of devouring hollyhock, centaurea, and borage. The same insect in Europe, a few years ago, was driven to extremes in order to find anything that would agree with it, and nearly caused a panic with the worshippers of "absinthe," by destroying the wormwood crop in the Canton of Neufchâtel (Switzerland). There are some very useful and suggestive statistics (by Mr. Weed) on the food relations of birds, frogs, and toads (the paper being a "Thesis for the degree of Master of Science"). The first part deals with the food of *young* birds, in which the American robin (a thrush, and not to be confounded with *our* redbreast) figures largely, as do also the "blue bird" and others. Lepidopterous larvæ are the main food, but apologies have to be made (especially in the case of the blue-bird) for the number of spiders destroyed. In the case of young "robins" the molluscous element is small; probably it would be equally small in this country with regard to *young* thrushes or blackbirds, their beaks not being sufficiently strong to enable them to do the shell-breaking. The statistics with regard to frogs and toads do not appear to be of importance one way or the other. Frogs and toads destroy insects (or "Arthropods" in the broad sense), but we fancy the particular food depends upon the conditions under which the individual Batrachian finds itself.

WE have much pleasure in calling attention to the issue, from the Breslau house of Eduard Trewendt, of four new numbers of that comprehensive work, the "Encyclopædia of Natural Sciences"—the 38th number of the first, and the 23rd to the 25th numbers of the second division. The 38th number of the first division brings the "Dictionary of Zoology, Anthropology, and Ethnology" as far as Gewöhnung (Habituation), and we need only refer in particular to the history of arthropology, of our knowledge of the Mollusca, Reptilia, and Amphibia, the writers of which occupy the front rank in their respective departments. The map of the "Zoological Regions," appended to Reichenow's interesting article on the "Geographical Distribution of Animals," will be much appreciated. The new numbers of the second division contain a continuation of Ladenburg's "Alphabetical Manual of Chemistry," with which might close two goodly volumes of this work. As physical chemistry has found an excellent representative in Prof. Eilhard Wiedemann, so is also industrial chemistry set forth by men of the first ability, whose contributions here will be prized by a wide circle: "Chlorine," by Prof. Heumann (with numerous woodcuts), "Chinoline," by Dr. L. Berend-Kiel, and "Cyanic Compounds," by Prof. Jacobsen. Nor must we omit mentioning the "History of Chemistry" (in No. 23), written for the "Alphabetical Manual of Chemistry" by Prof. G. Hoffmann of Kiel. The "Alphabetical Manual of Mineralogy, Geology, and Palæontology," continued with No. 24 of the second division, has now advanced to the end of the article "Krystallgestalten und Krystallographie" (Crystal Formations and Crystallography), which, along with the preceding article on "Crystals," by Prof. Kenngott, furnishes a very handsome contribution to the work in question, both articles being, moreover, very copiously illustrated. Finally, we have to announce that there will next appear a new botanical number which, among other things, will contain the beginning of a treatise on "Schleimpilze," by Dr. W. Zopf.

SOME 154 prehistoric tombs near Santa Lucia by Tolmein, (Gorizia), have been lately examined by Dr. Marchesetti, the director of the Trieste Museum. Their contents were conveyed to Trieste; the excavations will be continued at the instance of the Adriatic Natural History Society, for a period of about two years. During last year Dr. Marchesetti examined another burial-ground, viz. that of Vermo, near Mitterburg (Istria), which belongs to quite another period.

MR. T. MELLARD READE, C.E., F.G.S., in his presidential address to the Liverpool Geological Society this session, "On the Denudation of the Two Americas," showed that 150,000,000 tons of matter in solution are annually poured into the Gulf of Mexico by the River Mississippi; this, it was estimated, would reduce the time for the denudation of one foot of land over the whole basin—which time has hitherto been calculated solely from the matter in suspension—from 1 foot in 6000 years to 1 foot in 4500 years. Similar calculations were applied to the La Plata, the Amazons, and the St. Lawrence, Mr. Reade arriving at the result that an average of 100 tons per square mile per annum are removed from the whole American continent. This agrees with results he previously arrived at for Europe, fr m which it was inferred that the whole of the land draining into the Atlantic Ocean from America, Africa, Europe, and Asia contributes matter in solution which if reduced to rock at 2 tons to the cubic yard would equal 1 cubic mile every six years.

FOR several years the Director of Telegraphs at Haugesund (Norway), Herr A. Reitan, has been making experiments for the purpose of solving the problem whether fish seek places in the sea which are artificially illuminated. In order, however, to make experiments on a larger scale than hitherto, and if possible to demonstrate the value of such illuminations at great fisheries, he has received some specially-constructed electric lamps from Brussels, with which he will continue his experiments during the autumn.

THE Natural History Society of Rhineland and Westphalia held their autumn meeting at Bonn. Among the papers read we note those on the forest vegetation of the extreme north-western portion of the Himalayas, by Dr. Brandis, and on the present state of the Phylloxera question in the Rhenish vineyards, by Prof. Bortkau.

AT Schrems (Lower Austria) a violent shock of earthquake was felt on the night of October 8–9 at ten minutes past midnight. It was preceded by a subterranean rolling noise, lasting several minutes. The phenomenon was also observed at Zwettl and at Gmünd.

THE glaciers in the Dachstein Mountains have again diminished considerably at their lower extremities. Prof. Simony has recently taken a large number of photographs of the summit of the Hohe Dachstein, of the Gosau Glacier, and the Karls ice-field, in order to execute future measurements. The surface of the lowest layers of the Karls ice-field has sunk between 2·5 and 3·2 metres since last year, and the lower end of the Gosau Glacier has receded more than twice that amount. Since about 1849 this glacier has receded more than 600 metres.

WE have repeatedly referred to Hayek's "Grosser Handatlas der Naturgeschichte" (published by Moritz Perles, Vienna), which has now reached its completion.

THE death is announced of Prof. Eugenio Balbi, Professor of Geography at Pavia University, a son of the celebrated geographer, Adriano Balbi. Born at Florence on February 6, 1812, he died at Pavia on October 18 last.

THE Natural History Museum, established by the Committee of the International African Society at Brussels, grows in extent daily. The most recent additions are the skeletons of a chimpanzee, a gorilla, a crocodile, and a sea-cow. The Director of the Karema Station on Lake Tanganyika has forwarded a large collection of birds.

"A NORWEGIAN" writes to point out two errors in Mr. Mattieu Williams's note on the northernmost promontory in Norway. "To call the Knivskjærodde a 'low glaciated tongue of rock' is hardly correct. The ridge is a couple of hundred feet high at least. I have before me a photograph of the cape, taken last summer by Dr. Sophus Tromholt, and which will shortly be placed before the public. The elevation is very considerable. Mr. Williams further states that there are magnificent capes abounding around the North Cape; others are above 1000 feet. This is incorrect. The highest mountain on the *coast* of Arctic Norway is the North Cape, viz. 974 feet. A belief has for many years prevailed in Norway that Knivskjærodden jutted further into the ocean than the North Cape, but it has only been *proved* this summer."

THE additions to the Zoological Society's Gardens during the past week include two Rhesus Monkeys (*Macacus rhesus*) from India, presented respectively by Mr. Richard Armytage and Mrs. E. A. Russell; a Roseate Cockatoo (*Cacatua roseicapilla*) from Australia, presented by Miss N. Simonds; a Northern Mocking Bird (*Mimus polyglottus*) from North America, presented by Mr. Thomas G. Venables; a Grand Eclectus (*Eclectus roratus*) from Moluccas, presented by Miss Lawson; two Herring Gulls (*Larus argentatus*), British, presented by Mrs. Pigou; an Undulated Grass Parrakeet (*Melopsittacus undulatus*) from Australia, presented by Mr. F. Hale, F.Z.S.; a Water Rail (*Rallus aquaticus*), a Moorhen (*Gallinula chloropus*) from Norfolk, presented by Mr. T. E. Gunn; a Common Chameleon (*Chamæleon vulgaris*) from North Africa, presented by Mr. W. G. Brinkley; an Alligator (*Alligator mississippiensis*) from the Mississippi, presented by Mr. R. M. Middleton; a Greater White-crested Cockatoo (*Cacatua cristata*) from the Moluccas, deposited; a Black-headed Caique (*Caica melanocephala*) from Demerara, purchased; a Cape Ant Bear (*Orycteropus capensis*) from South Africa, received on approval.

OUR ASTRONOMICAL COLUMN

BARNARD'S COMET.—The following ephemeris of this comet for Greenwich midnight is deduced from the elliptical elements of Dr. Berberich, of Strasburg, which assign a revolution of 5½ years:—

1884	R.A. h. m. s.	N.P.D. ° ′	Log. distance from Earth	Log. distance from Sun
Nov. 6	22 5 32	101 27·8	0·0041	0·1985
8	— 10 28	100 50·3	0·0147	
10	— 15 20	100 13·3	0·0253	0·2054
12	— 20 8	99 36·8	0·0358	
14	— 24 51	99 0·7	0·0463	0·2122
16	— 29 30	98 25·2	0·0567	
18	— 34 6	97 50·1	0·0670	0·2191
20	— 38 38	97 15·5	0·0772	
22	22 43 7	96 41·4	0·0874	0·2259

The theoretical intensity of light on November 6 is 0·39, and on November 22, 0·24. As previously remarked, it is very desirable that observations of this comet for position should be continued as long as practicable, that its mean motion may be determined with sufficient precision to enable a trustworthy estimate of past planetary perturbations to be obtained. The general resemblance of the elements to those of the short-period comet of De Vico in 1844 will render such an investigation one of much interest.

THE NOVEMBER METEORS.—The earth arrives at the descending node of the first comet of 1866 on the afternoon of Thursday, November 13, and a watch may be favourably instituted on the night of that day for meteors of the stream which appears to lie in the comet's track. Oppölzer's definitive elements give for the radiant point, R.A. 150°·2, N.P.D. 67°·2 (equinox of 1866).

THE LICK OBSERVATORY, CALIFORNIA.—The following is an extract of a letter from Prof. Edward S. Holden, Director of the Washburn Observatory, University of Wisconsin, dated October 17:—"I have just returned from the Lick Observatory, where I have mounted a beautiful meridian-circle by Repsold of 6 (French) inches aperture. It has north and south collimators of the same aperture, and its axis is a telescope of 2·5 inches aperture, which is viewed by an east (or west) collimator for controlling the azimuth, &c. There are two circles, each divided to 2′, one fixed, the other movable by a wheel and pinion, so that it is not *essential* to determine the division errors of any lines except those for each 1°, and those 2′ lines belonging to 4 degrees, 90° apart. The room is double throughout, a wooden building 40 × 40 feet inside of a structure in louvre-work, which gives a continuous air space all around; and this air space is connected with a tall ventilating tower which enables the free circulation of air to be maintained. It appears to me to be in all respects satisfactory. The Lick Observatory now needs only its 36-inch refractor to be complete, and they hope for this within three years."

It will be remembered that this Observatory is situate on the top of Mount Hamilton.

VARIABLE STAR IN THE ORION-NEBULA.—The late Prof. Schmidt found that the star which he distinguishes as J″ (Bond 822 = Liapunov γ), which follows θ Orionis 34·3s., and 5′ 5″ to the south of it, disappeared at minimum in his 5-feet refractor, and at maximum reached 9·5m. On April 3, 1878, it was estimated 12·8, equal to Bond 784, but before the end of the month it rose to 9·7. The star may deserve frequent observation.

GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES

THE Rev. Francis A. Allen has issued a reprint of the paper read by him at the late Congress of Americanists in Copenhagen on Polynesian antiquities. The stupendous Cyclopean monuments, platforms, terraces, walls, colossal statues, scattered over the South Sea Islands are graphically described, and regarded as forming a connecting link between the ancient civilisations of Asia and America. The theory is that America was mainly peopled by two streams of migration from Asia—a nomad Mongolic, proceeding directly by the Straits of Behring, and now represented by the Apaches, Utes, Comanches, and other wild tribes of California, Oregon, Colorado, &c.; and a semi-civilised, proceeding from Further India and China across the islands of the Pacific Ocean to Mexico, Central America, and Peru. On their way across the archipelagoes these peoples left traces of their presence in Micronesia, Hawaii, Tahiti, and especially Easter Island, the last-named distant only some 2600 miles from the mainland of South America. The resemblances between these monuments and those of Peru and Mexico are dwelt upon, and they are further compared with those of Java (Boro-Boro), Cambodia (Angkor-Vaht), and others in Southern Asia. The theory, which is not altogether novel, is supported by other arguments based on considerations of traditions, usages, religions, languages, and the like, brought together from various sources not always of a trustworthy character. It is suggested that the Chinese tradition of the discovery of Fusang by the monk Hoén-Shin may not be altogether an idle tale. Allusion is made to Schoolcraft's exploded legend of Hiawatha; and some more than doubtful authorities are referred to in proof of the affinities between the American languages and those of Japan, North-East Siberia, and Indo-China. Nevertheless, if not always critical, the paper is learned and lucid, and worth reprinting, if only for the great number of data here brought together as bearing directly or indirectly on the point at issue.

HERR VON HAARDT contributes an instructive memoir to the last number of the *Proceedings* of the Vienna Geographical Society on the services rendered to the progress of the geographical sciences by the Austrian navy. A brief historical survey is given of the famous *Novara* Expedition round the world (1857-59); of the survey of the Adriatic coastlands by Capt. T. Ritter (1871); the simultaneous determination of the magnetic relations in the same waters by Lieut. J. Schellander; the expedition of the *Friedrich* and *Donau* to the East Asiatic seaboard (1868); the second voyage of the *Donau* to Asia and South America (1874-76); the circumnavigation of Borneo by Capt. T. F. von Oesterreicher; the circumnavigation of Africa by the *Helgoland* and *Friedrich* (1874-75); the voyages of the *Pola* to Jan Mayen and the Arctic Ocean (1882-83); Weyprecht's discovery of Franz-Josef Land, &c. The memoir concludes with a brief reference to the expeditions now in progress or promised in the near future, such as that of the *Saida* to Australasia (1884-86); of the *Aurora* to South America (1884-85); of the *Helgoland* to the West African seaboard, and of the *Frundsberg* to the Indian Ocean.

THE same periodical contains the first part of what promises to be a very valuable contribution to the physiography of Caucasia. Much useful information is here brought together from the latest sources regarding the orography, river systems, administrative divisions, and statistics of that region. The present area of the northern section (Cis-Caucasia) is given at 4037 German geographical square miles, of the southern (Trans-Caucasia), 4400; total, 8437, or 2740 more than that of the British Isles.

To this journal F. Blumentritt also sends an account of the little-known Negrito tribes of the district of Principe in the Island of Luzon, Philippine Archipelago. These aborigines, collectively known as Atas (Aetas), and showing distinct physical resemblances to the non-Malay wild tribes of Malacca, are being gradually evangelised by the Spanish missionaries stationed at Baler. Hemmed in between the semi-civilised Tagalas and the fierce Ilongotes, both of mixed Malay stock and speech, they have already been largely affected by Malay influences. But although their language contains numerous Tagala words, expressions, and even grammatical forms, its fundamentally distinct character has been clearly determined. For the purpose of comparison useful vocabularies of about 150 words are appended in five languages: Spanish, Tagala, Negrito of Mariveles (Bataan), Negrito of Zambales, and Negrito of Baler (Principe).

AT the opening meeting of the Royal Geographical Society on Monday, Mr. Joseph Thomson gave an eloquent and highly interesting account of his recent explorations in the country of the Masai. Both the country and the people are of the greatest interest to science, and, as was shown last week, Mr. Thomson's botanical collections are decidedly novel. One or two zoological novelties he has also obtained, and we shall be glad to have the detailed account of his discoveries, which will appear in his forthcoming work.

IT appears from the *Anglo-New Zealander and Australian Times* that Mr. H. O. Forbes, F.R.G.S., is organising a scientific expedition with the view of exploring the botany and zoology of the Mount Owen Stanley Mountains, the great central range of the eastern peninsula of New Guinea. Mr. Forbes has been allowed 400*l*. by the British Association and 250*l*. by the Royal Geographical Society towards the expense of the expedition. The party will start early in December, though it is not expected to get into active working before May next, in consequence of the necessity for procuring trusty carriers from the Moluccas. Mr. Forbes will break his journey at Batavia, in order to proceed to Amboyna, where he hopes to find his men. He will then return to Batavia, and sail for Thursday Island, proceeding thence to Port Moresby. He proposes to ascend the course of one of the rivers which flow from the mountains to Redscar Bay. Should the natives prove friendly and the food-supplies sufficient, Mr Forbes does not despair of reaching the other coast of the peninsula; but in any case the exploration of the Mount Owen Stanley Range would be of itself a satisfactory achievement. The mountain travelling is declared to be dangerous to any but very experienced travellers.

NEWS has reached St. Petersburg from Col. Prjevalsky, the indefatigable explorer in Thibet, whose expedition appears to be distinguishing itself in feats of arms as well as discoveries of science. A telegram *viâ* Kiatcha, dated August 20, says:—"The difficult task of the expedition has been successfully accomplished. During the three summer months we traversed 1000 versts of North-Eastern Thibet. We first descended from Zaidam, 400 versts south, over the sources of the Yellow River to the Blue River, which it was found impossible to cross, and then we explored the large lakes in the upper course of the Yellow River. One lake was named 'Russian,' another 'Expedition' Lake. Their height was 13,500 feet, the surrounding country being a mountain plateau 1000 feet higher. Along the Blue River lies a mountainous, but woodless and Alpine country. The climate of the localities passed through was terrible. The whole of the summer was cold, with rain and snow; at the end of May there was sharp frost, in July we had snowstorms like those of winter, while the amount of alluvium deposited by south-western monsoons from the Indian Ocean is so great that in summer Northern Thibet is converted into an almost continuous marsh. Wild animals and fish are abundant, the birds and flora poor, but original. The Tanguts live on the Blue River, and near the lakes of the Yellow River. Here we were twice attacked by about 300 mounted marauders, and the heroic conduct of my companions, armed with Berdan rifles, saved the expedition. We soon repulsed the first attack on July 25, and subsequently destroyed the Tangut camp. A week later a fresh party from another Tangut tribe attacked us. For two hours on the banks of the Yellow River we repelled the mounted brigands with repeated volleys from our rifles; and when we took the offensive the Tanguts retreated behind the knolls, and in turn began volley-firing. We were most fortunate, all coming off safe and sound, only two of our horses being wounded, while forty of the brigands were killed and wounded in the two encounters. We now go to Western Zaidam. We shall establish a depot at Hast, and during the winter explore the surrounding localities."

DR. GERHARD ROHLFS leaves for the West Coast of Africa by one of the German war-ships under Admiral Knorr, and has been intrusted with a special mission by the German Government.

CAPT. BECKER and some other Belgian officers are about to proceed to Zanzibar, thence to start for Lake Tanganyika. They intend to cross this lake, and to found a station on its western shore. Thus the line of stations across Africa, which the International African Society has planned, will be completed. On the eastern side of Lake Tanganyika, between this and the sea-coast, there are four stations: Kondoa, in Usagara; Tabora, in Unyanyembe; Kakoma, in Uganda; and Karema, on the shore of the lake. On the western side there are over fifty stations between the lake and the Atlantic.

THE subject of trade-routes into South-Western China is now engaging attention in France, and has caused much discussion in the periodical press. The various methods of reaching Sze-chuan and Yunnan which have from time to time been suggested by explorers are dismissed in their turn as impracticable. From the side of India we have the Brahmaputra, which is navigable almost to the Chinese frontier, and the Irrawaddy *viâ* Bahmo. These are described as useless on account of the obstacles offered by lofty and almost impassable ranges of mountains; the Meinam from Bankok would only land us in the Shan States; the Meikong, through Cambodia, was tried by Lagrée, but was found quite unfit for navigation on account of its numerous rapids and cataracts. In China we have the Sikiang—which offers an almost straight line from Canton into Southern China, and was followed by Mr. Colquhoun in his recent attempt to cross through the Shan States into British Burmah—and the Yang-tsze-kiang, but both of these routes, according to French writers, are closed to trade by Chinese hostility. Thus every possible route has been tried and found wanting, with one exception, viz. that by the Songkoi or Red River of Tonquin. By means of this new possession of France the trade of the two great provinces of South-Western China, say the French writers, can be tapped, and in no other way. Their wealth, it is said, will be poured down the valley of the Red River into the hands of the French traders at Hanoi and Haiphong. With regard to routes mentioned only to be dismissed as impossible, nothing need be said here. Their merits and defects may be found described in a score of English works by explorers on the spot; but so far as the Red River is concerned, no proposition either way can be laid down with safety. Beyond Hanoi it is but little known, and its upper waters above Honghoa are almost wholly unknown to Europeans. But one Frenchman has ever ascended or descended the river, and when M. Dupuis made his courageous journeys more than ten years ago, he did so under circumstances which rendered geographical observation impossible. All that M. Dupuis can say (and European knowledge is confined to his information) is that with an escort, and with Chinese passports, he was able to come down the river in a small junk, and to ascend it again with several junks laden with arms and ammunition. Even at the present moment the whole river from Honghoa to Laokai on the Chinese frontier is in the hands of the Black Flags. Moreover it has been stated that after leaving the Red River the route would have to cross a lofty mountain range, and pass through the most desolate region in Yunnan. The river may offer an excellent trade route; but in the present state of our geographical knowledge of Upper Tonquin all that can be said with certainty is that nobody knows whether it is so or not. Happily the French lose no time in thoroughly studying the countries which they occupy, and as soon as a state of peace has been reached in Indo-China we shall be in a position to decide the question; until then anything written about the navigation of the Red River above Honghoa is mere speculation, and valueless for practical purposes.

THE last number of the *Izvestia* of the Russian Geographical Society contains three interesting papers by M. D. Ivanoff on the Pamir, embodying the results of the last year's expedition, and giving a lively summary of our present knowledge as to this very interesting region. A. E. Regel contributes to the same number a note on his journey to the Shugnan; A. Wysheslavtseff describes the burial customs of the Tchuvashes; and P. A. Putyatin contributes a note on the pottery of the Stone Age. The same issue contains, moreover, accounts of the geodetical and cartographical work done in 1883 by the military topographers and by the Hydrographical Department, and several notes.

NATURAL SCIENCE IN SCHOOLS[1]

HOWEVER fully it may be admitted by the few that it is important, nay essential, that all members of the community, whatever their station or occupation, should during their school career receive some instruction in the elements of natural science, the general public have not as yet had brought home to them with sufficient clearness that, just as a knowledge of foreign languages is essential to all who are brought into intercourse with foreigners, so in like manner is a correct knowledge of the elements of natural science of direct practical value to all in their daily intercourse with Nature, apart from the pleasure which such knowledge affords. In fact, judged from a purely utilitarian standpoint, the advantages to be derived from even the most elementary acquaintance with what may be termed the science of daily life are so manifold that, if once understood by the public, the claims of science to a place in the ordinary school course must meet with universal recognition. To quote Huxley[2]:

1 "On the Teaching of Natural Science as a Part of the Ordinary School Course, and on the Method of Teaching Chemistry in the Introductory Course in Science Classes, Schools and Colleges." Paper read at the Educational Conference of the International Health Exhibition by Henry E. Armstrong, Ph.D., F.R.S., Sec.C.S., Professor of Chemistry in the Finsbury Technical College.

2 This writer's "Introductory" to Macmillan's Science Primers, and his "Physiography: an Introduction to the Study of Nature," should be studied by all who wish to know what science is and how it should be taught.

"Knowledge of Nature is the guide of practical conduct; . . . any one who tries to live upon the face of this earth without attention to the laws of Nature will live there for but a very short time, most of which will be passed in exceeding discomfort: a peculiarity of natural laws, as distinguished from those of human enactment, being that they take effect without summons or prosecution. In fact, nobody could live for half a day unless he attended to some of the laws of Nature; and thousands of us are dying daily, or living miserably, because men have not yet been sufficiently zealous to learn the code of Nature."

But it is also and mainly on other and far higher grounds that we should advocate universal practical teaching of the elements of natural, and more particularly of so-called physical, science: viz. that it tends to develop a side of the human intellect which, I believe I am justified in saying, is left uncultivated even after the most careful mathematical and literary training: the faculty of observing and of reasoning from observation and experiment. It is entirely from this latter point of view that I shall venture to propound a scheme for teaching the elements of that branch of physical science with which I am most intimately acquainted.

This Exhibition affords some few noteworthy illustrations of the way in which the importance of teaching the elements of natural science has received practical recognition in our schools. Thus we have indications of the work being done by the Birmingham School Board; the London School Board call attention to their system of training pupil-teachers in science; Mr. Robins shows plans of one of the best, if not the best equipped school chemical laboratory—that of the Manchester Grammar School. Also, it is well known that at many of the larger schools, such as Clifton College, Eton, Harrow, Rugby, St. Paul's, Giggleswick, and the North London Collegiate School for Girls, ample provision is made for teaching one or more branches of natural science; and not a few other examples might be quoted. But in how large a proportion of the schools throughout the country is such training neglected? and there is much cause for complaint in the fact that, in those schools in which science is taught, it is after all in most cases but a kind of "refuge for the destitute," only those who have failed on the classical side and those judged to be inferior in intellect being turned over to the so-called modern side. This is probably due to a variety of causes: to the ignorance already referred to of the public of the importance and value of such training, or it would be demanded of the schools; to the ignorance of even the barest elements of science of the majority of teachers in charge of schools; to the want of good science teachers and of suitable books; to the supposed expense of teaching science; and lastly—and I believe this to be the most important of all the causes which operate against the teaching of science—to the imperfection of our method of teaching: there can be little doubt, in fact, that the majority of teachers of the generally recognised subjects who have themselves no scientific knowledge see clearly enough that very little good comes of teaching science in the manner in which it is commonly taught in schools.

The great objection to the method at present in vogue appears to me to be that it is practically the same whether science is taught as a part of the general school course, or whether it is taught professionally; in other words, a lad studies chemistry, for example, at school in just the same way as at a science college, the only difference being that he does not carry his studies so far at school as at college. This, I believe, is the primary fault in our present system. In my opinion, no single branch of natural science should be selected to be taught as part of the ordinary school course, but the instruction should comprise the elements of what I have already spoken of as the science of daily life, and should include astronomy, botany, chemistry, geology, mechanics, physics, physiology and zoology—the *olla podrida* comprehended by Huxley under physiography, but which is perhaps more happily expressed in the German word *Naturkunde*—in so far as is essential to the understanding of the ordinary operations and objects of Nature, the teaching from beginning to end being of as practical a character as possible, and of such a kind as to cultivate the intelligence and develop the faculties of observing, comparing and reasoning from observation; and the more technical the course the better. The order in which these subjects should be introduced is matter for discussion; personally, I should prefer to begin with botany, and to introduce as soon as possible the various branches of science in no particular order but that best suited to the understanding of the various objects or phenomena to which the teaching for the time being had reference. The extent to which instruction of this kind is given must entirely depend on the class of scholars. There are few teachers capable of giving such instruction, and fewer books of a character suited to ordinary requirements. The development of such a system will, in fact, require the earnest co-operation of a number of specialists; but apart from the difficulty of securing efficient co-operation, there is no reason why some such scheme should not be elaborated at no distant date. If action is to be taken, however, there must be no delay, or the opportunity will be lost. I trust that this meeting will be prepared to give much attention to this question, and that it may be possible to continue the discussion on other platforms, as it is fundamentally important and deserving of the most serious consideration of educationalists. No doubt it will be said that the object of introducing the teaching of science into the school course is to afford mental training of a particular character, not the inculcation of useful knowledge, and that this end can be secured by teaching well some one branch of science. Admitting that this has been the case, however, there is no reason why it should be in the future: if while developing the intellect it be possible—and it certainly is—to impart much valuable information; and if—as it certainly is—the teaching be rendered easier and more attractive because it has direct reference to the familiar objects and operations of Nature. We cannot, indeed, any longer afford to grow up ignorant of all that is going on around us, and without learning to use our eyes and our reasoning powers; we cannot afford to be unacquainted with the fundamental laws of health; but we must ever remember "that knowledge of Nature is the guide of practical conduct," and no effort must be spared to render our system of education an effectual preparation and truly adapted to the exigencies of practical life. The female educators appear already to have grasped the importance of such teaching, and under the guise of domestic economy much that I advocate is being taught in girls' schools; it is to be hoped that ere long something akin to the domestic economy course in girls' schools will find a place in boys' schools.

To pass now to the consideration of the mode of teaching my own special subject in science classes, such as those held under the auspices of the Science and Art Department, and in the introductory course for students in science schools and colleges generally. To deal first with the former. Inspection of the syllabus for the elementary stage, together with the study of the examination papers of the past few years, will show that the student is mainly required to have an elementary knowledge of the methods of preparing, and of the properties of, the commoner *non-metallic* elements and their chief compounds. There is thus practically no distinction to be drawn between the knowledge required of students under the Science and Art Department, and of those who are making the study of chemistry the business of their lives. But surely it is not the function of the Science and Art Department to train up chemists, and I am satisfied that it is neither their desire nor their intention to do so; their object undoubtedly is to encourage the teaching of chemistry as a means of cultivating certain faculties, and in order that the fundamental laws of chemistry may be understood and their commoner applications realised. It is not difficult to understand how the system has grown up and why it is maintained; I not believe it is because the Department consider it a satisfactory one; but they know full well that a better system is not yet developed, and that it would be unwise to legislate far in advance of the intelligence and powers of the majority of the teachers. With all deference, however, I venture to add that the programme has been drawn up too much from the point of view of the specialist, and that too little attention has been devoted to it from the point of view of the educationalist. The course I am inclined to advocate would be of a more directly useful character. There is no reason why in the beginning attention should be confined to the non-metals, especially when certain of the metals enter so largely into daily use; and provided that it involve no sacrifice of the opportunities of developing the faculties which it is our special object to cultivate by the study of chemistry, there is no reason against, but every reason for, selecting subjects of every-day importance rather than such as are altogether outside our ordinary experience, such, for example, as the oxides of nitrogen: even chlorine, except in relation to common salt, might be omitted from special study. The presumed distinction between so-called inorganic and organic chemistry should be altogether put aside and forgotten, and the elements of the chemistry of the carbon compounds introduced at a very early stage in order that the phenomena of animal and plant life might come under consideration. To give the barest possible outline of a programme, I would include such subjects as the following in the syllabus:—

The chemistry of air, of water, and of combustion; the distinction between elements and compounds; the fundamental laws which regulate the formation of compounds and the chemical action of bodies upon one another (*i.e.* the nature of so-called chemical change); the chemical properties of the metals in ordinary use, with special reference to their uses and the action upon them of air, water, &c.; the composition of natural waters; the distinction between fats, carbohydrates and albuminous substances in so far as is essential to the understanding of the relative values of different foods and respiration and growth in animals and plants (outlines of the chemistry of animal and plant life, in fact); the nature of the processes of fermentation, putrefaction, and decay.

The instruction in these subjects should in all cases be imparted by means of object-lessons and tutorial classes; lectures pure and simple should, as far as possible, be avoided. The students should by themselves go through a number of practical exercises on the various subjects. I would abolish the teaching of tables for the detection of simple salts, the teaching of analysis as at present conducted being, I believe, in most cases of very little if any use except as enabling teachers to earn grants.

In schools and colleges in which chemistry is taught as a science, and ostensibly with the object of training young people to be chemists, it is the almost invariable practice that the student first devotes more or less time to the preparation of the commoner gases, and then proceeds to study qualitative analysis; quantitative determinations are made only during the later period of the course. I believe that the system has two great faults: it is too mechanical, and does not sufficiently develop the faculty of reasoning from observation; and actual practice in measurement is introduced far too late in the course. It is of great importance that the meaning of the terms equivalent, atomic weight, molecular weight, should be thoroughly grasped at an early stage, but according to my experience this is very rarely the case; there is no such difficulty, however, if the beginner is taught to make a few determinations himself of equivalents, &c., as he very well may be. It is not necessary here to enter into a more detailed criticism, but I propose instead to give a brief description of a modification of the existing system which in my hands, in the course of about four years' experience, has furnished most encouraging results, and which I venture to think is worthy of an extended trial.

Instead of merely preparing a variety of gases, the student is required to solve a number of problems experimentally: to determine, for example, the composition of air and of water; and the idea of measurement is introduced from the very beginning, as the determination is made quantitatively as well as qualitatively. Each student receives a paper of instructions—two of which are printed as an appendix to this paper—which are advisedly made as bare as possible so as to lead him to find out for himself, or inquire, how to set to work; and he is particularly directed that, having made an experiment, he is to enter in his notebook an account of what he has done and of the result, and that he is then and there to ask himself what bearing the result has upon the particular problem under consideration, and, having done so, he is to write down his conclusion. He is thus at once led to consider what each experiment teaches: in other words, to reason from observation. Apart from the mental exercise which this system affords, if the writing out of the notes be properly supervised, the literary exercise which it also affords is of no mean value.

In illustration, I may here very briefly describe the manner of working out the second problem in the course. The problem being to determine the composition of water, the student receives the instruction:—1. Pass steam over red-hot iron brads, collect the escaping gas, and apply a light to it. (N.B. The gas thus produced is called hydrogen.) He is provided with a very simple apparatus, consisting of a small glass flask containing water, joined by a narrow bent glass tube to an iron tube (about 9 inches long and ½ to ⅝ inch wide) in which the brads are placed, a long glass tube suitably bent for the delivery of the gas being attached to the other end of the iron tube. Plaster of Paris is used instead of corks to make the connections with the iron tube. The iron tube is supported over a burner, and heated to redness; the water in the flask is then heated to boiling, and the steam thus generated is passed over the brads; the escaping gas is collected over water in the usual manner. Having made this experiment, and observed that, on passing steam over red-hot iron, the gas hydrogen is produced, the student proceeds to consider the bearing of this observation. The hydrogen must obviously be derived either from the water or from the iron, if not from both. Those who already know that iron is iron, so to speak, at once infer that the hydrogen is derived from the water: it is, however, pointed out that, even if it be known that iron is a simple substance, this observation taken alone does not prove that hydrogen is contained in water.

2. The student next learns to prepare hydrogen by the ordinary method of dissolving zinc in diluted sulphuric acid, and makes a few simple experiments whereby he becomes acquainted with the chief properties of the gas.

3. Having done this, he is instructed "to burn dry hydrogen at a glass jet underneath a cold surface and to collect and examine the product." The product is easily recognised as water, and the immediate answer to the question, "What does this observation teach?" is, that since iron is absent, taken in conjunction with Experiment 1, the production of water on burning hydrogen in air, the composition of which has already been determined, is an absolute demonstration that hydrogen is contained in water.

4. Having previously studied the combustion of copper, iron, and phosphorus in air, and having learnt that when these substances burn they enter into combination with the oxygen in air, the student is also led to infer from the observation that hydrogen burns in air producing water, that most probably it combines with the oxygen, and that water contains oxygen besides hydrogen. It may be however, it is then pointed out, that the hydrogen, unlike the phosphorus, &c., combines with the nitrogen instead of with the oxygen, or perhaps with both. He is therefore instructed to pass oxygen over heated copper, weighing the tube before and after the operation, and subsequently to heat the "oxide of copper" in a current of hydrogen. He then observes that water is formed, the oxygen being removed from the copper: and since nitrogen is absent, it follows that water consists of hydrogen and oxygen, and of these alone.

5. By repeating this last experiment so as to ascertain the loss in weight of the copper oxide tube and the weight of water produced, the data are obtained for calculating the proportions in which hydrogen and oxygen are associated in water.

In practice the only serious difficulty met with has been to induce students to give themselves the trouble to consider what information is gained from a particular observation; to be properly inquisitive, in fact. I cannot think that this arises, as a rule, from mental incapacity. When we consider how the child is always putting questions, and that nothing is more beautifully characteristic of young children than the desire to know the why and wherefore of everything they see, I fear there can be little doubt that it is one of the main results—and it is indeed a lamentable result—of our present school system that the natural spirit of inquiry, inherent to a greater or less extent in every member of the community, should be thus stunted in its growth, instead of being carefully developed and properly directed.

Having in the manner which I have described studied air, water, the gas given off on heating common salt with sulphuric acid, and the ordinary phenomena of combustion, the student next receives a paper with directions for the comparative study of lead and silver (see Appendix). The experiments are chosen so as to afford an insight into the principles of the methods ordinarily employed in qualitative and quantitative analyses, and the student who has conscientiously performed all the exercises is in a position to specialise his studies in whatever direction may be desirable.

The system I have thus advocated undoubtedly involves far more trouble to the teacher than that ordinarily followed, but the student learns far more under it, and I assert with confidence that the training is of a far higher order, and also of a more directly useful character. I believe it to be generally applicable, and that it would be of special advantage in those cases in which only a short time can be devoted to the study of chemistry, as in evening classes and medical schools. At present the only practical teaching vouchsafed to the majority of students in our large medical schools is a short summer course, during which they are taught the use of certain analytical tables: as a mental exercise the training they receive is of doubtful value; the knowledge gained is of little use in after life, and the course certainly ought not to be dignified by being spoken of as a course of Practical Chemistry; *test-tubing* is the proper appellation. It is not a little remarkable also that even the London University Syllabus nowhere specifies that a knowledge even of the elements of quantitative analysis will be required of candidates either at the Preliminary Scientific or First M.B. Examination, and this, too, when, as is well known, an analysis to be of any practical value must almost invariably be quantitative. It is little less than a disgrace to the medical profession that a subject of such vital importance as chemistry should be so neglected.

If, however, we are to make any change in our method of teaching science, if we are to teach science usefully throughout the country, two things are necessary: teachers of science must take counsel together, and the examining boards must seriously consider their position. There can be little doubt that in too many cases the examinations are suited to professional instead of to educational requirements; and that the professional examinations are often of too general a character, and do not sufficiently take into account special requirements.

APPENDIX

Problem: to Determine the Composition of Air

N.B.—Immediately after performing each experiment indicated in this and subsequent papers, write down a careful description of the manner in which the experiment has been done, of your observations and the result or results obtained, and of the bearing of your observations and the result or results obtained on the problem which you are engaged in solving. Be especially on your guard against drawing conclusions which are not justified by the result of the experiment; but, on the other hand, endeavour to extract as much information as possible from the experiment.

1. Burn a piece of *dry* phosphorus in a confined volume of air, *i.e.* in a stout Florence flask closed by a caoutchouc stopper. Afterwards withdraw the stopper under water, again insert it when water ceases to enter and measure the amount of water sucked in. Afterwards determine the capacity of the flask by filling it with water and measuring this water.

N.B.—The first part of the experiment requires care and must be done under direction.

2. Allow a stick of phosphorus lashed to a piece of stout wire to remain for some hours in contact with a known volume of air confined over water in a graduated cylinder. After noting the volume of the residual gas, introduce a burning taper or wooden splinter into it.

N.B.—The residual gas is called *nitrogen*.

3. Burn a piece of dry phosphorus in a current of air in a tube loosely packed with asbestos. Weigh the tube, &c., before and after the experiment.

4. Repeat Experiment 2 with iron borings moistened with ammonium chloride solution. Preserve the residual gas.

5. Suspend a magnet from one arm of a balance; having dipped it into finely divided iron, place weights in the opposite pan, and when the balance is in equilibrium, set fire to the iron.

6. Pass a current of dry air through a moderately heated tube containing copper. Weigh the tube before and after the experiment; also note the alteration in the appearance of the copper.

7. Strongly heat in a *dry* test tube the red substance obtained by heating mercury in contact with air. At intervals plunge a glowing splinter of wood into the tube. Afterwards note the appearance of the sides of the tube. (Before performing this experiment ask for directions.)

N.B.—The gas obtained in this experiment is named *oxygen*.

8. Heat a mixture of manganese dioxide and potassium chlorate in a dry test tube, and at intervals plunge a glowing splinter into the tube. This experiment is to acquaint you with an easy method of preparing oxygen in quantity.

9. Prepare oxygen as in Experiment 8, and add it to the nitrogen from Experiment 4 in sufficient quantity to make up the bulk to that of the air taken for the latter experiment. Test the mixture with a burning taper or splinter.

10. Dissolve copper in nitric acid and collect the escaping gas (nitric oxide); add some of it to oxygen and some of it to air.

11. Fill a large flask provided with a well-fitting caoutchouc stopper and delivery tube with ordinary tap water and gradually heat the water to the boiling-point; collect the gas which is given off in a small cylinder and add nitric oxide to it. Also collect a sufficient quantity in a narrow graduated cylinder and treat it as in Experiment 2.

Comparative Study of Silver and Lead

Silver.—*Symbol*, Ag. (*Argentum*). *Atomic weight*, 107·67. *Specific heat*, ·05701.

Lead.—*Symbol*, Pb. (*Plumbum*). *Atomic weight*, 206·47. *Specific heat*, ·03140.

1. Determine the relative density of lead and silver at a known temperature by weighing in air and in water.]

2. Separately heat known weights of lead and silver for some time in the air, allow to cool, and weigh.

3. Separately convert known weights of lead and silver into nitrates, and weigh the latter. From the data thus obtained calculate the *equivalents* of lead and silver.

4. Convert the known weights of nitrates thus obtained into chlorides, and weigh the latter.

5. Compare the action on lead and silver of chlorhydric acid; of dilute and concentrated sulphuric acid, using the acid both cold and hot; and of cold and hot nitric acid.

6. Using solutions of the nitrates, compare their behaviour with chlorhydric and sulphuric acids, hydrogen sulphide, potassium iodide, and potassium chromate. Ascertain the behaviour of the precipitate formed by chlorhydric acid when boiled with water, and when treated with ammonia solution.

7. Compare the behaviour of lead and silver compounds on charcoal before the blowpipe.

8. Tabulate the results of your experiments with lead and silver in parallel columns.

9. Ascertain whether the substances given you contain lead or silver.

10. Determine silver in an alloy of lead and silver by cupellation.

11. Study the method of determining silver volumetrically by means of a *standard solution* of ammonium thiocyanate. Determine the percentage of silver in English silver coinage.

12. Determine silver as chloride by precipitation.

13. Dissolve a known weight of lead in nitric acid, precipitate it as sulphate, collect and weigh the latter.

14. What are the chief ores of lead and silver? How are lead and silver extracted from their ores? How is silver separated from lead? How is it separated from burnt Spanish pyrites? What are the chief properties and uses of lead and of silver? State the composition of the chief alloys of lead and silver.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE NEW ZEALAND INSTITUTE

VOLUME XVI. of the *Transactions and Proceedings of the New Zealand Institute* contains the more important memoirs laid before its eight incorporated Societies during the year 1883 and the first weeks of 1884. It forms a bulky volume of about 650 pages, and is illustrated by 44 plates. It speaks a great deal for the energy of the able editor, Dr. James Hector, F.R.S., that he has in so short a time reduced such a mass of material into order, and that the volume should be issued in May of this year. While we think the illustrations still leave something to be desired as to their general style and execution, this volume is extremely creditable to the colony, and the amount of accurate research recorded will, if continued, soon make New Zealand one of the most completely investigated regions of the world. Of the 57 articles selected from the papers read before the local Societies, 25 relate to zoology, 22 to botany, 5 to geology, 1 to chemistry, and 4 to miscellaneous subjects. While of the titles of these papers we append a classified list, some few of them merit a more particular reference.

Mr. E. Meyrick contributes a third series of his descriptions of New Zealand Microlepidoptera, treating this time of the Œcophoridæ. This is the principal family of the Tineina in New Zealand, as is also the case in Australia. Some 67 species are recorded, of which 55 are particularly described, but the total number of species it is thought will be much more considerable. In New Zealand the family constitutes about a sixth of the entire Microlepidoptera, in Australia it forms more than a fourth, whilst in Europe it is about a thirtieth. It seems strange that, while this family occupies so prominent a position in both New Zealand and Australia, no species as far as is yet known is common to both. Fourteen genera are found in New Zealand; of these ten are endemic, three occur also in Australia, and one is cosmopolitan. Of the three genera shared with Australia, two (Eulechria and Phlæopola) are large and typically Australian genera, represented in New Zealand by three species, obviously mere stragglers; the third (Trachypepla) is a typical New Zealand genus, probably of considerable extent, and is represented in Australia by two species only, evidently also stray wanderers. Of the ten endemic genera, none are very closely related to Australian forms. It would therefore appear that, while it is not improbable that a slight interchange of species has taken place at some not exceedingly remote period, it seems nearly certain that the group is of much more ancient origin, and was derived from another and quite distinct region. Incidentally Mr. Meyrick suggests an affinity with South America, but in a collection made by the Rev. T. Blackburn in the Hawaiian Islands, the Œcophoridæ appeared to be altogether absent, their place being taken by a peculiar group of Gelechidæ.

Mr. Meyrick also contributes a monograph of the New Zealand Geometrina. He does this with some diffidence, owing to the difficulties he has laboured under of consulting type specimens and of the absence of works of reference. A large number of published names are reduced to the rank of synonyms; some 30 species are added to the list, which now stands at 89. In addition to the description of both genera and species, analytical tables of these are given throughout, and the monograph appears to be such as will enable the student to easily identify his captures and will still induce him to the further study of this group, and especially to the transformations of the species contained in it.

Capt. F. W. Hutton gives a very important revised list of the land Mollusca of New Zealand. From the ample collections that have passed under his examination, he has been enabled to determine satisfactorily all but a very few of the described species, as well as to indicate fairly their distribution in the islands. The list contains 116 species, of which 13 remain unknown to the author. Seven have been introduced from England. The dentition of 60 and the internal anatomy of 26 species have been described by Capt. Hutton in vols. xiv. and xv. of the *Transactions*. So far as at present known, one-half of the species are confined to the North Island, one-quarter to the South Island, and one-quarter are common to both. The closest connection of the land molluscan fauna would appear to be with North Australia, but there is a considerable generic affinity with the faunas of New Caledonia, Polynesia, and South America.

An interesting paper on the habits of earthworms in New Zealand is contributed by Mr. A. T. Urquhart. The species are not named, but with such wonderful opportunities as Mr. Urquhart possesses for making a collection of these, may we hope that, in addition to his following out his painstaking observations as to their habits, he will also advance science by making a careful collection of the forms and placing them in the hands of some of the able naturalists of the Auckland Institute for description? It will be remembered that Darwin assumes that in old pastures there may be 26,886 worms per acre, and that Henson gives 53,767 worms per acre for garden ground and about half that number in cornfields. Mr. Urquhart gives, as the result of his investigations of an acre of pasture-land near Auckland, the large number of 348,480 worms as found therein. It being suggested to him that in his selection of the spots for examination he may have unconsciously selected the richest, the experiment was again tried in a field seventeen years in grass. A piece was laid out into squares of 120 feet, and a square foot of soil was taken out at each corner; worms hanging to the side walls of the holes were not counted, and in one hole, where the return of worms was a blank, the walls were crowded with worms. As a result there was an average of 18 worms per square foot, or 784,080 per acre. Although this average is very striking when compared with that of Henson, it is worthy of note that the difference between the actual weight of the worms is not so marked. According to Henson, his average of 53,767 worms would weigh 356 pounds, while Mr. Urquhart finds that the average weight of the number found by him came to 612 pounds 9 ounces.

Apropos of a description of the head in *Palinurus lalandii*, by Prof. T. Jeffery Parker, founded on specimens which happened to be brought on board at the Cape of Good Hope during his voyage to New Zealand, we have a very natural classification of the species of this genus offered to us. The genus Palinurus, Fabr., would contain three subgenera. For the species in which the stridulating organ is absent and the procephalic processes are present Prof. Parker proposes the very appropriate generic name of Jasus; while for those forms in which the stridulating organ is present and the procephalic processes are absent he would reserve the name Palinurus, Fabr., retaining Gray's subgenus Panulirus for the longicorn species. He notes that, omitting *P. longimanus* and *P. frontalis*, of which he could obtain no definite information, all the species of Jasus are confined to the Southern Hemisphere (Ethiopian and Australian Regions); and those of Palinurus are restricted to the Northern Hemisphere; while those of Panulirus occur in both Hemispheres.

Dr. Walter Buller furnishes a series of notes on some rare species of New Zealand birds. *Sceloglaux albifacies*, the laughing owl, has been found by Mr. W. W. Smith in deep fissures of the limestone rocks at Albury, near Timaru. After many futile efforts Mr. Smith bethought himself of smoking them out; after a few whiffs the owls began sniffing, and then in a few moments quietly walked out; four were captured. They soon became quite tame. On waking up at nightfall, their call was "precisely the same as two men cooeying to each other from a distance." The male is the larger and stronger bird, with a harsher cry. The female performs most of the duty of hatching. They showed a decided perference for young rats, but would eat beetles, lizards, mice, or mutton. The crannies of the rocks in which they make their nests and live during the day are dry, very narrow at their entrance, and often five or six yards in depth. While casting their feathers they become almost naked, and two of Mr. Smith's birds while in this state were stung to death by a swarm of bees which passed through the wire netting of their cage.

Mr. R. H. Govett gives some startling facts as to the bird-killing powers of *Pisonia brunoniana* or *P. sinclairii*. A sticky gum is secreted by the carpels when they attain their full size, but is nearly as plentiful in their unripe as in their ripe condition. Possibly attracted by the flies which embalm themselves in these sticky seed-vessels, birds alight on the branches, and on one occasion two Silver-eyes (Zosterops) and an English sparrow were found with their wings so glued that they were unable to flutter. Mr. Govett's sister, thinking to do a merciful act, collected all the fruit-bearing branches that were within reach, and threw them on a dust-heap. Next day about a dozen silver-eyes were found glued to them, four or five of the pods to each bird. She writes:—"Looking at the tree one sees tufts of feathers and legs where the birds have died, and I don't think the birds could possibly get away without help. The black cat just lives under the tree, a good many of the birds falling to her share, but a good many pods get into her fur, and she has to come and get them dragged out." In a note Mr. T. Kirk says that *Pisonia umbellifera*, Seeman, = *P. sinclairii*, Hook.f., is found in several localities north of Whangerei, both on the east and west coasts, also on the Taranga Islands, Arid Island, Little Barrier Island, and on the East Cape, possibly in the last locality planted by the Maoris. The fruiting pericarp is remarkable for its viscidity, which is usually retained for a considerable period after the fruit is fully matured. It can be readily imagined that small birds tempted to feed on the seeds might easily become glued to a cluster of fruits.

Among new species of plants collected on Stewart Island by Mr. Kirk, he describes a beautiful new Olearia (*O. traillii*), called after his old and valued friend C. Traill, who has done so much for the natural history of Stewart Island. It forms a large shrub from five to twelve feet high. The terminal panicles are from four to nine inches long. The disk florets are purple. It is one of the most striking plants in the New Zealand flora, and one we hope we may soon see in cultivation. Mr. Kirk also, among other important contributions, publishes notes on Carmichaelia with descriptions of new species, one of which, *C. uniflora*, seems to be the same as a new species, with the same specific name, described in a paper read the same night before the Wellington Philosophical Society by Mr. J. Buchanan.

Mr. J. Buchanan gives an interesting account of Campbell Island and its flora. The island, thirty miles in circumference, is three good days' steaming from Wellington. Peat abounds, and the soil is extremely damp in the low-lying regions. The highest altitude is 1500 feet. Only a day and two half-days were available for botanical research, but five species were added to the flora, of which three were new. Many of the species had large and showy flowers, such as *Celmisia vernicosa*, Hook. f., and the various species of Pleurophyllum. These and the like were confined within an altitudinal range of 500 feet above sea-level, but the shrubby forms, such as species of Coprosma, Drachophyllum, Veronica, and Myrsine, ranged from sea-level, where they were most abundant, to the highest altitude. An Alpine flora may also be recognised, as a few plants were only found at the highest altitude, such as *Gentiana concinna*, Hook. f., and *Trineuron spathulata*, Hook. f.

Mr. T. F. Cheeseman contributes a very valuable revision of the New Zealand species of Carex, admitting 40 species, of which 25 are peculiar to the country; of the other fifteen found elsewhere, eleven are recorded from Tasmania and Australia, nine of these are found in Europe, North and West Asia, and North America, seven in Southern or Eastern Asia, six in temperate North and South Africa, and four or five come from extra-tropical South America.

We can only direct general attention to Mr. Justice Gillies' important paper giving the result of his experiments in 1882-83 on the production of sugar from Sorghum, which seem to have been most successful, and to give promise of a good future for sugar-making in the colony; and to Mr. W. Arthur's report on the brown trout introduced into Otago.

Zoology.—E. Meyrick, New Zealand Microlepidoptera and Geometrina; R. W. Fereday, new species of Cidaria; T. H. Potts, on a species of Mantis; W. M. Maskell, on new Coccidæ; Geo. M. Thomson, new Crustacea and Pycnogonida; C. Chilton, New Zealand sessile-eyed Crustacea; T. Jeffery Parker, on Palinurus; A. T. Urquhart, habits of earthworms; Capt. F. W. Hutton, revision of land Mollusca, of recent Rhachiglossate Mollusca, new species of Mollusca; H. B. Kirk, Anatomy of *Sepioteuthis bilineata*; Dr. J. von Haast, occurrence of the Red Phalarope in New Zealand; Dr. W. Buller, notes on rare birds; Prof. T. J. Parker, on the occurrence of some rare fishes; Dr. Hector, notes on New Zealand ichthyology.

Botany.—W. Colenso, further contributions to New Zealand botany; J. D. Enys and T. Kirk, *Botrychium lunaria* in New Zealand; T. Kirk, botanical notes, descriptions of new species of plants; J. Adams, the botany of the Thames goldfields; A. T. Urquhart, the spread of the Eucalyptus; J. Buchanan, notes of new and rare plants, Campbell Island and its flora; Charles Knight, Lichenographia of New Zealand; T. F. Cheeseman, additions to New Zealand flora, revision of the genus Carex (New Zealand species).

Chemistry.—J. A. Pond, the pottery clays of Auckland district.

Geology.—R. M. Laing, thermal springs at Lyttelton; H. Cox, new minerals; Captain F. W. Hutton, the lower gorge of the Waimakariri; D. Sutherland, discoveries near Milford Sound.

Miscellaneous.—W. Arthur, brown trout introduced into Otago; Mr. Justice Gillies, Sorghum experiments, 1882-83; Coleman Phillips, the law of gavelkind, a reply to Messrs. George and Wallace.

SOCIETIES AND ACADEMIES

PARIS

Academy of Sciences, October 27.—M. Rolland, President, in the chair.—Remarks on the first volume of the late M. Dumas' "Discours et Éloges Académiques," presented to the Academy by M. J. Bertrand.—Note on contaminated waters in connection with the spread of cholera, by M. Marey. A careful study of this epidemic since its first appearance in Europe, together with some personal observations in Paris and other parts of France, have convinced the author that the disorder is propagated chiefly through the medium of water. All other influences are of secondary importance, so that to secure the purity of drinking-water in every affected locality should be the first care of the sanitary authorities.—On the formation of saltpetre in plants, by MM. Berthelot and André.—On the oxidation of copper, by MM. Debray and Joannis.—On the laws determining the penetration of the rolled plates of ironclads by projectiles, by M. Martin de Brettes.—On the employment of the aqueous solution of the sulphuret of carbon for the destruction of Phylloxera, by M. A. Rommier.—Account of an easy process for rapidly preparing solutions containing sulphuret of carbon in large quantities, by M. Ach. Livache.—Observations of the lunar eclipse of October 4, made at the Observatory of Lyons (Brunner 6-inch equatorial), by M. Gonnessiat.—Observations of the comets of Barnard and of Wolf made at the Observatory of Lyons (Brunner 6-inch equatorial), by M. Gonnessiat.—On a representation of the exponential function by an infinite product, by M. R. Lipschitz.—On the equilibrium of a homogeneous segment of a revolving paraboloid floating on a fluid, by M. Em. Barbier.—Measure of the horizontal component of terrestrial magnetism by the method of amortisement, by M. J. B. Baille.—Note on the relation between temperatures and pressures of the protoxide of liquid carbon, by M. V. Olszewski.—On some reactions of chlorochromic acid, by M. Quantin. The oxide of carbon acting alone on chlorochromic acid changes it to a green sesquioxide of chromium and to a violet sesquichloride. The simultaneous action of the oxide of carbon and of an excess of chlorine changes integrally the oxychloride of chromium to a sesquichloride.—Chemical analysis of the apatite (phosphate of calcium) occurring at Logrozan in Spain, by M. A. Vivier.—On a graphic granite with large crystals of chlorophyllite from the banks of the Vizézy near Montbrison (Loire), by M. F. Gonnard.—Heat of combination of the compounds of hydrogen and oxygen, by M. A. Boillot.—On the phenomena accompanying the solar corona at present visible in the Alps, by M. Duclaux. These phenomena are regarded as purely atmospheric, the sun being merely the luminous source. The solar corona itself is attributed to normal although rare causes, and is considered as analogous to the halo so often observed round the moon, when the atmosphere is charged with moisture.—Observation of the solar coronas during the aërostatic ascents of October 23 and 24, by MM. A. and G. Tissandier.—Note on solar energy and the oscillations of the magnetic needle, by M. Duponchel. From the observations made from the middle of the sixteenth century down to the present time the author infers that the secular variations of the needle are due to the action of a new ultra-Neptunian planet which he names the *Ocean*, and which may have a revolution of about 467 years. This planet must have passed through the longitudes 80° and 260° about the years 1580 and 1813, and should now be in the longitude of 314° in the constellation of Capricorn.—Note on the employment of hydrosulphuric acid for discharging colours, by M. A. Gérardin. This acid, discovered by M. Schützenberger, and now extensively employed, produces remarkable effects, acting by reduction, contrary to chlorine and oxygen, which act by oxidation. This property seems capable of important industrial application.—Note on distilled water used for drinking-purposes, by M. A. Hureau de Villeneuve. The author argues that the price of distilled water might be greatly reduced by obtaining it from steam-engines at work in mills; that it is neither unpalatable nor difficult to digest; that it generally contains a sufficient quantity of air, and that the absence of calcareous salts is rather an advantage than a drawback.

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