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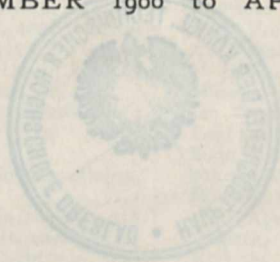
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Of Nature trusts the mind which builds for aye."*—WORDSWORTH

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INDEX

- ABBE (Prof. Cleveland), Artificial Rain, 167; Methods of Formation of Hail, 337
- Abbe's Optical Theorems, Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 276
- Aberration, Constant of, C. L. Doolittle, 405
- Abnormal Stars in Clusters, Prof. E. E. Barnard, 68
- Aborigines, Australian, Investigations of the Habits and Folklore of, 88
- Abruzzi's (the Duke of the) Polar Expedition, 37
- Absorption Spectra of Saline Solutions, Prof. W. N. Hartley, 313
- Academies, the International Association of, 519; Meeting of the, 591, 616
- Accumulators: the Lead Storage Battery, Desmond G. Fitzgerald, 249
- Acetylene: the Growth of the German Industry, 113
- Acetylene Gas: Novel Marine Torch, 474
- Acoustics: a Text-book of Physics, Sound, J. H. Poynting, F.R.S., J. J. Thomson, F.R.S., 26; the Refraction of Sound by Wind, Dr. E. H. Barton, 123; Audibility of the Sound of Firing on February 1, 355, 372, 420; Sir W. J. Herschel, 395; Arthur R. Hinks, 441; Robert B. Hayward, F.R.S., 538; Gun Reports heard at Great Distances, 402; Musical Arcs, 542; Death of Dr. Franz Melde, 545; Numerical Illustrations of Sound-Diffraction, Prof. H. Lamb, F.R.S., 604; on the Nature of Vowels, E. W. Scripture, 626
- Acuteness of Sight, the Optics of, Dr. A. S. Percival, 82; F. Twyman, 157
- Adam (J.), Liquid Air, 252
- Adams (E. P.), Circular Magnetism and Magnetic Permeability, 505
- Adkin (R.), Aberrant Male Specimens of *Argynnis aglaia*, 219
- Aëronautics: Sounding the Ocean of Air, A. Lawrence Rotch, 55; Trial of Endurance in Ballooning, 63; Count von Zepelin's Navigable Balloon, A. Stolberg, 187; by Land and Sky, Rev. John M. Bacon, 203; Balloon Ascents, January 10, 353; New Flying Machines, 403; the Ascents of February 7, Dr. Hergesell, 449; History and Progress of Aërial Locomotion, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 526; the International Ascents of March 7, Dr. Hergesell, 594
- Africa: Glacial Characters of Prieska Conglomerate, A. W. Rogers and E. L. H. Schwarz, 12; the "Park-lands" in Tanganyika District of Central Africa, J. E. S. Moore, 98; Periodical Changes in Rainfall at Cape of Good Hope, Prof. J. T. Morrison, 124; South African Philosophical Society, 124, 220, 532; a Plea for the Study of the Native Races in South Africa, Prof. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 157; Breeding Habits of Protopterus and other West African Fishes, J. S. Budgett, 170; Messrs. MacIver and Wilkin's Algerian Journey, 170; Game Preservation in Africa, Viscount Cranborne, 186; Death of Major Serpa Pinto, 237; the Uganda Dwarfs, Sir H. Johnston, 238; Natural History of Uganda, Sir H. Johnston, 238; Rocks from Newlands Diamond Mines, Griqualand West, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 242; Protective Inoculation against Horse-Sickness in Cape Colony, Dr. Edington, 282; Mr. J. E. S. Moore's Researches in Lake Tanganyika, &c., 284; Termites' Ravages in Rhodesia, Rev. A. Lebceuf, 306; Geology of Lake Nyasa, Alex. Richardson, 315; the Great Nile Dam at Assouan, 381; Eocene and Cretaceous Series in Nile Valley, H. J. L. Beadnell, 382; the Birds of Africa, G. E. Shelley, 393; Cretaceous Sea-Urchin in Eastern Sahara, M. de Lapparent, 435; Agricultural Prospects in South Africa, Prof. R. Wallace, 499; Submerged Valley opposite Congo Mouth, Prof. E. Hull, 506; Bushman Paintings from Groot Riet River, E. H. L. Schwarz, 532; Death of Dr. Schlichter, 545; Platinum in Egyptian Hieroglyphics, Daniel Berthelot, 556; the Mammals of South Africa, W. L. Sclater, 583; the Discoverer of Lake Ngami, William Cotton Oswell, Hunter and Explorer, W. E. Oswell, Supp. vi.
- Agardh (Prof. J. G.), Death of, 352; Obituary Notice of, 377
- Agriculture: Present Condition of Indigo Industry, Dr. F. M. Perkin, 7, 111, 302; Literature of Coffee and Tobacco Planting, G. H. James, 7; J. R. Jackson, 7; the Locust Plague and its Suppression, Aeneas Munro, 55; Minéralogie Agricole, F. Houdaille, 57; the Russian Government and Agriculture, 64; Memoranda of the Origin, Plan and Results of the Experiments conducted at Rothamsted, 1900, 79; Agricultural Demonstration and Experiment, Prof. Wm. Somerville, F.R.S., 84; Horticultural Practice, 86; Flies Injurious to Stock, Eleanor A. Ormerod, 127; Artificial Rain, Prof. Cleveland Abbe, 167; Report of the Working and Results of the Woburn Experimental Fruit Farm, Duke of Bedford and Spencer U. Pickering; Dr. Maxwell T. Masters, 177; Sugar-Cane Experiments, 335; Agriculture in the West Indies, Prof. J. P. d'Albuquerque, 356; Peach-Leaf Curl: its Nature and Treatment, Newton B. Pierce, 393; Sugar-Beet Cultivation in England, A. D. Hall, 450; Agricultural Value of Land in Madagascar, A. Müntz and E. Rousseaux, 459; Scientific Agriculture in the United States, 479; Agricultural Prospects in South Africa, Prof. R. Wallace, 499; Bird Destruction in France, L. A. Levat, 500; the Agricultural Changes and Laying Down Land to Grass, R. H. Elliott, 585
- Air and Disease, Harold Picton, 276
- Air, Hydrogen in, M. Armand Gautier, 478
- Air, Liquid, J. Adam, 252
- Air, Liquid, as an Explosive, A. Larsen, 305
- Aitken (Thomas), Road-Making and Maintenance, 272
- Aitken (Mr.), Dynamics of Cyclones, 507
- Albrecht (Dr.), Plague Infection, 89
- Alcohol: Injurious Constituents in Potable Spirits, 491
- Alcyonium, Dr. Hickson, 330
- Alexander (Dr. P. V.), Darwin and Darwinism, 5
- Algol, Light Curve of, A. A. Nijland, 525
- Alkaloids: Die Pflanzen-Alkaloide, Jul. Wihl. Brühl, Eduard Hjelt, Ossian Aschan, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 486
- Allen (Grant), In Nature's Workshop, 513
- Alliance between Science and Industry, the, 135
- Allison (J. A.), Rhamnazin and Rhamnetin, 75
- Allman (Prof. George J., F.R.S.), Euclid i. 32 Corr., 106
- Alloys, Potassium-Mercury and Sodium-Mercury, and Sodium with Cadmium, Lead and Bismuth, N. S. Koarnakoa, 188
- Alloys, Thermo-Chemistry of Copper-Zinc, T. J. Baker, 363
- Almucantar, the, C. S. Howe, 309
- Alpine Crust-Basin, an, Dr. Maria M. Ogilvie-Gordon, 294
- Alps: Das geotektonische Problem der Glarner Alpen, A. Rothpletz, 294; Geologische Alpenforschungen, A. Rothpletz, 294; Dr. Maria M. Ogilvie-Gordon, 294

- Alternating Currents, Oscillographs, 142
- America : Bulletin of American Mathematical Society, 50, 146, 290, 432, 481, 577 ; Transactions of American Mathematical Society, 528 ; the Numbers of the American Bison, 96 ; American Journal of Science, 169, 266, 290, 481, 505, 626 ; United States Geological Survey, 215 ; American Journal of Mathematics, 218, 432 ; the Currents in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, W. Bell Dawson, 311, 601 ; Text Book of Vertebrate Zoology, J. S. Kingsley, 558 ; the Eyes of the Blind Vertebrates of North America, C. H. Eigenmann and W. A. Denny, 589
- Among the Birds, Florence Anna Fulcher, 101
- Anaërobic Life, Dr. Klett, 307
- Analytical Tables for Complex Inorganic Mixtures, F. E. Thompson, 370
- Anatomy : Death of Prof. William Anderson, 10 ; the Simplification of Teaching Anatomy, Prof. Alex. Macalister, 239 ; the True Cæcal Apex, Dr. R. J. A. Berry, 266 ; Echidna with Eight Cervical Vertebrae, Dr. R. Broom, 268 ; Ossification of Vertebrae in Marsupials, Dr. R. Broom, 268 ; Origin of Vertebrate Eye and Meaning of Second Pair of Cranial Nerves, Dr. W. H. Gaskell, 354 ; the Size of the Brain in the Insectivore Cetetes, Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S., 394 ; "Die Lehre vom Skelet des Menschen unter besonderer Berücksichtigung entwicklungsgeschichtlicher und vergleichend-anatomischer Gesichtspunkte und der Erfordernisse des anthropologischen Unterrichtes an höherer Lehranstalten," 440 ; Beiträge zur Systematik und Genealogie der Reptilien, Prof. Max Fürbringer, 462 ; Description of the Human Spines, showing Numerical Variation, in the Warren Museum of the Harvard Medical School, Dr. T. Dwight, 512
- Ancestry, Huxley's, Havelock Ellis, 127
- Ancient History, the Ethnology of, deduced from Records, Monuments and Coins, Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S., 309
- Anderson (Dr. T. D.), New Variable, 2 1901 (Cygni), 502
- Anderson (Prof. William), Death of, 10
- André (Ch.), Variability of Eros, 426 ; the Luminous Variability of Eros, 435 ; the Planet Eros, 483 ; True Period of Luminous Variation of Eros, 531
- Andrews (A. W.), the "Diagram" Series of Coloured Hand Maps, 344
- Animal Hypnotism : Beiträge zur Physiologie des Centralnervensystem, Max Verworn, 78
- Animals Exterminated during the Nineteenth Century, some, 252, Dr. Henry de Varigny, 372
- Animals, Protective Markings in, Clarence Waterer, 441 ; Frank E. Beddard, 466
- Annalen der Physik, 506, 528, 626
- Annelids : Note upon a New Form of Spermatophore in an Earthworm, Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S., 515
- Annuaire Astronomique for 1901, 163
- Annuaire pour 1901, Bureau des Longitudes, 240
- Antarctica : First on the Antarctic Continent, being an Account of the British Antarctic Expedition, 1898-1900, C. E. Borchgrevink, 468 ; the Land Work of the Belgian Antarctic Expedition, 516 ; the British and German Antarctic Ships, 591 ; the Work of the National Antarctic Expedition, Prof. J. W. Gregory, 609
- Antelopes, the Book of, P. L. Selcler and O. Thomas, 509
- Anthropology : Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History, vol. ii., i. the Jesup North Pacific Expedition ; iv. the Thompson Indians, James Teit, Prof. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 3 ; Use of Dolomite as Money by Pomo Indians, Dr. O. C. Farrington, 12 ; Antropometria, Dr. R. Livi, 28 ; Leçons d'Anthropologie Philosophique, D. Folkmar, 56 ; Investigations of the Habits and Folk-lore of Australian Aborigines, 88 ; Huxley's Life and Work, Lord Avebury, F.R.S., 92, 116 ; the Child : a Study in the Evolution of Man, A. F. Chamberlain, 105 ; the Primitive Idea of Tabu, Salomon Reinach, 141 ; the History of the Devil and the Idea of Evil, Dr. Paul Carus, 151 ; a Plea for the Study of the Native Races in South Africa, Prof. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 157 ; Anthropological Institute, 170, 410, 434, 483, 554 ; Messrs. MacIver and Wilkin's Algerian Journey, 170 ; Stone Implements in Tasmania, Paxton Moir, 170 ; a Pre-Columbian Scandinavian Colony in Massachusetts, Gerard Fowkes, 192 ; the Bektashis of Cappadocia, J. W. Crowfoot, 210 ; the Uganda Dwarfs, Sir H. Johnston, 238 ; Kulturformen of Oceania, Dr. L. Fröbenius, 239 ; the Mentawai Islanders, C. M. Pleyte, 332 ; Ethnic Affinities of the Slavs, Herr Jaborowski, 353 ; Native Indian Beliefs as to "Hair-marks" on Horses and Cattle, 382 ; the Progress of Anthropology, C. H. Read, 410 ; Die Lehre vom Skelet des Menschen unter besonderer Berücksichtigung entwicklungsgeschichtlicher und vergleichend-anatomischer Gesichtspunkte und der Erfordernisse des anthropologischen Unterrichtes an höheren Lehranstalten, 440 ; Maori Tatu and Moko, H. L. Roth, 483 ; Celtic Folk-lore, Welsh and Manx, John Rhys, E. Sidney Hartland, 485 ; Bushman Paintings from Groot Riet River, E. H. L. Schwarz, 532 ; Skull-trephining in New Britain, &c., Rev. J. A. Crump, 554 ; Stonehenge and other Stone Circles, A. L. Lewis, 575 ; Anthropologie als Wissenschaft und Lehrfach, Dr. Rudolf Martin, Supp. x.
- Antilocapra, the Markings of, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 58
- Antropometria, Dr. R. Livi, 28
- Arachnide, Adaptation of Instinct in a Trap-door Spider, R. I. Pocock, 466
- Arbuckle (W.), Preparation of Iodic Acid, 339
- Arc, Direct Current, some Experiments on the, W. Duddell, 182
- Archæology, the State of Stonehenge, 258 ; the Orientation of Greek Temples, Dr. F. C. Penrose, F.R.S., 492 ; Recent Excavations in Roman Forum, E. F. Morris, 578
- Archbutt (L.), Lubrication and Lubricants, 4
- Architecture, Naval, in United States, Prof. J. H. Biles, 546 ; Cause of Vibrations in *Deutschland*, O. Schlick, 546 ; Motion of Submarine Boats in Vertical Plane, Captain Hovgaard, 546
- Arcimis (Prof. Augusto), an Earthquake on February 10, 396
- Arctica, the Duke of the Abruzzi's Expedition, 37 ; Return of Dr. Kann, 63
- Ardin-Delteil (P.), Cryoscopy of Human Sweat, 124
- Argon and its Companions, Prof. William Ramsay, F.R.S., Dr. Morris W. Travers, 164
- Armstrong (Prof. G. F.), Death of, 88
- Armstrong (H. E.), 1 : 2 : 4-Metaxyldine-6-Sulphonic Acid, 291
- Armstrong (Lord, F.R.S.), Death of, 209 ; Obituary Notice of, 235
- Arnold (Prof. J. O.), Practical Problems in the Metallography of Steel, 61
- Arnold-Forster (H. O.), the London School Atlas, 344
- Art, the Origins of, a Psychological and Sociological Inquiry, Yrjö Hirn, Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S., 389
- Artificial Perfumes, Natural and, 212
- Artificial Rain, Prof. Cleveland Abbe, 167 ; C. H. B. Woodd, 232 ; M. T. Tatham, 232
- Artificial Representation of a Total Solar Eclipse, an, Prof. R. W. Wood, 250
- Apatite in Ceylon, Prof. A. H. Church, F.R.S., 464
- Aschan (Ossian), Die Pflanzen-Alkaloide, 486
- Ash Constituents of some Lakeland Leaves, the, Dr. P. Q. Keegan, 396
- Ashcraft (C. E., jun.), Lighting from Cloudless Sky, 474
- Asia, Central, Gothic Vestiges in, Thos. W. Kingsmill, 608
- Asia, Recent Geological Changes in Northern and Central, Prof. G. F. Wright, 530
- Astronomy : the Leonids, a Forecast, Drs. G. J. Stoney, F.R.S., and A. M. W. Downing, F.R.S., 6 ; Fireballs in October, 14 ; Our Astronomical Column, 14, 39, 67, 92, 115, 141, 163, 188, 211, 240, 260, 286, 309, 333, 354, 383, 405, 426, 452, 477, 502, 524, 548, 575, 596, 620 ; Astronomical Occurrences in November, 14 ; in December, 115 ; in January, 211 ; in February, 333 ; in March, 426 ; in April, 524 ; in May, 620 ; the Planet Eros, 14, 39, 116, 212, 333, 355 ; MM. Guillaume, Le Cadet and Luizet, 483 ; Ch. Andre, 483 ; Perturbations of Eros produced by Mars, H. N. Russell, 141 ; Opposition of Eros, M. Lœwy, 188 ; Variability of Eros, 383, 452, 502 ; Dr. E. von Oppolzer, 383 ; F. Rossard, 426 ; Ch. Andre, 426 ; the Luminous Variability of Eros, Ch. Andre, 435 ; True Period of Luminous Variation of Eros, Ch. Andre and M. Luizet, 531 ; Reduction of Observations of Eros, Prof. G. C. Comstock, 405 ; Eros and the Solar Parallax, 502 ; Temperature Observations during Solar Eclipse, C. Martin, 14 ; Local Conditions for Observations of the Total Solar Eclipse, 1901 May 17-18, 163 ; the Total Solar Eclipse of May 17-18, Dr. J. J. A. Muller, 347 ; A. Fowler, 470 ; Spanish Observations of the Eclipse of May 28, Señor Iniguez, 188 ; an Artificial Representation of a Total Solar

- Eclipse, Prof. R. W. Wood, 250; Eclipse Photography, Prof. Francis E. Nipher, 325; Solar Corona Detected by Means of Thermo-couple, H. Deslandres, 24; Observations of the Infra-red Spectrum of the Solar Corona, M. Deslandres, 67; on the Nature of the Solar Corona, with some Suggestions for Work at the next Total Eclipse, Prof. R. W. Wood, 230; the Fraunhofer Lines in the Spectrum of the Corona, A. Fowler, 394; Recent Studies of the Infra-red Region of the Solar Spectrum, Prof. S. P. Langley, 68; Suggested Solar Oscillation, Prof. J. T. Morrison, 266; the Sun's Motion in Space, G. H. Knibbs, 267; Our Stellar System, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 29; New Variable Stars, 39, 115, 260, 525; R. T. A. Innes, 309; New Variable Star in Lyra, A. Stanley Williams, 92; New Variable in Cygnus, A. Stanley Williams, 188; New Variable Star, 1, 1901 (Cygni), Stanley Williams, 426; New Variable, 2, 1901 (Cygni), Dr. T. D. Anderson, 502; New Variable Star, 70 (1901), Ursa Majoris, 620; Observations of Circumpolar Variable Stars, 502; Cooperation in Observing Variable Stars, Prof. E. C. Pickering, 477; Catalogue of New Variable Stars, 452; Catalogue of Southern Variable Stars, Alexander W. Roberts, 548; Light Curve of Algol, A. A. Nijland, 525; Ephemeris of Comet 1900 *b* (Borelly-Brooks), 39; Elements of, 92; Elements of Comet 1900 *c*, 260; Elliptic Elements of Comet 1900 *c*, 333; Observations of, at Algiers, MM. Rambaud and Sy, 291; Brorsen's Comet, 333; Definitive Elements of the Orbit of Comet 1898 VII., 355; Astronomical Work at Dunsink Observatory, 39; the Leonid Meteors, 39, 92, 116; the Leonid Meteoric Shower, W. F. Denning, 39; Annual Report of the Melbourne Observatory, P. Baracchi, 67; Abnormal Stars in Clusters, Prof. E. E. Barnard, 68; the Zodiacal Light, 68; Visual Observation of Capella (*a* Aurigæ), Prof. W. J. Hussey, 92; Distribution of Minor Planets, M. Freycinet, 116; New Minor Planets, W. R. Brooks, 240; the Telescopic Planets, M. de Freycinet, 123; Catalogue of One Hundred New Double Stars, Prof. W. J. Hussey, 141; Double Star Measures, 286; Dr. Doberck, 383; Catalogue of Double Stars, 596; Brooks' Minor Planets, 333; "Annuaire Astronomique for 1901," 163; the Heavens at a Glance, 1901, 164; Companion to the Observatory, 1901, 164; Can Spectrum Analysis Furnish us with Precise Information as to the Petrography of the Moon? Dr. W. J. Knight, 180; Marking on Mars, Mr. Douglass, 189; Opposition of Mars in 1888, G. V. Schiaparelli, 286; Relative Motion of the Earth and the Ether, William Sutherland, 205; Tycho's at Prague, Prof. Dr. F. I. Studnicka, 206; Diameter of Venus, Prof. T. J. J. See, 212; Reduction of Occultations, L. Cruls, 212; Heliometer Measures of β and χ Persei, Prof. Schur, 240; Annuaire pour 1901 Bureau des Longitudes, 240; Catalogue of Stars (Hamburg), 240; Spain and Greenwich Time, 240; the Stability of a Swarm of Meteorites, Prof. Andrew Gray, F.R.S., 250; Visible Spectrum of Nova Aquilæ, Prof. W. W. Campbell, 260; Normal Positions of Ceres, Prof. G. W. Hill, 260; the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, its History and Work, E. W. Maunder, 271; Origin of Terrestrial Magnetism, 286; the Almucantar, C. S. Howe, 309; Die Photographie im Dienste der Himmelskunde, Dr. Karl Kustersitz, 324; a Primer of Astronomy, Sir Robert Ball, F.R.S., 325; Refraction within Telescope Tube, James Renton, 334; Variations in the Motion of the Terrestrial Pole, 354; New Component of the Polar Motion, Prof. S. C. Chandler, 452; Jupiter and his Markings, W. F. Denning, 355; Photographic Catalogue of Polar Stars, 355; Catalogue of Principal Stars in Coma Berenices Cluster, 383; United States Naval Observatory, 383; Kant's Cosmogony, W. Hastie, 413; Constant of Aberration, C. L. Doolittle, 405; Harvard College Observatory, 406; the New Star in Perseus, 420, 477, 482; Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 441, 467, 540; J. Janssen, 483; Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 497; Prof. H. C. Vogel, 502, 620; Prof. Copeland, 507; C. Easton, 540; Prof. Hale, 596; Mr. Sharp, 628; Dr. Rambaud, 628; Chart for Observations of Nova Persei, 525; the Spectrum of Nova Persei, Prof. H. C. Vogel, 575; New Type of Shortened Telescope, E. Schaer, 452; a Cosmic Atmosphere, Dom Lamey, 459; Maps in Theory and Practice, Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 464; Dimensions of the Saturnian System, Prof. T. J. J. See, 477; Royal Astronomical Society, 482, 627; Modern Astronomy, H. H. Turner, F.R.S., 488; the Orientation of Greek Temples, Dr. F. C. Penrose, F.R.S., 492; a remarkable Group of Nebulous Spots, 596; Stonyhurst College Observatory, 596; Rutherford Measures of Pleiades, Harold Jacoby, 548; on a Solar Calorimeter depending on the rate of Generation of Steam, J. Y. Buchanan, F.R.S., 548; the Romance of the Heavens, A. W. Bickerton, 607; Reduction of Photographs of Stellar Spectra, 620
- Atkinson (Llewelyn B.), the Principles of Magnetism and Electricity, 515
Atlas, Philip's London School Board, 344
Atlas, the London School, 344
Atlantic, North, on the Results of a Deep-sea Sounding Expedition in the, during the Summer of 1899, R. E. Peake, Sir John Murray, K.C.B., F.R.S., 487; North Atlantic Weather in Winter 1898-9, 499
Atmosphere: on the Spectrum of the more Volatile Gases of Atmospheric Air, which are not condensed at the Temperature of Liquid Hydrogen, Prof. G. D. Liveing, F.R.S., Prof. J. Dewar, F.R.S., 189
Atmosphere: Researches on the Past and Present History of the Earth's Atmosphere, Dr. T. L. Phipson, 537
Atmospheric Electricity, Drs. Elster and Geitel, 283; Variation of, E. Pellew, 491
Atoll of Miorikoi, the, J. S. Gardiner, 195
Atoms: Matter, Ether and Motion, A. E. Dolbear, 533; La Constitution du Monde, Dynamique des Atomes, Madame Clemence Royer, 533; Mutmassungen über das Wesen der Gravitation, der Elektrizität und der Magnetismus, Dr. Hermann Fischer, 533; Ueber mögliche Bewegungen möglicher Atome, Dr. Hermann Fischer, 533
Audibility of the Sound of Firing on February 1, 355, 372, 420; Sir W. J. Herschel, 395; Arthur R. Hinks, 441; Robert B. Hayward, F.R.S., 538
Aurora, Photography of the, 525
Australia: the Geology of Sydney and the Blue Mountains, Rev. J. Milne Curran, 81; Investigations of the Habits and Folklore of Australian Aborigines, 88; Origin of Australian Aborigines, R. H. Mathews, 574; Fossil Remains from Lake Callabonna, E. C. Stirling and A. H. C. Zeitz, 181; the Vegetable Resources of Australia, R. T. Baker, 331; Glacial Phenomena of Australia, Prof. Penck, 405; de Paris aux Mines d'Or de l'Australie Occidentale, O. Chemin, 440
Automic Curves, H. L. Orchard, 7; A. S. Thorn, 7; A. B. Basset, F.R.S., 82
Auvergne and Ireland, Early Observations of Volcanic Phenomena in, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 464
Avebury (Lord, F.R.S.), Huxley's Life and Work, 62, 92, 116
- Baby and Nursery, Mother, Genevieve Tucker, 418
Bacon (Rev. John M.), by Land and Sky, 203
Bacteriology: the Form and Size of Bacteria, Dr. Allen Macfadyen and J. E. Barnard, 9; *Vibrio bresimiae*, Pathogenic Organism of Fish, R. G. Smith, 100; Gases produced by Bacteria from certain Media, W. C. C. Pakes and W. H. Jollyman, 123; Bacterial Disease of Turnip, Prof. M. C. Potter, 218; the "Clouthing" of White Wine, R. G. Smith, 220; the Essentials of Practical Bacteriology, H. J. Curtis, 274; Bacteriology of Sea Air and Water, Dr. R. Minervini, 282; Anaërobic Life, Dr. Klett, 307; the Micro-organism of Distemper, Dr. Copeman, 332; the Tubercle-Bacillus in Milk, Dr. Klein, 332; Vitality of Bacteria in Milk, F. Valagussa and C. Ortona, 404; Thermal Death-point of Tubercle-Bacillus, Messrs. Russell and Hastings, 353; the Effect of Physical Agents on Bacterial Life, Dr. Allen Macfadyen, 359; Microbes et Distillerie, Lucien Lévy, 370; Abstract of Interim Report on Yellow Fever by Drs. Durham and Myers, 401; the Death of Dr. Myers, 402; Influence of Physical Agents on Bacteria, 420; Bacterial Decomposition of Formic Acid, W. C. C. Pakes and W. H. Jollyman, 433; Influence of Ozone on Bacteria, Dr. A. Ransome, F.R.S., and A. G. R. Foulerton, 458; Death and Obituary Notice of A. C. Jones, 521; Production of Acetyl-Methyl-Carbinol by *Bacillus tartricus*, L. Grimbert, 532; Dr. Metchnikoff on Microbes and the Human Body, 621; Action of *Bacillus coli communis* on Carbohydrates, A. Harden, 626
Bailey (C.), *Ranunculus Bachii*, 459
Baker (R. T.), an Obsidian "Bomb," 148; the Vegetable Resources of Australia, 331
Baker (T. J.), Thermo-chemistry of Copper-zinc Alloys, 363

- Ball (Sir Robert Stawell, F.R.S.), a Treatise on the Theory of Screws, 246; a Primer of Astronomy, 325
- Ballistics: Explosive Effects of Modern Infantry Bullet, C. Cranz and K. R. Koch, 12; Vibration of Gun-barrels, C. Cranz and K. R. Koch, 279
- Ballooning: Trial of Endurance in, 63; Count von Zeppelin's Navigable Balloon, A. Stolberg, 187; by Land and Sky, Rev. John M. Bacon, 203; Balloon Ascents, January 10, 353; the Ascents of February 7, Dr. Hergesell, 449; the International Ascents of March 7, Dr. Hergesell, 594
- Baracchi (P.), Annual Report of the Melbourne Observatory, 67
- Barlow (W.), Model showing Arrangement for Chemical Atoms of Calcite, 363
- Barnard (Prof. E. E.), Abnormal Stars in Clusters, 68
- Barnard (J. E.), the Form and Size of Bacteria, 9
- Barnes (H. T.), Experiments by Continuous-Flow Method of Calorimetry, 22
- Barral (E.), the Preparation of Mixed Esters, 24
- Barrett-Hamilton (G. E. H.), the Field-Mice and Wrens of St. Kilda and Shetland, 299
- Barton (Dr. E. H.), the Refraction of Sound by Wind, 123
- Barton (Mr.), New Lanterns for Projection Purposes, 291
- Barus (C.), Torsional Magneto-striction in Strong Transverse Fields, 266; Apparent Hysteresis in Torsional Magneto-striction in Relation to Viscosity, 481
- Basset (A. B., F.R.S.), Autotomic Curves, 82
- Battelli (Prof. A.), the Behaviour of Gases at Low Pressure, 594
- Baud (E.), Combinations of Ammonia with Aluminium Chloride, 339
- Bayley (P. Child), Photography in Colours, 298
- Bayrac (P.), New Method of Distinguishing Colouring Matters by Study of Light-Absorption applied to Indophenols, 604
- Beadnell (H. J. L.), Eocene and Cretaceous Series in Nile Valley, 382
- Beard (Dr. J.), Morphological Continuity of Germ-Cells, 210; the Thymus Gland, 306
- Beaulard (F. de), Dielectric Hysteresis, 36
- Beauverie (J.), Influence of Osmotic Pressure of Medium on Vegetable Form and Structure, 364
- Beck (Dr. Richard), Lehre von den Erzlagerstätten, 245, 510
- Bequerel (Prof. Henri), the Radio-Activity of Matter, 396; Secondary Radio-Activity of Metals, 435; Secondary Radio-Activity, 556
- Beddard (Frank E., F.R.S.), the Size of the Brain in the Insectivore Centetes, 394; Note upon a New Form of Spermatophore in an Earthworm, 515
- Bedford (the Duke of), Report of the Working and Results of the Woburn Experimental Fruit Farm, 177
- Beer Poisoning Epidemic, the, 541; Selenium in Sulphuric Acid, V. H. Veley, F.R.S., 587
- Bees, the Habits of, A. Netter, 196
- Beet, Sugar, Cultivation in England, A. D. Hall, 450
- Béhal (A.), Quinone, the Active Principle of *Iulus terrestris*, 196; Ketones from Wood Tar, 412; Action of Organo-metallic Derivatives on Alkyl Esters, 460; an Isomeride of Anethol, 483
- Bektashis of Cappadocia, the, J. W. Crowfoot, 210
- Belgian Antarctic Expedition, the Land Work of the, 516
- Belief and Certitude, Knowledge, F. Storrs Turner, 273
- Bellati (M.), Heat Evolved when Powders are Wetted, 500
- Bemmelen (W. van), Die Säkular-Verlegung der Magnetischen Axe der Erde, 324
- Benedict (F. G.), Elementary Organic Analysis, 514
- Benjafield (Dr.), Tasmania as a Health Resort, 187
- Bennie (James), Death and Obituary Notice of, 352
- Benoist (Louis), Law of Transparency of Matter for X-Rays, 411
- Berber Anthropology, Messrs. MacIver and Wilkin, 170
- Bernoulli's (James) Theorem on Probability, Prof. J. Cook Wilson, 465
- Bernard (Noel), Tuberculation of Potato, 412
- Berry (D.), the "Sentinel" Milk Steriliser, 205
- Berry (Dr. R. J. A.), the True Cæcal Apex, 266
- Berthelot (Daniel), Diagnosis of Gaseous Supersaturation in Physical and Chemical Cases, 23; Chemical Activity under Silent Electrical Discharge, 99; Combination of Silver with Oxygen, 243; Silver and Carbon Monoxide, 243; Hydrogen and Silver, 243; Allotropic States of Silver, 387; Generation of Hydrocarbons by Metallic Carbides, 411; Platinum in Egyptian Hieroglyphics, 556; Electro-chemical Relations and Allotropic State of Silver, 556; Action of Hydrogen Peroxide on Silver Oxide, 628
- Bertrand (Prof. C. E.), Kerosene Shale from Megalong Valley, N.S.W., 220
- Berzelius (Jöns Jacob), the Letters of, and Christian Friedrich Schonbein, 1836-1847, Georg W. A. Kahlbaum, Francis V. Darbishire, N. V. Sidgwick, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 77
- Bessel's Functions, the Value of the Cylinder Function of the Second Kind for Small Arguments, W. B. Morton, 29
- Best (W. C.), Australian Observations of November Meteors, 209
- Bezold (Dr. C.), Catalogue of the Cuneiform Tablets in the Konyunjik Collection of the British Museum, 562
- Biblical Studies, Popular, Rev. Edward Day, 559
- Bickerton (A. W.), the Romance of the Earth, 298; the Romance of the Heavens, 607
- Bidwell (Dr. S.), Experiments illustrating Phenomena of Vision, 23
- Biehring (Joachim), Einführung in die Stöchiometrie, 250
- Biffen (R. H.), Influence of External Conditions on Spore-formation of *Acrospira mirabilis*, 555
- Biles (Prof. J. H.), Naval Architecture in United States, 546
- Biltz (Dr. H.), Oxidation of Hydrazone of Dibromoxybenzaldehyde in Alkaline Solution by Air at Ordinary Temperature, 13
- Binet (Maurice), Respiratory Diagnosis of Tuberculosis, 532
- Biology: Buchner's Zymase, Prof. J. Reynolds Green, F.R.S., 106; Death of Prof. John Gardiner, 186; the Thompson-Yates Laboratories Report, 249; Mathematics and Biology, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 274; Some Recent Advances in Biological Science, Prof. G. B. Howes, F.R.S., 261; Scientific Developments of Biology and Medicine, 286, a Text-book of Zoology, treated from a Biological Standpoint, Dr. O. Schmeil, 321; the Liverpool Museum and Progress, 327; the Cell in Development and Inheritance, E. B. Wilson, Prof. J. B. Farmer, 437; les Diastases et leurs Applications, E. Pozzi-Escot, 607; Marine Biology: Regenerative Power of Marine Planarians, Rina Monti, 113; Influence of Nutrition on Sex, Dr. J. F. Gemmill, 140; Organographie der Pflanzen, insbesondere der Archegoniaten und Samenpflanzen, Dr. K. Goebel, Prof. J. B. Farmer, 149; Male *Squilla Desmarestii* taken at Plymouth, 163; Osmotical Openness of Marine Invertebrate, R. Quinton, 171; Compensation-sac in Lepralioid Polyzoa, Dr. Harmer, 195; Note on d'Orbigny's *Onychoteuthis dussumieri*, 291; Alcyonium, Dr. Hickson, 330; the Fifth Report upon the Fauna of Liverpool Bay and the Neighbouring Seas, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 370; Recent Work of the Indian Marine Survey, 427; Captures at Plymouth, 451; Species taken at Plymouth, 548; Contents of Cods' Stomachs, Dr. B. Sharp, 618
- Birds: the Birds of Ireland, R. J. Ussher, R. Warren, 101; the Story of the Birds, C. Dixon, 101; Among the Birds, Florence Anna Fulcher, 101; Our Bird Friends, R. Kearton, 183; a Nest of Young Starlings in Winter, 252; Birds of Africa, the, G. E. Shelley, 393; Bird-destruction in France, L. A. Levat, 500
- Birmingham: Inauguration of a Birmingham Section of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, 452
- Bison: the Numbers of the American Bison, 96
- Black Rules White, Where: a Journey Across and About Hayti, H. Prichard, 512
- Black (J. H.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 473
- Blackman (V. H.), "Blood-rain" Plant in Camden Square Tank, 617
- Blaise (E. E.), New General Method for Preparation of Ketones and Ketonic Acids, 292
- Blanc (G.), the Alkylcyanomalonate Esters and Derivative Alkylcyanacetic Acids, 435
- Blanford (Dr. W. T., F.R.S.), the Distribution of Vertebrate Animals in India, Ceylon and Burma, 287; Directions of Spirals in Horns, 298
- Blast-furnace Gases in Gas Engines, the Use of, 241
- Bloch (Eugène), Action of Radium Radiation on Selenium, 628
- Blood, Method of Distinguishing Human from Animal, Dr. Uhlen-Luth, 499; Drs. Wassermann and Schutze, 499
- "Blood-rain" Plant in Camden Square Tank, V. H. Blackman, 617

- "Blood-rains," the Recent, Prof. J. W. Judd, C.B., F.R.S., 514
- Blount (B.), the Rotary Cement Manufacturing Process, 449
- Blount (G. Bertram), Practical Electro-chemistry, 582
- Blutgerinnung, Untersuchungen zur, Dr. Ernst Schwalbe, 512
- Board of Trade and Electric Lighting, the, 587
- Boats, Submarine, 601
- Bodroux (F.), Propylbenzene, 340
- Boilers, Naval, 564
- Bollettino della Società Sismologica Italiana, 22, 169, 339
- Bone (W. A.), Dissociation Constants of Alkyl-substituted Succinic Acids, 75
- Bongert (A.), Action of Butyryl Chloride on Sodium Compound of Methyl Acetoacetate, 532
- Bonnet (A.), "Gélivure" due to Lightning, 556
- Bonney (Prof. T. G., F.R.S.), Rocks from Newlands Diamond Mines, Griqualand West, 242; in the Ice World of Himalaya, Fanny Bullock Workman, William Hunter Workman, 254; the Story of Nineteenth Century Science, Henry Smith Williams, 342; Frost Fronds, 347
- Bonnier (Gaston), Order of Formation of Elements of Central Cylinder in Root and Stem, 99
- Bookkeeping for Business Men, J. and S. W. Thornton, 417
- Books, the Publication of, without Dates, Prof. O. Henrici, F.R.S., 372
- Books of Science, Forthcoming, 503
- Boppe (L.), les Forêts, 1
- Borchgrevink (C. E.), First in the Antarctic Continent; being an Account of the British Antarctic Expedition, 1898-1900, 468
- Borelly-Brooks, Comet (1900 *b*), Elements of, 92
- Botany: Domenico Cirillo and the Chemical Action of Light on Plants, Prof. Italo Giglioli, 15; a Glossary of Botanic Terms with their Derivation and Accent, Benjamin Daydon Jackson, 28; Studies in Fossil Botany, D. H. Scott, F.R.S., 53; Action of Chemical Solutions on Algæ, N. Oño, 66; Action of Chemical Solutions on Infusoria, Prof. A. Yasuda, 66; the "Park-lands" in Tanganyika District of Central Africa, J. E. S. Moore, 98; Insect-capture by *Araujia albens*, G. S. Saunders, 98; Order of Formation of Elements of Central Cylinder in Root and Stem, Gaston Bonnier, 99; Evolution of Terpene Derivatives in Geranium, Eugene Charabot, 100; Phosphorescent Fungi in Australia, D. McAlpine, 100; the Venation of Leaves, H. Deane, 100; Blue Chlorophyllin, M. Tevett, 134; Exosmosis of Diastasis by Plantules, Jules Laurent, 124; the Fertilisation of Flowering Plants, W. J. G. Land, 140; Journal of Botany, 146, 314; Seminae in Seeds containing Horny Albumen, Em. Bourquelot and H. Hérissey, 147; Organographie der Pflanzen, insbesondere der Archegoniaten und Samenpflanzen, Dr. K. Goebel, Prof. J. B. Farmer, 149; a Weeping Chrysanthemum, 161; Ants' Mushroom Gardens, Prof. W. M. Wheeler, 162; Insects affecting Tobacco-plant, Dr. L. O. Howard, 162; New Fitchia from Raratonga Island, W. B. Hemsley, F.R.S., 169; Abnormal Cluster of Edible Chestnut Fruit, W. B. Hemsley, F.R.S., 169; Treatment of Carnation Pest, *Fusarium Dianthi*, G. Delacroix, 171; Constituent of Peppermint Odour in Eucalyptus Oil, H. G. Smith, 172; Geraniol in Eucalyptus Oil, H. G. Smith, 267; Handbook of British Rubi, William Moyle Rogers, 176; Bacterial Disease of Turnip, Prof. M. C. Potter, 218; Le Tabac, Culture et Industrie, E. Bouant, 248; Briefwechsel zwischen Franz Unger und Stephan Endlicher, 248; Methyl Alcohol in Fermented Fruit Juice, Jules Wolff, 267; Death of Adolphe Chatin, 280; Obituary Notice of, 351; *Erigenia bulbosa*, a Tuberos Root, Theo Holm, 290; Australian Fairy-Ring Puff-Ball, D. McAlpine, 268; Observations on *Melandrium (Lychnis dioica)*, Prof. Strasburger, 307; the Vegetable Resources of Australia, R. T. Baker, 331; the Mycetozoa and some Questions which they Suggest, Rt. Hon. Sir Edward Fry, F.R.S., 323; Rôle of Chlorophyll Function in Terpenic Evolution, 340; an Introduction to Vegetable Physiology, J. Reynolds Green, F.R.S., 345; Death of Dr. J. G. Agardh, 352; Obituary Notice of, 377; Red Colouring Matter of Roots of *Eremocarya micrantha*, T. D. A. Cockerell, 353; Manna of Olive, M. Trabut, 364; Influence of Osmotic Pressure of Medium on Vegetable Form and Structure, J. Beauverie, 364; Intumescences in *Hibiscus vitifolius*, Elizabeth Dale, 386; the Ash Constituents of Some Lakeland Leaves, Dr. P. Q. Keegan, 396; Action of Total Pressure on Chlorophyll Assimilation, Jean Friedol, 412; Tuberculosis of Potato, Noel Bernard, 412; the Nature and Work of Plants, D. T. MacDougal, 417; Geotropism, F. Darwin, 434; Artificial Cultures of Xylaria, C. Dale, 434; Raciborski's Researches on Leptomin, Prof. S. H. Vines, F.R.S., 434; Reserve Hydrocarbon in Tubercles of *Arrhenatherum bulbosum*, V. Harlay, 435; First Stage Botany, as illustrated by Flowering Plants, Alfred J. Ewart, 439; *Ranunculus bachi*, C. Bailey, 459; a Practical Guide to Garden Plants, John Weathers, 463; Germination in Distilled Water, P. P. Dehérain and M. Demoussy, 483; Prussic Acid in Cassava, Prof. Carmody, 500; Fertilisation in Aspidium and Adiantum Ferns, C. Thom, 501; Sensibility of Higher Plants to very small doses of Toxic Substances, H. Coupin, 508; Absorption of Highly-diluted Poisons by Plant Cells, H. Devaux, 532; Death of W. Hodgson, 545; Influence of External Conditions on Spore-formation of *Acrospeira mirabilis*, R. H. Bifen, 555; Mannose-producing Reserve Carbohydrate from Lilium Bulb, J. Parkin, 555; Die Flora der Deutschen Schutz-gebiete in der Südee, Prof. Dr. Karl Schumann und Dr. Karl Lauterbach, 586; Blood-rain Plant in Camden Square Tank, V. H. Blackman, 617; Bouant (E.), Le Tabac, Culture et Industrie, 248
- Boulud (M.), Maltosuria in certain Diabetics, 507
- Bourquelot (Em.), Seminae in Seeds containing Horny Albumen, 147
- Bouveault (M.), Direct Nitration of Unsaturated Fatty Compounds, 13; Nitro-derivatives of Ethyl dimethylacrylate, 75-6; Transformation of Dimethylacrylic Acid into Dimethylpyruvic Acid, 435; Action of Butyryl Chloride on Sodium Compound of Methyl Acetoacetate, 532
- Bouvier (E. L.), Distinctive Characteristics of *Peripatopsis Sedgwicki*, 23
- Boys (Prof. C. V., F.R.S.), Instruments of Precision at the Paris Exhibition, 156
- Bradford Municipal Technical College, the, Prof. Rücker, 69 133
- Brain, the Size of the, in the Insectivore Centetes, Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S., 394
- Brandis (Sir Dietrich, F.R.S.), Forestry in British India, Berthold Ribbentrop, 597
- Braun's (Prof.) System of Wireless Telegraphy, 402
- Brauer (B.), Atomic Weight of Lanthanum, 626; Atomic Weight of Praseodymium, 626; Praseodymium Tetroxide and Peroxide, 626; Neodymium, 626; Thorium, 626
- Bredig (G.), Diastatic Actions of Colloidal Platinum, 460
- Brief History of Mathematics, a, Dr. Karl Fink, 103
- Brambles, British, 176
- Britain, Great, Forestry in, Dr. W. Schlich, 565
- British Association: Conference of Delegates of Corresponding Societies, 20; Dew-ponds, Prof. Miall, 20; Clement Reed, 20; Mr. Hopkinson, 20
- British Brambles: Handbook of British Rubi, William Moyle Rogers, 176
- British Columbia: the Ethnography of, Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History, vol. ii., Anthropology, i., the Jesup North Pacific Expedition, iv., the Thompson Indians, James Teit, Prof. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 3
- British India, Forestry in, Berthold Ribbentrop, Sir Dietrich Brandis, F.R.S., 597
- British and German Antarctic Ships, the, 591
- British Journal Photographic Almanac, the, 249
- British Minerals, Output and Value of, Prof. Le Neve Foster, F.R.S., 72
- British Museum: Catalogue of the Cuneiform Tablets in the Konyunjik Collection of the British Museum, Dr. C. Bezold, 562
- British Strata, the Table of, Dr. H. Woodward and H. B. Woodward, 560
- Broca (A.), Disruptive Discharge in Electrolytes, 628
- Brooks (W. R.), New Minor Planets, 240
- Brooks' Minor Planets, 333
- Broom (Dr. R.), Echidna with Eight Cervical Vertebrae, 268; Ossification of Vertebrae in Marsupials, 268
- Brosen's Comet, 333
- Brough (Bennett H.), the Nature and Yield of Metalliferous Deposits, 18; the Mining Statistics of the World, 551
- Brühl (Jul. Wilh.), Die Pflanzen-Alkaloide, 486
- Brunton's Metallic Wires, Electrical Resistance of, 260
- Bryan (Prof. G. H., F.R.S.), History and Progress of Aerial Locomotion, 526

- Buchan (Dr.) Diurnal Summer Range of Temperature in Mediterranean, 171
 Buchanan (J. Y., F.R.S.), a Solar Calorimeter, 195; on a Solar Calorimeter depending on the rate of Generation of Steam, 548
 Buchner (E.), the Active Agent in Fermentation, 240
 Buchner's Zymase, Prof. J. Reynolds Green, F.R.S., 106
 Buckingham (Edgar), an Outline of the Theory of Thermodynamics, 269
 Budgett (J. S.), Breeding Habits of Protopterus and other West African Fishes, 170
 Bullet, Modern Infantry, Explosive Effects of, C. Cranz and K. R. Koch, 12
 Bulletin of American Mathematical Society, 50, 146, 290, 432, 481, 577
 Burbury (Mr.), the Doctrine of Partition of Energy among Molecules of Gas, 209
 Burgess (W. V.), Hand in Hand with Dame Nature, 325
 Burma: the Distribution of Vertebrate Animals in India, Ceylon, and Burma, Dr. W. T. Blandford, F.R.S., 287
 Business Men, Book-keeping for, J. and S. W. Thornton, 417
- Cagnola, Atti della Fondazione scientifica, vol. xvii., 369
 Calculus, Differential and Integral, for Beginners, Edwin Edser, 560
 Californian Solar Motor, the, 572
 Callabonna, Lake, Fossil Remains from, E. C. Stirling and A. H. C. Zeitz, 181
 Callender (Prof.), Expansion of Silica, 529
 Calmette (Prof. A.), the Plague, 63; Plague-Infection, 89
 Calorimeter, on a Solar, depending on the rate of Generation of Steam, J. Y. Buchanan, F.R.S., 548
 Calorimetry: Experiments by Continuous-flow Method, H. T. Barnes, 22
 Cambridge Philosophical Society, 195, 434, 531, 555
 Cambridge Sentinel Milk Steriliser, the, 166; D. Berry, 205
 Camichel (C.), New Method of Distinguishing Colouring Matters by Study of Light-Absorption applied to Indophenols, 604
 Campbell (A.), A Phase-Turning Apparatus for Use with Electrostatic Voltmeters, 74; Method of Power-measurements in Alternating Circuit Currents, 74; On Obtaining Alternating Currents and Voltages in same Phase for Fictitious Loads, 74
 Campbell (Prof. W. W.), Visible Spectrum of Nova Aquilæ, 260
 Camus (L.), Researches on Fibrinolysis, 363
 Canada: Great November Display of Meteors in Canada, 422; Obituary Notice of Dr. G. M. Dawson, F.R.S., 472
 Canal, the Chicago Drainage, 547
 Cape Horn, the Proper Routes Round, 89
 Capella, Visual Observation of (α Aurigæ), Prof. W. J. Hussey, 92
 Cappadocia, the Bektashis of, J. W. Crowfoot, 210
 Carmody (Prof.), Prussic Acid in Cassava, 500
 Carter (W.), Derivatives of Ethyl α -methyl- β -phenylcyanoglutarate, 75; Amide-Formation from Aldehydes, 529; Method for Preparing Amides from Corresponding Aldehydes, 548
 Carus (Dr. Paul), the History of the Devil and the Idea of Evil, 151
 Castle (Frank), Workshop Mathematics, 153
 Catalogue of the Mesozoic Plants in the Department of Geology, British Museum (Natural History), the Jurassic Flora. I., the Yorkshire Coast, A. C. Seward, F.R.S., 537
 Catalogue of Scientific Literature, International, 180
 Catalogue of One Hundred New Double Stars, Prof. W. J. Hussey, 141
 Catalogue of Principal Stars in Coma Berenices Cluster, 383
 Catalogue of Stars (Hamburg), 240
 Cats, Protective Markings in, Clarence Waterer, 441; Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S., 466
 Caubet (F.), Liquefaction of Gaseous Mixtures, 339
 Causse (H.), Iron Thiocarbonate in Rhone Water, 171
 Caven (R. M.), Organic Derivatives of Phosphoryl Chloride, 433
 Cazeneuve (P.), New Alcohol from Limonene, 435
 Cell in Development and Inheritance, the, E. B. Wilson, Prof. J. B. Farmer, F.R.S., 437
 Celli (Angelo), Malaria, 80
- Celtic Folk-lore, Welsh and Manx, John Rhys, E. Sidney Hartland, 485
 Cement, the Rotatory Manufacturing Process, W. H. Stanger and B. Blount, 449
 Census of Cuba, the, Lieut.-Colonel J. P. Sanger and Messrs. H. Gannett and W. F. Willcox, 162
 Census, German, of December 1900, 423
 Century, the New, 221
 Century, the Mind of the, 513
 Cephalopods: Note on D'Orbigny's *Onychoteuthis Dussumieri*, W. E. Hoyle, 291
 Ceres, Normal Positions of, Prof. G. W. Hill, 260
 Certitude, Knowledge, Belief and, F. Storrs Turner, 273
 Ceylon: the Distribution of Vertebrate Animals in India
 Ceylon and Burma, Dr. W. T. Blandford, F.R.S., 287; Apatite in Ceylon, Prof. A. H. Church, F.R.S., 464
 Chabrié (C.), Place of Indium in Classification of Elements, 267; Indium, 460
 Chaix (Prof. Paul), Death of, 593
 Chamberlain (A. F.), the Child, a Study in the Evolution of Man, 105
 Chandler (Prof. S. C.), New Component of the Polar Motion, 452
 Chapman (E. M.), α -hydroxycamphorcarboic acid, 433
 Charabot (Eugène), Evolution of Terpene Derivatives in Geranium, 100; Rôle of Chlorophyll Function in Terpenic Evolution, 340
 Characters, Secondary Sexual, J. T. Cunningham, 29, 231, 197, 250, 299; Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 197, 251, 299
 Characters, Secondary Sexual, and the Coloration of the Prong-buck, R. I. Pocock, 157
 Charpentier (Aug.), Nervous Transmission of Instantaneous Electric Stimulus, 435
 Chart for Observations of Nova Persei, 525
 Charts, Pilot, 494
 Chatin (Adolphe), Death of, 280; Obituary Notice of, 351
 Chauveau (A.), Effect of Substitution of Alcohol for Sugar in Food on Muscular Action, 316, 339
 Chemin (O.), De Paris aux Mines d'Or de l'Australie Occidentale, 440
 Chemistry: the Present Condition of the Indigo Industry, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 7, 111, 302; Direct Nitration of Unsaturated Fatty Compounds, MM. Bouveault and Wahl, 13; Oxidation of Hydrazone of Dibromoxybenzaldehyde in Alkaline Solution by Air at Ordinary Temperature, Dr. H. Biltz, 13; New General Method of Preparing Aromatic Aldehydes, Prof. Curtius, 14; Domenico Cirillo and the Chemical Action of Light on Plants, Prof. Italo Giglioli, 15; Concentration on Electrodes in Solutions, Dr. H. J. S. Sand, 23; Diagnosis of Gaseous Supersaturation in Physical and Chemical Cases, Daniel Berthelot, 23; Origin of Atmospheric Hydrogen, Armand Gautier, 23; Hydrogen in Air, M. Armand Gautier, 478; the Liquefaction of Hydrogen, Dr. W. M. Travers, 122; the Boiling Point of Liquid Hydrogen, Prof. James Dewar, F.R.S., 458; Direct Combination of Hydrogen with Metals of the Rare Earths, Camille Matignon, 147; Action of Steam and Mixture of Hydrogen and Steam on Molybdenum and its Oxides, Marcel Guichard, 196; Hydrogen and Silver, Daniel Berthelot, 243; Union of Hydrogen and Chlorine, J. W. Mellor, 291; Action of Hydrogen on Bismuth Sulphates, 316; Hydrogen-Production in Igneous Rocks, Armand Gautier, 363; Rectification of Previous Note as to Amount of Hydrogen Disengaged from Granites by Acids, Armand Gautier, 267; Direct Combination of Nitrogen with Metals of Rare Earths, Camille Matignon, 123; Refractive Index of Bromine, Ch. Rivière, 24; Ammoniacal Arseniates of Cobalt, P. Ducru, 24; the Preparation of Mixed Esters, E. Barral, 24; Stereochemistry of Nitrogen, L. J. Simon, 24; the Ammoniacal Arseniates of Nickel, O. Ducru, 51; the Selenides of Cobalt, M. Fozes-Diacon, 51; Modification of Chemical Properties of Simple Bodies by Addition of Small Proportions of Foreign Substances, Gustave Le Bon, 51; Cellulose and Hydrocellulose, Leo Vignon, 51; Two Ketones Containing Acetylene Grouping, Ch. Moureu and R. Delange, 51; Splitting-up by Alkalis of Acetylenic Ketones, Ch. Moureu and R. Delange, 99; the Growth of the German Acetylene Industry, 113; the Examination of Contaminated Waters for Cystine, M. Molinié, 52; the Journal of Physical Chemistry, 54; Behaviour of Carbon at High Temperatures and Pressures, Dr. Q. Majorana, 64;

Pozzolana, O. Rebuffat, 64; Action of Solutions on Algae, N. Oño, 66; Action of Solutions on Infusoria, Prof. A. Yasuda, 66; Phyllorubine, L. Marchlewski, 66; Methazonic Acid, W. R. Dunstan and E. Goulding, 75; Hexachlorides of Benzonitrile, Benzamide and Benzoic Acid, F. E. Matthews, 75; Influence of Solvents on Rotation of Optically Active Compounds, I., T. S. Patterson, 75; Action of Heat on Ethyl Sulphuric Acid, W. Ramsay and G. Rudolf, 75; Nitro-derivatives of Fluorescein, J. T. Hewitt and B. W. Perkins, 75; Derivatives of Ethyl α -methyl- β -phenylcyanoglutarate, W. Carter and W. T. Lawrence, 75; Rhamnazin and Rhamnatin, A. G. Perkin and J. R. Allison, 75; Genistein, II., A. G. Perkin and E. J. Wilkins, 75; Dissociation Constants of Alkyl-substituted Succinic Acids, W. A. Bone and C. H. G. Sprankling, 75; Velocity of Reaction between Ethyl Alcohol and Hydrochloric Acid, T. S. Price, 75; Nitro-derivatives of Ethyl Dimethylacrylate, L. Bouveault and A. Wahl, 75; Chemical Society, 75, 123, 291, 339, 433, 529, 626; Presidential Address, Dr. T. E. Thorpe, 545; the Letters of Jöns Jacob Berzelius and Christian Friedrich Schönbein 1836-1847, Georg W. A. Kahlbaum, Francis V. Darbishire, N. V. Sidgwick, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 77; Solubility of Potters' Lead Fritts, W. Jackson and E. M. Rich, 98; Chemical Activity under Silent Electrical Discharge, Daniel Berthelot, 99; Evolution of Terpene Derivatives in Geranium, Eugène Charabot, 100; Trichlorobenzoic Acid, F. E. Matthews, 123; Oxidation of Benzalthiosemicarbazone, G. Young and W. Eyre, 123; the Nitration of Benzeneazosalicylic Acid, J. T. Hewitt and J. J. Fox, 123; Gases produced by Bacteria from certain Media, W. C. C. Pakes and W. H. Jollyman, 123; Bases in Scottish Shale Oil, F. C. Garrett and J. A. Smythe, 123; Blue Chlorophylline, M. Tsvett, 124; the possible variation of the Valency of Carbon, M. Gomborg, 142; New method of estimating Arsenic, O. Ducru, 147; General Method of Separation of Metals of Platinum Group, E. Leidée, 147; Cadmium Selenide, M. Fonzes Diacon, 147; Action of Nitric Acid on Tribromoguaiacol, H. Cousin, 147; Seminae in Seeds containing Horny Albumen, Em. Bourquelot and H. Hérissey, 147; Argon and its Companions, Prof. William Ramsay, F.R.S., Dr. Morris, W. Travers, 164; New Syntheses of Some Diureides, W. Traube, 167; Chemical Composition of Turquoise, S. L. Penfield, 169; Volumetric Estimation of Copper Oxalate, C. A. Peters, 169; Study of Carbide of Samarium, Henri Moissan, 171; Comparative products of Combustion of different Lighting Apparatus, N. Gréhant, 171; Iron Thiocarbonate in Rhone Water, H. Causse, 171; Simultaneous Production of Two Nitrogen Products in Vesuvius Crater, R. V. Matteucci, 171; Constituent of Peppermint Odour in Eucalyptus Oil, H. G. Smith, 172; Geraniol in Eucalyptus Oil, H. G. Smith, 267; New Aromatic Aldehyde in Eucalyptus Oils, H. G. Smith, 579; Lehrbuch der anorganischen Chemie, Prof. Dr. H. Erdman, 178; Chemical Products and Appliances at the Paris International Exhibition, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 179; Death of Sir John Conroy, F.R.S., 186; Potassium Mercury and Sodium Mercury and Sodium with Cadmium, Lead and Bismuth Alloys, N. S. Kournakow, 188; Quinone, the active principle of venom of *Iulus Terrestris*, MM. Béhal and Phisalix, 196; Natural and Artificial Perfumes, 212; Chemie der Eiweisskörper, Dr. Otto Cohnheim, Dr. J. A. Milroy, 224; the Alleged Decadence of German Chemistry, 231; the Active Agent in Fermentation, E. Buchner, 240; Combination of Silver with Oxygen, Daniel Berthelot, 243; Silver and Carbon Monoxide, Daniel Berthelot, 243; Glycolysis of different Sugars, P. Portière, 244; the Elements of Inorganic Chemistry, W. A. Shenstone, F.R.S., 249; Einführung in die Stöchiometrie, Joachim Biehringer, 250; Place of Indium in Classification of Elements, C. Chabré and E. Rengade, 267; Indium, C. Chabré and E. Rengade, 460; Methyl Alcohol in fermented Fruit Juice, Jules Wolff, 267; Ammonium Amalgam, Herrn Coehn and Dannenberg, 285; Chemical Analysis of Glaucophane Schists, H. S. Washington, 290; Nitration of Tolueneazophenols, J. T. Hewitt and J. H. Lindfield, 291; Bromination of Ortho-Oxy compounds, J. T. Hewitt and H. A. Phillips, 291; Use of Pyridine for Molecular Weight Demonstrations by Ebullioscopic Methods, W. R. Innes, 291; Influence of Methyl Group on Ring formation, A. W. Gilbody and C. H. G.

Sprankling, 291; Action of Nitrous Acid on β -Nitroso- α -naphthylamine, A. Harden and J. Okell, 291; 1:2:4-metaxylidine-6-Sulphonic Acid, H. E. Armstrong and L. P. Wilson, 291; New Phosphide of Tungsten, Ed. Defacqz, 292; Sodium Peroxide, G. F. Jaubert, 292; Composition of Hydride and Nitride of Thorium, C. Matignon and M. Delépine, 292; New General Method for preparation of Ketones and Ketonic Acids, E. E. Blaise, 292; Action of Methyl-acetylacetone and Ethyl-acetylacetone on Diazo Chlorides, G. Favrel, 292; Gaseous Products disengaged by Heat from Granites, Armand Gautier, 316; Combinations of Chlorides of Phosphorus with Boron Bromide, M. Tarible, 316; the new mode of preparing Hydrated Sodium Peroxide, G. F. Jaubert, 316; Charles Gerhardt: sa Vie, son Oeuvre, sa Correspondance, 1816-1856, Edouard Grimaux, Charles Gerhardt, 318; A School Chemistry, Dr. John Waddell, 323; Preparation of Iodic Acid, A. Scott and W. Arbuckle, 339; Preparation of Esters from other Esters of same Acid, T. S. Patterson and C. Dickinson, 339; Tecomin, T. H. Lee, 339; New Method for Measurement of Ionic Velocities in Aqueous Solution, B. D. Steele, 339; Liquefaction of Gaseous Mixtures, F. Caubet, 339; Combinations of Ammonia with Aluminium Chloride, 339; the Isolation of Yttria, Ytterbium and New Erbium, G. and E. Urbain, 339; Arsenide and Chloro-Arsenide of Tungsten, Ed. Defacqz, 340; Nitrofurfurane, R. Marquis, 340; New Organometallic Compounds of Mercury, A. and L. Lumière and M. Chevrotier, 340; Mechanism of Diastase Reaction, M. Hanriot, 340; Propylbenzene, F. Bodioux, 340; *Rôle* of Chlorophyll Function in Terpenic Evolution, Eug. Charabot, 340; Lectures on Theoretical and Physical Chemistry, J. H. van't Hoff, 343; Leçons de Chimie Physique, J. H. van't Hoff, 343; Thermochemical Relations, Dr. Carlo del Lungo, 348; Thermo-chemistry of Copper-Zinc Alloys, T. J. Baker, 363; Thermochemical Relations, Prof. Spencer Pickering, F.R.S., 394; Laboratory Companion for use with Shenstone's Inorganic Chemistry, W. A. Shenstone, F.R.S., 346; Reduced Nickel Active Catalytic Agent, MM. Sabatier and Senderens, 354; Biorotation of *d*-glucose, Dr. Y. Osaka, 354; Model showing arrangement for Chemical Atoms of Calcite, W. Barlow, 363; Action of Boron Bromides on Iodides of Phosphorus and Halogen Compounds of Arsenic and Antimony, M. Tarible, 363; Action of ϵ -Naphthyl Alcohol on its Sodium Derivatives, Marcel Guerbet, 363; Manna of Olive, M. Trabut, 364; an Elementary Treatise on Qualitative Chemical Analysis, Prof. T. F. Sellers, 369; Analytical Tables for Complex Inorganic Mixtures, F. E. Thompson, 370; the Profession of an Industrial Chemist, Dr. J. Lewkowitsch, 383; Proteid Reaction of Adamkiewicz and Chemistry of Glyoxylic Acid, F. G. Hopkins, 386; Allotropic States of Silver, Daniel Berthelot, 387; Borates of Magnesium and Alkaline Earth Metals, L. Ouvrard, 387; Electrolysis of Oxy-acids, L'Abbé J. Hamonet, 387; Saccharifying Action of Wheat-Germs, M. Lindet, 387; Generation of Hydrocarbons by Metallic Carbides, Daniel Berthelot, 411; Formation and Decomposition of Acetals, Marcel Delépine, 411; Action of Esters of Monobasic Fatty Acids on Mixed Organo-Magnesium Compounds, V. Grignard, 412; Ketone from Wood Tar, A. Behal, 412; Synthesis of Fumaric Acid, O. Doebner, 426; Sulphuryl Fluoride, H. Moissan and M. Lebeau, 426; Action of Hydrogen Bromide on Carbo-Hydrates, H. J. H. Fenton and M. Gostling, 433; Method for comparing Affinity-values of Acids, H. J. H. Fenton and H. O. Jones, 433; Organic Derivatives of Phosphoryl Chloride, R. M. Caven, 433; α -Hydroxycamphorcarboic Acid, A. Lapworth and E. M. Chapman, 433; Bacterial Decomposition of Formic Acid, W. C. C. Pakes and W. H. Jollyman, 433; New Method of preparing Diacetamide, A. W. Titherley, 433; Organic Derivatives of Silicon, F. S. Kipping and L. L. Lloyd, 433; Isomeric Hydrindamine Camphor- π -Sulphonates, F. S. Kipping, 433; Tetramethylene Carbinol, W. H. Perkin, Jun., 433; New Alcohol from Limonene, P. Cazeneuve, 435; Transformation of Dimethylacrylic Acid into Dimethylpyruvic Acid, MM. Bouveault and A. Wahl, 435; Reserve Hydrocarbon in Tubercles of *Arrhenatherum bulbosum*, V. Harlay, 435; certain conditions of Reversibility, A. Colson, 460; Action of Organo-metallic derivatives on Alkyl Esters, A. Behal, 460; Diastatic Actions of Colloidal Platinum, 460; Ausgewählte Methoden der Analytischen Chemie, Prof. Dr. A. Classen, 463; Syntheses with Magnesium Compounds,

- M. Grignard, 477; Theory of Colloidal Solutions, Dr. F. G. Donnan, 482; Sulphammonium, Henri Moissan, 483; New Silicide of Cobalt, Paul Lebeau, 483; an Isomeride of Anethol, MM. Behal and Tiffeneau, 483; General Method for Syntheses of Naphthenes, Paul Sabatier and J. H. Sanderens, 484; Die Pflanzen-Alkaloide, Jul. Wilh. Brühl, Eduard Hjelt, Ossian Aschan, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 486; the Chemists' Pocket Manual, R. K. Meade, 489; Chemistry an Exact Mechanical Philosophy, Fred. G. Edwards, 489; Injurious Constituents in Potable Spirits, 491; Prussic Acid in Cassava, Prof. Carmody, 500; Action of High Temperature on Alcohol, W. Ipatieff, 501; Atomic Weight of Tellurium, O. Steiner, 501; Reduction of Sulphomolybdic Acid by Alcohol, E. Péchard, 508; Tetramethyleneglycol, J. Hamonet, 508; New Preparation of Terpinol, P. Genvresse, 508; Practical Organic Chemistry for Advanced Students, Dr. Julius B. Cohen, 511; Contact Process of Sulphuric Acid Manufacture, Prof. A. Haller, 524; Acetylation of Arylamines, J. J. Sudborough, 529; Method of Isolating Maltose from Glucose, A. C. Hill, 529; Amide-formation from Aldehydes, R. H. Pickard and W. Carter, 529; Formation of Aromatic Compounds from Ethyl Glutaconate, W. T. Lawrence and W. H. Perkin, Jun., 529; Method of Comparing Affinity-values of Acids, H. J. H. Fenton and H. O. Jones, 531; Isomeric Esters of Dioxymaleic Acid, H. J. H. Fenton and G. H. Ruffel, 531; Constitution of Cellulose, H. J. H. Fenton and Mildred Gostling, 531; Molecular Weight of Glycogen, H. Jackson, 531; Condensation of Formaldehyde and Formation of β -acrose, H. Jackson, 531; Action of Acids on Calcium Carbonate in presence of Alcohol, C. Vallée, 531; Commercial Ferrosilicons, P. Lebeau, 531; Action of Acid Chlorides and Anhydrides on Organo-metallic Compounds of Magnesium, MM. Tissier and Grignard, 531; the supposed Binaphthylene Alcohol, R. Fosse, 532; Action of Butyryl Chloride on Sodium Compound of Methyl Acetoacetate, MM. Bouveault and A. Bongert, 532; Production of Acetyl-Methyl-Carbinol by *Bacillus tartricus*, L. Grimbert, 532; Method of Preparing Amides from corresponding Aldehydes, Messrs. Pickard and Carter, 548; Platinum in Egyptian Hieroglyphics, Daniel Berthelot, 556; Electrochemical relations of Allotropic States of Silver, Daniel Berthelot, 556; Practical Electro-chemistry, G. Bertram Blount, Dr. F. M. Perkins, 582; the Origin of Thermal Sulphurous Waters, Armand Gautier, 556; Grundlinien der Anorganischen Chemie, Prof. W. Ostwald, 557; Engineering Chemistry, Thomas B. Stillman, 561; Three New Alkaloids from Tobacco, MM. Pictet and Rotschy, 575; Cinchonine, E. Jungfleisch and E. Léger, 579; Action of Esters of Dibasic Acids on Organo-metallic Compounds, Amand Valeur, 579; Organo-metallic Compounds of Magnesium, MM. Tissier and Grignard, 579; New Reactions of Organo-magnesium Compounds, Ch. Moureu, 579; New Synthesis of Aniline, G. F. Jaubert, 579; Death of Prof. F. M. Raoult, 593; New Method of distinguishing Colouring-matters by Study of Light Absorption applied to Indophenols, C. Camichel and P. Bayrac, 604; Reaction of Amidobenzophenones and Aromatic Amines in presence of Sulphuric Acid, Paul Lemoult, 604; Composition of Palermo "Blood Rain," S. Meunier, 604; Elementary Studies in Chemistry, Joseph Torrey, Prof. A. Smithells, 606; Properties of Steel containing Nickel, 619; Morphine, II., S. B. Schryver and F. H. Lees, 626; Pilocarpine, H. A. D. Jowett, 626; Action of *Bacillus coli communis* on Carbohydrates, A. Handen, 626; Alkylation of Acylarylamines, G. D. Lander, 626; Atomic Weight of Lanthanum, B. Brauner and F. Pavlíček, 626; Atomic Weight of Praseodymium, B. Brauner, 626; Praseodymium Tetroxide and Peroxide, B. Brauner, 626; Neodymium, B. Brauner, 626; Thorium, B. Brauner, 626; Pheno- α -Ketoheptamethylene, F. S. Kipping and A. E. Hunter, 627; Action of Hydrogen Peroxide on Silver Oxide, Daniel Berthelot, 628; Detection of Alkaloids by Micro-Chemical Method, E. Pozzi-Escot, 628; Agricultural Chemistry: Memoranda of the Origin, Plan and Results of the Experiments conducted at Rothamsted, 1900, 79; Agricultural Demonstration and Experiment, Prof. Wm. Somerville, F.R.S., 84
- Chevallier (H.), Permanent Variations of Electrical Resistance of Metallic Wires, 243
- Chevrotien (M.), New Organo-metallic Compounds of Mercury, 340
- Chicago Drainage Canal, the, 547
- Child (C. D.), Prof. Thomson's Method of determining Velocity of Ions, 573
- Child, the, a Study in the Evolution of Man, A. F. Chamberlain, 105
- China: Mount Omi and Beyond, A. J. Little, 543; China, her History, Diplomacy and Commerce from the earliest times to the present day, E. H. Parker, Supp. ix.
- Chisholm (H. W.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 304
- Chronology: a Self-verifying Chronological History of Ancient Egypt, a Book of Startling Discoveries, Orlando P. Schmidt, 581
- Chronometers, Action of Terrestrial Magnetism on the Rates of, 165
- Chronometry: Half-seconds Pendulums, Mr. Watson, 195
- Chrysanthemum, a Weeping, 161
- Church (Prof. A. H., F.R.S.), Apatite in Ceylon, 464
- Circumpolar Variable Stars, Observations of, 502
- Cirillo (Domenico) and the Chemical Action of Light on Plants, Prof. Italo Giglioli, 15
- Clark (Hubert Lyman), the Museum of the Institute of Jamaica, 347
- Clark (J. Edmund), Late Appearance of a Humming-bird Moth, 58
- Clark (Prof. W. Bullock), National Aspects of Scientific Investigation, 357
- Clarke (W. J.), Unconformity of Upper (Red) and Middle (Grey) Coal Measures of Shropshire, 219
- Classen (Prof. Dr. A.), "Ausgewählte Methoden der Analytischen Chemie," 463
- Cleavage, Electricities of Stripping and, Prof. A. S. Herschel, F.R.S., 179
- Climbing in the Himalayas: In the Ice World of Himalaya, Fanny Bullock Workman, William Hunter Workman, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 254
- Clowes (Prof. Frank), the Treatment of London Sewage, 190
- Clusters, Abnormal Stars in, Prof. E. E. Barnard, 68
- Coal Mining, Practical, George L. Kerr, 417
- Coal Resources of Victoria, James Stirling, 90
- Cockerell (Prof. T. D. A.), the Markings of Antilocapra, 58; the Jamaican Species of Peripatus, 325; the Mongoose in Jamaica, 348; Red Colouring Matter of Roots of *Eremocarya Micrantha*, 353
- Cocks (A. H.), Gestation Period of Pine-Marten, 170
- Coehn (Herr), Ammonium Amalgam, 285
- Coffee and Tobacco Planting, Literature of, G. H. James, J. R. Jackson, 7
- Cohen (Dr. Julius B.), Practical Organic Chemistry for Advanced Students, 511
- Coherer, a New Form of, Prof. Augustus Trowbridge, 156
- Cohnheim (Dr. Otto), Chemie der Eiweisskörper, 224
- Coins, the Ethnology of Ancient History deduced from Records, Monuments and, Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S., 309
- Cold Days, Very, Alex. B. MacDowall, 299
- Cole (Prof. Grenville A. J.), Steinbruchindustrie und Steinbruchgeologie, Dr. O. Herrmann, 27; the Metamorphic Rocks of Eastern Tyrone and Southern Donegal, 37; Early Observations of Volcanic Phenomena in Auvergne and Ireland, 464
- Cole (W. H.), Light Railways at Home and Abroad, 81
- Colin (E.), Magnetic Observations on Madagascar Coasts, 451
- Collection of Material for the Study of "Species," the, S. Pace, 490
- Colloidal Solutions, Theory of, Dr. F. G. Donnan, 482
- Colonisation, the Science of, 104
- Coloration of the Prong-buck, Secondary Sexual Characters and the, R. I. Pocock, 157
- Colours, Photography in, R. Child Bayley, 298
- Colson (A.), Certain Conditions of Reversibility, 460
- Columbia, British, the Ethnography of, Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History, vol. ii., Anthropology, i., the Jesup North Pacific Expedition, iv., the Thompson Indians, James Teit, Prof. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 3
- Coma Berenices Cluster, Catalogue of Principal Stars in, 383
- Comets: Ephemeris of Comet 1900 *b*, 39; Elements of Comet 1900 *b* (Borely-Brooks), 92; Elements of Comet 1900 *c*, 260; Elliptic Elements of Comet 1900 *c*, 333; Comet 1900 *c* (Giacobini), Observations at Algiers, MM. Rambaud and Sy, 291; Brorsen's Comet, 333; Definitive Elements of the Orbit of Comet 1898 vii., 355
- Commutation, the Theory of, C. C. Hawkins, 324

- Companion to the Observatory, 1901, 164
 Comstock (Prof. G. C.), Reduction of Observations of Eros, 405
 Conchology: *Sepia koettlitzii*, W. E. Hoyle and R. Standen, 196; Abnormally large Shells of Swan Mussel, Rev. J. Gerard, 219
 Concretions from the Champlain Clays of the Connecticut Valley, J. M. Arms Sheldon, 566
 Conference of Science Masters in Public Schools, Wilfred Mark Webb, 313
 Connecticut Valley, Concretions from the Champlain Clays of the, J. M. Arms Sheldon, 566
 Connett (A. H.), Combined Trolley and Conduit Tramway Systems, 547
 Conroy (Sir John, F.R.S.), Death of, 186
 Constable (F. C.), Malaria and Mosquitoes, 420
 Constant of Aberration, C. L. Doolittle, 405
 Constantinople, Earthquake at, 571
 Construction of Large Induction Coils, the, A. T. Hare, 229
 Contents-Subject Index to General and Periodical Literature, a, A. Cotgreave, 153
 Cooperation in Observing Variable Stars, Prof. E. C. Pickering, 477
 Coopers Hill, the Royal Indian Engineering College, 256, 280, 303, 378, 399, 568
 Cope (E. D.), the Crocodilians, Lizards and Snakes of North America, 415
 Copeland (Prof.). Nova Persei, 507
 Copeman (Dr.), the Microbe of Distemper, 332
 Corals: the Atoll of Minikoi, J. S. Gardiner, 195
 Cornish (Vaughan), Snow Waves, 521; Wave Surfaces in Sand, 623
 Cornu (A.), Influence of Earth's Magnetic Field on Magnetised Chronometer, 147
 Corona: Observations of the Infra-red Spectrum of the Solar Corona, M. Deslandres, 67; on the Nature of the Solar Corona, with some Suggestions for Work at the next Total Eclipse, Prof. R. W. Wood, 230; the Fraunhofer Lines in the Spectrum of the Corona, A. Fowler, 394
 Cosmogony, Kant's, W. Hastie, 413
 Cotgreave, (A.), a Contents-Subject Index to General and Periodical Literature, 153
 Coupin (H.), Sensibility of Higher Plants to very small Doses of Toxic Substances, 508
 Cousin (H.), Action of Nitric Acid on Tribromoguaiacol, 147
 Cranborne (Viscount), Game Preservation in South Africa, 186
 Craniology, N. C. Macnamara, 454
 Cranz (C.), Explosive Effects of Modern Infantry Bullet, 12; Vibration of Gun-Barrels, 279
 Creak (Captain Ettrick W., R.N., F.R.S.), the Value of Magnetic Observatories, 127
 Crémieu (V.), Rowland's Experiments on Magnetic Effect of Electrical Convection, 99
 Crew (Prof. H.), Difference in Spectra of Metals when Light-producing Arc is surrounded by Air or Hydrogen, 114
 Crocodilians, Lizards and Snakes of North America, the, E. D. Cope, 415
 Crosby (W. O.), Geology of the Blue Hills, Complex, 476
 Crowfoot (J. W.), the Bektashis of Cappadocia, 210
 Cruils (L.), Reduction of Occultations, 212
 Crump (Rev. J. A.), Skull-Trephining in New Britain, &c., 554
 Cryoscopy of Human Sweat, P. Arden-Delteil, 124
 Crystals: Mode of Crystallising from Albuminous Solutions without Surface Crust-Formation, A. Wróblewski, 238
 Crystals: Frost Fronds, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 347; Snow Crystals, C. J. Woodward, 441; Snow Crystals, Wm. Gee, 420; Liquid Crystals, So-called, G. Tammann, 529
 Crystalline Structure of Gold Nuggets, Prof. Liversidge, F.R.S., 172
 Cuba, the Census of, Lieut.-Colonel J. P. Sanger, Messrs. H. Gannett and W. F. Willcox, 162
 Cubics, Graphic Solution of the, Dr. G. Vacca, 609
 Cubics and Quartics, Graphic Solutions of the, T. Hayashi, 515
 Cultivation and Manufacture of Tobacco, 248
 Cuneiform Tablets in the Konyunjik Collection of the British Museum, Catalogue of the, Dr. C. Bezold, 562
 Cunningham (J. T.), Secondary Sexual Characters, 29; Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom; a Theory of the Evolution of Secondary Sexual Characters, 197; Secondary Sexual Characters, 231; Sexual Dimorphism, 250, 299
 Cunningham (Lieut.-Col.), Factorisation of Algebraic Prime Factors of $5^{78}-1$ and $5^{103}-1$, 627
 Cupellation in Roman Britain, Mr. Gowland, 282
 "Cupron-Element" Cell, the, 594
 Curie (P.), Induced Radio-Activity, 556
 Curran (Rev. J. Milne), the Geology of Sydney and the Blue Mountains, 81
 Current Papers, No. 5, H. C. Russell, F.R.S., 267
 Currents in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the, W. Bell Dawson, 311, 601
 Curtis (H. J.), the Essentials of Practical Bacteriology, 274
 Curtis (R. H.), Wind-Pressure, 481
 Curtius (Prof.), New General Method of Preparing Aromatic Aldehydes, 14
 Curves, Autotomic, H. L. Orchard, 7; A. S. Thorn, 7; A. B. Basset, F.R.S., 82
 Curves without Double Points, Herbert Richmond, 58
 Cyclones, Dynamics of, Mr. Aitken, 507
 Cygnus, New Variable in, A. Stanley Williams, 188
 Cygnus, New Variable Star in, 1, 1901, Stanley Williams, 426
 Cygnus, New Variable in, 2, 1901, Dr. T. D. Anderson, 502
 Cylinder Function of the Second Kind for Small Arguments, the Value of the, W. B. Morton, 29
 Cytology: the Cell in Development and Inheritance, E. B. Wilson, Prof. J. B. Farmer, F.R.S., 437

 D'Albuquerque (Prof. J. P.), Agriculture in the West Indies, 356
 Dale (Elizabeth), the Scenery and Geology of the Peak of Derbyshire, 80; Intumescences in *Hibiscus vitifolius*, 386; Artificial Cultures of Xylaria, 434
 Danckelmann (Dr.), Death of, 304
 Dannenberg (Herr), an Ammonium Amalgam, 285
 Darbshire (Francis V.), the Letters of Jöns Jacob Berzelius and Christian Friedrich Schönbein 1836-1847, 77
 Darboux (G.), Théodore Moutard, 521
 Darley (C. W.), Damage done to Seal Rocks Lighthouse (N.S.W.) by Lightning, 52
 Darwin (F.), Geotropism, 434
 Darwin: a Neo-Darwinian on Evolution, 341
 Darwin and Darwinism, Dr. P. Y. Alexander, 5
 Darwinism and Lamarckism, Four Lectures by Frederick Wollaston Hutton, F.R.S., 365
 Darwinism and Statecraft, G. P. Mudge, 561; National Life from the Standpoint of Science, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., Prof. E. Ray Lankester, F.R.S., Prof. John Perry, F.R.S. Supp. iii.
 Dasypeltis and the Egested Egg-shell, Prof. G. B. Howes, F.R.S., 326
 Davey (Henry), the Principles, Construction and Application of Pumping Machinery, 56
 David (Rev. Father Armand), Death of, 88
 Davidge (H.), Instruments of Precision at the Paris Exhibition, 107
 Davis (A. P.), Elevation and Stadic Tables, 514
 Davis (Prof. W. M.), Erosive Ability of Ice, 12
 Davison (Dr. Charles), Propagation across Pacific of Sea-waves from Japanese Earthquake of June 15, 1896, 140; the Effects of an Earthquake on Human Beings, 165
 Dawson (Dr. G. M., F.R.S.), Obituary Notice of, 472
 Dawson (W. Bell), the Currents in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, 311, 601
 Day (A.), the Melting-points of Gold, 330
 Day (Rev. Edward), the Social Life of the Hebrews, 559
 Day (Mr.), the Use of Gas Thermometers at High Temperatures, 163
 Days, Very Cold, Alex. B. MacDowall, 299
 Deane (H.), the Venation of Leaves, 100
 Deberne (A.), Induced Radio-activity, 556
 Decadence of German Chemistry, the Alleged, 231
 Decimal Association, Report of, 475
 Deeley (R. M.), Lubrication and Lubricants, 4
 Deep-sea Sounding Expedition in the North Atlantic during the Summer of 1899, on the Results of a, R. E. Peake, Sir John Murray, K.C.B., F.R.S., 487
 Defacqz (Ed.), New Phosphide of Tungsten, 292; Arsenide and Chloro-arsenide of Tungsten, 340

- Definitive Elements of the Orbit of Comet 1898 vii., 355
 Dehérain (P. P.), Germination in Distilled Water, 483
 Delacroix (G.), Treatment of Carnation Pest *Fusarium Dianthi*, 171
 Delange (R.), Two Ketones containing Acetylene Grouping, 51; Splitting-up by Alkalis of Acetylenic Ketones, 99
 Delépine (M.), Composition of Hydride and Nitride of Thorium, 292; Formation and Decomposition of Acetals, 411
 Demoussy (M.), Germination in Distilled Water, 483
 Denning (W. F.), the Leonid Meteoric Shower, 39; Fireball in Sunshine, 276; Jupiter and his Markings, 355
 Denny (W. A.), the Eyes of the Blind Vertebrates of North America, 589
 Derby (O. A.), Topaz in Brazil, 290
 Derbyshire, the Scenery and Geology of the Peak of, Elizabeth Dale, 80
 Design in Nature's Story, Walter Kidd, 178
 Deslandres (H.), Solar Corona Detected by Means of Thermocouple, 24; Observations of the Infra-red Spectrum of the Solar Corona, 67
 Despau (A.), Genèse de la Matière et de l'Energie, 25
 Deutsche Seewarte, Telegraphic Weather Reports, 522
 Devaux (H.), Absorption of Highly-diluted Poisons by Plant Cells, 532
 Devil and the Idea of Evil, the History of the, Dr. Paul Carus, 151
 Dew-ponds, Prof. Miall, 20; Clement Reid, 20; Mr. Hopkinson, 20
 Dewar (Prof. James, F.R.S.), on the Spectrum of the more Volatile Gases of Atmospheric Air, which are not Condensed at the Temperature of Liquid Hydrogen, 189; the Boiling Point of Liquid Hydrogen, 458
 Diabetes: Maltosuria in certain Diabetics, R. Lépine and M. Boulud, 507
 "Diagram" Series of Coloured Hand Maps, the, 344
 Diamonds: Rocks from Newlands Diamond Mines, Griqualand West, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 242
 Diastases, les, et leurs Applications, E. Pozzi-Escot, 607
 Diastaxy of Birds' Wings, C. Mitchell, 450
 Dickinson (B. B.), the "Diagram" Series of Coloured Hand Maps, 344
 Dickinson (C.), Preparation of Esters from other Esters of same Acid, 339
 Dietary Studies of Edinburgh Poor, Drs. Paton, Dunlop and Inglis, 99
 Differential and Integral Calculus for Beginners, Edwin Edser, 560
 Dimorphism, Sexual, J. T. Cunningham, 299; Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 299
 Dines (W. H.), the English Climate from Health Point of View, 146
 Direct Current Arc, some Experiments on the, W. Duddell, 182
 Disappearance of Images on Photographic Plates, the, William J. S. Lockyer, 278
 Disease, Air and, Harold Picton, 276
 Disease, Mosquitoes and, W. F. Kirby, 29
 Distemper, the Microbe of, Dr. Copeman, 332
 Distilling: Microbes et Distillerie, Lucien Lévy, 370
 Distribution of Vertebrate Animals in India, Ceylon and Burma, the, Dr. W. T. Blanford, F.R.S., 287
 Diureides, New Syntheses of some, W. Traube, 167
 Dixon (C.), the Story of the Birds, 101
 Dixon (Prof. H. B., F.R.S.), Specific Heat of Gases at High Temperatures, 75
 Doberck (Dr.), Double Star Measures, 383
 Doebner (O.), Synthesis of Fumaric Acid, 426
 Dolbear (A. E.), Matter, Ether and Motion, 533
 Dolomite used as Money by Pomo Indians, Dr. O. C. Farrington, 12
 Dolphin, a Remarkable, R. Lydekker, F.R.S., 82
 Donnan (Dr. F. G.), Theory of Colloidal Solutions, 482
 Doolittle (C. L.), Constant of Aberration, 405
 Double Points, Curves without, Herbert Richmond, 58
 Double Stars: Catalogue of One Hundred New, Prof. W. J. Hussey, 141; Double Star Measures, 286; Dr. Doberck, 383; Catalogue of Double Stars, 596
 Douglass (Earl), New Merycochærus in Montana, 266
 Douglass (Mr.), Marking on Mars, 189
 Downing (Dr. A. M. W., F.R.S.), the Leonids—a Forecast, 6
 Drainage Canal, the Chicago, 547
 Drum Recorder, a Student's, W. E. Pye and Co., 577
 Dublin Royal Society, 147, 435
 Ducretet (M.), Direct Application to Wireless Telegraphy of Telephonic Receiver, 267
 Ducru (O.), Ammoniacal Arseniates of Cobalt, 24; the Ammoniacal Arseniates of Nickel, 51; New Method of Estimating Arsenic, 147
 Duddell (W.), some Experiments on the Direct Current Arc, 182
 Duerden (Dr. J. E.), Abundance of Peripatus in Jamaica, 440
 Dufet (H.), Recueil de Données Numériques. Optique, 464
 Dunlop (Dr. J. C.), Dietary Studies of Edinburgh Poor, 99
 Dunsink Observatory, Astronomical Work at, 39
 Dunstan (B.), the Permo-Carboniferous Coal-Measures of Clermont, Queensland, 451
 Dunstan (W. R.), Methazonic Acid, 75
 Durand-Gréville (E.), the Pocky or Festoon Cloud, 139
 Durfee (Prof. W. P.), the Elements of Plane Trigonometry, 82
 Durham (Dr.) Abstract of Interim Report on Yellow Fever, 401
 Dust and Soot from various Sources, the Mineral Constituents of, Prof. W. N. Hartley, F.R.S., Hugh Ramage, 552
 Dust-tight Cases for Museums, Prof. T. McKenny Hughes, F.R.S., 420
 Dwarfs of Uganda, the, Sir H. Johnston, 238
 Dwight (Dr. T.), Description of the Human Spines, showing Numerical Variation, in the Warren Museum of the Harvard Medical School, 512
 Dyeing, the Present Condition of the Indigo Industry, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 7, 111, 302
 Dynamics: on the Statistical Dynamics of Gas Theory as illustrated by Meteor Swarms and Optical Rays, Dr. J. Larmor, F.R.S., 168; a Treatise on the Theory of Screws, Sir Robert Stawell Ball, F.R.S., Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 246; La Constitution du Monde, Dynamique des Atomes, Madame Clemence Royer, 533
 Dynamos: the Theory of Commutation, C. C. Hawkins, 324
 Ear, the Human, its Identification and Physiognomy, Miriam Anne Ellis, Dr. A. Keith, 392
 Earth: Researches on the Past and Present History of the Earth's Atmosphere, Dr. T. L. Phipson, 537
 Earth and the Ether, Relative Motion of the, William Sutherland, 205
 Earth, the Figure of the, C. A. Schott, 408
 Earth, the Romance of the, A. W. Bickerton, 298
 Earthquakes: Earthquake in Venezuela, 10; some Remarkable Earthquake Effects, 87; Propagation across Pacific of Sea-Waves from Japanese Earthquake of June 15, 1896, Dr. Charles Davison, 140; the Effects of an Earthquake on Human Beings, Dr. Charles Davison, 165; an Earthquake on February 10, Prof. Augusto Arcimis, 396; Earthquake at Constantinople, 571; Seismology in Japan, Prof. J. Milne, F.R.S., 588
 Earthworm, Note upon a New Form of Spermatophore in an, Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S., 515
 Easton (C.), the New Star in Perseus, 540
 Eclipses: Local Conditions for Observations of the Total Solar Eclipse, 1901 May 17-18, 163; the Total Solar Eclipse of May 17-18, Dr. J. A. Muller, 347; A. Fowler, 470; Spanish Observations of the Eclipse of May 28, Señor Iniguez, 188; on the Nature of the Solar Corona, with some Suggestions for Work at the Next Total Eclipse, Prof. R. W. Wood, 230; an Artificial Representation of a Total Solar Eclipse, Prof. R. W. Wood, 250; Eclipse Photography, Prof. Francis E. Nipher, 325
 Edler (Dr.), Necessary Distance of Magnetic Observatories from Electric Tramways, 89
 Edinburgh Mathematical Society, 99, 220, 291, 411, 483
 Edinburgh Poor, Dietary Studies of, Drs. Paton, Dunlop and Inglis, 99
 Edinburgh Royal Society, 99, 171, 266, 339, 387, 507
 Edington (Dr.), Protective Inoculation against Horse-sickness in Cape-Colony, 282
 Edison (T. A.), Permanent Phonographic Records, 523
 Edser (Edwin), Differential and Integral Calculus for Beginners, 560
 Education: Examinations in Experimental Science, 6; the New Scientific Laboratories at King's College London, 47; the

- Bradford Municipal Technical College, 69; Prof. Rücker, 133; Progress of Science Teaching, 193; Education in Science, James Sutherland, 275; Science Teachers in Conference, A. T. Simmons, 289; Conference of Science Masters in Public Schools, Wilfred Mark Webb, 313; the Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill, 256, 280, 303, 378, 399, 568; Technical Education at Manchester, A. T. Simmons, 336; the Owens College, Manchester, P. J. Hartog, 374; the Teaching of Elementary Mathematics, David Eugene Smith, Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., 367; Mathematics and Physics in Public Schools, G. H. J. Hurst, 370; Science at Sheffield University College, 383; Science in Technical and Preparatory Schools, A. T. Simmons, 407; the Teaching of Physiology, Dr. W. T. Porter, 427; National Life from the Standpoint of Science, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., Prof. E. Ray Lankester, F.R.S., Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., Supp. iii; Anthropologie als Wissenschaft und Lehrfach, Dr. Rudolf Martin, Supp. x.
- Edwards (Fred. G.), Chemistry and Exact Mechanical Philosophy, 489
- Egan (F. W.), Death of, 257
- Eggested Egg-shell, Dasyptelis and the, Prof. G. B. Howes, F.R.S., 326
- Eginitis (D.), Observations of Perseids at Athens, 24; Observations of Leonids and Bielids at Athens, 196
- Egyptian Hieroglyphics, Platinum in, Daniel Berthelot, 556
- Egyptology: a Self-verifying Chronological History of Ancient Egypt. A Book of Startling Discoveries, Orlando P. Schmidt, 581
- Eigenmann (C. H.), the Eyes of the Blind Vertebrates of North America, 589
- Eiweisskörper, Chemie der, Dr. Otto Cohnheim, Dr. J. A. Milroy, 224
- Elasticity: on a Proof of Traction-elasticity of Liquids, Prof. G. van der Mensbrugge, 274
- Electricity: Electric Wiring Tables, W. P. Maycock, 5; Concentration at Electrodes in Solutions, Dr. H. J. S. Sand, 23, 196; Elementary Questions in Electricity and Magnetism, Magnus Maclean, E. W. Marchant, 28; the Principles of Magnetism and Electricity, P. L. Gray, 439; Llewellyn B. Atkinson, 515; the Reviewer, 515; the Value of the Cylindrical Function of the Second Kind for Small Arguments, W. B. Morton, 29; Overhead Tramway Wire Accident at Vienna, 35; Method of Diminishing Disturbance of Magnetic Observatories by Tramways, Th. Moureaux, 35; Magnetic Field produced by Electric Tramways, Prof. A. W. Rücker, 194; Kew Observatory and the London United Tramways Company, 237, 281, 499, 572; R. T. Glazebrook, 257; Tramway Leakage and Gas and Water Pipes, Walter Hunter, 257; Combined Trolley and Conduit Tramway Systems, A. H. Connett, 547; Dover-Ostend Mail Packet Experiments with Marconi's Wireless Telegraphy, 36; Extension of Marconi's Wireless Telegraphy, 381; Wireless Telegraphic Fog-signal Apparatus, 187; Propagation of Hertzian Waves in Wireless Telegraphy, E. Lagrange, 363; Prof. Braun's System of Wireless Telegraphy, 402; Dielectric Hysteresis, M. F. Beaulard, 36; Electromotive Force produced by Motion of Liquid through Silvered Glass Tube, C. Zakrzewski, 37; Electrical Engineering as a Trade and as a Science, Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., 41; Damage done to Seal Rock Lighthouse by Lightning, C. W. Darley, 52; Electromotive Force and Osmotic Pressure, Dr. R. A. Lehfeldt, 74; a Phase-turning Apparatus for Use with Electrostatic Voltmeters, A. Campbell, 74; Method of Power-measurement in Alternating Circuit Currents, A. Campbell, 74; on Obtaining Alternating Currents and Voltages in same Phase for Fictitious Loads, A. Campbell, 74; les Plaques Sensibles au Champ Electrostatique, V. Schaffers, 82; Electric Traction Troubles, 83; Necessary Distance of Magnetic Observations from Electric Tramways, Dr. Edler, 89; Relations between Thermo- and Electro-magnetic Effects, Dr. W. Peddie, 99; Rowland's Experiments on Magnetic Effect of Electrical Convection, V. Crémieu, 99; Chemical Activity under Silent Discharge, Daniel Berthelot, 99; a Self-adjusting Wheatstone's Bridge, E. H. Griffiths and W. C. D. Whetham, 123; Oscillographs, 142; a New Form of Coherer, Prof. Augustus Trowbridge, 156; the Theory of Electrocapillary Phenomena, M. Gouy, 171; Electricities of Stripping and Cleavage, Prof. A. S. Herschel, F.R.S., 179; Photography of the Static Discharge, Dr. Hugh Walsham, 180; some Experiments on the Direct Current Arc, W. Duddell, 182; Electric Inertia and Inertia of Electric Convection, Prof. A. Schuster, 194; Electrical Properties of Hydrogen-chlorine Mixture exposed to Light, Prof. J. J. Thomson, 195; Electrical Leakage through Dust-free Air, C. T. R. Wilson, 195; the Construction of Large Induction Coils: a Workshop Handbook, A. T. Hare, 229; Permanent Variations of Electrical Resistance of Metallic Wires, H. Chevallier, 243; Electrical Resistance of Brunton's Metallic Wires, 260; Electromotive Force of Magnetisation, René Paillot, 243; the Lead Storage Battery, Desmond G. Fitzgerald, 249; "Blaze Currents" of Frog's Eyeball, Dr. A. D. Waller, F.R.S., 266; What is Heat and what is Electricity? F. Hovenden, 274; Electric Lighting, Shades for, W. L. Smith, 282; Atmospheric Electricity, Drs. Elster and Geitel, 283; Death of Z. T. Gramme, 304; Obituary Notice of, 327; the Theory of Commutation, C. C. Hawkins, 324; Proposed Monument to James Bowman Lindsay, 329; Captain Hassano's Smelting Process, 330; Use of Aluminium as Conductor, J. R. C. Kershaw, 330; New Method for Measurement of Ionic Velocities in Aqueous Solution, B. D. Steele, 339; Irregularity of Weston Cadmium Element, W. Jaeger, 362; Atti della Fondazione scientifica Cagnola, vol. xvii., 369; Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. Elisha Gray, 378; Electrolysis of Oxy-acids, L'Abbé J. Hamonet, 387; Die Moderne Entwicklung der Elektrischen Principien, Prof. Dr. Ferd. Rosenberger, 393; Integration of Equations of Propagation of Electric Waves, A. E. H. Love, F.R.S., 410; Electric Anemometer Indicating at Distance, E. Legrand, 411; Electric Distribution of Power in Workshops, 422; Death of Prof. G. F. Fitzgerald, F.R.S., 422; the Niagara Falls Power Company, 424; Nervous Transmission of Instantaneous Electric Stimulus, Aug. Charpentier, 435; Inauguration of a Birmingham Section of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, 452; Lightning from Cloudless Sky, C. E. Ashcroft, jun., 474; Variation of Atmospheric Electricity, E. Pellew, 491; Apparatus for Recording Alternating Current Waves, F. A. Laws, 500; Thermoelectric Position of Solid Mercury, Dr. Peddie, 507; Sinoidal Currents, Max Wien, 528; Mutmassungen über das Wesen der Gravitation, der Electricitäts und der Magnetismus, Dr. Hermann Fischer, 533; Practical Electrical Testing in Physics and Electrical Engineering, G. D. A. Parr, 538; Musical Arcs, 542; Effect of Magnetic Field on Resistance of Thin Metallic Films, J. Patterson, 555; Theory of Electric Conduction through Thin Metallic Films, Prof. J. J. Thomson, 555; Electrochemical Relations of Allotropic States of Silver, Daniel Berthelot, 556; Prof. J. J. Thomson's Method of Determining Velocity of Ions, C. D. Child, 573; the Ionisation of Air, C. T. R. Wilson, F.R.S., 577; Electro-capillary Properties of Organic Aqueous Solutions, M. Gouy, 579; Pine Boards Showing Tracks of Ball Lightning Discharges, Prof. F. E. Nipher, 580; Electro-chemistry, Practical, G. Bertram Blount, Dr. F. M. Perkin, 582; Les Phénomènes Electriques et leur Applications, H. Vivarez, 585; the Board of Trade and Electric Lighting, 587; the "Cupron-Element" Cell, 594; Mechanical Vibrations of Isolated Stretched Wire with Visible Discharge, O. Viol, 626; Disruptive Discharge in Electrolytes, MM. A. Broca and Turchini, 628
- Elevation and Stadic Tables, A. P. Davis, 514
- Eliot (J., F.R.S.), Meteorological Observations in India during Solar Eclipse of January 22, 1898, 36
- Elliott (R. H.), the Agricultural Changes and Laying Down Land to Grass, 585
- Elliptic Elements of Comet 1900 c, 333
- Ellis (Havelock), Huxley's Ancestry, 127
- Ellis (Miriam Anne), the Human Ear, its Identification and Physiognomy, 392
- Elster (Dr.), Atmospheric Electricity, 283
- Embryology, Mammalian, Method of Teaching, Prof. C. S. Minot, 306; Text-book of the Embryology of Invertebrates, Profs. Korschelt and Heider, 605
- Endlicher (Stephen), Briefwechsel zwischen Franz Unger und, 248
- Engert (H.), the Gracilissimus Muscle in Monkeys, 140
- Engine-room Practice, John G. Liversedge, 57
- Engineering: Lubrication and Lubricants, L. Archbutt and R. M. Deeley, 4; Electrical Engineering as a Trade and as a Science, Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., 41; the Principles,

- Construction and Application of Pumping Machinery, Henry Davey, 56; Engine-Room Practice, John G. Liversedge, 57; A Suspended Railway, 71; Light Railways at Home and Abroad, W. H. Cole, 81; Electric Traction Troubles, 83; Death of Prof. G. F. Armstrong, 88; Interval between Cracking and Bursting of Gauge Glasses, Dr. Wilson, 147; Workshop Mathematics, Frank Castle, 153; Death of Lord Armstrong, F.R.S., 209; Obituary Notice of, 235; the Tempering of Iron Hardened by Overstrain, James Muir, 218; Death and Obituary Notice of William Pole, F.R.S., 236; the Use of Blast-Furnace Gases in Gas Engines, 241; the Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill, 256, 280, 303, 378, 399, 568; Road-Making and Maintenance, Thomas Aitken, 272; Practical Lessons in Metal Turning, Percival Marshall, 297; Liquid Air as an Explosive, A. Larsen, 305; the Great Nile Dam at Assouan, 381; the Nilgiri Railway, W. J. Wrightman, 402; the Rotatory Cement Manufacturing Process, W. H. Stanger and B. Blount, 449; Inauguration of a Birmingham Section of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, 452; Practical Electrical Testing in Physics and Electrical Engineering, G. D. A. Parr, 538; Engineering Chemistry, Thomas B. Stillman, 561; the Californian Solar Motor, 572; Submarine Boats, 601; Modern Methods of Gas Manufacture, Harry E. Jones, 622
- Entomology: Entomological Society, 51, 98, 147, 219, 315, 433, 530, 554, 603; the Locust Plague and its Suppression, Aeneas Munro, 55; Late Appearance of a Humming-Bird Moth, J. Edmund Clark, 58; Lepidoptera not Atavistic, Dr. Max Standfuss, 65; Insect-Capture by *Aranyia albens*, G. S. Saunders, 98; Flies Injurious to Stock, Eleanor A. Ormerod, 127; Discontinuous Distribution of *Koenenia mirabilis*, Prof. W. M. Wheeler, 161; Ants' Mushroom Gardens, Prof. W. M. Wheeler, 162; Insects Affecting Tobacco Plant, Dr. L. O. Howard, 162; New Scale-Insect, *Walkeriana pertinax*, R. Newstead, 171; the Habits of Bees, A. Netter, 196; Aberrant Male Specimens of *Argynnis aglaia*, R. Adkin, 219; the Structure and Life-History of the Harlequin Fly (Chironomus), L. C. Miall, F.R.S., A. R. Hammond, 230; Death of J. H. Leech, 257; Structure of Ocelli of Insects, W. Redikorzew, 259; Termites' Ravages in Rhodesia, Rev. A. Leboeuf, 306; Source of Sound of Death's Head Moth, Prof. Poulton, F.R.S., 315; Entomological Nomenclature, G. H. Verrall, 315; Relations of Gregarians to Intestinal Epithelium, Michel Siedlecki, 363; *Bryophila muralis* from Dawlish, H. J. Turner, 530; Males of Eciton Ants, Messrs. Wheeler and Long, 594
- Erdman (Prof. Dr. H.), Lehrbuch der Anorganischen Chemie, 178
- Eros, Observations of, 14, 39, 116, 212, 333, 355; Opposition of Eros, M. Loewy, 188; Reduction of Observations of Eros, Prof. G. C. Comstock, 405; Variability of Eros, 452, 502; Dr. E. von Oppolzer, 383; F. Rossard, 426; Ch. André, 426; Perturbations of Eros Produced by Mars, H. N. Russell, 141; Eros and the Solar Parallax, 502
- Erysiphaceae, a Monograph of the, Ernest S. Salmon, 106
- Erzlagerstätten, Lehre von den, Dr. Richard Beck, Prof. Henry Louis, 245, 510
- Essentials of Practical Bacteriology, the, H. J. Curtis, 274
- Ether: Relative Motion of the Earth and the Ether, William Sutherland, 205; Matter, Ether and Motion, A. E. Dolbear, 533; la Constitution du Monde, Dynamique des Atoms, Madame Clemence Royer, 533; Mutmassungen über das Wesen der Gravitation, der Elektrizitäts und der Magnetismus, Dr. Hermann Fischer, 533; Ueber mögliche Bewegungen möglicher Atome, Dr. Hermann Fischer, 533
- Ethnic Affinities of the Slavs, Herr Zaborowski, 353
- Ethnography: the Ethnography of British Columbia, Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History, vol. ii.; i. the Jesup North Pacific Expedition; iv. the Thompson Indians; James Teit, Prof. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 3; a Plea for the Study of the Native Races in South Africa, Prof. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 157
- Ethnology: the Maldivians, J. S. Gardiner, 195; the Ethnology of Ancient History deduced from Records, Monuments and Coins, Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S., 309; Album of Papua, Types II., Dr. A. B. Meyer, R. Parkinson, 324; Where Black Rules White: a Journey Across and About Hayti, H. Prichard, 512; Origin of Australian Aborigines, R. H. Mathews, 574; Gothic Vestiges in Central Asia, Thos. W. Kingsmill, 608
- Euclid i. 32 Corr., R. Tucker, 58; Prof. George J. Allman, F.R.S., 106; Stam. Eumorfopoulos, 157
- Eumorfopoulos (Stam.), Euclid i. 32 Corr., 157
- Evans (Sir John, K.C.B., F.R.S.), the Origin and Progress of Scientific Societies, 119
- Evans (Dr. W. J.), Monchiquite from Mt. Girnar, 170
- Everett (Prof. J. D., F.R.S.), a Treatise on the Theory of Screws, Sir Robert Stawell Ball, F.R.S., 246; Abbe's Optical Theorems, 276; a Compact Method of Tabulation, 346; Maps in Theory and Practice, 464
- Evil, the History of the Devil and the Idea of, Dr. Paul Carus, 151
- Evolution: Darwin and Darwinism, Dr. P. Y. Alexander, 5; Secondary Sexual Characters, J. T. Cunningham, 29, 231; Secondary Sexual Characters and the Colouration of the Prong-buck, R. I. Pocock, 157; Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom; a Theory of the Evolution of Secondary Sexual Characters, J. T. Cunningham, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 197; Sexual Dimorphism, J. T. Cunningham, 250, 299; Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 251, 299; Studies in Fossil Botany, D. H. Scott, F.R.S., 53; The Child; a Study in the Evolution of Man, A. F. Chamberlain, 105; Design in Nature's Story, Walter Kidd, 178; Origin of Mammalia, iii., Prof. H. F. Osborn, 306; the Riddle of the Universe at the Close of the Nineteenth Century, Ernst Haeckel, 320; Problems of Evolution, F. W. Headley, 341; Origin of Vertebrate Eye and Meaning of Second Pair of Cranial Nerves, Dr. W. H. Gaskell, 354; Darwinism and Lamarckism, Four Lectures by Frederick Wollaston Hutton, F.R.S., 365; Darwinism and Statercraft, G. P. Mudge, 561; the Arboreal Ancestry of Marsupials, B. A. Bensley, 475; the Collection of Material for the Study of "Species," S. Pace, 490
- Ewart (Alfred J.), First Stage Botany, as illustrated by Flowering Plants, 439
- Experimental Science, Examinations in, 6
- Explosives: Liquid Air as Explosive, A. Larsen, 305
- Explosive Effects of Modern Infantry Bullet, C. Cranz and K. R. Koch, 12
- Eyes, the, of the Blind Vertebrates of North America, C. H. Eigenmann and W. A. Denny, 589
- Eyre (W.), Oxidation of Benzalthiosemicarbazone, 123
- Eyre-Todd (G.), Morison's Chronicle of the Year's News of 1900, 513
- Fabry (Ch.), Application of Interference Method to Measurement of Wave-lengths in Solar Spectrum, 51
- Fact and Fable in Psychology, Joseph Jastrow, 586
- Farmer (Prof. J. B.), Organographie der Pflanzen, insbesondere der Archegoniaten und Samenpflanzen, Dr. K. Goebel, 149; the Cell in Development and Inheritance, E. B. Wilson, 437
- Farrington (Dr. O. C.), Dolomite used as Money by Pomo Indians, 12
- Fassig (Dr. O. L.), Relation between Summer and Winter Temperatures, 572
- Favrel (G.), Action of Methyl-acetylacetone and Ethyl-acetylacetone on Diazoic Chlorides, 292
- Feeling, the Story of Thought and, F. Ryland, 325
- Fenton (H. J. H.), Action of Hydrogen Bromide on Carbohydrates, 433; Method of comparing Affinity Values of Acid, 433, 531; Isomeric Esters of Dioxymaleic Acid, 531; Constitution of Cellulose, 531
- Fermentation, the Active Agent in, E. Buchner, 240
- Fibrinolysis, Researches on, L. Camus, 363
- Field Mice and Wrens of St. Kilda and Shetland, the, G. E. H. Barrett-Hamilton, 299
- Fielding-Ould (Dr. R.), the Malaria Campaign, 32; Malaria and its Prevention, 494
- Figure of the Earth, the, C. A. Schott, 408
- Fink (Dr. Karl), a Brief History of Mathematics, 103
- Finsen's Phototherapeutic Method, Simple Apparatus for application of, MM. Lortet and Genoud, 387
- Fireball in Sunshine, W. F. Denning, 276
- Fireballs in October, 14
- Firing on February 1, Audibility of the Sound of, 355, 372, 420; Sir W. J. Herschel, 395; Arthur R. Hinks, 441; Robert B. Hayward, F.R.S., 538
- Fischer (Dr. Hermann), Mutmassungen über das Wesen der

- Gravitation, der Elektrizitäts und der Magnetismus, 533;
Ueber mögliche Bewegungen möglicher Atomie, 533
- Fisher (Prof. W. R.), Les Forêts, L. Boppe and Ant. Jolyet, 1
- Fisheries: the Octopus Plague on South Coast, W. Garstang, 187; Reports of Northumberland Sea-fisheries Committee, 331; the Fifth Report upon the Fauna of Liverpool Bay and the Neighbouring Seas, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 370; Notes on Seal and Whale Fishery, T. Southwell, 524
- FitzGerald (Desmond G.), the Lead Storage Battery, 249
- Fitzgerald (Prof. George Francis, F.R.S.), Death of, 422; Obituary Notice of, 445
- Flies Injurious to Stock, Eleanor A. Ormerod, 127
- Flusin (G.), Osmosis of Liquid through Pig's Bladder, 267
- Flying Machines, New, 403
- Fodor (Prof. Josef von), Death and Obituary Notice of, 544
- Fog about Newfoundland Banks, 522
- Fog-signal Apparatus, Wireless Telegraphic, 187
- Fog Studies on Mount Tamalpais, California, A. G. McAdie, 161
- Folgheraiter (Dr.), Lightning-induced Magnetism, 37
- Folkmar (D.), Leçons d'Anthropologie Philosophique, 56
- Folklore: Investigations of the Habits and Folklore of Australian Aborigines, 88; the History of the Devil and the Idea of Evil, Dr. Paul Carus, 151; Celtic Folklore, Welsh and Manx, John Rhys, E. Sidney Hartland, 485
- Fonze-Diacon (M.), the Selenides of Cobalt, 51; Cadmium Selenide, 147
- Food: Dietary Studies of Edinburgh Poor, Drs. Paton, Dunlop and Inglis, 99
- Food-fishes: Report of Northumberland Sea Fisheries Committee, 331
- Force, the Transmission of, Lord Kelvin, 266
- Forestry: les Forêts, L. Boppe et Ant. Jolyet, Prof. W. R. Fisher, 1; Death of Dr. Dankelmann, 304; the Selborne Yew-tree, F. Southerden, 491; Forestry in United States, 501; Forestry in Great Britain, Dr. W. Schlich, 565; Forestry in British India, Berthold Ribbentrop, Sir Dietrich Brandis, F.R.S., 597
- Formation of Hail, Methods of, Prof. Cleveland Abbe, 337
- Fosse (R.), the Supposed Binaphthylene Alcohol, 532
- Fossils: Studies in Fossil Botany, D. H. Scott, F.R.S., 53; Fossil Remains from Lake Callabonna, E. C. Stirling and A. H. C. Zeitz, 181; Catalogue of the Mesozoic Plants in the Department of Geology, British Museum (Natural History). The Jurassic Flora. I. The Yorkshire Coast, A. C. Seward, F.R.S., 537
- Foster (Prof. Le Neve, F.R.S.), Output and Value of British Minerals, 72
- Foulerton (A. G. R.), Influence of Ozone on Bacteria, 458
- Fowkes (Gerard), a pre-Columbian Scandinavian Colony in Massachusetts, 192
- Fowler (A.), the Fraunhofer Lines in the Spectrum of the Corona, 394; Total Eclipse of the Sun, May 18, 1901, 470
- Fox (J. J.), the Nitration of Benzeneazosalicylic Acid, 123
- France: les Forêts, L. Boppe et Ant. Jolyet, Prof. W. R. Fisher, 1; Bird-destruction in France, L. A. Levat, 500
- Franco (L.), Tromometric Records of Mount Etna and Catania Observatories, 425
- Frankenfield (Dr. H. C.), the Kite Work of the United States Weather Bureau, 109
- Fraunhofer Lines in the Spectrum of the Corona, the, A. Fowler, 394
- Freycinet (M.), Distribution of Minor Planets, 116
- Freycinet (M. de), the Telescopic Planets, 123
- Friedel (Jean), Action of Total Pressure on Chlorophyll Assimilation, 412
- Fritts, Lead, Solubility of Potters', W. Jackson and E. M. Rich, 98
- Fröbenius (Dr. L.), "Kulturformen" of Oceania, 239
- Froc (Rev. A.), Storms in China, 329
- Fronde, Frost, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 347
- Frost, Trees Bent by, Dr. H. von Schrenk, 404
- Frost Fronds, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 347
- Fruit Farming: Report of the Working and Results of the Woburn Experimental Fruit Farm, Duke of Bedford and Spencer U. Pickering, Dr. Maxwell T. Masters, 177
- Fry (Right Hon. Sir Edward, F.R.S.), the Mycetozoa and some Questions which they Suggest, 323
- Fulcher (Florence Anna), Among the Birds, 101
- Fungi, a Monograph of the Erysiphaceæ, Ernest S. Salmon, 106
- Furbinger (Prof. Max), Beitrag zur Systematik und Genealogie der Reptilien, 462
- Gages (L.), Travail des Metaux dérivés du Fer, 250
- Galloway (Dr. B. T.), National Aspects of Scientific Investigation, 358
- Game Preservation in Africa, Viscount Cranbourne, 186
- Gannett (H.), the Census of Cuba, 162
- Garden Plants, a Practical Guide to, John Weathers, 463
- Gardiner (Prof. John), Death of, 186
- Gardiner (J. S.), the Maldivians, 195; the Atoll of Minikoi, 195
- Garnault (P.), Therapeutic Applications of Light, 171
- Garrett (F. C.), Bases in Scottish Shale Oil, 123
- Garriott (E. B.), West Indian Hurricanes, 305
- Garstang (W.), the Octopus Plague on South Coast, 187
- Gas Engines, the Use of Blast-furnace Gases in, 241
- Gas Manufacture, Modern Methods of, Harry E. Jones, 622
- Gases: on the Statistical Dynamics of Gas Theory as Illustrated by Meteor Swarms and Optical Rays, Dr. J. Larmor, F.R.S., 168; on the Spectrum of the More Volatile Gases of Atmospheric Air which are not Condensed at the Temperature of Liquid Hydrogen, Prof. G. D. Liveing, F.R.S., Prof. J. Dewar, F.R.S., 189; the Doctrine of Partition of Energy among Molecules of Gas, Mr. Burbury, 209; the Behaviour of Gases at Low Pressures, Prof. A. Battelli, 594
- Gaskell (Dr. W. H.), Origin of Vertebrate Eye and Meaning of Second Pair of Cranial Nerves, 354
- Gaumont (L.), Photographic Method of Recording Speed of Motor Cars, 64
- Gauss (Carl Friedrich), Werke, Supp. viii.
- Gautier (Armand), Origin of Atmospheric Hydrogen, 23; Rectification of Previous Note as to Amount of Hydrogen disengaged from Granites by Acids, 267; Gaseous Products disengaged by Heat from Granites, 316; Hydrogen-production in Igneous Rocks, 363; Hydrogen in Air, 478; the Origin of Thermal Sulphurous Waters, 556
- Gee (Wm.), Snow Crystals, 420
- Geitel (Dr.), Atmospheric Electricity, 283
- Gélivure due to Lightning, L. Ravaz and A. Bonnet, 556
- Gemmill (Dr. J. F.), Influence of Nutrition on Sex, 140
- Genèse de la Matière et de l'Energie, A. Despau, 25
- Genesis of Art, the, Yrjö Hirn, Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S., 389
- Genoud (M.), Simple Apparatus for Applications of Finsen's Phototherapeutic Method, 387
- Genyresse (P.), New Preparation of Terpinol, 508
- Geodesy, the Figure of the Earth, C. A. Schott, 408
- Geography: Death of Rev. Father Armand David, 88; Death of Major Serpa Pinto, 237; the "Diagram" Series of Coloured Hand Maps, B. B. Dickinson, A. W. Andrews, 344; Philip's London School Board Atlas, G. B. Philip, 344; the London School Atlas, H. O. Arnold-Foster, 344; Maps in Theory and Practice, Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 464; the Gulf Stream Myth, H. M. Watts, 258; the Land Work of the Belgian Antarctic Expedition, 516; Mount Omi and Beyond, A. J. Little, 543; Death of Dr. Schlichter, 545; Death of Prof. Paul Chaix, 593; Wave Surfaces in Sand, Vaughan Cornish, 623; the Discoverer of Lake Ngami, William Cotton Oswell, Hunter and Explorer, W. E. Oswell, Supp. vi.; China, her History, Diplomacy, and Commerce from the Earliest Times to the Present Day, Supp. ix.
- Geology: Glacial Characters of Prieska Conglomerate, A. W. Rogers and E. H. L. Schwarz, 12; Erosive Ability of Ice, Prof. W. M. Davis, 12; Geology and Practice, Steinbruch-industrie und Steinbruchgeologie, Dr. O. Herrmann, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 27; the Geological Survey of Great Britain and Ireland, 33; the Metamorphic Rocks of Eastern Tyrone and Southern Donegal, Prof. Grenville Cole, 37; the Indian Trias, Dr. Mojsisovics, 65; Geology of Bad Nauheim, A. Vaughan, 66; the Scenery and Geology of the Peak of Derbyshire, Elizabeth Dale, 80; the Geology of Sydney and the Blue Mountains, Rev. J. Milne Curran, 81; the Evidence in Permian of Common Ancestral Stem of Dinosaurs and Birds, Prof. H. F. Osborn, 91; Certain Altered Rocks from near Bastogne, Dr. C. A. Raisin, 98; Geological Society,

- 98, 170, 219, 291, 314, 411, 482, 506, 530, 578, 627; Changes of Level in Iceland since Recent Geological Times, Dr. Reusch, 160; Quartz-Muscovite Rock from Belmont, Nevada, J. E. Spurr, 169; Monochiquite from Mount Girnar, Dr. W. J. Evans, 170; Geology of Mynydd-y-Garn, C. R. Matley, 170; Death of Dr. William King, 186; United States Geological Survey, 215; Lower Cretaceous Gryphaea of Texas, R. T. Hill and T. W. Vaughan, 215; Geology of Richmond (Va.) Basin, N. S. Shaler and J. B. Woodworth, 215; Geology of Yellowstone Park, Arnold Hague and others, 216; Geology of Narragansett Basin, N. S. Shaler, 216; Illinois Glacial Lobe, Frank Leverett, 216; the Blue Hills (Mass., U.S.A.) Complex, W. O. Crosby, 476; Concretions from the Champlain Clays of the Connecticut Valley, J. M. Arms Sheldon, 566; Unconformity of Upper (Red) and Middle (Grey) Coal-measures of Shropshire, 219; Kerosene Shale from Megalong Valley, N.S.W., Prof. C. E. Bertrand, 220; some Recent Advances in General Geology, 233; Crags of Weathered Granite in Black Hills of South Dakota, E. O. Hovey, 239; Rocks from Newlands Diamond Mines, Griqualand West, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 242; Lehre von den Erzlagern, Dr. R. Beck, Prof. H. Louis, 245, 510; Death of F. W. Egan, 257; Glaciation in Central Balkans, Prof. W. Götz, 259; the Cause of Slaty Cleavage, T. M. Reade and P. Holland, 259; a Former Mid-Pacific Continent, H. A. Pilsbry, 259; Recent Advances in the Geology of Igneous Rocks, 276; Igneous Rocks of Malvern Cambrian, Prof. T. T. Groom, 291; pre-Cambrian Igneous Rocks of Fox River Valley, Wisconsin, Dr. S. Weidman, 382; Igneous Rocks of Tortworth Inlier, Prof. C. L. Morgan, F.R.S., and S. H. Reynolds, 627; Geology, Mr. J. E. S. Moore's Researches in Lake Tanganyika, &c., 284; Upper Greensand and Chloritic Marl of Mere and Maiden Bradley, A. J. Jukes-Browne and John Scanes, 291; Das geotektonische Problem der Glarner Alpen, A. Rothpletz, 294; Geologische Alpenforschungen, A. Rothpletz, 294; Dr. Maria-M. Ogilvie-Gordon, 294; Origin of Name "Charnockite," T. H. Holland, 307; Geology of Lake Nyasa, Alex. Richardson, 315; Eocene and Cretaceous Series in Nile Valley, H. J. L. Beadnell, 382; Devonian Anthracite at Kouitcheou, in China, G. H. Monod, 387; Glacial Phenomena of Australia, Prof. Penck, 405; Origin of Dunmail Raise, R. D. Oldham, 411; Geological Succession of Morphological Ideals, Prof. W. A. Herdman, 425; Recent Work of the Indian Marine Survey, 427; Recent Swiss Geology, 443; the Permo-Carboniferous Coal-measures of Clermont, Queensland, B. Dunstan, 451; Early Observations of Volcanic Phenomena in Auvergne and Ireland, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 464; Death and Obituary Notice of Dr. G. M. Dawson, F.R.S., 472; Death and Obituary Notice of J. H. Blake, 473; Geology of British Guiana Goldfields, Prof. J. B. Harrison, 506; Submerged Valley opposite Congo Mouth, Prof. E. Hull, 506; the Sub-Millstone Grit Beds of Pendle Hill, Dr. W. Hind and J. A. Howe, 506; Recent changes in Northern and Central Asia, Prof. G. F. Wright, 530; Hollow Spherulites of the Yellowstone and Great Britain, John Parkinson, 530; Catalogue of the Mesozoic Plants in the Department of Geology, British Museum (Natural History), The Jurassic Flora, i. the Yorkshire Coast, A. C. Seward, F.R.S., 537; The Table of British Strata, Dr. H. Woodward and H. B. Woodward, 560; Landscape Marble from Bristol Rhætic, H. B. Woodward, 578; Remarkable Tertiary Volcanic Vent in Arran, B. N. Peach and W. Gunn, 578; Death of G. F. Reader, 571
- Geometry: Euclid i. 32 Corr., R. Tucker, 58; Prof. George J. Allman, F.R.S., 106; Stam. Eumorfopoulos, 157; a Treatise on Geometrical Optics, R. A. Herman, 203; Einführung in die Theorie der Curven in der Ebene und im Raume, Dr. Georg Scheffers, 584
- Gerard (Rev. J.), Abnormally large Shells of Swan Mussel, 219
- Gerhardt (Charles), sa Vie, son Oeuvre, sa Correspondance: 1816-1856; Edouard Grimaux et Charles Gerhardt, 318
- Germ-Cells, Morphological Continuity of, Dr. J. Beard, 210
- Germany: the Alleged Decadence of German Chemistry, 231; German Census of December 1900, 423; the British and German Antarctic Ships, 591
- Ghon (Dr.), Plague Infection, 89
- Giacobini, Elements of Comet 1900c, 260; Elliptic Elements of, 333; Observations of, at Algiers, MM. Rambaud and Sy, 291
- Gifford (J. W.), Quartz Calcite Symmetrical Doublet, 127
- Giglioli (Prof. Italo), Domenico Cirillo and the Chemical Action of Light on Plants, 15
- Gilbody (A. W.), Influence of Methyl Group on Ring Formation, 291
- Glacial Phenomena of Australia, Prof. Penck, 405
- Glaciation in Central Balkans, Prof. W. Götz, 259
- Glaciers: Minute Structure of Surface Ice, Mr. Skinner, 195; Recent Swiss Geology, 443
- Glass-making: Jena Glass and its Applications to Science and Art, Dr. H. Hovestadt, 173
- Glazebrook (R. T.), Kew Observatory and the London United Tramways Company, 257
- Glossary of Botanic Terms with their Derivation and Accent, A. Benjamin Daydon Jackson, 28
- Goebel (Dr. K.), Organographie der Pflanzen, insbesondere der Archegoniaten und Samenpflanzen, 149
- Goff (Prof. E. S.), Principles of Plant Culture, 298
- Gold, the Melting point of, L. Holborn and A. Day, 330
- Gold-Milling: Electro-silvered *versus* Plain Copper Plates, E. Halse, 315
- Goldschmidt's (Dr.), "Thermit" Welding Process, 36
- Gomberg (M.), the possible Variation of the Valency of Carbon, 142
- Gostling (Mildred), Action of Hydrogen Bromide on Carbohydrates, 433; Constitution of Cellulose, 531
- Gothic Vestiges in Central Asia, Thos. W. Kingsmill, 608
- Göttingen Royal Society, 148, 364, 580
- Götz (Prof. W.), Glaciation in Central Balkans, 259
- Goulding (E.), Methazonic Acid, 75
- Gouy (M.), the Theory of Electro-capillary Phenomena, 171; Electro-capillary Properties of Organic Aqueous Solutions, 579
- Gowland (Mr.), Cupellation in Roman Britain, 282
- Gramme (Z. T.), Death of, 304; Obituary Notice of, 327
- Graphic Solution of the Cubics, Dr. G. Vacca, 609
- Graphic Solutions of the Cubics and Quartics, T. Hayashi, 515
- Gravitation: Mutmassungen über das Wesen der Gravitation, der Elektrizität und der Magnetismus, Dr. Hermann Fischer, 533
- Gray (Prof. Andrew, F.R.S.), the Stability of a Swarm of Meteorites, 250
- Gray (Prof. Elisha), Death and Obituary Notice of, 378
- Gray (P. L.), the Principles of Magnetism and Electricity, 439
- Great Britain and Ireland, the Geological Survey of, 33
- Greek Temples, the Orientation of, Dr. F. C. Penrose, F.R.S., 492
- Green (Prof. J. Reynolds, F.R.S.), Buchner's Zymase, 106
- Greenwich, the Royal Observatory, its History and Work, E. W. Maunder, 271
- Greenwich Time, Spain and, 240
- Gregory (Prof. J. W.), the Work of the National Antarctic Expedition, 609
- Gregory (R. A.), a Manual of Elementary Science, 513
- Gréhan (N.), Comparative Products of Combustion of different Lighting Apparatus, 171; the Oxygen Treatment of Carbon Monoxide Poisoning, 484
- Griffiths (E. H.), a self-adjusting Wheatstone's Bridge, 122
- Grignard (V.), Action of Esters of Monobasic Fatty Acids on Mixed Organo-Magnesium Compounds, 412; Syntheses with Magnesium Compounds, 477; Action of Acid Chlorides and Anhydrides on Organo-metallic Compounds of Magnesium, 531; Organo-metallic Compounds of Magnesium, 579
- Grimaux (Edouard), Charles Gerhardt, sa Vie, son Oeuvre, sa Correspondance: 1816-1856, 318
- Grimbert, (L.), Production of Acetyl-Methyl-Carbinol, by *Bacillus tartricus*, 532
- Groom (Prof. T. T.), Igneous Rock of Malvern Cambrian, 291
- Grunmach (Dr. Leo.), Determination of Capillary Constants of Liquefied Gases by "Ripple" Method, 12; Experimental Determination of Capillary Constants of Condensed Gases, 506
- Guerbet (Marcel), Action of *C*-Nanthylic Alcohol on its Sodium Derivatives, 363
- Guiana, British, Goldfields, Geology of, Prof. J. B. Harrison, 506
- Guibert (J.), In the Beginning (Les Origines), 368

- Guichard (Marcel), Action of Steam and Mixture of Hydrogen and Steam on Molybdenum and its Oxides, 196
- Guillaume (M.), the Planet Eros, 483
- Gulf of St. Lawrence, the Currents in the, W. Bell Dawson, 311, 601
- Gulf Stream Myth, the, H. M. Watts, 258
- Gunn (W.), Remarkable Tertiary Volcanic Vent in Arran, 578
- Guns: Vibration of Gun-barrels, C. Cranz, K. R. Koch, 279; Audibility of the Sound of Firing on February 1, 355, 372, 420; Sir W. J. Herschel, 395; Arthur R. Hinks, 441; Robert B. Hayward, F.R.S., 538
- Habits and Folk-lore of Australian Aborigines, Investigations of the, 88
- Haddon (Prof. Alfred C., F.R.S.), the Ethnography of British Columbia—Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History, vol. ii. Anthropology; i. the Jesup North Pacific Expedition; iv. the Thompson Indians, James Teit, 3; a Plea for the Study of the Native Races in South Africa, 157; the Ethnology of Ancient History deduced from Records, Monuments and Coins, 309; the Origins of Art: a Psychological and Sociological Inquiry, Yrjö Hirn, 389
- Haeckel (Ernst), the Riddle of the Universe at the Close of the Nineteenth Century, 320
- Hague (Arnold), Geology of Yellowstone Park, 216
- Hail, Methods of Formation of, Prof. Cleveland Abbe, 337
- Hail-dispersing Apparatus, Trials of Stiger's, Drs. Pernter and Trabert, 36
- Hair-marks on Horses and Cattle, Native Indian Beliefs as to, J. D. E. Holmes, 382
- Haldane (Dr.), the Red Colour of Salt Meat, 332
- Hale (Prof.), Nova Persei, 596
- Hall (A. D.), Sugar-beet Cultivation in England, 450
- Haller (Prof. A.), the Alkylcyanomalonic Esters and Derivative Alkylcyanacetic Acid, 435; Contact Process of Sulphuric Acid Manufacture, 524
- Halse (E.), Electro-silvered *versus* Plain Copper Plates, 315
- Hamburg Observatory, Catalogue of Stars, 240
- Hammond (A. R.), the Structure and Life-history of the Harlequin Fly (Chironomus), 230
- Hamonet (L'Abbé J.), Electrolysis of Oxy-acids, 387; Tetramethyleneglycol, 508
- Hand in Hand with Dame Nature, W. V. Burgess, 325
- Hanriot (M.), Mechanism of Diastase Reactions, 340
- Harden (A.), Action of Nitrous Acid on β -nitroso- α -naphthylamine, 291; Action of *Bacillus coli communis* on Carbohydrates, 626
- Hare (A. T.), the Construction of Large Induction Coils, 229
- Harlay (V.), Reserve Hydrocarbon in Tubercles of *Arrhenatherum bulbosum*, 435
- Harlequin Fly (Chironomus), the Structure and Life-history of the, L. C. Miall, F.R.S., A. R. Hammond, 230
- Harmer (Dr.), Compensation-sac in Lepralioid Polyzoa, 195
- Harrison (H. S.), Early Dental Developments of New Zealand Tuatera Lizard, 547
- Harrison (Prof. J. B.), Geology of British Guiana Goldfields, 506
- Hartland (E. Sidney), Celtic Folk-lore, Welsh and Manx, 485
- Hartley (Prof. W. N., F.R.S.), the Absorption Spectra of Saline Solutions, 313; Spectra of Flames in Open-hearth and "Basic" Bessemer Processes, 481; the Mineral Constituents of Dust and Soot from Various Sources, 552
- Hartog (P. J.), the Owens College, Manchester, 374
- Harvard, Chemistry from, Joseph Torrey, Prof. A. Smithells, 606
- Harvard College Observatory, 406
- Harvard Medical School, Description of the Human Spines, showing Numerical Variation, in the Warren Museum of the, Dr. T. Dwight, 512
- Hassano's (Capt.) Electrical Smelting Process, 330
- Hastie (W.), Kant's Cosmogony, 413
- Hastings (Mr.) Thermal Death-point of Tubercle-Bacillus, 353
- Hawkins (C. C.), the Theory of Commutation, 324
- Hayashi (T.), Graphic Solutions of the Cubics and Quartics, 515
- Hayes (F. C.), a Handy Book of Horticulture, 229
- Hayti, Where Black Rules White; a Journey Across and About, H. Prichard, 512
- Hayward (Robert B., F.R.S.), Audibility of the Sound of Firing on February 1, 538
- Headley (F. W.), Problems of Evolution, 341
- Health Resort, Tasmania as a, Dr. Benjafield, 187
- Heat: Temperature Observations during Solar Eclipse, C. Martin, 14; Experiments by Continuous-flow Method of Calorimetry, H. T. Barnes, 22; Specific Heat of Gases at High Temperatures, Prof. H. B. Dixon, F.R.S., 75; Two Groups of Loci relating to Thermodynamic Properties of a Liquid, E. Mathias, 90; the Law of Caillet and Mathias, Dr. Sydney Young, 90; the Thermal Diffusivity of Carrara Marble, B. O. Pierce and R. W. Wilson, 90; Relations between Thermo- and Electro-magnetic Effects, Dr. W. Peddie, 99; the Use of Gas Thermometers at High Temperatures, Messrs. Holborn and Day, 163; a Solar Calorimeter, J. Y. Buchanan, F.R.S., 195; Molecular Specific Heat of Gaseous Dissociable Compounds, M. Ponsot, 196; Heat of Solution of Resorcinol in Ethyl Alcohol, C. L. Speyers and C. R. Rosell, 266; Relation between Coefficient of Expansion and Melting-point of Metals, M. L  meray, 257; What is Heat and What is Electricity? F. Hovenden, 274; Thermochemistry of Copper-zinc Alloys, T. J. Baker, 363; New Conception of Thermal Pressure, G. N. Lewis, 425; the Boiling Point of Liquid Hydrogen, Prof. James Dewar, F.R.S., 458; Heat Evolved when Powders are Wetted, M. Bellati, 500; Action of High Temperature on Alcohols, W. Ipatieff, 501; Thermo-electric Position of Solid Mercury, Dr. Peddie, 507; Thermal Expansion of Silica, Prof. Callendar, 529; Why Water at surface of Lake on which Ice is forming is recorded as above Freezing Point, Herr Schuh, 618
- Heavens at a Glance, the, 1901, 164
- Heavens, the Romance of the, A. W. Bickerton, 607
- Hebert (Alex.), Specific Absorption of X-rays by Metallic Salts, 435
- Hebrews, the Social Life of the, Rev. Edward Day, 559
- Heider (Prof.), Text-book of the Embryology of Invertebrates, 605
- Heliometer Measures of h and χ Persei, Prof. Schur, 240
- Hemsley (W. B., F.R.S.), Abnormal Cluster of Edible Chestnut Fruit, 169; New Fitchia from Raratonga Island, 169; Curious Flask-shaped Bird's Nest from Trinidad, 169
- Henrici (Prof. O., F.R.S.), the Publication of Books without Dates, 372
- Henry (R.), the Extinction of the Great Purple Coot, 65
- Herdman (Prof. W. A., F.R.S.), the Naples Zoological Station, 68; the Fifth Report upon the Fauna of Liverpool Bay and the Neighbouring Seas, 370; Geological Succession of Morphological Ideals, 425
- Heredity: Secondary Sexual Characters, J. T. Cunningham, 29, 231; Secondary Sexual Characters and the Colouration of the Prong-buck, R. I. Pocock, 157; Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom, J. T. Cunningham, 197, 250, 299; Prof. R. Meldola, 197, 251, 299; Huxley's Ancestry, Havelock Ellis, 127
- Hergesell (Dr.), the Balloon Ascents of February 7, 449; the International Balloon Ascents of March 7, 594
- H  rissey (H.), Seminase in Seeds containing Horny Albumen, 147
- Herman (R. A.), a Treatise on Geometrical Optics, 203
- Hermite (Prof. Charles), Death of, 280; Obituary Notice of, 350; the Late Prof. Hermite, 396
- Herpetology: the Crocodylians, Lizards and Snakes of North America, E. D. Cope, 415
- Herrmann (Dr. O.), Steinbruchindustrie und Steinbruchgeologie, 27
- Herschel (Prof. A. S., F.R.S.), Electricities of Stripping and Cleavage, 179
- Herschel (Sir W. J.), Audibility of the Sound of Firing on February 1, 395
- Hewitt (J. T.), Nitro-derivatives of Fluorescein, 75; the Nitration of Benzeneazosalicylic Acid, 123; Nitration of Three Tolueneazophenols, 291; Bromination of Ortho-oxyazo Compounds, 291
- Hickman (W. A.), on New Brunswick, 423
- Hill (A. C.), Methods of Isolating Maltose from Glucose, 529
- Hill (Prof. G. W.), Normal Positions of Ceres, 260
- Hill (R. T.), Lower Cretaceous Gryph  a of Texas, 215
- Himalayas: in the Ice World of Himalaya, Fanny Bullock Workman, William Hunter Workman, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 254

- Hind (Dr. W.), the Sub-Millstone Grit Beds of Pendle Hill, 506
- Hinks (Arthur R.), Audibility of the Sound of Firing on February 1, 441
- Hirn (Yrjö), the Origins of Art; a Psychological and Sociological Inquiry, 389
- Histology: Lehrbuch der vergleichenden Mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbeltiere, Dr. Med. Albert Opper, 126
- History of the Devil and the Idea of Evil, the, Dr. Paul Carus, 151
- History and Progress of Aërial Locomotion, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 526
- Hjelt (Eduard), Die Pflanzen-alkaloide, 486
- Hochgebirg, Die Photographie im, Emil Terschak, 345
- Hodgson (W.), Death of, 545
- Hoff (J. H. van 't), Lectures on Theoretical and Physical Chemistry, 343; Leçons de Chimie Physique, 343
- Hoffman (K. A.), Radioactive Lead, 405
- Holborn (Mr.), the Use of Gas Thermometers at High Temperatures, 163
- Holborn (L.), the Melting Point of Gold, 330
- Holidays, an Old Man's, 106
- Holland (P.), the Cause of Slaty Cleavage, 259
- Holland (T. H.), Origin of Name "Charnockite," 307
- Holm (Theo.), *Erigenia Bulbosa* a Tuberos Root, 290
- Holmes (J. D. E.), Native Indian Beliefs as to "Hair-marks" on Horses and Cattle, 382
- Honda (K.), Effect of Magnetisation on Dimensions of Iron, Steel and Nickel, 90
- Hopkins (F. G.), Proteid Reaction of Adamkiewicz and Chemistry of Glyoxylic Acid, 386
- Hopkinson (Mr.), Dew-ponds, 20
- Horns, Direction of Spirals in, George Wherry, 252, 348; Dr. W. T. Blanford, F.R.S., 298
- Horse-sickness in Cape Colony, Protective Inoculation against, Dr. Edington, 282
- Horticulture: Horticultural Practice, 86; a Handy Book of Horticulture, F. C. Hayes, 229; Principles of Plant Culture, Prof. E. S. Goff, 298
- Houdaille (F.), Minéralogie Agricole, 57
- Hovenden (F.), What is Heat? and What is Electricity? 274
- Hovestadt (Dr. H.), Jena Glass and its Applications to Science and Art, 173
- Hovey (E. O.), Crags of Weathered Granite in Black Hills of South Dakota, 239
- Hovgaard (Capt.), Motion of Submarine Boats in Vertical Plane, 546
- Howard (Dr. L. O.), Insects affecting Tobacco Plant, 162; National aspects of Scientific Investigation, 357; Mosquitoes and Malaria, 574
- Howe (C. S.), the Almuqantar, 309
- Howe (J. A.), the Sub-Millstone Grit Beds of Pendle Hill, 506
- Howes (Prof. G. B., F.R.S.), some Recent Advances in Biological Science, 261; Dasypeltis and the Egested Egg-shell, 326; the Origin of the "Tumbling" of Pigeons, 395
- Howse (Richard), Death and Obituary Notice of, 499
- Hoyle (W. E.), *Sepia koeltitzi*, 196; Note on D'Orbigny's *Onychoteuthis dussumieri*, 291
- Hughes (Prof. T. McKenny, F.R.S.), Dust-tight Cases for Museums, 420
- Hull (Prof. E.), Submerged Valley opposite Congo Mouth, 506
- Human Beings, the Effects of an Earthquake on, Dr. Charles Davison, 165
- Human Body, Microbes and the, Dr. Metchnikoff on, 621
- Human Ear, the, its Identification and Physiognomy, Miriam Anne Ellis, Dr. A. Keith, 392
- Human Origins: In the Beginning (Les Origines), J. Guibert, 368
- Human Spines, Description of the, showing Numerical Variation, in the Warren Museum of the Harvard Medical School, Dr. T. Dwight, 512
- Humming-bird Moth, Late Appearance of a, J. Edmund Clark, 58
- Hunter (A. E.), Pheno- α -Ketoheptamethylene, 627
- Hunter (Walter), Electric Tramway Leakage and Gas and Water Pipes, 257
- Hunterian Oration, the, Craniology, N. C. Macnamara, 454
- Hurricanes, West Indian, E. B. Garriott, 305
- Hurst (G. H. J.), Mathematics and Physics in Public Schools, 370
- Hussey (Prof. W. J.), Visual Observation of Capella (α Aurigæ), 92; Catalogue of One Hundred New Double Stars, 141
- Hutchins (D. E.), the Use of Mosquito Curtains as Protection against Malaria, 371
- Hutton (Frederick Wollaston, F.R.S.), Darwinism and Lamarckism, Four Lectures by, 365
- Huxley Memorial, 184
- Huxley's Ancestry, Havelock Ellis, 127
- Huxley's Life and Work, Lord Avebury, F.R.S., 62, 92, 116
- Hydraulics; Elevation and Stadic Tables, A. P. Davis, 514
- Hydrodynamics: Motion of Continuous System of Material Points, Herr Zorawski, 619
- Hydrogen in Air, M. Armand Gautier, 478
- Hydrography: Current Papers, No. 5, H. C. Russell, F.R.S., 267; the Currents in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, W. Bell Dawson, 311, 601; Recent Work of the Indian Marine Survey, 427; on the Results of a Deep-Sea Sounding Expedition in the North Atlantic during the Summer of 1899, R. E. Peake, Sir John Murray, K.C.B., F.R.S., 487; Pilot Charts, 494
- Hydrostatics, Elements of, S. L. Loney, 56
- Hygiene: the Treatment of London Sewage, Prof. Frank Clowes, 190; Death of Prof. Max von Pettenkofer, 381; Obituary Notice of, 399; Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. Josef von Fodor, 544
- Hypnotism: Beiträge zur Physiologie des Centralnervensystem, Max Verworn, 78
- Iceland: Changes of Level since recent Geological Times, Dr. Reusch, 160
- Ichthyology: a Remarkable Dolphin, R. Lydekker, 82; *Vibrio bresliae*, Pathogenic Organism of Fish, R. G. Smith, 100; Breeding Habits of Protopteris and other West African Fishes, J. S. Budgett, 170; Contents of Cods' Stomachs, Dr. B. Sharp, 618
- Identification: the Human Ear, its Identification and Physiognomy, Miriam Anne Ellis, Dr. A. Keith, 392
- Igneous Rocks, Recent Advances in the Geology of, 276
- Illusion, Optical, W. Larden, 372
- Images on Photographic Plates, the Disappearance of, William J. S. Lockyer, 278
- Imitation, or the Mimetic Force in Nature and Human Nature, Richard Steel, 513
- Index, a Contents-Subject, to General and Periodical Literature, A. Cotgreave, 153
- India: the Kasauli Pasteur Institute, 35; Meteorological Observations during Solar Eclipse of January 22, 1898, J. Eliot, F.R.S., 36; on Solar Changes of Temperature and Variations in Rainfall in the Region surrounding the Indian Ocean, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., Dr. W. J. S. Lockyer, 107, 128; Serotherapy and Rinderpest, Mr. Lingard, 161; the Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill, 256, 280, 303, 378, 399, 568; the Distribution of Vertebrate Animals in India, Ceylon and Burma, Dr. W. T. Blanford, F.R.S., 287; the Present Condition of the Indigo Industry, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 7, 111, 302; Meteorology of Bombay, 1899-1900, E. B. Garriott, 305; Deaths from Wild Animals, 305; Native Beliefs as to "Hair-marks" on Horses and Cattle, J. D. E. Holmes, 382; the Nilgiri Railway, W. J. Weightman, 403; Recent Work of the Indian Marine Survey, 427; Forestry in British India, Berthold Ribbentrop, Sir Dietrich Brandis, F.R.S., 597
- Indigo Industry, the Present Condition of the, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 7, 111, 302
- Induction Coils, the Construction of Large, a Workshop Handbook, A. T. Hare, 229
- Industry, the Alliance between Science and, 135
- Infinitesimal Geometry, Dr. Georg Scheffers, 584
- Infra-red Region of the Solar Spectrum, Recent Studies of the, Prof. S. P. Langley, 68
- Infra-red Spectrum of the Solar Corona, Observations of the, M. Deslandres, 67
- Inglis (Dr. E.), Dietary Studies of Edinburgh Poor, 99

- Iniguez (Señor), Spanish Observations of the Eclipse of May 28, 188
- Injurious Constituents in Potable Spirits, 491
- Innes (R. T. A.), New Variable Stars, 309
- Innes (W. R.), Use of Pyridine for Molecular Weight Demonstrations by Ebullioscopic Method, 291
- Inorganic Chemistry, the Elements of, W. A. Shenstone, F.R.S., 249
- Inorganic Chemistry, Laboratory Companion for Use with Shenstone's, W. A. Shenstone, F.R.S., 346
- Insectivore Centetes, the Size of the Brain in the, Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S., 394
- Instinct, Adaptation of, in a Trap-door Spider, R. I. Pocock, 466
- Institute of Jamaica, the Museum of the, Hubert Lyman Clark, 347
- Institution of Mining and Metallurgy, 315
- Instruments of Precision at the Paris Exhibition, 61; E. T. Warner, 107; H. Davidge, 107; Prof. C. V. Boys, F.R.S., 156
- International Association of Academies, 519, 616; Meeting of the, 591
- International Catalogue of Scientific Literature, 180
- Inverse or "a posteriori" Probability, Prof. J. Cook-Wilson, 154
- Invertebrates, Text-book of the Embryology of, Profs. Korschelt and Heider, 605
- Ipateiff (W.), Action of High Temperature on Alcohols, 501
- Ireland: the Geological Survey of Great Britain and Ireland, 33; the Birds of Ireland, R. J. Ussher, R. Warren, 101; Early Observations of Volcanic Phenomena in Auvergne and Ireland, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 464
- Iron: Travail des Metaux dérivés du Fer, L. Gages, 250
- Isle of Man, Celtic Folklore, Welsh and Manx, John Rhys, E. Sidney Hartland, 485
- Jackson (Benjamin Daydon), a Glossary of Botanic Terms, with their Derivations and Accent, 28
- Jackson (H.), Molecular Weight of Glycogen, 531; Condensation of Formaldehyde and Formation of β -acrose, 531
- Jackson (J. R.), Literature of Coffee and Tobacco Planting, 7
- Jackson (W.), Solubility of Pottery's Lead Frits, 98
- Jacoby (Harold), Rutherford Measures of Pleiades, 548
- Jaeger (W.), Irregularity of Weston Cadmium Element, 362
- Jamaica: Zoology in the West Indies, 159; the Jamaican Species of Peripatus, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 325; Abundance of Peripatus in Jamaica, Dr. J. E. Duerden, 440; the Museum of the Institute of Jamaica, Hubert Lyman Clark, 347; the Mongoose in Jamaica, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 348
- James (G. H.), Literature of Coffee and Tobacco Planting, 7
- Janssen (J.), Effect of Season and Altitude on Spectroscopic Observation, 75; the New Star in Perseus, 483
- Japan, Seismology in, Prof. J. Milne, F.R.S., 588
- Jastrow (Joseph), Fact and Fable in Psychology, 586
- Jaubert (G. F.), Sodium Peroxide, 292; the New Mode of Preparing Hydrated Sodium Peroxide, 316; New Synthesis of Aniline, 579
- Jena Glass and its Applications to Science and Art, Dr. H. Hovestadt, 173
- Jentink (Dr. F. A.), Remarkably Coloured Stoat, 239
- Jervis-Smith (Rev. F., F.R.S.), Phosphorescence as a Source of Illumination in Photography, 421
- Johnston (Sir H.), Dwarfs and Natural History of Uganda, 238
- Jollyman (W. H.), Gases Produced by Bacteria from Certain Media, 123; Bacterial Decomposition of Formic Acid, 433
- Jolyet (Ant.), Les Forêts, 1
- Jones (A. C.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 521
- Jones (Chapman), the Preservation of Photographic Records, 373
- Jones (Harry E.), Modern Methods of Gas Manufacture, 622
- Jones (H. O.), Method of Comparing Affinity Values of Acids, 433, 531
- Journal of Botany, 146, 314
- Journal of Microscopical Society, 21, 530
- Journal of Physical Chemistry, the, 54
- Jowett (H. A. D.), Pilocarpine, 626
- Judd (Prof. J. W., C.B., F.R.S.), the Recent "Blood Rains," 514
- Jukes-Browne (A. J.), Upper Greensand and Chloritic Marl of Mere and Maiden Bradley, 291
- Jungfleisch (E.), Cinchonine, 579
- Jupiter and his Markings, W. F. Denning, 355
- Kahlbaum (Georg W. A.), the Letters of Jöns Jacob Berzelius and Christian Friedrich Schönbein, 1836-1847, 77
- Kammatograph, the, 424
- Kann's (Dr. Leopold) Arctic Expedition, Return of, 63
- Kant's Cosmogony, W. Hastie, 413
- Kayser (H.), Handbuch der Spectroscopic, 317
- Kearton (R.), Our Bird Friends, 183
- Keegan (Dr. P. Q.), the Ash Constituents of some Lakeland Leaves, 396
- Keith (Dr. A.), the Human Ear, its Identification and Physiognomy, Miriam Anne Ellis, 392
- Kelvin (Lord), the Transmission of Forces, 266; One-dimensional Illustrations of Kinetic Theory of Gases, 387
- Kerr (George L.), Practical Coal Mining, 417
- Kershaw (J. B. C.), Use of Aluminium as Conductor, 330; Kew Observatory and the London United Electric Tramway Company, 237, 281, 499, 572; R. T. Glazebrook, 257
- Kidd (Walter), Design in Nature's Story, 178
- Kinematics: Cinématique et Mécanismes, H. Poincaré, 153
- Kinematography: the Kammatograph, 424
- King (Dr. William), Death of, 186
- King, the Royal Society's Address to the, 421
- King's College London, the New Scientific Laboratories at, 47
- Kingsley (J. S.), Text-book of Vertebrate Zoology, 558
- Kingsmill (Thos. W.), Gothic Vestiges in Central Asia, 608
- Kipping (F. S.), Organic Derivatives of Silicon, 433; Isomeric Hydrindamine Camphor- π -Sulphonates, 433; Pheno- α -keto-heptamethylene, 627
- Kirby (W. F.), Mosquitoes and Diseases, 29
- Kite Work of the United States Weather Bureau, the, Dr. H. C. Frankenfield, 109
- Klein (Felix), Ueber den Plan eines physikalisch-technischen Instituts an der Universität Göttingen, 28; Die Anforderungen der Ingenieure und die Ausbildung der Mathematischen Lehramtskandidaten, 28
- Klein (Dr.), the Tubercle Bacillus in Milk, 332
- Klett (Dr.), Anaërobic Life, 307
- Knibbs (G. H.), the Sun's Motion in Space, 267
- Knight (Dr. W. J.), Can Spectrum Analysis Furnish us with Precise Information as to the Petrography of the Moon? 180
- Knott (Dr.), Solar Radiation and Earth Temperatures, 387
- Knowledge Diary and Scientific Handbook for 1901, 178
- Knowledge, Belief and Certitude, F. Storrs Turner, 273
- Koch (K. R.), Explosive Effects of Modern Infantry Bullet, 12; Vibration of Gun-barrels, 279
- Kodak, the Panoram, 261
- Koenig (G. A.), Arsenides in Keeweenaw Copper Formation, 266
- Konyunjik Collection of the British Museum, Catalogue of the Cuneiform Tablets in the, Dr. C. Bezold, 562
- Korschelt (Prof.), Text-book of the Embryology of Invertebrates, 605
- Kostersitz (Dr. Karl), Die Photographie im Dienste der Himmlskunde, 324
- Kournakow (N. S.), Potassium-Mercury and Sodium-Mercury, and Sodium with Cadmium, Lead and Bismuth Alloys, 188
- Kroell (Dr. H.), Der Aufbau der Menschlichen Seele; Eine Psychologische Skizze, 204
- Laboratories: the New Scientific Laboratories at King's College, London, 47; National Physical Laboratory, 300
- Lagrange (E.), Propagation of Hertzian Waves in Wireless Telegraphy, 363
- Lake Superior Mining District, W. Fawcett, 449
- Lake Ngami, the Discoverer of, William Cotton Oswell, Hunter and Explorer, W. E. Oswell, Supp. vi.
- Lakeland Leaves, the Ash Constituents of some, Dr. P. Q. Keegan, 396
- Lamarckism: Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom; a

- Theory of the Evolution of Secondary Sexual Characters, J. T. Cunningham, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 197
- Lamarckism, Darwinism and, Four Lectures by Frederick Wollaston Hutton, F.R.S., 365
- Lamb (Prof. H., F.R.S.), Numerical Illustrations of Sound-Diffraction, 604
- Lamey (Dom), a Cosmic Atmosphere, 459
- Land (W. J. G.), the Fertilisation of Flowering Plants, 140
- Land and Sky, by, Rev. John M. Bacon, 203
- Land Work of the Belgian Antarctic Expedition, the, 516
- Lander (G. D.), Alkylation of Acylarylamines, 626
- Lands, New, their Resources and Prospective Advantages, Dr. H. R. Mill, 104
- Langley (Prof. S. P.), Recent Studies of the Infra-Red Region of the Solar Spectrum, 68; Latest Results of Study of Infra-Red Part of Solar Spectrum, 75
- Lankester (Prof. E. Ray, F.R.S.), National Life from the Standpoint of Science, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., Supp. iii.
- Lanterns for Projection Purposes, New, Mr. Barton, 291
- Lapparent (M. de), Cretaceous Sea-urchin in Eastern Sahara, 435
- Lapworth (A.), α -hydroxycamphorcarboic Acid, 433
- Larden (W.), Optical Illusion, 372
- Larmor (Dr. J., F.R.S.), on the Relations of Radiation to Temperature, 216; on the Statistical Dynamics of Gas Theory as illustrated by Meteor Swarms and Optical Rays, 168
- Larsen (R.), Liquid Air as Explosive, 305
- Late Appearance of a Humming-bird Moth, J. Edmund Clark, 58
- Laurent (Jules), Exosmosis of Diastases by Plantules, 124
- Lauterbach (Dr. Karl), Die Flora der Deutschen Schutz-Gebiete in der Südsee, 586
- Lawrence (T.), Derivatives of Ethyl α -methyl- β -phenylcyanoglutarate, 75
- Lawrence (W. T.), Formation of Aromatic Compounds from Ethyl Glutaconate, 529
- Laws (F. A.), Apparatus for Recording Alternating Current Waves, 500
- Le Bon (Gustave), Modification of Chemical Properties of Simple Bodies by Addition of Small Proportions of Foreign Substances, 51
- Le Cadet (M.), the Planet Eros, 483
- Lead, Radioactive, K. A. Hoffman and E. Strauss, 405
- Lead Storage Battery, the, Desmond G. Fitz-Gerald, 249
- Least Squares, the Use of the Method of, in Physics, A. F. Ravenshear, 489
- Leaves, Lakeland, the Ash Constituents of Some, Dr. P. Q. Keegan, 396
- Lebeau (M. Paul), Sulphuryl Fluoride, 426; New Silicide of Cobalt, 483; Commercial Ferrosilicons, 531
- Leboeuf (Rev. A.), Termites' Ravages in Rhodesia, 306
- Leçons d'Anthropologie Philosophique, D. Folkmar, 56
- Lee (T. H.), Tecomin, 339
- Leech (J. H.), Death of, 257
- Lees (F. H.), Morphine, II., 626
- Léger (C.), Cinchonine, 579
- Legrand (E.), Electric Anemometer Indicating at a Distance, 411
- Lehfeldt (Dr. R. A.), Electromotive Force and Osmotic Pressure, 74
- Leidí (E.), General Method of Separation of Metals of Platinum Group, 147
- Leighton (G.), Snake Plague in South Wales, 330
- Lémeray (M.), Relation between Expansion coefficients and Melting-point of Metals, 267
- Lemoult (P.), Absorption Spectrum of Triphenylmethane Dyes in Aqueous Solution, 124; Reaction of Amidobenzophenones and Aromatic Amines in Presence of Sulphuric Acid, 604
- Lens Making, Modern, 227
- Leonid Meteors, the, 92
- Leonids, the, a Forecast, Drs. G. J. Stoney, F.R.S., and A. M. W. Downing, F.R.S., 6
- Leonid Meteoric Shower, the, W. F. Denning, 39
- Lepidoptera not Atavistic, Dr. Max Standfuss, 65
- Lepine (R.), Maltosuria in Certain Diabetics, 507
- Levat (L. A.), Bird Destruction in France, 500
- Leverett (Frank), the Illinois Glacial Lobe, 216
- Levi-Civita (T.), Stationary Motions, 573
- Lévy (Lucien), Microbes et Distillerie, 370
- Lewis (A. L.), Stonehenge and other Stone Circles, 575
- Lewis (G. N.), New Conception of Thermal Pressure, 425
- Lewkowitz (Dr. J.), the Profession of an Industrial Chemist, 383
- Light on Plants, the Chemical Action of, Domenico Cirillo and, Prof. Italo Giglioli, 15
- Light, Therapeutic Applications of, P. Garnault, 171
- Light, the Velocity of, M. Perrotin, 75
- Light, the Zodiacal, 68
- Light Railways at Home and Abroad, W. H. Cole, 81
- Lightning, Damage done to Seal Rocks Lighthouse (N.S.W.) by Lightning, C. W. Darley, 52
- Lightning, a Tree Torn by, Percy E. Spielmann, 466
- Lilford (Lord), Thomas Littleton, Fourth Baron, a Memoir, 376
- Lindet (M.), Saccharifying Action of Wheat Germs, 387
- Lindfield (J. H.), Nitration of Three Toluenazophenols, 291
- Lindsay (James Bowman), Proposed Monument to, 329
- Lindström (G.), Researches on the Visual Organs of the Trilobites, 535
- Lingard (Mr.), Serotherapy and Rinderpest in India, 161
- Linnean Society, 97, 169, 219, 315, 434, 483, 530, 578, 627
- Linnean Society of New South Wales, 76, 100, 220, 267
- Liquefaction of Gaseous Mixtures, F. Caubet, 339
- Liquid Air, J. Adam, 252
- Liquid Air as Explosive, A. Larsen, 305
- Liquid Crystals, So-called, G. Tammann, 529
- Liquids: Determinations of Capillary Constants of Liquefied Gases by "Ripple" Method, Dr. Leo Grummer, 12; the Law of Cailletet and Mathias, Dr. Sydney Young, 90; Two Groups of Loci relating to Thermodynamical Properties of Liquid, E. Mathias, 90; On a Proof of Traction-Elasticity of Liquids, Prof. G. van der Mensbrughe, 274
- Lister (Lord), the Malaria Parasite, Anniversary Address at the Meeting of the Royal Society, 135
- Literature of Coffee and Tobacco Planting, G. H. James, 7; J. R. Jackson, 7
- Literature, a Contents-Subject Index to General and Periodical, A. Cotgreave, 153
- Literature, Scientific, International Catalogue of, 180
- Little (A. J.), Mount Omi and Beyond, 543
- Living (Prof. G. D., F.R.S.), on the Spectrum of the more Volatile Gases of Atmospheric Air, which are not Condensed at the Temperature of Liquid Hydrogen, 189
- Liverpool Bay and the Neighbouring Seas, the Fifth Report upon the Fauna of, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 370
- Liverpool Museum and Progress, the, 327
- Liversedge (John G.), Engine-Room Practice, 57
- Liversidge (Prof., F.R.S.), Crystalline Structure of Gold Nuggets, 172; Boogaldi Meteorite, 579
- Livi (Dr. R.), Anthropometria, 28
- Lizard, New Zealand Tuatera, Early Dental Developments of, H.S. Harrison, 547
- Lizards and Snakes of North America, the Crocodilians, E. D. Cope, 415
- Lloyd (L. L.), Organic Derivatives of Silicon, 433
- Lockyer (Sir Norman, K.C.B., F.R.S.), Our Stellar System, 29; On Solar Changes of Temperature and Variations in Rainfall in the Region surrounding the Indian Ocean, 107, 128; the New Star in Perseus, 441; Further Observations of Nova Persei, 467; Nova Persei, 540
- Lockyer (Dr. W. J. S.), On Solar Changes of Temperature and Variations in Rainfall in the Region surrounding the Indian Ocean, 107, 128; the Disappearance of Images on Photographic Plates, 278
- Locomotion, Land, in Twentieth Century, H. G. Wells, 546; Combined Trolley and Conduit Tramway Systems, A. N. Connett, 547
- Locust Plague and its Suppression, the, Æneas Munro, 55
- Loeb (Prof. Jacques), Sensational Newspaper Reports as to Physiological Action of Common Salt, 372
- Loewy (M.), Opposition of Eros, 188
- London, the New Scientific Laboratories at King's College, 47
- London School Atlas, the, 344
- Loney (S. L.), Elements of Hydrostatics, 56
- Long (Mr.), Males of Eciton Ants, 594
- Lortet (M.), Simple Apparatus for Application of Finsen's Phototherapeutic Method, 387
- Louis (Prof. Henry), Lehre von den Erzlagerstätten, Dr. Richard Beck, 245, 510

- Love (A. E. H.), Integration of Equations of Propagation of Electric Waves, 410
 Lubrication and Lubricants, L. Archbutt and R. M. Deeley, 4
 Lucas (F. A.), Zeuglodon, 113
 Luizet (M.), the Planet Eros, 483; True Period of Luminous Variation of Eros, 531
 Lumière (Aug. and Louis), New Organo-metallic Compounds of Mercury, 340
 Lummer (Dr. Otto), Contributions to Photographic Optics, 227; "Photographic Optics," Dr. Rudolf Steinheil, 395; Prof. Silvanus P. Thompson, F.R.S., 395
 Lungo (D. Carlo del), Thermochemical Relations, 348
 Lustig (Dott. Alessandro), Sieroterapia e Vaccinazione preventiva contro la Peste Bubonica, 105
 Lütken (Prof. C. F.), Obituary Notice of, 520
 Lydekker (R., F.R.S.), a Remarkable Dolphin, 82
 Lyra, New Variable Star in, A. Stanley Williams, 92
- McAdie (A. G.), Fog Studies on Mount Tamalpais, California, 161
 Macalister (Prof. Alex.), the Simplification of Anatomical Teaching, 239
 McAlpine (D.), Phosphorescent Fungi in Australia, 100; Australian Fairy-ring Puff Ball, 268
 McClung (R. K.), Energy of Röntgen Rays, 50
 MacDougall (D. T.), the Nature and Work of Plants, 417
 MacDowall (Alex. B.), Very Cold Days, 299
 Macfadyen (Dr. Allan), the Form and Size of Bacteria, 9; the Effect of Physical Agents on Bacterial Life, 359
 MacIver's (Mr.) Algerian Journey, 170
 Maclean (Prof. Magnus), Elementary Questions in Electricity and Magnetism, 28; Exercises in Natural Philosophy, 154
 Macnamara (N. C.), Craniology, 454
 Madagascar, Agricultural Value of Land in, A. Müntz and E. Rousseaux, 459
 Madagascar, Magnetic Coast Observations, E. Colin, 451
 Madan (H. G.), Method of Increasing Stability of Quinidine as a Mounting Material, 555
 Major (Dr. C. I. F.), Characters of Skull in Lemurs and Monkeys, 459; *Lemur mongos* and *rubriventer*, 554
 Majorana (Dr. Q.), Behaviour of Carbon at High Temperatures and Pressures, 64
 Magnetism: Elementary Questions in Electricity and Magnetism, Magnus Maclean, E. W. Marchant, 28; Method of Diminishing Disturbance of Observatories by Electric Tramways, Th. Moureaux, 35; Necessary Distance from Electric Tramways of Magnetic Observatories, Dr. Edler, 89; Magnetic Field Produced by Electric Tramways, Prof. A. W. Rücker, 194; Kew Observatory and the London United Electric Tramways Company, 237, 281, 499, 572; R. T. Glazebrook, 257; Lightning-induced Magnetism, Dr. Folgheraiter, 37; a Theory of the Earth's Magnetism, William Sutherland, 37; Effect on Dimensions of Iron, Steel and Nickel of Magnetisation, Prof. H. Nagaoka and K. Honda, 90; Relations between Thermo- and Electro-magnetic Effects, Dr. W. Peddie, 99; Rowland's Experiments on Magnetic Effect of Electrical Convection, V. Crémieu, 99; the Value of Magnetic Observatories, Captain Ettrick W. Creak, R.N., F.R.S., 127; Influence of Earth's Field on Magnetised Chronometer, A. Cornu, 147; Action of Terrestrial Magnetism on the Rates of Chronometers, 165; Origin of Terrestrial Magnetism, 286; Electro-motive Force of Magnetisation, René Paillot, 243; Torsional Magnetostriction in strong Transverse Fields, C. Barus, 266; Apparent Hysteresis in Torsional Magnetostriction in Relation to Viscosity, C. Barus, 481; Die Säkulär-Verlegung der Magnetischen Axe der Erde, W. van Bemmel, 324; Progress of the Magnetic Survey of the United States, 398; Magnetic Observations on Madagascar Coasts, E. Colin, 451; the Principles of Magnetism and Electricity, P. L. Gray, 439; Llewelyn B. Atkinson, 515; the Reviewer, 515; Circular Magnetisation and Magnetic Permeability, J. Trowbridge and E. P. Adams, 505; Mutmassungen über das Wesen der Gravitation, der Electricitäts und der Magnetismus, Dr. Hermann Fischer, 533; Effect of Magnetic Field on Resistance of thin Metallic Films, J. Patterson, 555
 Magnusson (Dr. C. E.), the Anomalous Dispersion of Cyanin, 210
 Malaria: Malaria and Mosquitoes, 11; Dr. N. Y. Sarrif, 180; F. R. Mallet, 395; F. C. Constable, 420; Major R. Ross, 440; Dr. L. O. Howard, 574; Mosquitoes and Disease, W. F. Kirby, 29; the Malaria Campaign, Dr. R. Fielding-Ould, 32; Malaria and its Prevention, Dr. R. Fielding-Ould, 494; Malaria, Angelo Celli, 80; the Malaria Parasite, Address by Lord Lister at the Anniversary Meeting of the Royal Society, 135; the use of Mosquito Curtains as Protection against Malaria, D. E. Hutchins, 371
 Malay Metal-work, W. W. Skeat, 434
 Maldivians, the, J. S. Gardiner, 195
 Mallet (F. R.), Malaria and Mosquitoes, 395
 Mammalia, Origin of, III., Prof. H. F. Osborn, 306
 Mammals of South Africa, the, W. L. Slater, 583
 Man: the Child, a Study in the Evolution of Man, A. F. Chamberlain, 105
 Man, in the Beginning (Les Origines), J. Guibert, 368
 Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, 75, 98, 147, 195, 291, 339, 411, 459, 507, 578, 603
 Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, Dr. Metchnikoff on Microbes and the Human Body, 621
 Manchester, the Owens College, P. J. Hartog, 374
 Manchester, Technical Education at, A. T. Simmons, 336
 Manley (J. J.), Physical Properties of Nitric Acid Solutions, 554
 Maori Tatu and Moko, H. L. Roth, 483
 Maps: the "Diagram" Series of Coloured Hand Maps, 344; Philip's London School Board Atlas, 344; the London School Atlas, 344
 Maps in Theory and Practice, Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 464
 Marchant (E. W.), Elementary Questions in Electricity and Magnetism, 28
 Marchlewski (L.), Phyllorubine, 66
 Marconi's Wireless Telegraphy: Dover-Ostend Mail-packet Experiments, 36; Extension of Marconi's Wireless Telegraphy, 381
 Margules (Max), Vienna Thermograms for 1899, 522
 Marine Biology: the Naples Zoological Station, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 68; Regenerative Power of Marine Planarians, Rina Monti, 113; Influence of Nutrition on Sex, Dr. J. F. Gemmill, 140; Male *Squilla Desmarestii* taken at Plymouth, 163; Osmotic openness of Marine Invertebrate, R. Quinton, 171; Compensation-Sac in Lepralioid Polyzoa
 Dr. Harmer, 195; Note on D'Orbigny's *Onychoteuthis dussumieri*, W. E. Hoyle, 291; Alcyonium, Dr. Hickson, 330; the Fifth Report upon the Fauna of Liverpool Bay and the Neighbouring Seas, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 370; Captures at Plymouth, 451; Species taken at Plymouth, 548; Contents of Cods' Stomachs, Dr. B. Sharp, 618
 Marine Engineering: Engine-Room Practice, John G. Liver-edge, 57
 Marine Torch, Novel, 474
 Marking on Mars, Mr. Douglass, 189
 Markings of Antilocapra, the, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 58
 Markings, Protective, in Animals, Clarence Waterer, 441
 Markings, Protective, in Cats, Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S., 466
 Marquis (R.), Nitrofururan, 340
 Mars: Perturbations of Eros produced by Mars, H. N. Russell, 141; Marking on Mars, Mr. Douglass, 189; Opposition of Mars in 1888, G. V. Schiaparelli, 286
 Marshall (Percival), Practical Lessons in Metal Turning, 297
 Marsupials, the Arboreal Ancestry of, B. A. Bensley, 475
 Martin (C.), Temperature Observations during Solar Eclipse, 14
 Martin (Dr. Rudolf), Anthropologie als Wissenschaft und Lehrfach, Supp. x.
 Mascart (Jean), Position and Velocity of a Meteor, 579
 Massachusetts, a Pre-Columbian Scandinavian Colony in, Gerard Fowkes, 192
 Masters (Dr. Maxwell T.), Report on the Working and Results of the Woburn Experimental Fruit Farm, Duke of Bedford and Spencer U. Pickering, 177
 Mathematics: Autotomic Curves, H. L. Orchard, 7; A. S. Thorn, 7; A. B. Basset, F.R.S., 82; the Smallest Visible lateral Space Difference, Prof. G. M. Stratton, 12; die Mathematik an den Deutschen technischen Hochschulen, Dr. Erwin Papperitz, 28; Ueber den Plan eines physikalisch-technischen Instituts an der Universität Göttingen, Felix Klein, 28; die Anforderungen der Ingenieure und die Ausbildung der mathematischen Lehramtskandidaten, Felix Klein, 28; the Value of the Cylinder Function of the Second Kind for Small Arguments, W. B. Morton, 29; Curves without Double Points, Herbert Richmond, 58; Euclid i. 32 Corr., R. Tucker, 58; Prof. George J. Allman, F.R.S., 106;

- Stam. Eumorfopoulos, 157; the Elements of Plane Trigonometry, Prof. W. P. Durfee, 82; Mathematical Society, 98, 243, 314, 434, 531, 627; Edinburgh Mathematical Society, 99, 220, 291, 411, 483; a Brief History of Mathematics, Dr. Karl Fink, 103; Workshop Mathematics, Frank Castle, 153; Inverse or "a posteriori" Probability, Prof. J. Cook Wilson, 154; on the Statistical Dynamics of Gas Theory as illustrated by Meteor Swarms and Optical Rays, Dr. J. Larmor, F.R.S., 168; a Short Course of Elementary Plane Trigonometry, Charles Pendlebury, 178; American Journal of Mathematics, 218, 432; a Treatise on the Theory of Screws, Sir Robert Stawell Ball, F.R.S.; Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 246; Mathematics and Biology, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 274; Death of Prof. Charles Hermite, 280; Obituary Notice of, 350; a Compact Method of Tabulation, Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 346; the Teaching of Elementary Mathematics, David Eugene Smith, Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., 367; Mathematics and Physics in Public Schools, G. H. J. Hurst, 370; the Hessian of a General Determinant, 387; "Die Partiellen Differentialgleichungen der Mathematischen Physik. Nach Riemann's Vorlesungen," Heinrich Weber, 390; Integration of Equations of Propagation of Electric Waves, A. E. H. Love, F.R.S., 410; Table of Class Numbers for Cubic Fields, L. W. Reid, 432; Probability—James Bernoulli's Theorem, Prof. J. Cook Wilson, 465; the Use of the Method of Least Squares in Physics, A. F. Ravenshear, 489; Graphic Solutions of the Cubics and Quartics, T. Hayashi, 515; Graphic Solutions of the Cubics, Dr. G. Vacca, 609; Théodore Moutard, G. Darboux, 521; Sets of Coincidence Points on non-singular Cubics of Szyzygetic Sheaf, M. B. Porter, 528; Bulletin of American Mathematical Society, 50, 146, 290, 432, 481, 577; Transactions of American Mathematical Society, 528; Differential and Integral Calculus for Beginners, Edwin Edser, 560; Motion of Continuous System of Material Points, Herr Zorawski, 619; Factorisation of Algebraic Prime Factors of $5^{10} - 1$ and $5^{100} - 1$, Lieut.-Colonel Cunningham, 627; Carl Friedrich Gauss, Werke, Supp. viii.
- Mathews (R. H.), Origin of Australian Aborigines, 574
- Mathias (E.), Two Groups of Loci relating to Thermodynamic Properties of Liquid, 90
- Matignon (Camille), Direct Combination of Nitrogen with Metals of Rare Earths, 123; Direct Combination of Hydrogen with Metals of Rare Earths, 147; Composition of Hydride and Nitride of Thorium, 292
- Matley (C. A.), Geology of Mynydd-y-Garn, 170
- Matter, the Radio-activity of, Prof. Henri Becquerel, 396
- Matter, Ether and Motion, A. E. Dolbear, 533
- Matteucci (R. V.), Simultaneous production of two Nitrogen Compounds in Vesuvius Crater, 171
- Mathews (F. E.), Hexachlorides of Benzonitrile, Benzamide and Benzoic Acid, 75; Trichlorobenzoic Acid, 123
- Maunder (E. W.), the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, its History and Work, 271
- Mawley (E.), Phenological Observations for 1900, 459
- Maxwell (Sir Herbert), Memories of the Months, Second Series, 152
- Maycock (W. P.), Electric Wiring Tables, 5
- Meade (R. K.), the Chemists' Pocket Manual, 489
- Mechanical Engineering, Practical Lessons in Metal Turning, Percival Marshall, 297
- Mechanics: Cinématique et Mécanismes, H. Poincaré, 153; Chemistry an Exact Mechanical Philosophy, Fred G. Edwards, 489
- Mediaeval Natural History in Poland, Joseph Rostafinski, 615
- Medicine: Death of P. K. E. Potain, 256; Obituary Notice of, 282; Scientific Developments of Biology and Medicine, 286; Death of Dr. Walter Myers, 328; the Effect of Physical Agents on Bacterial Life, Dr. Allen Macfadyen, 359; Reports from the Laboratory of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh, 418; a Manual of Medicine, 461; the Application of Physical Instruments to study of Disease, Mr. Paget, 474
- Mediterranean, Diurnal Summer Range of Temperature in, Dr. Buchan, 171
- Meiklejohn (A. H.), British Bird-Names, 113
- Melanasia: Album of Papúa, Types II, Dr. A. B. Meyer, R. Parkinson, 324
- Melbourne Observatory, Annual Report of the, P. Baracchi, 67
- Melde (Dr. Franz), Death of, 545
- Meldola (Prof. R., F.R.S.), the Letters of Jöns Jacob Berzelius and Christian Friedrich Schonbein, 1836-1847, Georg W. A. Kahlbaum, Francis V. Darbishire, N. V. Sidgwick, 77; Chemical Products and Appliances at the Paris International Exhibition, 179; Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom; a theory of the Evolution of Secondary Sexual Characters, J. T. Cunningham, 197; Sexual Dimorphism, 251, 299; die Pflanzen-Alkaloide, Wilh. Brühl, Eduard Hjelt, Ossian Aschan, 486
- Mellish (H.), Seasonal Rainfall of British Isles, 220
- Mellor (J. W.), the Union of Hydrogen and Chlorine, 291
- Memoirs of the Countess Potocka, Casimir Stryiński, 154
- Memories of the Months, Second Series, Rt. Hon. Sir Herbert Maxwell, 152
- Mensbrugge (Prof. G. van der), on a Proof of Traction-elasticity of Liquids, 274
- Mentawai Islanders, C. M. Pleyte, 332
- Metal Turning, Practical Lessons in, Percival Marshall, 297
- Metalliferous Deposits, the Nature and Yield of, B. H. Brough, 18
- Metallography, Progress in, Dr. T. K. Rose, 232
- Metallography of Steel, Practical Problems in the, Prof. J. O. Arnold, 613
- Metallurgy: Dr. Goldschmidt's "Thermit" Welding Process, 36; the Tempering of Iron Hardened by Overstrain, James Muir, 218; Progress in Metallography, Dr. T. K. Rose, 232; Travail des Metaux dérivés du Fer, L. Gages, 250; Cupellation in Roman Britain, Mr. Gowland, 282; Institution of Mining and Metallurgy, 315; Electro-silvered *versus* Plain Copper Plates, E. Halse, 315; the Melting-point of Gold, L. Holborn and A. Day, 330; Captain Hassano's Electrical Smelting Process, 330; Malay Metal-work, W. W. Skeat, 434; Properties of Steel Containing Nickel, 619
- Metchnikoff (Dr.), on Microbes and the Human Body, 621
- Meteorology: Temperature Observations During Solar Eclipse, C. Martin, 14; Dew-ponds, Prof. Miall, 20; Clement Reid, 20; Mr. Hopkinson, 20; Trial of Stüger's Hail-cloud Dispersing Apparatus, Drs. Pernter and Trabert, 36; Meteorological Observations in India during Solar Eclipse of January 22, 1898, J. Eliot, F.R.S., 36; Damage done to Seal Rocks Lighthouse by Lightning, C. W. Darley, 52; Sounding the Ocean of Air, A. Lawrence Rotch, 55; the Rainfall of South Australia, Sir Charles Todd, 64; Curious Sunset Phenomenon, Prof. Reynolds, 99; on Solar Changes of Temperature and Variations in Rainfall in the Region Surrounding the Indian Ocean, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., Dr. W. J. S. Lockyer, 107, 128; the Kite Work of the United States Weather Bureau, Dr. H. C. Frankenfield, 109; Periodical Changes in Rainfall at Cape of Good Hope, Prof. J. T. Morrison, 124; the Pocky or Festoon Cloud, E. Durand-Gréville, 130; Meteorological Society, 146, 220, 315, 459, 555; the English Climate from the Health Point of View, W. H. Dines, 146; Study of Distant Storms by Means of Telephone, Th. Tommasina, 147; Late Droughts and Recent Flood at Lake George, New South Wales, H. C. Russell, F.R.S., 148; Fog Studies on Mount Tamalpais, California, A. G. McAdie, 161; Artificial Rain, Prof. Cleveland Abbe, 167; C. H. B. Woodd, 232; M. T. Tatham, 232; the Velocity of Vortex Rings, Drs. G. Vicentini and G. Pacher, 209; Symons's Monthly Meteorological Magazine, 218, 338; Climatological Tables for British Empire for 1899, 218; Seasonal Rainfall of British Isles, H. Mellish, 220; British Rainfall and Temperature in 1900, 572; Heavy Rainfall of December 30, 1900, 338; the Mild December, 338; Report of Meteorological Council: Success of Forecasts for Year ending March 31, 1900, 238; the Week's Weather, 238, 258, 329; the Gull Stream Myth, H. M. Watts, 258; Current Papers, No. 5, H. C. Russell, F.R.S., 267; Very Cold Days, Alex. B. MacDowall, 299; Meteorology of Bombay 1899-1900, 305; West Indian Hurricanes, E. B. Garriott, 305; Storms in China, Rev. A. Froc, 329; Methods of Formation of Hail, Prof. Cleveland Abbe, 337; Solar Radiation and Earth Temperatures, Dr. Knott, 387; Electric Anemometer indicating at a Distance, E. Legrand, 411; Snow Crystals, Wm. Gee, 420; Falls of Snow Crystals, 474; Phenological Observations for 1900, E. Mawley, 459; Recurrence of Severe Winters, A. E. Watson, 459; Red Rain, 471; the Recent Blood Rains, Prof. J. W. Judd, C.B., F.R.S., 514; Composition of Palermo "Blood Rain," S. Meunier, 604; Blood-Rain Plant in Camden Square Tank, V. N. Blackman, 617; Lightning from

- Cloudless Sky, C. E. Ashcraft, jun., 474; Wind-pressure, R. H. Curtis, 481; Variation of Atmospheric Electricity, E. Pellew, 491; Pilot Charts, 494; Weather of North Atlantic in Winter of 1898-9, 499; Dynamics of Cyclones, Mr. Aitken, 507; Fog about Newfoundland Banks, 522; Telegraphic Weather Reports, Deutsche Seewarte, 522; Vienna Thermograms for 1899, Max Margules, 522; the Theory of Rain Precipitation in Mountains, F. Pockels, 529; Researches on the Past and Present History of the Earth's Atmosphere, Dr. T. L. Phipson, 537; a Lunar Halo, W. B. Tripp, 571; Relation between Summer and Winter Temperatures, Dr. O. L. Fassig, 572; Cloud Observations at Toronto, 1896-7, 618; North Atlantic and Mediterranean Pilot Charts for May, 618; Why Water at Surface of Lake on which Ice is forming is recorded as above Freezing-point, Herr Schuh, 618
- Meteors: the Leonids—a Forecast, Drs. G. J. Stoney, F.R.S., and A. M. W. Downing, F.R.S., 6; the Leonid Meteors, 92, 116; the Leonid Meteoric Shower, W. F. Denning, 39; Observations of Leonids and Bielids at Athens, D. Eginitis, 196; Australian Observations of November Meteors, W. C. Best, 209; Great November Display in Canada, 422; Fireballs in October, 14; Observations of Perseids at Athens, D. Eginitis, 24; on the Statistical Dynamics of Gas Theory as illustrated by Meteor Swarms and Optical Rays, Dr. J. Larmor, F.R.S., 168; Fireball in Sunshine, W. F. Denning, 276; the Stability of a Swarm of Meteorites, Prof. Andrew Gray, F.R.S., 250; Position and Velocity of a Meteor, Jean Mascart, 579; Boogaldi Meteorite, Prof. Liversidge, F.R.S., 579
- Metric System: Report of Decimal Association, 475
- Meunier (S.), Composition of Palermo Blood Rain, 604
- Meyer (Dr. A. B.), Album of Papúa, Types II., 324
- Meyer (Hermann von), Friederich Wöhler, Ein Jugendbildnis in Briefen an, 586
- Miall (L. C., F.R.S.), the Structure and Life-history of the Harlequin Fly (*Chironomus*), 230
- Miall (Prof.), Dew-ponds, 20
- Microbes et Distillerie, Lucian Lévy, 370
- Microbes and the Human Body, Dr. Metchnikoff on, 621
- Microscopy: Microscopical Society, 75, 170, 291, 363, 555; Journal of, 21, 530; Lehrbuch der Vergleichenden Mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbeltiere, Dr. Med. Albert Opper, 126; New Lanterns for Projection Purposes, Mr. Barton, 291; New Subgeneric Type of Lancelets, Dr. A. Willey, 523; Method of Increasing Stability of Quinidine as a Mounting Material, H. G. Madan, 555
- Miers (Prof. H. A., F.R.S.), the Tamnau Mineralogical Endowment, 453
- Milk Steriliser, the Cambridge Sentinel, 166; D. Berry, 205; Your Reviewer, 205
- Milk, Vitality of Bacteria in, F. Valagussa and C. Ortona, 404
- Mill (Dr. H. R.), New Lands, their Resources and Prospective Advantages, 104; the Word Physiography, 231
- Millais (J. G.), the Wildfowl of Scotland, 567
- Milne (Prof. J., F.R.S.), Seismology in Japan, 588
- Milroy (Dr. J. A.), Recent Advances in the Chemistry of the Proteids; *Chemie der Eiweisskörper*, 224
- Mimicry: Imitation, or the Mimetic Force in Nature and Human Nature, Richard Steel, 513
- Mind of the Century, the, 513
- Mine Surveying, G. A. Troye, 315
- Mineral Constituents of Dust and Soot from Various Sources, Prof. W. N. Hartley, F.R.S., Hugh Ramage, 552
- Mineral Resources of Victoria, James Stirling, 36
- Mineralogy: Use of Dolomite as Money by Pomo Indians, Dr. O. C. Farrington, 12; *Minéralogie Agricole*, F. Houdaille, 57; Behaviour of Carbon at High Temperatures and Pressures, Dr. Q. Majorana, 64; Pozzolana, O. Rebuffat, 64; Mineralogical Society, 98, 363, 554; an Obsidian "Bomb," R. T. Baker, 148; Crystalline Structures of Gold Nuggets, Prof. Liversidge, F.R.S., 172; *Lehre von den Erzlagerstätten*, Dr. R. Beck, Prof. H. Louis, 245, 510; Arsenides in Kee-weenaw Copper Formation, G. A. Koenig, 266; *Notions de Minéralogie*, A. F. Renard, F. Stöber, 273; Topaz in Brazil, O. A. Derby, 290; Chemical Analysis of Glaucofane Schists, H. S. Washington, 290; a Text-book of Important Minerals and Rocks, with Tables for the Determination of Minerals, S. E. Tillmann, 346; Model Showing Arrangement for Chemical Atoms of Calcite, W. Barlow, 363; the Tamnau Mineralogical Endowment, Prof. H. A. Miers, F.R.S., 453; Apatite in Ceylon, Prof. A. H. Church, F.R.S., 464; Calaverite Crystals from Colorado, G. F. H. Smith, 554
- Minervini (Dr. R.), Bacteriology of Sea Air and Water, 282
- Minikoi, the Atoll of, J. S. Gardiner, 195
- Mining: the Nature and Yield of Metalliferous Deposits, B. H. Brough, 18; Output and Value of British Minerals, Prof. Le Neve Foster, F.R.S., 72; the Coal Resources of Victoria, James Stirling, 90; Liquid Air as Explosive, A. Larsen, 305; Institution of Mining and Metallurgy, 315; Practical Coal Mining, George L. Kerr, 417; de Paris aux Mines d'Or de l'Australie Occidentale, O. Chemin, 440; the Lake Superior District, W. Fawcett, 449; Salt Mining: the Northwich Subsidence, T. Ward, 523; the Mining Statistics of the World, Bennett H. Brough, 551
- Minor Planets, Distribution of, M. Freycinet, 116
- Minor Planets, New, W. R. Brooks, 240
- Minor Planets, Brooks', 333
- Minot (Prof. C. S.), Method of Teaching Mammalian Embryology, 306
- Mississippi River, the, J. A. Ockerson, W. H. Wheeler, 525
- Mitchell (C.), Diastaxy of Birds' Wings, 450
- Mitzopolos (Prof.), the Tripolis and Triphylia Earthquakes of 1898 and 1899, 283
- Modern Astronomy, H. H. Turner, F.R.S., 488
- Modern Scientific Industry, a, 173
- Moir (Paxton), Stone Implements in Tasmania, 170
- Moissan (Henri), Study of Carbide of Samarium, 171; Sulphuryl Fluoride, 426; Sulphammonium, 483
- Mojsisovics (Dr.), the Indian Trias, 65
- Molinie (M.), the Examination of Contaminated Waters for Cystine, 52
- Money, Dolomite used by Pomo Indians as, Dr. O. C. Farrington, 12
- Mongolia and the Mongols, Results of an Expedition to Mongolia in the Years 1892 and 1893, A. Pozdnéeff, 608
- Mongoose in Jamaica, the, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 348
- Monism for the Multitude, 320
- Monkeys, the Gracilissimus Muscle in, H. Engert, 140
- Monod (G. H.), Devonian Anthracite at Kouitcheou, in China, 387
- Months, Memories of the, Second Series, Sir Herbert Maxwell, 152
- Monti (Rina), Regenerative Power of Marine Planarians, 113
- Monuments and Coins, the Ethnology of Ancient History deduced from Records, Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S., 309
- Moon: Can Spectrum Analysis Furnish us with Precise Information as to the Petrography of the Moon? Dr. W. J. Knight, 180
- Moore (Benjamin), Functions of Bile as Solvent, 458
- Moore (J. E. S.), the "Park-lands" in Tanganyika District of Central Africa, 98; Researches in Lake Tanganyika, &c., 284
- Morbology: Malaria and Mosquitoes, 11; Dr. N. Y. Sarrif, 180; F. R. Mallet, 395; F. C. Constable, 420; Major R. Ross, 440; Dr. L. O. Howard, 574; Malaria and its Prevention, Dr. R. Fielding-Ould, 494; Mosquitoes and Diseases, W. F. Kirby, 29; the Malaria Campaign, Dr. R. Fielding-Ould, 32; Malaria, Angelo Celli, 80; Address by Lord Lister at the Anniversary Meeting of the Royal Society, the Malaria Parasite, 135; the Use of Mosquito Curtains as Protection against Malaria, D. E. Hutchins, 371; Mosquitoes and Yellow Fever, Surgeon Walter Read and others, 63; Report of Havana Board on Mosquitoes and Yellow Fever, 473; the Plague, Prof. A. Calmette, 63; Plague Infection, Drs. Albrecht and Ghon, 89; Prof. A. Calmette, 89; Air and Disease, Harold Picton, 276; Abstract of Interim Report on Yellow Fever, Drs. Durham and Myers, 401; the Death of Dr. Myers, 402; Maltosuria in Certain Diabetics, R. Lépine and M. Boulud, 507; Respiratory Diagnosis of Tuberculosis, Albert Robin and Maurice Binet, 532; the Beer Poisoning Epidemic, 541; Selenium in Sulphuric Acid, V. H. Veley, F.R.S., 587
- Morgan (Prof. C. Lloyd, F.R.S.), Studies in Visual Sensation, 552; Igneous Rocks of Tortworth Inlier, 627
- Morison's Chronicle of the Year's News of 1900, G. Eyre-Todd, 513
- Morley (George), Shakespeare's Greenwood, 204
- Morphology: the Pneumatic Cavities in Mammalian Skull,

- Dr. S. Paulli, 13; Morphological Continuity of Germ-Cells, Dr. J. Beard, 210; Beitrag zur Systematik und Genealogie der Reptilien, Prof. Max Fürbringer, 462; Untersuchungen zur Blutgerinnung, Dr. Ernst Schwalbe, 512; on the Morphology and Phylogeny of the Palæognathæ (Ratitæ and Crypturi) and Neognathæ (Carinata), W. P. Pycraft, 536
 Morris (E. F.), Recent Excavations in Roman Forum, 578
 Morrison (Prof. J. T.), Periodic Changes in Rainfall at Cape of Good Hope, 124; Suggested Solar Oscillation, 266
 Morton (W. B.), the Value of the Cylinder Function of the Second Kind for Small Arguments, 29
 Mosquito Curtains, The Use of, as Protection against Malaria, D. E. Hutchins, 371
 Mosquitoes: Malaria and Mosquitoes, 11; Angelo Celli, 80; Dr. N. Y. Sarráf, 180; F. R. Mallet, 395; F. C. Constable, 420; Major R. Ross, 440; Dr. L. O. Howard, 574; the Malaria Parasite, Address by Lord Lister at the Anniversary Meeting of the Royal Society, 135; Mosquitoes and Diseases, W. F. Kirby, 29; Malaria and its Prevention, Dr. R. Fielding-Ould, 494; Report of Havana Board on Mosquitoes and Yellow Fever, 473; Mosquitoes and Yellow Fever, Surgeon Walter Read and others, 63
 Moth, Death's Head, Source of Sound of, Prof. Poulton, F.R.S., 315
 Mother, Baby and Nursery, Gènevieve Tucker, 418
 Motions, Stationary, T. Levi-Civita, 573
 Motor Cars, Photographic Method of Recording Speed of, L. Gaumont, 64
 Motor, Solar, the Californian, 572
 Mount Omi and Beyond, A. J. Little, 543
 Mountaineering: In the Ice World of Himalaya, Fanny Bullock Workman, William Hunter Workman, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 254
 Moureaux (Th.), Method of Diminishing Disturbance of Magnetic Observatories by Electric Tramways, 35
 Moureu (Ch.), Two Ketones containing Acetylene Grouping, 51; Splitting-up of Alkalis of Acetylenic Ketones, 99; New Reactions of Organo-magnesium Compounds, 579
 Moutard (Théodore), G. Darboux, 521
 Mudge (G. P.), Darwinism and Statecraft, 561
 Muir (James), the Tempering of Iron Hardened by Overstrain, 218
 Muir (Dr. Thomas), the Hessian of a General Determinant, 387
 Muller (Dr. J. J. A.), the Total Solar Eclipse of May 17-18, 347
 Müller (Prof. Max), Death of, 10
 Munro (Æneas), the Locust Plague and its Suppression, 55
 Müntz (A.), Agricultural Value of Land in Madagascar, 459
 Murray (Sir John, K.C.B., F.R.S.), on the Results of a Deep-Sea Sounding Expedition in the North Atlantic during the Summer of 1899, 487
 Museums: the Liverpool Museum and Progress, 327; the Museum of the Institute of Jamaica, Hubert Lyman Clark, 347; Dust-tight Cases for Museums, Prof. T. McKenny Hughes, F.R.S., 420
 Musical Arcs, 542
 Mycetozoa and some Questions which they Suggest, the Rt. Hon. Sir Edward Fry, F.R.S., 323
 Mycology: a Monograph of the Erysiphaceæ, Ernest S. Salmon, 106
 Myers (Dr. Walter), Abstract of Interim Report on Yellow Fever, 401
 Myers (Dr. Walter), Death of, 328, 402
 Myology: the Gracilissimus Muscle in Monkeys, H. Eugert, 140
 Nagaoka (Prof. H.), Effect of Magnetisation on Dimensions of Iron, Steel and Nickel, 90
 Naples Zoological Station, the, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 68
 National Antarctic Expedition, the Work of the, Prof. J. W. Gregory, 609
 National Aspects of Scientific Investigation, Prof. H. F. Osborn, 356; Prof. W. Bullock Clark, 357; Dr. L. O. Howard, 357; Dr. B. T. Galloway, 358; Prof. W. T. Sedgwick, 358
 National Life from the Standpoint of Science, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., Prof. E. Ray Lankester, F.R.S., Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., Supp. iii.
 National Physical Laboratory, 300
 Native Races in South Africa, a Plea for the Study of the, Prof. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 157
 Natural and Artificial Perfumes, 212
 Natural History: Raggylug, the Cotton Tail Rabbit, and other Animal Stories, E. Seton-Thompson, 5; Late Appearance of a Humming-bird Moth, J. Edmund Clark, 58; the Markings of Antilocapra, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 58; New South Wales Linnean Society, 76, 100, 220, 267; A Year with Nature, W. P. Westell, 80; A Remarkable Dolphin, R. Lydekker, F.R.S., 82; the Numbers of the American Bison, 96; Linnean Society, 97, 169, 219, 315, 434, 483, 530, 578, 627; An Old Man's Holidays, 106; Sport and Travel, East and West, F. C. Selous, 125; Memories of the Months, Second Series, Sir Herbert Maxwell, 152; Studies, Scientific and Social, Dr. Alfred Russel Wallace, 174; Our Bird Friends, R. Kearton, 183; Secondary Sexual Characters, J. T. Cunningham, 29, 231; Secondary Sexual Characters and the Colouration of the Prong-buck, R. I. Pocock, 157; Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom; a Theory of the Evolution of Secondary Sexual Characters, J. T. Cunningham, 197, 250, 299, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 197, 251, 299; Shakespeare's Greenwood, George Morley, 204; Natural History of Uganda, Sir H. Johnston, 238; a Nest of Young Starlings in Winter, 252; Some Animals Exterminated during the Nineteenth Century, 252; Dr. Henry de Varigny, 372; Direction of Spirals in Horns, George Wherry, 252, 348; Dr. W. T. Blandford, F.R.S., 298; the Distribution of Vertebrate Animals in India, Ceylon and Burma, Dr. W. T. Blandford, F.R.S., 287; the Field-Mice and Wrens of St. Kilda and Shetland, G. E. H. Barrett-Hamilton, 299; Snake-Plague in South Wales, G. Leighton, 330; Hand in Hand with Dame Nature, W. V. Burgess, 325; Lord Lilford, Thomas Littleton, Fourth Baron, a Memoir, 376; the Origin of the "Tumbling" of Pigeons, Prof. G. B. Howes, F.R.S., 395; Protective Markings in Cats, Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S., 466; the Collection of Material for the Study of Species, S. Pace, 490; Death and Obituary Notice of Richard Howse, 499; the Wildfowl of Scotland, J. G. Millais, 567; the Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne, and a Garden Calendar, Rev. Gilbert White, 606; Mediæval Natural History in Poland, Joseph Rostafinski, 615
 Nature and Work of Plants, the, D. T. MacDougal, 417
 Nature, Imitation or the Mimetic Force in, and Human Nature, Richard Steel, 513
 Nature's Story, Design in, Walter Kidd, 178
 Nature's Workshop, in, Grant Allen, 513
 Naval Architecture: on Naval Construction in the United States, Prof. J. H. Biles, 546; Cause of Vibrations in *Deutschland*, O. Schlick, 546; Motion of Submarine Boats in Vertical Plane, Capt. Hovgaard, 546
 Naval Boilers, 564
 Navigation: the Proper Route round Cape Horn, 89; the Value of Magnetic Observatories, Captain Ettrick W. Creak, R.N., F.R.S., 127; the Currents in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, W. Bell Dawson, 311, 601; Pilot Charts, 494; the Mississippi River, J. A. Ockerson, W. H. Wheeler, 525
 Nebulous Spots, a Remarkable Group of, 596
 Neo-Darwinian on Evolution, a, 341
 Neognathæ (Carinata), on the Morphology and Phylogeny of the Palæognathæ (Ratitæ and Crypturi) and, W. P. Pycraft, 536
 Nerve, Physical Theory of, W. M. Strong, 283
 Netter (A.), the Habits of Bees, 196
 New Brunswick, W. A. Hickman on, 423
 New Lands: their Resources and Prospective Advantages, Dr. H. R. Mill, 104
 New South Wales Linnean Society, 76, 100, 220, 267
 New South Wales Royal Society, 52, 148, 172, 267, 579
 New Zealand Tuatara Lizard, Early Dental Developments of, H. S. Harrison, 547
 Newfoundland Banks, Fog about, 522
 Newstead (R.), New Scale-Insect, *Walkeriana Pertinax*, 171
 Niagara Falls Power Company, the, 424
 Nijland (A. A.), Light Curve of Algol, 525
 Nile: the Great Dam at Assouan, 381
 Nilgiri Railway, W. J. Weightman, 402
 Nineteenth Century Science, the Story of, Henry Smith Williams, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 34

- Nineteenth Century, Some Animals Exterminated during the, 252; Dr. Henry de Varigny, 372
 Nineveh, the Royal Library at, Dr. C. Bezold, 562
 Nipher (Prof. Francis E.), Reversed Photographic Picture Obtained with Developing Bath Exposed to Direct Sunlight, 209; Eclipse Photography, 325; Recent Results in Positive Photography, 387; Photographic Negatives Printed by Contact by Light of 300-candle Incandescent Lamp, 436; Pine Boards Showing Tracks of Ball Lightning Discharges, 580
 Nobel Prizes for Scientific Discovery, the, 40
 Nodon (A.), Direct Production of X-rays in Air, 556
 Nomenclature, Some Disputed Points in Zoological, 348
 North America, the Crocodylians, Lizards and Snakes of, E. D. Cope, 415
 North Atlantic: Weather in Winter of 1898-9, 499
 Northwich Subsidence, the, T. Ward, 523
 Nova Aquilæ, Visible Spectrum of, Prof. W. W. Campbell, 260
 Nova Persei, 420, 477, 482; Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 441, 467, 540; J. Janssen, 483; Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 497; Prof. H. C. Vogel, 502, 620; Prof. Copeland, 507; C. Easton, 540; Prof. Hale, 596; Mr. Sharp, 628; Dr. Rambaut, 628; Chart for Observations of, 525; the Spectrum of, Prof. H. C. Vogel, 575
 November Meteors, the, 116
 Numbers of the American Bison, the, 96
 Nursery, Mother, Baby and, Genevieve Tucker, 418

 Observatories: Astronomical Work at Dunsink Observatory, 39; Annual Report of the Melbourne Observatory, P. Baracchi, 67; the Value of Magnetic Observatories, Captain Ettrick W. Creak, R.N., F.R.S., 127; Companion to the Observatory, 1901, 164; the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, its History and Work, E. W. Maunder, 271; United States Naval Observatory, 383; Harvard College Observatory, 406; Stonyhurst College Observatory, 596
 Octopus Plague on South Coast, W. Garstang, 187
 Occultations, Reduction of, L. Cruls, 212
 Ockerson (J. A.), the Mississippi River, 525
 Ogilvie-Gordon (Dr. Maria M.), Das Geotektonische Problem der Glarner Alpen, 294; Geologische Alpenforschungen, A. Rothpletz, 294
 Okell (J.), Action of Nitrous Acid on β -nitroso- α -naphthylamine, 291
 Old Man's Holidays, an, 106
 Oldham (R. D.), Origin of Dunmail Raise, 411
 Oño (N.), Action of Chemical Solutions on Algae, 66
 Opper (Dr. Med. Albert), Lehrbuch der vergleichenden Mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbeltiere, 126
 Oppolzer (Dr. E. von), Variability of Eros, 383
 Optics: Experiments Illustrating Phenomena of Vision, Dr. S. Bidwell, 23; Astigmatic Lenses, R. J. Sower, 74; the Velocity of Light, M. Perrotin, 75; the Optics of Acuteness of Sight, Dr. A. S. Percival, 82; F. Twyman, 157; Curious Sunset Phenomenon, Prof. Reynolds, 99; Quartz-Calcite Symmetrical Doublet, J. W. Gifford, 127; on the Statistical Dynamics of Gas Theory as illustrated by Meteor Swarms and Optical Rays, Dr. J. Larmor, F.R.S., 168; Jena Glass and its Applications to Science and Art, Dr. H. Hovestadt, 173; a Treatise on Geometrical Optics, R. A. Herman, 203; Brilliant Points and Loci of Brilliant Points, W. H. Røeher, 220; Contributions to Photographic Optics, Dr. Otto Lummer, Prof. Silvanus P. Thompson, F.R.S., 227; Abbe's Optical Theorems, Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 276; Curious Illusion, 353; Absorption of Light in Coloured Glass, R. Zgismondy, 362; Optical Illusion, W. Larden, 372; Photographic Optics, Dr. Otto Lummer, Dr. Rudolf Steinheil, Prof. Silvanus P. Thompson, F.R.S., 395; Interference Bands produced by thin Wedge, H. C. Pocklington, 434; Recueil de Données Numériques. Optique, H. Dufet, 464; Studies in Visual Sensation, Prof. C. Lloyd Morgan, F.R.S., 552; New Method of Distinguishing Colouring Matters by Study of Light-absorption applied to Indophenols, C. Camichel and P. Bayrac, 604
 Orchard (H. L.), Autotomic Curves, 7
 Ore Deposits, the Science of, Dr. R. Beck, Prof. H. Louis, 245, 510
 Organic Analysis, Elementary, F. G. Benedict, 514
 Organic Chemistry for Advanced Students, Practical, Dr. Julius B. Cohen, 511
 Organography and Its Relations to Biological Problems, Organographie der Pflanzen, insbesondere der Archegoniaten und Samenpflanzen, Dr. K. Goebel, Prof. J. B. Farmer, 149
 Orientation of Greek Temples, the, Dr. F. C. Penrose, F.R.S., 492
 Origin and Progress of Scientific Societies, the, Sir John Evans, K.C.B., F.R.S., 119
 Origin of Terrestrial Magnetism, 286
 Origin of the "Tumbling" of Pigeons, the, Prof. G. B. Howes, F.R.S., 395
 Origin of Worlds, the, Kant's Cosmogony, W. Hastie, 413
 Origins of Art, the, a Psychological and Sociological Inquiry, Yrjö Hirn, Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S., 389
 Ormerod (Eleanor A.), Flies Injurious to Stock, 127
 Ornithology: the Extinction of the Great Purple Coot, R. Henry, 65; British Bird-Names, A. H. Meiklejohn, 113; the Birds of Ireland, R. J. Ussher, R. Warren, 101; the Story of the Birds, C. Dixon, 101; Among the Birds, Florence Anna Fulcher, 101; Curious Flask-shaped Bird's Nest from Trinidad, W. B. Hemsley, F.R.S., 169; Our Bird Friends, R. Kearton, 183; the Birds of Africa, G. E. Shelley, 393; Diastaxy of Birds' Wings, C. Mitchell, 450; Bird Destruction in France, L. A. Levat, 500; on the Morphology and Phylogeny of the Paleognathæ (Ratitæ and Crypturi) and Neognathæ (Carinatæ), W. P. Pycraft, 536
 Ortona (C.), Vitality of Bacteria in Milk, 404
 Osaka (Dr. Y.), Biotation of *d*-glucose, 354
 Osborn (Prof. H. F.), the Evidence in the Permian of Common Ancestral Stem of Dinosaurs and Birds, 91; Origin of Mammalia, iii., 306; National Aspects of Scientific Investigation, 356; Phylogeny of European Rhinoceroses, 450
 Oscillographs, 142
 Osmosis of Liquids through Pig's Bladder, G. Flusin, 267
 Ostwald (Prof. W.), "Grundlinien der Anorganischen Chemie," 557
 Oswell (William Cotton), Hunter and Explorer, W. E. Oswell, Supp. vi.
 Outline of the Theory of Thermodynamics, an, Edgar Buckingham, 269
 Output and Value of British Minerals, Prof. Le Neve Foster, F.R.S., 72
 Ouvrard (L.), Borates of Magnesium and Alkaline Earth Metals, 387
 Owens College, Manchester, the, P. J. Hartog, 374

 Pace (S.), the Collection of Material for the Study of "Species," 490
 Pacher (Dr. G.), the Velocity of Vortex Rings, 209
 Pacher (Dr. G.), Death of, 256
 Packard (A. S.), New Fossil Crab, 114
 Paget (Mr.), the Application of Physical Instruments to Study of Disease, 474
 Paillot (René), Electromotive Force of Magnetisation, 243
 Pakes (W. C. C.), Gases produced by Bacteria from certain Media, 123; Bacterial Decomposition of Formic Acid, 433
 Paleobotany: the Phlœm of Lepidophloios and Lepidodendron, Prof. F. E. Weiss, 99; Seed-like Fructification in Paleozoic Lycopods, D. H. Scott, F.R.S., 121; Grasswrack from Kwen Lun Mountains, Dr. A. B. Rendle, 219; Cast of Fossil Trunk in Basalt, R. H. Walcott, 284; Lepidocarpon, D. H. Scott, F.R.S., 506; Catalogue of the Mesozoic Plants in the Department of Geology, British Museum (Natural History), the Jurassic Flora, i., the Yorkshire Coast, A. C. Seward, F.R.S., 537
 Paleognathæ (Ratitæ and Crypturi), and Neognathæ (Carinatæ), on the Morphology and Phology of the, W. P. Pycraft, 536
 Paleontology: Studies in Fossil Botany, D. H. Scott, F.R.S., 53; Zeuglodon, F. A. Lucas, 113; New Fossil Crab, A. S. Packard, 114; *Wynyardia bassiana*, Fossil Marsupial from Tasmania, Prof. B. Spencer, F.R.S., 146; Fossil Remains from Lake Callabonna, E. C. Stirling and A. H. C. Zeitz, 181; Lower Cretaceous Gryphæa of Texas, T. W. Vaughan and R. T. Hill, 215; New *Merycochoerus* in Montana, Earl Douglass, 266; Death and Obituary Notice of James Bennie, 352; the Rhaetic Plant *Naiadita*, I. B. J. Sollas, 411; Succession of Fossil Faunas in Kinderhook (Iowa) Beds,

- Stuart Weller, 425; Cretacean Sea-Urchin in Eastern Sahara, M. de Lapparent, 435; Phylogeny of European Rhinoceroses, Prof. H. F. Osborn, 450; Creosaurus from Wyoming, S. W. Williston, 481; Reptile Remains from Patagonia, Dr. S. Woodward, 507; New Scottish Silurian Scorpion, *Palaeophorus hunteri*, R. I. Pocock, 523
- Palmer (Irving O.), One Thousand Problems in Physics, 393
"Panoram" Kodak, the, 261
- Papperitz (Dr. Erwin), die Mathematik an den Deutschen technischen Hochschulen, 28
- Papúa, Album of, Types II., Dr. A. B. Meyer, R. Parkinson, 324
- Parallax, Solar, Eros and the, 502
- Paris Academy of Sciences: 23, 51, 75, 99, 123, 147, 171, 196, 243, 267, 291, 316, 339, 363, 387, 411, 435, 459, 483, 507, 531, 556, 579, 604, 628; Prize List of the, 214; Proposed Prizes for 1901, 241
- Paris Exhibition: Instruments of Precision at the, 61; E. T. Warner, 107; H. Davidge, 107; Prof. C. V. Boys, F.R.S., 156; Chemical Products and Appliances at the Paris International Exhibition, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 179; De Paris aux Mines d'Or de l'Australie Occidentale, O. Chemin, 440
- Parker (E. H.), China: her History, Diplomacy and Commerce from the Earliest Times to the Present Day, Supp. ix.
- Parker (W. H.), Functions of Bile as Solvent, 458
- Parkin (J.), Mannose-producing Reserve Carbohydrate from Liliun Bulb, 555
- Parkinson (John), Hollow Spherulites of the Yellowstone and Great Britain, 530
- Parkinson (R.), Album of Papúa, Types II., 324
- Parr (G. D. A.), Practical Electrical Testing in Physics and Electrical Engineering, 538
- Partial Differential Equations of Modern Mathematical Physics, the, Prof. B. Riemann, Prof. Heinrich Weber, 390
- Pasteur Institute at Kasauli, the, 35
- Paton (Dr. O. N.), Dietary Studies of Edinburgh Poor, 99
- Patterson (J.), Effect of Magnetic Field on Resistance of Thin Magnetic Films, 555
- Patterson (T. S.), Influence of Solvents on Rotation of Optically Active Compounds, 75; Preparation of Esters from other Esters of Same Acid, 339
- Pauli (Dr. S.), the Pneumatic Cavities in Mammalian Skull, 13
- Pavliček (F.), Atomic Weight of Lanthanum, 626
- Peach (B. N.), Remarkable Tertiary Volcanic Vent in Arran, 578
- Peach-leaf Curl, its Nature and Treatment, Newton B. Pierce, 393
- Peake (R. E.), on the Results of a Deep-Sea Sounding Expedition in the North Atlantic during the Summer of 1899, 487
- Pearson (Prof. Karl, F.R.S.), Mathematics and Biology, 274; National Life from the Standpoint of Science, Supp. iii.
- Peat, the Commercial Uses of, W. H. Wheeler, 590
- Pécharé (E.), Reduction of Sulphomolybdic Acid by Alcohol, 508
- Peddie (Dr. W.), Relations between Thermo- and Electro-Magnetic Effects, 99; Thermoelectric Position of Solid Mercury, 507
- Peirce (B. O.), the Thermal Diffusivity of Carrara Marble, 90
- Pelabon (II.), Action of Hydrogen on Bismuth Sulphide, 316
- Pellew (E.), Variation of Atmospheric Electricity, 491
- Penck (Prof.), Glacial Phenomena of Australia, 405
- Pendlebury (Charles), a Short Course of Elementary Plane Trigonometry, 178
- Pendulums, Half-Seconds, Mr. Watson, 195
- Penfield (S. L.), Chemical Composition of Turquoise, 169
- Penrose (Dr. F. C., F.R.S.), the Orientation of Greek Temples, 492
- Penrose's Pictorial Annual, vol. vi. the Process Yearbook for 1900, 178
- Percival (A. S.), the Optics of Acuteness of Sight, 82
- Perfumes, Natural and Artificial, 212
- Peripatopsis Sedgwicki*, Distinctive Characteristics of, E. L. Bouvier, 23
- Peripatus, the Jamaican Species of, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 325; Abundance of Peripatus in Jamaica, Dr. J. E. Duerden, 440
- Perkin (A. G.), Rhamnazin and Rhamnetin, 75; Genstein, ii. 75
- Perkin (Dr. F. Mollwo), the Present Condition of the Indigo Industry, 7, 111, 302; Practical Electro-Chemistry, G. Bertram Blount, 582
- Perkin (W. H., jun.), Tetramethylene Carbinol, 433; Formation of Aromatic Compounds from Ethyl Glutaconates, 529
- Perkins (B. W.), Nitro-derivatives of Fluorescein, 75
- Pernter (Dr.), Trials of Stiger's Hail-dispersing Apparatus, 36
- Perot (A.), Application of Interference Method to Measurement of Wave-lengths in Solar Spectrum, 51
- Perrotin (M.), the Velocity of Light, 75
- Perry (Prof. John, F.R.S.), Electrical Engineering as a Trade and as a Science, 41; the Teaching of Elementary Mathematics, David Eugene Smith, 367; National Life from the Standpoint of Science, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., Supp. iii.
- Persei δ and χ , Heliometer Measures of, Prof. Schur, 240
- Perseus: a "New Star" in, 420, 477, 482; Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 441, 467, 540; J. Janssen, 483; Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 497; Prof. H. C. Vogel, 502, 620; Prof. Copeland, 507; C. Easton, 540; Prof. Hale, 596; Mr. Sharp, 628; Dr. Rambaut, 628; Chart for Observations of Nova Persei, 525; Spectrum of Nova Persei, Prof. H. C. Vogel, 575
- Perturbations of Eros Produced by Mars, H. N. Russell, 141
- Peters (C. A.), Volumetric Estimation of Copper Oxalate, 169
- Petrography: Can Spectrum Analysis Furnish us with Precise Information as to the Petrography of the Moon? Dr. W. J. Knight, 180
- Pettenkofer (Prof. Max Josef von), Death of, 381; Obituary Notice of, 399
- Philip's London School Board Atlas, 344
- Phillips (H. A.), Bromination of Ortho-Oxyazo Compounds, 291
- Philology: Death of Prof. Max Müller, 10
- Philosophy, Natural, Exercises in, Prof. Magnus Maclean, 154
- Philosophy: the Riddle of the Universe at the Close of the Nineteenth Century, Ernst Haeckel, 320
- Phipson (Dr. T. L.), Researches on the Past and Present History of the Earth's Atmosphere, 537
- Phisalix (C.), Poisonous Secretion of *Iulus terrestris*, 171; Quinine, the Active Principle of *Iulus terrestris*, 196
- Phonography, Permanent Records, T. A. Edison, 523
- Phosphorescence as a Source of Illumination in Photography, Rev. F. Jervis-Smith, F.R.S., 421
- Photography: Photographic Method of Recording Speed of Motor Cars, L. Gaumont, 64; Les Plaques Sensibles au Champ Electrostatique, V. Schaffers, 82; Quartz-Calcite Symmetrical Doublet, J. W. Gifford, 127; Photography of the Static Discharge, Dr. Hugh Walsham, 180; Reversed Pictures obtained with Developing Bath Exposed to Direct Sunlight, Prof. F. E. Nipher, 209; Contributions to Photographic Optics, Dr. Otto Lummer, Prof. Silvanus P. Thompson, F.R.S., 227; the British Journal Photographic Almanac, 249; the "Panoram" Kodak, 261; the Disappearance of Images on Photographic Plates, William J. S. Lockyer, 278; Photography in Colours, R. Child Bayley, 298; Die Photographie im Dienste der Himmelskunde, Dr. Karl Kosteritz, 324; Eclipse Photography, Prof. Francis E. Nipher, 325; Die Photographie im Hochgebirg, Emil Terschak, 345; Photographic Catalogue of Polar Stars, 355; the Preservation of Photographic Records, Chapman Jones, 373; Recent Results in Positive Photography, Prof. F. E. Nipher, 387; Photographic Optics: Dr. Otto Lummer, Dr. Rudolf Steinheil, 395; Prof. Silvanus P. Thompson, F.R.S., 395; Phosphorescence as a Source of Illumination in Photography, R. F. Jervis-Smith, F.R.S., 421; the Kammatograph, 424; Photographic Negatives Printed by Contact by Light of 300-Candle Incandescent Lamp, Prof. F. E. Nipher, 436; a Tree Torn by Lightning, Percy E. Spielmann, 466; Photography of the Aurora, 525; Reduction of Photographs of Stellar Spectra, 620
- Photometrical Measurements, W. M. Stine, 416
- Phototherapy: Simple Apparatus for Application of Finsen's Method, MM. Lorlet and Genoud, 387
- Phylogeny: on the Morphology and Phylogeny of the Palaeognathæ (Ratitæ and Crypturi) and Neognathæ (Carnatæ), W. P. Pyecraft, 536
- Physical Agents, the Effect of, on Bacterial Life, Dr. Allen Macfadyen, 359
- Physical Agents, Influence of, on Bacteria, 420

- Physical Geography: Physiography and Physical Geography, 207; the Word Physiography, Dr. Hugh Robert Mill, 231
- Physical Theory of Nerve, W. M. Strong, 282
- Physics: Determinations of Capillary Contents of Liquefied Gases by "Ripple" Method, Dr. Leo Grunmach, 12; Physical Society, 22, 74, 122, 194, 386, 432, 482, 529; *Genèse de la Matière et de l'Énergie*, A. Despaux, 25; a Text-book of Physics: Sound, J. H. Poynting, F.R.S., J. J. Thomson, F.R.S., 26; the Journal of Physical Chemistry, 54; the Law of Cailletet and Mathias, Dr. Sydney Young, 90; Two Groups of Loci Relating to Thermodynamic Properties of Liquid, E. Mathias, 90; Oscillographs, 142; Exercises in Natural Philosophy, Prof. Magnus Maclean, 154; Argon and its Companions, Prof. William Ramsay, F.R.S., Dr. Morris W. Travers, 164; on the Statistical Dynamics of Gas Theory as Illustrated by Meteor Swarms and Optical Rays, Dr. J. Larmor, F.R.S., 168; Virgil as a Physicist, 205; Relative Motion of the Earth and the Ether, William Sutherland, 205; the Doctrines of Partition of Energy among Molecules of Gas, Mr. Burbury, 209; on the Relations of Radiation to Temperature, Dr. J. Larmor, F.R.S., 216; Liquid Air, J. Adam, 252; the Transmission of Force, Lord Kelvin, 266; on a Proof of Traction-elasticity of Liquids, Prof. G. van der Mensbrugge, 274; National Physical Laboratory, 300; Death and Obituary Notice of H. W. Chisholm, 304; Liquefaction of Gaseous Mixtures, F. Caubet, 339; Lectures on Theoretical and Physical Chemistry, J. H. van't Hoff, 343; *Leçons de Chimie Physique*, J. H. van't Hoff, 343; Wiedemann's Annalen, 362; *Atti della Fondazione Scientifica Cagnola*, vol. xvii., 369; Mathematics and Physics in Public Schools, G. H. J. Hurst, 370; Address of President of Physical Society, 386; a Mica Echelon Grating, Prof. R. W. Wood, 386; One-dimensional Illustrations of Kinetic Theory of Gases, Lord Kelvin, 387; Die Partiellen Differentialgleichungen der Mathematischen Physik, nach Riemann's Vorlesungen, Heinrich Weber, 390; One Thousand Problems in Physics, William H. Snyder and Irving O. Palmer, 393; Vortex Rings, Prof. R. W. Wood, 418; Death of George Francis Fitzgerald, 442; Obituary Notice of, 445; the Boiling Point of Liquid Hydrogen, Prof. James Dewar, F.R.S., 458; Theory of Colloidal Solutions, Dr. F. G. Donnan, 482; the Use of the Method of Least Squares in Physics, A. F. Ravenshear, 489; Heat Evolved when Powders are Wetted, M. Bellati, 500; *Annalen der Physik*, 506, 528, 626; Experimental Determination of Capillary Constants of Condensed Gases, L. Grunmach, 506; Expansion of Silica, Prof. Callendar, 529; Matter, Ether and Motion, A. E. Dolbear, 533; La Constitution du Monde, Dynamique des Atomes, Madame Clemence Royer, 533; *Mutmassungen über das Wesen der Gravitation, der Electricitäts und der Magnetismus*, Dr. Hermann Fischer, 533; Ueber mögliche Bewegungen möglicher Atome, Dr. Hermann Fischer, 533; Practical Electrical Testing in Physics and Electrical Engineering, G. D. A. Parr, 538; Physical Properties of Nitric Acid Solutions, V. H. Veley, F.R.S., and J. J. Manley, 551; Differential and Integral Calculus for Beginners, Edwin Edser, 560; Stationary Motions, T. Levi-Civita, 573; a Student's Drum Recorder, W. E. Pye and Co., 577; the Behaviour of Gases at Low Pressures, Prof. A. Battelli, 594; the Work of the Reichsanstalt, 614; Death of Prof. H. A. Rowland, 616; Surface Tension and Range of Molecular Action of Water Surface covered with Oil Layer, R. H. Weber, 626
- Physiography: Physiography and Physical Geography, 207; the Word Physiography, Dr. Hugh Robert Mill, 231
- Physiology: Beiträge zur Physiologie des Centralnervensystem, Max Verworn, 78; Cryoscopy of Human Sweat, P. Ardin-Delteil, 124; Glycolysis of Different Sugars, P. Portière, 244; Toxicity of Injected Muscle Serum, Charles Richet, 267; Text-book of Physiology, A. E. Schäfer, 270; Physical Theory of Nerve, W. M. Strong, 283; the Thymus Gland, Dr. J. Beard, 306; Effect of Substitution of Alcohol for Sugar in Food on Muscular Action, A. Chauveau, 316, 339; an Introduction to Vegetable Physiology, J. Reynolds Green, F.R.S., 345; Researches on Fibrinolysis, 363; Sensational Newspaper Reports as to Physiological Action of Common Salt, Prof. Jacques Loeb, 372; the Teaching of Physiology, Dr. W. T. Porter, 427; Nervous Transmission of Instantaneous Electric Stimulus, Aug. Charpentier, 435; Effect of Muscular Work on Digestibility of Food, Prof. C. E. Wait, 451; Functions of Bile as Solvent, Benjamin Moore and W. H. Parker, 458; Method of Distinguishing Human from Animal Blood, Dr. Uhlen-Luth, 499; Drs. Wassermann and Schultze, 499; Studies in Visual Sensation, Prof. C. Lloyd Morgan, F.R.S., 552
- Pickard (R. H.), Method for Preparing Amides from Corresponding Aldehydes, 548; Amido-Formation from Aldehydes, 529
- Pickering (Prof. Edward C.), the New Star in Perseus, 497; Cooperation in Observing Variable Stars, 477
- Pickering (Spencer W.), Report of the Working and Results of the Woburn Experimental Fruit Farm, 177
- Pickering (Prof. Spencer, F.R.S.), Thermochemical Relations, 394
- Pictet (M.), Three New Alkaloids from Tobacco, 575
- Picton (Harold), Air and Disease, 276
- Pierce (Newton B.), Peach-leaf Curl, its Nature and Treatment, 393
- Pigeons, the Origin of the "Tumbling" of, Prof. G. B. Howes, F.R.S., 395
- Pilot Charts, 494
- Pilsbry (H. A.), a Former Mid-Pacific Continent, 259
- Pinto (Major Serpa), Death of, 237
- Plague, the, Prof. A. Calmette, 63; Plague-Infection, Dr. Albrecht and Ghon, 89, Prof. A. Calmette, 89; Sieroterapia e Vaccinazioni preventive contro La Peste Bubonica, Dott. Alessandro Lustig, 105; the Value of Anti-Plague Serum, 112
- Planets: Observations of the Planet Eros, 14, 39, 116, 212, 333, 355; Opposition of Eros, M. Loewy, 188; Reduction of Observations of Eros, Prof. G. C. Comstock, 405; Variability of Eros, 502; Dr. E. von Oppolzer, 383; F. Rossard, 426; Ch. André, 426; Eros and the Solar Parallax, 502; Perturbations of Eros Produced by Mars, H. N. Russell, 141; Marking on Mars, Mr. Douglass, 189; Opposition of Mars in 1888, G. V. Schiaparelli, 286; Distribution of Minor Planets, M. Freycinet, 116; New Minor Planets, W. R. Brooks, 240; Brooks' Minor Planets, 333; Jupiter and His Markings, W. F. Denning, 355; Diameter of Venus, Prof. T. J. J. See, 212; Reduction of Occultations, L. Cruls, 212; Normal Positions of Ceres, Prof. G. W. Hill, 260
- Plant Culture, Principles of, Prof. E. S. Goff, 298
- Plants, the Nature and Work of, D. T. MacDougal, 417
- Plants, a Practical Guide to Garden, John Weathers, 463
- Pleiades, Rutherford Measures of, Harold Jacoby, 548
- Pleyte (C. M.), the Mentawai Islanders, 332
- Pockels (F.), the Theory of Rain Precipitation in Mountains, 529
- Pocklington (H. C.), Interference Bands Produced by thin Wedge, 434
- Pocock (R. I.), Secondary Sexual Characters and the Coloration of the Prong-buck, 157; Adaptation of Instinct in a Trap-door Spider, 466; New Scottish Silurian Scorpion *Palaeophonus hunteri*, 523
- Poincaré (H.), Cinématique et Mécanismes, 153
- Poisoning Epidemic, the Beer, 541; Selenium in Sulphuric Acid, V. H. Veley, F.R.S., 587
- Poland, Mediaeval Natural History in, Joseph Rostafinski, 615
- Polar Expedition, the Duke of the Abruzzi's, 37
- Polar Motion, New Component of the, Prof. S. C. Chandler, 452
- Polar Stars, Photographic Catalogue of, 355
- Pole, Terrestrial, Variations in the Motion of the, 354
- Pole (William, F.R.S.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 236
- Ponsot (M.), Molecular Specific Heat of Gaseous Dissociable Compounds, 196
- Popoff (M.), Direct Application to Wireless Telegraphy of Telephonic Receiver, 267
- Population Distribution in England and Wales, Thomas Welton, 450
- Porter (M.B.), Sets of Coincidence Points on non-singular Cubics of Syzygetic Sheaf, 528
- Porter (Dr. W. T.), the Teaching of Physiology, 427
- Portière (P.), Glycolysis of different Sugars, 244
- Potain (Dr. P. K. E.), Death of, 256; Obituary Notice of, 282
- Potocka (Countess), Memoirs of the, Casimir Stryienski, 154
- Potter (Prof. M. C.), Bacterial Disease of Turnip, 218
- Poulton (Prof., F.R.S.), Source of Sound of Death's Head Moth, 315
- Poynting (J. H., F.R.S.), A Textbook of Physics. Sound, 26

- Pozdnéeff (A.), Mongolia and the Mongols; Results of an Expedition to Mongolia in the Years 1892 and 1893, 608
- Pozzi-Escot (E.), Les Diastases et Leurs Applications, 607; Detection of Alkaloids by Micro-Chemical Method, 628
- Pozzolana O. Rebuffat, 64
- Practical Coal Mining, George L. Kerr, 417
- Pre-Columbian Scandinavian Colony in Massachusetts, A. Gerard Fowkes, 192
- Precision, Instruments of, at the Paris Exhibition, 61; E. T. Warren, 107; H. Davidge, 107; Prof. C. V. Boys, F.R.S., 156
- Preservation of Photographic Records, the, Chapman Jones, 373
- Price (T. S.), Velocity of Reaction between Ethyl Alcohol and Hydrochloric Acid, 75
- Prichard (H.), Where Black Rules White; A Journey Across and About Hayti, 512
- Prisms, Cyanine, Prof. R. W. Wood, 433
- Probability, Inverse or "a posteriori," Prof. J. Cook Wilson, 154
- Probability—James Bernoulli's Theorem, Prof. J. Cook Wilson, 465
- Problems of Evolution, F. W. Huxley, 341
- Process Photography, Penrose's Pictorial Annual, Vol. vi. The Process Year-book for 1900, 178
- Progress of Science Teaching, 193
- Prong-buck, Secondary Sexual Characters and the Coloration of the, R. I. Pocock, 157
- Protective Markings in Animals, Clarence Waterer, 441
- Protective Markings in Cats, Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S., 466
- Proteids, Recent Advances in the Chemistry of the, Dr. J. A. Milroy, 224
- Pseudo-Science, Science and, 25
- Psychology: Der Aufbau der Menschlichen Seele; Eine Psychologische Skizze, Dr. H. Kroell, A. E. Taylor, 204; Knowledge, Belief and Certitude, F. Storrs Turner, 273; the Story of Thought and Feeling, F. Ryland, 325; the Origins of Art, a Psychological and Sociological Inquiry, Yrjö Hirn, Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S., 389; Die Transzendente und die Psychologische Methode, Dr. Max F. Scheler, 438; Fact and Fable in Psychology, Joseph Jastrow, 586
- Public Schools, Conference of Science Masters in, Wilfred Mark Webb, 313
- Public Schools, Mathematics and Physics in, G. H. J. Hurst, 370
- Publication of Books without Dates, the, Prof. O. Henrici, F.R.S., 372
- Pullar (Fred.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 423
- Pumping Machinery, the Principles, Construction and Application of, Henry Davey, 56
- Pycraft (W. P.), on the Morphology and Phylogeny of the Palæognathæ (Ratitæ and Crypturi) and Neognathæ (Carnatæ), 536
- Pye (W. E.) and Co., a Student's Drum Recorder, 577
- Pyrometry, the Melting-point of Gold, L. Holborn and A. Day, 330
- Quagga, Extant Specimens of, G. Renshaw, 425
- Quarrying, Steinbruchindustrie und Steinbruchgeologie, Dr. O. Hermann, Prof. Grenville, A. J. Cole, 27
- Quartics, Graphic Solutions of the Cubics and, T. Hayashi, 515
- Quartz-Calcite Symmetrical Doublet, J. W. Gifford, 127
- Queen, the Death of the, 293
- Quinton (R.), Osmotical Openness of Marine Invertebrata, 171
- Raciborski's Researches on Leptomin, Prof. S. H. Vines, F.R.S., 434
- Radiation: on the Relations of Radiation to Temperature, Dr. J. Larmor, F.R.S., 216
- Radio-active Lead, K. A. Hoffman and E. Strauss, 405
- Radio-activity of Matter, the, Prof. Henri Becquerel, 396
- Radiography: Energy of Röntgen and Becquerel Rays, Prof. E. Rutherford and R. K. McClung, 50; the Kathode Stream and X-light, W. Rollins, 169; Transformation by Matter of Röntgen Rays, G. Sagnac, 329; Law of Transparency of Matter for X-Rays, Louis Benoist, 411; how Air Subjected to X-Rays loses its Discharging Property, Prof. E. Villari, 432; the Secondary Radio-Activity of Metals, Henri Becquerel, 435; Secondary Radio-Activity, H. Becquerel, 556; Induced Radio-Activity, P. Curie and A. Debierne, 556; Specific Absorption of X-Rays by Metallic Salts, Alex. Hebert and Georges Reynaud, 435; Direct Production of X-Rays in Air, A. Nodon, 556; Action of Radium Radiation on Selenium, Eugène Bloch, 628
- Raggylug, the Cottontail Rabbit, and other Animal Stories, Ernest Seton-Thompson, 5
- Railways: a Suspended Railway, 71; Light Railways at Home and Abroad, W. H. Cole, 81; the Nilgiri Railway, W. J. Weightman, 402
- Rain, Artificial, Prof. Cleveland Abbe, 167; C. H. B. Woodd, 232; M. T. Tatham, 232
- Rain, Red, 471
- Rains, the Recent Blood, Prof. J. W. Judd, C.B., F.R.S., 514; Composition of Palermo Blood Rain, S. Meunier, 604
- Raisin (Dr. C. A.), Certain Altered Rocks from near Bastagne, 98
- Ramage (Hugh), Spectra of Flames in Open-hearth and Basic Bessemer Processes, 481; the Mineral Constituents of Dust and Soot from various Sources, 552
- Rambaud (M.), Observations at Algiers of Comet 1900 C (Giacobini), 291; Observations of Nova Persei, 628
- Ramsay (Prof. William, F.R.S.), Argon and its Companions, 164
- Ramsay (W.), Action of Heat on Ethyl Sulphuric Acid, 75
- Ransome (Dr. A., F.R.S.), Influence of Ozone on Bacteria, 458
- Raoult (Prof. F. M.), Death of, 593
- Ravaz (L.), "Gélivure" due to Lightning, 556
- Ravenshear (A. F.), the Use of the Method of Least Squares in Physics, 489
- Read (C. H.), the Progress of Anthropology, 410
- Read (Surgeon Walter) and Others, Mosquitoes and Yellow Fever, 63
- Reade (T. M.), the Cause of Slaty Cleavage, 259
- Reader (G. F.), Death of, 571
- Rebuffat (O.), Pozzolana, 64
- Recognition Marks: the Markings of Antilocapra, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 58
- Recorder, a Student's Drum, W. E. Pye and Co., 577
- Records, Monuments and Coins, the Ethnology of Ancient History deduced from, Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S., 309
- Records, Photographic, the Preservation of, Chapman Jones, 373
- Red Rain, 471; the Recent Blood Rains, Prof. J. W. Judd, C.B., F.R.S., 514; Composition of Palermo Blood Rain, S. Meunier, 604
- Redikorzew (W.), Structure of Ocelli of Insects, 259
- Reduction of Observations of Eros, Prof. G. C. Comstock, 405
- Reduction of Occultations, L. Cruls, 212
- Reed (Clement), Dew Ponds, 20
- Refraction within Telescope Tube, James Renton, 334
- Reichsanstalt, the Work of the, 614
- Reid (L. W.), Table of Class Numbers for Cubic Fields, 432
- Reinach (Salomon), the Primitive Idea of Tabu, 141
- Relative Motion of the Earth and the Ether, William Sutherland, 205
- Remarkable Earthquake Effects, some, 87
- Renard (A. F.), Notions de Minéralogie, 273
- Rendle (Dr. A. B.), Grasswack from Kwen Lun Mountains, 219
- Rengade (E.), Place of Indium in Classification of Elements, 267; Indium, 460
- Renshaw (G.), Extant Specimens of Quagga, 425
- Renton (James), Refraction within Telescope Tube, 334
- Reports from the Laboratory of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh, 418
- Reptiles, Beitrag zur Systematik und Genealogie der Reptilien, Prof. Max Furbinger, 462
- Reusch (Dr.), Changes of Level in Iceland in Recent Geological Times, 160
- REVIEWS AND OUR BOOKSHELF.
- Les Forêts, L. Boppe, Prof. W. R. Fisher, 1
- Topographic Surveying, Herbert M. Wilson, 2
- Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History, vol. ii. Anthropology: the Jesup North Pacific Expedition; iv. the Thompson Indians of British Columbia, James Teit, Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S., 3
- Lubrication and Lubricants, L. Archbutt and R. M. Deeley, 4
- Darwin and Darwinism, Pure and Mixed, Dr. P. Y. Alexander, 5

- Electric Wiring Tables, W. P. Maycock, 5
 Raggylug, the Cotton-tail Rabbit, and other Animal Stories, Ernest Seton-Thompson, 5
 Genèse de la Matière et de l'Energie-Formation et Fin d'un Monde, A. Despaux, 25
 A Text-book of Physics. Sound, J. H. Poynting, F.R.S., and J. J. Thomson, F.R.S., 26
 Steinbruchindustrie und Steinbruchgeologie, Technische Geologie nebst Praktischen Winken für die Verwertung von Gesteinen, unter Eingehender Berücksichtigung der Steinindustrie des Königreiches Sachsen, Dr. O. Herrmann, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 27
 Die Mathematik an den Deutschen Technischen Hochschulen, Dr. Erwin Papperitz, 28
 Ueber den Plan eines Physikalisch-technischen Instituts an der Universität Göttingen, Felix Klein, 28
 Die Anforderungen der Ingenieure und die Ausbildung der Mathematischen Lehramtskandidaten, Felix Klein, 28
 A Glossary of Botanic Terms with their Derivation and Accent, Benjamin Daydon Jackson, 28
 Antropometria, Dr. R. Livi, 28
 Elementary Questions in Electricity and Magnetism, Magnus Maclean and E. W. Marchant, 28
 Studies in Fossil Botany, D. H. Scott, F.R.S., 53
 The Journal of Physical Chemistry, 54
 Sounding the Ocean of Air, A. Laurence Rotch, 55
 The Locust Plague and its Suppression, Aeneas Munro, 55
 Leçons d'Anthropologie Philosophique, ses Applications à la Morale Positive, D. Folkmar, 56
 The Principles, Construction and Application of Pumping Machinery, Henry Davey, 56
 Elements of Hydrostatics, S. L. Loney, 57
 Minéralogie Agricole, F. Houdaille, 57
 Engine-room Practice, John G. Liversedge, 57
 The Letters of Jöns Jacob Berzelius and Christian Friedrich Schönbein, 1836-1847, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 77
 Beiträge zur Physiologie des Centralnervensystems, Max Verworn, 78
 Memoranda of the Origin, Plan and Results of the Experiments conducted at Rothamsted, Fifty-Seventh Year of the Experiments, 1900, 79
 The Scenery and Geology of the Peak of Derbyshire, Elizabeth Dale, 80
 Malaria, Angelo Celli, 80
 A Year with Nature, W. P. Westell, 80
 The Geology of Sydney and the Blue Mountains, Rev. J. Milne Curran, 81
 Light Railways at Home and Abroad, W. H. Cole, 81
 Les Plaques Sensibles au Champ Electrostatique, V. Schafers, 82
 The Elements of Plane Trigonometry, Prof. W. P. Durfee, 82
 The Birds of Ireland, an Account of the Distribution, Migration and Habits of Birds as Observed in Ireland, with all Additions to the Irish List, R. J. Ussher and R. Warren, 101
 The Story of the Birds, C. Dixon, 101
 Among the Birds, Florence Anna Fulcher, 101
 A Brief History of Mathematics, Dr. Karl Fink, 103
 New Lands: their Resources and Prospective Advantages, H. R. Mill, 104
 The Child, a Study in the Evolution of Man, A. F. Chamberlain, 105
 Sieroterapia e Vaccinazioni preventive contro La Peste Bubonica, Dott. Alessandro Lustig, 105
 A Monograph of the Erysiphaceæ, Ernest S. Salmon, 106
 An Old Man's Holidays, 106
 Sport and Travel, East and West, F. C. Selous, 125
 Lehrbuch der vergleichenden mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbeltiere, Dr. Med. Albert Oppel, 126
 Flies Injurious to Stock, Eleanor A. Ormerod, 127
 Organographie der Pflanzen, insbesondere der Archegoniaten und Samenpflanzen, Dr. K. Goebel, Prof. J. B. Farmer, 149
 The History of the Devil and the Idea of Evil, Dr. Paul Carus, 151
 Memories of the Months, the Right Hon. Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart., 152
 Cinématique et Mécanismes, Potentiel et Mécanique des Fluides, H. Poincaré, 153
 A Contents-Subject Index to General and Periodical Literature, A. Cotgreave, 153
 Workshop Mathematics, Frank Castle, 153
 Exercises in Natural Philosophy, with Indications how to Answer them, Prof. Magnus Maclean, 154
 Memoirs of the Countess Potocka, 155
 Jena Glass and its Applications to Science and Art, Dr. H. Hovestadt, 173
 Studies, Scientific and Social, Alfred Russel Wallace, 174
 Handbook of British Rubi, William Moyle Rogers, 176
 Report of the Working and Results of the Woburn Experimental Fruit Farm, Duke of Bedford and Spencer W. Pickering, F.R.S., Dr. Maxwell T. Masters, F.R.S., 177
 Design in Nature's Story, Walter Kidd, 178
 Penrose's Pictorial Annual, the Process Year-book for 1900, 178
 Knowledge Diary and Scientific Handbook for 1901, 178
 Short Course of Elementary Plane Trigonometry, Charles Pendlebury, 178
 Lehrbuch der anorganischen Chemie, Prof. Dr. H. Erdmann, 178
 Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom: a Theory of the Evolution of Secondary Sexual Characters, J. T. Cunningham, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 197
 A Treatise on Geometrical Optics, R. A. Herman, 203
 By Land and Sky, Rev. John M. Bacon, 203
 Der Aufbau der Menschlichen Seele: Eine Psychologische Skizze, Dr. H. Kroelle, A. E. Taylor, 204
 Shakespeare's Greenwood, George Morley, 204
 Chemie der Eiweisskörper, Dr. Otto Cohnheim, Dr. J. A. Milroy, 224
 Contributions to Photographic Optics, Dr. Otto Lummer, 227
 A Handy Book of Horticulture, F. C. Hayes, 229
 The Construction of Large Induction Coils: a Workshop Handbook, A. T. Hare, 229
 The Structure and Life-history of the Harlequin Fly (Chironomus), L. C. Miall, F.R.S., and A. R. Hammond, 230
 Lehre von den Erzlagertstätten, Dr. R. Beck, Prof. H. Louis, 245
 A Treatise on the Theory of Screws, Sir Robert Stawell Ball, F.R.S., Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 246
 Le Tabac, Culture et Industrie, E. Bouant, 248
 Briefwechsel zwischen Franz Unger und Stephan Endlicher, G. Haberlandt, 248
 The British Journal Photographic Almanac, 1901, 249
 The Lead Storage Battery, Desmond G. Fitzgerald, 249
 The Elements of Inorganic Chemistry, W. A. S. Shenstone, F.R.S., 249
 The Thompson-Yates Laboratories Report, 249
 Einführung in die Stöchiometrie, Joachim Biehunger, 250
 Travail des Metaux Dérivés du Fer, L. Gages, 250
 In the Ice World of Himalaya, among the Peaks and Passes of Ladakh, Nubra, Suru and Baltistan, Fanny Bullock Workman and William Hunter Workman, Prof. T. G. Bonney, 254
 An Outline of the Theory of Thermodynamics, Edgar Buckingham, 269
 Text-book of Physiology, 270
 The Royal Observatory, Greenwich: its History and Work, E. W. Maunder, 271
 Road-making and Maintenance: a Practical Treatise for Engineers, Surveyors and Others, Thomas Aitken, 272
 Knowledge, Belief and Certitude, F. Storrs Turner, 273
 Notions de Minéralogie, A. F. Renard et F. Stöber, 273
 The Essentials of Practical Bacteriology: an Elementary Laboratory Book for Students and Practitioners, H. J. Curtis, 274
 What is Heat? and What is Electricity? F. Hovenden, 274
 Untersuchung über die Vibration des Gewehrlaufes, C. Cranz and K. R. Koch, 279
 Das Geotektonische Problem der Glarner Alpen, A. Rothpletz, Dr. Maria M. Ogilvie-Gordon, 294
 Geologische Alpenforschungen, A. Rothpletz, Dr. Maria M. Ogilvie-Gordon, 294
 The Zoological Record, 296
 Practical Lessons in Metal Turning, Percival Marshall, 297
 Principles of Plant Culture, Prof. E. S. Goff, 298
 Photography in Colours, R. Child Bayley, 298
 The Romance of the Earth, A. W. Bickerton, 298

- Handbuch der Spectroscopie, H. Kayser, Prof. Arthur Schuster, F.R.S., 317
- Charles Gerhardt: sa Vie, son Œuvre, sa Correspondance: 1816-1856. Document d'Histoire de la Chimie, Édouard Grimaux et Charles Gerhardt, 318
- The Riddle of the Universe at the Close of the Nineteenth Century, Ernst Haeckel, 320
- A Text-book of Zoology treated from a Biological Standpoint, Dr. O. Schmeil, 321
- The Mycetozoa and Some Questions which they Suggest, the Right Hon. Sir Edward Fry, F.R.S., and Agnes Fry, 323
- A School Chemistry, Dr. John Waddell, 323
- Die Photographie im Dienste der Himmelskunde, Dr. Karl Kestersitz, 324
- Die Säkular-Verlegung der Magnetischen Axe der Erde, W. van Bemmelen, 324
- The Theory of Commutation, C. C. Hawkins, 324
- Album of Papúa, Types ii., North New Guinea, Bismark Archipelago, German Salomon Islands, Dr. A. B. Meyer and R. Parkinson, 324
- The Story of Thought and Feeling, F. Ryland, 325
- A Primer of Astronomy, Sir Robert Ball, F.R.S., 325
- Hand in Hand with Dame Nature, W. V. Burgess, 325
- Problems of Evolution, F. W. Headley, 341
- The Story of Nineteenth Century Science, Henry Smith Williams, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 342
- Lectures on Theoretical and Physical Chemistry, J. H. van't Hoff, 343
- Leçons de Chimie Physique, J. H. van't Hoff, 343
- The "Diagram" Series of Coloured Hand Maps, B. B. Dickinson and A. W. Andrews, 344
- Philip's London School Board Atlas, G. P. Philip, jun., 344
- The London School Atlas, H. O. Arnold-Forster, 344
- Die Photographie im Hochgebirg, Emil Terschak, 345
- An Introduction to Vegetable Physiology, J. Reynolds Green, 345
- A Text-book of Important Minerals and Rocks, with Tables for the Determination of Minerals, S. E. Tilman, 346
- Laboratory Companion for Use with Shenstone's Inorganic Chemistry, W. A. Shenstone, F.R.S., 346
- Four Lectures by Frederick Wollaston Hutton, 365
- The Teaching of Elementary Mathematics, David Eugene Smith, Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., 367
- In the Beginning (les Origines), J. Guibert, 368
- Atti della Fondazione Scientifica Cagnola, 369
- An Elementary Treatise on Qualitative Chemical Analysis, Prof. T. F. Sellers, 369
- Microbes et Distillerie, Lucien Lévy, 370
- The Fifth Report upon the Fauna of Liverpool Bay and the Neighbouring Seas, 370
- Analytical Tables for Complex Inorganic Mixtures, F. E. Thompson, 370
- The Origins of Art, a Psychological and Sociological Inquiry, Yrjö Hirn, Prof. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 389
- Die Partiellen Differentialgleichungen der Mathematischen Physik, nach Riemann's Vorlesungen, Heinrich Weber, 390
- The Human Ear, its Identification and Physiognomy, Miriam Anne Ellis, Dr. A. Keith, 392
- Die Moderne Entwicklung der elektrischen Principien, Prof. Dr. Ferd. Rosenberger, 393
- The Birds of Africa, G. E. Shelley, 393
- One Thousand Problems in Physics, William Snyder and Irving O. Palmer, 393
- Peach-leaf Curl: its Nature and Treatment, Newton B. Pierce, 393
- Kant's Cosmogony as in his Essay on the Retardation of the Rotation of the Earth, and his Natural History and Theory of the Heavens, W. Hastie, 413
- The Crocodilians, Lizards and Snakes of North America, E. D. Cope, 415
- Photometrical Measurements, W. M. Stine, 416
- The Nature and Work of Plants: an Introduction to the Study of Botany, D. T. MacDougal, 417
- Practical Coal Mining, George L. Kerr, Prof. H. Louis, 417
- Bookkeeping for Business Men, J. Thornton and S. W. Thornton, 417
- Reports from the Laboratory of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh, 418
- Mother, Baby and Nursery, Genevieve Tucker, 418
- The Cell in Development and Inheritance, E. B. Wilson, Prof. J. B. Farmer, F.R.S., 437
- Die Transzendente und die Psychologische Methode, Dr. Max F. Scheler, 438
- First Stage Botany, as Illustrated by Flowering Plants, Alfred J. Ewart, 439
- The Principles of Magnetism and Electricity, an Elementary Text-book, P. L. Gray, 439
- Die Lehre vom Skelet des Menschen unter besonderer Berücksichtigung entwicklungsgeschichtlicher und vergleichend-anatomischer Gesichtspunkte und der Erfordernisse des anthropologischen Unterrichtes an höheren Lehranstalten, Dr. F. Frenkel, 440
- De Paris aux Mines d'Or de l'Australie occidentale, O. Chemin, 440
- A Manual of Medicine, 461
- Beitrag zur Systematik und Genealogie der Reptilien, Prof. Max Fürbringer, 462
- A Practical Guide to Garden Plants, John Weathers, 463
- Ausgewählte Methoden der Analytischen Chemie, Prof. Dr. A. Classen, 463
- Recueil de Données numériques, Optique, H. Dufet, 464
- Celtic Folk-lore, Welsh and Manx, John Rhys, E. Sidney Hartland, 485
- Die Pflanzen-Alkaloide, Jul. Wilh. Brühl, Eduard Hjelt and Ossian Aschan, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 486
- On the Results of a Deep-Sea Sounding Expedition in the North Atlantic during the Summer of 1899, R. E. Peake, 487
- Modern Astronomy, being some Account of the Astronomical Revolution of the last Quarter of a Century, H. H. Turner, F.R.S., 488
- Chemistry an Exact Mechanical Philosophy, Fred G. Edwards, 489
- The Chemists' Pocket Manual, R. K. Meade, 489
- The Book of Antelopes, P. L. Sclater and O. Thomas, 509
- Lehre von den Erzlagerstätten, Dr. Richard Beck, Prof. Henry Louis, 510
- Practical Organic Chemistry for Advanced Students, Dr. Julius B. Cohen, 511
- Description of the Human Spines, showing Numerical Variation in the Warren Museum of the Harvard Medical School, T. Dwight, 512
- Where Black Rules White: a Journey Across and About Hayti, H. Prichard, 512
- Untersuchungen zur Blutgerinnung, Dr. Ernst Schwalbe, 512
- A Manual of Elementary Science, R. A. Gregory and A. T. Simmons, 513
- The Mind of the Century, 513
- Morison's Chronicle of the Year's News of 1900, 513
- Imitation, or the Mimetic Force in Nature and Human Nature, Richard Steel, 513
- In Nature's Workshop, Grant Allen, 513
- Elementary Organic Analysis, F. G. Benedict, 514
- Elevation and Stadic Tables, A. P. Davis, 514
- Matter, Ether and Motion, A. E. Dolbear, 533
- La Constitution du Monde, Dynamique des Atomes, Madame Clemence Royer, 533
- Mutmassungen über das Wesen der Gravitation, der Elektrizitäts und der Magnetismus, Dr. med. Hermann Fischer, 533
- Ueber mögliche Bewegungen möglicher Atome, Dr. med. Hermann Fischer, 533
- Researches on the Visual Organs of the Trilobites, G. Lindström, 535
- On the Morphology and Phylogeny of the Palæognathæ (Ratitæ and Crypturi) and Neognathæ (Carinatæ), W. P. Pycraft, 537
- Researches on the Past and Present History of the Earth's Atmosphere, Dr. T. L. Phipson, 537
- Catalogue of the Mesozoic Plants in the Department of Geology, British Museum (Natural History). The Jurassic Flora. I. The Yorkshire Coast. A. C. Seward, F.R.S., 537
- Practical Electrical Testing in Physics and Electrical Engineering, G. D. A. Parr, 538
- Mount Omi and Beyond, A. J. Little, 543
- Grundlinien der anorganischen Chemie, W. Ostwald, 557
- Text-Book of Vertebrate Zoology, J. S. Kingsley, 558
- The Social Life of the Hebrews, Rev. Edward Day, 559

The Table of British Strata, Dr. H. Woodward and H. B. Woodward, 560
 Differential and Integral Calculus for Beginners, Edwin Edser, 560
 Engineering Chemistry, Thomas B. Stillman, 561
 Catalogue of the Cuneiform Tablets in the Konyunjik Collection of the British Museum, C. Bezold, 562
 The Wildfowler in Scotland, J. G. Millais, 567
 A Self-verifying Chronological History of Ancient Egypt, a Book of Startling Discoveries, Orlando P. Schmidt, 581
 Practical Electro-chemistry, G. Bertram Blount, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 582
 The Mammals of South Africa, W. L. Sclater, 583
 Einführung in die Theorie der Curven in der Ebene und im Raume, Dr. Georg Scheffers, 584
 Les Phénomènes Electriques et leurs Applications, H. Vivarez, 585
 The Agricultural Changes and Laying Down Land to Grass, R. H. Elliot, 585
 Friederich Wöhler, Ein Jugendbildniss in Briefen an Hermann von Meyer, 586
 Die Flora der Deutschen Schutz-gebiete in der Südsee, Prof. Dr. Karl Schumann und Dr. Karl Lauterbach, 586
 Fact and Fable in Psychology, Joseph Jastrow, 586
 The Eyes of the Blind Vertebrates of North America, C. H. Eigenmann, 589
 Forestry in British India, Berthold Ribbentrop, Sir Dietrich Brandis, F.R.S., 597
 Text-book of the Embryology of Invertebrates, Profs. Korschelt and Heider, 605
 Elementary Studies in Chemistry, Joseph Torrey, Prof. A. Smithells, 606
 The Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne, and a Garden Calendar, Rev. Gilbert White, 606
 The Romance of the Heavens, A. W. Bickerton, 607
 Les Diastases et leurs Applications, E. Pozzi-Escot, 607
 Mongolia and the Mongols: Results of an Expedition to Mongolia in the Years 1892 and 1893, A. Pozdnéeff, 608

SUPPLEMENT.

National Life from the Standpoint of Science, Karl Pearson, F.R.S., Prof. E. Ray Lankester, F.R.S., and Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., iii.
 William Cotton Oswell, Hunter and Explorer, W. E. Oswell, vi.
 Carl Friedrich Gauss, Werke, viii.
 China: Her History, Diplomacy and Commerce from the Earliest Times to the Present Day, E. H. Parker, ix.
 Anthropologie als Wissenschaft und Lehrfach, Dr. Rudolf Martin, x.

Reynaud (Georges), Specific Absorption of X-Rays by Metallic Salts, 435
 Reynolds (Prof.), Curious Sunset Phenomenon, 99
 Reynolds (S. H.), Igneous Rocks of Tortworth Inlier, 627
 Rhinoceroses, European, Phylogeny of, Prof. H. F. Osborn, 450
 Rhys (John), Celtic Folk-lore, Welsh and Manx, 485
 Ribbentrop (Berthold), Forestry in British India, 597
 Riccò (A.), Tromometric Records of Mount Etna and Catania Observatories, 425
 Rich (E. M.), Solubility of Potters' Lead Fritts, 98
 Richardson (Alex.), Geology of Lake Nyasa, 315
 Richet (Charles), Toxicity of Injected Muscle Serum, 267
 Richmond (Herbert), Curves without Double Points, 58
 Riddle of the Universe at the Close of the Nineteenth Century, the, Ernst Haeckel, 320
 Ridewood (Dr. W. G.), "Bonnet" of *Balaena australis*, 433
 Riperpest in India, Serotherapy and, Mr. Lingard, 161
 "Ripple" Method, Determination of Capillary Constants of Liquefied Gases by, Dr. Leo Grummer, 12
 River, the Mississippi, J. A. Ockerson, W. H. Wheeler, 525
 Rivière (Ch.), Refractive Index of Bromine, 24
 Road-making and Maintenance, Thomas Aitken, 272
 Roberts (Alexander W.), Catalogue of Southern Variable Stars, 548
 Robin (Albert), Respiratory Diagnosis of Tuberculosis, 532
 Rocks, a Text-book of Important Minerals and, with Tables for the Determination of Minerals, S. E. Tillman, 346
 Roever (W. H.), Brilliant Points and Loci of Brilliant Points, 220

Rogers (A. W.), Glacial Characters of Prieska Conglomerate, 12
 Rogers (William Moyle), Handbook of British Rubi, 176
 Rollins (W.), the Kathode Stream and X-Light, 169
 Romance of the Earth, the, A. W. Bickerton, 298
 Romance of the Heavens, the, A. W. Bickerton, 607
 Rome, Recent Excavations in Forum, E. F. Morris, 578
 Röntgen Rays: Energy of Röntgen Rays, Prof. E. Rutherford and R. K. McClung, 50; The Kathode Stream and X-Light, W. Rollins, 169; Transformation by Matter of Röntgen Rays, G. Sagnac, 329; Law of Transparency of Matter for X-Rays, Louis Benoist, 411; How Air Subjected to X-Rays Loses its Discharging Property, Prof. E. Villari, 432; Specific Absorption by Metallic Salts of Röntgen Rays, Alex. Hebert and Georges Reynaud, 435; Direct Production in Air of Röntgen Rays, A. Nodon, 556
 Rose (Dr. T. K.), Progress in Metallography, 232
 Rosell (C. R.), Heat of Solution of Resorcinol in Ethyl Alcohol, 266
 Rosenberger (Prof. Dr. Ferd), Die Moderne Entwicklung der elektrischen Principien, 393
 Ross (Major R.), Malaria and Mosquitoes, 440
 Rossard (F.), Variability of Eros, 426
 Rostafinski (Joseph), Mediæval Natural History in Poland, 615
 Rotch (A. Lawrence), Sounding the Ocean of Air, 55
 Roth (H. L.), Maori Tatu and Moko, 483
 Rothamsted: Memoranda of the Origin, Plan and Results of the Experiments conducted at, 1900, 79
 Rothpletz (A.), Das Geotektonische Problem der Glarner Alpen, 294; Geologische Alpenforschungen, 294
 Rotschy (M.), Three New Alkaloids from Tobacco, 575
 Rousseaux (E.), Agricultural Value of Land in Madagascar, 459
 Rowland's Experiments on Magnetic Effect of Electrical Convection, V. Crémieu, 99
 Rowland (Prof. H. A.), Death of, 616
 Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh, Reports from the Laboratory of the, 418
 Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill, the, 256, 280, 303, 378, 399, 568
 Royal Observatory, Greenwich, its History and Work, the, E. W. Maunder, 271
 Royal Society, 22, 50, 121, 146, 218, 242, 266, 363, 386, 410, 458, 481, 506, 554, 577; Medal Awards for 1900, 34, 135; Anniversary Meeting of the, Address by Lord Lister, the Malaria Parasite, 135; Address to the King, 421
 Royer (Madame Clemence), la Constitution du Monde, Dynamique des Atomes, 533
 Rubi, British, Handbook of, William Moyle Rogers, 176
 Rücker (Prof. A. W.), the Bradford Municipal Technical College, 133; Magnetic Field Produced by Electric Tramways, 194
 Rudorf (G.), Action of Heat on Ethyl-sulphuric Acid, 75
 Russell (H. C., F.R.S.), Late Droughts and Recent Flood at Lake George, New South Wales, 148; Current Papers, 267
 Russell (H. N.), Perturbations of Eros Produced by Mars, 141
 Russell (Mr.), Thermal Deathpoint of Tubercle-Bacillus, 353
 Russia, the Government and Agriculture, 64
 Rutherford (Prof. E.), Energy of Röntgen Rays, 50
 Rutherford Measures of Pleiades, Harold Jacoby, 548
 Ryffel (J. H.), Isomeric Esters of Dioxymaleic Acid, 531
 Ryland (F.), the Story of Thought and Feeling, 325
 Sabatier (Paul), Reduced Nickel Active Catalytic Agent, 354; General Method for Synthesis of Naphthenes, 484
 Sagnac (G.), Transformation by Matter of Röntgen Rays, 329
 St. Kilda and Shetland, the Field Mice and Wrens of, G. E. H. Barrett-Hamilton, 299
 St. Louis Academy of Sciences, 387, 435, 580
 Säkulär-Verlegung der Magnetischen Axe der Erde, die, W. van Bemmelen, 324
 Saline Solutions, the Absorption Spectra of, Prof. W. N. Hartley, 313
 Salmon (Ernest S.), a Monograph of the Erysiphaceæ, 106
 Salt, Common, Sensational Newspaper Reports as to Physiological Action of, Prof. Jacques Loeb, 372
 Salt Meat, the Red Colour of, Dr. Haldane, 332
 Salt-mining, the Northwich Subsidence, T. Ward, 523
 Sand, Wave Surfaces in, Vaughan Cornish, 623

- Sand (Dr. H. J. S.), Concentration at Electrodes in Solutions, 23, 196
- Sanger (Lt.-Col. J. P.), the Census of Cuba, 162
- Sanitation: the Treatment of London Sewage, Prof. Frank Clowes, 190
- Sarrúf (Dr. N. Y.), Malaria and Mosquitoes, 180
- Saturnian System, Dimensions of the, Prof. T. J. J. See, 477
- Saunders (G. S.), Insect-capture by *Araujia Albens*, 98
- Scandinavian Colony in Massachusetts, a Pre-Columbian, Gerard Fowkes, 192
- Scanes (John), Upper Greensand and Chloritic Marl of Mere and Maiden Bradley, 291
- Scenery and Geology of the Peak of Derbyshire, the, Elizabeth Dale, 80
- Schaer (E.), New Type of Shortened Telescope, 452
- Schäfer (A. E.), Textbook of Physiology, 270
- Schäffers (V.), Les Plaques sensibles au Champ Electrostatique, 82
- Scheffers (Dr. Georg), Einführung in die Theorie der Curven in der Ebene und im Raume, 584
- Scheler (Dr. Max F.), die Transzendente und die Psychologische Methode, 438
- Schiaparelli (G. V.), Opposition of Mars in 1888, 286
- Schiller (F. C. S.), the "Usefulness" of Science, 298
- Schlich (Dr. W.), Forestry in Great Britain, 565
- Schlichtes (Dr.), Death of, 545
- Schlick (O.), Cause of Vibrations in *Deutschland*, 546
- Schmeil (Dr. O.), a Textbook of Zoology, treated from a Biological Standpoint, 321
- Schmidt (Orlando P.), a Self-verifying Chronological History of Ancient Egypt, a Book of Startling Discoveries, 581
- Schönbein (Christian Friedrich), the Letters of Jöns Jacob Berzelius and, 1836-1847, Georg W. A. Kahlbaum, Francis V. Darbishire, H. V. Sidgwick, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 77
- Schott (C. A.), the Figure of the Earth, 408
- Schrenk (Dr. H. von), Trees Bent by Frost, 404
- Schryver (S. B.), Morphine, ii., 626
- Schuh (Herr), Why Water at Surface of Lake on which Ice is forming is recorded as above Freezing Point, 618
- Schumann (Prof. Dr. Karl), die Flora der Deutschen Schutzgebiete in der Südsee, 586
- Schur (Prof.), Heliometer Measures of h and χ Persei, 240
- Schuster (Prof. Arthur, F.R.S.), Electric Inertia and Inertia of Electric Convection, 194; Handbuch der Spectroscopie, H. Kayser, 317
- Schutz (Dr.), Method of Distinguishing Human from Animal Blood, 499
- Schwalbe (Dr. Ernst), Untersuchungen zur Blutgerinnung, 512
- Schwartz (E. H. L.), Glacial Characters of Prieska Conglomerate, 12; Bushman Paintings from Groot Riet River, 532
- Science: Examinations in Experimental Science, 6; Science and Pseudo-Science, 25; the Nobel Prizes for Scientific Discovery, 40; the New Scientific Laboratories at King's College, London, 47; the Origin and Progress of Scientific Societies, Sir John Evans, K.C.B., F.R.S., 119; the Alliance between Science and Industry, 135; Scientific Instruments of Precision at the Paris Exhibition, 61; E. T. Warner, 107; H. Davidge, 107; Prof. C. V. Boys, F.R.S., 156; a Modern Scientific Industry, 173; Scientific and Social Studies, Dr. Alfred Russel Wallace, 174; International Catalogue of Scientific Literature, 180; Progress of Science Teaching, 193; Education in Science, James Sutherland, 275; Science Teachers in Conference, A. T. Simmons, 289; Conference of Science Masters in Public Schools, Wilfred Mark Webb, 313; the New Century, 221; Scientific Developments of Biology and Medicine, 286; the "Usefulness" of Science, F. C. S. Schiller, 298; the Story of Nineteenth-century Science, Henry Smith Williams, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 342; National Aspects of Scientific Investigation, Prof. H. F. Osborn, 356; Prof. W. Bullock Clark, 357; Dr. L. O. Howard, 357; Dr. B. T. Galloway, 358; Prof. W. T. Sedgwick, 358; Science at Sheffield University College, 383; Science in Technical and Preparatory Schools, A. T. Simmons, 407; Scientific Agriculture in the United States, 479; Forthcoming Books of Science, 503; a Manual of Elementary Science, R. A. Gregory and A. T. Simmons, 513; National Life from the Standpoint of Science, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., Prof. E. Ray Lankester, F.R.S., Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., Supp. iii.
- Slater (Mr.), the Gibraltar Rock Apes, 146
- Slater (P. L.), the Book of Antelopes, 509
- Slater (W. L.), the Mammals of South Africa, 83
- Scotland, the Wildfowl of, J. G. Millais, 567
- Scott (A.), Preparation of Iodic Acid, 339
- Scott (D. H., F.R.S.), Studies in Fossil Botany, 53; Seed-like Fructification in Palaeozoic Lycopods, 121; Lepidocarpon, 506
- Screws, a Treatise on the Theory of, Sir Robert Stawell Ball, F.R.S., Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 246
- Scripture (E. W.), on the Nature of Vowels, 626
- Seal and Whale Fishery, Notes on, T. Southwell, 524
- Secondary Sexual Characters, J. T. Cunningham, 29, 231; Secondary Sexual Characters and the Coloration of the Prong-buck, R. I. Pocock, 157
- Sedgwick (Prof. W. T.), National Aspects of Scientific Investigation, 358
- See (Prof. T. J. J.), Diameter of Venus, 212; Dimensions of the Saturnian System, 477
- Seismology: Bollettino della Società Italiana, 22, 169, 339; Some Remarkable Earthquake Effects, 87; Propagation across Pacific of Sea-waves from Japanese Earthquake of June 15, 1896, Dr. C. Davison, 140; Seismology in Japan, Prof. J. Milne, F.R.S., 588; the Effects of an Earthquake on Human Beings, Dr. Charles Davison, 165; Death of Dr. G. Pacher, 256; the Tripolis and Triphylia Earthquakes of 1898 and 1899, Prof. Mitzopoulos, 283; an Earthquake on February 10, Prof. Augusto Arcimis, 396; Tromometric Records of Mount Etna in Catania Observatories, A. Ricco and L. Franco, 425; the Iceland Earthquakes of August and September 1896, Dr. Thoroddsen, 595
- Sellers (Prof. T. F.), an Elementary Treatise on Qualitative Chemical Analysis, 369
- Selborne Yew-tree, the, F. Southerden, 491
- Selborne, the Natural History and Antiquities of, and a Garden Calendar, Rev. Gilbert White, 606
- Selenium in Sulphuric Acid, V. H. Veley, F.R.S., 587
- Selous (F. C.), Sport and Travel, East and West, 125
- Senderens (J. H.), Reduced Nickel active Catalytic Agent, 354; General Method for Synthesis of Naphthenes, 484
- Sensational Newspaper Reports as to Physiological Action of Common Salt, Prof. Jacques Loeb, 372
- Sentinel Milk Steriliser, the Cambridge, 166; D. Berry, 205; Your Reviewer, 205
- Serotherapy: the Kasauli Pasteur Institute, 35; Sieroterapia e Vaccinazioni preventive contro La Peste Bubonica Dott. Alessandro Lustig, 105; the Value of Anti-Plague Serum, 112; Serotherapy and Rinderpest in India, Mr. Lingard, 161; Protective Inoculation against Horse-sickness in Cape Colony, Dr. Edington, 282; Serotherapy of Distemper, Dr. Copeman, 332
- Seton-Thompson (Ernest), Raggylug, the Cottontail Rabbit, and other Animal Stories, 5
- Sewage: the Treatment of London Sewage, Prof. Frank Clowes, 190; the Chicago Drainage Canal, 547
- Seward (A. C., F.R.S.), Catalogue of the Mesozoic Plants in the Department of Geology, British Museum (Natural History): the Jurassic Flora. I.—The Yorkshire Coast, 537
- Sexual Characters, Secondary, J. T. Cunningham, 29; Secondary Sexual Characters and the Colouration of the Prong-buck, R. I. Pocock, 157
- Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom: a Theory of the Evolution of Secondary Sexual Characters, J. T. Cunningham, 197, 250, 299; Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 197, 251, 299
- Shakespeare's Greenwood, George Morley, 204
- Shaler (N. S.), Geology of Richmond (Va.) Basin, 215; Geology of Narragansett Basin, 216
- Sharp (Dr. B.), Contents of Cods' Stomachs, 618
- Sharp (Mr.), Observations of Nova Persei, 628
- Sheffield University College, Science at, 383
- Sheldon (J. M. Arms), Concretions from the Champlain Clays of the Connecticut Valley, 566
- Shelley (G. E.), the Birds of Africa, 393
- Shenstone (W. A., F.R.S.), the Elements of Inorganic Chemistry, 249; Laboratory Companion for Use with Shenstone's Inorganic Chemistry, 346
- Shetland, the Field-Mice and Wrens of St. Kilda and, G. E. H. Barrett-Hamilton, 299
- Ships, the British and German Antarctic, 591
- Sidgwick (N. V.), the Letters of Jöns Jacob Berzelius and Christian Friedrich Schönbein, 1836-1847, 77

- Siedlecki (Michel), Relations of the Gregarians and Intestinal Epithelium, 363
- Sight, the Optics of Acuteness of, Dr. A. S. Percival, 82; F. Twyman, 157
- Silica, Expansion of, Prof. Callendar, 529
- Simmons (A. T.), Science Teachers in Conference, 289; Technical Education at Manchester, 336; Science in Technical and Preparatory Schools, 407; a Manual of Elementary Science, 513
- Simon (L. J.), Stereochemistry of Nitrogen, 24
- Skeat (W. W.), Malay Metal Work, 434
- Skinner (Mr.), Minute Structure of Surface Ice, 195
- Skull-trephining in New Britain, &c., Rev. J. A. Crump, 554
- Slavs, Ethnic Affinities of the, Herr Jaborowski, 353
- Smelting Process, Captain Hassano's Electrical, 330
- Smith (David Eugene), the Teaching of Elementary Mathematics, 367
- Smith (G. F. H.), Calaverite Crystals from Colorado, 554
- Smith (H. G.), Constituent of Peppermint Odour in Eucalyptus Oil, 172; Geraniol in Eucalyptus Oil, 267; New Aromatic Aldehyde in Eucalyptus Oils, 579
- Smith (R. G.), the "Clouding" of White Wine, 220; *Vibrio bresmia*, Pathogenic Organism of Fish, 100
- Smith (W. L.), Shades for Electric Lighting, 282
- Smithells (Prof. A.), Elementary Studies in Chemistry, Joseph Torrey, 606
- Smythe (J. A.), Bases in Scottish Shale Oil, 123
- Snakes: Snake Plague in South Wales, G. Leighton, 330; Dasyatis and the Egested Egg-shell, Prof. G. B. Howes, F.R.S., 326; the Crocodilians, Lizards and Snakes of North America, E. D. Cope, 415; Snakes and other Wild Animals in India, Deaths from, 305
- Snow Crystals, Wm. Gee, 420; C. J. Woodward, 441
- Snow-waves, V. Cornish, 521
- Snyder (William H.), One Thousand Problems in Physics, 393
- Social Life of the Hebrews, the, Rev. Edward Day, 559
- Social and Scientific Studies, Dr. Alfred Russel Wallace, 174
- Solar Calorimeter, J. Y. Buchanan, 195
- Solar Eclipse, the Total, of May 17-18, Dr. J. J. A. Muller, 347
- Solar Motor, the Californian, 572
- Sollas (I. B. J.), the Rhætic Plant *Naiadita*, 411
- Somerville (Prof. Wm., F.R.S.), Agricultural Demonstration and Experiment, 84
- Soot, the Mineral Constituents of Dust and, from Various Sources, Prof. W. N. Hartley, F.R.S., Hugh Ramage, 552
- Sound: a Text-book of Physics. Sound, J. H. Poynting, F.R.S., J. J. Thomson, F.R.S., 26; Audibility of the Sound of Firing on February 1, 355, 372, 420; Sir W. J. Herschel, 395; Robert B. Hayward, F.R.S., 538; Arthur R. Hinks, 441
- Sounding the Ocean of Air, A. Lawrence Rotch, 55
- South African Philosophical Society, 124, 220, 532
- Southerden (F.), the Selborne Yew-tree, 491
- Southwell (T.), Notes on Seal and Whale Fishery, 524
- Sowler (R. J.), Astigmatic Lenses, 74
- Space Difference, the Smallest Visible Lateral, Prof. G. M. Stratton, 12
- Spain: Spanish Observations of the Eclipse of May 28, Señor Iniguez, 188; Spain and Greenwich Time, 240; an Earthquake on February 10, Prof. Augusto Arcimis, 396
- Species, the Collection of Material for the Study of, S. Pace, 490
- Spectrum Analysis: Our Stellar System, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 29; Application of Interference Method to Measurement of Wave-lengths in Solar Spectrum, A. Perot and Ch. Fabry, 51; Observations of the Infra-red Spectrum of the Solar Corona, M. Deslandres, 67; Recent Studies of the Infra-red Region of the Solar Spectrum, Prof. S. P. Langley, 68; Latest Results of Study of Infra-red part of Solar Spectrum, S. P. Langley, 75; J. Janssen, 75; on Solar Changes of Temperature and Variations in Rainfall in the Region surrounding the Indian Ocean, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., Dr. W. J. S. Lockyer, 107, 128; Difference in Spectra of Metals when Light-producing Arc is Surrounded by Air or Hydrogen, Prof. H. Crew, 114; the Anomalous Dispersion of Carbon, Prof. R. W. Wood, 123; Absorption Spectrum of Triphenylmethane Dyes in Aqueous Solution, P. Lemout, 124; Argon and its Companions, Prof. William Ramsey, F.R.S., Dr. Morris W. Travers, 164; Can Spectrum Analysis Furnish us with Precise Information as to the Petrography of the Moon? Dr. W. J. Knight, 180; on the Spectrum of the more Volatile Gases of Atmospheric Air, which are not condensed at the Temperature of Liquid Hydrogen, Prof. G. D. Liveing, F.R.S., Prof. J. Dewar, F.R.S., 189; the Anomalous Dispersion of Cyanin, 210; Visible Spectrum of Nova Aquilæ, Prof. W. W. Campbell, 260; the Absorption Spectra of Saline Solutions, Prof. W. N. Hartley, 313; Handbuch der Spectroscopie, H. Kayser, Prof. Arthur Schuster, F.R.S., 317; a Mica Echelon Grating, Prof. R. W. Wood, 386; the Fraunhofer Lines in the Spectrum of the Corona, A. Fowler, 394; Cyanine Prisms, Prof. R. W. Wood, 433; Spectra of Flames in Open-hearth and Basic Bessemer Processes, W. N. Hartley, F.R.S., and Hugh Ramage, 481; the Spectrum of Nova Persei, 482; Prof. H. C. Vogel, 575, 620; Reduction of Photographs of Stellar Spectra, 620
- Spencer (Prof. B., F.R.S.), *Wynyardia Bassiana*, Fossil Marsupial from Tasmania, 146
- Spermatophore, Note upon a New Form of, in an Earth-worm, Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S., 515
- Speyers (C. L.), Heat of Solution of Resorcinol in Ethyl Alcohol, 266
- Spider, Adaption of Instinct in a Trap-door, R. I. Pocock, 466
- Spielmann (Percy E.), a Tree Torn by Lightning, 466
- Spines, Human, Description of the, Showing Numerical Variation in the Warren Museum of the Harvard Medical School, Dr. T. Dwight, 512
- Spirals in Horns, Direction of, George Wherry, 252, 348; Dr. W. T. Blanford, F.R.S., 298
- Spirits, Potable, Injurious Constituents in, 491
- Sport and Travel, East and West, F. C. Selous, 125
- Sprinkling (C. H. G.), Dissociation Constants of Alkyl-substituted Succinic Acids, 75; Influence of Methyl Group on Ring Formation, 291
- Spurr (J. E.), Quartz-Muscovite Rock from Belmont, Nevada, 169
- Stability of a Swarm of Meteorites, the, Prof. Andrew Gray, F.R.S., 250
- Stadic Tables, Elevation and, A. P. Davis, 514
- Standen (W. E.), *Sepia koettlitzii*, 196
- Standfuss (Dr. Max), Lepidoptera not Atavistic, 65
- Stanger (W. H.), the Rotatory Cement Manufacturing Process, 449
- Starlings, a Nest of Young, in Winter, 252
- Stars: our Stellar System, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 29; New Variable Stars, 39, 115, 260, 525; R. T. A. Innes, 309; New Variable Star in Lyra, A. Stanley Williams, 92; New Variable in Cygnus, A. Stanley Williams, 188; New Variable Star 1 1901 (Cygni), A. Stanley Williams, 426; New Variable Star 2 1901 (Cygni), Dr. T. D. Anderson, 502; Catalogue of New Variable Stars, 452; Catalogue of Southern Variable Stars, Alexander W. Roberts, 548; New Variable Star 70 (1901) Ursa Majoris, 620; Co-operation in Observing Variable Stars, Prof. E. C. Pickering, 477; Observations of Circumpolar Variable Stars, 502; Abnormal Stars in Clusters, Prof. E. E. Barnard, 68; Visual Observation of Capella (α Aurigæ), Prof. W. J. Hussey, 92; Catalogue of One Hundred New Double Stars, Prof. W. J. Hussey, 141; Double Star Measures, 286; Dr. Doberck, 383; Catalogue of Double Stars, 596; Heliometer Measures of h and χ Persei, Prof. Schur, 240; Catalogue of Stars, (Hamburg), 240; Visible Spectrum of Nova Aquilæ, Prof. W. W. Campbell, 260; Photographic Catalogue of Polar Stars, 355; Catalogue of Principal Stars in Coma Berenices Cluster, 383; Nova Persei, 420; Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 441, 540; Prof. Edward C. Pickering, 497; Prof. H. C. Vogel, 502; C. Easton, 540; Rutherford Measures of Pleiades, Harold Jacoby, 548; Reduction of Photographs of Stellar Spectra, 620
- Statecraft, Darwinism and, G. P. Mudge, 561
- Statecraft, Darwinism and, National Life from the Standpoint of Science, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., Prof. E. Ray Lankester, F.R.S., Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., Supp. iii.
- Static Discharge, Photography of the, Dr. Hugh Walsham, 180
- Stationary Motions, T. Levi-Civita, 573
- Statistics: the Census of Cuba, Lt.-Col. J. P. Sanger, Messrs. H. Gannett and W. P. Willcox, 162; Distribution of Population in England and Wales, Thomas Welton, 450; the Mining Statistics of the World, Bennett H. Brough, 551
- Steel (Richard), Imitation or the Mimetic Force in Nature and Human Nature, 513

- Steel: Travail des Métaux dérivés du Fer, L. Gages, 250;
Practical Problems in the Metallography of Steel, Prof. J. O. Arnold, 613
- Steele (B. D.), New Method for Measurement of Ionic Velocities in Aqueous Solution, 339
- Steinbruchindustrie und Steinbruchgeologie, Dr. O. Herrmann, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 27
- Steiner (O.), the Atomic Weight of Tellurium, 501
- Steinheil (Dr. Rudolf), Lummer's "Photographic Optics," 395
- Steriliser, Milk, the Cambridge Sentinel, 166; D. Berry, 205; Your Reviewer, 205
- Stiger's Hail-dispersing Apparatus, Trials of, Drs. Pernter and Trabert, 36
- Stillman (Thomas B.), Engineering Chemistry, 561
- Stine (W. M.), Photometrical Measurements, 416
- Stirling (E. C.), Fossil Remains from Lake Callabonna, 181
- Stirling (James), the Mineral Resources of Victoria, 36; the Coal Resources of Victoria, 90
- Stöber (F.), Notions de Minéralogie, 273
- Stock, Flies Injurious to, Eleanor A. Ormerod, 127
- Stolberg (A.), Count von Zeppelin's Navigable Balloon, 187
- Stolc (Antonin), Power of Amoeba-like Organisms of assimilating and producing Hydro-carbons, 259
- Stone Circles, Stonehenge and Other, A. L. Lewis, 575
- Stone Implements in Tasmania, Paxton Moir, 170
- Stonehenge, the State of, 258
- Stonehenge and other Stone Circles, A. L. Lewis, 575
- Stoney (Dr. G. J.), F.R.S., the Leonids, a Forecast, 6
- Stonyhurst College Observatory, 596
- Story of the Birds, the, C. Dixon, 101
- Story of Nineteenth Century Science, the, Henry Smith Williams, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 342
- Strasburger (Prof.), Observations on Melandrium (*Lychnis Dioica*), 307
- Strata, the Table of British, Dr. H. Woodward and H. B. Woodward, 560
- Stratton (Prof. G. M.), the Smallest Visible Lateral Space Difference, 12
- Strauss (E.), Radioactive Lead, 405
- Stripping and Cleavage, Electricities of, Prof. A. S. Herschel, F.R.S., 179
- Strong (W. M.), Physical Theory of Nerve, 282
- Structure and Life-history of the Harlequin Fly (*Chironomus*), the, L. C. Miall, F.R.S., A. R. Hammond, 230
- Stryienski (Casimir), Memoirs of the Countess Potocka, 154
- Student's Drum Recorder, a, W. E. Pye and Co., 577
- Studies in Fossil Botany, D. H. Scott, F.R.S., 53
- Studies, Scientific and Social, Dr. Alfred Russel Wallace, 174
- Studnicka (Prof. Dr. F. J.), Tychoniana at Prague, 206
- Submarine Boats, 601
- Submarine Boats, Motion in Vertical Plane of, Captain Hovgaard, 546
- Sudborough (J. J.), Acetylation of Arylamines, 529
- Sugar-Beet Cultivation in England, A. D. Hall, 450
- Sugar-cane Experiments, 335
- Sulphuric Acid, Selenium in, V. H. Veley, F.R.S., 587
- Sun: Temperature Observations during Solar Eclipse, C. Martin, 14; Spanish Observations of the Eclipse of May 28, Señor Iniguez, 188; Total Eclipse of the Sun, May 18, 1901, A. Fowler, 470; Local Conditions for Observations of the Total Solar Eclipse, 1901, May 17-18, 163; Observations of the Infra-red Spectrum of the Solar Corona, M. Deslandres, 67; Recent Studies of the Infra-red Region of the Solar Spectrum, Prof. S. P. Langley, 68; on the Nature of the Solar Corona, with some Suggestions for Work at the next Total Eclipse, Prof. R. W. Wood, 230; the Fraunhofer Lines in the Spectrum of the Corona, A. Fowler, 394; on Solar Changes of Temperature and Variations in Rainfall in the Region Surrounding the Indian Ocean, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., Dr. W. J. S. Lockyer, 107, 128; an Artificial Representation of a Total Solar Eclipse, Prof. R. W. Wood, 250; Eros and the Solar Parallax, 502; on a Solar Calorimeter Depending on the Rate of Generation of Steam, J. V. Buchanan, F.R.S., 548
- Sun-Spots and very Cold Days, Alex. B. MacDowall, 299
- Sunset Phenomenon, Curious, Prof. Reynolds, 99
- Sunshine, Fireball in, W. F. Denning, 276
- Surveying, Mine, G. A. Troye, 315
- Surveying, Topographic, Herbert M. Wilson, 2
- Suspended Railway, a, 71
- Sutherland (James), Education in Science, 275
- Sutherland (William), a Theory of the Earth's Magnetism, 37; Relative Motion of the Earth and the Ether, 205
- Sweat, Human, Cryoscopy of, P. Ardin-Delteil, 124
- Swiss Geology, Recent, 443
- Sy (M.), Observations at Algiers of Comet 1900c (Giacobini), 291
- Sydney and the Blue Mountains, the Geology of, Rev. J. Milne Curran, 81
- Symons's Monthly Meteorological Magazine, 218, 338
- Tabu, the Primitive Idea of, Salomon Reinach, 140
- Tabulation, a Compact Method of, Prof. J. D. Everett, F.R.S., 346
- Tammann (G.), the So-called Liquid Crystals, 529
- Tannau Mineralogical Endowment, the, Prof. H. A. Miers, F.R.S., 453
- Tarble (M.), Combinations of Chlorides of Phosphorus with Boron Bromide, 316; Action of Boron Bromides on Iodides of Phosphorus and Halogen Compounds of Arsenic and Antimony, 363
- Tasmania as a Health Resort, Dr. Benjafield, 187
- Tasmania, Stone Implements in, Paxton Moir, 170
- Tatham (M. T.), Artificial Rain, 232
- Tattooing: Maori Tatu and Moko, H. L. Roth, 483
- Taylor (A. E.), Der Aufbau der Menschlichen Seele, Eine Psychologische Skizze, Dr. H. Kroell, 204
- Teaching of Physiology, Dr. W. T. Porter, 427
- Teaching of Elementary Mathematics, the, David Eugene Smith, Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., 367
- Technical Education: the Bradford Municipal Technical College, 69; Prof. Rücker, 133; Technical Education at Manchester, A. T. Simmons, 336; Science at Sheffield University College, 383; Science in Technical and Preparatory Schools, A. T. Simmons, 407
- Teit (James), Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History, Vol. ii. Anthropology; i. the Jesup North Pacific Expedition, iv. the Thompson Indians, Prof. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 3
- Telegraphic Weather Reports, Deutsche Seewarte, 522
- Telegraphy, Wireless: Dover-Ostend Mail-packet's Experiments with Marconi's Wireless Telegraphy, 36; Extension of Marconi's Wireless System, 381; a New Form of Coherer, Prof. Augustus Trowbridge, 156; Fog-Signal Apparatus, 187; Prof. Braun's System of Wireless Telegraphy, 403
- Telephone, Direct Application to Wireless Telegraphy of Telephonic Receiver, M. M. Popoff and Ducretet, 267
- Telephone, Study of Distant Storms by Means of, Th. Tomasina, 147
- Telescope, New Type of Shortened, E. Schaer, 452
- Telescope Tube, Refraction within, James Renton, 334
- Temperature, Diurnal Summer Range in Mediterranean, Dr. Buchan, 171
- Temperature, on the Relations of Radiation to, Dr. J. Larmor, F.R.S., 216
- Termites Ravages in Rhodesia, Rev. A. Leboeuf, 306
- Terrestrial Magnetism, Action of, on the Rates of Chronometers, 165
- Terrestrial Magnetism, Origin of, 286
- Terrestrial Pole, Variations in the Motion of the, 354
- Terschak (Emil), Die Photographie im Hochgebirg, 345
- Texas, the Eye in the Recently Discovered Cave Salamander of, C. H. Eigenmann and W. A. Denny, 589
- Therapeutics: the Oxygen Treatment of Carbon Monoxide Poisoning, N. Gréhant, 483; Therapeutic Applications of Light, P. Garnault, 171
- "Thermit" Welding Process, Dr. Goldschmidt, 36
- Thermochemical Relations, Dr. Carlo del Lungo, 348; Prof. Spencer Pickering, F.R.S., 394
- Thermochemistry of Copper-zinc Alloys, T. J. Baker, 363
- Thermodynamics: on the Relations of Radiation to Temperature, Dr. J. Larmor, F.R.S., 216; an Outline of the Theory of Thermodynamics, Edgar Buckingham, 269
- Thermometers, Gas, at High Temperatures, the Use of, Messrs. Holborn and Day, 163
- Thom (C.), Fertilisation in Aspidium and Adiantum Ferns, 501
- Thomas (O.), the Book of Antelopes, 509
- Thompson (F. E.), Analytical Tables for Complex Inorganic Mixtures, 370

- Thompson (Prof. Silvanus P., F.R.S.), Contributions to Photographic Optics, 227; Lummer's Photographic Optics, 395
Thompson-Yates Laboratories Report, the, 249
Thomson (Prof. J. J., F.R.S.), a Text-book of Physics, Sound, 26; Theory of Electric Conduction through thin Metallic Films, 555; Method of Determining the Velocity of Ions, 573; Electrical Properties of Hydrogen-chlorine Mixture Exposed to Light, 195
Thom (A. S.), Autotomic Curves, 7
Thornton (J. and S. W.), Bookkeeping for Business Men, 417
Thoroddsen (Dr.), the Iceland Earthquakes of August and September 1896, 595
Thorpe (Dr. T. E.), the Progress of Chemistry, 545
Thought and Feeling, the Story of, F. Ryland, 325
Thymus Gland, the, Dr. J. Beard, 306
Tibet: Mount Omi and Beyond, A. J. Little, 543
Tiffeneau (M.), an Isomeride of Anethol, 483
Tillman (S. E.), a Text-book of Important Minerals and Rocks, with Tables for the Determination of Minerals, 346
Tissier (M.), Action of Acid Chlorides and Anhydrides on Organo-metallic Compounds of Magnesium, 531; Organo-metallic Compounds of Magnesium, 579
Titherley (A. W.), New Method of Preparing Diacetamide, 433
Tobacco: Literature of Coffee and Tobacco Planting, G. H. James, 7; J. R. Jackson, 7; Le Tabac, Culture et Industrie, E. Bouant, 248
Todd (Sir Charles), the Rainfall of South Australia, 64
Tommasina (Th.), Study of Distant Storms by means of Telephone, 147
Topaz in Brazil, O. A. Derby, 290
Topographic Surveying, Herbert M. Wilson, 2
Torch, Novel Marine, 474
Torrey (Joseph), Elementary Studies in Chemistry, 606
Toxicology: Poisonous Secretion of *Iulus terrestris*, C. Phisalix, 171; Quinine, the Active Principle of Venom of *Iulus terrestris*, M.M. Béhal and Phisalix, 196
Trabert (Dr.), Trials of Stigers' Hail-dispersing Apparatus, 36
Trabut (M.), Manna of Olive, 364
Traction Troubles, Electric, 83
Traction-elasticity of Liquids, on a Proof of, Prof. G. van der Mensbrugge, 274
Tramways: Combined Trolley and Conduit Tramway Systems, A. H. Connett, 547; Kew Observatory and the London United Electric Tramways Company, 237, 281, 499, 572; R. T. Glazebrook, 257
Transzendente, die, und die Psychologische Methode, Dr. Max F. Scheler, 438
Transactions of American Mathematical Society, 528
Trap-door Spider, Adaptation of Instinct in a, R. I. Pocock, 466
Traube (W.), New Syntheses of some Diuretics, 167
Travel, Sport and, East and West, F. C. Selous, 125
Travers (Dr. Morris W.), the Liquefaction of Hydrogen, 122; Argon and its Companions, 164
Treatment of London Sewage, the, Prof. Frank Clowes, 190
Tree Torn by Lightning, a, Percy E. Spielmann, 466
Trees Bent by Frost, Dr. H. von Schrenk, 404
Trigonometry: the Elements of Plane Trigonometry, Prof. W. P. Durfee, 82; a Short Course of Elementary Plane Trigonometry, Charles Pendlebury, 178
Trilobites, Researches on the Visual Organs of the, G. Lindström, 535
Tripp (W. B.), a Lunar Halo, 571
Trowbridge (Prof. Augustus), a New Form of Coherer, 156
Trowbridge (J.), Circular Magnetism and Magnetic Permeability, 505
Troye (G. A.), Mine Surveying, 315
Tsvett (M.), Blue Chlorophylline, 124
Tuatera (New Zealand) Lizard, Early Dental Development of, H. S. Harrison, 547
Tubercle-bacillus, Thermal Death-point of, Messrs. Russell and Hastings, 353
Tuberculosis, Respiratory Diagnosis of, Albert Robin and Maurice Binet, 532
Tucker (Gènevieve), Mother, Baby and Nursery, 418
Tucker (R.), Euclid i. 32 Corr., 58
"Tumbling" of Pigeons, the Origin of the, Prof. G. B. Howes, F.R.S., 395
Turchini (M.), Disruptive Discharge in Electrolytes, 628
Turner (F. Storrs), Knowledge, Belief and Certitude, 273
Turner (H. H., F.R.S.), Modern Astronomy, 488
Turner (H. J.), *Bryophila muralis* from Dawlish, 530
Turning, Metal, Practical Lessons in, Percival Marshall, 297
Turquoise, Chemical Composition of, S. L. Penfield, 169
Twyman (F.), the Optics of Acuteness of Sight, 157
Tycho Brahe: Tychoniana at Prague, Prof. Dr. F. I. Studnicka, 206
Uhlen-Luth (Dr.), Method of distinguishing Human from Animal Blood, 499
Unger (Franz) und Stephan Endlicher, Briefwechsel zwischen, 248
United States: the Kite Work of the United States Weather Bureau, Dr. H. C. Frankenfield, 109; United States Geological Survey, 215; United States Naval Observatory, 383; Progress of the Magnetic Survey of the United States, 398; Scientific Agriculture in United States, 479; Forestry in United States, 501; Naval Architecture in United States, J. H. Biles, 546
Universities: University Intelligence, 21, 49, 73, 97, 121, 145, 169, 193, 242, 265, 290, 314, 338, 362, 385, 410, 431, 458, 480, 505, 528, 553, 577, 602, 625; the Owens College, Manchester, P. J. Hartog, 374; Science at Sheffield University College, 383
Urban (G. and E.), the Isolation of Yttria, Ytterbium and New Erbium, 339
Ursa Majoris, New Variable Star, 70 (1901), 620
Use of Blast-Furnace Gases in Gas Engines, the, 241
"Usefulness" of Science, the, F. C. S. Schiller, 298
Ussher (R. J.), the Birds of Ireland, 101
Vacca (Dr. G.), Graphic Solution of the Cubics, 603
Valagussa (F.), Vitality of Bacteria in Milk, 404
Vallée (C.), Action of Acids on Calcium Carbonate in presence of Alcohol, 531
Valeur (Amand), Action of Esters of Dibasic Acids on Organo-metallic Compounds, 579
Value of British Minerals, Output and, Prof. Le Neve Foster, F.R.S., 72
Value of Magnetic Observatories, the, Captain Ettrick W. Creak, R.N., F.R.S., 127
Variable Stars: New Variable Stars, 39, 115, 260, 525; R. T. A. Innes, 309; New Variable Star in Lyra, A. Stanley Williams, 92; New Variable in Cygnus, A. Stanley Williams, 188; New Variable Star 1 1901 (Cygni), Stanley Williams, 426; New Variable 2 1901 (Cygni), Dr. T. D. Anderson, 502; Visible Spectrum of Nova Aquilæ, Prof. W. W. Campbell, 260; Catalogue of New Variable Stars, 452; Nova Persei, 420; Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 441, 540; Prof. E. C. Pickering, 497; Prof. H. C. Vogel, 502; C. Easton, 540; Cooperation in Observing Variable Stars, Prof. E. C. Pickering, 477; Observations of Circumpolar Variable Stars, 502; Catalogue of Southern Variable Stars, Alexander W. Roberts, 548; New Variable Star 70 (1901), Ursa Majoris, 620; Variability of Eros, 383, 452, 502; Dr. E. von Oppolzer, 383; F. Rossard, 426; Ch. André, 426
Variation of Atmospheric Electricity, E. Pellew, 491
Variations in the Motion of the Terrestrial Pole, 354
Vaughan (A.), Geology of Bad Nauheim, 66
Vaughan (T. W.), Lower Cretaceous Gryphea of Texas, 215
Vegetable Physiology, an Introduction to, J. Reynolds Green, F.R.S., 345
Veley (V. H., F.R.S.), Physical Properties of Nitric Acid Solutions, 554; Selenium in Sulphuric Acid, 587
Venezuela, Earthquakes in, 10
Venus: Diameter of Venus, Prof. T. J. J. See, 212
Verrall (G. H.), Entomological Nomenclature, 315
Vertebrates: the Distribution of Vertebrate Animals in India, Ceylon and Burma, Dr. W. T. Blanford, F.R.S., 287; Text-book of Vertebrate Zoology, J. S. Kingsley, 558; Lehrbuch der vergleichenden mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbeltiere, Dr. Med. Albert Oepel, 126; the Eyes of the Blind Vertebrates of North America, C. H. Eigenmann and W. A. Denny, 589
Verworn (Max), Beiträge zur Physiologie des Centralnervensystem, 78
Vibration of Gun-barrels, C. Kranz, K. R. Koch, 279
Vicentini (Dr. G.), the Velocity of Vortex Rings, 209
Victoria, the Coal Resources of, James Stirling, 36, 90

- Vienna, Overhead Tramway Wire Accident at, 35
 Vignon (Leo), Cellulose and Hydrocellulose, 51
 Villari (Prof. E.), How Air subjected to X-Rays loses its Discharging Property, 432
 Vines (Prof. S. H., F.R.S.), Raciborski's Researches on Leptomim, 434
 Viol (O.), Mechanical Vibrations of Isolated Stretched Wire with Visible Discharge, 626
 Virgil as a Physicist, 205
 Vision: Experiments Illustrating Phenomena of Vision, Dr. S. Bidwell, 23
 Visual Observation of Capella (α Aurigæ), Prof. W. J. Hussey, 92
 Visual Organs of the Trilobites, Researches on the, G. Lindström, 535
 Visual Sensation, Studies in, Prof. C. Lloyd Morgan, F.R.S., 552
 Viticulture: "Gélivure" due to Lightning, L. Ravaz and A. Bonnet, 556
 Vivarez (H.), Les Phénomènes Electriques et leurs Applications, 585
 Vogel (Prof. H. C.), Nova Persei, 502, 620; the Spectrum of Nova Persei, 575
 Volcanoes: Early Observations of Volcanic Phenomena in Auvergne and Ireland, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 464
 Vortex Rings, Prof. R. W. Wood, 418
 Vortex Rings, the Velocity of, Drs. G. Vicentini and G. Pacher, 209
 Vowels, on the Nature of, E. W. Scripture, 626
- Waddell (Dr. John), a School Chemistry, 323
 Wahl (A.), Direct Nitration of Unsaturated Fatty Compounds, 13; Nitro-derivatives of Elthyldimethylacrylate, 75; Transformation of Dimethylacrylic Acid into Dimethylpyruvic Acid, 435
 Wait (Prof. C. E.), Effect of Muscular Work on Digestibility of Food, 451
 Walcott (R. H.), Cast of Fossil Tree-trunk in Basalt, 284
 Wales: Celtic Folklore, Welsh and Manx, John Rhys, E. Sidney Hartland, 485
 Wallace (Dr. Alfred Russel), Studies, Scientific and Social, 174
 Wallace (Prof. R.), Agricultural Prospects in South Africa, 499
 Waller (Dr. A. D., F.R.S.), "Blaze Currents" of Frog's Eye-ball, 266
 Walsham (Dr. Hugh), Photography of the Static Discharge, 180
 Ward (T.), the Northwich Subsidence, 523
 Warner (E. T.), Instruments of Precision at the Paris Exhibition, 107
 Warren (R.), the Birds of Ireland, 101
 Washington (H. S.), Chemical Analysis of Glaucothane Schists, 290
 Wassermann (Dr.), Method of Distinguishing Human from Animal Blood, 499
 Waterer (Clarence), Protective Markings in Animals, 441
 Watson (A. E.), Recurrence of Severe Winters, 459
 Watson (Mr.), Half-seconds Pendulums, 195
 Wave Surfaces in Sand, Vaughan Cornish, 623
 Waves, Cusped, Propagation of, Prof. R. W. Wood, 432
 Weathers (John), a Practical Guide to Garden Plants, 463
 Webb (Wilfred Mark), Conference of Science Masters in Public Schools, 313
 Weber (Prof. Heinrich), Die Partiellen Differentialgleichungen der Mathematischen Physik, nach Riemann's Vorlesungen, 390
 Weber (R. H.), Surface Tension and Range of Molecular Action of Water Surfaces Covered with Oil Layer, 626
 Weidman (Dr. S.), Pre-Cambrian Igneous Rocks of Fox River Valley, Wisconsin, 382
 Weightman (W. J.), the Nilgiri Railway, 402
 Weiss (Prof. F. E.), the Phloem of Lepidophloios and Lepidodendron, 99
 Welding Process, "Thermit," Dr. Goldschmidt's, 36
 Weller (Stuart), Succession of Fossil Faunas in Kinderhook (Iowa) Beds, 425
 Wells (H. G.), Land Locomotion in Twentieth Century, 546
 Welton (Thomas), Population-Distribution in England and Wales, 450
 West Indies: West Indian Hurricanes, E. B. Garriott, 305; Agriculture in the West Indies, Prof. J. P. D'Albuquerque, 356; Sugar Cane Experiments, 335; Zoology in the West Indies, 159
 Westell (W. P.), a Year with Nature, 80
 Weston Cadmium Element, Irregularity of, W. Jaeger, 362
 Whale and Seal Fishery, Notes on, T. Southwell, 524
 Wheeler (W. H.), the Mississippi River, 525; the Commercial Uses of Peat, 590
 Wheeler (Prof. W. M.), Discontinuous Distribution of *Koenenia mirabilis*, 161; Ants' Mushroom Gardens, Prof. W. M. Wheeler, 162
 Wheeler (Mr.), Males of Eciton Ants, 594
 Wherry (George), Direction of Spirals in Horns, 252, 348
 Whetham (W. C. D.), a Self-adjusting Wheatstone's Bridge, 122
 White (Rev. Gilbert), the Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne, and a Garden Kalendar, 606
 Wiedemann's Annalen der Physik, 362
 Wien (Max), Sinoidal Currents, 528
 Wildfowl of Scotland, the, J. G. Millais, 567
 Wilkin's (Mr.), Algerian Journey, 170
 Wilkinson (E. J.), Genistein, II, 75
 Willcox (W. F.), the Census of Cuba, 162
 Willey (Dr. A.), New Subgeneric Type of Lancelets, 523
 Williams (A. Stanley), New Variable Star in Lyra, 92; New Variable in Cygnus, 188; New Variable Star τ 1901 (Cygni), 426
 Williams (Henry Smith), the Story of Nineteenth Century Science, 342
 Willeston (S. W.), Croosaurus from Wyoming, 481
 Wilson (C. T. R., F.R.S.), Electrical Leakage through Dust-free Air, 195; the Ionisation of Air, 577
 Wilson (E. B.), the Cell in Development and Inheritance, 437
 Wilson (Herbert M.), Topographic Surveying, 2
 Wilson (Prof. J. Cook), Inverse or "a posteriori" Probability, 154; Probability, James Bernoulli's Theorem, 465
 Wilson (L. P.), 1:2:4-Metaxyldine-6-Sulphonic Acid, 291
 Wilson (R. W.), the Thermal Diffusivity of Carrara Marble, 90
 Wilson (Dr.), Interval between Cracking and Bursting of Gauge Glasses, 147
 Wind-pressure, R. H. Curtis, 481
 Wine, the "Clouding" of White, R. G. Smith, 220
 Winter, a Nest of Young Starlings in, 252
 Wireless Telegraphy: a New Form of Coherer, Prof. Augustus Trowbridge, 156; Wireless Telegraphic Fog-signal Apparatus, 187; Extension of Marconi's Wireless Telegraphy, 381; Prof. Braun's System, 402
 Woburn Experimental Fruit Farm, Report of the Working and Results of the, Duke of Bedford and Spencer U. Pickering, Dr. Maxwell T. Masters, 177
 Wöhler (Friederich), Ein Jugendbildniß in Briefen an, Hermann von Meyer, 586
 Wolff (Jules), Methyl Alcohol in Fermented Fruit Juice, 267
 Wood (Prof. R. W.), the Anomalous Dispersion of Carbon, 123; on the Nature of the Solar Corona, with some Suggestions for Work at the next Total Eclipse, 230; an Artificial Representation of a Total Solar Eclipse, 250; a Mica Echelon Grating, 386; Vortex Rings, 418; Propagation of Cusped Waves, 432; Cyanine Prisms, 433
 Woodd (C. H. B.), Artificial Rain, 232
 Woodward (C. J.), Snow Crystals, 441
 Woodward (H. O.), Landscape Marble from Bristol Rhaetic, 578
 Woodward (Dr. H. and H. B.), the Table of British Strata, 560
 Woodward (Dr. S.), Reptile Remains from Patagonia, 507
 Woodworth (J. B.), Geology of Richmond (Va.) Basin, 215
 Workman (Fanny Bullock and William Hunter), in the Ice World of Himalaya, 254
 Workshop Mathematics, Frank Castle, 153
 Worlds, the Origin of, Kant's Cosmogony, W. Hastie, 413
 Wrens, the Field-mice and, of St. Kilda and Shetland, G. E. H. Barrett-Hamilton, 299
 Wright (Prof. G. F.), Recent Geological Changes in Northern and Central Asia, 530
 Wróblewski (A.), Mode of Crystallising from Albuminous Solutions without Surface Crust-formation, 238
- Yasuda (Prof. A.), Action of Chemical Solutions on Infusoria, 66
 Year with Nature, a, W. P. Westell, 80

- Year's News of 1900, Morison's Chronicle of the, G. Eyre-Todd, 513
- Yellow-fever, Mosquitoes and, Surgeon Walter Read, 63; Report of Havana Board, 473
- Yellow Fever, Abstract of Interim Report on, by Drs. Durham and Myers, 401; the Death of Dr. Myers, 328, 402
- Yew-tree, the Selborne, F. Southerden, 491
- Yorkshire: Catalogue of the Mesozoic Plants in the Department of Geology, British Museum (Natural History), the Jurassic Flora, I. the Yorkshire Coast, A. C. Seward, F.R.S., 537
- Young (G.), Oxidation of Benzalthiosemicarbazone, 123
- Young (Dr. Sydney), the Law of Cailletet and Mathias, 90
- Zaborowski (Herr), Ethnic Affinities of the Slavs, 353
- Zakrzewski (C.), Electromotive Force produced by Motion of Liquid through Silvered Glass Tube, 37
- Zeitz (A. H. C.), Fossil Remains from Lake Callabonna, 181
- Zeppelin's (Count von), Navigable Balloon, A. Stolberg, 187
- Zgismondy (R.), Absorption of Light in Coloured Glass, 362
- Zodiacal Light, the, 68
- Zoology: Additions to Zoological Gardens, 14, 39, 67, 91, 115, 141, 163, 188, 211, 240, 260, 286, 309, 333, 354, 383, 405, 426, 451, 477, 501, 524, 548, 575, 596, 620; Distinctive Characteristics of *Peripatopsis Sedgwicki*, E. L. Bouvier, 23; Some Recent Advances in Zoology, 58; the Naples Zoological Station, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 68; Zoological Society, 146, 170, 243, 314, 433, 459, 554, 603, 627; the Gibraltar Rock Apes, Mr. Sclater, 146; Zoology in the West Indies, 159; Gestation-Period of Pine-Martens, A. H. Cocks, 170; Remarkably Coloured Stoat, Dr. F. A. Jentink, 239; Power of Amoeba-like Organisms of Assimilating and Producing Hydro-carbons, Antonin Stole, 259; Echidna with Eight Cervical Vertebrae, Dr. R. Broom, 268; Ossification of Vertebrae in Marsupials, Dr. R. Broom, 268; Mr. J. E. S. Moore's Researches in Lake Tanganyika, &c., 284; the Distribution of Vertebrate Animals in India, Ceylon and Burma, Dr. W. T. Blanford, F.R.S., 287; the Zoological Record for 1899, 296; a Text-book of Zoology, treated from a Biological Standpoint, Dr. O. Schmeil, 321; the Jamaican Species of *Peripatus*, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 325; *Dasypeltis* and the Egested Egg-shell, Prof. G. B. Howes, F.R.S., 326; the Mongoose in Jamaica, Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell, 348; Some Disputed Points in Zoological Nomenclature, 348; Extant Specimens of Quagga, G. Renshaw, 425; Recent Work of the Indian Marine Survey, 427; Bonnet of *Balaena australis*, Dr. W. G. Ridewood, 433; Characters of Skulls in Lemurs and Monkeys, Dr. C. I. F. Major, 459; the Book of Antelopes, P. L. Sclater and O. Thomas, 509; Obituary Notice of Prof. C. F. Lütken, 520; Researches on the Visual Organs of the Trilobites, G. Lindström, 535; Early Dental Developments of New Zealand Tuatera Lizard, H. S. Harrison, 547; *Lemur mongoz* and *rubrienter*, Dr. C. I. F. Major, 554; Textbook of Vertebrate Zoology, J. S. Kingsley, 558; the Mammals of South Africa, W. L. Sclater, 583; the Eyes of the Blind Vertebrates of North America, C. H. Eigenmann and W. A. Denny, 589
- Zorawski (Herr), Motion of Continuous System of Material Points, 619
- Zymase, Buchner's, Prof. J. Reynolds Green, F.R.S., 106

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NATURE

A WEEKLY ILLUSTRATED JOURNAL OF SCIENCE.

“To the solid ground
Of Nature trusts the mind which builds for aye.”—WORDSWORTH.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 1, 1900.

A NEW FRENCH FORESTRY TEXT-BOOK.

Les Forêts. Par L. Boppe, Directeur honoraire de l'École Nationale des Eaux et Forêts de Nancy, et Ant. Jolyet, chargé de cours à l'École. Pp. xi. + 488. (Paris: J. B. Baillière et Fils, 1901).

WITHIN the last ten years the course of instruction at Nancy has been considerably modified. The school is attended by some foreign students, who, as well as a few occasional private French students, are admitted without any regular examination. Formerly, students intended for service in the State and Communal forests of France passed a preliminary competitive examination in the subjects usually taught at a Lycée, including physics and chemistry. A knowledge of botany, entomology and geology, however, was not required of them, these subjects being taught *ab initio* at Nancy; in those days the marks obtained for forestry unduly overshadowed those given for natural history, and only a few devoted naturalists were to be found among French forest officers. Forestry teaching at Nancy also was much too dogmatic, and not sufficiently based on experimental results.

At present, French forest students who are intended for the service of the State come from the *Institut National agronomique*, and must obtain a diploma there before being admitted to Nancy. About eighty students enter the Institut agronomique annually, while the number of State students at Nancy is limited to twelve per annum, the last twelve men admitted to Nancy standing 1, 3, 6, 7, 9, 10, 15, 21, 24, 26, 39 and 48 at the final examination of the Institut agronomique. Nancy students thus at present possess a considerable knowledge of agriculture and experimental natural science; they also get pecuniary allowances from the State, so that admission to the French forest service is open to a wide field of French citizens, and is not confined, as are some of our own public departments, to a restricted class of men, who have sufficient means to pay the high cost of training involved, this restriction injuriously affecting the intellectual standard of the departments.

Forestry teaching at Nancy has responded admirably to the higher attainments of the present class of students, and it is a real pleasure for one who studied there nearly thirty years ago to note the excellence of this new text-book of sylviculture.

In it a forest is described as a complex organic whole, composed of a porous and friable humous soil, covered with dead leaves and moss, wherever the shade is too great for vegetation other than saprophytes; where, however, the mature crop of trees has been thinned or cleared with a view to natural regeneration, the soil is soon overgrown with grasses or other herbaceous plants, as well as brambles, bushes and shrubs, which, together with the young plants of the valuable forest species, form a complex mass from which saplings, poles and trees gradually emerge, and compose a new crop, either as coppice or high forest. This evolution of a new crop from an old one requires considerable skill on the part of a forester, and it is only by carefully observing and following nature that success is obtained. Each forest species makes different demands on soil and climate and requires in its young state various degrees of protection against hostile meteoric influences, injurious plants and animals.

In France natural regeneration, either by seed or by coppice shoots, is the chief means of reproducing a forest, and human interference with the growing forces of nature is reduced to a minimum. The chief classes of French indigenous high forests, reproduced by seed, consist of oak, beech or silver-fir; maritime pine in Gascony; larch and spruce in the Alps, the latter also growing in the Jura with beech and silver fir; *Pinus sylvestris* (for which our name of Scotch pine is far too local, and as a substitute for which I would suggest the name red pine) is indigenous in France only in mountainous regions, but has been extensively planted on poor sandy soils in the lowlands. There are extensive coppices of mixed underwood with oak and other standards, and of holm oak with Aleppo pine standards, in Provence. The holm oak (*Quercus ilex*) prefers calcareous soils, and is replaced in the south of France, on siliceous soils, by the two very valuable cork oaks (*Quercus Suber* and *Q. occidentalis*), the latter differing from the former by its habitat near the Bay of Biscay, and by its taking two years to mature its

acorns. Both these oaks are usually grown isolated in vineyards for their cork. *Quercus Tozza* is restricted to the south-west of France, where extensive coppices of it are grown for fuel. Hornbeam is abundant in the north-east, chiefly in coppice-with-standards; its abundance in Epping Forest probably dates from the time when England was connected by land with the Continent. Other species of forest trees, such as ash, alder, sweet-chestnut, sycamore, willows, poplars, birch, lime, elms, &c., are either confined to special soils over small areas, or disseminated in forests of the principal species that have been already mentioned. Maps are given in the text-book showing the geographical distribution of the principal trees.

There is an excellent chapter on the action of trees on one another, and on the value of shade-bearing species, such as beech, as auxiliaries to the more valuable light-demanding trees, such as the pedunculate and sessile oaks, the former being chiefly grown in the lowlands on deep, moist or even wet soils, as standards over coppice, and the latter with beech in high forests on the hills. Both these oaks, as well as the holm oak, are also extensively grown in coppice woods, chiefly for their bark, as tanning material.

A good account is given of the nature of forest soil, and the necessity of preserving the dead leaves to form humus is strongly insisted on. It has been proved by Grandeau and Henry, two of the Nancy professors, that besides serving as food for earthworms and other organisms, the activity of which keeps the soil porous, friable and superficially rich in nutritive mineral matter, dead leaves fix atmospheric nitrogen to the extent of 12-20 lbs. per acre annually. To deprive the forest of its dead leaves is like robbing a farm of its dung.

The evolution of a crop of trees by natural regeneration is well described, the account of coppice-with-standards being probably more complete than in any other text-book. The cultural methods to be followed when once the new crop is established are also well explained and chiefly consist of cleanings and thinnings. The authors are strongly opposed to the pruning of forest trees, and consider that drainage is very rarely required. Their remarks on these points should be read. Among silvicultural systems yielding even-aged high forest (*jutaie régulière*), the clear-cutting system (*procédé par coupe unique*), which is so extensively followed in parts of Germany for crops of spruce or red pine, is employed in France only for maritime and Aleppo pines. The cones of the pine trees adjoining a clearing produce abundance of seed, which at once stock the ground, provided the felled material is rapidly removed, and the seedlings of these trees are so vigorous and hardy against drought, that they soon dominate the mass of bushes and weeds springing up around them.

The system under which a mature crop is gradually removed (*procédé par coupe successive*), termed by Dr. Schlich shelter-wood compartment system, is that commonly employed in French high forests. It gives admirable results in oak and beech woods, but its application to silver-fir is not so successful, as silver-fir grows better when the larger trees are surrounded by an irregular undergrowth of beech and silver-fir.

The selection system (*jardinage*) similar to that em-

ployed in the Chiltern Hills for beech, is much used in France for silver-fir, chiefly in communal and private forests, and in State forests in mountainous districts, where it affords the best protection against denudation of the slopes.

About 70 pages of the book are devoted to an account of possible injuries to the forest by men, animals, plants and meteoric influences. This really constitutes the subject of Forest Protection, and is usually dealt with apart from silviculture in German and English forestry text-books. One hundred and sixty pages at the end of the book treats of artificial reproduction, and resemble the account of sowing and planting usually given in other good silvicultural works. This part of the book terminates with an account of exotic trees, the introduction of which is not viewed in France with nearly so much interest as with us, although the subject is very judiciously treated in the present volume.

The book is profusely illustrated by reproductions of photographs chiefly taken by Nancy students during their summer tour; it forms a highly valuable contribution to forestry literature, and is certainly the best account of French silviculture that has yet appeared. There is a good table of contents, but no index, the omission of which is to be regretted.

W. R. FISHER.

TOPOGRAPHIC SURVEYING.

Topographic Surveying. By Herbert M. Wilson. Pp. 884. (New York: Wiley and Sons. London: Chapman and Hall, 1900.)

MR. WILSON'S book is comprehensive, clear and well illustrated, and contains much information of practical use to the surveyor and explorer, which is not usually found in works on surveying and map-making. Its author is a member of the staff of the United States Geological Survey, and his remarks on the methods and processes of that Survey are therefore of special interest.

The Geological—which is virtually a topographical—Survey of the United States is a work of great magnitude, and the manner in which the staff engaged upon it have met the numerous technical, transport and other difficulties that have arisen during its progress is most interesting. It was laid down as a general principle that no part of the country should be surveyed in greater detail, or at greater cost, than was necessary for the purposes which the resultant map was intended to subserve. This involved a rapid and economical survey of a vast extent of country within reasonable limits of error. The method adopted

"consists of a combination of trigonometric, traverse and hypsometric surveying to supply the controlling skeleton, supplemented by the 'sketching in' of contour lines and details by a trained topographer. In this method the contour lines are never actually run out, nor is the country actually cross-sectioned."

The instruments used vary with the nature of the country. For geodetic work, a combination transit and zenith telescope of special pattern (p. 726) has been found most convenient. Primary bases are measured with steel tapes, with an average probable error of 1/300,000, in from seven to ten days, at a cost of 20% to 40%; whilst the bases of the U.S. Coast and Geodetical Survey have

a probable error of $1/1,000,000$ to $1/1,500,000$, take from two to six months to measure, and cost from 500*l.* to 2600*l.* The observations for the primary triangulation are made with an 8-inch direction theodolite, the average rate and cost being six stations per month and 3*s.* 7*d.* per square mile, and the average probable error of the triangulation $1/40,000$. The averages of the Geodetic Survey are three-fourths of a station per month, from £2 to £6 per square mile and the probable error $1/150,000$. For filling in the detail the essential instruments are the plane-table and telescopic alidade (p. 156). The horizontal distances are obtained, according to circumstances, by triangulation with the plane-table, by stadia and odometer measurements, by chaining, and by pacing. The altitudes are dependent upon primary lines of levels run with a precise spirit-level (p. 328), and having a probable error in feet = $\cdot 02 \sqrt{\text{distance in miles}}$; on angles of elevation and depression at the principal trigonometrical stations, on secondary lines of spirit-levels and on aneroid observations. The topographical features are represented on the map by contour lines sketched by eye with the assistance of an aneroid, and great importance is attached to the quality of the sketching. This depends upon the artistic and practical skill of the topographer, or upon his ability to make correct generalisations, and decide upon the amount of detail which should be omitted or preserved so as to bring out, on the selected scale, the predominant features of the country surveyed. In this work, as the author justly remarks, great proficiency "can only be attained after years of experience." He also rightly holds that the topographer should have a sufficient knowledge of geology and physiography, or of the "origin and development of topographic forms," to enable him to appreciate the features which he is sketching and to represent them intelligently on his sketch.

Mr. Wilson's book is, however, very far from being a simple manual for the use of the Geological Survey. It deals with every description of survey, and treats each fully. Part i. contains much useful information on the different classes of survey. An interesting description is given of the survey of Baltimore on a scale of $1/2400$, which corresponds nearly to the 25-inch scale of the Ordnance Survey; but if the figures given in the table, p. 107 (Baltimore 814*l.* per square mile, Ordnance Survey 59*l.*), are correct, the cost would be considered prohibitive in this country. The remarks on geographic and exploratory surveys are good, and Mr. Johnson's excellent plane-table sketch, which is given as a specimen of an exploratory survey (p. 91), may well serve as a model for sketchers. Military surveys are correctly defined as having for their object "the representation of the natural and artificial features of the country with the maximum exactitude consistent with the greatest rapidity of execution." The concluding chapter is a well illustrated memoir on the relations of geology to topography, and on 'earth sculpture,' or the constructive and destructive processes by which existing topographical features have been formed. The importance of a knowledge of these subjects to the topographer and cartographer is clearly pointed out. A valuable addition to the chapter is a glossary of all geographical and topographical descriptive terms in common use in

the United States, which, pending the compilation of a similar list for the United Kingdom, will be found useful in this country.

In Part ii. the instruments and methods employed in the measurement of horizontal distances and in plane surveying are clearly described and explained. Chapters vii. and viii. on plane-tables and alidades, and chapters xii. and xiii. on stadia and angular tachymetry, deserve the attention of surveyors in England, where stadia measurements, which give results over rough ground as good as those with the chain, are little known. In another chapter the author describes photo-surveying methods, which are much in favour in Canada, and points out their limitations and the conditions under which they can be advantageously employed. Part iii. deals with instruments and methods for the determination of altitudes. The American spirit levels and levelling staves are of better pattern than those in use on our Ordnance Survey, and the accuracy of the principal lines of levels is greater than that of the similar lines in Great Britain. In Part iv. the author explains the various kinds of map projections, the methods of representing hill features and the construction of relief maps. He very rightly lays down that the cartographer should be "possessed of such actual knowledge of map-making as is only gained by practical experience in field-surveying," and that the topographer should have a general knowledge of projections and map construction. The difference between the principal methods of representing ground is well brought out; that by hachures is happily characterised as "a graphic system with a conventional element," and that by contours at close intervals as "a conventional system with a graphic element." Wax and clay mixed with glycerine are considered the best materials for modelling, and it is pointed out that a modeller should have a good knowledge of topography. Parts v. and vi., "Terrestrial Geodesy" and "Geodetic Astronomy," are clearly written and well supplied with tables; and the latter contains a chapter on "Photographic Longitudes." In Part vii. the surveyor in unsettled country will find many excellent hints as to camp stores and equipment, pack transport, medicines, clothing and photography.

In conclusion, it may be added that the book contains 884 pages, 62 tables of various kinds, 205 excellent illustrations, and a most useful index. It would in some respects have been more convenient if it had been published in two volumes.

C. W. W.

THE ETHNOGRAPHY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History. Vol. II. *Anthropology.* i. *The Jesup North Pacific Expedition.* iv. *The Thompson Indians of British Columbia.* By James Teit. Edited by Franz Boas. (1900.)

IMPORTANT results were looked for from the Jesup North Pacific Expedition, and the realisation has not belied the expectation. Thanks to the intimate knowledge of Mr. James Teit of their language, customs and beliefs, we now have a remarkably detailed and complete description of the Upper and Lower Thompson

Indians, especially as this is supplemented by the valuable work done by Dr. G. M. Dawson, Dr. Franz Boas, Mr. C. Hill Tout, and others on these or allied tribes of British Columbia, under the auspices of the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

The Upper Thompson Indians live in the valley of the Thompson River, while the Lower Thompson Indians dwell on the Fraser River. They appear to have decreased to one-third since the advent of the white man in 1858. The birth-rate is about equal to the deaths, but there is great mortality among young children; at the present time the population in some places seems to be about stationary, or is slowly increasing. The Lower Thompson Indians are quieter and steadier than the people of the upper division, but are slower and less energetic; they are also better fishermen and more expert in handling canoes, while the Upper Thompson Indians are better horsemen.

In this copiously-illustrated memoir Mr. Teit has carefully described the handicrafts of the Thompson Indians. Most of their implements were made of stone, bone, wood, bark, skins, matting or basketry. Work in stone, bone and wood was done by the men, while the preparation of skins, matting and basketry work fell to the share of the women. There was a certain amount of division of labour, as workmen skilful in any particular line of work exchanged their manufactures for other commodities.

The various kinds of habitations and clothing and ornaments are fully described, and the changes that have ensued since 1858 are recorded. For example, beads and dyed porcupine quills were largely used for embroidery before that date; but these were soon replaced by embroidery done in silk thread, and most of the patterns wrought at the present day are copies of the white man's patterns. Full accounts are given of the arts, of subsistence, varieties and preparation of food, hunting, fishing and the like, as well as of travel, transportation, trade and warfare.

The games and pastimes of adults and children are carefully dealt with, and this account usefully supplements what has been previously recorded for similar tribes. It is a pity that the author describes as a "bull-roarer" quite another kind of toy, which Culin calls a buzz; the latter is an oblong or circular piece of thin wood, with two holes near the centre through which a string is passed. It is widely distributed among the Indians of North America, and, so far as is known, has little in common with the true bull-roarer. The smaller boys and girls play "cats' cradle," and we are told they make many forms such as the "beaver," "deer," "man stealing wood," &c. Fig. 270 illustrates two of these puzzles, one—"dressing a skin"—is very difficult to follow; the second—"pitching a tent"—is simpler, and, strangely enough, is precisely similar to the "fish-spear" string puzzle of the Torres Straits Islanders.

Very interesting and instructive are the accounts given of the social organisation and festivals of the people, and of the customs relating to birth, childhood, puberty, marriage and death. Their religion is fully dealt with, and it is worthy of note that no totemism is recorded for these people; but each individual has a guardian spirit,

which was acquired during the puberty ceremonials. Only a few shamans inherited their guardian spirits without such ceremony from their parents, who had been particularly powerful. The guardian spirits of these parents appeared to them, uncalled for, in dreams and visions. The moral code is excellent, and the young people are often admonished and advised. It is good to be pure, cleanly, honest, truthful, brave, friendly, hospitable, energetic, bold, virtuous, liberal, kind-hearted to friends, diligent, independent, modest, affable, social, charitable, religious or worshipful, warlike, honourable, stout-hearted, grateful, faithful and revengeful to enemies. Various legends are noted, and there are the usual constellation myths; but several of the stars or constellations have not been identified, so that no comparative study is possible. The traditions have been published in full by Mr. Teit in the *Memoirs of the American Folk-lore Society*, vol. iv.

The memoir concludes with a chapter on art and a summary, both by Dr. Boas. The decorative art of the Thompson Indian is very crude; form and decoration have no intimate connection, comparatively few designs are primarily decorative, their fundamental idea being symbolic. For this reason, by far the greater number of designs may be described as pictographs rather than as decorations.

The Thompson Indians are in appearance and culture a plateau tribe, influenced, however, to a great extent by their eastern neighbours, to a less extent by the tribes of the coast. Their whole social organisation is very simple, and the range of their religious ideas and rites is remarkably limited when compared with those of other American tribes. This may be one of the reasons why, in contact with other tribes, the Salish have always proved to be a receptive race, quick to adopt foreign modes of life and thought, and that their own influence has been comparatively small.

If all the field-work done by the numerous investigators on the staff of the Jesup North Pacific Expedition is as complete and workmanlike as the present memoir, and is published in similar first-class style, the result will be a dignified monument to the ability of American anthropologists and to the enlightened munificence of Dr. Jesup.

ALFRED C. HADDON.

OUR BOOK SHELF.

Lubrication and Lubricants. By L. Archbutt and R. M. Deeley. Pp. xxiv + 451. (London: C. Griffin and Co., Ltd., 1900.)

MESSRS. ARCHBUTT AND DEELEY have, in this treatise, placed before engineers and power users what is known of the theory and practise of lubrication.

Until the introduction of mineral oils as lubricants, there was comparatively little difficulty in obtaining good oils; the animal oils, such as sperm and lard, and the vegetable oils, such as castor, will keep a bearing cool, while mineral oils of the same apparent viscosity will allow it to heat. Oil users can only meet this difficulty by subjecting the oil to both chemical and mechanical tests.

The work is divided into two portions: the first treating of the theory of friction and the properties of lubricating substances, while the second describes the forms of bearings. The experiments of Mr. Beaucamp Towers and

Prof. Goodman have greatly added to our knowledge of the friction of bearings, as distinguished from the friction of rest, as found in our academic text-books. Messrs. Archbutt and Deeley have given a clear and extensive account of the modern ideas on friction.

Prof. Osborne Reynolds' monograph on the theory of friction is certainly one of the finest works on the subject, and it is to be regretted that his results are not more generally known to engineers.

The portion of the present volume relating to the chemical and physical examination of oils is thorough and copious; it will be of great service to chemists, but is somewhat beyond the range of most engineers, who, if they test their oils in any way, use the mechanical oil-testing machine, which, while useful in its way, does not give the same knowledge of the properties of a lubricating oil as does the chemical test.

We consider that oil-testing machines are only capable of yielding satisfactory results in the hands of experts, and then only when much time is expended in experiments. For research purposes they are most admirable, and from their use we have obtained practically all we know of friction; but for commercial testing we should prefer to rely on chemical and physical methods. The design and care of bearings are well described in the second part; all forms of bearings, from those of watches and clocks, cycles and large engines, are illustrated. We are pleased to see the block packings for piston rods described; the ordinary gland packing is certainly a defective form, and is the cause of considerable loss of power, even when no serious heating occurs. The omission of the system of forced lubrication seems a pity, especially as Messrs. Belliss and Morcom have applied it with so much success to their well-known quick-revolution engine. The work is, we consider, of the greatest value, and should be in the hands of both designers and users of all forms of machinery in which lubrication is important. F. W. B.

Darwin and Darwinism, Pure and Mixed. By Dr. P. Y. Alexander. Pp. xii + 346. (London: Bale, 1899.)

THE decade which followed the appearance of the "Origin of Species" witnessed the publication of innumerable books and articles dealing with Darwin's great work. Although many of these were solid and valuable contributions to the literature of evolution and natural selection, the mass as a whole was characterised by the large proportion of works which proclaimed with the utmost confidence the opinions of authors unknown as naturalists. Men whose claim to a hearing was of the slenderest kind spoke with contempt of Darwin's reasoning powers or the rashness of his generalisations. After 1870 such works became rarer, and at the present day are, happily, quite uncommon. The book before us is, however, about as bad an example as can be found. It would not have been astonishing in 1869 to be told by a writer unknown as an original observer or thinker that "Mr. Darwin's capacities of thinking and drawing inferences from the immense masses of fact he had collected were not at all equal to his powers of observation, investigation and classification," or to observe the calm satisfaction in the following sentence: "My little effort will show that, wherever I have paid special attention to any department of natural history or natural science, I am apt to find Mr. Darwin at fault, more especially in his generalisations." The mildest statement which can be made about the publication thirty years later of such opinions by a Mr. P. Y. Alexander—author of "Heredity," "Parasitism," &c., notwithstanding—is that the work is an anachronism.

The literary style may be sufficiently exemplified by a couple of quotations from the "Argument of the Book."

"(2) Mr. Darwin went for essential *slowness* as a necessity of nature. He said in 'Origin' 'Nature can never take any great and sudden leaps.' When instances were presented to him of 'sudden leaps,' he tried to gloss it over, and always harked back on *slowness*" (p. ix.).

"(7) Mr. Darwin's notion that "domestic animals which have long been habituated to a regular and copious supply of food *without* the labour of searching for it are more fertile than the corresponding wild animals," shown by instance on instance to be *absurd*, opposed to the practice of all great breeders, and is, besides, physiologically impossible" (p. xi.).

It is probable that the reader who looks at such sentences as these will not feel sufficiently encouraged by the manner or matter to penetrate further, even though "the most absolute refutation of poor Darwin's fallacy" should be later on established, to the entire satisfaction of the author. E. B. P.

Electric Wiring Tables. W. P. Maycock. Pp. iv + 144. (London: Whittaker and Co., 1900.)

MR. MAYCOCK'S pocket-book of tables should prove very useful to those electrical engineers whose work consists solely of wiring and fitting. It contains in a very convenient form tables of all the quantities likely to be wanted in such work, and has the advantage of being quite up to date, the values in the tables of the safe currents, resistances, &c., of copper conductors being calculated on the basis of the recommendations of the Institution of Electrical Engineers Committee on Copper Conductors, which only made its report at the beginning of this year. It is, perhaps, a disadvantage of the pocket-book that it is so limited in its scope, and we are inclined to think that it would appeal more strongly to the particular class of electrical engineers for which it is designed if more general information were included. A summary of the fire insurance rules should certainly be inserted, and it would be useful if some idea were given of the approximate costs of wiring on the different systems alluded to in the section on "Systems of Wiring." Some of the tables are simply "Ready Reckoners"; for example, the tables of "Price and Length of Conductors" give the prices of different lengths of conductors calculated from the price per yard, and would apply equally well to wood-casing and metal-piping, a fact which should be indicated in the title of the table. The table giving the current taken by different numbers of lamps working at different pressures and different efficiencies is a very useful one, particularly now that high-efficiency lamps are being brought forward. The same can hardly be said of the list of towns supplying on the alternate current system, since no details are given as to pressure and frequency. The usefulness of the pocket-book would be considerably increased by the addition of an index.

Raggylug, the Cottontail Rabbit; and other Animal Stories. By Ernest Seton-Thompson. Pp. 147. (London: David Nutt, 1900.)

MR. SETON-THOMPSON'S success as a writer about animal life lies in the fact that he endows his subjects with human faculties and sympathies. It is, of course, illogical to make animals consider everything from an anthropomorphic point of view; but, after all, this is the only point of view which it is possible for us to conceive, and there is no objection to occupying it, provided that its artificial nature is borne in mind. By following this method, Mr. Seton-Thompson's animal stories have a sentimental interest, and they create a love of animate nature in the minds of all who read them. There are four stories in the present volume, and each is as instructive as well as interesting narrative of animal life. Children will read the stories with delight, and adults will find their sympathies awakened by them.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

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

The Leonids—a Forecast.

In the *Proceedings* of the Royal Society for March 2, 1899 (vol. lxiv. p. 403), will be found an account of the perturbations suffered since 1866, November 13, by the Leonids which in that month intersected or passed close to the earth's orbit. This position in the meteor stream may be called station A (Fig. 1).

We have since investigated the principal perturbations affecting two other points in the stream, viz., the station Z, which intersected the earth's orbit 360 days earlier, *i.e.* in November

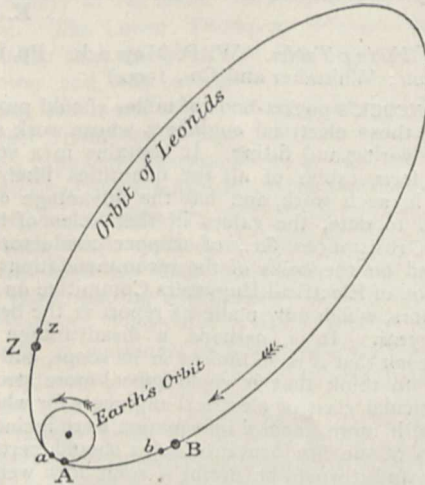


FIG. 1.

1865, and the station B, which intersected the earth's orbit 360 days later, *i.e.* in November 1867.

We therefore now know the principal perturbations which during the last revolution of the meteors have affected three points, Z, A and B, situated along an orbit (Adams's orbit) which, at the commencement of the revolution, lay within the stream.

The full results of the investigation will not be ready for publication till after the time when the Leonid shower of this year is due, and on this account it has been thought expedient

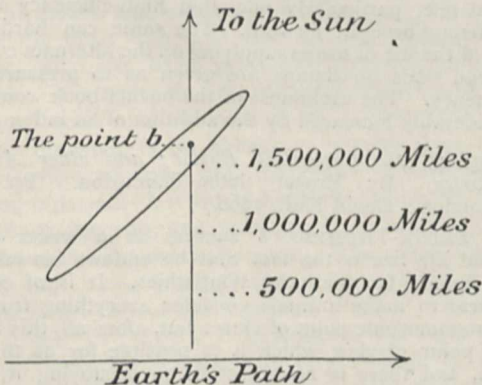


FIG. 2.

to publish beforehand such of the results as have special reference to it.

A point in the stream which in 1867 lay along Adams's orbit between A and B, but nearer B, and which we may call the point *b*, will this year reach its descending node simultaneously with the earth. This will happen approximately on 1900, November, 15d. 3h. Greenwich mean astronomical time.

Unfortunately, the orbit of a meteor situated near point *b* in

the stream, instead of intersecting the earth's orbit as it did in 1867, will now pierce the plane of the ecliptic in a point which lies about 0'018 nearer the sun. Now, 0'018 of the earth's mean distance from the sun is 1,674,000 miles; so that, of the meteors which in 1867 intersected the earth's orbit, those which will come nearest to the earth in the present year will not approach it nearer than a million and six hundred thousand miles.

It is known from the duration of the great showers that the width of the ortho-stream, if measured in the direction which is parallel to the earth's path, is only about 300,000 miles; but there is reason to believe that the Leonids entered the solar system under conditions which have made the section of the stream much longer than it is broad, so that its trace upon the plane of the ecliptic is something like what is represented in Fig. 2. The longer axis of this cross section lay originally along the radius vector from the sun, but perturbations have acted on the Leonids for nearly 1800 years of such a kind as have probably caused the section of the stream to incline in the direction represented in the figure.

If the section is long enough to reach the earth's orbit, we shall have a great meteoric shower this year. It is, besides, just possible that a sinuosity in the stream may so displace a part of the section as to bring it sufficiently far out. But neither of these seem likely to have happened; so that the present investigation does not raise any hope of a great shower this year.

If, contrary to our expectation, the axis major of the section proves to be long enough to reach the earth's orbit, the consequent shower of ortho-Leonids is likely to occur several hours—possibly more than a whole day—earlier than

1900, November, 15d. 3h.

The number of hours by which it will precede that epoch depends upon the angle which the axis major of the section makes with the radius vector from the sun—an angle which is at present unknown. If there is this year a shower of ortho-Leonids, the time at which it occurs will enable us to determine this important datum.

Station *a* in the stream (see Fig. 1) intersected the earth's orbit in 1866, but after completing a revolution it passed the earth in November of last year at a distance of some 1,300,000 miles; and *z*, the corresponding point for the preceding year, which also intersected the earth's orbit in 1865, was on its return distant from the earth in November 1898 by about 960,000 miles. It thus appears that the displacements of the meteoric orbits which have been brought about by the perturbations of the last thirty-three years suffice to have prevented the meteoric orbit from now intersecting the earth's orbit. This accounts for our not having had any great shower in either of the last two years, and unfortunately the conditions seem still more unfavourable in the present year.

Nevertheless, as there is always a possibility that one or other of the contingencies mentioned above may carry a part of the ortho-stream out as far as the earth, and as we have no means of ascertaining whether those contingencies have arisen, it is desirable that preparation shall be made for adequately observing the shower, if it should unexpectedly come.

The perturbations during the last revolution, which have for the present carried the ortho-stream of Leonids so far from the earth's orbit, belong to the class of perturbations which act at different times with equal effect in opposite directions; so that there is reasonable ground for expecting that further perturbations must at some future time bring this remarkable stream back to the earth's orbit. It would be possible to ascertain when this will happen, by an investigation carried over a sufficient time forward upon the same lines as those which we have pursued.

G. JOHNSTONE STONEY.

October 24.

A. M. W. DOWNING.

Examinations in Experimental Science.

YOU occasionally do us, who are humble teachers of Elementary Science in schools, the very great kindness of giving us, through your columns, the chance of reaching the ears of those eminent men who are your frequent contributors, and who examine our pupils. Will you, in the interest of that real science teaching, so often advocated in your columns, allow me such a chance now? I will be as brief as possible. In common with a few individuals and many public bodies, I have spent a very large amount of time, money and labour in introducing the teaching of practical physics into my school, and trying to see that it shall be of the best kind possible, and I am prepared to do more.

But really there must be some agreement between us and the said eminent men as to what practical science is when the examination paper is composed.

May I give my illustration? The Cambridge Local Syndicate have introduced Elementary Experimental Science, three papers, into their junior syllabus. The other day I set two of these three papers for 1899 to a number of boys who had had a most careful experimental training in the matter of the syllabus. They made wry faces over it, and were heard to remark afterwards that they did not see what it had to do with the experiments they had been doing. On marking the papers I found that the best boys, really very good and careful experimenters and observers and good draughtsmen, for boys, barely reached forty per cent. of the marks. The same papers were set to a sharp boy of the same age who had done no experiments, but had been through the same subjects, mechanics, hydrostatics, and heat, in the old way, viz., text-book and problems. *He scored nearly full marks on all the physics questions.*

The fact is, that except for the heading, "Experimental Science," there is nothing in two of these papers to indicate that they are set to candidates whose knowledge is based on and drawn from experimental work of their own.

I should like to ask you to print these papers in full, that the eminent men who set them might have a chance of saying something, but on the whole I think your space is too valuable. I will simply quote two questions from the mechanics paper.

"(3) Explain how work is measured, and in what units.

"A 50 lb. shot is fired from a cannon with a velocity of 1500 feet per second. Compare the work done on the shot with that done by a man weighing 12 stone who walks up a hill 1500 feet high.

"(4) What is the mechanical advantage of a machine?

"How would you arrange three separate pulleys, each of which weighs 1 lb., so that the power required to raise a weight of 40 lbs. may be a minimum?

"What arrangement of pulleys is most commonly used in practice? And why?"

Now these are exactly the old Cambridge—"Describe the common pump, &c., questions?" and the way to answer them is to waste no time on experiments, but read your text-book, get up your formulae and work examples. The second question is of exactly the same type. The other two require a graphical construction, but such as would be readily done by a boy who had used a text-book in which graphic methods were explained.

The first paper is almost equally bad; it is all (chemistry included) text-book science of a very common order. Against the practical paper I have nothing to say.

Now Cambridge men can write excellent elementary text-books on these subjects, witness those of Prof. Glazebrook. Can they not produce among them a paper on Elementary Experimental Science, which shall be what it professes to be, or is the tradition of the common pump still too strong, and the impress of the Mathematical Tripos too indelible?

A. H. F.

Literature of Coffee and Tobacco Planting.

In the issue of NATURE of August 9 it is stated, in reviewing a book by a French author, that several books on the same subject, *i.e.* coffee—its growth, cultivation and preparation for the market—have already been published in English.

Could you kindly inform me of the names of the publishers or authors of any good works in English on coffee and tobacco growing? I have been, so far, quite unable, out here, to find the names of any publishers of works on tobacco or coffee, and as it is a matter of considerable moment to me to gain the best of information on these subjects, I trust you will see your way to help me.

Salisbury, Rhodesia, South Africa.

G. H. JAMES.

[Mr. J. R. Jackson, Keeper of Museums at the Royal Gardens, Kew, to whom we referred our correspondent's inquiry, has kindly sent the following list of books, which may meet the requirements and also be of service to other planters.—Ed. NATURE.]

WORKS ON COFFEE AND TOBACCO PLANTING.

"The Coffee Planter of Ceylon," by William Sabonadière. Published by E. and F. N. Spon, 125, Strand. (1870.)

"Coffee Planting in Southern India and Ceylon," by E. C. P. Hull. E. and F. N. Spon. (1877.)

NO. 1618, VOL. 63J

Article on coffee in "Spon's Encyclopædia of the Industrial Arts, Manufactures and Commercial Products." E. and F. N. Spon.

"Liberian Coffee in Ceylon." From the *Ceylon Observer*. Published at Colombo by A. M. and F. Ferguson. (1878.)

"All About Tobacco." Compiled by A. M. and F. Ferguson, Colombo, Ceylon. Agents, John Haddon and Co., Bouverie Street, London.

Article on tobacco in "Spon's Encyclopædia of the Industrial Arts, Manufactures and Commercial Products." E. and F. N. Spon.

Autotomic Curves.

IN NATURE, October 11, Mr. A. B. Basset justly inveighs against the use of the term "non-singular curve" to denote a curve which has no double points. Doubtless, also, the expression "an autotomic curve" is objectionable.

May I suggest that, in this instance, we may obtain from Latin the help unknown to Greek, and designate curves which have, and curves which have not, double points, by the terms *sesecting* and *non-sesecting* respectively?

H. LANGHORNE ORCHARD.

44 Denning Road, Hampstead, N.W., October 20.

IN answer to your correspondent, Mr. A. B. Basset, would not the Anglo-Saxon negative prefix "un" combine more euphoniously with "autotomic" than the Greek "an"? We find analogy for such a combination in the familiar words "unauthorised" and "unauthenticated," where it is used in conjunction with words of Latin origin; so there seems no valid philological objection to its association with a Greek derivative, while the phrase "an autotomic curve" would certainly sound more pleasantly to the ear than "an anautotomic" one.

ARTHUR S. THORN.

4, Malcolm Road, Penge, S.E., October 25.

THE PRESENT CONDITION OF THE INDIGO INDUSTRY.

OF late years attention has often been drawn to

German Technical Chemistry, more especially in connection with the advance and growth of the coal-tar colour industry, an industry which received its birth in this country, but which has now taken up its abode on the continent, the loss of the industry to this country being largely due to the conservatism of our manufacturers, and also partly to the want of proper scientific training on the part of the few chemists whom the manufacturers have *deigned* to employ.¹

Before 1870 the madder plant was very largely cultivated, in order to obtain from it the important dye-stuff alizarin. But in 1869 a process for obtaining alizarin, by fusing anthraquinone sulphonic acid with caustic soda, was patented simultaneously in this country and in Germany. As a consequence the madder plant is now hardly cultivated at all.² Now, thirty years later, another and perhaps even more important natural dye-stuff is in jeopardy owing to the advances of German science. The dye-stuff referred to is indigo, which is cultivated in such large quantities in our Indian Empire. If, then, the natural indigo is to be driven out of the market by the artificial substance, prepared from coal-tar products, it cannot fail to exert a great temporary, if not permanent, influence upon the wealth of India. Perhaps, then, a

¹ In the hand-book for the International Exhibition of 1862 (vol. i. p. 120), the following sentences occur: "It is impossible to overrate the importance of the coal-tar dyes to this country. From having the sources of the raw material in unlimited quantities under our very feet, we are enabled to compete most favourably with continental nations in this respect, and we shall soon become the great colour-exporting country, instead of having, as hitherto, to depend on Holland and other countries for our supply of dye-stuffs."

² Madder root contains about 1 per cent. of alizarin, and in 1859-1868 the best qualities of Turkey roots fetched 50s. per cwt.; this would make the price of alizarin about 45s. per lb. When artificial alizarin was first produced, the dry product fetched about 45s. to 50s. per lb. A 20 per cent. paste of alizarin is now sold for 7d. per lb.

brief survey of the processes employed for producing the natural and artificial indigo may be of interest.

Indigo is one of the oldest dye-stuffs known, having been used in India and Egypt before the Christian era. Egyptian mummies are sometimes found with wrappings which have been dyed with indigo. The ancient Romans and Greeks were also familiar with this dye-stuff. Pliny the Younger mentions indigo in his writings, and in this connection it is interesting to note that adulteration of commercial articles was even practised in his days, for he states that indigo was at times adulterated with the excrement of pigeons and with chalk coloured with woad, but he says the pure article may be known by its burning with a purple flame when heated. Indigo was not introduced into Europe until the sixteenth century, and even then, owing to the strong opposition of the woad cultivators,¹ it was a long time before it came into general use. Indeed, so strong was the opposition and so great was the influence of the woad cultivators, that the employment of indigo was prohibited in England, France and Germany, its use in France being in the time of Henry IV. punished by death, it being called "Devil's Food." However, notwithstanding this powerful opposition, the employment of indigo as a dye gradually gained ground until to-day woad is scarcely cultivated and is no longer employed as a colouring matter, but is used in a certain process of indigo dyeing to cause fermentation and reduce the insoluble indigo blue into soluble indigo white.

The indigo plant (*Indigofera tinctoria*) belongs to the natural order Leguminosæ. It is obtained chiefly from India, especially from the provinces of Bengal, Madras and Oude. But it is also grown in some parts of Africa, in Java, China, Japan, Central America and Brazil. The land is ploughed in October or November, and the seed sown at the end of March or the beginning of April. The growth is very rapid, and the plant attains a height of about three feet. It is cut for the first time between the middle of June and the beginning of July. Two months later a second crop is taken, but the yield is smaller than that of the first crop. The land on which the indigo is cultivated is frequently very poor, and contains very little nitrogen, yet indigo is grown on the same land from year to year with only very occasional change of cropping, and this in spite of the fact that practically the only manure employed is *seet*, i.e. the indigo refuse, leaves, stalks, &c., which have been taken from the steeping vats. Notwithstanding, the crops obtained from year to year do not show much deterioration either in yield or quality. Dr. D. A. Voelcker, in his report on Indian agriculture, suggests that since indigo belongs to the order Leguminosæ, and it has been shown that certain legumes are able to absorb atmospheric nitrogen through the medium of *nodules* which form on the rootlets, that perhaps the indigo plant obtains the nitrogen it requires in this manner. The writer of this article is, however, not aware whether the subject has been investigated.

The dye indigo does not occur ready formed in the plant, but exists in the form of a glucoside called indican. This glucoside was isolated by Schunk. It is a brown, transparent, uncrystallisable syrup, which, by the action of dilute acids, is split up into indigotin (the colouring matter of indigo) and a sugar called indiglucon. A reaction similar to this is supposed to take place during the fermentation process in the production of natural indigo.

Manufacture.

The cut plant is tied into bundles, which are then packed into the fermenting vats and covered with clear fresh water. The vats, which are usually made of brick lined with cement, have an area of about 400 square feet and are 3 feet deep, are arranged in two rows, the tops of the bottom or "beating vats" being generally on a

level with the bottoms of the fermenting vats. The indigo plant is allowed to steep till the rapid fermentation, which quickly sets in, has almost ceased, the time required being from 10-15 hours. The liquor, which varies from a pale straw colour to a golden-yellow, is then run into the beaters, where it is agitated either by men entering the vats and beating with oars, or by machinery. The colour of the liquid becomes green, then blue, and, finally, the indigo separates out as flakes, and is precipitated to the bottom of the vats. The indigo is allowed to thoroughly settle, when the supernatant liquid is drawn off. The pulpy mass of indigo is then boiled with water for some hours to remove impurities, filtered through thick woollen or coarse canvas bags, then pressed to remove as much of the moisture as possible, after which it is cut into cubes and finally air-dried.

Another method is to treat the plant with dilute ammonia or alkalis. This method is said to more completely decompose the indican, and thus to give a larger yield of indigo.

The value of indigo as a dye-stuff depends upon the quantity of indigotin which it contains. The percentage of indigotin in the natural indigo varies from 20-90 per cent. Beside indigotin, natural indigo also contains small and varying quantities of indigo red, indigo brown and indigo gluten. The following is an analysis of a good sample of Bengal indigo:—

Indigo blue	61.4 per cent.
Indigo red	7.2 "
Indigo brown	4.6 "
Indigo gluten	1.5 "
Mineral matter	19.6 "
Water	5.7 "

Artificial Indigo.

After many years of careful and laborious scientific work, artificial indigo is beginning to compete with natural indigo, and there seems to be but little doubt that, unless the producers of the natural article are able to improve the process of manufacture, in the near future the artificial product will, in all probability, get the upper hand in the struggle. Engler and Emmerling appear to have been the first chemists to obtain artificial indigo. They obtained it by the action of zinc dust and soda lime upon ortho-nitroacetophenon, but the quantity obtained was very minute, and, as the mechanism of the reaction was not at that time understood, it did not much help in paving the way for further research work. For most of our present knowledge of indigo we have to thank von Baeyer, whose work on indigo may be looked upon as one of the chemical triumphs of the century. So far back as 1868, von Baeyer obtained indol directly from indigo, and, in the following year, in conjunction with Emmerling, he prepared this substance by fusing crude nitrocinnamic acid with caustic potash and iron filings; shortly afterwards they discovered that by the action of phosphorus trichloride, phosphorus and acetylchloride on isatin, a product was obtained, which, when exposed in aqueous solution to the action of the air, gradually deposited indigo; this method was subsequently improved. In 1875 Nencki obtained indigo by the oxidation of indol with ozone. But it was not till the year 1880 that any great progress was made in the synthesis of indigo. In this year von Baeyer published a series of brilliant researches showing how indigo could be obtained from ortho-nitrocinnamic acid. He showed that when ortho-nitrocinnamic acid is subjected to the action of bromine, ortho-nitrodibromcinnamic acid is obtained, which when treated with alkalis in the cold is converted into ortho-nitrophenylpropionic acid, and this substance, on being warmed with a dilute solution of caustic soda and grape sugar, or some other alkaline reducing agent, is converted into indigo, the yield compared with

¹ The colouring matter of woad, *Isatis tinctoria*, is indigo.

that theoretically possible being 70 per cent. Von Baeyer also showed that, by acting upon ortho-nitrocinnamic acid with caustic soda and chlorine, ortho-nitrophenylchlorolactic acid was produced, which on treatment with alcoholic caustic potash was converted into ortho-nitrophenyloxyacrylic acid, and this on being fused yields small quantities of indigo. Owing, however, to the high cost of ortho-nitrocinnamic acid, indigo so produced could not enter into competition with the natural dye. In 1882 von Baeyer and Drewson brought out yet another synthesis. They found that, by acting upon a mixture of ortho-nitrobenzaldehyde and acetone with caustic soda, indigo was produced, and, further, if the starting products were pure, that the yield of indigo was 80 per cent. of that theoretically obtainable. In 1890 Heumann discovered that when phenyl glycine was melted with caustic soda, taking care that air was, so far as possible, excluded, a yellow-coloured fuse was obtained. This fuse, on being dissolved in water and exposed to the action of the air, produced indigo.

Unfortunately, although the low price of the materials employed should have caused this to be a successful manufacturing process, the yield of the dye-stuff was very poor. Heumann shortly afterwards showed that a very much better yield could be obtained by employing phenylglycine-ortho-carboxylic acid, but although the yield was better the cost of production was higher, the more expensive anthranilic acid taking the place of the cheaper aniline as a starting product. Of late, however, the price of anthranilic acid, owing to improved methods of manufacture, has fallen very considerably, and, doubtless, will continue to fall. Indigo can also be obtained by fusing bromacetanilid with caustic potash, the indol so produced being oxidised by the action of the air to indigo. Again, when ortho-nitroacetophenone is carefully heated with zinc dust, a sublimate of indigo blue is obtained. There are many other syntheses of indigo known, but the majority of them are of more theoretical than practical importance.

Of the many methods for obtaining artificial indigo, only two or three modifications are employed for manufacturing the dye. These are von Baeyer's ortho-nitrobenzaldehyde and acetone synthesis, and that of Heumann from o-phenylglycinecarboxylic acid. But beside indigo itself there is a substance sold under the name of "indigo salt," which is the sodium bisulphite salt of the methylketone of o-nitrophenyl-lactic acid. It is readily soluble and is used for indigo printing.

Artificial indigo as brought into the market contains over 90 per cent. of indigotin, whereas in the natural product the quantity varies from 20 to 90 per cent. The artificial product, however, contains no indigo-red, indigo-brown, or indigo-gluten; whereas these substances are present in natural indigo, and exert an influence in dyeing certain shades of indigo. Indigo itself cannot be employed for dyeing owing to its insolubility. But when subjected to the action of reducing agents it is converted into *indigo-white*, which is soluble in alkalis. Wool or cotton dipped into such a vat and then exposed to the action of the air become dyed a fast blue.

One would have supposed that the indigo producers would have taken warning from the extinction of the artificial alizarin industry, and called to their aid experienced agriculturists to see if it were not possible to increase the yield and quality of the indigo plant, and chemical experts to endeavour to improve the process of manufacture. This, however, has not been done. The planter appears uncertain whether thick or thin seeding is the better, whether any other manure except *seet* should be employed. Again, whether the *seet* should be applied to the land fresh or whether it should first be allowed to ferment. The manufacturing is entirely conducted by "rule of thumb." It is a matter of dispute as to whether the bundles of indigo plant should be packed

tightly or loosely in the vats. If the water employed should be hard or soft is purely a matter of individual opinion. Again, it is a question of debate as to how long the cut plant should be steeped, &c. The Badische Anilin Soda Fabrik is said to have invested 500,000*l.* in plant for the manufacture of artificial indigo. Will British (Indian) manufacturers never lay out capital in scientific investigation? Will they *never* realise that money so laid out is almost certain in the near future to bring in a rich return? In conclusion, I give the following quotation from the report on the trade of Frankfurt for 1899, by Consul-General Sir Charles Oppenheimer:—

"In the territories in which natural indigo is grown, the intensity and magnitude of the danger which lies in the advance of the artificial product ought not for a moment to be disregarded. The struggle between artificial and natural indigo has already commenced. The latter still shows some advantages, inasmuch as its by-products, such as indigo gluten, indigo red, &c., aid the dyeing process to some extent. If natural indigo is to retain its position, every effort must be directed in a rational manner to organising its culture towards the manner in which it is collected, and the way the dye is shipped. In order to obtain a favourable result, the ablest experts should co operate in this important task. To-day the fate of East Indian indigo culture lies unfortunately in the retorts of the chemical factories."

F. MOLLWO PERKIN.

THE FORM AND SIZE OF BACTERIA.

BACTERIA is a generic term that has been applied to an extensive group of single-celled organisms belonging to the lowest forms of plant life. The bacteria obtain their nutriment from organic matter, either dead or living, and are therefore capable of leading a saprophytic or a parasitic existence. They are amongst the smallest forms of life with which the biologist has to deal, the transverse diameter of the individual cells seldom exceeding a few micro-millimetres, or it may be a fraction of a micro-millimetre. The highest powers of the microscope are consequently necessary for the study of their structure, which is of a simple character, consisting essentially of protoplasm with a containing cell-membrane. The most striking differences are to be found rather in the biological properties of the bacteria as promoters of decomposition, putrefaction and fermentation, or as the originators of morbid processes in plants and animals, than in any distinctive features they possess as vegetable cells. The following account is simply intended to give the reader who is not a specialist a general conception of the main types of these organisms, which form the special study of bacteriology.

It may, in the first instance, be pointed out that though the bacteria are microscopically minute organisms, yet considerable variations in shape and size occur. The illustrations in the accompanying plate have been selected to illustrate these two points. It will be seen that, for example, amongst the most widely known pathogenic organisms the variation in form is considerable, whilst in point of size the largest of these is many times greater than the smallest. Bacteriology is at present largely dependent for a classification of the bacteria upon the variations that occur in their shape. The individual cells multiply by a process of fission, and the fundamental forms are spherical, oval, rodlike or spiral in shape. At the same time the species cannot be entirely determined by the microscopic appearance. In fact, there are many organisms which it is impossible to identify until other characteristics, such as the macroscopic appearance of their artificial growth on suitable media, or their pathogenic effects on animals, have been observed. The fact has also to be remembered that a

particular organism may under different conditions assume changes in shape, and that even under apparently the same conditions variations in shape and size may occur.

The organisms of a spherical shape are termed Cocci, the individual cells appearing as spheres, except during the period of fission, when elongated or lance-shaped forms occur—e.g. *Diplococcus pneumoniae*. The mode of cell-division determines the nomenclature applied to the various classes of cocci—those dividing in one direction and remaining attached in pairs or chains are termed diplo- or strepto-cocci; those dividing in two directions and forming groups of four—tetrads; those dividing in three directions and forming packets—sarcinae; and those dividing irregularly into grape-like clusters—staphylococci.

The standard of measurement for bacteria is the *mikron*, equal to 1/1000 part of a millimetre, and represented by the sign μ . The diameter of the cocci varies from about 0.3 to 3 μ .

The organisms in which the length is always greater than the breadth are termed bacilli. Their shape is cylindrical, and they assume a rod-like form; of the most important forms the length may vary from 0.5 μ to 3.5 μ , and the breadth from 0.5 to 0.8 μ . The bacilli may occur isolated, in pairs, or in chains.

The third main group, the spirilla, are spiral in shape, or more accurately their form represents the fraction of the thread of a screw. The spirilla, like the bacilli, divide in one direction, and may occur as comma, S-shaped or corkscrew forms. The cholera organism has a diameter of about 0.4 μ .

The transverse diameter is usually taken as the standard of measurement, as it is more constant than the long diameter of the bacteria.

The dimensions of the organisms shown in the accompanying illustrations are as follows:—*Streptococcus pyogenes*, 0.6–0.8 μ ; *Staphylococcus pyogenes aureus*, 0.7–1 μ ; *Diplococcus pneumoniae*, 0.5–0.8 μ ; *Bacillus pestis*, B. 0.6 μ , L. 0.6–1.9 μ ; *Spirillum cholerae*, B. 0.4–0.6 μ , L. 0.8–2 μ ; *Bacillus typhosus*, B. 0.6–0.8 μ , L. 1–3.2 μ ; *Bacillus tetani*, B. 0.5 μ , L. 1.2–3.6 μ .

The example seen in Fig. 1 is the *Streptococcus pyogenes*, which is responsible for various septic processes in man. The grouping into chains is a characteristic feature of this organism. There is little variation in size of the individual members of the chain, with the exception of detached or isolated cells, which may be double the size of the normal cocci, e.g. when cell-division occurs. Micrococci are not generally subject to such individual variations as bacilli, as can be seen in Fig. 2, *Staphylococcus pyogenes aureus*, where only slight variations in size are to be detected. In Fig. 3 is an example of a very pleomorphic organism, the plague bacillus. It is ordinarily a very short, thick rod, almost appearing as a diplococcus when subdivision occurs. In the photograph, one rod is seen which is about six times the size of the others, and this is by no means uncommon. In a fluid culture the form of the plague bacillus is entirely altered, the organism almost assuming the appearance of Fig. 1. The *Micrococcus pneumoniae* (Fig. 4) is one of the most variable of the diplococci, the individuals in a pair being rarely equal in size, and sometimes elongated, as seen in the photograph. The cholera organism (Fig. 5) is inconstant in size, and its chief characteristic is the bent rod or comma shape. The tetanus bacillus (Fig. 6) is of large size in relation to the other organisms noticed. It is usually a straight rod, except when spore-formation occurs, when it assumes the drum-stick appearance, as seen in the photograph. The typhoid bacillus (Figs. 7 and 8) is very variable in size, although its rod-like shape is constant. The organisms generally have been stained with gentian violet, except in Fig. 8, where Van Ermengem's method for demonstrating flagella has

been adopted. This process is not a true staining method, it is really a deposit of a silver-salt on the organism and its flagella. The organism appears much larger than when stained in the ordinary way. Many organisms are like the typhoid bacillus, endowed with flagella, which are probably exclusively organs of locomotion. In Fig. 8 they surround the bacillus, and are many times longer than the organism itself. In other organisms one finds sometimes unipolar or bi-polar flagella.

The illustrations accompanying this article have been produced in the photographic laboratory of the Jenner Institute of Preventive Medicine. The magnification is in all cases 1750 diameters, this being regarded as the highest at which satisfactory photographs of bacteria can be taken, a higher magnification generally resulting in the outline of the organism becoming blurred. The objectives used were a Zeiss 3 mm. apochromatic and a Winkel 1.8 mm. fluorite system, low-power projection oculars being used in each case, and magnification obtained by suitable camera extension. The organisms were all stained, so that a yellow screen was necessary when photographing. The screen used was a saturated solution of acridine yellow, about 15 mm. thick, and with this uniformly satisfactory results have been obtained.

ALLAN MACFADYEN.
J. E. BARNARD.

NOTES.

THE 101st anniversary of the death of Domenico Cirillo, friend of Linnæus, and famous both as botanist and physician, occurred on Monday, October 29. The account of the life and work of this great Neapolitan, given by Prof. Giglioli in another part of the present issue, appears, therefore, at a very appropriate time, and will be read with much interest by every naturalist. We are glad to be able to publish this appreciative notice of some of Cirillo's contributions to science, and thus to add to the number of those who, knowing his works and career, will cherish his memory.

THE announcement of the death of Prof. Max Müller, at Oxford on Sunday last, has been received with universal regret. The funeral has been arranged to take place to-day at Holywell Cemetery, Oxford.

ACCORDING to a *Times* report from Constantinople, "An Imperial Iradé prohibits star-worship and Sabianism in Turkey." It would be interesting to know more exactly what has been prohibited.

THE new science laboratories at King's College were opened by Lord Lister on Tuesday afternoon.

THE death is announced of Mr. William Anderson, professor of anatomy to the Royal Academy of Arts, and the author of a number of works on surgery and anatomy.

A COURSE of Cantor lectures by Prof. J. A. Fleming, F.R.S., on "Electric Oscillations and Electric Waves," will be delivered on Monday evenings in November and December at the Society of Arts.

A DESTRUCTIVE series of earthquake shocks occurred at Caracas, the capital of Venezuela, and the surrounding districts on Tuesday, October 30. The town of Guaronas has been entirely destroyed.

A VISIT to the Chelsea Physic Garden is enough to convince any one of the urgent need of new greenhouses to replace the dilapidated structures in which the existing collections are housed. A more ruinous building than the central range it would be

difficult to imagine, and unless new accommodation be speedily provided for its inmates, the winter's mortality amongst them must be very great. We understand that plans for the erection of new planhouses have for some time been under consideration, and it is much to be hoped that they may be followed by tangible results with as little delay as possible. Under the new régime, the garden, with its increased resources, is proving of great use to institutions in which botany forms part of the curriculum, and it would be a great pity if, owing to avoidable damage, its growing utility should be impaired.

It is stated in the *Bulletin* of the American Mathematical Society that the Steiner prizes of six thousand marks, which were not awarded, owing to no papers being presented, have been divided into three parts which have been given to Prof. Karl Friedrich Geiser, Zurich, for his researches in geometry and his services in the publication of Steiner's lectures; to Prof. David Hilbert, Göttingen, for his researches on the axioms of geometry and for the advancement which analytic geometry has experienced from his work on the theory of invariants, and to Prof. Ferdinand Lindemann, Munich, who has earned special distinction in geometry by his celebrated discussion of the quadrature of the circle, as well as by editing Clebsch's "Vorlesungen über Geometrie."

THE Senate of New York University has (says *Science*) received and confirmed the votes of its judges selecting thirty eminent native-born Americans whose names are to be inscribed in the "Hall of Fame," now in course of construction on University Heights, New York City. The Americans selected as the most eminent are distributed as follows: Rulers and statesmen, 7; authors, 4; inventors, 4; preachers and theologians, 3; judges and lawyers, 3; soldiers and sailors, 3; men of science, 2; philanthropists, 2; educators, 1; painters, 1. The inventors on this list are Fulton, Morse, Whitney and Howe, and the men of science Audubon and Gray. Franklin is of course also included. Of the hundred judges appointed, ninety-seven voted and the votes cast for men of science were as follows: John James Audubon, 67; Asa Gray, 51; Joseph Henry, 44; Matthew Fontaine Maury, 20; Benjamin Thompson, 19; Benjamin Silliman, 16; Benjamin Peirce, 14; Nathaniel Bowditch, 10; Alexander B. Bache, 9; Spencer Baird, 8; Henry Draper, 8; Maria Mitchell, 7; David Rittenhouse, 6. Twenty further names are to be selected in 1902 by the same judges.

REFERENCE has already been made to the medal which the Queensland Branch of the Royal Geographical Society of Australasia has decided to award. From a circular that has reached us, we learn that the medal has been instituted in recognition of Mr. J. P. Thomson's services to the Society, and is to be called "The Thomson Foundation Medal." It will be awarded annually, or at such other times as the Council may approve, to the author of the best original contribution to geographical literature.

IN memory of the late Dr. R. T. Manson, F.G.S., a well-known naturalist and geologist, a large granite boulder has been taken from the bed of the River Tees and placed on a pedestal in the Public Park, Darlington. The stone weighs about twelve tons, and it is admitted to have come originally from Shap, in Westmorland, in the Great Ice Age. It had been deposited 300 yards above Winston Bridge on the shape and limestone bed of the Tees, where the formation is of the carboniferous age.

THE Board of Education have received, through the Foreign Office, copies of the official translation of the statutes and regulations of the Nobel Bequest. It will be remembered that Dr. Nobel left a large sum, the interest on which was to be devoted to prizes to those who in the course of the previous year should have rendered the greatest service to mankind. The amount

thus available was to be divided into five equal parts, to be assigned as follows:—(1) To the most important discovery or invention in the domain of the physical sciences; (2) To the most important discovery or improvement in chemistry; (3) To the most important discovery in physiology or medicine; (4) To the most remarkable literary work (*l'ouvrage littéraire le plus remarquable dans le sens de l'idéalisme*); and (5) To the person who should have rendered the greatest service in the cause of international brotherhood, in the suppression or reduction of standing armies or in the establishment or furtherance of Peace Congresses. The competition was open to the whole world. It has been found necessary to embody the testator's wishes in a somewhat lengthy and complicated body of statutes. The Board of Education are causing copies of the official translation in French of these statutes to be transmitted to a number of the chief libraries in England and Wales, to the Universities and University Colleges, to a number of learned societies and to the Press. The regulations for the competition (which will, if possible, be held for the first time in 1901) can thus be consulted by persons interested in the matter.

It is proposed to publish in separate volumes the lectures on the principles of geology, delivered at the Johns Hopkins University, under the George Huntington Memorial Fund; and subscriptions for the volumes are invited by Prof. W. Bullock Clark, Baltimore, Maryland, U.S.A. The lectures have been given by geologists of international reputation, a fund having been provided for that purpose by the generosity of Mrs. Williams, who thus commemorates the name and work of her husband, formerly professor of inorganic geology in the Johns Hopkins University. The lectureship was inaugurated in April, 1897, by Sir Archibald Geikie, who delivered six lectures on "The Founders of Geology," which have already been published by Messrs. Macmillan and Co. A second course was given in April, 1900, by Prof. W. C. Brögger, who delivered two lectures on the principles of a genetic classification of the igneous rocks, followed by five lectures on the late geological history of Scandinavia, as shown by changes of level and climate since the close of the glacial epoch. Other lectures will be delivered from time to time and will be published in a uniform style. The volumes will thus contain authoritative opinions regarding the fundamental facts of geological science.

THE first place in the *Quarterly Review* is given to a descriptive account of malaria and its relation to mosquitoes, in which some of the facts in seven recent volumes and reports dealing with the subject are considered. To any one who has not had before him the statistics as to the number of deaths from malaria, the mortality from the disease is astonishing. It has been said that one half the mortality of the human race is due to malaria, and though this may very well be an exaggeration, the figures given in the review show the deadly character of the disease and the vast extent of its field of activity. Apart from the mortality, it is stated that the disease probably levies a heavier tribute in the capacity of the officers and officials who administer the British Empire than does any other single agency. Laveran's discovery, in 1880, of the small organism responsible for the disease is, therefore, worthy of greater glory than the victories of any general or the triumph of any political party, for it has greater influence upon human affairs. Lankester had previously described a parasitic organism living in the blood-cells of a frog, and these purely scientific observations laid the foundation for the mosquito-malaric theory propounded by Dr. Manson, and established by the brilliant researches of Ross, Grassi, Bastianelli, Bignami and others. The whole story is told in the review, and it affords another instance of the far-reaching value of scientific work which at the commencement appears to have no practical applications.

In the Geological Series, Vol. i., No. 7, of the Field Columbian Museum publications, Dr. O. C. Farrington describes some new mineral occurrences in America. These include, amongst others, the rare inesite from a mine near Villa Corona, Mexico, a mineral which is only known from three other localities in the world; also some curious crystals of golden calcite from the Bad Lands region, which exhibit such distortion as to have an apparent prismatic form. There is an interesting note also on the use of dolomite as money by the Pomo Indians, inhabiting Lake County, California. The dolomite money is fashioned by cutting symmetrically-shaped cylindrical pieces from the rough pebbles. These are afterwards burned to bring out streaks of a reddish colour and are then polished and perforated. It is stated that a well-worked piece is estimated at almost the value of its weight in gold. A second section of this publication deals with some interesting crystal forms of calcite from Joplin, Missouri, which are remarkable "not only for their size, but for their transparency, varied colour and the perfection of their crystal form." The paper is well illustrated.

In an article on "The Orange River Ground Moraine" (*Trans. S. African Phil. Soc.* vol. xi. part 2, September 1900), Messrs. A. W. Rogers and E. H. L. Schwarz describe the glacial characters of the Prieska conglomerate which occurs beneath the Kimberley shales. In their opinion it is a true till formed by land-ice; numerous striæ are to be found on the boulders, while the rock-surfaces underlying the conglomerate are clearly glaciated. A number of photographic plates support the conclusions of the authors. They remark that the relationship between the Prieska conglomerate and that known as the Dwyka conglomerate is still uncertain. The Dwyka conglomerate forms the base of the Mesozoic group, and has long been regarded as of glacial origin. An important paper on the chemical composition of the soils of the south-western districts of Cape Colony is contributed to the same publication by Mr. Charles F. Juritz.

PROF. W. M. DAVIS announces (*Appalachia*, vol. ix., March 1900) that his doubts as to the ability of ice to erode deep valleys and basins have been dispelled by a study of the valley of the Ticino, towards St. Gotthard. The fact that the side valleys open into the main valley several hundred feet up, indicates that the ice-stream, while deepening the main channel, rose high enough to prevent the small lateral glaciers from exercising much erosive power on their courses. In a second article (*Proc. Boston Soc. Nat. Hist.*, vol. xxix., July 1900) Prof. Davis pursues the subject of "Over-deepened main valleys and hanging lateral valleys," and deals also with the excavation of lake-basins by ice-action.

THE well-known formula for the velocity of propagation of capillary waves or "ripples" shows that the surface-tension of a liquid can be determined experimentally by observing the wave-length and velocity, or the wave-length and frequency of such waves. Dr. Leo Grunmach, of Berlin, has successfully applied this method to liquids, and he now communicates to the *Sitzungsberichte* of the Berlin Academy an account of determinations of the capillary constants of liquefied gases by the same method. The waves are excited by a tuning-fork with needle points dipping into the liquid, and the interference-curves enable the wave-lengths to be measured with considerable accuracy. The method has been applied to liquefied sulphurous acid, Pictet's fluid (a mixture of 64 parts by weight of sulphurous acid with 44 parts carbonic acid), liquefied ammonia and liquefied chlorine, and the values of the capillary constants will, it is surmised, lead to interesting results in connection with critical point investigations.

THE smallest lateral difference of place that is just visible has, until recently, been given as about $50''$ to $1'$ angular measure. The method employed by Helmholtz and others in reaching

this result was the well-known one of bringing two parallel lines together until they finally are just distinguished as two. Prof. George M. Stratton, writing in the *Psychological Review* for September, describes a different method by which it is now evident that a lateral difference of place of about $7''$ of arc can be directly perceived. Instead of using lines or points side by side, the experiments which gave this result were made with lines end to end, so arranged that the upper of two perpendiculars could be moved at will to the right or left, while still remaining exactly parallel to the lower line. The observer had simply to judge whether the upper line was continuous with the lower or to which side it was displaced. The results, which gave $7''$ as the threshold of space distinction under these conditions, are interesting, as explaining Bourdon's experiments, according to which a difference of position amounting to but $5''$ gives a perceptible stereoscopic effect.

MR. FRANK B. WILLIAMS contributes to the *Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences* a paper on the geometry on ruled quartic surfaces. Of the quartic scrolls Cremona enumerates twelve, while Cayley divides these scrolls into ten species, stating that Cremona's two remaining species, though properly considered as distinct from the others, may be regarded as sub-forms of his seventh and ninth species. These two are the developable quartic or torse, whose edge of regression is a twisted cubic, and the quartic cones. It is the purpose of Mr. Williams's paper to consider the classification of curves on all ruled quartic surfaces, to find the formula for the number of intersections of any two curves that lie on the same ruled quartic surface, and to point out some of the most notable results obtained in the course of the investigation. The equations of many of the ruled quartic surfaces are so complicated that very serious difficulties arise when we attempt to treat them analytically, and the author finds it convenient to employ the synthetic method of Prof. Story.

MR. F. J. ROGERS, in the August number of the *Physical Review*, advocates the use of the M.K.S., or metre-kilogram-second, system of units in solving problems in mechanics where solutions involving the C.G.S. units of force and work lead to enormously large numerical measures. The author remarks that the common mode of abbreviating these large numbers by using powers of ten gives some trouble to beginners. Mr. Rogers suggests that the corresponding absolute unit of force may be called the large dyne, or the *Dyne* spelt with a big D; but this nomenclature seems capable of improvement in order to avoid confusion with the megadyne, which contains ten of his large dynes.

A SERIES of interesting experiments on the explosive effects of the modern infantry bullet have been carried out in Germany by C. Cranz and K. R. Koch. They used a new Mauser rifle of 6 mm. bore, having a muzzle velocity 100 m. greater than "Model 88." To imitate the effect upon large blood-vessels, while at the same time obtaining simple physical conditions, the experimenters constructed short hollow tin cylinders filled with water, and closed at one end with a sheet of rubber, and at the other with a sheet of parchment paper. Electrodes were mounted before or behind the cylinders, or inside them, and the discharge spark produced by the bullet was utilised to obtain a photograph of its silhouette at various points of its path. Among the important facts thus elicited it appears that the body struck is not displaced by the entry of the bullet. On leaving the body, the bullet carries away with it a small part of the hind surface, having a small round perforation through which the bullet passed. The "explosion" does not take place until the bullet has left the body. After discussing the evaporation, hydraulic-pressure, rotation, and sound-wave theories of the explosion, and discarding them all, the authors conclude that

the apparent explosion is due to the transfer of kinetic energy to the portions hit at later stages, which are thus torn away from those first encountered.

WE have received from Dr. W. Doberck a copy of the observations made at the Hong Kong Observatory during the year 1899, containing hourly values and results of the principal meteorological elements. The volume is the sixteenth of this important series, and the observations are enhanced in value by the fact of their publication on a uniform plan, which admits of comparison of the means of one year with those of another. The weather forecasts show a high degree of success; following the method of analysis usually adopted, and adding together the sum of total and partial success, the percentage amounts to 94. The collection of observations made in the eastern seas and their collation in one-degree squares, for the construction of trustworthy pilot charts, are actively carried on, and these observations are supplemented by registers kept at forty stations on shore. Astronomical and magnetic observations are also regularly made, and the results published in the volume above referred to. The time-ball was successfully dropped throughout the year, with only seven cases of failure.

It was only in 1889 that Dr. Merriam, in the "North American Fauna," published a synopsis of the pocket-gophers of the genus *Perognathus*; but since that date a host of new species and races have been described. Accordingly, a revision of the group has been found necessary, which has been carried out by Mr. W. H. Osgood in No. 18 of the publication cited, several new forms being added to the already large list.

WE have received parts iii. and vi. of "Papers from the Harriman Alaska Expedition" (*Proc. Washington Academy*, vol. ii.), the former, by Mr. W. E. Ritter and Miss G. R. Crocker, dealing with the multiplication of rays in a 20-rayed starfish and its bilateral symmetry, and the latter, by Miss A. Robertson, treating of the Bryozoa. The most interesting feature in connection with the starfish (*Pycnospodia helianthoides*) is the presumed relation between one of its arms and the so-called larval organ of the embryo. In regard to the Bryozoa, Miss Robertson remarks that many of the Alaskan species are common to Queen Charlotte Islands, Paget Sound and California. The distribution of all the forms found on the western coast of North America is given, several new species being described.

THE first half of Part iv. of vol. xxviii. of the *Morphologisches Jahrbuch* is taken up by the final instalment of Dr. S. Paull's important memoir on the pneumatic cavities in the mammalian skull. It is concluded that the homology of these cavities can only be determined by means of their relations to the nasal chamber, and that the terms "frontal" and "sphenoidal sinus" have no morphological value. In Monotremes, pneumatic chambers are wanting, and in other groups the capacity of these increases with the bodily size of the species in which they occur. The second half of the same fasciculus contains the commencement of a memoir by Prof. L. Bolk on the anatomy of apes, the gravid uterus of the langur (*Semnopithecus*) being the first subject for consideration.

DR. A. B. MEYER, the Director of the Dresden Museum, has sent us the first instalment of a work entitled "Ueber Museen des Ostens der Vereinigten Staaten von Nord Amerika; Reisestudien." In the autumn of 1899, Dr. Meyer undertook a journey to the States for the purpose of inspecting the museums and their methods of arrangement and conservancy, and the present issue describes some of the results of his survey. As is well known, Dr. Meyer has paid particular attention to the construction of museum cases and cabinets, and he seems to have been much interested in some of those in use in America.

The present part, which is lavishly illustrated, deals with the museums of New York City, Albany and Buffalo. One of the most striking photographs represents the gallery of Mexican antiquities in the American Museum of Natural History, New York.

WE have received "Verhandlungen der Deutschen Zoologischen Gesellschaft auf der zehnten Jahresversammlung zu Graz, den 18, bis 20, April 1900," which contain a number of short papers on zoological subjects chiefly interesting to specialists. We have likewise been favoured with copies of the *Bulletin International de l'Académie des Sciences de Cracovie, Comptes rendus*, for May and July 1900. Among other papers, the latter contains a communication, by M. E. Godlewski, on the effects of oxygen on the development of the embryo of the frog; and a second, by M. S. Maziariski, on the structure of the salivary glands. The last-named author has succeeded in modelling these glands on an enlarged scale in wax, and his paper is illustrated by a plate showing some of these models.

THE following lectures will be given at the Royal Victoria Hall, Waterloo Road, during November:—November 6, "Plants of Long Ago," Mr. A. Seward, F.R.S.; November 13, "Flowers from an Insect's Point of View," Prof. J. B. Farmer; November 20, "The Medicinal Wells of Old London," Mr. W. H. Shrubsole; November 27, "Some Unknown Countries north of Tanganyika," Mr. J. E. S. Moore.

THE sixth volume of *The Reliquary and Illustrated Archaeologist*, comprising the four quarterly numbers issued this year, has been published by Messrs. Bemrose and Sons. The separate numbers of the magazine have been noticed in these columns as they appeared, but this need not prevent us from remarking that Mr. Romilly Allen, who edits the publication, and his fellow archaeologists, are to be congratulated upon the excellent character of the text and illustrations of their organ.

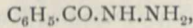
DR. M. C. COOKE's book entitled "One Thousand Objects for the Microscope" is well known to microscopists, and the new edition, which has just been published by Messrs. Frederick Warne and Co., is likely to have an even wider sphere of usefulness. Originally, the book consisted of a list of objects, with brief notes upon their microscopic characteristics. Preceding this, Dr. Cooke now gives a description of the microscope and its essential accessories, with hints on their manipulation, and on the collection and mounting of the different classes of objects enumerated. The book is thus now a complete guide for beginners of practical microscopy, and will be of assistance to all who have a microscope and wish to know how to make good use of it.

THE number of cases of the production of true nitro-derivatives in the fatty series by direct nitration with fuming nitric acid is practically limited to the work of Franchimont and Klobbie and Ruhemann and Orton on malonic acid derivatives. In the current number of the *Comptes rendus*, MM. Bouveault and Wahl give the results of some successful experiments upon the direct nitration of unsaturated fatty compounds. With the ethyl ester of dimethylacrylic acid, a good yield of a mono-nitro-derivative is formed, which possesses acid properties, forming a potassium salt; from which, on treating with acid, an ethyl nitrodimethylacrylate isomeric with the original compound is obtained.

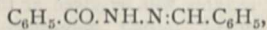
NEARLY forty years ago Schönbein showed how, on shaking lead amalgam with air and water, equivalent quantities of lead oxide and hydrogen peroxide were formed. In recent years many isolated cases have been described of this so-called autoxidation or simultaneous oxidation of two substances by air, one being incapable of oxidation by air alone—the researches of Bamberger,

and of Manchot in particular, proving the production of hydrogen peroxide in such cases. Engler has recently suggested that probably in all such cases hydrogen peroxide is formed simultaneously, half the oxygen molecule going to oxidise the substance present, and the other atom forming hydrogen peroxide. In many cases the formation of the latter substance is difficult to prove on account of its secondary oxidising action upon the substance used. In the current number of the *Berichte*, Dr. H. Biltz describes experiments on the oxidation of the hydrazone of dibromoxybenzaldehyde in alkaline solution by air at the ordinary temperature, and in this case he has been able to prove that the amount of oxygen in the hydrogen peroxide formed is exactly equal to the oxygen used up by the hydrazone.

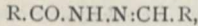
THE same number of the *Berichte* also contains an account by Prof. Curtius of what appears to be a new general method of preparing aromatic aldehydes from the corresponding acids. By the action of dilute alkalis upon benzhydrazide,



benzalbenzoylhydrazine,



is obtained, and this gives benzaldehyde upon hydrolysis with dilute acids. Prof. Curtius makes no attempt to explain the mechanism of this reaction, but states that a similar reduction in alkaline solution has been found to take place with many acid hydrazides with formation of the corresponding tertiary hydrazones



the latter being insoluble substances capable of easy isolation in a pure state, and in good yields. Distillation with dilute sulphuric acid then gives the corresponding aldehyde.

THE additions to the Zoological Society's Gardens during the past week include two Common Marmosets (*Hapale jacchus*) from South-east Brazil, presented by Lady Mackenzie; a Persian Gazelle (*Gazella subgutturosa*) from Central Asia, presented by Mr. B. T. Finch; a Red-necked Bustard (*Eupodotis ruficollis*?) from South Africa, presented by Mr. J. E. Matcham; a Raven (*Corvus corax*), European, presented by Mr. F. Sykes; seven Gold Pheasants (*Thaumalea picta*) from China, presented by Mr. Henry G. Hobbs; a Carrion Crow (*Corvus corone*) captured at sea, presented by Mr. S. T. Henderson; a Bearded Tit (*Panurus biarmicus*), European, presented by Mr. A. R. Gillman; a Spotted Slow Skink (*Acontias meleagris*) from South Africa, presented by Mr. W. L. Sclater; a Green Lizard (*Lacerta viridis*), European, presented by Dr. Dyer; two Severe Macaws (*Ara severa*) from South America, two Spotted Eagle Owls (*Bubo maculosa*) from Africa, a Westerman's Eclectus (*Eclectus westermanni*) from Moluccas, six — Finches (*Munia*, sp. inc.) from India, two Simony's Lizards (*Lacerta simonyi*) from the Canaries, a Mocassin Snake (*Tropidonotus fasciatus*), a Caroline Anolis (*Anolis carolinensis*) from North America, two Leopardine Snakes (*Coluber leopardinus*), two Vivacious Snakes (*Tarbophis fallax*), an Æsculapian Snake (*Coluber longissimus*), a Four-lined Snake (*Coluber quatuorlineatus*), a Lacertine Snake (*Coelopeltis monspessulana*), South European, deposited; two Hog Deer (*Cervus porcinus*), two Dwarf Turtle Doves (*Turtur humilis*), bred in the Gardens.

OUR ASTRONOMICAL COLUMN.

ASTRONOMICAL OCCURRENCES IN NOVEMBER.

- Nov. 1. 9h. 11m. Minimum of Algol (β -Persei).
 4. 6h. oh. " " " "
 6. 9h. 54m. to 10h. 58m. " Arietis (mag. 5.6) occulted by the moon.
 6. 13h. 47m. to 14h. 31m. ρ^3 Arietis (mag. 5.5) occulted by the moon.
 11. 14h. 38m. to 15h. 56m. ι Cancri (mag. 5.9) occulted by the moon.

12. 11h. 54m. to 12h. 58m. A^1 Cancri (mag. 5.6) occulted by the moon.
 12. 14h. 45m. to 14h. 56m. A^2 Cancri (mag. 5.8) occulted by the moon.
 14. 5h. Mars in conjunction with moon. Mars $7^\circ 39' N$.
 14-15. Epoch of the November meteors. Leonids. (Radiant $150 + 23$.)
 15. Venus. Illuminated portion of disc = 0.751.
 Mars. " " " " = 0.896.
 15. Saturn. Outer minor axis of outer ring = $15'' .99$.
 18. 13h. Venus in conjunction with moon. Venus $5^\circ 51' N$.
 21. 10h. 53m. Minimum of Algol (β Persei).
 21. 19h. 23m. Eclipse of the sun invisible at Greenwich.
 23. 5h. Jupiter in conjunction with moon. Jupiter $1^\circ 3' S$.
 23-24. Epoch of the meteoric shower of Biela's comet. (Radiant $25 + 43$.)
 24. 7h. 42m. Minimum of Algol (β Persei).
 24. 12h. Saturn in conjunction with moon. Saturn $2^\circ 8' S$.
 27. 4h. 31m. Minimum of Algol (β Persei).
 30. 6h. 11m. to 7h. 7m. κ Piscium (mag. 5.0) occulted by moon.

EPHEMERIS OF EROS FOR NOVEMBER.

		Ephemeris for 12h. Berlin Mean Time.			
1900.		R.A.			Decl.
		h.	m.	s.	
Nov.	1	2	15	8.32	+53 51 11.3
	3	11	12.42	...	54 4 35.2
	5	7	9.87	...	54 14 11.0
	7	2	3.43	...	54 19 50.8
	9	1	58.56.02	...	54 21 27.8
	11	54	50.81	...	54 18 57.3
	13	50	51.14	...	54 12 17.6
	15	47	0.38	...	54 1 29.6
	17	43	21.88	...	53 46 37.7
	19	39	58.79	...	53 27 48.8
	21	36	53.99	...	53 5 13.1
	23	34	10.09	...	52 39 3.2
	25	31	49.22	...	52 9 33.6
	27	29	53.06	...	51 37 0.3
	29	1	28.22.83	...	+51 1 40.1

FIREBALLS.—On Sunday evening, October 21, there appear to have been a remarkable prevalence of brilliant meteors. They were noticed at about 8h. 35m., 8h. 40m., 9h. 30m., 10h. and 11h. 58m. The first of these was a magnificent object, and it lit up the sky with three flashes which many people mistook for ordinary lightning. The night was very cold and clear throughout the country, and a great number of descriptions of the fireball alluded to have been published in the newspapers. Its flight was exceedingly slow from S.W. to N.E., and it appears to have been directed from a radiant point either in Capricornus or Aquila. The accounts are, however, somewhat conflicting. Near its disappearance the meteor had a height of between 20 and 30 miles over the Midlands, and a detonation was noticed at several places, including Tewkesbury and Clun, Shropshire.

On October 27, 11h. 42m., a magnificent meteor was seen by Mr. Denning at Bristol, traversing a path from $79^\circ + 33'$ to $56^\circ + 24\frac{1}{2}'$, and directed from a radiant at $136^\circ + 34'$. The object left a brilliant, irregular streak, one section of which remained visible in an opera glass for 13 minutes, during which time it drifted 17° in a southerly direction.

TEMPERATURE OBSERVATIONS DURING SOLAR ECLIPSE.—Mr. C. Martin made a systematic series of temperature observations during the eclipse of the sun on May 28, 1900, and his results are published in the *Scientific Proceedings of the Royal Dublin Society*, vol. ix. pt. 3, pp. 362-364. The observations were made with two instruments, one having a black bulb, the other with a white one. These were mounted about an inch apart on a black wooden post, some six feet high, the bulbs being six inches from any part of the woodwork, and pointed directly towards the sun. Parts of the first stages of the eclipse were rendered inactive by clouds, but for a period of two hours good readings were obtained. These are plotted as curves, the results from the two instruments being given both individually and in combination, the agreement being very close; if anything, the white bulb thermometer moved less quickly than the black,

and is thus the less sensitive of the two instruments. An examination in detail of these curves shows that the temperature was at its lowest about eight minutes after the middle of the eclipse, and began to rise rapidly as the eclipsed portions of the sun became less. The highest reading with the black bulb thermometer before the eclipse began was $63^{\circ}7$, the lowest during eclipse being $35^{\circ}7$, showing a fall of 28° . With the white bulb the corresponding readings were $15^{\circ}6$ and 3° respectively, showing a drop of $12^{\circ}6$.

DOMENICO CIRILLO AND THE CHEMICAL ACTION OF LIGHT IN CONNECTION WITH VEGETABLE IRRITABILITY.

ONE hundred and one years ago, on October 29, 1799, Domenico Cirillo, the Neapolitan Linnæus, was hanged on the market-place of Naples, together with some of the noblest among Italian men of letters and science. It is especially fitting to remember Cirillo in England, the country which he visited and where he had many friends, and for the literature and science of which he showed a special predilection—a country which unfortunately had such a fatal influence upon his destiny.

The Cirillos of Grumo, a village of Terra di Lavoro, were a family of doctors, naturalists and artists. At the beginning of the eighteenth century Nicola Cirillo was famed, both as a physician and a botanist. Following the best traditions of Neapolitan science, the traditions of Pinelli, of Imperato, and of Maranta, Nicola Cirillo instituted a private botanical garden, the only one then existing in Naples. In 1718 he became a Fellow of the Royal Society of London, and in connection with this Society, then presided over by Sir Isaac Newton, Nicola Cirillo began to collect meteorological data on the climate of Naples. After his death, in 1734, his botanical garden and his collections, together with the famous herbarium of Ferrante Imperato, were preserved, and the garden improved with the more recent systems of classification by Sante Cirillo, painter and naturalist, whose house became a centre of the learning and culture of Naples.¹

Domenico Cirillo was born in 1739, and so profited by the education and influence of Sante, his uncle, of Nicola Capasso, Francesco Serao, and of other teachers, that at the age of twenty-one, in 1760, he successfully competed for the chair of botany in the University of Naples. Domenico Cirillo, indeed, followed in the track of Nicola, and soon became known both as a botanist and as a physician. In numerous botanical excursions he visited the greater part of the provinces of Southern Italy and Sicily; and he was the first to organise in this country a regular botanical survey, sending out pupils and assistants to collect in different provinces. Thus not only many rare plants were described in his "Fascicoli Plantarum rariorum Regni Napolitani," begun in 1788, but several new species were discovered. At present, in the Italian flora, about thirteen species of phanerogams are retained as first discovered and described by Cirillo.

That period, when men worked under the spell of Linnæus, was a time of great botanical fervour, of *furor botanico* to use Cirillo's expression, in the collecting and investigating of plants. Of Cirillo's early connection with Linnæus, botanists are still reminded by the name of the *Cyrillae*, which the great Swede dedicated to his young Neapolitan correspondent. Indeed, the devotion of Cirillo for Linnæus was so great that, following the impulse of his enthusiastic nature, he raised a monument to him in the old botanical garden of the Cirillo family.

Induced by Lady Walpole, Cirillo visited France and

¹ Ferrante Imperato, whose herbarium was preserved in the Cirillo collections, lived at the end of the sixteenth century. In writing his "Historia naturale," printed in Naples in 1599, Imperato put together a museum which soon became known in Europe; for besides having for fellow-workers in Naples B. Maranta and Fabio Colonna, Imperato corresponded with P. A. Mattioli, Gaspard Bauhin, Ulisse Aldrovandi, Melchiorre Guilandino, and others of the foremost botanists of the time. His herbarium is said to have been composed of eighty volumes. The museum of Imperato got dispersed during the plague of 1656, and Nicola Cirillo eventually obtained possession of only nine volumes. After the sacking of Domenico Cirillo's house in 1799, one volume only of the Imperato herbarium was saved, and is now in the Biblioteca Nazionale of Naples. It contains 440 dried plants, *i.e.* about one-seventh of all the plants identified in the days of Imperato and Bauhin. This herbarium, together with the herbarium of Cesalpino, is among the rarest of botanical relics.

² Of the herbarium of Domenico Cirillo a small remaining portion is now preserved in the botanical museum of the Agricultural College of Portici, in the care of Prof. O. Comes.

England, becoming connected with D'Alembert, Diderot, Nollet, Buffon, Franklin, Sir John Pringle, and especially with William and John Hunter. He was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. In 1771 he published in the *Philosophical Transactions* an account of the Manna Tree of Calabria, Sicily and Monte Gargano, describing the method of extracting the manna. The *Philosophical Transactions* also contain his observations, made near Taranto, on the effect of the tarantola bite; Cirillo confirms what Serao, in 1742, had already written on *Tarantism*, dispelling the absurd superstition of the music-cure supposed to be effected by dancing the Tarantella. He observes how in Sicily the tarantola is never dangerous, and the music-cure is unknown.¹

In the latter part of the eighteenth century, while the Neapolitan kingdom was freeing itself more and more from the baneful Spanish influence, during the early years of the reign of Ferdinand IV. and Maria Carolina of Austria, a spirit of reform and progress had risen in South Italy, and a new impulse was given to research in natural sciences. In medicine, after Francesco Serao and Domenico Cotugno, Cirillo rose above the rest. The researches and teaching of Giovanni Maria Della Torre and of Cirillo opened a new field to the Neapolitan naturalists in microscopical investigations. And around Cirillo, again, a new school of botanists and zoologists and of chemical investigators arose, among whom we may record the names of Filippo Cavolini, Vincenzo Briganti, Gaetano Nicodemi, Antonio Barba, Saverio Macri, Antonio Fasano, Nicola Pacifico, Vincenzo Petagna, Matteo Tondi, Nicola Andria, Vincenzo Comi. The discoveries of Alberto Fortis in 1783, near Molfetta, where he observed the richness of the soil in nitrates, led to investigations in Naples on the origin of nitre, in which Fortis himself, Melchiorre Delfico, Giuseppe Giovene, Giuseppe Vairo and Zimmermann were chiefly engaged. In geological and mineralogical research Giov. M. Della Torre took the lead, and with him, or shortly after him, worked Ascanio Filomarino duca della Torre, Domenico Salsano, Gius. Gioeni, Gaetano De Bottis, Luigi De Curtis, Vincenzo Santoli, Domenico Tata, Scipione Breislak, Camillo Pellegrini. In 1788 Lazzaro Spallanzani began his tour of the volcanic regions of Southern Italy and Sicily. In those days Sir William Hamilton, during the many years of his residence in Naples, collected information on the Phlegrean Fields, while Ascanio Filomarino was forming his Vesuvian Museum, destined to so short an existence; for the museum and all the other scientific collections in the Filomarino Palace were destroyed in January 1799, when the unfortunate duke and his brother, Clemente Filomarino, the poet (the translator of Young's poems), were burnt as Jacobins by the infuriated Royalist mob.²

During this same period some of the more important foreign works were translated into Italian and published in Naples; such as the works of Stephen Hales, of Priestley, Linnæus, and the Agricultural Encyclopedia of Rozier.³

Omitting here all mention of his medical and other publications, Cirillo's chief works on botany and entomology were the following:—"Tabulæ botanice elementares," 1773; "De essentialibus nonnullarum plantarum characteribus," 1784; "Entomologia Neap. Specimen primum," 1787-1790; "De Cypero Papyro," 1787, re-edited at Parma in 1796; "Fundamenta botanica, sive philosophiæ botanice explicatio," 1787; "Plantarum rariorum Regni Napolitani," fasc. i. 1788, fasc. ii. 1793; "Discorsi Accademici," 1789, re-edited in 1799.

In the field of vegetable physiology, the discoveries of Cirillo on the irritability of plants are noteworthy. In that field, together with his contemporary, G. B. Dal Covolo, Cirillo is the

¹ The music-cure for the tarantola bite is still practised by peasants, especially women, in some parts of the province of Lecce and in Calabria. In Cirillo's days the belief in the dangerous and strange effects of the bite of the tarantola was held even by persons high in authority. See Andrea Pigionati, "Sul Tarantismo," *Opuscoli Scelti* ii. (Milano, 1779). Compare Franc. Serao, "Della Tarantola o sia Falangio di Puglia" (Napoli, 1742).

² Duca della Torre, "Descrizione del Gabinetto Vesuviano da lui posseduto" (Napoli, 1796, 2da ed.).

³ The works of Hales were translated by a lady, Maria Ardinghelli; St. Hales, "Statica dei Vegetabili ed Analisi dell' Aria, trad. dall' Inglese con varie annotazioni da M. A. Ardinghelli" (Napoli, 1756).

St. Hales, "Ematistica, ossia Statica degli Animalì. Esperienze idrauliche fatte sugli animalì viventi" (Napoli, 1776).

Gius. Priestley, "Sperienze ed Osservazioni sopra diverse Specie di aria, trad. dall' Inglese" (Napoli, 1784).

The translation of Rozier's *Encyclopædia* was begun in 1783, and was due to the Società Letteraria di Napoli, of which Cirillo was one of the leading members.

Vincenzo Petagna began editing the "Species Plantarum" of Linnæus.

direct successor of his celebrated compatriot, Alfonso Borelli, who, in 1653, discovered in Naples the irritability of the anthers of *Centaurea*, and of other Cynarææ. In his essay, "Del Moto e della Irritabilità dei Vegetabili," published in 1789, Cirillo briefly describes what was then known of the sleep of plants, of the movements of the leaf blade of *Dionaea muscipula*, and of the fly-trap concealed in the flowers of *Aposynum androsæmifolium*, a plant then lately studied by Francesco Bartolozzi in Milan.¹ Cirillo quotes Linnæus' description of the movements of the *Hedysarum gyrans*, first discovered by Pohl in 1779. After describing the irritability of the stamens of the Cynarææ, the gradual sensitiveness of the flowers of *Verbascum* to shocks, and the recent observations of Duhamel and of others on the stamens of *Berberis*, and of *Parietaris officinale*, Cirillo goes on to describe his own discoveries of irritability in *Forskohlea tenacissima*, and in the common nettle, *Urtica dioica*. "The study of the very complex fructification of the first plant (*Forskohlea*) having revealed to me the spiral structure of the filaments, similar to those of *Parietaria*, I was led to verify whether these filaments also possessed irritability. It is of great interest to observe in the nettle, during the warmer morning hours, how the male flowers open abruptly, and suddenly burst open their well-closed anthers, that eject abundant fertilising dust."²

These observations brought Cirillo to believe that the "marvellous irritability of the sensitive plant, as well as the elasticity in the stamens of flowers, must be partly due to the spiral structure of the organs in which the contractions take place, chiefly, however, to the very frequent articulations of which these parts, so mobile and so irritable, are essentially composed."

Hedwig had in these years opened the way to the knowledge of mosses; and Cirillo again observed cases of irritability and elasticity in the capsules of mosses and in the filaments they contain, the articulated structure and the spiral form of which again confirmed his opinion on the mechanism of plant movement.³

In studying the sensitive plant, Cirillo points out the enlargement at the insertion of each leaf; and observing what he believed to be a spiral structure within this "tubercle-like body," suspects a connection between the spiral structure and leaf-movement. Comparing the *Mimosa pudica* with the *Mimosa glauca*, Cirillo finds that the great difference in their sensitiveness corresponds with the different size and development of the articulations containing the spiral structure. This spiral structure corresponds, of course, with the fibro-vascular bundle inside the *pulvinus*, the motor organ, in which, as we now know, the sap tension suddenly sinks at every cause of irritation.⁴

Following the ideas of Haller, the first to have a notion of protoplasm as the physical basis of life, Cirillo believes that the seat of irritability and of life, both in animals and in plants, must be in mucilaginous substances. Thus he points out that in plants "glutinous principles" are commonly met with which must be the seat of motion, of contraction, and of irritability. Curiously enough, as an example of this glutinous principle, Cirillo gives the "elastic resin now used so extensively" extracted from the sap of *Jatropha elastica*, and existing, as he observes, in many other plants. In that time, when only impure rubber was in commerce, it had been observed that this substance, besides strongly-smelling empyræmatic products, yielded ammonia by distillation; it was therefore generally considered of the same nature as glutinous animal substances.⁵

¹ Fr. Bartolozzi, "Sopra la qualità che hanno fiori della pianta detta Apocynum Androsæmifolium di prendere le mosche, con una osservazione nuova sulla fecondazione delle piante," Opuscoli Scelti ii. (Milano, 1779, p. 103; and iv. 1781, p. 73).

² Besides G. B. Dal Covolo, "Discorso della irritabilità di alcuni fiori, nuovamente scoperta" (Firenze, 1764), compare with the observations of contemporary botanists—G. E. Smith in England, and Des Fontaines in France. An abridgment of these observations was published in Italian at Milan: Des Fontaines, "Sull' Irritabilità degli organi sessuali di molte piante," Opuscoli Scelti x. 1787, p. 417; G. G. Smith, "Sopra la irritabilità dei vegetabili," Op. Scelt. xi. 1788, p. 379.

³ See also Antonio Barba, "Osservazioni sopra la generazione dei Muschi," Op. Scelt. v. 1782, p. 128. Barba was a pupil of Cirillo and of Della Torre.

⁴ See also Andrea Comparetti, "Nouvelles Recherches sur la Structure organisée relativement à la cause des mouvements de la sensitive commune" (*Mém. Acad. de Turin*, 1790).

⁵ It is interesting to remember that in those days, in London, Tiberio Cavallo was first beginning to prepare india-rubber tubing for scientific use, the tubes being made from an ethereal solution of the india-rubber. See Faujas St. Fond, "Su alcune arti utili, tratte da un viaggio in Inghilterra, in Scozia, e alle Isole Ebridi," Op. Scelt. xx. 1797, p. 60.

For the first applications of india-rubber in making waterproof cloth, &c., and for a description of Grossard's method of making india-rubber tubes, see Cervantes, "Resina Elastica," Op. Scelt. xxi. 1798, p. 97.

The researches of Hunter, showing the connection between nerve-action and electricity in the torpedo, and the experiments that Cirillo's friend Italsckkhi was making in Naples on the electrical organ of the torpedo, brought Cirillo to believe that there must be some special connection between electricity and the action of nerves, and in general with all manifestations of irritability. As is well known, that was an active period of research on the torpedo: suffice it to record the names of Walsh, Pringle, Spallanzani, Soave. At Naples, in 1784, Domenico Cotugno accidentally received an electric shock in vivisection a young mouse: this on the eve of Luigi Galvani's discoveries in animal electricity. This was also the period of greater fervour in experimenting upon the influence of electricity on vegetation. These experiments were chiefly carried out by Achard in Germany, Berthelon in France, Toaldo, Gardini and Vassalli in Italy and by Ingen-Housz in England. Vassalli and Rossi were soon to show the excitability of the sensitive plant under electric action.¹

The connection of the chemical action of atmospheric air with respiration, and with all forms of animal and vegetable motion, was evidently in the mind of Cirillo. Indeed, for many years scientific research in Italy, both on animal and vegetable life, had been discovering more and more this connection, preparing the way to modern knowledge of respiration and of the origin of vital heat and of vital motion.

Fracassati, in 1665, had observed the change of colour in blood when shaken up in air. The experiments of John Mayow, the pre-discoverer, if the term may be used, of oxygen, were perhaps better known and appreciated in Italy than in England, through Ludovico Barbieri, of Imola, who translated and extended the work of the English chemist. Barbieri observed that the bright colour of arterial blood must be due to impregnation with nitro-aërial spirit; and he showed, by experiments on the transfusion of blood into an animal prevented from breathing, the truth of Mayow's teaching, that atmospheric nitro-aërial spirit, fixed in the blood, sustains life and, as in the case of the flame, produces heat. Barbieri also taught that the nitro-aërial spirit of the air causes the germination of seeds and sustains the life of plants.²

Hales, during the first part of the eighteenth century, had shown how plants suffer when enclosed in gases other than air, as the "air" extracted by distillation from Newcastle coal. Bonnet and Duhamel observed subsequently that leaves perish when covered with oil. But to Buonaventura Corti, the discoverer of protoplasmatic movements in the vegetable cell, is due the first exact proof of respiration in plants. Corti showed, in a series of experiments, that when air is excluded from the vegetable cell all circulation of the cell-sap is arrested: "now that we have shown," he observes, "that the circulation of the sap of the Chara is arrested when *in vacuo*, we readily understand why all plants perish without air, and why seeds cannot germinate without air, or perish shortly after sprouting."³ In those days, in 1773, Francesco Cigna, in Turin, was again proving the action of air upon the colour of blood, and the influence of blood upon the properties of air. Cigna's experiments were repeated with greater exactitude, after the discovery of vital air, by Priestley, who showed that vital air, *i.e.* oxygen, causes the blood to brighten, while its colour deepens in contact with other gases. The discoveries of Priestley were followed, in 1779, by Adair Crawford's theory and experiments on respiration and animal heat.⁴ According to Crawford, the latent heat of atmospheric air gradually becomes perceptible as animal heat, while the air absorbed through the lungs gets mixed and retained in the blood, which yields its phlogiston to the atmosphere. Crawford held that vegetable matter is elaborated, and becomes charged with phlogiston, under the action of solar rays; whilst during the combustion of vegetable matter phlogiston is again yielded up to the atmosphere and fire generated, in the same way blood generates heat, while phlogisticating expired air. Vegetables again, growing under the influence

¹ Cotugno's observations on the electrical mouse are described in a letter to Vivenzio. See Tiberio Cavallo, "Teoria e Pratica dell' Elettricità Medica" (Napoli, 1784, p. 157). This is an Italian translation by Vivenzio; the original English work was published by Cavallo in London, in 1780.

² "Planta a spiritu nitro-aereo prima vite stamina suscipit," wrote Barbieri in 1680. See Salvigni, "Ragionamento sopra alcune dottrine chimiche di Giovanni Mayow e di Ludovico Barbieri" (Bologna, 1816).

³ B. Corti, "Osservazioni microscopiche sulla Tremella e sulla circolazione del fluido in una pianta acquajola" (Lucca, 1784, p. 191).

⁴ An Italian abridgment of Crawford's paper was published very soon after its appearance in England: Adair Crawford, "Sul calore animale e sull' infiammazione dei corpi combustibili," Opuscoli Scelti iii. 1780, p. 73.

of light, separate phlogiston from the tainted air, and reprecipitate in the atmosphere the power of generating heat by combustion or by respiration. A cycle of the principles of heat and of phlogiston is thus maintained through atmospheric air between the vegetable and animal kingdoms. Substituting the old conception of phlogiston by the modern idea of energy, we perceive in Crawford's theory the germ of the theory of the preservation and transformation of energy. Crawford's work prepared the way, as Carradori pointed out in 1792, to Lavoisier's experiments on respiration, and for the ready acceptance of his theory.

In Italy, where the experiments of Marsiglio Landriani, of Pietro Moscati and of Lazzaro Spallanzani, were then showing the influence of different gases on cutaneous respiration, and where Spallanzani was demonstrating the evolution of fixed air even from tissues separated from the living body, and in organisms prevented from absorbing free vital air, the theory of Crawford was readily accepted, and served as a starting-point to the experiments of Michele Rosa in Modena. Rosa, indeed, followed directly in the track opened by Ludovico Barbieri a century before. By a numerous series of experiments in transferring arterial blood into animals prepared by copious bleeding, and by the different comportment of arterial and venous blood *in vacuo*, Rosa showed that the vital principle has its seat chiefly in the blood, and is maintained by the continuous action of atmospheric air during respiration, being due to the same cause that maintains combustion. Rosa's work has not been sufficiently appreciated because of his misapplication of names, and was too soon forgotten in the great light shed by the experiments of Lavoisier; but there is no doubt that to Rosa is due the first demonstration of the incorporation of oxygen in the blood, of the special labile condition of its combination, and of the supreme importance of aëration for the vitality of all animal tissues.¹

When Cirillo wrote his essays, the theories of Crawford and of Rosa were in their bloom, and were warmly espoused by the Neapolitan naturalist. Cirillo believed that all life, animal and vegetable, had its origin in the action of air upon the "glutinous principle," that is, the basis of life in all tissues, and that light, electricity and heat, but especially solar light, are all connected with the quickening of life. Like Lavoisier, Cirillo looked upon sunlight as the origin of all life: "Sunlight," he wrote, "the only, the inexhaustible, primitive and incomprehensible fount that pours heat and motion and life upon our globe."

John Hill, in his letter to Linnæus in 1753, had shown the special connection of light, independently of heat, with the sleep-movements of plants. Priestley's celebrated experiments on the purifying action of vegetation upon air vitiated by respiration, or by combustion, had been known since 1772. In 1779 Ingen-Housz pointed out that this action of plant-life is due to sunlight, and only takes place when light acts upon green plants. Cirillo himself must have observed the attraction of lower organisms towards light, similar to those swarm-spore movements that shortly after were first described by Giuseppe Olivi.² "Why," asks Cirillo, "do all polyps love light, so that, on darkening the vase in which they are contained, leaving free only a tiny hole, they all forsake darkness, and throng near the spot where they can enjoy the immediate action of the solar rays? Why are all marine animals so filled with a luminous vapour, emitting phosphoric light? Why are the most irritable fish phosphorescent and electric? Why do plants, when deprived of solar light, lose colour, aroma and robustness?" Cirillo, like most of the writers of his time, was not clear in the distinction between light and heat; but what is predominant in his mind is that all movement, both in animals and in plants, is due to fixation of vital air, to oxidation, and that light therefore, by causing the sleep-movements in plants, must be connected with some process of oxidation.

While Cirillo was writing, Senebier had already shown (1788) that the chief action of light in plants is the reverse of oxidation, causing the decomposition of carbonic acid and the evolution of oxygen. The importance of this discovery, and the

mistaken notions about plant-respiration, caused what may be called the minor functions of light in plants to be neglected. Only long after the days of Cirillo and of Senebier, in the latter part of our century, investigations began on the influence of light in respiratory processes: in the decomposition of chlorophyll, in changing the composition of the sap, and the distribution of osmotic tension, and consequently in causing the movement of plant-organs, as in the case of nyctitropic and heliotropic movements. These changes are promoted, as was first shown by Michelangelo Poggioli in 1817, by the more refrangible rays of the spectrum, by those rays, namely, that are specially active in causing the oxidation of organic compounds and in decomposing silver and other salts.

Cirillo's opinions on the chemical activity of solar rays were due to his own original observations on the chemical action of sunlight upon silver chloride. His experiments were made to test the truth of an assertion by Nicola Andria that certain Ischia waters contained phlogisticated alkali (yellow prussiate), and could consequently produce Prussian blue.¹ "A curious phenomenon," Cirillo writes, "has been recently observed by me whilst analysing the Olmitello water of the Island of Ischia. Investigations of our chemists had brought them to believe that this water contained a phlogisticated alkali, similar to that prepared from the colouring matter of Berlin blue; for, on mixing the water with some *luna cornea*, or with a solution of silver in nitrous acid, not only was a white substance instantly produced, but after a short time it changed to a very beautiful and dark azure colour. This experiment, seeming to show the existence of a phlogisticated alkali in the Olmitello water, having been accidentally repeated by me towards evening, I observed that the mixture remained white during the whole night, becoming azure only on the following morning, after the rising of the sun. I also noted that the intensity of the azure colour in the sediment increased with the growing intensity of sunlight. These results led me to repeat the experiment while excluding all action of light. To half a glass of Olmitello water I therefore added a few drops of the solution of silver in nitrous acid; and as soon as the white precipitate due to the alkali was formed, I shut the glass in a place utterly impenetrable to light. For many days the precipitate remained white; but on exposure to light it became cerulean in a few minutes. The same change was observed in a water from Calabria; for, on treating it as the Olmitello water, it also rendered blue the *luna cornea*. Also our common waters, probably charged with an alkaline earth, undergo the same change. I am aware of what recent writers have said about the reprecipitation of metals by solar heat; nor do I ignore how with a burning lens the illustrious Priestley, heating inflammable air in contact with minium inside a glass vessel, was able to reprecipitate lead. But my experiment will serve at least to correct the error of those who analysed the Olmitello water, believing it to contain a phlogisticated alkali, similar to the Prussian alkali; and secondly, this experiment gives us a sure proof of the energy of solar rays in reprecipitating metals. These observations, although having a distant connection with the movements and irritability of vegetables, are also worthy of record in connection with other considerations which I hope shortly to publish."

Cirillo's essay was published, in its first edition, in 1789, so that the Olmitello experiments must have been made shortly before that year and after Andria's last publication of 1783. As is well known, the experiments of Scheele (not counting the earlier, forgotten experiments of J. H. Schultze in 1727) were published in Swedish in 1777; a French translation, by Baron Dietrich, of Scheele's treatise on Air and Fire appeared in Paris in 1781.² Scheele's experiments on *luna cornea* and other silver salts are quoted and commented upon by Felice Fontana in 1783.³ Senebier, in 1782, had been experimenting on the rapidity of action of different lights upon silver chloride.⁴ Cirillo therefore ought to have been acquainted with Scheele's experiments, although there is every reason to believe that he, generally so precise in recording previous work, was not aware that, only a few years before his own experiments with the Ischia water, the action of light upon silver salts, and especially

¹ Michele Rosa, "Lettere fisiologiche," 3da ed.; "Colle osservazioni ed Esperienze sul Sangue fluido e rappreso dal Signor Pietro Moscati," 2 vols. (Napoli, 1788).

This edition is dedicated to Domenico Cirillo. The experiments of Rosa were first published in Vicenza in 1782. The experiments of Lavoisier on animal respiration, first published in Paris in 1777, appeared in Italian in 1781 (Opuscoli Scelti iv. 1781, p. 135).

² Giuseppe Olivi, "Delle Conserve irritable, e del loro movimento di progressione verso la luce, Essame chimico" (*Mem. di Mat. e Fisica della Soc. Italiana*, tom. vi. Venezia, 1793).

¹ Nicola Andria, "Trattato delle acque minerali," 2da ediz. (Napoli, 1783).

² Ch. Giul. Scheele, "Traité chimique de l'air et du feu." Trad. Dietrich. (Paris, 1781).

³ Felice Fontana, "Sopra la Luce, la Fiamma, il Calore, e il Flogisto" (Opuscoli Scelti vi. 1783).

⁴ Jean Senebier, "Mém. physico-chymiques sur l'influence de la Lumière Solaire, pour modifier les êtres des trois règnes de la Nature" (Genève, 1782).

the action of the more refractive rays of the spectrum, had been demonstrated and studied by the highest chemical investigator of the time, who had died in 1786. Cirillo's observations are, however, worth recording, because they were connected in his mind with the action of sunlight in causing movements and irritability in vegetable organs.

Other workers in those days were investigating in Italy the chemical action of light; and their experiments, like those of Cirillo, are also generally forgotten. In 1782, Alessandro Barca, in Padua, studied the effect of solar rays in accelerating the decomposition of phlogisticated alkali, or yellow prussiate, in the presence of acetic acid.¹ In 1794, Anton Maria Vassalli, in Turin, in comparing the action of solar and of artificial light, showed that the latter darkens silver salts, causes chlorotic leaves to become green, rouses the sleeping leaves of the sensitive plant, and acts generally in the same manner, although with less intensity, as the light of the sun. Vassalli observed a diminution in weight in the silver chloride darkened by light; he also experimented upon the effect of moonlight upon this salt, and upon vegetation.²

The "Discorsi Accademici" of Cirillo, in which are the two remarkable essays, "Del moto e della irritabilità dei vegetabili" and "La cagione della vita," were first published in 1789, and re-edited in 1799. This second edition was the last scientific labour of Cirillo, for in that same year he was overwhelmed in the political storms that swept over Naples. All the writings of Cirillo glow with warm philanthropy and patriotism, and we see in them a constant protest against the prejudices and superstitions then so high in authority in the Neapolitan kingdom. After the cowardly flight of King Ferdinand from Naples in December 1798, leaving the city a prey to royalist anarchy, Cirillo joined with the patriots who favoured the entrance of the French into Naples and the establishment of the Parthenopean Republic. Pressed by the insistence of his friends, Cirillo accepted the presidency of the legislative body, but during the brief period of his political power he occupied himself mainly in alleviating the growing misery of the people; above all, Cirillo remained the philanthropist and the physician rather than the politician. The Republic lasted a few months, sinking finally in the struggle with the brigand hordes of the Holy Faith, that through pillage and bloodshed Cardinal Ruffo led from Calabria to Naples. Cirillo was among the many who capitulated in the Castles of Naples, on condition of a free passage to a French port. The sorrowful history of what followed is well known; of how the capitulation was ruthlessly broken when Castles and prisoners were secured. All those who had held office under the Republic, or had any direct connection with its government, were condemned to death for high treason. From June 29, 1799, to September 1800, execution followed execution, until in Naples alone ninety-nine of the foremost men were put to death, besides the many—it is said 300—executed in the provinces. Domenico Cirillo was hanged on the same day as Mario Pagano and the poet Ignazio Ciaja. "For the death of these men all the city mourned," wrote Marinelli, a diarist of the time. Another botanist, Abate Nicola Pacifico, an old man of seventy, companion and fellow-worker of Cirillo, shared his fate on August 20, on the same day when the gifted Eleonora Fonseca Pimentel was delivered to the hangman.

Cirillo's house was pillaged by the mob, and his collections and books, among which was the herbarium of Imperato, were burned or dispersed. "Let the idle and ignorant know that love of humanity, zeal for science, and faithfulness to duty can only be quenched in me with my life"—thus wrote Cirillo in the days of his prosperity, little dreaming of the distant purport of his words. Nobly indeed, when oppression and ignorance prevailed, in the days of suffering and agony, Cirillo to the very last kept faith to duty and to Fatherland. ITALO GIGLIOLI.

METALLIFEROUS DEPOSITS.

A COURSE of four Cantor Lectures delivered before the Society of Arts by Mr. Bennett H. Brough, on the nature and yield of metalliferous deposits, has just been published. Descriptions are given of the principal ore deposits of the world, and the statistics of production appended furnish a clear idea of the condition of the mining industry at the present time. The

¹ Alessandro Barca, "Sulla scomposizione dell' alcali flogisticato" (Opusc. Scelti vii. 1783).

² Anton M. Vassalli, "Parallelo della Luce Solare e di quella della combustione" (Opusc. Scelti xvii. 1794, p. 106).

subject is of great importance from a commercial point of view, as will be evident from a moment's consideration of the enormous value of mineral resources. In the United Kingdom alone, the value of the minerals raised in one year has approached 80,000,000*l.*; and the vast sums representing the British capital invested in mines in all parts of the world will be readily appreciated. Last year, the number of new mining companies registered in Great Britain was 559, with a united nominal capital of 71,687,366*l.* Of these companies, 281, with a nominal capital of 37,037,057*l.*, were formed to mine and explore in British colonies and dependencies, and 157, with a nominal capital of 24,049,502*l.*, to mine in foreign countries. During the present century the mining industry has made remarkable strides. Some indication of the progress made, even during the past ten years, is afforded by a comparison of the world's output of metals in 1889 and in 1898. In round numbers, the production of the principal metals was as follows:—

	1889. Tons.	1898. Tons.	Value of out- put in 1898. £
Pig-iron ...	26,000,000	36,000,000	100,000,000
Gold ...	182	430	57,500,000
Silver ...	3,900	6,000	24,000,000
Copper...	266,000	431,000	21,750,000
Lead ...	549,000	770,000	10,000,000
Zinc ...	335,000	468,000	9,950,000
Tin ...	55,000	77,000	8,000,000
Antimony ...	11,000	28,000	1,100,000
Mercury ...	3,838	4,100	815,000
Nickel ...	1,830	6,200	725,000
Aluminium ...	70	4,000	440,000

The simplest classification of the ore deposits from which these vast outputs have been obtained, divides them into (1) beds, (2) veins, and (3) masses. This classification has proved well adapted for practical use. The more elaborate systems of classification that have from time to time been proposed are fully discussed, the classifications dealt with being those of Agricola (1555), Burat (1855), B. von Cotta (1853), Grimm (1869), J. A. Phillips (1884), A. von Groddeck (1878), F. Pošepný (1880), Sir A. Geikie (1882), H. S. Monroe (1892), H. F. Kemp (1892), H. Louis (1896), H. Hofer (1897) and G. Gürich (1899). The last-named investigator uses the mode of concentration as the basis of classification. The concentration may take place with or without a change in the state of aggregation. In the former case the passage into the solid state is from a state of vapour, from a molten state, or from a state of aqueous solution. Consequently the following classes of ore deposits are distinguished:—

I. Sublimation deposits: (a) syngenetic, in which the sublimation of the vapours takes place simultaneously with the solidification and within a solidifying magma, *e.g.* tin ore deposits; (b) epigenetic, in which crusts are formed coating fissures; (c) metagenetic, in which the constituents of a rock are dissolved by pneumatolysis and replaced by metallic substances.

II. Magmatic, or solidifying deposits: (a) syngenetic, representing the usual form of magmatic deposit as described by Vogt; (b) epigenetic, only imaginable if an apophysis of a magma within the enclosing rock consists of a metallic band; (c) metagenetic, hardly imaginable.

III. Precipitation deposits: (a) syngenetic, in which the chemical precipitation takes place simultaneously with the sedimentation, the deposit being formed simultaneously with the surrounding rock, *e.g.* seams, beds; (b) diagenetic, in which the concentration takes place in the muddy floor of a lake, *e.g.* concretionary nodules of clay iron ore; (c) epigenetic, in which the deposit is formed subsequently to the surrounding rock, *e.g.* veins, cave fillings; (d) metagenetic, in which the soluble constituents of a rock are dissolved, transported, and the metallic substance precipitated, the deposit being formed subsequently to the enclosing rock, but growing at the expense of the latter.

IV. Separation deposits: (a) residual deposits formed by chemical concentration, a soluble rock constituent, *e.g.* lime, being carried away, and a metallic substance, *e.g.* brown iron ore, remaining unaltered; (b) detrital deposits formed by mechanical concentration, *e.g.* dry placers, alluvial deposits.

In view of the apparent impossibility of definitely determining the genesis of a given deposit, it may be questioned how far it is advisable to adopt a genetic classification. Probably, however, by employing that system of classification, an observer would be induced to make a more thorough examination than if he were

required merely to define the deposit by its outward form. Any efforts to introduce improvements in mining must, however, subordinate theory to practical requirements.

In consequence of the difference of form in beds, veins and masses, various methods of working have to be employed. Underground mining is not necessary with all ore deposits. The iron ore beds of Northampton, for example, and the alluvial beds of river gravel containing gold are worked open-cast.

ferous gravel 45 feet below the water, and stacking it 24 feet above.

The gradual increase in the world's annual production of gold is shown in the accompanying diagram (Fig. 2).

The value of the world's gold production in 1898 was 57,500,000*l.*, of which the Transvaal produced 27.6 per cent., Australasia 22.5 per cent., the United States 22.1 per cent., Russia 8.8 per cent., Canada 4.8 per cent., Mexico 3 per cent.,

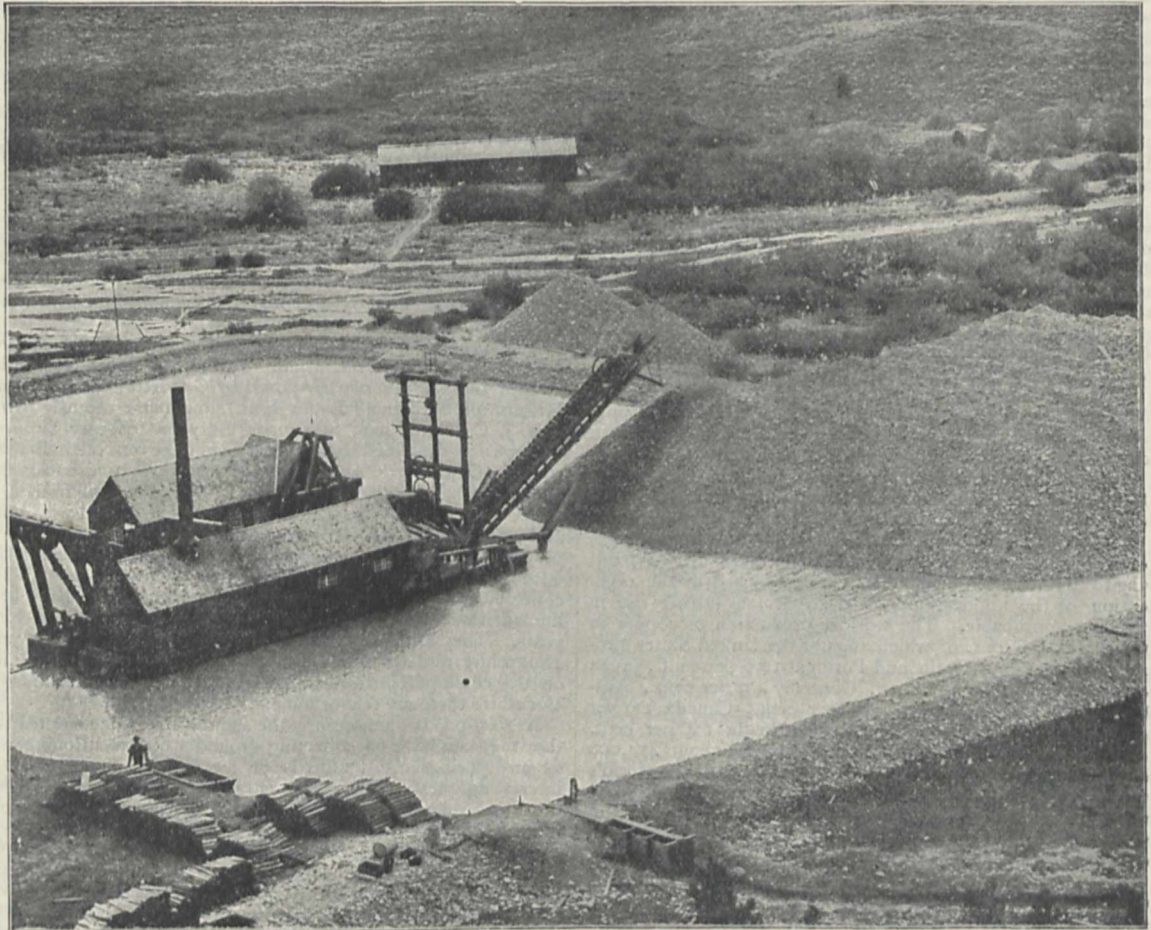


FIG. 1.—Gold Dredge at work excavating auriferous Gravel 45 feet below the Water Surface.

Of late years very successful results have been obtained by extracting auriferous gravels from the beds of rivers by dredges. The practice of dredging originated and has been brought to its present state of perfection on the Clutha river, in the province of Otago, New Zealand. Ground containing only a grain or a grain and a half of gold per cubic yard can now be worked at a profit. The remarkable yield of a dredge working at Cromwell, on the Clutha river, which cost 5,000*l.* to build and launch, and obtained more than that amount of gold within seven weeks after starting, shows how quickly the capital sunk in the industry has, in some instances, been returned. Experience in Montana, United States, shows that with a bucket-dredge 98 per cent. of the gold in the gravel is extracted. The cost of dredging when steam is employed is 4½*d.* per cubic yard, and when electricity is employed for power 2¼*d.* per cubic yard. The practice of dredging is coming into increasing use in New Zealand, Canada, California, Montana, the Republic of Colombia, and elsewhere. It represents an important advance in the working of alluvial deposits, and if the yields of gold in the future are not likely to be so sensational, they will probably be more regular than they have been in the past. The accompanying illustration (Fig. 1) shows the latest type of gold dredge made by the Risdon Iron-works of San Francisco. As represented, it is excavating auri-

ferous gravel 45 feet below the water, and stacking it 24 feet above. The gradual increase in the world's annual production of gold is shown in the accompanying diagram (Fig. 2). The value of the world's gold production in 1898 was 57,500,000*l.*, of which the Transvaal produced 27.6 per cent., Australasia 22.5 per cent., the United States 22.1 per cent., Russia 8.8 per cent., Canada 4.8 per cent., Mexico 3 per cent.,

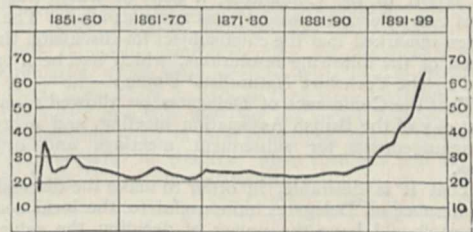


FIG. 2.—World's gold production (in millions of pounds).

ferous gravel 45 feet below the water, and stacking it 24 feet above. From the present condition and prospects of the more important mines in Africa, Australasia, the United States, Canada and other countries, it seems that there are no signs of falling off in the world's gold

production. In the case of silver, of which the world in 1898 produced 165,000,000 ounces, Mexico produced 34.4 per cent., the United States 33 per cent., and Australasia 7.3 per cent. Less than half the world's supply was obtained from silver ores. The remainder was obtained from the metallurgical treatment of other ores in which silver was an accessory constituent. Since those ores would continue to be mined for the other metals they contained, a steady supply of silver was assured, whilst a slight rise in the price of silver would enable many deposits of true silver ores now untouched to be worked.

In a paper read before the Society of Arts in 1854, Mr. J. K. Blackwell stated that the world's production of pig iron then amounted to 6,000,000 tons. Of that quantity the United Kingdom produced 50 per cent., France 12.5 per cent., the United States 12.5 per cent., and Germany 6.6 per cent. In 1898 the world's production had risen to 35,741,000 tons, of which the United States produced 32.7 per cent., the United Kingdom 24.1 per cent., Germany 20.6 per cent., and France 7.1 per cent. The relative position of the different countries from a mining point of view is better shown by the statistics of iron ore production. The world's production in 1898 was 73,670,000 tons, of which the United States produced 26.2 per cent., Germany 21.6 per cent., the United Kingdom 19.3 per cent., Spain 9.7 per cent., France 6.2 per cent., Russia 5.6 per cent., Austria-Hungary 4.5 per cent., and Sweden 3.1 per cent. The more important iron ore deposits now worked are at the mines of Lake Superior, Bilbao, Southern Spain, the Ural, Styria, Dannemora, Grängesberg and Gellivare.

With regard to copper, the rapid decadence of British copper mining was owing to copper in the Cornish mines having given place to tin as greater depths were reached, and to these great depths and the quantity of water encountered rendering competition with the American and Spanish deposits impossible. There are, however, large areas unexplored, and many mines worth re-opening should the price of copper rise, and should the disadvantages experienced in Great Britain make themselves felt abroad. Owing to the increased demand for copper caused by the rapid extension of the applications of electricity, a further rise in price is not improbable. The world's production of copper in 1898 was 424,126 tons, of which amount the United States produced 55.1 per cent., Spain and Portugal 12.6 per cent., Japan 5.9 per cent., Chili 5.8 per cent., Germany 4.9 per cent., Australasia 4.2 per cent., Mexico 2.5 per cent., Canada 1.9 per cent., Cape Colony 1.6 per cent., and Russia 1.4 per cent. Last year the world's copper production was about 474,000 tons. The Anaconda Mine produced 11 per cent. of the world's output, and among other important copper mines are those in Arizona, in the Lake Superior district, in the South of Spain (Rio Tinto and Tharsis), and Portugal (San Domingos), in South America, in Japan; at Mansfeld, and at the Rammelsberg, in Germany; at Falun, in Sweden; and in Australasia (Mount Lyell, Tasmania; Moonta and Walleroo, South Australia; and Great Cobar, New South Wales).

CONFERENCE OF DELEGATES OF CORRESPONDING SOCIETIES OF THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

THE first meeting of the Conference took place at Bradford on Thursday, September 6.

The report of the Committee, a copy of which was in the hands of every delegate present, was taken as read. The chairman then remarked that the chief subject for discussion that day consisted of the following resolutions, which had been brought forward by the Yorkshire Naturalists' Union:—

(1) That the Conference of Delegates be allowed to meet on the first day of the British Association meeting, and make their own arrangements for subsequent meetings and order of business.

(2) That it is desirable, in order to make the discussions of the Conference of Delegates more useful to the local societies, that they should have the power of deciding the subjects for discussion at the meetings of the Conference, and it is suggested, therefore, that a circular be sent by the Committee every year to each of the corresponding societies asking them to send a list of subjects for discussion (not more than two or three) at the forthcoming meetings. The Committee then to send to the corresponding societies a schedule containing the titles of all the subjects proposed for discussion, asking each society to mark

such of these subjects as it deems most desirable to discuss at the Conference meetings. On receipt of this information the Committee will then arrange the list of subjects in order of precedence as indicated by the support given to each subject by the societies; and a copy of this should be sent to the delegates or Societies as an agenda paper before the first meeting of the delegates.

After a long discussion, it was resolved that the meetings of the Conference be held on Thursday and Tuesday, as heretofore.

Copyright.—Mr. Walton Brown remarked that some time ago Lord Monkswell had introduced a Bill into Parliament dealing with copyright, but so far as scientific societies were concerned the Bill ignored some important points. There was no provision that a society should have any copyright in the publication of its own transactions. He believed that societies could claim copyright if they paid their contributors. He thought that the Conference should ask the Corresponding Societies Committee to take steps to have an amendment proposed recognising the copyright of scientific societies in their publications.

Prof. Henry Louis pointed out that the British Association expressly disclaimed copyright for themselves; and the Rev. J. O. Bevan urged that a special case should be prepared and submitted to counsel for a legal opinion. Mr. Walton Brown's views were unanimously accepted by the meeting, which then adjourned.

At the second meeting of the Conference an address on dew-ponds was given by Prof. Miall. In the first place, Prof. Miall noticed the mention of dew-ponds by Gilbert White ("Natural History of Selborne," Letter lxxi.), and more recently by the Rev. J. C. Clutterbuck in a prize essay on "Water Supply." Both writers described them as existing on the tops of chalk hills, and Mr. Clutterbuck says that at the selected spot an excavation is made from 30 to 40 feet or more in diameter, and from 4 to 6 feet deep. The bottom is covered with clay mixed with lime, and a layer of broken chalk is placed over the clay with lime to prevent injury to this impermeable lining. Water is then introduced by artificial means. If there is a fall of snow this is collected and piled in the pond. Ponds so made have been known never to become dry during periods of twenty or thirty years. They are most common on the chalk hills of Sussex and Hampshire, and are also found in Berkshire and Wiltshire. But on the chalk of Hertfordshire, Bedfordshire, Lincolnshire and Yorkshire there are few or none.

As dew-ponds often occupy the summit of a ridge so precisely that they can have no collecting ground worth mentioning, and as any springs are hundreds of feet below, it becomes an interesting question why they retain more or less water when the low-level ponds of the same district have become dry, though they supply water for large flocks of sheep.

Prof. Miall then reviewed the evidence bearing upon the question whether these ponds are mainly dew-ponds or rain-ponds, and quoted the experience of Mr. Clement Reid, who found that at the end of a long drought the best dew-ponds were sheltered on the south-west side by an overhanging tree, or the hollow was sufficiently deep for the south bank to cut off much of the sun. The depth or shallowness of the water did not appear to make so great a difference as might be expected.

It was, however, evident that many additional observations were necessary before this question could be settled. It was desirable that the temperature of the water of the pond at various depths, as taken hourly through a summer night, should be noted, and that many other thermometrical observations should be made. He concluded by asking that residents in the south-eastern counties would investigate the matter.

Mr. Clement Reid had been working for some years in a country where dew-ponds were abundant, but did not think they were formed in the scientific manner pretended by their makers. In times of drought some dried up and others did not, the fittest surviving. Farmers were continually making new ones, and sometimes, by accident, hit on a satisfactory site. It was unfortunate that they were almost entirely without meteorological observations on the high ground where dew-ponds might be seen.

Mr. Hopkinson noted the difficulty of ascertaining the amount of water contributed to the pond by dew. A distinction must be drawn between dew and mist. There were scarcely any rain gauges on the high ground where dew-ponds existed, though probably more rain fell there than in the valleys. He did not know of any dew-ponds in Hertfordshire. Mr. J. Brown and Mr. W. Gray stated that there were no dew-ponds in Ire-

land. Mr. W. M. Watts considered that the amount of dew could hardly exceed $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches per annum, and Mr. Barrowman was not aware of the existence of dew-ponds in Scotland. Mr. G. P. Hughes said that dew-ponds were unknown in his district (Berwickshire). He thought they might prove useful in Australia and South Africa, dry countries where the dews were heavy. The Rev. E. P. Knubley noted their existence in Wiltshire, and Prof. H. Louis thought that the exact composition of the water in these ponds was one of the essential points to be examined. Prof. Potter noted the existence of ponds in Warwickshire, Suffolk and the South of Portugal, which he thought might prove analogous to dew-ponds.

Prof. Miall referred to various points which had been raised in the discussion. Ponds to be classed with dew-ponds must not be fed by springs or surface drainage. He had hitherto found that ponds in the Midland counties, supposed to be analogous to dew-ponds, were not really so. He hoped that the corresponding societies would take up the subject.

Section C.—Mr. Monckton, representing Section C, drew attention to the labours of two committees wishing to obtain the co-operation of the corresponding societies in their work, the Geological Photographs Committee and the Erratic Blocks Committee. The secretary of the Geological Photographs Committee was Prof. W. W. Watts; the secretary of the Erratic Blocks Committee Prof. P. F. Kendall.

Section D.—The Rev. E. P. Knubley, representing Section D, was anxious that the corresponding societies should go on observing the migration of birds; also the food-supply of birds and the life-histories of insects.

Section H.—Mr. E. Sidney Hartland, representing Section H, brought before the Conference the work of the Anthropological Photographs Committee. That committee wished to collect photographs of objects of anthropological interest which were now scattered over the country, and almost unknown outside their own localities. They wanted photographs of prehistoric stone monuments and implements, of primitive pottery and of objects connected with local superstitions. The collection would be placed in the rooms of the Anthropological Institute. The secretary of the committee was Mr. J. L. Myres.

The Rev. J. O. Bevan urged the committees of the corresponding societies to lay before their members the desirability of a systematic survey of their counties with respect to their ethnography and ethnology, archaeology, folklore, meteorology, botany, ornithology, &c. This kind of work was being done in part at various places. The committee of the British Association which had been concerned with ethnography and ethnology had been dissolved at the Dover meeting. He hoped that the local societies would take up the work, and inform the Corresponding Societies Committee what was being done.

After a few remarks from Mr. Hembry, who suggested that at future meetings sectional matters should be taken before the reading of a paper on any special subject, the meeting came to an end.

UNIVERSITY AND EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

CAMBRIDGE.—The Vice-Chancellor announces that Mr. W. Astor has contributed the sum of £10,000 to the University Benefaction Fund.

Mr. F. G. Kenyon, assistant keeper of the manuscripts in the British Museum, has been appointed Sanders Reader in bibliography.

Dr. Haddon, F.R.S., has been appointed University lecturer in ethnology, and Mr. J. J. Lister, F.R.S., to be demonstrator of comparative anatomy.

A University lectureship in experimental physics is vacant by the resignation of Prof. Wilberforce. Applications should reach the Vice-Chancellor by Saturday, November 3.

The portrait of Charles Darwin, now in the Philosophical Library, has been lent for the exhibition of the works of Sir W. B. Richmond, to be held in the New Gallery.

Mr. J. A. McClelland, M.A., has been appointed to the chair of Natural Philosophy in the University College, Dublin, which was rendered vacant by the death of Prof. Preston. Mr. McClelland is a native of North Ireland, and studied physics under Prof. Anderson at Queen's College, Galway. After

graduating M.A., he went to Cambridge and continued his studies in physics under Prof. J. J. Thomson, obtaining the B.A. (Research) degree for his original work in the Cavendish Laboratory. In Ireland Mr. McClelland gained an "1837 Exhibition" Science Scholarship, and later a Junior Fellowship of the Royal University of Ireland.

A NOTEWORTHY announcement in the Calendar of University College, Bristol, is that a clinical and bacteriological research-laboratory has been established at the college, under the direction of Prof. A. F. Stanley Kent. The value of such a laboratory in a port like that of Bristol cannot be over-estimated, and the City authorities should show their appreciation of it in a practical way. The laboratory will not only provide a means of obtaining trustworthy information and reports upon pathological material, but will also give medical men an opportunity of carrying out bacteriological investigations. Should plague ever appear in Bristol, as it has done at Glasgow, the City authorities will know the value of the laboratory now established at their University College. At present the college does not receive nearly so much local support as some of the other provincial colleges, and there seems to be little hope that there will ever be a West of England University with its centre at Bristol, analogous to the University of Birmingham.

IN the course of her able and suggestive address at the opening of the Passmore Edwards Museum of the Essex Field Club on October 18, the Countess of Warwick made the following statement with respect to local museums:—"I am convinced that museums are destined to play such an important part in education in the future that no town of any importance will be able to be without an institution of this kind. But one of the chief reasons why this part of the club's work has not hitherto been practically realised is because the establishment and maintenance of a museum requires considerable financial resources. However zealous the members of a county natural history society may be, their aims and objects rarely rouse popular enthusiasm to the extent of raising an adequate fund for such purposes. In some counties private munificence had compensated for the lack of public interest. In other cases—and I am glad to be able to quote as an example another Essex town, Colchester—an enlightened Town Council has enabled a local museum to find an appropriate home. And again, in other instances, some of the County Councils have given financial aid from the Technical Instruction Grant, quite a legitimate expenditure as it appears to me, and, if I may express a personal opinion, a most valuable way of assisting in the spread of that knowledge which is the core and essence of all sound scientific education—a knowledge of nature at first hand as distinguished from the knowledge imparted through books or didactically taught in the class-room. But I am afraid that we as a nation have hardly yet risen to that high-water mark of scientific culture which should characterise a great civilisation. I do not mean to imply that we are lacking in scientific ability, that we are devoid of originality, or that we have failed to contribute our share of knowledge to the sum total of human progress. But I fear that the *spirit of modern science* has not sunk into the public mind—it has not permeated the rank and file to that extent which is required by the age in which we live, the century of science *par excellence*. Our purses are ever open, and have always been opened, in the names of charity and philanthropy, religious endowment and missionary enterprise, political organisation and popular sports. But science, upon which the national welfare and our position in the scale of nations ultimately depends, has to go begging for her tens, while thousands are forthcoming for these other objects." These remarks, which were received with loud applause by the audience at West Ham to whom they were addressed, coming from the mouth of a lady who has set such a brilliant example by her pioneering work in rural education, should be productive of good throughout the country. Most cordially will our readers endorse Lady Warwick's sentiments.

SCIENTIFIC SERIALS.

THE *Journal of the Royal Microscopical Society* for October contains a further instalment of Mr. F. W. Millett's paper on recent Foraminifera of the Malay Archipelago; a short article on a new projection eye-piece and an improved polarising eye-piece, by Mr. E. B. Stringer; and the conclusion of Mr. E. M. Nelson's note on the microscopes of Powell, Ross, and Smith, the present instalment dealing with the instruments of

Smith and Beck (now Messrs. R. and J. Beck, Ltd.). In the summary of recent researches in microscopy is an interesting description (with illustrations) of a microscope, with its oculars and objectives, used by Prof. Amici, the discoverer in 1841 of the part played by the pollen-tube in the fertilisation of flowering plants. Nothing could more forcibly illustrate the enormous advance made during the past sixty years in the manufacture of the microscope and its appliances.

Bollettino della Società Sismologica Italiana, vol. vi. 1900-1901, Nos. 2 and 3.—On the necessity and on the choice of comparable seismic apparatus, by A. Cancani (see pp. 395-6).—On the velocity of propagation of the Emilian earthquake of March 4, 1898, by G. Agamennone. The velocity is found to be about 3 km. per second, and it does not vary perceptibly with the distance from the epicentre.—Contribution to the study of the great Neapolitan earthquake of December 1857, by L. Antonio. Contains a copy of a letter written from Caggiano, close to the position assigned by Mallet to the epicentre.—New type of seismometrograph, by G. Agamennone. A reprint of a paper describing an instrument specially designed for registering the very small movements of the ground.—Notices of earthquakes recorded in Italy (March 21 to June 5, 1899), by A. Cancani, the most important being the Greek earthquakes of April 6, 15 and May 3, the Dalmatian earthquake of May 15, and distant earthquakes on March 3, April 2, 12, 13, 16, May 8 and June 5.

SOCIETIES AND ACADEMIES.

LONDON.

Royal Society, June 21.—“On the Capacity for Heat of Water between the Freezing and Boiling Points, together with a Determination of the Mechanical Equivalent of Heat in Terms of the International Electrical Units.” Experiments by the Continuous-flow Method of Calorimetry performed in the Macdonald Physical Laboratory of McGill University, Montreal. By Howard Turner Barnes, M.A.Sc., D.Sc., Joule Student. Communicated by Prof. H. L. Callendar, F.R.S.

At the Toronto meeting of the British Association in 1897, a new method of calorimetry was proposed by Prof. Callendar and the author for the determination of the specific heat of a liquid in terms of the international electrical units. At the Dover meeting in September, 1899, some of the general results obtained with the method for water over a part of the range between 0° and 100° were communicated, with a general discussion of the bearing of the experiments to the work of other observers. In the present paper the author gives a summary of the complete work, in the case of water, to determine the thermal capacity at different temperatures between the freezing and boiling points.

Theory of the Method.

If a continuous flow of liquid in a tube be made to carry off a continuously supplied quantity of heat EC, in electrical units, then after all temperature conditions have become steady

$$J_s Q (\theta_1 - \theta_0) t + (\theta_1 - \theta_0) h t = EC t$$

where

- J = mechanical equivalent of heat,
- Q = flow of liquid per second,
- s = the specific heat of the liquid,
- θ_0 = the temperature of the liquid flowing into the tube,
- θ_1 = the temperature of the liquid flowing out of the tube,
- h = the heat loss per degree rise of temperature from the liquid flowing through,
- t = the time of flow.

In the case of water, E represents the E.M.F. across an electrical heating conductor in the tube, and C the current flowing. In this case, which is treated of entirely in the present paper, Js is replaced by 4.2 (1 ± δ) where δ is a small quantity to be determined, and varies with the thermal capacity of the water, which is not exactly equal to 4.2 joules at all points of the range.

Substituting in the general equation, rearranging terms, and dividing through by t, the equation is given in the following form:—

$$4.2 Q (\theta_1 - \theta_0) \delta + (\theta_1 - \theta_0) h = EC - 4.2 Q (\theta_1 - \theta_0),$$

which is termed the general difference equation of the method. The two terms δ and h may be determined by using two values of Q, giving two equations of the form

$$4.2 Q_1 (\theta_1 + \theta_0) \delta_1 + (\theta_1 - \theta_0) h = E_1 C_1 - 4.2 Q_1 (\theta_1 - \theta_0)$$

$$4.2 Q_2 (\theta_2 + \theta_0) \delta_2 + (\theta_2 - \theta_0) h = E_2 C_2 - 4.2 Q_2 (\theta_2 - \theta_0).$$

For the same value of θ_0 , if the electrical supply for the two flows is regulated so that $\theta_1 = \theta_2$, then $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = \delta$, and by eliminating h,

$$\delta = \frac{(E_1 C_1 - 4.2 Q_1 (\theta_1 - \theta_0)) - (E_2 C_2 - 4.2 Q_2 (\theta_1 - \theta_0))}{4.2 (Q_1 - Q_2) (\theta_1 - \theta_0)}$$

which corresponds to the mean temperature

$$\theta_0 + \frac{\theta_1 - \theta_0}{2},$$

where $(\theta_1 - \theta_0)$ is not too great.

In the present method the flow tube is of glass, about 2 mm. in diameter, connected to two larger tubes forming an inflow and an outflow tube, in which the temperature of the water is read, by a differential pair of platinum thermometers, before and after being heated by the electric current. A glass vacuum jacket surrounds the fine flow tube and a part of the inflow and outflow tubes, to reduce the heat loss as much as possible. A copper water jacket encloses the inflow tubes and vacuum jacket, in order to maintain the glass surface of the vacuum jacket always at a constant temperature equal to the inflowing water. The heat loss from the water is then the loss due to radiation from the flow tube through the vacuum jacket, and conduction from the ends of the flow tubes.

In testing the accuracy of the method, the dependence of the heat loss on the rise of temperature was found, and the dependence of the heat loss on the flow.

The results with different calorimeters and with different rises of temperature are given in the following table:—

Summary of the Specific Heat of Water from Smoothed Curve.

Temperature C.	δ	J.
5	+0.00250	4.2105
10	-0.00050	4.1979
15	-0.00250	4.1895
20	-0.00385	4.1838
25	-0.00474	4.1801
30	-0.00523	4.1780
35	-0.00545	4.1773
40	-0.00545	4.1773
45	-0.00520	4.1782
50	-0.00480	4.1798
55	-0.00430	4.1819
60	-0.00370	4.1845
65	-0.00310	4.1870
70	-0.00245	4.1898
75	-0.00180	4.1925
80	-0.00114	4.1954
85	-0.00043	4.1982
90	+0.00025	4.2010
95	+0.00090	4.2038

Mean value.....4.18876

The values of δ represent the specific heat of water in terms of a thermal unit equal to 4.2000 joules, which occurs at 9° C. It is more suitable to select a thermal unit at a more convenient part of the scale. The mean value of the mechanical equivalent of heat from these measurements over the whole range is 4.18876 joules, which is very nearly equal to the value at 16° C., which is 4.1883 joules. It seems desirable to select a unit at a temperature which, if at the same time at a convenient part of the scale, may be equal to the mean value over the whole scale. The author has in consequence adopted a unit at 16° C., and has expressed the specific heat of water in terms of this unit.

Two formulæ can be fitted very accurately over the scale. Between 5° and 37.5° C. the following expression in terms of a thermal unit at 16° is found to read,

$$S = 0.99733 + 0.0000035 (37.5 - t)^2 + 0.00000010 (37.5 - t)^3.$$

The same formula holds between 37.5° and 55° by simply considering all values of the cubical term positive. Above 55° the simple formula

$$S = 0.99850 + 0.000120(t - 55) + 0.00000025(t - 55)^2$$

holds with great accuracy.

Physical Society, October 26.—Dr. Lodge, President, in the chair.—The chairman read a letter from Prof. Cleveland Abbe, of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, stating that the *Monthly Weather Review* would be sent regularly to any member of the Physical Society expressing a wish to receive

it. On the other hand, the Chief of the Weather Bureau would at any time be glad to receive communications referring to the physics of the atmosphere.—Dr. Shelford Bidwell then exhibited some experiments illustrating phenomena of vision. The first phenomenon illustrated was that known as "Recurrent Vision." A vacuum tube, illuminated by an induction coil, was made to rotate about a horizontal axis, and was seen to be followed, at an angle of about forty degrees, by a feebly luminous reproduction of itself. A spot of white light, projected upon a screen, and caused to move slowly in a circular path, was also followed by a less luminous spot. The same effect was shown by spots of green and yellow light, but in the case of red light no ghost was visible. The phenomena of recurrent vision are due principally, if not entirely, to the action of violet nerve fibres. The next experiments related to the non-achromatism of the eye. The lenses of the eye do not constitute an achromatic combination, although under ordinary conditions a bright object is not surrounded by fringes of colour. The effects of chromatic aberration are disguised by the luminous haze which surrounds the object, produced by a defect in the eye regarded as an optical instrument. A six-rayed star, formed by cutting a hole in an opaque screen, was illuminated by a gauze-covered condenser containing an incandescent lamp. The star was fairly clearly defined, and there were no fringes. More attentive observation showed a luminous haze. This haze is formed in consequence of the cellular structure of the eye, and the brightest rays—orange, yellow and green—are chiefly instrumental in forming it. If, therefore, these rays are obstructed, the conditions are more favourable for the observation of chromatic aberration. The rays were consequently cut off by means of coloured glasses, and the general hue of the star was purple; to some it appeared bordered with dark blue, while to others (long-sighted) it appeared bordered with red. Two oblong patches, one red and the other blue-violet, and of approximately the same intensity, were then produced side by side upon a screen. An observer with very good eyesight was able, at a distance of ten feet, to focus the patches alternately with perfect distinctness. In general, the blue patch was said to be more or less blurred. With an achromatic eye it should be possible to focus both together. Dr. Bidwell then showed some lantern slides, illustrating the complex form seen when viewing a small luminous spot through a gauze-covered lens placed so as not to be in exact focus. Some experiments were performed illustrating the principle of the colour top. When a bright image is formed on the retina after a period of darkness it has, in general, a red border which lasts for a fraction of a second. A dark patch suddenly formed on a bright ground has a blue border which lasts for a similar time. These effects were attributed by Dr. Bidwell to a sympathetic action of the red nerve fibres. When the various nerve fibres occupying a limited portion of the retina are stimulated by ordinary white or yellow light, the immediately surrounding red nerve fibres are for a short period excited sympathetically, while the violet or blue and green fibres are not so excited, or in a much less degree. Again, when light is suddenly cut off from a patch in a bright field, there occurs a sympathetic insensitive reaction in the red fibres just outside the darkened patch, in virtue of which they cease for a moment to respond to the luminous stimulus; the green and violet fibres by continuing to respond uninterruptedly give rise to the sensation of a blue border. By a simple experiment it was shown that the explanation of the colour top, depending upon changes in the convexity of the eye and non-achromatism, was untenable. By the use of a strong light it is possible to get negative after-images after looking at a brightly-coloured object. These images are complementary in colour to the object, and are formed even if the object is only viewed for a fraction of a second. By means of proper illumination and a disc rotating at the proper speed, a red wafer was so arranged that, upon looking at it, it was impossible to recognise the wafer itself, but only the continuous green after-image. The Chairman expressed his interest in the last experiment, in which it was possible to see the negative after-image of an object and not the object itself. Prof. S. P. Thompson said these experiments threw a doubt on some of the accepted notions about the properties of the eye. Dr. Bidwell asks us to believe that the yellow haze is due to a cellular structure in the eye. Is there such a structure? Can it be observed with a microscope? And do its meshes correspond in magnitude with those necessary to produce the effects? By diminishing the size of the pupil the haze is diminished and the sharpness of the image

is increased. The effects seem to be due to ordinary aberration. Prof. Thompson said that the achromatism of the eye was simply shown by covering half the object-glass of a telescope and viewing a bright object with it. The object then seems bordered with coloured fringes. Mr. Blakesley, referring to the colour patches used by Dr. Bidwell, pointed out that although the patches were the same distance from the lens, yet they did not possess the same magnification. The last experiment shown did away with the theory of persistence of vision, because the space between the object and the negative after-image was evidently not illuminated. Mr. Trotter asked if red and green were the only colours which gave complementary negative after-images. Dr. Bidwell, in reply, said the effect was obtainable throughout the length of the spectrum.—A paper on the concentration at the electrodes in a solution, with special reference to the liberation of hydrogen by electrolysis of a mixture of copper sulphate and sulphuric acid, was read by Dr. H. J. S. Sand. In this paper an equation has been derived for calculating the concentration at the electrode of a solution of a single salt from which the metal is being deposited under the conditions (1) that the solution is contained in a cylindrical vessel bounded by the electrodes, (2) that no convection-currents occur, and (3) that the diffusion of the salt obeys Fick's law, and its transport values are constant. This formula can be made the basis for roughly determining diffusion coefficients. In the case of mixtures, it is possible to arrive at limits for the concentration, and it has been experimentally proved that hydrogen always appears at the electrode of an acid solution of copper sulphate, in which no currents of liquid are taking place, between the limits of time for the concentration to go down to zero. The time which it takes for the hydrogen to appear can be calculated from an empirical formula, which is similar in form to the one used for a single salt. The great part played by convection-currents in determining the ratio of the two constituents given off at the electrode of an acid copper-sulphate solution, has been shown by proving experimentally that artificial stirring causes hydrogen to disappear altogether in cases where it would otherwise have presented over sixty per cent. of the equivalents carrying the current from the solution to the electrode. The Chairman drew attention to the fact that no hydrogen was liberated until all the copper had gone, and said the formula for the concentration might be used again in further investigations. Dr. Donnan asked if the time at which hydrogen was liberated had been taken as the time at which hydrogen actually made its appearance in the form of bubbles, or whether any allowance had been made for saturation. Dr. Sand said the time was taken up to the appearance of bubbles.—A paper by Dr. R. A. Lehfeldt on electromotive force and osmotic pressure was postponed until the next meeting. The meeting then adjourned until November 9.

PARIS.

Academy of Sciences, October 22.—M. Maurice Lévy in the chair.—On the convergence of meridians, by M. Hatt.—Diagnosis of gaseous supersaturation in cases of a physical order and chemical order, by M. Berthelot. A description is given of attempts made to distinguish between these two classes of phenomena by means of the calorimeter, the reactions studied being the decomposition of dilute solutions of hydrogen peroxide by addition of platinum black or of potassium permanganate. From experiments with the latter reagent, the conclusion is drawn that the considerable quantities of oxygen held in solution are held in the state of an unstable chemical compound.—The origin of atmospheric hydrogen, by M. Armand Gautier. It has been shown in previous papers that air normally contains about '02 per cent. of free hydrogen. It has been shown that, besides being a normal product of some putrefactive fermentations, hydrogen is given off by many volcanoes, and also escapes from many mineral springs. It is found that certain granites treated *in vacuo* with phosphoric acid give about from three to four times their volume of free hydrogen. Since ammonia is always produced at the same time, the surmise is put forward that nitride of iron, Fe_3N_2 , is the source of these two gases. This nitride has not been isolated from these granites, but iron nitrides have been found in the crystalline deposits of the lava fissures of Etna by Silvestri.—Observations on the development of the Onychophoræ, by M. E. L. Bouvier. The species, *Peripatopsis Sedgwicki*, is distinguished from other species of the same genus by the nutritive blastodermic vesicle on the head of its embryos, and by the different stages of the embryo found in the same female,

These facts have already been shortly noticed, but fuller details are given in the present paper.—On the topographical correction of pendulum observations, by M. J. Callet. The method suggested has been worked out for two stations, La Bérarde and Lautaret, situated in the centre of the Alps. The application of the corrections is tedious and lengthy, but the errors of the results obtained are of the same order as those inherent in the pendulum observations themselves under favourable conditions.—Observations of the Perseids, made at Athens, by M. D. Eginitis. The observations were carried out between August 5 and August 12. The meteors were of a reddish-yellow colour, of about the 5th magnitude, and possessed a large number of radiant points.—First results of researches on the recognition of the solar corona at other times than during a total eclipse by means of the calorific rays, by M. H. Deslandres. The possibility of detecting the corona with the aid of a thermo-couple having been proved during the recent total eclipse, daily observations with the same apparatus have since then been carried out at Meudon. The results, although incomplete, show that the presence of the corona can be clearly detected under ordinary conditions in this way. The observations will be continued with more sensitive apparatus.—On the convergence of the coefficients in the development of the perturbation function, by M. A. Féraud.—On the intrinsic equations of motion of a wire, and the calculation of its tension, by M. G. Floquet.—On orthogonal systems admitting a continuous group of transformations of Combescure, by M. D. Th. Egorou.—Index of refraction of bromine, by M. Ch. Rivière. The index of refraction of carefully purified bromine has been determined for temperatures between 10° and 25° for wave-lengths between 790.9 $\mu\mu$ and 592.5 $\mu\mu$, and show that bromine has very great dispersive power, that for rays between A and D at 20° being .037, compared with .030 for carbon bisulphide.—The law of moduli. Thermochemical moduli, by M. A. Ponsot.—On the ammoniacal arseniates of cobalt, by M. O. Ducru. The existence of three distinct salts is indicated, which can be distinguished by the pressures at which ammonia commences to be given off.—On a general method of preparation of mixed carbonates of phenols and alcohols, and on the properties of some of these esters, by M. E. Barral. Of the various methods proposed for the preparation of these mixed esters, the best results are obtained by the action of carbonyl chloride upon a solution of the phenol in alcoholic potash or soda, the reagents being all employed in molecular proportions.—Stereochemistry of nitrogen. The stereoisomeric hydrazones of ethyl pyruvate, by M. L. J. Simon. The two isomeric hydrazones are obtained simultaneously, but in unequal quantities. They differ considerably in melting points and solubilities.—Acetals of monovalent alcohols, by M. Marcel Delépine. A thermochemical paper.—On direct nitration in the fatty series, by MM. L. Boauveault and Wahl.—Partial synthesis of laudanone, by MM. Amé Pictet and B. Athanesesco.—On the pollinisation of cleistogamous flowers, by M. Leclerc du Sablon.

DIARY OF SOCIETIES.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 1.

CHEMICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—Dehydrohomocamphoric Acid and its Oxidation Products: Arthur Lapworth.—Derivatives of Ethyl α -methyl- β -phenyl-yanglurate: W. Carter and W. Trevor Lawrence.—The Nitration of Acetamino- α -phenylacetate (diacetyl- α -aminophenol)—a Correction: R. Meldola, F.R.S., and Elkan Wechsler.—Rhamnazin and Rhamnetin: A. G. Perkin and J. R. Allison.—(1) Luteolin, Part III.; (2) Genistein, Part II.: A. G. Perkin and L. H. Horsfall.—Colouring Matter of the Flowers of *Delphinium consolida*: A. G. Perkin and E. J. Wilkinson.—The Action of Alkali on the Nitro-compounds of the Paraffin Series Part II.: Wyndham R. Dunstan, F.R.S., and Ernest Goulding.—Hexachlorides of Benzotrile, Benzamide and Benzoic Acid: F. E. Matthews.—The Influence of Solvents on the Rotation of Optically-active Compounds, Part I.: T. S. Patterson.—Note on Gallinek's Amidomethylnaphthimidazole: R. Meldola, F.R.S., and F. H. Streetfield.—The Action of Heat on Ethyl-Sulphuric Acid: W. Ramsay and G. Rudolf.—The Amount of Chlorine in Rain-water collected at Cirencester: Edward Kinch.

RÖNTGEN SOCIETY, at 8.—Presidential Address: Dr. J. B. Macintyre.

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 2.

GEOLOGISTS' ASSOCIATION, at 8.—Conversazione, with Exhibits of Objects and Photographs.

MONDAY, NOVEMBER 5.

SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY, at 8.—Preliminary Examination of Applications for Patents: W. Lloyd Wise.—The Early Manufacture of Sulphuric and Nitric Acids: Oscar Guttman.

TUESDAY, NOVEMBER 6.

INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS, at 8.—Address by the President, Mr. James Mansergh, and presentation of medals and prizes awarded by the Council.

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 7.

GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—Additional Notes on the Drifts of the Baltic Coast of Germany: Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., and the Rev. Edwin Hill.—On certain Altered Rocks from near Bastogne, and their Relations to others in the District: Dr. Catherine A. Raisin.

SOCIETY OF PUBLIC ANALYSTS, at 8.—The Determination of the Available Brewing Extract of Malt: Lawrence Briant.—The Definition of the Genuine Product: C. E. Cassal.—Notes on certain B.P. Tests: C. G. Moor and Martin Priest.

ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 8.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 8.

MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY, at 5.30.—Annual General Meeting.—On the Transmission of Force through a Solid: Lord Kelvin, G.C.V.O.—In a Simple Group of an Odd Composite Order every System of Conjugate Operators or Sub-groups includes more than Fifty: Dr. G. A. Miller.—Prime Functions on a Riemann Surface: Prof. A. C. Dixon. (i) Further Note on Isoscelians; (ii) On Two In-triangles which are similar to the Pedal Triangle: R. Tucker.—(i) A General Congruence Theorem relating to the Bernoullian Function; (ii) On the Residues of Bernoullian Functions for a Prime Modulus, including as Special Cases the Residues of the Eulerian Numbers and the 1-numbers: Dr. Glaisher, F.R.S.—On Green's Function for a Circular Disc: H. S. Carslaw.—On the Real Points of Inflection of a Curve: A. B. Basset, F.R.S.—On Quantitative Substitutional Analysis: A. Young.

INSTITUTION OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS, at 8.—Inaugural Address: Prof. J. Perry, F.R.S.

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 9.

ROYAL ASTRONOMICAL SOCIETY, at 8.

CONTENTS.

PAGE

A New French Forestry Text-Book. By Prof. W. R. Fisher	1
Topographic Surveying. By C. W. W.	2
The Ethnography of British Columbia. By Prof. Alfred C. Haddon, F.R.S.	3
Our Bookshelf:—	
Archbutt and Deeley: "Lubrication and Lubricants." F. W. B.	4
Alexander: "Darwin and Darwinism, Pure and Mixed."—E. B. P.	5
Maycock: "Electric Wiring Tables"	5
Seton-Thompson: "Raggylug, the Cottontail Rabbit, and other Animal Stories"	5
Letters to the Editor:—	
The Leonids—a Forecast. (With Diagrams.)—Dr. G. Johnstone Stoney, F.R.S., and Dr. A. M. W. Downing, F.R.S.	6
Examinations in Experimental Science.—A. H. F.	6
Literature of Coffee and Tobacco Planting.—G. H. James	7
Autotomic Curves.—H. Langhorne Orchard; Arthur S. Thorn	7
The Present Condition of the Indigo Industry. By Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin	7
The Form and Size of Bacteria. By Dr. Allan Macfadyen and J. E. Barnard (Illustrated)	9
Notes	10
Our Astronomical Column:—	
Astronomical Occurrences in November	14
Ephemeris of Eros for November	14
Fireballs	14
Temperature Observations during Solar Eclipse	14
Domenico Cirillo and the Chemical Action of Light in Connection with Vegetable Irritability. By Prof. Italo Giglioli	15
Metaliferous Deposits (Illustrated)	18
Conference of Delegates of Corresponding Societies of the British Association	20
University and Educational Intelligence	21
Scientific Serials	21
Societies and Academies	22
Diary of Societies	24

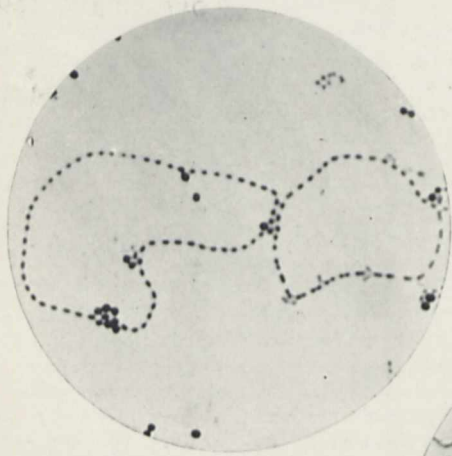


Fig. 1

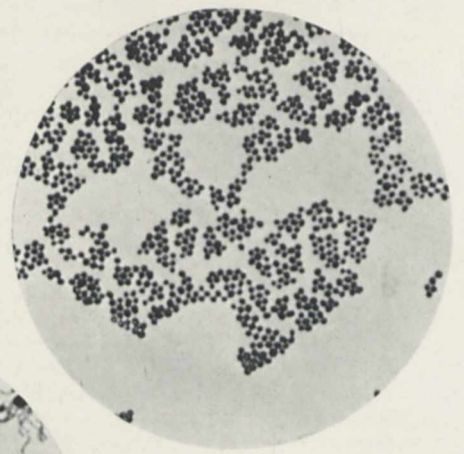


Fig. 2

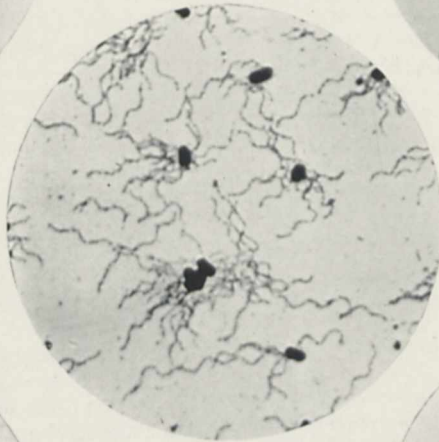


Fig. 7



Fig. 3

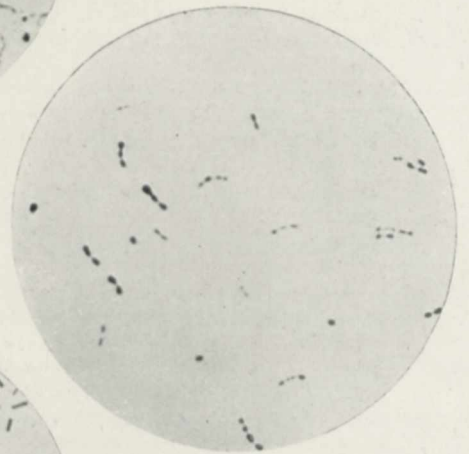


Fig. 4



Fig. 8

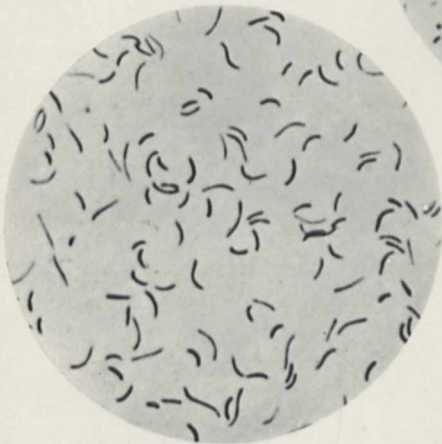


Fig. 5



Fig. 6