THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 20, 1884

BACTERIOLOGY

AMONG the most striking of the recent rapid advances of science is the development of what we may term bacteriology. For more than one hundred years a debate had been going on as to the origin of the minute forms of life which were present in decomposing organic materials, but till the publications of Cagniard-Latour and Schwann no part was assigned to them in the production of the chemical changes which these materials undergo. It was not, however, till the publication of Pasteur's papers on the alcoholic fermentation and on spontaneous generation little more than twenty years ago that any sound basis was obtained for the idea that a micro-organism was able to cause fermentation. The science of bacteriology really dates its commencement from the first publication of Pasteur's papers. Following rapidly on this work, researches have been carried on which have now demonstrated that all the fermentations belonging to the same class as the alcoholic fermentation are due to the development of micro-organisms, and that bacteria are most important factors in Nature, being the chief agents by which the complex organic constituents of plants and animals are brought back to simple forms capable of serving again as food for plants.

But the researches have not been confined to the study of fermentations. In 1851, Rayer and Daraine observed in the blood of animals suffering from splenic fever the presence of numerous small rods which were supposed to be crystals. On the publication of Pasteur's papers, Daraine again took up the subject, and came to the conclusion that these rods were bacteria and the cause of the disease. For some years little was done in this direction, though microscopical observations on the occurrence of bacteria in various diseases were described. With the publication of the investigations of Koch and Pasteur on anthrax, and more especially of Koch's modes of cultivation, a new start was made, and these researches have since been carried on with a certainty and a precision that could not have been anticipated, and have led to the accumulation of a large amount of knowledge with regard to the causation of infective diseases. A causal relation has been established between bacteria and splenic fever, various septicæmic affections, and infective diseases in the lower animals, tuberculosis, glanders, erysipelas, and other diseases in man; while in a number of other cases, in which the causal relation has not been completely demonstrated, facts have been made out which render it extremely probable. In spite, however, of this large addition to our knowledge, the subject is as yet little more than in its infancy, numerous questions of the greatest importance and likely to lead to the most important results still requiring investigation.

Apart from its purely scientific interest there is perhaps no department of science which so nearly concerns the health and well-being of the community, and already important practical results have been obtained, affecting medicine, industry, and public health. Following closely on Pasteur's early publications, and as a direct result of them, we have the great revolution in surgery brought about by Sir Joseph Lister, resulting in such improvements in the management of wounds as have been the means of saving numerous lives and of greatly enlarging the scope of surgical interference. Our knowledge of the value of disinfectants, of the mode of spread of infective disease, and of the precautions necessary to prevent its spread has also been very largely increased, and must lead to great improvements in hygiene. Nor must we omit to mention the valuable experiments begun by Toussaint and Pasteur, and now being carried on to a large extent by Pasteur, on the attenuation of virus and the conversion of virulent micro-organisms into useful vaccines. This has been demonstrated to be possible in the cases of chicken cholera, anthrax, pig typhoid, and possibly hydrophobia, and has been put practically into force in France in the case of the first three affections. Useful facts affecting various industries have also been made out. The deplorable condition of the silkworm industry some years ago and Pasteur's investigations thereon are well known, and have led to the restoration of the silk manufacture; while his work on diseases of beer and wine, and the work of others on various fermentations, have proved of the greatest benefit.

While some of this work has been done in this country, by far the greater part has been done abroad, more especially in Germany and France, where its importance is recognised, and where special facilities are afforded by the Governments and various public bodies. In Germany especially, besides the laboratory, supported by the Government, in which Dr. Koch works, a number of similar institutions are being established throughout the country; and in France the laboratories of Pasteur and others are established and supported by the Government and by various municipal authorities, every facility for carrying on these researches, and the necessary funds, being provided. In this country, on the other hand, there is no laboratory of the kind, and what work has been done has been by individual investigators working at their own expense, and often without suitable accommodation. To carry on this work a considerable amount of apparatus is necessary, an assistant is required, and the use of a laboratory where animals can be kept is essential. Without the help of a trained assistant, the investigator's time must be largely taken up in the sterilisation and preparation of his cultivating media and in other manual work, leaving but little time for actual investigation, more especially if, as is often the case, teaching or medical practice must be carried on as well in order to earn a livelihood. How different are the conditions where a well-equipped laboratory is provided, where trained assistants are present, and where a salary is given sufficient to enable the investigator to devote his whole time to the work. Surely it would be possible to establish a proper laboratory in this country.

That the matter is felt to be of importance was shown last summer by the fact that the Executive Council of the Health Exhibition devoted a considerable sum to the establishment of a model laboratory under the direction of Mr. Watson Cheyne, in which many of the results and the most recent methods of investigation were shown. This laboratory was visited by large numbers of scientific men and others, and the hope was universally expressed that the model would become the basis of a permanent institution. We

are glad to hear that the Executive Council of the Exhibition are taking into consideration the advisability of devoting their surplus funds to this object, and we hope that they may ultimately resolve to do so. They could not better advance the cause of hygiene, and more fittingly carry on and perpetuate the work begun by the Exhibition. The sum required to build and adequately endow such a laboratory would of course be considerable, but there can be little doubt that, once the matter is started, various public bodies will aid in the work, while a suitable site at South Kensington might be obtained from the Commissioners, as there the laboratory would be in the vicinity of those belonging to the Science and Art Department and the City and Guilds Institute.

HEROES OF SCIENCE

Heroes of Science: Mechanicians. By T. C. Lewis, M.A. (London: Published under the direction of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, 1884.)

IN this volume short histories are given of the following inventors:—Watt, George Stephenson, Richard Arkwright, Crompton, Maudsley, Joseph Clement, James Nasmyth, Whitworth, and Babbage. The facts told of the lives of these men have been gathered from reliable sources and are accurate. It is unfortunate that Prof. Lewis did not introduce more of these facts in his book instead of using up its very limited space by inserting an inordinate amount of moralising, which is extremely tantalising, and makes it often difficult to proceed owing to the impatience which it causes. No words that could be used by way of reflection, even by a great writer, could add much to the moral stimulus afforded by the simple narrative of the lives of men like Watt and Stephenson, and the style which we encounter here, although often very ambitious, signally fails in attaining its mark and, instead of increasing our admiration for the men described, adds an unwelcome tinge of the ridiculous to the account. Thus in describing the early life of Arkwright we meet with these sentences amongst others:—"Before this he was probably as well off as most itinerant dealers in hair of his rank, but this first decisive step of his" [that from a village barber to a dealer in hair] "was enough to show that he could be dominated by an idea even to the length of relinquishing some certainties of advantage." "Whilst he was doing his unexciting work of preparing orderly cover for the outside of other men's heads" [this means making wigs] "he was—apparently too without much mental excitement—introducing order and exercising thought in the interior of his own; in consequence of which it appears that, whatever he did in those days to cover the heads of thinking and thoughtless men and women with a fair show of hair, he has done more for us in providing for the inside of ours some furniture of profitable thought," &c.

Amongst many curious pieces of information which we come across we may draw attention to the following piece of social history probably hitherto unknown. "When Adam delved and Eve span, or when their descendants first adopted this division of labour, the work of digging was carried on in the sweat of the brow, it required strength, and was relegated to the man; the process of spinning, which required less strength than dexterity, was assigned to the woman." Neither in Genesis nor in the *Transactions* of the Anthropological Society do we remember having seen any account of this early example of the division of labour. Valuable practice in English construction after the manner of the old so-called orthographical exercises, might be set on this book, by asking boys studying English to criticise and explain (if possible) the meaning of the phrases in italics in the following sentences:—(Page 155) "In him we look in vain for *the disinterestedness that endears self-sacrifice to us.*" (P. 253) "The revolution that was being effected by the introduction of machine tools, was, like all revolutions, sure to meet with resistance. It is not too much to say that by its means *a little one became a thousand.*" As a piece of grandiloquent writing, of which we here find many samples, we may instance this (p. 211):—"Modern inventions succeed one another like the links of a golden chain forged by men of god-like skill for our support, and indeed for our elevation. The cloak of an Elijah often falls upon the shoulders of an Elisha."

We are curious to know if the assailers of classical education have ever used stronger language than is here employed in describing Nasmyth's studies (p. 212):—"The classical education they had attempted with little success to give to him there was not at all suited to his bent. He asked for food, and they gave him a nauseous poison." In these days when the working man is so courted and admired, we should have thought it, to say the least, unnecessary to inform the readers of this book that (p. 202) "in all his (Clement's) work . . . there was an interest in his art which in his case raised it above the labour of a calling," or (p. 232), "in labour such as his (Nasmyth's) there was no degradation." This too after he had become an employer of labour himself!

Besides committing great errors of style, the author occasionally errs as to matters of fact. Thus (p. xiv.), he says, "The world has had to be content with using from two and a half to four pounds of coal for" one horse-power. The limit would have been put much lower had he studied the records of the engines of the best American liners. On p. 57 a description is given of "the double-acting steam-engine, in which steam is admitted to press the piston both upwards and downwards, the piston being also aided in its motion by a vacuum produced by condensation on the side towards which the steam is pressing it." To say that the piston motion is "*aided*" by the vacuum on the opposite side to that on which steam is acting is a curious way of representing the fact that without such a vacuum no motion of the piston would be *possible.* The definition of parallel motion given is new. On p. 58 we read, "The specification included . . . the contrivance for parallel motion or for making the piston-rod move perpendicularly up and down without chains or perpendicular guides, or untowardly friction, arch heads, or other pieces of clumsiness."

The book, which we are informed (p. vi.) is intended for boys, does not give enough explanation. The descriptions of inventions given are of the briefest, and will be quite unintelligible to any one who has not already spent a considerable amount of time in studying them elsewhere. If Prof. Lewis had been content to omit the wearisome reflections which he has placed in the book, and had,

instead, inserted a few engravings, he would have made the book more entertaining and less trying to readers of only average patience. If he had spent more time on the solid parts, and less on its affected adornments, he would have produced a valuable and interesting book.

OUR BOOK SHELF

The Student's Guide to Systematic Botany. By Robert Bentley, F.L.S., M.R.C.S. Engl., &c. (London: J. and A. Churchill, 1884.)

THIS little book, which aims chiefly at supplying the wants of medical and pharmaceutical students, represents fairly what was the state of systematic botany in England twenty years ago. The bulk of the book is occupied with a detailed description of the natural orders of Phanerogams, while the Cryptogams are dismissed in fourteen pages. But it is not only by the very cursory way in which these plants are treated that the student is led to underrate the importance of the morphological differences by which the various groups of Cryptogams are distinguished; the heterogeneous series of Algæ and Fungi are described as "orders" comparable, as regards the terms used in the classification, with the orders of the Angiosperms. Again, in the text, signs of antiquity are numerous: for instance, in distinguishing the Cryptogamia from the Phanerogamia (p. 14) we find that the former "are reproduced by spores, and are therefore acotyledonous," a sentence which implies that the spore is the homologue of the seed! In describing the ferns no mention is made of the prothallus, antheridia, or archegonia, though the latter are described as occurring in the mosses, and resulting in the formation of a "sporangium." These examples are sufficient to show that this book does not meet the present requirements even of medical students, who now have access to other text-books, treating of the principles of systematic botany in a manner more in accordance with the present state of the science than the "Student's Guide" of Prof. Bentley.

The Electrician's Pocket-Book. The English Edition of Hospitalier's "Formulaire Pratique de l'Électricien." Translated, with additions, by Gordon Wigan, M.A., Barrister-at-Law. (London, Paris, and New York: Cassell and Co., Limited, 1884.)

M. HOSPITALIER'S "Formulaire Pratique de l'Électricien," of which the work before us is a translation, has become well known in this country as a useful compendium of data and rules for electrical work, and Mr. Wigan has done good service in putting an English version within the reach of the numerous class of practical men whose knowledge of French is, to say the least, limited. He has executed his task very creditably, as the book, so far as we can tell without a minute examination of the numerical and other data, seems fairly accurate and trustworthy. The least satisfactory part of this work, as of all others of the same kind which we have seen, is, we think, the synopsis of theory which is given along with the data and other practical information. In these days of excellent elementary and advanced text-books of theoretical and to some extent also of applied electricity, the necessarily detached and somewhat scrappy statements of theory which partly fill the "pocket-books," are little called for, and the space occupied by them could be used to better advantage for other matter, or the book lightened by their omission.

In looking over the book we have found some slight faults in descriptions of instruments, &c., which might be mended in a new edition. For instance, in p. 75, the author (? translator) has entirely misapprehended the use of the V-groove in Sir W. Thomson's "hole, slot, and plane" arrangement for insuring that an electrometer or other instrument is replaced, after being moved, in exactly the same position. The "hole" is not simply a hole, but a conical hollow, and the primary object of having a V-groove is to obviate the infinitely perfect fitting which a second hollow would render necessary. Again, the description of the quadrant electrometer (p. 107) does not seem likely to convey any clear idea of the construction of the instrument.

The subject of the testing and laying of submarine and land telegraphs is not very fully treated, and the data in this department is also comparatively meagre. On the other hand, descriptions of a large number of dynamo-machines and statements of experimental results regarding their behaviour in electric lighting and transmission of power form a marked feature of the book, and we need not say that even roughly approximate information of this kind in a collected form is very valuable.

On the whole, we feel sure that the work will form a valuable pocket companion to the electrical engineer.

A. GRAY

Science Note-Book. By C. H. Hinton. (London: John Haddon and Co., 1884.)

THE constitutive elements of Euclidean geometry are the straight line and the circle—two continuous curves, which stand to one another in a certain relation of reciprocity, and the actual production of which, as Newton has already remarked, demands certain mechanical appliances—the ruler and the compass. If we add to the above that Euclid's method is the synthetical, then his system of geometry is defined without ambiguity. The principal lack of this geometry, which was not clearly brought to light until the second half of this century, consists in this, that it is limited to considerations of quantity, and only treats secondarily of the relations of position.

Poncelet has recognised this defect, and has laid the foundations of the so-called modern geometry, which, during the last few decades has so greatly enriched the science of space as well in positive results as in new methods.

Euclid's system, however, has not been uprooted, but only completed on a side on which it was wanting. In schools the "Elements" of the Alexandrian geometer are generally taught, while descriptive geometry and the theory of higher curves (as taught in the University course) are chiefly based on modern methods.

In a handy introductory publication Mr. C. H. Hinton, Science Master at Uppingham School, has brought forward points of view which form a third method of geometrical investigation, fundamentally different from both those mentioned above. It is not opposed to either, but appears as a welcome complement of both. The author does not presuppose continuous elements as has been generally done, but only sets of points equally distributed in two dimensions, which, merely for the sake of convenience, are connected by straight lines. As in Euclid's geometry an infinite pencil of rays can be drawn from every point, so the conic sections may be determined by a method of counting discrete points. The problem of division of a given line into parts, and of the construction of parallels can be generally solved.

The practical advantages of this new method in the form in which it is now published are purely educational, though it is wholly based on the principles just mentioned. The author has succeeded in bringing new ideas into simple and attractive form, which enables the youthful and inexperienced mind in a very short time to acquire a mathematical knowledge of space which is of much value in facilitating a subsequent thorough understanding of Euclid and of modern geometry. The work has an encouraging appearance, inasmuch as it does not contain any hypercritical transformation of the system of our old Euclid (in which respect so many authors have recently

erred), but makes us acquainted with new thoughts which in themselves are worthy of pursuit, and which in their present form are of general educational service.

KARL HEUN

The Dynamo: How Made and How Used. A Book for Amateurs. By S. R. Bottone. (London: W. Swan Sonnenschein and Co., 1884.)

THIS little book of 75 pages is designed to give to amateurs practical information as to the construction of a small working dynamo-machine. What is aimed at is the building up of a machine capable of being worked by hand and suitable for experimental purposes. The dynamo-electric machine is one which an amateur mechanician may very well undertake with every prospect of success and satisfaction; and the book before us is thoroughly practical and is pleasantly written, and will, we feel sure, be acceptable to many. We are acquainted with books on the steam-engine for amateur constructors; but a dynamo of simple form is easier to make than a steam-engine, and will, we think, when made, prove a far more useful and pleasure-giving toy than a steam-engine such as an amateur can put together. When all is done, a steam-engine of amateur construction can do little more than go round and round; but a host of experiments in electric lighting and in electro-chemistry may be made to follow on the successful completion of a small hand-dynamo.

The author describes the making of a very simple dynamo with a kind of shuttle-wound armature. All his instructions are clear and, as we have already said, thoroughly practical. The only question on which we have any doubt whatever is whether, at any moderate speed of turning, the dynamo will yield so much current as the reader is told he may expect.

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.*]

Natural Science in Schools

AS one who has been engaged in teaching science in schools for the last ten years, I should like to make some remarks on Prof. H. E. Armstrong's interesting lecture, published in NATURE of November 6 (p. 19).

(1) In the first place I would like to express my agreement with his weighty opening words. The main body of schoolmasters are so completely without any science-training that it is very difficult for many of them to see its necessity or even its advantage. The younger generation of masters in the large public schools, moreover, having come to the work in recent years have not, like their predecessors at Rugby, Clifton, Taunton, and elsewhere, had an opportunity of observing the gain of life and general intelligence which followed the introduction of science into the regular school work, in those schools where it was taken in hand seriously and with enthusiasm. Others, again, have more or less forgotten. Consequently it is still necessary to point out that, excellent as is the training given by the mathematical and classical teaching of our schools, yet that by itself it is not enough. No excellence in the *method* of teaching classics and mathematics will compensate for this, to adopt Dr. Armstrong's words, that they fail to develop "the faculty of observing, and reasoning from observation and experiment," that they fail to give any idea in the concrete of the nature of evidence. No doubt many able men educated on a classical or mathematical basis, can observe and reason from observation; this is, however, in spite of, and not in consequence of, their training. To the majority the deficiency is a serious matter, and probably it goes far to account for the peculiar opinions of scholars one sometimes hears expressed by practically successful men, and produces the unfortunately too prevalent idea among them that, if their sons are to go into business and to succeed, they must not stay at school too long—they must not learn too much book-learning. It should, then, in addition to its other services, be the function of science in education to keep awake and develop the natural practical intelligence of our lads, and so to make up for the deficiencies in this respect which accompany the otherwise vast advantages of a literary and mathematical culture.

(2) I suppose that no science-teacher will fail to agree with Prof. Armstrong that we have by no means exhausted the possibilities even of our present opportunities. As my object is to advocate advances, however, I will not dwell upon that part of his remarks except to say that I am sure a closer acquaintance with the methods of a good many of our science schoolmasters—with the time at their disposal, the laboratories they work in, and their boys, in short with the conditions under which they work—would satisfy him of the considerable value educationally, when it is properly done, of much that he condemns, and also that something of what he advises is already being attempted.

The lectures in schools are already, I should say, usually more or less of the nature of the tutorial classes which he recommends, and, whilst we recognise a great educational value in analytical work, if properly taught, we shall, I feel sure, be ready to abandon that for something better as soon as it is ready for us.

Having said this much, I hasten to add that I quite recognise, on the other hand, the value of Prof. Armstrong's suggestions, and that I am at present conducting a class on a system which in principle is very like that which he suggests. Indeed it is in several important points the result of suggestions made to me by Prof. Armstrong some two years since. More particularly I am trying a form of what I may call the problem method of practical teaching, which Prof. Armstrong so strongly recommends.

As it is only lately that we have had the necessary accommodation for this attempt, my experience is not very great. But I have learnt a good deal, and, as Dr. Armstrong's lecture brings the question into prominence just now, I may say what my experience is so far. Remembering that economy of time is of the first importance, and that our object in teaching science in schools is to promote a certain attitude of mind towards Nature rather than to produce skilful manipulators, I am not yet certain whether courses of work in which each pupil, with assistance, suggests and carries out the experiments himself, or tutorial classes, in which the suggestions are as far as possible elicited by the teacher from the class, and then the work is carried out by the teacher before the class, will give the best results. I tried the latter plan some years ago with beginners at Taunton with the most encouraging results. I believe, however, that a combination of the two methods will finally prove best. There is no doubt that greater interest is created when the pupils do the work themselves; on the other hand, much time is lost, at first, through difficulties of manipulation. Accordingly I am trying to arrange things so that the simpler experiments shall come together and be done by the boys; and when anything more difficult has to be done we fall back upon the tutorial method. I have no doubt of the advantage of practical work combined with some form of lecturing, *if there is time enough*. But in schools there rarely is time enough given for both. As an introduction to a course of lessons on the present system a practical course or a tutorial class on the lines proposed by Dr. Armstrong will certainly be of great value, and one or the other must, I think, be possible in almost every school.

(3) I will now pass to some points not discussed by Dr. Armstrong in which it appears to me that chemical teaching at present is open to improvement. I always aim, myself, not at informing my classes of chemical facts or principles, but, as far as possible, at leading them to discover them for themselves. In this I am more or less hampered by the absence of sufficient appreciation of the bearing of the simpler physical facts of Nature upon chemical processes. This I supply as far as I can. But I believe, and I am trying the experiment, that a real advance in the value of chemistry as an education will be made if, as an introduction, the beginners are put through a course of practical problem work which brings out in every possible way the dependence of chemical operations upon the simpler physical properties of matter; such as volatility, solubility, &c.

(4) I was told the other day, by a great authority on educational matters, that science has had a distinct and good effect on grammar-teaching. I think, on the other hand, that science-teachers have been rather slow to recognise and imitate one

particular excellence in the method of language-teachers. I refer to the practice of making the students acquainted with the works of great writers at the earliest possible period. I should like to see fairly advanced classes of chemical and other students, in schools and elsewhere, reading, with assistance, some of the more suitable memoirs of such men as Davy, Graham, and Faraday. I do not advocate the complete abandonment of text-books, but I should rejoice greatly if their use could be considerably restricted and something better substituted. Has not this neglect of the original writings of great workers by our teachers something to do with the subsequent neglect of research by so many of their pupils? There is of course this practical difficulty in the way of what I propose—that original memoirs are not at present obtainable in a form in which they can be put in the hands of whole classes of students. If my suggestion should prove acceptable to even a few teachers however, that is a difficulty which could be very easily surmounted.

(5) When any one proposes to himself a change in his mode of teaching, unless his position is quite exceptional, he always finds himself confronted by one solid difficulty, viz. public examinations of one kind or another. Teachers at first inspired the examiners. Now they find themselves too often helpless before them. In the face of our various examining Boards individuals are nearly powerless. The time seems to have come when an association of science-teachers for the improvement of science-teaching is a real necessity—something more or less resembling the Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching. Such a body would often be invaluable. It could, by the appointment of committees, and perhaps by pecuniary help, promote such experiments as I have suggested in Paragraph (4). In cases such as the recent unfortunate action of the War Office, it might be expected to do good work by replacing individual by organised action. And it could hardly fail, by bringing teachers and examiners into contact, to do much to make advances in teaching more possible than at present.

My various remarks on so many points have necessarily been brief and incomplete. I could not, in the form of a letter, go *fully* into questions of advantage, disadvantage, and difficulty. I shall have amply attained the object I have had in view if I have helped to draw attention to these important matters.

W. A. SHENSTONE

Do Flying-Fish Fly or Not?

I HAVE crossed the Atlantic and Indian Oceans many times and at different seasons of the year, but until my last voyage to Calcutta I was unable to answer this question positively. For days together, aided at times by a powerful field-glass, I have endeavoured to establish satisfactorily whether these nimble little fish used their membranous wings after rising above the surface of the sea or not. An old and valued friend, the late Charles Kingsley, on his voyage to the West Indies, so graphically painted in the pages of "At Last," records his opinion in favour of the wings being employed as a means of propulsion through the air after the fish quit their more natural element, and I certainly inclined to the same belief, although, owing to the "ever-vexed" condition of the Atlantic, I found accurate observation impossible. In the Indian seas the fish appear at rarer intervals, and limit correspondingly the chances of watching their movements.

On a blazing afternoon in May last, on board the steamer *India*, some hundred miles off the African coast on the way to Ceylon, I had the first and only opportunity I ever enjoyed of establishing beyond dispute this vexed question, which I am not aware has hitherto been settled. The sea was perfectly calm, covered here and there with a yellow scum which exhaled a fresh unpleasant smell like a beach covered with sea-weed at low water. From the spar-deck above the cabins, which were fitted up in the fore-part of the ship, I could descry at frequent intervals shoals of flying-fish rising and apparently fluttering from 50 to 100 yards before dipping again into the mirror-like surface of the ocean. Along with several of the passengers—some of them provided with field-glasses—I vainly endeavoured to make certain whether the fish did or did not make use of their wings after leaving the water. Opinions were divided, for, owing to the rapid motion of the fish, it was impossible to keep any one of them long enough in the field of vision. It occurred to some of us at length to look over the bows of the steamer, and there we saw a sight not soon to be forgotten. The flying-fish appeared frequently shooting upwards in large numbers from the blue glassy depths directly beneath us, as the shoals were disturbed by the vessel's cutwater, and their every movement plainly discernible while under water and from the moment they rose "winnowing the waving element" with expanded wings and tail, bent on escaping the pursuing craft, until they dipped again into the sea for shelter or to obtain fresh impetus for continued flight. I satisfied myself, and so did my fellow-watchers, that after a certain number of strokes with wings and tail—from twenty to thirty, varying with the dimensions of the fish—which we repeatedly counted, as they left corresponding impressions on the oily surface of the water, these appendages were not employed to accelerate, but merely to sustain, the flight while the fish remained in the air. The curved impressions left by the wings on the water appeared, as nearly as I could judge, from twelve to eighteen inches apart on either side of the fishes' course until clear of the water. The tail left no perceptible imprint, but could be clearly seen waving from side to side, adding doubtless considerably to the impulse. After rising out of the water the wings and tail remained ridged, but in some instances were slightly twisted to preserve the equilibrium. Occasionally a fish appeared to lose its balance in the hurry of escape, and toppled over in a ridiculous fashion.

The yellow scum also attracted attention, tinging the ripple at the bows a deep orange. I had some of it brought on board, and a fellow-passenger of an entomological turn placed some under a powerful microscope, but failed to determine the species to which it belonged. Ten years ago, near the same place, I observed the water assume a dirty yellow tinge, as though it had suddenly shoaled, while the same unpleasant smell was perceptible. The discoloration and smell I found to be due to the presence of vast quantities of animalcula, about a quarter of an inch long, semi-transparent, jointed like a cane, and about the thickness of a small needle.

ROBERT W. S. MITCHELL

8, Garden Reach, Calcutta

Earthquake Measurements

I REGRET that Prof. Ewing should take so much to heart my criticisms of his results of earthquake registration. I think that if we can get a single movement instead of a double one we gain much by halving the errors of double registration, extra friction, complexity of calculation, &c., all causes that tend to increase the imperfection of the results.

Neither did I intend to disparage seismological investigations on the plain of Yedo, but it does seem to me that the first thorough study, such as Prof. Ewing and others have initiated, should be in a locality where the minimum of disturbing influences would be able to complicate the results. In fact, we should expect much more progress in arithmetic in a child which commences by learning to count than in another that is immediately put to study fractions. I should never suggest that one earth-shaken locality should be continuously studied more than another when once we have decided upon the most serviceable and accurate registering apparatus.

Now as a resident in a country continuously shaken by earthquakes, many of which are disastrous, and where investigators are few and far between, we want instruments that give the least complicated tracings possible if we are to find observers amongst inhabitants of the Italian provincial towns. The same thing holds good to a variable extent in other countries.

Again, hardly any one would accuse me of claiming entire originality for the principle in the apparatus described. For example, every one knows that the pendulum has been used as a seismograph for centuries even. All that I claim is a combination of different forms of actuating and registering apparatus, with a few novel introductions, for it is practically impossible to *invent*, in the true sense of the word, a new seismograph any more than a new locomotive.

Perhaps, in my critic's opinion, we have reached perfection in seismographic instruments, which it appears is not shared by many workers, as the continual new suggestions and modifications indicate, as does also the fact that throughout all the observing-stations so far instituted it is rare to find two provided with similar instruments.

In regard to Prof. Ewing's last paragraph, perhaps experience will determine whether my suggestions do really lie outside the sphere of practical seismology.

In conclusion I shall be happy to hear suggestions for any improvements from others, for in my own humble opinion we do not yet possess a single seismograph that reaches near to perfec-

tion (my own of course included), so that we may still consider the instrumental investigation of earthquakes far from a settled matter, and one to be more fully worked out.

Naples, November 10 H. J. JOHNSTON-LAVIS

Autumn Flowering

REFERRING to your article on autumn flowering (p. 13), I may mention that my garden primroses are now flowering again, and a laburnum is in flower in the garden of one of the houses on this road. I was in Paris in September 1861, and saw many horse-chestnuts in flower. The summer of 1861 was unusually warm and dry on the Continent, though I believe not in the British Islands. JOSEPH JOHN MURPHY

2, Osborne Park, Belfast, November 14

The Northernmost Extremity of Europe

"A NORWEGIAN" (NATURE, p. 17) says that my description of Knivskjærodden as a low glaciated tongue of rock is hardly correct. As Norwegians ought to, and generally do, know more about their own land than do foreigners, I will quote Tönsberg, whose "Norge" is admitted as a high authority by all. Describing the scene displayed from the edge of the precipice of the North Cape, he says: "Beneath you at a distance of one-eighth of a mile, you see the *long low* Knivskjælodde, *which is undeniably the most northern part of Norway.*" The picture in his book (from a photograph) shows the northward extremity of this projection as washed over by the waves and its *western side* precipitous, as I saw it.

I sailed round it twice, more than ten years ago, halting in front of the North Cape for half an hour, and can only smile at the attempt to claim the northward supremacy of Knivskjærodden as a new discovery or one demanding further verification. In my copy of Munch's map (1852) it is shown as projecting a little further north than the North Cape.

Tönsberg further confirms my statement concerning the elevation of the neighbouring Arctic headlands, which "A Norwegian" also contradicts. Sverholtklubben, according to Tönsberg, is twenty-four Norsk feet higher than the North Cape. I should have added that the measurement I gave was in Norsk feet. Measured in English feet, the height of the North Cape is 1004 feet; that of Sverholtklubben 1029 feet at the edge of the cliff. There are about a dozen other headlands of similar magnitude between North Cape and the Varangerfjord.

W. MATTIEU WILLIAMS

Breeding of the Quadrumana

HAVE any of your readers any experience of the production in captivity, of a *second* generation of any of the quadrumana? At least twelve out of about eighty species kept in the Zoological Gardens have bred during the past thirty years—the lemurs forming a large proportion—and the Rhesus more frequently than any other monkey. I presume that even a *first* generation of any of the anthropoids is unknown—except possibly of the gibbon (?). The disposition and moral character (in the widest sense) of no species of monkey whatever approaches that of the dog. May not this be due to the absence of inheritance (to which the dog owes so much) of the gradually accumulated cultivation of these qualities through association with man? The dog has enjoyed all these advantages. The monkey cannot, owing to the impossibility of rearing a succession of generations in captivity. Does the experience of your readers, who may have studied a first generation of monkeys, point to any improvement on the parent stock in dis osition and character? So far as I have been able to judge from individuals in public collections, the mere mental power of these animals conspicuously exceeds that of any others. I should be glad to know whether this opinion is shared by those who have had more extended opportunities of observation. ARTHUR NICOLS

Fly-Maggots Feeding on Caterpillars

YOUR correspondent, Dr. E. Bonavia (p. 29), is mistaken in supposing the flies bred from his butterfly-chrysalis were "house-flies." They belong to the sub-family *Tachininæ*, which is of very large extent, comprising several hundreds of species in Europe alone, and all probably parasitic in other insects. The "house-fly" belongs to the sub-family *Muscinæ*. The mistake is very pardonable, for there is often great external similarity in form, colour, and size, and it is one frequently made in this country. R. MCLACHLAN

Clarendon Road, Lewisham, S.E., November 14

IT might interest Dr. E. Bonavia (November 13, p. 29) to know that it is not an unusual circumstance to find the larvæ of the house-fly in the nests of *Vespa vulgaris* and *V. germanica* feeding upon the live bodies of the larvæ and pupæ of the wasps. Occasionally I have found nests in the summer-time quite deserted by the wasps, all the pupæ in the cells having been eaten by the maggots of house-flies and other *Diptera*. F. W. ELLIOTT

Buckhurst Hill, Essex, November 18

The Sunday Question

THE announcement that, "after opening the Free Library on Sundays for two months, the Town Council have resolved to close it again *in consequence of the small number of visitors*," seems to indicate that the Town Council of Chester were as wise in deciding to close the Library as they had previously been in giving the people of Chester an opportunity of spending a portion of their day of rest in the Public Library, where those who do not possess libraries of their own can obtain access to the wisdom of the ages as stored in books.

If the facts are as stated, no one can complain of the action of the Chester Town Council, though some would have been glad to have seen a little more patience with people who for so long have been compelled to spend their Sundays when not at home either in the church, the public-house, or the streets, all of which may be attended with advantage and profit by free and intelligent men and women; but when men are driven to either of these places, what should be a blessing becomes in too many cases a curse.

However, as I have said, we have no right to complain of the Town Council of Chester closing the Public Library on Sunday if there is no considerable number of the people of the town desirous of using the institution on that day. In civilised communities representative authorities such as town councils and parliaments are only justified in spending public money on institutions when at least a considerable section of the community desires it.

The Sunday Society bases its claim for the Sunday opening of the British Museum, the South Kensington Museum, the Natural History Museum, the National Gallery, and the Bethnal Green Museum on the ascertained fact that very large sections of the community do desire to visit them on Sundays, and if it be replied that there are more people who have no such desire and therefore these institutions should be closed, I answer that that argument would close the whole of them on every day in the week, for no one will for a moment contend that a majority of the people of the United Kingdom have visited, or can possibly visit, these national exhibitions of the wonders of the universe and what we call its highest product—man.

But the benefit of these institutions is not confined to those who actually visit them. The sermon of the Puritan divine and the lecture at the mechanic's institute are alike indebted to the British Museum and the other institutions named.

Let the trustees of the British Museum follow the example of the Town Council of Chester and open the Museum on Sundays for two months, and the question, so far as the Sunday Society is concerned, will be settled for ever. I will venture to say that after such an experiment the British Museum would never again be closed on Sundays, and with such an example in the centre of the metropolis, no Sunday Society would be longer needed to advocate the opening of museums, art galleries, libraries, and gardens on Sundays.

The statement that at Keswick the "Sunday-opening experiment had been tried and abandoned" is true, but it should be explained that the Library at Keswick is not a public institution in the sense of being supported by rates and taxes, and is under the sole control of the vicar of the parish. It was the late vicar who closed the Library on Sundays, and I have the pleasure of announcing the fact that the Sunday-closing experiment has been tried and abandoned. The present vicar, the Rev. J. N. Hoare, did not decide to do this on his own authority, but he convened a special meeting of the Committee to consider the question,

when it was decided to again open the Library, during the winter season, on Sundays. MARK H. JUDGE,
Honorary Secretary of the Sunday Society
8, Park Place Villas, Paddington, W., November 17

A Pugnacious Frog

A SHORT time back, about 6 o'clock in the evening, just as it was getting dark, hearing a squeaking noise below my veranda, I got up to look, and saw a most amusing sight, viz. a fight between a frog and a bat. The latter was evidently getting the worst of it, but at last suceeeded in getting away for a time from its opponent; the frog again attacked it, but this time *he* was glad to cry "quits," as the bat turned on him and beat him off, afterwards managing to hide somewhere so that we could not find it; the frog, however, was sorely bitten about the nose, and was in a sad plight. I do not know how the bat could have been on the ground, but it had probably fallen from its nest during the day, and was waiting for the evening, when the frog espied and attacked it with the bef re-mentioned result.

EDWIN H. EVANS

Margapala, Soemedang, Java, October 13

A DISEASE-GERM MYTH

WE are indebted to a correspondent for the following curious note from Fiji:—

You may have seen Wilfred Powell's "Wanderings in a Wild Country; or, Three Years among the Cannibals of New Britain." If you have not seen it, pray send for it, for, though falling far short of what it ought to be, it is not without interest. At p. 167 he tells a story of native magic which reminds me of something I have read before.

A native doctor being called in to a patient "looking wretchedly ill," performs a little "devil-devil" business, and then blows some burnt lime from the hollow of his hand against the patient's stomach; "then he began to scratch the man's navel with one finger," gradually approaching his mouth to the fellow's stomach, and drawing in his breath. Presently he places his mouth close to the man's navel, draws back suddenly, retches violently, and——throws up a worm. This the worthy doctor does twice.

Powell says, "I looked at the worms, they were *unlike anything I had seen before*, and appeared as if they certainly might have come from a man's body."

Now see Bates on the Amazons, cap. ix.:—"This (the illness) the Pagá pretends to extract, he blows on the seat of pain the smoke from a large cigar, . . and then sucks the place, drawing from his mouth, when he has finished, what he pretends to be a worm. . . . Senhor John contrived to get possession of the supposed worm after the trick was performed in our presence, and it turned out to be a *long white air root* of some plant"!!

Wilfred Powell should have got that worm or another specimen, even if he had been compelled, in the interests of science, to explore the patient's stomach with a pickaxe.

When Macdonald, of the old surveying-ship *Herald*, was in these waters, he was daily searching for a specimen of the pearly Nautilus (*N. pompilius*), which is pretty common here. One day upon the reef at Nasamusovu he met a Fijian coming out of his canoe in which he had been fishing. He showed him the picture of a Nautilus, which the man recognised at once, and, in reply to a question put through an interpreter, said he had just eaten one. Macdonald got into a great rage at the loss of such a treasure, but suddenly checking his excitement and glancing rapidly over the native, he said to the interpreter, "Quick, ask him how long it is since he ate it."

But there was something in the eye and the tone of the doctor's voice that so startled the gentle child of Nature that, before the interpreter could open his mouth, he had taken to his heels and put half a mile of reef between himself and the man of science.

What awful thought passed through Macdonald's mind has not been left on record.

THE BUDDHIST THEORY OF EVOLUTION

THE theory of evolution held by adepts in Buddhism is the outcome of the researches of an immense succession of investigators, believed to be qualified for their task by the possession of spiritual faculties and perceptions of a higher order than those belonging to ordinary humanity. In the course of ages the block of knowledge thus accumulated concerning the origin of the world and of man and the ultimate destinies of our race, checked and examined at every point, verified in all directions, and constantly under examination throughout, has come to be looked on as the absolute truth concerning the evolution, past and to come, of man and the planets he is destined to inhabit. The initiated members or "adepts" of the Buddhist cult claim to have attained, through intense self-absorption, a knowledge of physical laws of Nature not yet understood by Western science, investing them with extraordinary powers known as spiritualistic, such as clairvoyance and the disintegration and reconstruction of matter by a simple effort of will. They claim in fact to be in possession of potential faculties which will only be generally developed in future stages of evolution. This religion, which is wholly unaggressive and seeks no converts, attracts many on account of its claims to be in accord with all established scientific fact, and by its incorporation of so patent a truth as the doctrine of evolution as an integral part of its system.

A brief examination of these claims, and a glance at the past and future of man's evolution as thus elaborated, can hardly fail to be of interest, if it fails to carry conviction.

It is impossible, and unnecessary, to attempt to follow briefly the mystic subtleties of belief that have fascinated the Oriental mind, and been to it for ages what the pursuit of practical science has been to Western nations. Shortly stated, the Buddhist divides the human entity into seven principles, the higher of which have not yet reached their full development. The first three are of the earth, and done with at death. These are (1) the body; (2) vitality, or the life principle, an indestructible force which attaches itself to other objects after the decomposition of the body; (3) the astral body, "an ethereal duplicate of the physical body," which can under certain circumstances become disembodied and visible as a ghost; (4) the animal soul, or seat of all animal desires; (5) the human soul. The other two can be passed over, as they are still in embryo, and belong to a wholly superior and future condition of existence. The fifth and, later on, the sixth principles make up a man's continuous individuality through successive incarnations.

The solar system consists of seven planetary chains. The one with which man is concerned consists of seven planets, through each of which he has to pass seven times in order to accomplish his evolution. These are the Earth, Mars, which is in a state of entire obscuration or rest as regards the human life-wave, Mercury, just beginning to prepare for its next human period, and four other planets which are composed of an order of matter too ethereal for telescopes to take cognisance of. The system of worlds is compared to a system of towers standing on a plain, each of many stories, man's progress being a spiral round and round the series, passing through each tower as it again comes round to it, at a higher spiritual level than before. The impulse to the new evolution of higher forms is given by rushes, not a continual flow, of spiritual monads coming round the cycle in a state fit for the inhabitation of new forms, and those which for milleniums have gone on merely

repeating themselves then start afresh into growth, and rise rapidly, through intermediate, to the higher forms. The spiral character of the progress, and the fact that the tide of life passes from planet to planet in gushes, accounts for the gaps in the various kingdoms of Nature. Each time a spiritual monad arrives on a planet it has a complicated process of evolution to perform. It is many times incarnated before it passes onward, and man has many incarnations in each great race, the normal sum being not far short of 800, with an interval of at least 1500 years between each, spent in the "world of effects, or heaven of ordinary theology." In the first planetary round man inhabited an immense but loosely organised body, and could not be called intellectual. In the second he becomes of firmer body, whilst in the third he is rather in form of a giant ape than true man, yet of concrete body and advanced intelligence. In the fourth, the present round, his intellect becomes fully developed, and he achieves enormous progress. We now approach the transcendental mystery of mysteries, our future development. The fifth round will be occupied with a struggle between physical intellect and spirituality. In the sixth round a state of perfection of body and soul will be attained which can hardly even be imagined; while as to the seventh round the occult teachers themselves are solemnly silent, it being altogether too God-like for realisation. At the end of each planetary round an intercyclic period of extraordinary exaltation must be undergone. It is by processes of occult training that adepts project themselves precociously into the fifth round, or possess themselves of the attributes of fifth-round men, so as to be able to explore the mysteries of Nature and of other states of existence, and to assimilate knowledge by clairvoyance independently of observation.

We now exist in the fifth race of the fourth round. The first and second races developed no civilisation, but the third and fourth did do so several millions of years ago, though no traces of such now exist. The periods of the great root races are divided by vast convulsions or geological changes, which cut them off at the appointed time, leaving only a few survivors behind, who rapidly relapse into barbarism. The fourth race lived on "Atlantis," and reached its apogee in "the Eocene Age," when this great continent showed the first symptoms of sinking, a process that occupied it down to 11,446 years ago, when its last island, Poseidonis, went down with a crash. "Lemuria" was drowned with its high civilisation and gods about 700,000 years earlier than Atlantis, or just before the early part of the Eocene Age, the relics of its third-race inhabitants existing in some of the flat-headed aborigines of Australia. The true Chinaman is interesting as a relic of the fourth race. The civilisations of the ante-Glacial period were superior to those of Greece and Rome, or the Egyptian, which was in its decadence 12,000 years ago. The uninhabited Arctic regions will prove not only to have enjoyed a tropical climate, but were likewise the seat of one of the most ancient civilisations of the fourth race. Atlantis belonged to the Miocene times, and the cataclysm which destroyed it came at the appointed time, "otherwise it would be impossible for the best seer to calculate the exact hour and year when such cataclysms great and small have to occur." The relics of these former civilisations are hidden in strata which have never been geologically explored, deep in the unfathomed ocean beds.

An important part of the Buddhist creed is the belief in the alternation of periods of repose with periods of activity. As man sleeps every twenty-four hours, and vegetation subsides and revives with the seasons, so rest periods follow each incarnation. The tide-wave of humanity flows on to each of the seven planets seven times, and passes through its seven races and ebbs away again, but the great rest period of our planetary chain does not begin until the seventh round of humanity is perfected. At an incalculably remote period the whole of the seven planetary chains of our solar system will pass into a period of rest, and finally the whole universe itself will have its great cosmic night. After the long night of a planetary chain the animal and vegetable world resume their arrested activity, but when the time arrives for all the planetary chains of our system to pass into their night, each planet, as the seventh-round man quits it, is annihilated instead of merely becoming invisible, and there is an outflow from every kingdom of its entities. These will rest in lethargic sleep in space until brought into life again at the next solar period, and will then form the soul of the future globe. We have every indication that at this very moment such a solar night is taking place, while there are two minor ones ending somewhere. At the beginning of the next solar day period the hitherto subjective elements of the material worlds, now scattered in cosmic dust, will form into primordial ripples of life, and, separating into differentiating centres of activity, combine in a graduated scale of seven stages of evolution. Every orb will pass through seven stages of density, until its solidification and desiccation at last reach a point when it becomes a relaxed conglomerate, and its constituent masses cease to obey the laws of cohesion which hold them together.

Evolution takes its rise in the atomic polarity which motion engenders. In cosmogony the active and passive forces correspond to the male and female principles. The attribute of the universal spiritual principle is to expand and shed, of the material principle to gather and fecundate. These become consciousness and life when brought together. Our planet, like an iceberg, is merely a state of being for a given time, and its present appearance, geological and anthropological, is but transitory and will pass away.

Such are the beliefs and doctrines concerning evolution[1] held by the Oriental scholar, who holds in pity the benighted ignorance of Western so-called science. The book from which they are gathered is sober earnest, and I am asked whether the Buddhist ideas on evolution are in accord with the discoveries of science. The mere statement of the belief, shorn of its mysticism, is a sufficient answer. The importance attached to the numeral 7 seems puerile, and its reason is not easy to discover; it is claimed that the colours of the spectrum and the notes of the musical scale are seven, and that there are seven kingdoms in Nature. There is one seeming scientific fact, however, which, though it has escaped the "adepts," favours so far the belief in evolution by gushes, and is still unexplained. The first appearance of many forms of life on our planet, it is well known, is very sudden. All the groups of Mollusca, and especially in the case of Ammonites, appear at once fully developed and in great variety of species, and never develop into anything higher. So with the Echinodermata, the Crustacea, Insecta, the different orders of fishes, many orders of reptiles, marsupials, ferns, and dicotyledons. All these seem to have been evolutionised in a very sudden manner, and as yet afford no grounds for controverting the Buddhist belief that they are well developed arrivals from other planets.

J. STARKIE GARDNER

THE RAINFALL OF 1884

THE water famine with which the towns of Manchester and Bradford have recently been threatened has served to draw public attention to the fact that the rainfall of the present year has been strikingly deficient. As the extent of the deficiency is, however, little, or at the best imperfectly, realised, a few reliable statistics on the subject may be of more than ordinary interest.

The following table shows, for seventeen places situated

[1] Condensed from Mr. A. P. Sinnett's book, "Esoteric Buddhism" (Trübner and Co.), and as far as possible in his own words.

in various parts of the United Kingdom, the excess or deficit of rain which has occurred during the first, second, and third quarters of the present year, and also similar values for the month of October. In the last column we have the number of months in which the rainfall has been less than the average. It must, however, be explained that these numbers do not necessarily signify consecutive months. The values in the table have been compiled from the Monthly and Weekly Weather Reports issued by the Meteorological Office, and the averages employed have been those for the fifteen years 1866 to 1880.

Recording stations	Excess or deficit					No. of months with deficiency of rain
	January to March	April to June	July to September	October	The whole ten months	
ENGLAND AND WALES	per cent.	per cent.	per cent.	per cent.	per cent.	
York	+33	−54	−18	−70	−22	6
Stonyhurst	+31	−46	−21	−29	−13	7
Blackpool	+41	−32	−14	−45	−2	6
Manchester (Prestwich)	+18	−44	−8	−43	−14	8
Llandudno	+30	−32	−23	−66	−17	6
Leicester	−13	−27	−33	−39	−27	8
Hereford	+4	−19	−29	−70	−23	6
Cirencester	−11	−22	−29	−68	−26	6
Marlborough	+7	−9	−37	−69	−21	6
Oxford	−20	−24	−41	−69	−34	10
London	−28	−37	−39	−62	−38	10
Cambridge	−30	−28	−10	−38	−23	9
SCOTLAND						
Aberdeen	+22	−36	−30	−8	−11	7
Leith	+16	−30	+9	−40	−5	6
Glasgow	+21	−34	+3	−17	−2	6
IRELAND						
Londonderry	+37	−16	−11	+5	+4	5
Dublin	+20	−33	−46	−78	−29	8

An examination of the first column shows that during the first quarter of the year there was a deficiency of rain over the midland and south-eastern counties of England, but an excess in all other parts of the kingdom. The deficiency was most clearly marked in London and its immediate neighbourhood, where the total fall was from 28 to 30 per cent. less than the average. The excess was greatest in the north-west of England and north of Ireland; in most parts of these districts the aggregate was from 30 to 40 per cent. more than the average, but at Blackpool it was as much as 41 per cent. more.

The figures in the next column show that during the second quarter of the year the weather became much drier, and in fact a deficiency of rain was recorded over the entire kingdom. With the exception of Marlborough, where the falling off amounted to only 9 per cent., and Hereford and Londonderry, where it was respectively 19 and 16 per cent., the deficiency varied between 22 and 54 per cent., the lower value being recorded at Cirencester and the higher at York. Upon the whole it appears that the driest weather was experienced in Scotland, the north and north-west of England, and the neighbourhood of London.

From the figures in the third column it would appear that a very similar state of affairs prevailed in the July to September quarter. With the exception of Leith and Glasgow, where there was a trifling excess, every station in the table again had a deficiency of rain, the districts more seriously affected being the western and southern parts of England and the east of Ireland. In the catchment basin, from which the northern towns derive their water-supply, the deficit was not so strongly marked as in other parts of the kingdom, and the serious state of affairs which prevailed during October must therefore be set down to a long continued rather than an exceptionally severe spell of dry weather.

The figures for the month of October, given in the fourth column, show that the fall of rain was then abnormally small. At Londonderry, it is true, there was a slight excess, and at Aberdeen the deficit was not particularly striking, but in other parts of the country the falling off was very considerable. At many of the English stations the total for the month was only one-third of the average, while at Dublin it did not amount to as much as one-fourth. The places least affected were Stonyhurst, Leicester, and Cambridge, where the amount was from 29 to 39 per cent. less than the average.

The general result of all these facts, as given in the fifth column, shows that, with the exception of Londonderry, the rainfall of the past ten months has been less than the average in all parts of the kingdom. At Blackpool, Leith, and Glasgow the deficiency has not been particularly remarkable, but elsewhere, and especially in London and the home counties generally, it has been very great. At Oxford, and also in London, the aggregate fall for the period has been only about two-thirds of the average; and there is consequently no reason to doubt that, unless the weather of the remaining few weeks of 1884 undergoes a very sudden and decided change, the total for the year will be unusually small. Up to the present time (November 18) the rainfall for November has only amounted to one-third of the average for the whole month.

The last column in the table gives the number of months during which the amount of rain has been in defect of the average. At Manchester, Leicester, and Dublin there have been eight such periods, and at Cambridge nine; while at Oxford, and also in London, every month has shown a deficiency.

In endeavouring to compare the above figures with those for previous years, the meteorologist is met at the outset by a very familiar difficulty, namely that of finding reliable information for any very long period. As regards London, however, some valuable statistics are to hand in the rainfall diagram prepared some years ago by Mr. George Dines, F.R.Met.Soc. This diagram, which gives the monthly and annual fall of rain in the London district during the sixty years 1813 to 1872, was compiled with great care and precision partly from Luke Howard's observations, partly from the Cobham journals, and to a large extent from information published or supplied by Mr. Symons. By completing the statistics up to the present time, we get a long and very valuable series of returns, and are also able to obtain a really good and reliable average. In the following table are shown the total amounts of rain in London during some of the driest of the past seventy-one years, together with the percentage difference from an average based on the seventy years'

Years	For the whole year		January to October		No. of months in year with deficiency of rain
	Total fall	Percentage value below average	Total fall	Percentage value below average	
	inches		inches		
1832	19·8	20	16·4	24	9
1837	19·4	22	16·5	24	9
1840	19·4	22	15·5	28	8
1847	17·7	29	13·5	37	11
1850	19·2	23	15·8	27	9
1854	18·7	25	15·3	29	11
1858	17·3	30	15·2	30	8
1864	17·4	30	14·5	33	9
1884	—	—	13·4	38	?

observations 1813 to 1882. In selecting the years, those only have been chosen in which the aggregate fall of rain has been at least 20 per cent. less than the average. The table further gives the total fall and difference from the average for the first ten months in each of these years, and in the last column will be found the number of months during which the rainfall has been deficient.

From the first two columns it appears that the years 1858 and 1864 claim the distinction of being the driest of all, the total falls being only 17·3 inches and 17·4 inches respectively, or 30 per cent. less than the average. Next comes 1847, with a total fall of 17·7 inches and a deficit amounting to 29 per cent. As regards the period of ten months, the present year has been drier than any of the past seventy-one, but in the year 1847 the rainfall was nearly as deficient. In the case of the other dry years the aggregate fall for the ten months was at least an inch more than in either 1847 or 1884, and in the years 1832 and 1837 it was three inches more. On comparing the returns for the past seventy-one years, one more striking fact is brought to light. Out of the whole series there has been only one occasion on which the deficiency of rain has continued through a greater number of months than it has this year. This long period of drought commenced in November 1846 and continued until November 1847, and there were consequently no fewer than thirteen consecutive months during which the rainfall in London was below the average. FREDK. J. BRODIE

ANCIENT CHINESE GEOGRAPHY

NOT long since the Chinese Ambassador to England, in the course of a remarkable speech at Folkestone, twitted European scholars with the labours which they freely bestowed on the study of extinct nations and races, while the still existing civilisation of China, hardly inferior in antiquity to that of any other race, received but scant attention. Whether the charge is well founded or not we cannot pretend to decide here; but there is, we believe, no doubt that there is still in Chinese literature a vast mine, into which but few and trifling shafts have been sunk. The wealth of the geographical literature of China, for instance, is known to but a few scholars, and one of these, M. de Rosny of Paris, in a work recently published on the Oriental nations known to the ancient Chinese, says that, among all the literatures of the East, that of the Chinese probably contains the most valuable information for the study of Asiatic ethnography, for a crowd of nations which have disappeared, or which are unknown in Europe, have been the subject of substantial notices by the Chinese, outside which, probably, we know nothing of their political history or of the annals of their civilisation. M. de Rosny's work, which is published by the Ethnographical Society of Paris, is devoted to the translation and piecing together of extracts from old topographical works respecting various countries known to the Chinese in ancient times. Much of the labour in a work of this kind must necessarily be devoted to identifying the places mentioned. In many cases this has not even now been satisfactorily done. Thus, the origin of the name *Ta-tsin*, applied to the Roman Empire, is wrapped in obscurity. The latest theory is that it is the phonetical representation of Tarsus in Cilicia, whence Antoninus sent ambassadors to Bactria, so that the name of Tarsus was the first echo which China received of Rome. But although there is much in M. de Rosny's volume which can only interest the technical Sinologue, yet one can gather from the text, as well as from the maps, a fairly accurate idea of the knowledge of geography possessed by the Chinese in early times. Of the maps, which are nine in number, one contains the Indian Archipelago as known to the Chinese, and six others Indo-China and Malaysia, according to Chinese geographers, at various periods from the twelfth century before our era down to 906 after Christ.

The Chinese, then, according to M. de Rosny, have from the most remote times occupied themselves with the topography of the districts through which they migrated, and have studied the geography of the neighbouring countries. Yu the Great, who reigned in the basin of the Yellow River twenty-two centuries before our era, was a veritable geographer. The *Shu-king*, which contains an account of the public works executed under his direction, contains the first rudiments of Chinese ethnography, as Genesis does that of the Jews. A geographical work which is probably not less ancient is the *Shau-hai-king*. It is at least as old as the Choo dynasty—1134 B.C.—and some Chinese authors even carry its date back to the twenty-seventh century before Christ. In a book of rites of the Choo dynasty just referred to, it is stated that twenty-four officials were specially charged with the administration of a department for national geography. It is, however, to the historians that we have to look for accounts of the various peoples which early submitted to the preponderating influence of the Middle Kingdom. The nomad hordes of the north and west, and the States then in process of formation in the south, all entered into relations with the Chinese. The ambassadors whom they sent to the Court brought with them information as to the people they represented, which was duly consigned to the archives of the Empire by its historiographers. The officials sent by the Chinese in return to the peoples about them contributed their quota of geographical and ethnographical facts, until ultimately the documents on the subject became so numerous that native scholars judged it well to summarise them into one great work. It was thus that the great encyclopædia associated with the name of Ma-touan-lin was formed. Its first publication was in 1322.

The limits of the world as known to the early Chinese are stated by M. de Rosny to be: in the north, Southern Siberia and Kamchatka; in the east, the Kurile Islands, Japan, the Loochoo Archipelago, and that of the Philippines; in the south-east, Borneo and Celebes; to the south, Java, Sumatra, and Ceylon; to the west, Arabia, Persia, and the States bordering on the Caspian. Some scholars have professed to discover the Roman Empire under the name Ta-tsin, and America, which a mission of Shamans are said to have discovered in the fifth century, under that of Fousang. In the work before us the writer gives, from Ma-touan-lin and other sources, the statements of the early Chinese writers with regard to the various races inhabiting these regions; but he warns us more than once that these ancient documents, though of great value in teaching us about peoples little known to us, must be used with the utmost reserve, and only after undergoing a searching examination and criticism. The present instalment of the work deals only with the races to the south, south-east, and east, such as the Japanese, Ainos, Siamese, &c. Its value as an ethnographical and geographical work can only be known to the one or two living Europeans who have made a special study of the subject; but it places beyond doubt the fact that students of the ethnography and historical geography of the Far East will have to reckon with the works of their remote Chinese predecessors before their knowledge can be regarded as complete.

COLOUR

M. M. A. ROSENSTIEHL has made an interesting contribution to the science of colour in the form of a *brochure* recently published under the auspices of the Société Industrielle of Rouen, and entitled "Les premiers Eléments de la Science de la Couleur." In this treatise, which is a model of brevity and of demonstrative clearness, the author shows that the empirical methods which have hitherto prevailed amongst colourists of all classes are radically imperfect. These methods are

based entirely upon the study of colouring-*matters*, and ignore altogether the fundamental distinction between colour as a property of such matter, and colour in the physiological sense of a particular affection of the organ of sight. It is to the study of colour by means of colour-sensations that our attention is directed; and it is to the synthesis and analysis of the retinal impressions that we are to look for exact views on the relationships of the colours. The distinction in question once stated is so obvious that the author's claim for recognition of the new system or method as the necessary complement of the older will be at once admitted. But the author's aim is not so much to obtain the intellectual assent of those accustomed to the propositions of abstract science, as rather to convince colour-artists of every denomination of the direct utility of the method—to show them, in fact, that it supplies the means of solving problems in colouring with rapidity and certainty, and furnishes valuable criteria with which to strengthen the æsthetic judgment.

The chief obstacles to the general acceptance of the method lie in the erroneous views which underlie the well-worn proverb, "Il ne faut pas disputer des gouts et des couleurs." While, in opposition to these tenets, the author contends for the admission of more positive views, and of the experimental method upon which they are based, he very distinctly disclaims the idea of substituting taste and artistic inspiration by a set of mathematical rules. "Taste," he says, "must ever remain the supreme judge of the æsthetic value of any combination of colours."

It is true that the artistic instinct confers upon its possessor a comparative independence of the methodical selection of colour; but this instinct, or intuitive perception of harmony, is by no means an unerring guide, nor without the influence of prevailing ideas. Most of these are of necessity incomplete, and many are demonstrably false: and the artistic instinct therefore needs development and correction. In the abstract which we shall give of the author's treatise, we shall give due prominence to the evidences of these shortcomings.

The elaboration of the empirical system still prevalent we owe to Chevreul. It is based entirely upon the study of colouring-matters, and its scales of colour-relationships are purely arbitrary. The theoretical treatment of colour, on the other hand, has been chiefly, and indeed necessarily, confined to the investigations of the spectrum. Early in this century, Young, the father of our modern science of light, formulated a theory of colour-sensation, a theory, that is to say, which co-ordinated the physical phenomena of coloured light with the phenomena of its appreciation by the eye. Colour, we know, is the expression of wave-length; the sense of colour was referred by Young to the agency of distinctive retinal nerves, each endowed with the capacity of selective excitation by rays of certain wave-lengths. He recognised, further, three primary divisions of wave-lengths, corresponding to red, blue, and yellow light. The later researches of Maxwell have given results confirmatory of this view, and additional testimony to the wonderful insight of this great philosopher. But we are not concerned at this moment with the theories and speculations of pure science so much as with the more practical question of the advantage to the colourist of correcting impressions derived from the empirical study of pigments, by the study of colour in the light of their main results and consequences. A very praiseworthy effort to bridge over the gap which had so long existed between the science and the art of colouring has been made by Prof. von Bezold in the publication of his work on the "Science of Colour." This excellent treatise, in spite of its translation into English, has, we think, not received the attention in this country which it deserves; this is accounted for in part by its publication in America, but an equally powerful cause is to be found in the conservatism of those to whom it appeals, in the jealousy of invasion by the forces of a new method of a territory rendered sacred by inheritance.

In both treatises considerable importance is attached to the reduction of the various terms in conventional use to the accurate expression of the ideas involved in the scientific investigation of colour. This is a task of considerable difficulty.

M. Rosenstiehl finds the French terms especially difficult to handle. The three principal substantives, *nuance*, *teinte*, and *ton*, he assigns—though with a confession that his choice is somewhat arbitrary—to the three variables respectively which determine a colour, viz. kind or quality (*espèce*), intensity, and purity. In this choice he admits that the terms *ton* and *nuance* may be said to have an inverse relationship to that which they occupy in musical language, but at the same time justifies the selection as most in accordance with present usage, pointing out, moreover, that the analogy between the ear and the eye is so slender that it is not to be sought in the terms which express their sensations. The translator of Bezold finds himself called upon to accommodate himself in his treatment of the subject to the use of the terms hue, tint, shade. To avoid prolixity we give as the result of a careful consideration of the terminology of both authors the following definitions of essential terms:—

(1) Colour in the sense of wave-length must be denominated by *hue*.

(2) The degree of brightness (French, *intensité*) we may express by *tint*.

(3) The degree of purity, *i.e.* non-admixture with white, may be rendered by *tone*.

It is obvious that (2) and (3) are, in regard to the ordinary conditions of vision, interdependent variables, for, as the intensity or illumination increases, the proportion of white increases.

It will be found on trial that, by means of these three substantives, the essential factors of any colour may be expressed. It is clear that habit will prevent our specialising the use of the word colour; but we may limit its use scientifically to the general expression of primary distinctions, reserving the term hue to indicate specially wave-length and variations in wave-length. There still remains, however, the important word *shade* to dispose of, amongst the substantives in conventional use, as well as the numerous adjectives with which they have been conjoined.

The more general use of *shade* has been to express the idea contained in (3), *i.e.* the toning of colours by addition or removal of white, and this use may be retained. At the same time, in order that our nomenclature may be precise, we must obviously avoid such expressions as a "red *shade* of orange, using instead "red-orange hue," or even "red hue of orange," or again, "dark *shade* of green," meaning thereby a green of medium tone perhaps, but of low illumination; the correct expression here would be "a green, a *dark* or *low tint*" (*couleur foncée*).

The term *couleur saturée* is applied by M. Rosenstiehl to a pure colour, or the corresponding visual sensation: such colours are obviously never met with in the arts; those which approximate to saturation he terms *couleurs franches*. These adjectives are perhaps best translated by *integral* and *full* respectively.

The spectral hues are *integral*; *full* colours or tones are those which give the impression of quantity of colour.

The term *gamut* or *scale* is used in two senses: first, to indicate a graduated succession of tones, *i.e.* the gradations of a given hue through its several tones to white; and second, a graduated succession of tints, or the gradations of a given hue through its several tints to black.

The *æsthetic gamut* or *scale* is the term applied by the author to graduated modifications of one and the same colour-*sensation*; its special significance will become

more apparent as we proceed in our examination of M. Rosenstiehl's work.

For the investigation of colours, or rather of colouring-matters, the author employs concentric disks, which are kept in rapid rotation by mechanical means of the simplest character. These disks may be coloured uniformly or in sectors of various hues; the well-known result of the rapid rotation is in the latter case the mixture of the sensations of light, then fusion into a single uniform coloured impression. In the study of the degradation of colours by admixture, it is necessary to have both a black and a white. The white is obtained by means of precipitated barium sulphate applied to a suitable surface; the black is obtained by means of a small chamber before which the disks rotate, this chamber being lined with black velvet. The admixture of black is then produced by cutting from the disk a sector; the disk being then placed before this chamber adds the sensation of black to that of colour in the proportion of the size of the sector removed to that of the disk. A special apparatus is described for measuring the sectors of the disks, as is also the very necessary instrument by which the disks are cut with or without the simultaneous removal of sectors.

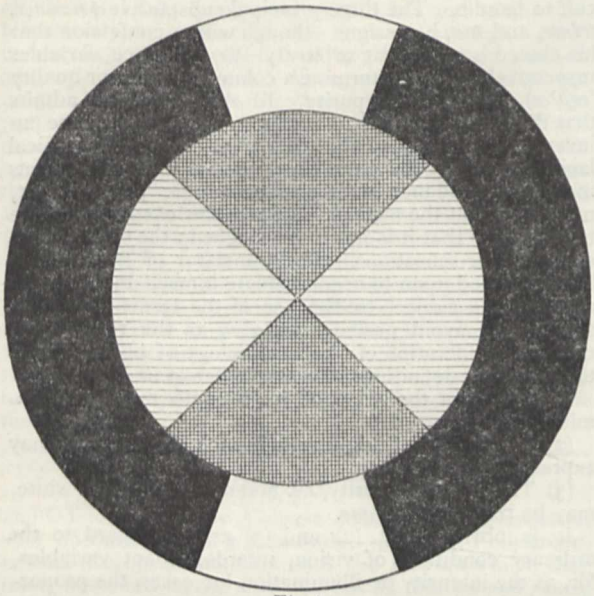

Fig. 1.

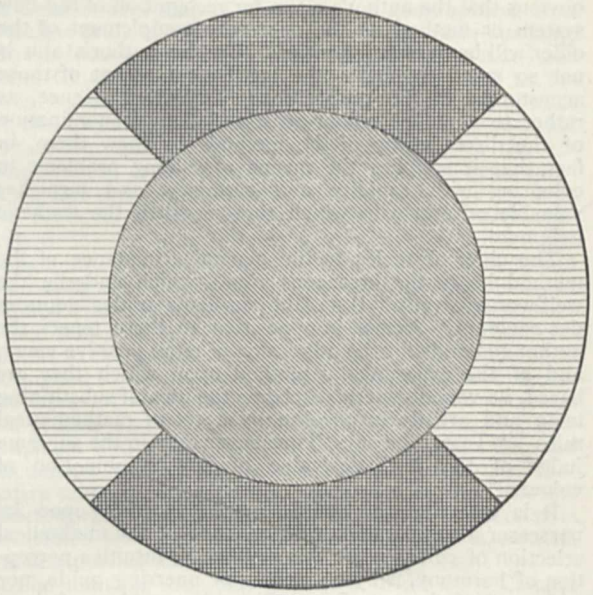

Fig. 3.

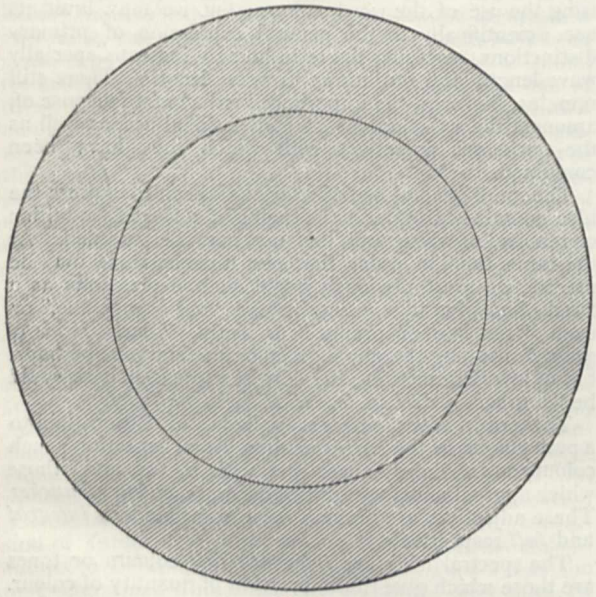

Fig. 2.

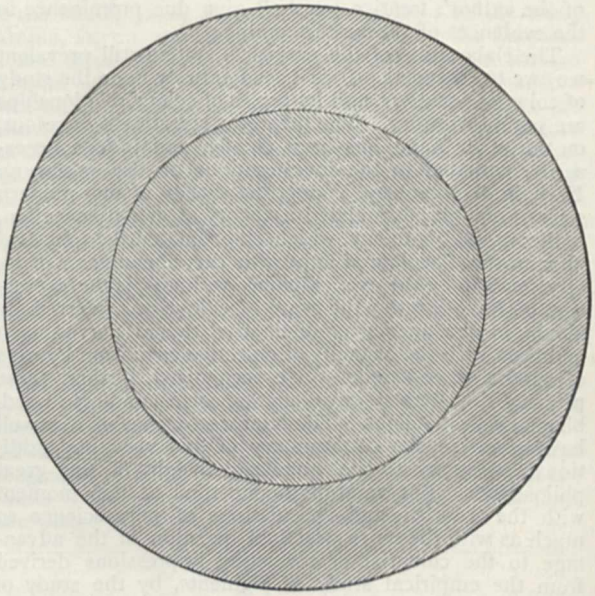

Fig. 4.

The author's experimental results are given in a series of coloured plates, to which descriptive notes and explanations are attached. Some of these we proceed to reproduce. Plate 1 in the book is a study of complementary colours or hues. The superposed disks are represented both at rest (Fig. 1) and in motion (Fig. 2); the mechanical details, such as the attachment of the disks to the re-

volving axis, are suppressed for the sake of clearness. Under the condition of rapid rotation both disks appear to be coloured a uniform grey.

Thus in a single experiment is demonstrated (1) that blue and yellow are complementary colours, (2) that particular tones of blue and yellow produce by mixture of retinal impressions a white of low tint—in fact, by measuring the sectors composing the outer annulus, a white of 2-9ths the intensity of that of the annulus, which is produced by barium sulphate. Other binary combinations will be found to produce similar results, *e.g.* red and blue-green, violet and yellow-green. In fact given any hue, a second may be formed by means of this apparatus, such that the combination of the retinal impressions proper to each shall produce the sensation of white, the degree of this sensation varying with the tone of the constituents of the combination.

From the experimental investigation of complementary hues the definition of intensity is readily deduced. In the sectors of the plate we notice equality of area. Had we taken a fuller yellow of the same hue, the grey produced with the blue sector of equal area would have shown a yellow cast, and to restore the neutral grey or low white we must increase the area of the blue at the expense of the yellow. The relative intensity of complementary hues is thus defined to be the reverse of the sectors necessary to produce neutrality of hue.

The use of the particular yellow pigment of Fig. 1, coloured in the original chromate of lead, is dictated by the lowness of tints of all our blue pigments; the purest of our ultramarines, smalts, and aniline blues do not possess one-third the intensity of chromate of lead; and the same is true of the greens and violets.

The study of complementary colours leads directly to the discussion of the basis of this phenomenon, whether, *i.e.* it is physical or physiological? It is in this department of the subject that confusion of ideas has longest persisted. Although it was pointed out by M. Plateau as long ago as 1829 that the mixture of colouring-*matters* and of colour-*sensations* are distinct phenomena, the classical experiment of Muschenbroek, dating from 1762, is still retained by lecturers and text-books, together with erroneous interpretations. Newton himself fell into the same error in his discussion of the recombination of the spectral colours. The author puts the matter in the clearest light by pointing out that there are a number of mixtures producing the sensation of white light,—that psychological identity, therefore, is no criterion of physical identity.

The distinction is perhaps most clearly demonstrated by a plate of figures representing the superposed disks at rest and in motion. The outer annulus is composed of alternate and equal sectors of blue and yellow, the inner disk being coloured with a mixture of blue and yellow pigments in equal proportions. The distinction in appearance produced by motion affords the clearest demonstration of the point in question (Figs. 3 and 4).

The next portion of the treatise is devoted to the study of mixtures of colours, *i.e.* colour-sensations, which are not complementary. The more important results are those obtained in the so-called "degradation" of pigments. Such pigments, for instance, when applied to a white surface, will be more or less mixed with white, *i.e.* the sensations of white will be more or less conjoined with that of the pigment hue, as the quantity of pigment per unit of surface is less. The author reproduces series of such tones, in the case of Prussian blue and chrome yellow, together with their respective complementaries. In both cases it is found that the progression is accompanied by an alteration in hue, the fuller tones being distinctly redder. It is clear, therefore, that to construct a scale or gamut of tones with any given pigment, in order that this shall have an æsthetic or standard value, each tone must be referred to the same complementary, and the tones due to the pigment alone will need correction in accordance with their demonstrated imperfections, *i.e.* departures from the standards determined by the method of physiological comparison.

The author has very carefully compared such scales of tones with the purely arbitrary scales of M. Chevreul, and has found the differences to be considerable. Such indeed might be inferred indirectly from M. Chevreul's definition of "the tones of a colour"; they are, according to him, "the different degrees of intensity of which a colour is susceptible according as the *substance* by which it is produced (*représenté*) is pure or mixed with white."

A comparison of colour combinations harmonised according to the two systems, will show the æsthetic superiority of the physiological method, judged, that is, by the much abused arbiter, *taste*. It is unnecessary further to insist upon the practical importance of such conclusions. It will doubtless have been already appreciated on the part of the reader that the confusion of ideas which it is the object of this treatise to eliminate cannot have remained without influence upon the education of the eye; nor can he fail to see that the training involved in the practice of the author's experimental method is a valuable æsthetic discipline, as well as a precise study of colour relationships.

We have attempted to give an idea of the difference in appearance of the disks by lines on a white surface.

THE LATE FERDINAND VON HOCHSTETTER

THE numerous friends and admirers of the late Dr. Ferdinand von Hochstetter in Europe and Australasia have to thank his old associate, Dr. Julius von Haast, for a graceful tribute paid to his memory, which takes the form of a sympathetic biographical notice published towards the end of last August at Christchurch, New Zealand. The memoir, which is accompanied by two portraits, from a lithograph and a photograph showing the distinguished naturalist in his twenty-ninth and fiftieth years respectively, is taken for his early career partly from an account in Brockhaus's "Conversations Lexicon," and for the period since the two friends first met at Auckland, N.Z., in 1858, from Hochstetter's writings and private correspondence. Born on April 30, 1829, at Esslingen, Wurtemberg, the future naturalist was at first intended for the Church by his father, Prof. Christian Ferdinand Hochstetter, chief pastor of that town, and himself a botanist of no mean repute. But in the seminary of Maulbronn near Tübingen, his love of science, implanted in the paternal home, grew so strong that, besides theology, he applied himself with great zeal to the study of mineralogy, palæontology, and geology. After taking his degree of Doctor Philosophiæ in 1852 he seems to have finally made choice of a scientific career, and in 1853 found employment on the Geological Survey of the Austrian Empire, soon after receiving the appointment of Chief Geologist for the Bohemian Section. His reports on the geology of the Boehmer Wald were so highly appreciated that he was selected in 1857 as geologist of the *Novara* Expedition, which brought him to Auckland on December 22, 1858. Here his services were at once secured by the Government, and with the reluctant consent of the Commodore of the *Novara* he accepted an engagement of eight months to examine the geology, physical features, and natural history of New Zealand. During this period he made extensive topographical and geological surveys of the provinces of Auckland and Nelson, the results of which were embodied in his standard work, "Neu Seeland," published in 1863, followed in 1867 by the greatly enlarged English edition dedicated to the Queen. Soon after his return to Europe he was appointed Professor of Geology and Mineralogy in the Technical University of Vienna, and after a visit of some months to England in 1860 he settled permanently in the Austrian capital, where, in April 1861, he married

Georgina Bengough, daughter of the English director of the Vienna gas-works. A visit in 1863 to Vesuvius was followed next year by the appearance of the "Geology of New Zealand" and of the "Palæontology of New Zealand," both of great scientific value, and forming his main contributions to the extensive series of the *Novara* publications.

About the same time Hochstetter was commissioned to explore the lacustrine basins in Carinthia and other parts of Austria, where he discovered numerous remains of kitchen-middens and prehistoric lake dwellings similar to those found in the lakes of Switzerland. In 1867 he was elected President of the Imperial Geographical Society of Vienna, a position which he held till compelled by his failing health to resign it in 1882. He now commenced the publication of a whole series of geological and mineralogical text-books for higher schools, which were introduced into many parts of the Austrian Empire, and one of which, on crystallography, was especially distinguished by its clearness and thorough grasp of the subject. Time was now also found to complete his geological essays on the Cape of Good Hope, the Island of St. Paul, the Nicobars, and Java, for the *Novara* series, and also to publish an interesting account of the great earthquake and sea-wave of 1868, in the southern hemisphere, including a calculation of the mean depth of the Pacific deduced from the known velocity of the waves across that ocean. The appointment of Consulting Geologist to the Turkish Great Railway Company brought him in 1869 to the Balkan Peninsula, the results of which journey soon after appeared, partly in the *Proceedings* of the Vienna Geographical Society, partly in the *Year-Book* of the Imperial Geological Institute, and in *Petermann's Mittheilungen*. For these important geological surveys he was decorated by the Sultan with the order of the Mejidié. Notwithstanding the loss of his eldest daughter Julia in 1871, and a chronic affection of the throat, his scientific writings and surveys were now continued with unflagging zeal, including a handbook of geology which formed part of the "Allgemeine Erdkunde"; an atlas of twenty-four geological pictorial views, with letterpress; much harassing work in connection with the Viennese International Exhibition of 1873; and lastly, an arduous journey of over two months in the summer of 1872 to the Urals and Siberia as consulting geologist to a large mining association. Then came his honourable appointment as teacher of science to Crown Prince Rudolph in 1872, followed in 1875 by his election to the Rectorship of the Technical University, and in 1876 to the position of Imperial Intendant (Chief Curator) of the Imperial Austrian Museum of Zoology, Ethnology, and Natural History. He had hoped to witness the completion of this magnificent building, which has been in progress for many years; but, although it was nearly ready for occupation as early as the summer of 1881, he did not live to see it opened to the public. In the interests of the Museum he visited Denmark, Holland, Belgium, and North Germany in 1876, and was soon after busily engaged superintending excavations in Carinthia, Bohemia, and other parts of the empire, which resulted in the discovery of rich palæontological and archæological treasures, prehistoric burial-places, skeletons of the extinct cave bear, remains of fossil man, a large number of bronze ornaments, weapons, and implements. Towards the end of 1879 his health began to decline. He suffered much about this time from pains in the legs and arms, accompanied by sleeplessness and other symptoms which later developed into an incurable attack of diabetes, terminating on July 21 last a laborious and blameless life devoted entirely to the advancement of the natural sciences. Indefatigable to the last, he found time in the midst of his multifarious labours to issue a report in 1883 on some Mexican antiquities discovered by him in the Ambrose Collection in Tyrol, and which had originally been sent by Fernando Cortez to the Emperor Charles the Fifth. His last contribution to science was a paper read in February of the present year before the Vienna Geological Institute, giving an instructive account of the celebrated mineralogical collection now removed to the New Imperial Museum. Hochstetter's life may thus be described as an epitome of the history of the natural sciences in Austria during the last quarter of a century. Dr. von Haast's appreciative memoir concludes with the appropriate lines from Goethe:—

"Fest steh' dein Sarg in wohlgegönnter Ruh;
Mit lockrer Erde deckt ihn leise zu,
Und sanfter als des Lebens, liege dann
Auf dir des Grabes Bürde, guter Mann!"

NOTES

Prof. G. H. Darwin, of Cambridge, and Prof. Daniel Oliver, of the Royal Gardens, Kew, have been nominated by the Council of the Royal Society for the award of the two Royal Medals conferred by the Crown. The Copley Medal is to be given to Prof. Carl Ludwig, of Leipzig, in recognition of the great services which he has rendered to physiological science. Prof. Tobias Robertus Thalén, of Upsala, is to have the Rumford Medal for his spectroscopic researches; and the Davy Medal is awarded to Prof. A. W. H. Kolbe, also of Leipzig, for his researches in the isomerism of alcohols. The two Leipzig Professors are Foreign Members of the Society. Prof. Darwin and Prof. Oliver are Fellows, the former well known for his mathematical investigations on the rigidity of the earth and on tides, the latter for his investigation of the classification of plants and for the important services which he has rendered to taxonomic botany.

In speaking recently at the Academy of Music in Philadelphia to a large audience on the wave-theory of light, Sir William Thomson made the following remarks on the employment of the metrical system:—"You, in this country, are subjected to the British insularity in weights and measures; you use the foot, and inch, and yard. I am obliged to use that system, but I apologise to you for doing so, because it is so inconvenient, and I hope all Americans will do everything in their power to introduce the French metrical system. I hope the evil action performed by an English Minister whose name I need not mention, because I do not wish to throw obloquy on any one, may be remedied. He abrogated a useful rule, which for a short time was followed, and which I hope will soon be again enjoined, that the French metrical system be taught in all our national schools. I do not know how it is in America. The school system seems to be very admirable, and I hope the teaching of the metrical system will not be let slip in the American schools any more than the use of the globes. I say this seriously. I do not think any one knows how seriously I speak of it. I look upon our English system as a wickedly brain-destroying piece of bondage under which we suffer. The reason why we continue to use it is the imaginary difficulty of making a change and nothing else; but I do not think in America that any such difficulty should stand in the way of adopting so splendidly useful a reform."

It is stated that Lord Rayleigh has resigned the Cavendish Professorship of Experimental Physics. The electors are Sir W. Thomson, Sir William (Justice) Grove, Profs. Liveing, Stokes, Darwin, R. B. Clifton (Oxford), and Stuart, and Mr. W. D. Niven.

Dr. Thomas Wright, F.R.S., of Cheltenham, died on the night of Monday last. This sad announcement will be received with much regret by all who take interest in the progress of geology and palæontology. We hope to give some account of the deceased naturalist next week.

THE presentation of prizes and certificates to the students of the Finsbury Technical College, and of the South London School of Technical Art, and also to the candidates at the Technological Examinations held this year in London will take place at the Fishmongers' Hall on the 4th proximo at 7.30 p.m. The Lord Mayor will preside, and the prizes will be presented by the Lord Chancellor.

NEWS from Japan states that Prof. Milne, of Tokio University, is about to establish a subterranean observatory at Jacashima, a very deep coal-mine not far from Nagasaki. The object of this observatory is to determine what connection exists between the earthquake phenomena and meteorological phenomena belonging to the earth's surface, such as storms, barometrical pressure, tides, tidal waves, &c.

M. HANSEN-BLANGSTED contributes to *L'Exploration* an interesting article on the struggle between trees in the Danish forests. The chief combatants are the beech and the birch, the former being everywhere successful in its invasions. The paper refers especially to the district of Silkeborg in the heart of Jutland. Forests composed wholly of birch are now only found in sterile sandy tracts; everywhere else the trees are mixed, and wherever the soil is favourable the beech rapidly drives out the birch. The latter loses its branches at the touch of the beech, and devotes all its strength to its upper part, where it towers above the beech. It may live long in this way, but it succumbs ultimately in the fight—of old age if of nothing else, for the life of the birch in Denmark is shorter than that of the beech. The writer believes that light is the cause of the superiority of the latter, for it has a greater development of its branches than the birch, which is more open, and thus allows the rays of the sun to pass through to the soil below, while the tufted, bushy top of the beech retains them, and thus preserves a deep shade at its base. Hardly any young plants can grow under the beech except its own shoots; and while the beech can flourish under the shade of the birch, the latter dies immediately under the beech. The birch has only been saved from total extermination by the facts that it had possession of the Danish forests long before the beech ever reached that country, and that certain districts are unfavourable to the growth of the latter. But wherever the soil has been enriched by the decomposition of the leaves of the birch the battle begins. The birch still flourishes on the borders of lakes and other marshy places, where its enemy cannot exist. In the same way in the forests of Zeeland the fir forests are disappearing before the beech. Left to themselves the firs are soon replaced by the beech. The struggle between the latter and the oak is longer and more stubborn, for the branches and foliage of the oak are thicker, and offer much resistance to the passage of light. The oak also has great longevity, but sooner or later it, too, succumbs, because it cannot develop in the shadow of the beech. The earliest forests of Denmark were mainly composed of aspens, with which the birch was apparently associated; gradually the soil was raised and the climate grew milder; then the fir grew and formed large forests. This tree ruled for centuries, and then ceded the first place to the holm oak, which is now giving way to the beech. Aspen, birch, fir, oak, and beech appear to be the steps in the struggle for the survival of the fittest among the forest trees of Denmark.

WE learn from *Science* that the U.S. Signal Service is about to undertake the publication of a general bibliography of meteorology and allied topics (such as earthquakes, terrestrial magnetism, and meteors), and requests from the writers of all countries a complete list of their contributions to the literature of these subjects, including the titles of all separate works, papers, and published observations. The number of titles already on hand is about 35,000. Especial attention is invited to the importance of full titles, with details of size, and place and date of publication. References to periodicals should be on this pattern :—

"Quetelet, Lambert Adolphe Jacques,
Sur les orages du mois d'Avril, 1865.
Bruxelles, *Acad. Sci. Bull.* XIX., 1865, 535-537."

Correspondence should be addressed to the Chief Signal Officer, U.S. Army, Washington.

ERMANNO LOESCHER of Turin has just issued the fifty-first catalogue of the literary treasures contained in his "Libreria Antiquaria." The present number is devoted chiefly to geography, travel, and antiquities, and the contents are conveniently arranged under four heads: America, Africa, China with Japan, Geography and Travels. Amongst the entries, which number 429 altogether, the bibliophile will find much to interest him.

HERR J. OLSEN, a Norwegian botanist, who has been studying the fungi in the vicinity of Bergen during the summer, has found a *Gomphidius gracilis* at Hovland. This variety has never before been found in Scandinavia, and belongs to England. Of other varieties new to Norway which he has discovered may be mentioned *Rhizopogon luteolus* and a *Boletus*. The flora of Tysnæs Island is stated to be identical with that of England.

THE following letter has been received by Prof. E. Ray Lankester, F.R.S., the Secretary of the Marine Biological Association, announcing a donation from the Royal Society in aid of the fund (now approaching 5000*l.*) which is being raised for the purpose of building and fitting a marine laboratory and experimental aquarium at Plymouth :—"Royal Society, Burlington House, London, W., Nov. 1, 1884. Sir,—Your letter relative to the Marine Biological Association was laid before the Council at their meeting on Thursday last, and I am directed to inform you that the Council have voted the sum of 250*l.* from the 'Donation Fund' in aid of the 'Marine Biological Association,' as a token of their sympathy with an effort which, they have every reason to believe, will contribute largely to the progress of biological science in this country.—I beg to remain, yours obediently, M. FOSTER, Sec. R.S."

AMONG other interesting papers in the *Proceedings* of the Perthshire Society of Natural Science for 1883-84 we notice: dimorphism in oak-gall makers and in their galls, by Prof. J. W. Trail, F.L.S.; evolution and some things said regarding it, by Rev. G. Milroy, D.D., in which a "creative" and "spontaneous" view of the origin of life is discussed with studied dispassionateness. We are glad to observe the flourishing state in which this Society seems to be.

PROF. DE LACOUPERIE is bringing to a conclusion a work on the aboriginal and non-Chinese races of China, which will be published shortly by Messrs. Field and Tuer. It will deal with one section of the learned author's researches into the *origines Sinicæ*, in which he has been engaged for several years, and which have been so successful in some important respects. One of the most curious results of the work will be to demonstrate the real youth of the Chinese as a homogeneous and powerful people. It is based wholly on original researches into Chinese literature, and this is, we believe, the first time that the ethnology of early China has been studied from the works of the Chinese themselves, or indeed at all. The work deals with the various tribes which have successively occupied China proper, and which are intimately connected with the Indo-Chinese races, the latter being in fact the modern representatives of the early occupants of China. The originality of the subject, as well as of the sources from which it is treated, should render the volume one of great scientific and general interest. The work was originally prepared as an introduction to Mr. Colquhoun's new book "Among the Shans," but it gradually

grew to such an extent under its author's hands that it became too large for such a purpose, and this, as well as its independent value, rendered it desirable to have a separate publication. Mr. Colquhoun's volume, which is on the point of publication, will, however, contain an introduction by Prof. de Lacouperie on the cradle of the Shan race, which, curiously enough, he places far away on the borders of Shensi.

PROF. ENRICO CAPORALI continues to develop the scheme formulated in the first number of *La Nuova Scienza* with great vigour and learning. The third number, for the quarter ending September 1884, shows even greater energy and grasp of the subject than its predecessors. The editor's views are now quite clear—opposition alike to the two extremes of materialism and dogmatism, and the establishment of a new philosophy reconciling the subjective methods of the old schools with the objective standpoint of the new. Evolution in the Darwinian sense is accepted without reserve, and the germs of life are sought in the very lowest forms of matter—the crystal, the molecule, and the atom itself. Thus evolution receives its broadest expression, and begins from the very first as well for the vital force as for crude matter itself. The first genesis of psychis is in fact referred to a unity arising out of the fusion of lower chemical species in a higher chemical species, which forms the connecting link between *chemical* and biological psychogenesis. In it individuals begin to react in such a way that the opposition between subject and object may almost be said to have already begun. The theory is ingenious and skilfully worked out; but the unusual interest taken on the Continent in this periodical is probably due mainly to the remarkable learning, clearness, and consistency with which the editor's views are advocated. In the present number the chief articles are:—Modern Italian Thought, the Pythagoric Formula of Cosmic Evolution, and the French Anti-Clerical Evolution.

A HIGH-LEVEL meteorological station has been recently established by Mr. Wragge on Mount Lofty, about 2200 feet high, and ten miles from Adelaide, South Australia. With Mr. Wragge's great energy and ability valuable results will doubtless be obtained from this new high-level station in connection with the excellent meteorological service of the colony.

IN the Report on Weights and Measures presented to Parliament by the Board of Trade, under the Weights and Measures Act, 1878, Sir T. H. Farrer remarks in reference to the metric system, that an opinion has been expressed by the Board of Trade that the time has now arrived when this country might with advantage join the International Convention on Metric Standards, under proper conditions; provided such a course is not to be taken as an adhesion, on the part of the United Kingdom, to the metric system. These observations appear to be intended as a reply to the eighth resolution of the Conference of the International Geodetical Association, held in Rome in October last, which expresses a hope that, if the rest of the world accepts the meridian of Greenwich for the unification of longitude, England will find in this agreement an additional motive for taking a new step in favour of the unification of weights and measures, by adhering to the Metrical Convention of May 20, 1875.

TWO years ago Prof. O. Sars, of Christiania, was given some mud taken from the bottom of a lake in Australia by Dr. Lumholtz, a Norwegian geologist. Recently he has made experiments with the same in small aquaria, and has succeeded in producing from the dried mud quite a fauna of Australian freshwater invertebrates.

ACCORDING to *L'Exploration*, Commander de Amezaga, of the Italian navy, has handed to the Ministry of Marine at Rome the collections made during the recent voyage of the corvette *Carracciolo*. The voyage lasted more than two years and a half, during which time she touched at Montevideo, Valparaiso, Callao, Guayaquil, Sydney, Singapore, and Aden. Important hydrographical investigations were made in the Straits of Magellan and on the coasts of Fiji, Tahiti, and among the islands of the South Pacific. The collections relate principally to anthropology, ethnology, the fauna and flora of Peru and Australia, Peruvian pottery, mineralogy, and zoology. In the Anthropological Section there are three Peruvian mummies in perfect preservation, although they probably date back a thousand years before the Spanish Conquest. They are distinguished from the Egyptian mummies by being in a crouching position instead of at full length. In the Ethnological Section there is a curious specimen of Carib art found at the summit of Mont Cristi, near Guayaquil.

THE *Times* announces the death of the celebrated naturalist and traveller, Dr. Alfred Brehm, in his fifty-fifth year. The son of a Thuringian ornithologist, he devoted much of his own attention to the study of birds, but all animal nature was his province, and his observations and researches are recorded in volumes of high importance and value. While still a very young man he spent several years in the north-east districts of Africa, and later in life undertook frequent scientific tours in distant lands, including a visit to Siberia and Turkestan. In 1862 he accompanied the Duke of Coburg-Gotha to Abyssinia, and in 1877 acted as scientific guide to Prince Rudolph in the country of the Danube. The deceased was for some years Director of the Zoological Gardens at Hamburg.

A MAGNIFICENT meteor was observed at Mülheim, on the Rhine, on the evening of October 30 last. Its direction was from north-east to south-west, its duration two to three seconds. While visible its progress was accompanied by a hissing sound, and it finally exploded with a loud report and brilliant blue-reddish light, leaving a bright trail behind which was still visible half a minute later.

TWO prehistoric tombs have been recently opened near the villages of Latdorf and Gröna near Bernburg (Germany), under the direction of Prof. Virchow. Three skeletons, an urn, a comb, a bronze ring, a flint knife, and half a horseshoe were found. The excavations have now been continued under Dr. Fischer's direction, and more objects brought to light, among others curious necklaces made of the teeth of bears, wolves, and foxes. The age of the tombs is said to be over 3000 years. The objects found will be preserved in the museum of the Bernburg Antiquarian Society.

WE have received from Mr. Henry Simon, of Manchester, a copy of a pamphlet by Mr. Breckon, Mr. Simon's representative for the Cleveland district, on the question of the manufacture of metallurgical coke in connection with the saving of the by-products. An account of the present position of the question in England is added, as well as a reprint of papers on the subject read by Mr. Simon, Mr. Dixon, and Mr. Smith before the Iron and Steel Institute and the British Association.

THE tobacco plantations of Southern Hungary are threatened by a terrible pest, viz. the so-called wire-worm, which differs from the ordinary tobacco-worm, inasmuch as it enters the stem of the plant just above the root and then works its destructive way right up to the flowers. Plants thus attacked yield no tobacco whatever, as the leaves turn yellow and fall shortly after the worm has attacked the stem. The tobacco-worm merely attacks the root. The large plantations of Maslak, which are celebrated for their excellent produce, have been nearly all destroyed this year by the wire-worm, while in other districts the tobacco-worm has done much damage.

A LARGE Horticultural Exhibition is to be held at Berlin in September 1885.

A COFFEE plantation has been established by a landowner in the neighbourhood of Rome. It is stated that he realised a fair profit with this year's harvest, which consisted of 2 tons of coffee per hectare.

A NEW mud-crater has formed at the foot of Mount Etna, measuring some 500 metres in diameter. The mud ejected by it flows towards Monte Furmento and the pine forest of Biancavilla.

THE additions to the Zoological Society's Gardens during the past week include a Vervet Monkey (*Cercopithecus lalandii* ♀) from South Africa, presented by Mr. J. A. Cameron; an Asiatic Wild Ass (*Equus onager* ♂) from South-Western Asia, presented by Lieut.-Col. R. A. Crawford; a Short-eared Owl (*Asio brachyotus*), a Lesser Kestrel (*Tinnunculus cenchris*) from Griqualand West, South Africa, presented by Mrs. L. Weil; a Common Cormorant (*Phalacrocorax carbo*), British, presented by Mr. S. S. Mossop; a Macaque Monkey (*Macacus cynomolgus*) from India, deposited; two Tasmanian Wolves (*Thylacinus cynocephalus*) from Tasmania, a Reindeer (*Rangifer tarandus* ♂) from Labrador, a Golden-winged Woodpecker (*Colaptes auratus*) from North America, a South American Rat Snake (*Spilotes variabilis*) from South America, purchased.

OUR ASTRONOMICAL COLUMN

THE SATURNIAN SYSTEM.—Dr. W. Meyer, late Assistant Astronomer at the Observatory of Geneva, has published in t. xxix. of *Mémoires de la Société de Physique et d'Histoire Naturelle de Genève* a determination of the dimensions of Saturn's rings and of the orbits of six satellites, and the mass of the planet, founded upon observations made at the Observatory, with a filar-micrometer on the Merz refractor of 10 inches aperture, presented to that institution by the late Prof. Plantamour. The observations in question were made during the opposition of 1881, and upon a system which it was believed would give the measures a superiority over those obtained with the same instrument in the previous year. The memoir on Saturn and his satellites, which has been separately published, is preceded by a very minute description of the Plantamour equatorial by Prof. Thury. The measures are printed in detail with the elements of reduction employed; they extend from August 15 to December 19. Dr. Meyer considers that Mimas was certainly observed on five nights, though he remarks: "Même dans la colossale lunette de Vienne, c'est un objet très délicat, qui est rarement visible quand il n'est pas près d'une élongation." On November 4, at 10h. 31m., a very faint object was observed, approximately in the position—$x = 254''$, $y = -35''$, which, by means of Prof. Asaph Hall's ephemeris, Dr. Meyer identifies as Hyperion. In the discussion of the orbits of the satellites (Enceladus, Tethys, Dione, Rhea, Titan, and Japetus) provisional elements are assumed, and are corrected in the usual manner by equations of condition. In order to determine the mean motions, the Geneva results are compared with those of Bessel in the case of Titan, while for other satellites the comparison is made with the epochs deduced by Jacob from his measures at Madras in the years 1856-58, it being considered that, in view of the precision attaching to them, little would be gained by having recourse to the older observations, especially as difficulties attend their explanation in many cases.

The mass of the ring is concluded to be very minute, certainly very much less than the value assigned by Bessel; it is stated that with the aid of Tisserand's theory, taken in connection with the results of observation, $\frac{1}{1647}$ was found for a higher limit. The most probable mass of the planet deducible from the Geneva observations is $\frac{1}{3482{\cdot}5}$, agreeing within the probable error with that assigned by Jacob, and that derived by Prof. Asaph Hall from the Washington measures of Japetus.

The following are the periods of the satellites and their mean distances from Saturn, determined by Dr. Meyer:—

	Sidereal revolution				Mean distance	
					In arc	In equatorial radii of Saturn
	d.	h.	m.	s.	″	
Enceladus ...	1	8	53	6·92	34·350	3·866
Tethys ...	1	21	18	25·62	42·751	4·812
Dione	2	17	41	9·29	54·757	6·163
Rhea	4	12	25	11·57	76·484	8·608
Titan	15	22	41	23·16	176·910	19·911
Japetus ...	79	7	49	24·84	514·711	57·930

THE VARIABLE STAR U GEMINORUM.—Mr. Knott has succeeded in observing another maximum of this irregular variable, which appears to have taken place on October 22, though there was very little change for four days after that date. On October 18 it was below 13·3 m. From his previous observations compared with this one, Mr. Knott infers that there has been a double period in 160 days.

ENCKE'S COMET.—M. Otto Struve has notified that an ephemeris of this comet, extending from the beginning of the present month to the beginning of May next, has been prepared by Dr. Backlund, and that it was intended to communicate it to astronomers direct from Pulkowa.

WOLF'S COMET.—M. Gonnessiat, of the Observatory at Lyons, has calculated elements of this comet from observations extending over forty-five days: he finds the period of revolution 6·862 years. The following ephemeris is deduced from his orbit:—

At Paris Midnight

	R.A.			N.P.D.			Log. distance from Earth		Intensity of light
	h.	m.	s.	°	′				
November 21	22	57	13	93	6·0	...	0·0035	...	0·74
23	23	2	11	93	31·4				
25	23	7	11	93	54·9	...	0·0169	...	0·70
27	23	12	13	94	16·4				
29	23	17	18	94	36·0	...	0·0300	...	0·65
December 1	23	22	23	94	53·8				
3	23	27	30	95	9·8	...	0·0425	...	0·61

The intensity of light on September 21 is taken as unity.

GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES

AT the last meeting of the French Geographical Society Dr. Paul Heis read a paper upon the results of his journey through the valley of the Meikong, and further north into the unexplored region which separates Indo-China, properly so-called, from Tonquin. Dr. Heis has made several discoveries likely to be of service to anthropologists, geologists, and mineralogists, and has brought back with him a collection of insects and reptiles, as well as a meteorological register, which was checked four times a day during the whole of his journey. Leaving Saigon on December 12, 1882, he ascended the Meikong as far as the 18th parallel, at which point he turned off from the main stream in order to go up its affluent, the Nancham, and endeavoured to reach Luang-Prabang through the hitherto unexplored region known in Annam as the principality of Tranninh. This region is infested by Chinese brigands, called Hos, who drove him back to the Meikong, and seized the greater part of his baggage. Reascending the river to Luang-Prabang he remained there for eight months, exploring the country in various directions, notably along the Nancham, which took him close to the region of the Hos, so that he was again compelled to retrace his steps. Being prevented from returning eastward, he went through the Siamese part of Burmah, reascended the Meikong as far as Chieng-sen, thence, passing from the basin of the Meikong to that of the Meinam, he reached Chieng-mai, and so made his way on foot to Bangkok, following the course of the Meinam. From Bangkok he went to Chantalun, on the west coast of Siam, and thence on foot to Baltambang, traversing the plain of the Saphyrs, where 4000 Burmese are employed in the search for precious stones. After visiting the ruins of Angkor, he reached Saigon on June 12 last.

THE oldest Geographical Society in Europe has hitherto been regarded as that of Paris, founded in 1821, but according to a paper recently read before the Verein für Erdkunde at Dresden by Dr. Ruge, this honour belongs to the "Cosmographic Society" of Nuremberg. It was established about 1740, and first came before the public in 1746, and was connected with Homann's establishment in Nuremberg. The founder of the latter was the well-known cartographer, Johann Homann, on

whose death in 1724 it descended to his son. The latter, having died childless, gave the business to a relative named Ebersberger, and a friend named Franz, provided they always retained the name of Homann in the title of the firm. Franz endeavoured to introduce originality into their maps, thus coming in contact with many geographers, and ultimately founding the "Cosmographic Society," which was divided into mathematical, geographical, and historical sections. In a work published in 1750—the "Kosmographische Nachricht und Sammlung auf das Jahr 1748"—the Society complained loudly of the defective condition of mapping and surveys in the German States, and criticised unfavourably existing maps of Germany, as well as suggested the best modes of improving them. The paper then describes the principal members of the Society, their projects for the increase of geographical knowledge—among others a lottery to procure funds. Gradually, however, the leading spirits were called away to various German universities, or to Russia; the Seven Years' War prevented any steady work of the kind advocated; Franz and Tobias Meyer died, and the "Cosmographic Society" ceased. Its labours appear to have been confined to remedying defects which lay at hand, to supplying good popular maps of Germany, and to obtaining more accurate information as to German geography.

In August last the ship *Fenorina*, Capt. Nilson, arrived at Philadelphia from Ivigtut, in Greenland, reporting that an Eskimo had found on an ice-floe in the Julianehaab Bay, the lower part of a tent, the sides of a wooden chest, and some other things marked *Jeannette*, a bill of lading, and some cheques signed "De Long," a pair of oilskin trousers marked "Louis Noros," and a bearskin which covered something of the shape and size of a human body, but which the Eskimo did not examine on account of his superstitious prejudices. On another floe he found a quantity of sailors' apparel. The Eskimo brought some of the articles to Julianehaab, and gave them to the governor, Herr Lytzen, who at once set out to recover all the rest, but the Eskimo was unable to find the spot again. Herr Lytzen now states that among the articles are two sides of a wooden chest, on which is written in pencil, "General orders, telegrams, sailing orders, discipline, ship's papers, various papers, various agreements, charter party, . . ." The last words are not very clear. On the other board is written, "Before sailing." There is also a torn book of cheques, on which is printed, "For deposit with the Bank of California," and a pair of oilskin trousers marked "Louis Noros." The most remarkable circumstance of this discovery is naturally the spot in which it was made, as these articles must in the course of three years have drifted on an ice-floe from long. 155° E. to 46° W.! They can hardly hail from the place where the *Jeannette* was crushed, as she sank, and the surrounding ice-floes were ground to dust by the catastrophe. But we know from the reports of Messrs. Dannenhower and Melville that the crew, after leaving the vessel, camped for a few days on some ice-floes, in order to divide the provisions. This took place near the New Siberian Islands, and probably the tent had been erected where the remains were now found. As nobody had then died, there cannot have been any corpse under the bearskin. Which way the ice-floe has drifted can only be conjectured; but by a rough calculation the distance is about 2500 nautical miles, and, as it has been covered in about 1000 days, the average rate of drifting is 2½ nautical miles per day, without allowing for deviations.

"Emperor William," "Prince Bismarck," and "Count Moltke" are the names given to three cataracts by Herr Gustav Mederstein on his exploring tour up the Parana River in the province of Misiones (Argentine Republic). They belong to a middle group of some hundred cataracts of the Iguassi River, which at that spot forms the boundary between the Argentine Republic and Brazil. The river's breadth above the falls is about 5 kilometres; the "Emperor William" is the middle one of the three cataracts, and the total height of the falls is about 50 metres. At a distance of some 16 kilometres below the falls the Iguassi joins the Parana.

M. Thouar, who has already travelled in South America in search of the Crevaux Expedition, is about to commence a new journey of exploration, which is to last two or three years. He intends investigating the delta of the Pilcomayo, and endeavouring to open a great trade route between Bolivia and Paraguay. In this work he will, it is said, receive the active support of several South American Governments. During the journey he will collect the materials for a great work on South America.

The Expedition which had left Loango, led by Lieut. Delizie, in order to carry provisions to De Brazza's Mission at Stanley Pool, was abandoned by about two hundred carriers on the shore of Lake Loudima. It arrived at the Manyanga Station on the Congo (a station of the International Society) on July 18, and prepared to make a new start.

AN ACCOUNT OF SOME PRELIMINARY EXPERIMENTS WITH BIRAM'S ANEMOMETERS ATTACHED TO KITE STRINGS OR WIRES[1]

THESE experiments were regularly commenced in September 1883, and continued at intervals up to June 14, 1884. A preliminary note descriptive of the apparatus and method employed appeared in the *Quarterly Journal* of the Royal Meteorological Society in 1883. As, however, some improvements have since then been made in the mode of flying and estimating the heights, it may be as well to give a brief account of the scheme *de novo*.

First of all two kites are now flown tandem, the upper one being a small kite about 4 feet high, which is easily got up, and which, when it has reached an altitude of about 100 feet, where the wind is always considerably stronger than at the earth's surface, is used to lift up the larger main kite (7 feet high) which bears the string (latterly wire) to which the instruments are fastened. It also helps to keep the latter steady when up, and prevent any sudden and dangerous descent of kites and instruments. The larger kite is now made of tussore silk of the diamond pattern and capable of folding up like Archer's patent portable kites. The tail, which is in reality a most important adjunct, and usually the first part of the apparatus to give way, is made of six large wire-rimmed canvas cones fastened to a swivel which allows them to revolve without twisting their cord.

In the first experiments the main kite was flown with a strong flax cord, but latterly, at a suggestion by Sir William Thomson, piano-cord steel wire has been used similar to that employed in Sir William's deep-sea sounder. This I have found a great improvement on the string. It is double the strength, one-fourth the weight, one-tenth the section, and one-half the cost, the only drawback being that, unless great care be exercised, it is very liable to kink and rust. To obviate the latter I have got my supply for the coming year electroplated.

It is also necessary to have wire all through, otherwise a disagreeable discharge of electricity is apt to take place at the junction of the wire and string in ordinary weather, a fact to which some of my friends would be able to testify. When the wire is continuous, and in contact with the iron of the winder which is riveted to the ground, I have found no perceptible shock in ordinary weather. The winder was made for me by Messrs. Elliott Bros., and though by no means perfect, is capable of being riveted to the earth so as to hold the kite in a powerful wind, and being furnished with a ratchet and spring catch, can be locked so as to allow me to attend to the anemometers, take observations with the theodolite, &c.

The anemometers are of the ordinary Biram pattern, 6 inches in diameter, and suspended to a gun-metal rod so as to swing in the vertical plane of the wire, the rod being fastened to the wire by clamps at its ends. When the large kite is about 100 feet or so from the winder, and steady, an anemometer is fastened to the nearest 100-foot mark and its indication and the time noted. The wire is then payed out a certain distance, and another anemometer attached, and so on, the interval between the lowest instrument and the winder being regulated by whether the differences of velocity are required for a comparatively high or low altitude respectively. The altitudes are measured by taking the vertical angles of the instruments every ten minutes with a theodolite placed at the winder, and combining their average value for the whole period with the lengths up to each instrument. The method employed is necessarily approximate, as I cannot leave the winder very well and take simultaneous observations at the ends of a base line. It is, however, one which I have reason to believe to be very fairly accurate. A certain allowance for curvature is made up to the lowest instrument. The arc between the two instruments is then taken to be approximately equal to its chord, and from this and the vertical angles the chord to the highest instrument is calculated, and thence its vertical height. This method

[1] Paper read at the Montreal meeting of the British Association by Prof. E. Douglas Archibald.

has occasionally been checked by observations taken at the ends of a base of 891 feet, and with such satisfactory results, that in the present case, where the observations being relative, great accuracy in measuring the absolute heights is not required, I have decided to adopt it in preference to the latter infinitely more cumbrous method.

Numerous observations have been made without success, accidents of all kinds happening both to kites and instruments, sufficient to deter any one who was not imbued with a little faith that all would eventually come right. I have therefore only been able so far to collect the results of a select few, viz. 23 in all, in which the conditions were favourable.

Hitherto I have only used kites as a *point d'appui* for observations on the differential velocity of the air at different heights, a purpose for which they are obviously exceptionally fitted. I am hoping, however, during the coming year, with new and improved apparatus and assistance, for which I have received a Government grant, to employ the same means of elevation for observations of temperature, pressure, height of cloud-strata, &c.

Anemometer Observations on Kite-Wire

Date and time of day	Instrument	Height in feet	Velocity in feet per minute	Time in minutes	True direction of wind
1883		H	V	T	D
Sept. 8 4.53 p.m.	B	278	1561	98	N. 22° W.
	A	77	989	82	
Sept. 10 12.25 p.m.	A	257	1542	106	S. 8° E.
	B	160	1352	85	
Oct. 6 3.59 p.m.	B	425	1177	121	N. 7° E.
	A	178	833	109	
Oct. 20 3.29 p.m.	B	380	1163	75	N. 85° W.
	A	146	882	59	
Oct. 20 5.12 p.m.	A	217	1209	34	N. 85° W.
	B	98	864	25	
Oct. 24 4.12 p.m.	B	230	1907	25	S. 82° W.
	A	110	1248	19	
Nov. 10 12.31 p.m.	A	383	1771	130	N. 48° W.
	B	138	1499	109	
Nov. 10 3.1 p.m.	B	405	1791	114	N. 75° W.
	A	148	1539	102	
1884					
Feb. 16 4.42 p.m.	A	232	2079	26	S. 38° E.
	B	107	1638	20	
Feb. 23 4.31 p.m.	B	430	2534	90	S. 37° W.
	A	294	2441	85	
Feb. 27 5.26 p.m.	A	130	1147	56	S. 53° E.
	B	40	746	45	
March 8 5.13 p.m.	B	270	1392	73	S. 49° W.
	A	88	1012	37	
March 15 4.50 p.m.	B	268	1632	103	S. 48° E.
	A	79	1119	89	
March 19 4.44 p.m.	A	433	1518	62	S. 52° W.
	B	215	1234	53	
March 20 3 14 p.m.	B	344	2384	79	S. 87° W.
	A	167	2016	66	
April 2 5.49 p.m.	A	446	1639	78	S. 23° E.
	B	212	1165	68	
April 4 3.34 p.m.	B	430	2202	101	S. 44° E.
	A	228	1916	79	
May 14 3.13 p.m.	D	422	2038	112	S. 38° W.
	C	292	1936	99	
	B	185	1904	90	
May 26 2.58 p.m.	B	495	1994	69	N. 77° E.
	D	207	1879	59	
May 29 3.44 p.m.	D	646	1769	98	S. 64° E.
	B	310	1648	90	
May 30 3.38 p.m.	B	631	2102	97	N. 37° E.
	D	329	2025	88	
May 30 5 p.m.	D	643	2039	87	N. 35° E.
	B	334	1987	78	
June 14 11.5 a.m.	A	618	2040	52	N. 1° E.
	C	324	1950	38	

The height of the place of observation is 500 feet above sea-level.

Of course it is not intended at this early stage to attempt to draw any but the most temporary conclusions from such sparse data. There is no doubt that if observations could be taken every hour a distinct diurnal variation in the difference between the velocity at two given heights would be observed, the velocity at the greater altitude probably tending towards a minimum about the same time that the velocity at the earth's surface reached its maximum. This would, however, only be found to be the case when the heights were about 1000 feet or more. Apart from actual determination by help of the instruments, however, the existence of such a diurnal variation has been several times forcibly brought to my notice by the fact that while during the middle of the day the kite frequently flies with great difficulty owing to the presence of vertical ascending and descending currents; towards evening, when the wind at the surface has often died away altogether, the kite flies at a higher altitude and pulls harder and steadier than it did during the day. This has so often occurred that I have ceased noting it as anything extraordinary. I may observe that such a condition is precisely what one would expect if the theory of the diurnal variation in the velocity of the surface wind given by Dr. Köppen in the *Zeitschrift der Oesterreichschen Gesellschaft für Meteorologie* for 1879, be accepted. According to this theory the expansion of the lower strata by solar action during the day, causes an intermixture of the air (*luft austausch*) to take place between the upper and lower layers, by which the velocity of the lower layers is increased by the greater velocity which the descending air brings with it from above, while the upper layers have their velocity decreased by the smaller velocity with which the ascending lower air retarded by the asperities of the earth's surface, is endowed. Thus while the mean velocity of the atmosphere might remain about the same, the differences between the velocities above and below should undergo a diurnal period, the minimum difference occurring somewhat after midday. I was glad to see the other day that some observations on the velocity of the wind at some lofty observatory (I think Pike's Peak) showed that the diurnal period in the wind velocity at 8000 or 9000 feet, in exact opposition to what occurs at the earth's surface, exhibited a *minimum* about midday.[1]

Another feature that has been brought out by observing the flight of my kites, which frequently fly at heights of from 1300 to 1500 feet above the sea and thus enter the clouds, is the existence of a *courant ascendant* under cumulus and cumulo-stratus clouds. When such a cloud comes over, the kite rises up until the string is at an angle of 60° or more; but in proportion as it rises, so its pull becomes weak; the kite in fact lies on its face, and thus losing nearly all the horizontal component, the curvature of the string increases very much, and if an instrument is attached to it, it is sure to come down. After such a cloud has passed I have frequently noticed the apparent existence of a downward current which causes the kite to descend and at the same time increase its pull by the pressure being exerted more against a vertical surface.

Regarding the observations themselves, I am not aware that any similar ones have previously been made, except by Mr. Stevenson of Scotland. His plan was to fix anemometers to a pole 50 feet high or place them at different heights up a mountain. In the latter case it is not certain that the velocities represent what would occur in the free atmosphere at the same level. In the former, one is limited to poles of moderate height, and I do not at present see that anything else can compete with a kite-wire for greater heights; balloons, captive or otherwise, being of course out of the question where wind is concerned. Mr. Stevenson seems finally to have adopted a very simple formula for the increase of the velocity with the height, viz. that it is exactly proportional, or $\frac{V}{v} = \frac{H}{h}$. That though this might be true up to 50 feet it is certainly not true for greater heights I showed pretty conclusively in NATURE for March 29, 1883 (p. 506), where a discussion of Dr. Vettin's cloud observations favoured the formula $\frac{V}{v} = \left(\frac{H}{h}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}}$ through a range of more than 20,000 feet.

Though I do not wish to try and determine any formula at this preliminary stage, it may be interesting to note the exponent

[1] This seems also to be the case on Ben Nevis, regarding which Mr. Buchan says, "In each of the months the maximum velocity is during the *night*, and the minimum during the *day*, being thus the reverse of what occurs at low levels and on plains" (*vide Journal* of the Scottish Meteorological Society, 3rd series, No. 1, p. 17).

yielded by the observations I have made, when grouped together roughly according to altitude. The results are :—

No. of obs.	Mean upper height	Mean lower height	Mean upper velocity	Mean lower velocity	Approximate value of exponent in formula
6	249	93	1630	1145	$\frac{1}{3}$
8	412	173	1751	1474	$\frac{1}{5}$
4	634	324	1987	1902	$\frac{1}{16}$

Thus, while the velocity invariably increases as we ascend, the rate rapidly diminishes after the first 200 or 300 feet. It must, however, be remembered that the place of observation is itself 500 feet above sea-level, and though this would probably not affect the results near the surface, the air above 200 feet must be moving with very nearly the same velocity as it would have at its real elevation above a sea-level surface. Adding therefore the 500 feet to both heights in the case of the two last groups, we get, for the value of x, $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{7}$ instead of $\frac{1}{5}$ and $\frac{1}{16}$. These two values are probably nearer the truth than those in the table, and hover round the mean value $\frac{1}{4}$, which I have already stated was found to hold for Vettin's cloud velocities up to 25,000 feet. In any case it is plain that Mr. Stevenson's formula cannot be taken to hold beyond his 50-foot pole.

Further observations will, I trust, give a trustworthy basis for determining the variations in the velocity-increment corresponding to the direction and absolute velocity of the wind as well as those corresponding to season, humidity, temperature, and pressure. To thoroughly investigate the velocity-increment under all such conditions, and thus to afford data to the physicist who desires to construct the hitherto unwritten science of aërodynamics, will be one of the objects of my experiments during the coming year.

P.S. *October* 22.—Since the foregoing observations were made I have succeeded in getting readings with the anemometers at heights of over 1100 feet above the ground, or 1600 feet above sea-level.

THE CLASSIFICATION AND AFFINITIES OF DINOSAURIAN REPTILES[1]

IN this paper the author presented briefly the results of a study of Dinosaurian reptiles on which he had been engaged for several years. The complete results will be published in a series of monographs now in preparation. The material on which the investigation is mainly based consists of the remains of several hundred individuals of this group collected in the Rocky Mountains by the author, and now preserved in the museum of Yale College. Other important American specimens have been examined by the author, who has also studied with care the more important specimens of this group in the museums of Europe. The investigation is not yet completed, but the results already attained seem to be of sufficient interest to present to the Association at this time.

In previous publications on this subject the author had expressed the opinion that the *Dinosauria* should be regarded, not as an order, but as a sub-class, and his later researches confirm this view. The great number of subordinate divisions in the group, and the remarkable diversity among those already discovered, indicate that many new forms will yet be found. Among those already known there is a much greater difference in size and structure than in any other sub-class of vertebrates, with the exception of the placental mammals. Compared with the Marsupials, living and extinct, the *Dinosauria* show an equal diversity of structure and size.

According to present evidence, the Dinosaurs were confined entirely to the Mesozoic Age. They were abundant in the Jurassic, and continued in diminishing numbers to the end of the Cretaceous period, when they became extinct. The great variety of forms that flourished in the Triassic renders it more than probable that some members of the group existed in the Permian period, and their remains may be brought to light at any time. The Triassic Dinosaurs, although very numerous, are known to-day mainly from footprints and fragmentary osseous remains; hence, many of the forms described cannot at present be referred to their appropriate divisions in the group. From the Jurassic, however, during which period Dinosaurian reptiles reached their zenith in size and numbers, representatives of no less than four well-marked orders are now so well known that different families and genera can be very accurately determined, and almost the entire osseous structure of typical examples, at least, can be made out with certainty. Comparatively little is yet known of Cretaceous Dinosaurs, although many have been described from incomplete specimens. All these appear to have been of large size, but much inferior in this respect to the gigantic forms of the previous period. The remains best preserved show that, before extinction, some members of the group became quite highly specialised.

Regarding the Dinosaurs as a sub-class of the REPTILIA, the forms best known at present may be classified as follows :—

SUB-CLASS DINOSAURIA.—Premaxillary bones separate; upper and lower temporal arches; rami of lower jaw united in front by cartilage only; no teeth on palate. Neural arches of vertebræ united to centra by suture; sacral vertebræ co-ossified. Cervical and thoracic ribs double-headed. Ilium prolonged in front of acetabulum; acetabulum formed in part by pubis; ischia meet distally on median line. Fore and hind limbs present, the latter ambulatory and larger than those in front; head of femur at right angles to condyles; tibia with procnemial crest; fibula complete. First row of tarsals composed of astragalus and calcaneum only, which together form the upper portion of ankle joint.

(I.) Order SAUROPODA (LIZARD-FOOT).—Herbivorous. Premaxillary bones with teeth. Large antorbital opening. Anterior nares at apex of skull. Post-occipital bones. Anterior vertebræ opisthocœlian; cervical ribs co-ossified with vertebræ; pre-sacral vertebræ hollow; each sacral vertebra supports its own transverse process. Fore and hind limbs nearly equal; limb bones solid. Feet plantigrade, ungulate; five digits in manus and pes; second row of carpal and tarsal bones unossified. Sternal bones parial. Pubes projecting in front, and united distally by cartilage; no post-pubis.

(1) Family *Atlantosauridæ*.—A pituitary canal. Ischia directed downward, with expanded extremities meeting on median line. Sacrum hollow. Anterior caudals with lateral cavities. Genera: Atlantosaurus, Apatosaurus, Brontosaurus.

(2) Family *Diplodocidæ*.—Dentition weak. Brain inclined backward. Large pituitary fossa. Two antorbital openings. Ischia with straight shaft, not expanded distally, directed downward and backward, with ends meeting on median line. Caudals deeply excavated below. Chevrons with both anterior and posterior branches. Genus: Diplodocus.

(3) Family *Morosauridæ*.—Small pituitary fossa. Ischia slender, with twisted shaft, directed backward, and sides meeting on median line. Anterior caudals solid. Sacral vertebræ solid. Genus: Morosaurus. European forms of this order: Bothriospondylus, Ceteosaurus, Eucamerotus, Ornithopsis, Pelorosaurus.

(II.) Order STEGOSAURIA (PLATED LIZARD).—Herbivorous. Feet plantigrade, ungulate; five digits in manus and pes; second row of carpals unossified. Pubes projecting free in front; post-pubis present. Fore limbs small; locomotion mainly on hind limbs. Cervical ribs free. Vertebræ and limb bones solid. Osseous dermal armour.

(1) Family *Stegosauridæ*.—Vertebræ bi-concave. Neural canal in sacrum expanded into large chamber; ischia directed backward, with sides meeting on median line. Astragalus co-ossified with tibia; metapodials very short. Genera: Stegosaurus (Hypsirhophus), Diracodon; and in Europe, Omosaurus (Owen).

2. Family *Scelidosauridæ*.—Astragalus not co-ossified with tibia; metatarsals elongated; four functional digits in pes. Known forms all European. Genera: Scelidosaurus, Acanthopholis, Cratæomus, Hylæosaurus, Polacanthus.

(III.) Order ORNITHOPODA (BIRD-FOOT).—Herbivorous. Feet digitigrade, five functional digits in manus and three in pes. Pubes projecting free in front; post-pubis present. Vertebræ solid. Cervical ribs free. Fore limbs small; limb bones hollow. Premaxillaries edentulous in front. A premandibular bone.

(1) Family *Camptonotidæ*.—Clavicles wanting; post-pubis complete. Genera: Camptonotus, Laosaurus, Nanosaurus; and in Europe, Hypsilophodon.

(2) Family *Iguanodontidæ*.—Post-pubis incomplete. Premaxillaries edentulous. Known forms all European. Genera: Iguanodon, Vectisaurus.

[1] Paper read at the Montreal Meeting of the British Association, by Prof. O. C. Marsh.

(3) Family *Hadrosauridæ*.—Teeth in several rows, forming with use a tesselated grinding surface. Anterior vertebræ opisthocœlian. Genera: Hadrosaurus (Diconius ?), Agathaumas, Cionodon.

(IV.) Order THEROPODA (BEAST-FOOT).—Carnivorous. Premaxillary bones with teeth. Anterior nares at end of skull. Large antorbital opening. Vertebræ more or less hollow. Feet digitigrade; digits with prehensile claws. Pubes projecting downward, with distal ends co-ossified.

(1) Family *Megalosauridæ*.—Anterior vertebræ convexo-concave; remaining vertebræ bi-concave. Pubes slender. Astragalus with ascending process. Genera: Megalosaurus (Poikilopleuron), Allosaurus, Cœlosaurus, Creosaurus, Dryptosaurus (Lælops).

(2) Family *Labrosauridæ*.—Lower jaws edentulous in front. Cervical and dorsal vertebræ convexo-concave. Pubes slender, with anterior margins united. Astragalus with ascending process. Genus: Labrosaurus.

(3) Family *Zanclodontidæ*.—Vertebræ bi-concave. Pubes broad elongate plates, with anterior margins united. Astragalus without ascending process. Five digits in manus and pes. Genera: Zanclodon (?), Teratosaurus.

(4) Family *Amphisauridæ*.—Vertebræ bi-concave. Pubes rod-like. Five digits in manus, and three in pes. Genera: Amphisaurus (Megadactylus ?), Bathygnathus (?), Clepsysaurus, Palæosaurus, Thecodontosaurus.

(*a*) Sub-order CŒLURIA.—(5) Family *Cœluridæ*.—Vertebræ and bones of skeleton pneumatic. Anterior cervicals convexo-concave; remaining vertebræ bi-concave. Cervical ribs co-ossified with vertebræ. Metatarsals very long and slender. Genus: Cœlurus.

(*b*) Sub-order COMPSOGNATHA.—(6) Family *Compsognathidæ*.—Cervical vertebræ convexo-concave; remaining vertebræ bi-concave. Three functional digits in manus and pes. Ischia with long symphisis on median line. Genus: Compsognathus.

(*c*) Sub-order CERASTOSAURIA.—(7) Family *Ceratosauridæ*.—Horn on skull. Cervical vertebræ plano-concave; remaining vertebræ bi-concave. Pubes slender. Pelvic bones co-ossified. Osseous dermal plates. Astragalus with ascending process. Metatarsals co-ossified. Genus: Ceratosaurus.

The four orders defined above, which the author first established for the reception of the American Jurassic Dinosaurs, appear to be all natural groups, well marked in general from each other. The European Dinosaurs from deposits of corresponding age fall readily into the same divisions, and, in some cases, admirably supplement the series indicated by the American forms. The more important remains from other formations in this country and in Europe, so far as their characters have been made out, may likewise be referred with certainty to the same orders.

The three orders of herbivorous Dinosaurs, although widely different in their typical forms, show indications of approximation in some of their aberrant genera. The *Sauropoda* for example, with *Atlantosaurus* and *Brontosaurus*, of gigantic size, for their most characteristic members, have in *Morosaurus* a branch leading towards the *Stegosauria*. The latter order, likewise, although its type genus represents in many respects the most strongly marked division of the Dinosaurs, has in *Scelidosaurus* a form with some features pointing strongly toward the *Ornithopoda*.

The carnivorous *Dinosauria* now best known may all be placed at present in a single order, and this is widely separated from those that include the herbivorous forms. The three sub-orders here defined include very aberrant forms, which show many points of resemblance to Mesozoic birds. Among the more fragmentary remains belonging to this order, this resemblance appears to be carried much farther.

The *Amphisauridæ* and the *Zanclodontidæ*, the most generalised families of the *Dinosauria*, are known only from the Trias. The typical genera, however, of all the orders and sub-orders, are Jurassic forms, and on these especially the present classification is based. The *Hadrosauridæ* are the only family confined to the Cretaceous. Above this formation there appears to be at present no satisfactory evidence of any *Dinosauria*.

The peculiar orders *Hallopoda* and *Aëtosauria* include carnivorous reptiles which are allied to the *Dinosauria*, but they differ from that group in some of its most characteristic features. In both *Aëtosaurus* and *Hallopus* the calcaneum is much produced backwards. In the former genus the entire limbs are crocodilian, and this is also true of the dermal covering. In both of these genera there are but two sacral vertebræ, but this may be the case in true Dinosaurs, especially from the Trias. Future discoveries will probably bring to light intermediate forms between these orders and the typical Dinosaurs. The *Crocodilia* have some some strong affinities with the *Dinosauria*, especially with those of the order *Sauropoda*. The extinct genus *Belodon* of the Triassic, for example, resembles *Diplodocus*, particularly in the large antorbital vacuities of the skull, the posterior position of the external nasal aperture, as well as in other features. The *Rhynchocephala*, represented by the genus *Hatteria*, have several important characters in common with the *Dinosauria*, and, as the former is evidently an ancient type, it is probable that a real affinity may exist between these two groups.

That birds are closely related to Dinosaurs there is no longer any question. In addition to the various characters which these groups have been known to share with each other, two more may be added in consequence of discoveries made during the past year. The genus *Ceratosaurus*, a carnivorous Dinosaur from the Jurassic of the Rocky Mountains, recently described by the author, has the pelvic bones co-ossified, as in all known birds, living and extinct, except *Archæopteryx*. The same reptile, moreover, has the metatarsal bones firmly united, as in all adult birds, with possibly the single exception of *Archæopteryx*, while all the known *Dinosauria*, except *Ceratosaurus*, have both the pelvic and the metatarsal bones separate. The exception in each case brings birds and reptiles near together at this point, and their close affinity is now a matter of demonstration.

THE DANISH EXPEDITION IN GREENLAND

WE have on previous occasions referred to the Expedition under Lieuts. Holm and Garde, which has for more than a year been engaged in exploring the east coast of Greenland, and we are now able to supplement this with an interesting report from Lieut. Holm, written in the spring, from the winter quarters of the Expedition, and received some time ago by sailing-vessel at Copenhagen.

The place where the Expedition wintered is called Namortalik, and lies on the east coast, about fifty miles, as the crow flies, from Cape Farewell. It is also called Björneorten (the "bear-haunt"), from the many bears in the neighbourhood. After an excursion lasting two months and a half during the summer of 1883, the Expedition returned in September to Namortalik, but the huts for wintering not being finished, they started for a week's further excursion to the Fredriksdalsfjord, between Namortalik and Cape Farewell.

It was not until the end of October that the Expedition could begin their regular scientific observations at the station, but after that date they were continued without interruption through the winter. As, however, the chief object of the Expedition was to explore the east coast in boats, the scientific observations have not been so rich as those, for instance, of the Danish International Expedition at Godthaab in 1882-83 (NATURE, vol. xxix. p. 337); but every effort was made to adhere as strictly as possible to the programme of the International Polar Commission. The meteorological observations were made every third hour from 8 p.m. to 8 a.m., and the magnetic observations every hour except at 3 and 4 a.m. On the 1st and 5th of every month the magnetic instruments were read every fifth minute during eight hours and every twentieth second during one hour.

With reference to the climatological conditions of the east coast, we learn that the winter is very raw and severe, although it cannot be said to be of excessive duration. The pleasant, calm, frosty weather which is experienced in North Greenland seldom prevails on the east coast, but in its stead there are frequent and sudden changes and violent storms; there being, for instance, one day 20° C. of frost, and the next several degrees of heat, while heavy rains and snows alternate. In consequence of these sudden changes it is impossible in East Greenland to employ the mode of locomotion so valuable in other parts, viz. the dog-sledge. The only means of conveyance here is by boat. If, therefore, the sea is frozen over for a time, the inhabitants remain where they are, and wait patiently until a higher temperature removes the obstacle. The ice never becomes firm enough to bear a man and sledge.

Up to January last the temperature had not fallen lower than 15°·5 C.—about Christmas—the glass generally standing between

4° and 6°, and even on some days not lower than zero (= 32° F.). This was particularly the case whilst the north-east "Föhn" wind prevailed, to which East Greenland is indebted for its comparatively mild winters; but there are places where the ice lies firm throughout the winter. On December 5, during a "Föhn" wind, the thermometer rose to + 10° C. After the beginning of the new year, however, the cold became more severe, and the "Föhn" winds less frequent.

Towards the end of January and in February the thermometer sometimes registered 20° C. of frost, and on March 9 it fell to − 21°·5, the lowest temperature registered during the winter.

Some interesting particulars are also given of the almost unknown district in which the Expedition wintered. The station Namortalik is described as situated on an island, and as having a population of 250 souls. The island, which bears the same name, is surrounded by several others, which, lying further out to sea, are visited during the spring by the natives, who catch seals and eider-ducks there. To the north the scenery of Greenland is seen in all its grandeur and beauty; wild mountains with lofty cones rising above the clouds. These are on the beautiful but almost unapproachable island of Sermerok. If the air be clear, and the weather calm and sunny, the little island lies so peacefully in the ocean that one feels tempted to climb the lofty mountains; but when the storm hovers around the peaks, half hidden in drifting clouds, and the Polar Sea is a mass of foam, the giant forms of the mountains deter even the boldest. The mainland is rugged, like the island just mentioned; in fact, the whole southern portion of Greenland is a region of wild mountains, furrowed by tremendous ravines, and rising to a height of nearly 8000 feet, from which enormous glaciers descend to the sea. The landscape produces by its wildness and desolation very striking impressions.

There are thirty little turf-covered houses at Namortalik, including a bakery and a brewery. The so-called "Royal Commerce of Greenland," a Danish Company, has also a depot here. There is, besides, a Lutheran mission, a church, and a school attended by half-caste Greenlanders.

The Expedition has erected two observatories on the rocks, about 1000 feet from the dwelling-houses, but connected by telephone.

Close to Namortalik is the Tasermint Fjord, some fifty miles in length, one of the loveliest in South Greenland. On its shores the vegetation is very luxuriant in summer, and the heat and mosquitoes are so troublesome that one could imagine one's self in the tropics. This fjord is of great importance to the Namortalik people, as its shores provide them with fuel, its streams and waters with salmon, seals, and herrings, and its mountain-slopes with ptarmigans, Polar hares, and foxes.

When the summer commenced, the Expedition intended to leave their quarters, and continue the exploration of the east coast; but there is at present no news of their achievements this summer. The programme is, however, to explore the east coast by sea and land as far north as possible, and to get into communication with the natives whenever opportunity offers, in which latter attempt nearly all previous Expeditions have been disappointed.

At the beginning of this winter one half of the Expedition was to return to Namortalik, while the second endeavoured to spend the winter as far north as possible. The Expedition will leave Greenland in the autumn of next year.

SCIENTIFIC SERIALS

Journal of Botany, August to November.—The most important article in the recent numbers of this magazine is Mr. Charles Bailey's paper on the structure, &c., of *Naias graminea*, Delile, var. *Delilei*, Magnus, illustrated with four plates and many woodcuts. This interesting addition to the British flora—first found in 1883 in a canal in Lancashire—is a native of warmer climates, not being indigenous anywhere in Europe, and has probably been introduced with Egyptian cotton. Mr. Bailey gives an exhaustive account of the morphology of its various organs, and especially of its mode of fertilisation. The *Naias* belongs to a class of plants that may be called "protozoophilous," the pollen being carried to the stigma by aquatic animals of low organisation, in this instance by the currents caused by the rotating cilia of species of Vorticellidæ.—Most of the other articles in these numbers are of more limited interest, being topographical papers on the flowering plants or cryptogams of particular districts, or descriptions of new or little-known species.—Additional instalments are also given of Mr. J. G. Baker's synopsis of the genus *Selaginella*, which is still uncompleted, the species now described amounting to 180.

Nuovo Giornale Botanico Italiano, July to October.—The greater part of the space in the July number of this magazine is occupied by descriptive papers. The paper of most general interest is that by A. Piccone, on the algæ of the Red Sea. He shows that the algal flora of this sea shows much closer affinities to that of the Indian Ocean than of the Mediterranean. It is characterised by the small number of diatoms and of green algæ generally, by the entire absence of Laminarieæ, and, above all, by its extraordinary richness in species of *Sargassum*, many of them endemic.—In the October number are a synopsis of the flora of Sicily, and a list of the "pronubi" or insect-fertilisers of flowering plants in Calabria and Piedmont; also a note by R. Pirotta, showing, from an examination of the oospores, the identity of *Cystopus capparidis*, parasitic on the caper, with *Cystopus candidus*, the common parasite of cruciferous plants.

SOCIETIES AND ACADEMIES

LONDON

Linnean Society, November 6.—Sir J. Lubbock, Bart., President, in the chair.—A letter was read intimating that their late President, Mr. G. Bentham, had bequeathed in his will a legacy of 1000*l.* to the Society.—A notice of invitation for the Fellows to attend the centenary (December 4) of the Royal Bohemian Society of Natural History in Prague was also read from the chair.—Mr. W. T. Thiselton Dyer exhibited the following plants and their products:—(1) *Vaccinium arctostaphylus*, from which the Trebizonde tea ("Thé-du-Bu-Dagh") is prepared at Amassia and Tokat. The tea has a pleasant odour, but a somewhat harsh taste when drunk. (2) *Pueraria Thunbergiana*, specimens of this Corean plant and of the cloth made from it. (3) *Pachyrhyza sinensis*, with the native name of "Kopoo," a leguminous plant from the fibres of which the yellow and more expensive summer cloth is made.—Mr. Thos. Christy showed and made remarks on a specimen of *Kola acuminata*.—Mr. R. A. Rolfe afterwards exhibited examples of British oak-galls produced by Cynipidean insects of the genus *Neuroterus*. These were the silk-button gall formed by *N. numismatis*, the globose gall produced by *N. ostreus*, the smooth-spangle gall formed by *N. fumipennis*, the scarce-spangle gall formed by *N. læviusculus*, and the common spangle gall produced by *N. lenticularis*, as also a purple variety of the latter gall. He stated that the plan and details of the galls depend on the nature of the irritating fluid deposited by the insect; but on the other hand the different species of oak seem to have an influence in determining certain variations as to colour, and, it may be, general growth, of the galls.—Mr. Geo. Brook read a paper on the development of the Five-bearded Rockling (*Motella mustela*) in which the following points were enunciated:—(1) Whereas there is only one large oil globule in the normal egg of *Motella*, sometimes this is subdivided into from two to eight or even more; but in these cases there is always an abnormal development which often results in the death of the embryo. In those that survive, the small oil globules always coalesce to form one large one before the embryo hatches. (2) In the further development of the newly-hatched embryo there is a cranial flexure produced which is analogous to that so characteristic of Elasmobranchs. This is caused by the rapid development of the dorsal portion of the head, while the ventral portion remains comparatively quiescent. Later, the ventral portion plays its part, and, with the development of the jaws the brain is pushed back to its normal position. (3) As in other pelagic Teleostean eggs, there is no circulation observable either in the embryo or in the vitellus up to the time of hatching, nor indeed for some days afterwards. (4) In *Motella* the anal gut does not open on the ventral surface for at least a week after hatching. Ryder has shown the same to be the case with the cod-fish, so that the young *Gadidæ* would not appear to be in a position to take solid food at nearly so early a period in their existence as is usual with Teleosteans. Mr. Brook also called attention to the influence of temperature on the rate of development of pelagic eggs, and suggested that, until we know the temperature at which the various observations are made on these forms, no true comparison can be established.—The next communication was on a collection of

plants made in Timor Laut by Henry O. Forbes. Therein a short account is given of the nature of the islands and of the general character of the vegetation, after which comes a technical list of about eighty plants.—Prof. Oliver adds a note that, "This collection, so far as it goes, is made up in great part of the more widely diffused species of the Indian Archipelago. The most interesting plants appear to be: one in fruit only, referred to the meliaceous genus *Owenia*, probably *O. cerasifera*, Muell., of Queensland; a fine *Mucuna*, of the section Stigolobium; a *Selarbrea*, an araliaceous genus hitherto only received from New Caledonia, and a fruit of possibly a *Strombosia*. Mr. Forbes himself is inclined to regard the Timor Laut flora and fauna as having affinities with the Moluccan (Amboina) region.—A paper by T. H. Potts was read, containing notes on some New Zealand birds. This consisted chiefly of field observations on the habits of the quail hawk, harrier, owl, kaka, kea, long-tailed cuckoo, kingfisher, and native wren.—There followed a note on the reproduction of the heterœcismal Uredines by Charles B. Plowright. Therein the author affirms that, when the reproduction of these fungi takes place without the intervention of Ascidiospores, the resulting Uredospores are far more abundant than in the case when they arise from the implantation upon the host plant of the Ascidiospores, this inference being supported by various detailed observations of the author.

Zoological Society, November 4.—Prof. W. H. Flower, F.R.S., President, in the chair.—Mr. Sclater exhibited and made remarks on the skin of a Woolly Cheetah (*Felis lanea*), obtained at Beaufort West, South Africa, sent to him by the Rev. G. H. R. Fisk, C.M.Z.S.—The Secretary exhibited, on behalf of Major W. Brydon, B.S.C., C.M.Z.S., an egg of Blyth's Tragopon; and on behalf of Mr. J. C. Parr, F.Z.S., a specimen of the chick of the Vulturine Guinea-fowl (*Numida vulturina*) hatched in Lancashire.—The Rev. H. H. Sclater, F.Z.S., exhibited a specimen of the Barred Warbler (*Sylvia nisoria*) obtained on the Yorkshire coast.—Mr. H. E. Dresser, F.Z.S., exhibited specimens of the Barred Warbler (*Sylvia nisoria*) and of the Icterine Warbler (*Hypolais icterina*), killed in Norfolk.—Mr. W. B. Tegetmeier, F.Z.S., exhibited a specimen of the File-fish (*Balistes capriscus*), which had been recently caught off Folkestone.—Mr. F. E. Beddard, F.Z.S., read a paper on the anatomy of a gigantic Earthworm, *Microchæta rappii*, and pointed out its systematic position. For this very interesting specimen the author was indebted to the Rev. G. H. R. Fisk, C.M.Z.S., of Cape Town.—Mr. A. G. Butler, F.Z.S., gave an account of a collection of Lepidoptera made by Major J. W. Yerbury at or near Aden. The author looked upon this collection as one of the greatest interest, since it not only contained a fine series of the beautiful species of *Teracolus* recently described by Col. Swinhoe, but also many remarkable intergrades between certain long-established species, tending to prove either that hybrids between allied species are fertile, or that in Aden a condition of things still exists which in Asia proper and in Africa has long passed away.—A communication was read from Lieut.-Col. C. Swinhoe, F.Z.S., containing an account of the Lepidoptera collected by him at Kurrachee between the years 1878 and 1880.—A communication was read from Mr. Thomas H. Potts, of Ohinitaki, New Zealand, in which he described a case of hybridism between two species of Fly-catchers of the genus *Rhipidura*.

Mathematical Society, November 13.—Prof. Henrici, F.R.S., President, in the chair.—Prof. Karl Pearson was elected a member of the Society.—The Chairman in very feeling terms referred to the losses the Society and he himself personally had sustained by the deaths of Prof. Rowe, a member of the Council, and of Prof. Townsend, F.R.S., during the recess. After a slight pause, he presented the De Morgan Medal to Prof. Cayley.—The Treasurer's report, showing that the financial position of the Society was most satisfactory, and the Secretary's report having been read, the meeting balloted for and duly elected the following gentlemen to constitute the Council for the present session:—President: J. W. L. Glaisher, F.R.S.; Vice-Presidents: Dr. Henrici, F.R.S., Prof. Sylvester, F.R.S., J. J. Walker, F.R.S.; Treasurer: A. B. Kempe, F.R.S.; Secretaries: M. Jenkins, R. Tucker; other members: Prof. Cayley, F.R.S., Sir J. Cockle, F.R.S., E. B. Elliott, Prof. Greenhill, J. Hammond, H. Hart, Dr. Hirst, F.R.S., S. Roberts, F.R.S., and R. F. Scott.—Mr. Tucker then read abstracts of the following papers:—On the theory of screws in elliptic space (supplementary note), and on the theory of matrices, by A. Buchheim; on sphero-cyclides, by H. M. Jeffery, F.R.S.; results from a theory of transformation of elliptic functions, by J. Griffiths; on the limits of multiple integrals, by H. MacColl; on the motion of a viscous fluid contained in a spherical vessel, by Prof. H. Lamb, F.R.S.; on certain conics connected with a plane unicursal quartic, by R. A. Roberts; note on elliptic functions, on an integral transformation and a theorem in plane conics, by Asutosh Mukhopâdhyây. He then stated that he had found that the six Simson-lines corresponding to the angular points of the pedal and medial triangles of a given triangle with reference to the medial and pedal triangles respectively, the circum-circle being in this case the nine-point circle, co-intersect in a point which lies on the axis connecting the circum-centre and the Symmedian-point, midway between the circum-centre and the ortho-centre of the pedal triangle, and is also the centre of Mr. H. M. Taylor's circle.—The President (Prof. Henrici taking the chair) brought the meeting to a close by reading a paper on certain systems of q-series in elliptic functions, in which the exponents in the numerators and denominators are connected by recurring relations.

Geological Society, November 5.—Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., President, in the chair.—The Secretary announced the gift to the Society of a water-colour picture of the hot springs of Gardiner's River, Wyoming Territory, U.S.—The following communications were read:—On a new deposit of Pliocene age at St. Erth, fifteen miles east of the Land's End, Cornwall, by S. V. Wood, F.G.S. The deposit in question, about five miles north-east of Penzance, consisted of a tenacious blue clay with shells, resting on sand, and passing upwards into a yellow unfossiliferous clay, overlain unconformably by the earth with angular fragments, under which were buried the ancient beaches of the British Channel. Of over forty species of Mollusca obtained by the author some appeared to be wholly new, others characteristic species of the Red Crag, some not known alive, some still living. Most interesting of all, six species of Nassa were, all but one (*N. granulata*, Sow., or *granifera*, Dujardin), unknown from any formation of Northern Europe, and occurring, living or fossil, only in the southern half of Europe. Of these *Nassa mutabilis*, Linné, lived in the Mediterranean, but otherwise not north of Cadiz, while two others were new species of this southern *mutabilis* group. In the opinion of the author the bed was Pliocene, and newer rather than older, coeval with the Red Crag, but having more affinities with the Pliocene of Italy than with that of the North Sea region, a fact which seemed to indicate that during its deposition the only communication between the Atlantic and the North Sea was round the coast of Britain, a passage unavailable to the Italian group of Nassa on account of the refrigeration of its 9° of latitude. The bed was the deposit of a strait connecting the present St. Ives Bay with Mount's Bay, and detaching the high ground of the Land's End district from the rest of Britain. The shell-bearing part of the clay was 98 feet above mean-tide mark in Hayle Estuary. Dr. Gwyn Jeffreys, in a discussion on the paper, recognised among the fossils of the St. Erth deposit forty-four or forty-five species, eleven or twelve recent, thirty-three or thirty-four extinct. A bed near Antibes, in the south of France, seemed to resemble the St. Erth deposit, and the Mollusca of the two should be critically compared.—On the Cretaceous beds at Black Ven, near Lyme Regis, with some supplementary remarks on the Blackdown beds, by the Rev. W. Downes, F.G.S. The cliff section measured 300 feet in height, the Lias occupying 200 feet and the Cretaceous beds 100 feet, of which the lower 25 feet were a black loamy clay, and the upper 75 feet yellowish-brown non-calcareous sands. From one point in the clay the author obtained a few fossils, the most abundant being *Lima parallela*, and 50 feet above that point was a small patch of fragmentary silicified fossils. In the author's opinion the fauna of the sands approached the Blackdown fauna, and from all the evidence he had found, concluded that the conditions of deposition rendered it impossible to recognise in the Cretaceous beds of the West of England the subdivisions of Gault and Upper Greensand so well marked to the eastward.—On some recent discoveries in the submerged Forest of Torbay, by D. Pigeon, F.G.S. The submerged forest rested on clay, the soil in which the forest grew, which, again, rested on Trias, a breccia of Devonian fragments intervening in places. During the gales of 1883-84, two aggregations of rolled trap pebbles were found, these pebbles having probably served as smelting-hearths. In their neighbour-

hood were discovered an ingot of copper, some tin slag, a piece of glass, flint implements, &c., together with remains of piles driven into the ground—traces of human work belonging, apparently, to the Bronze Age. The author thought it the more probable view that the clay bed was deposited in a shallow marsh of land-water kept back by the sea-beach, then some hundreds of feet further to seaward, and that the forest, which consisted chiefly of willows, grew on the marsh.

EDINBURGH

Mathematical Society, November 14.—Dr. Thomas Muir, F.R.S.E., President, in the chair.—Mr. John S. Mackay read a paper on the geometrical figure known to the Greeks as "The Shoemaker's Knife."—The following office-bearers were elected :—President : Mr. A. J. G. Barclay ; Vice-President : Mr. George Thom ; Secretary : Mr. A. Y. Fraser ; Committee : Drs. R. M. Ferguson and Thomas Muir, Messrs. R. E. Allardice, W. J. Macdonald, John S. Mackay, and David Munn.

PARIS

Academy of Sciences, November 10.—M. Rolland, President, in the chair.—Additions to the memoir on complex unities, by M. L. Kronecker.—Remarks on the fourth part of the map of Africa, presented to the Academy, on behalf of the Minister for War, by Col. Perrier. This map has been prepared by Capt. de Lannoy, of the War Department, on a scale of 1 : 2,000,000. The present part comprises the whole of the Congo region, in six sheets, which have been issued for the use of the members of the International Congress now assembled in Berlin to discuss matters relative to West Africa.—Note on Messrs. Renard and Krebs' new balloon, by M. Hervé Mangon. Two ascents were again made on Saturday, November 8, which are described as completely successful. On the first occasion the machine was propelled at an absolute speed of 23 kilometres per hour against the wind blowing at the rate of 8 kilometres per hour. The problem of directing balloons independently of aërial currents is regarded by the author as practically solved by these experiments.—Observations, elements, and ephemerides of Wolf's comet, by M. Gonnessiat. The observations were made with the Brunner 6-inch equatorial of the Lyons Observatory.—Observation of the same comet made with the meridian circle of the Bordeaux Observatory, by M. Courty.—Note on the sinuosities and variations of curvature in the shadows cast during lunar eclipses, by M. P. Lamey.—On an equation analogous to Kummer's equation, by M. E. Goursat.—On algebraic curves of any degree described on a plane, by M. Maurice d'Ocagne.—On atomic and molecular movements, by M. M. Langlois.—On the depth to which sunlight penetrates the waters of the Lake of Geneva, by MM. H. Fol and Ed. Tarasin. From a series of experiments carried out in August and September of this year the authors conclude that light reaches a depth of 170 metres and probably a little more, the luminosity at this point being about equal to that of a clear moonless night.—On a general statement of the laws of chemical equilibrium, by M. H. Le Chatelier.—Note on the polymorphism of the phosphate of silica, by MM. P. Hautefeuille and J. Margottet. The authors infer from several experiments that at temperatures ranging from 300° to 1000° C. this phosphate crystallises spontaneously in four crystallographic forms incompatible with each other, and consequently constituting four distinct chemical species.—On fluoretted apatites, by M. A. Ditte.—On the action of the primary alcoholic iodides on the fulminate of silver, by M. G. Calmels.—Anaytical study of the atmosphere of the city of Algiers, by M. Chairy.—On the hydrate of neutral sulphate of alumina, by M. P. Marguerite-Delacharlonny.—Saponification of the simple aromatic ethers of neutral substances, by M. A. Colson.—The microbe of yellow fever : prophylactic inoculation, by MM. D. Freire and Rebourgeon. After a series of extensive experiments conducted at Rio de Janeiro during the years 1880-84, Dr. Domingos Freire has succeeded in attenuating the virus of yellow fever and reducing it to a vaccinal virus. With this, 400 persons have already been treated with complete success. But fresh experiments will be needed to determine the duration of immunity obtained by this perventive inoculation.—On the effects of inflation of the lungs with compressed air, by MM. Gréhant and Quinquaud.—Researches on the genesis of saccharine in beetroot, by M. Aimé Girard.—On peptonic fermentation, by M. V. Marcano. This new process is described as a simple and economic means of preparing in a few hours extremely pure peptone at a cheap rate. It is capable of being advantageously applied in a large way to the exportation of meat in a far more nutritive and economic form than that of the extracts of meat now in use.—Origin and mode of formation of the phosphates of lime found deposited in large quantities in sedimentary lands : their connection with the iron ores and clays of siderolithic levels, by M. Dieulefait.—Contributions to the anatomy and morphology of the Malpighian vessels in the Lepidoptera, by M. N. Cholodkovsky. Completion of the biological evolution of *Chaitophorus aceris*, Fabricius (sub-Aphis), by M. J. Lichtenstein.—Note on the characteristics of a Tertiary Conifer (*Araucarites Sternbergi*, Goepp.) allied to the Dammareæ (*Doliostrobus Sternbergi*), by M. A. F. Marion.—On a great oscillation of the Cretaceous seas in Provence, by M. L. Collot.—On the limestones containing fossil Echinids occurring at Stramberg, Moravia, by M. G. Cotteau.—Observations of the solar corona in Algeria, by M. E. Fuchs.—Account of a magnificent meteor observed at Morges on November 3, by M. Ch. Dufour.

VIENNA

Imperial Academy of Sciences, October 16.—On bodies with a maximum of density, and on the conclusions derived from their behaviour, by C. Puschl.—On the passing of luminous rays through glass pipes, and on a method based thereupon for determining the refractive indices of condensed gases, by T. Dechant.—On the influence of pressure on the magnetisation of iron and steel rods, by H. T. Ibrailean.—Computation of the orbit of the planet Cœlestina (237), discovered by T. Palisa on June 27, by F. von Oppolzer.—Geographical determination of the place of San'a (capital of the Yemen Vilayet), by E. Glaser.—Calculation of the orbit of Wolf's comet, by K. Zelbr.—On the action of zinc-ethyl on $\alpha\beta$ dichlorocrotonaldehyde, by A. Lieben.

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