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

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INDEX.

- ABBE (E.), *Gesammelte Abhandlungen*, 582
Abbot (C. G.), *Terrestrial Temperatures and the Solar Radiation*, 112
Abel (O.), a *Cetacean, Palaeophocaena andrussovi*, from the Middle Miocene of the Taman Peninsula, 530; Flying Fish in the Triassic, 530
Aberdeen University Quatercentenary Celebrations, 188, 565
Abetti (Prof.), *Comets 1906a and 1906c*, 18
Abnormality, *Inheritance of an*, Prof. Herbert McLeod, F.R.S., 150
Aboriginal Tribes of New South Wales and Victoria, Notes on the, R. H. Mathews, 100
Aborigines of Unexplored New Guinea, Dr. C. G. Seligmann, 58
Abraham (Henri), a Galvanometer with a Movable Needle for Alternating Currents, 72
Abruzzi (Duke of the), the Ascent of Ruwenzori, 528
Abyssinia, the Source of the Blue Nile, a Record of a Journey through the Sudan to Tsana in Western Abyssinia, and of the Return to Egypt by the Valley of the Atbara, with a Note on the Religion, Customs, &c., of, Arthur J. Hayes, *Entomological Appendix* by Prof. E. B. Poulton, F.R.S., Sir H. H. Johnston, K.C.M.G., 247
Academical Sciences, *Interrelation of the*, Dr. Shadworth H. Hodgson, 337
Acland (Dr. Theodore Dyke), on the *Physiological Value of Rest*, 480, 502
Aconites of India, the, Dr. Otto Stapf, 170
Acoustics: *Method of Exploding Mines, by Means of Acoustic Waves*, 40; *Mechanical and Electrical Phenomena occurring in the Telephonic Transmission of Speech*, W. Duddell, 60; *Resonant Properties of Fossilised Wood*, E. M. Buchanan, 84; *Acoustical Properties of Buildings*, Wallace C. Sabine, 368; *M. Marage*, 368; *Amplification of Sounds*, M. Dussaud, 580
Adami (Prof.), *Pathology and Physiology of the Cell Nucleus*, 529
Adams (Prof.), the Spectra of Sun-spots and Red Stars, 418; *Relation between the Spectra of Sun-spots and Stars*, 595
Adamson (E.), *Influence of Silicon, Phosphorus, Manganese, and Aluminium on Chill in Cast-iron*, 68
Adeney (Dr. W. E.), *Composition of a Nitrogen Mineral Water at St. Edmundsbury, Lucan*, 374
Adjustment of Observations by the Method of Least Squares, with Applications to Geodetic Work, the, T. W. Wright and J. F. Hayford, 148
Aëronautics: *Balloons and Kites in the Service of Meteorology*, W. H. Dines, F.R.S., 35; the Wellman Balloon Expedition, W. de Fonvielle, 181; the Meteorology of the Free Atmosphere, L. Teisserenc de Bort at Royal Society of Edinburgh, 255; *Balloon Journey by the Brothers Wegener*, 302; the International Balloon Ascents of April 5 and May 3, 384; *Meteorological Kites in India*, 448; the Gordon-Bennett Balloon Race, 570; *Milan Balloon Competition*, 570; *Aëronautics and Meteorology*, 647; *Methods of making Balloon Ascents*, Prof. Hergesell, 648; *Expedition to the Equatorial Regions of the Atlantic*, Teisserenc de Bort, 648
Africa: *Defects in Ostrich Feathers in South Africa*, Prof. J. E. Duerden, 55; *Ascents in the Ruwenzori Range*, R. B. Woosnam, D. Carruthers, and A. F. R. Wollaston, 132; *Cotton Growing at Golbanti and Malindi*, 157; *Plants and their Ways in South Africa*, Bertha Stone-man, 221; the South African Medal of the British Association, Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 225; *Round Perforated Stones (Tikœ) alleged to have been made by Bushmen for the Purpose of giving Weight to the "Kibi" or Digging Stick*, L. Peringuey, 288; the *Magnesite Mines of South Africa*, 573; *Geological Studies in South Africa*, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 646; *Country between Pretoria and Pietersburg*, Mr. Kynaston, 646; the *Gneisses of the Limpopo Flats*, Dr. F. W. Voit, 647
Agriculture: *Agriculture générale, le Sol et les Labours*, Paul Dillioth, 4; *Process for the Direct Utilisation of the Nitrogen of the Atmosphere for the Production of Artificial Manure and other Chemical Products*, Dr. Adolf Frank, 65; *Experiments on Well Irrigation at Metrosapuram in 1902-5*, Prof. A. Chatterton, 86; *Question of Rabbit Destruction*, T. Steel, 95; the *Book of the Rothamsted Experiments*, A. D. Hall, Prof. T. H. Middleton, 121; *Opening of a New Laboratory at the Rothamsted Experimental Station*, 307; *Death and Obituary Notice of Dr. William Fream*, 132; *Cotton Growing at Golbanti and Malindi*, 157; a *Monograph of the Insect Injuries to Indian Corn*, S. A. Forbes, Fred. V. Theobald, 160; the *Transition in Agriculture*, Edwin A. Pratt, 193; an *Introduction to the Study of Agricultural Economics*, Henry C. Taylor, 193; the *Development of Agriculture in Denmark*, R. J. Thompson, 193; *Cassava Trials at the Hope Experiment Station, Jamaica*, H. H. Cousins, 208; *Cultures du Midi de l'Algérie et de la Tunisie*, C. Rivière and H. Lecq, 269; *United States "Dry-farming"*, J. L. Cowan, 304; the *Rose-breasted Grosbeak and the Potato-beetle*, 304; *Composition of Indian Rain and Dew*, Dr. J. W. Leather, 337; *Spread of St. John's Wort in Australia*, 337; *Behaviour of Manures in Soils*, Oswald Schreiner and George H. Failyer, 339; the *Progress of Agricultural Science*, 474; *Mendel's Laws of Inheritance*, R. H. Biffen, 474; *W. Bateson, F.R.S.*, 475; *R. C. Punnett*, 475; *Assimilation of Nitrogen by Leguminous Plants*, Dr. Hiltner, 475; *John Golding*, 475; *Vitality of Farm Seeds*, William Carruthers, F.R.S., 475; *Improvement of Pastures*, 475; *British Forestry*, 475; *Nature-study in Rural Schools*, 476; *Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture in India*, H. Maxwell-Lefroy, Fred. V. Theobald, 481; a *Larch Sawfly in Cumberland*, 529; *Agriculture in St. Kitts*, F. R. Shepherd, 593; *Ravages of *Loxostege (Eurycreon) sticticalis* in the Cultivation of Beet-root of the Central Plateau*, Alfred Giard, 628; *Damage done to Crops by the Mexican Cotton-boll Weevil*, Dr. W. E. Hinds, 642; the *Cotton Worm, *Prodenia littoralis**, F. C. Willcocks, 649; the *Cotton Boll Worm, *Earias insulana**, F. C. Willcocks, 649; *Agricultural Notes*, 649; *Condensed Vegetable Milk*, T. Katayama, 649; *Cherry Leaf Scorch*, E. S. Salmon, 649; *Prussic Acid in Fodder Plants*, Dr. J. W. Leather, 649; *Artificial Manures for India*, F. G. Sly, 649; *Agriculture in Egypt*, 649; *"Sore-shin" Fungus*, W. L. Balls, 650
Air-currents, the *Life-history of Surface*, a Study of the *Surface Trajectories of Moving Air*, Dr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S., and R. G. K. Lempfert, 162

- Aitken (Dr. John, F.R.S.), Interpretation of Meteorological Records, 30
- Aitken (Prof. R. G.), New Catalogue of Double Stars, 18; Observations of Satellites in 1904 and 1905, 42
- Albrecht (Prof. Th.), Results of the International Latitude Service, 1902-6, 575
- Alcock (N. H.), Action of Anæsthetics on Living Tissues, the Frog's Skin, 459
- Alexander (Captain Boyd), the Haunts of the Okapi, 88
- Alexander (J. H.), Elementary Electrical Engineering in Theory and Practice, 488
- Algen, Morphologie und Biologie der, Dr. Friedrich Oltmanns, George Murray, F.R.S., 561
- Algeria, Atmospheric Electricity in, Ch. Nordmann, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 505
- Algérie et de la Tunisie, Cultures du Midi de l', C. Rivière and H. Lecq, 269
- Algol Variables, Discovery of, Mrs. Fleming, 210
- Alien Flora of Britain, S. T. Dunn, 170
- Alilaire (E.), the Composition of an Acetic Ferment, 344
- Alison (John), Arithmetic for Schools and Colleges, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Allan (C.), Fermentation Changes that give the Quality to Flavoured Rums, 184
- Allen (Dr. E. J.), Fishery Problems and Marine Investigations, 551
- Allen (H. S.), Chemical and Electrical Changes induced by Light, 564
- Allen (W. F.), the Lymphatics of Fish, 156
- Alliston (Norman), Reconnoitres in Reason and the Table-book, 533
- Alpine, Atlas Colorié de la Flore, J. Beauverie and L. Faucheron, 561
- Alward (G. L.), Fishery Problems and Marine Investigations, 551
- Amana Meteorite, the, Dr. G. D. Hinrichs, 575
- Ambrohn (Dr.), the Figure of the Sun, 210
- America: Recent Publications of the Bureau of American Ethnology, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30; the Bicentenary Celebration of the Birth of Benjamin Franklin, Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 36; the Astronomical and Astrophysical Society of America, 64; Status of the Mesozoic Floras of the United States, Lester F. Ward, William M. Fontaine, Arthur Bibbins, and G. R. Wieland, A. C. Seward, F.R.S., 81; the Earthquake in South America, 412; Transactions of the Department of Archaeology, Free Museum of Science and Art, H. R. Hall, 468; American Chemists and the Jubilee of the Coal-tar Colour Industry, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 514; Garbage Crematories in America, W. M. Venable, 630
- Americanists at Quebec, the Congress of, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 595
- Amman (L.), Soluble Albuminoid Materials of Milk, 192
- Amœbæ and their Allies, 52
- Anatomy: Lehrbuch der vergleichenden mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbeltiere, part v., Parietal Organ, Dr. F. K. Studnička, Part vi., Atmungsapparat, Dr. Albert Oettel, 145; Preservation of Brains for Anatomical and Anthropological Investigations, Ales Hrdlicka, 209; the Lumbo-sacral-coccygeal Cord of the Macaque Monkey, Mabel Purefoy FitzGerald, 260; Studies in Anatomy from the Anatomical Department of the University of Manchester, 464; Observations on the Labyrinth of Certain Animals, Dr. Albert A. Gray, 626; the Cerebral Localisation in the Bandicoot, H. G. Chapman, 652
- Ancient Eclipses, P. H. Cowell, 11
- Ancient Fire Festivals, Thereza Story-Maskelyne, 80
- Anderson (Dr. Tempest), Physical Geography of Volcanoes, 527
- Andrews (Dr. C. W., F.R.S.), a Descriptive Catalogue of the Tertiary Vertebrata of the Fayum, Egypt, based on the Collection of the Egyptian Government in the Geological Museum, Cairo, and on the Collection in the British Museum (Natural History), London, 175; Milk Dentition of the Primitive Elephant, 553
- Andrews (Dr. E. A.), Mode in which American Crayfish of the Genus *Cambarus* lay their Eggs, 133
- Andrews (E. M.), on the Webster Ruin, Rhodesia, 457
- Andrews (L.), Long-flame Arc Lamps, 573
- Angelucci (O.), Method of Isolating Radio-thorium from Thorium Salts, 574
- Animals: Destruction of Animals in Australia, T. Steel at Linnean Society, New South Wales, 188; Darwinism and the Problems of Life, a Study of Familiar Animal Life, Prof. Conrad Guenther, 268; Animal Heroes, being the Histories of a Cat, a Dog, a Pigeon, a Lynx, two Wolves, and a Reindeer, E. T. Seton, 295; Problems in Animal Metabolism, J. B. Leathes, 349; Flashlight Photographs of Wild Animals, 489
- Annandale (Dr. N.), Tank Fauna of India, 96; the Fresh-water Fauna of India, 472
- Antarctica: Expédition Antarctique Belge, Résultats du Voyage du S.Y. *Belgica* en 1897-99, sous le Commandement de A. de Gerlache de Gomery, Travaux hydrographiques et Instructions nautique, G. Lecointe, 298; Botanique—les Phanérogames des Terres Magellanique, E. de Wildeman, 298; Zoologie—Poissons, L. Dollo, 298
- Anthropology: the Egyptian Heaven and Hell, E. A. Wallis Budge, 10; Anthropological Institute, 93, 165; Ethnological Notes on the Aboriginal Tribes of New South Wales and Victoria, R. H. Mathews, 100; Message Sticks, Dr. Roth, 110; the "Genna" (Tabu) among the Tribes of Assam, T. C. Hodson, 165; a Plea for an Expedition to Melanesia, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 187; the International Congress of Anthropology and Prehistoric Archaeology, 211; Craniology of Natives of the Madras Presidency, Thugs, Veddahs, Tibetans, and Seistanis, Sir William Turner, K.C.B., 215; Microcephalic Girls from Mexico, 249; Death and Obituary Notice of Edouard Piette, 278; Round Perforated Stones (Tikœ) alleged to have been made by Bushmen for the Purpose of giving Weight to the "Kibi" or Digging Stick, L. Peringuey, 288; the Dead Heart of Australia, a Journey Round Lake Eyre in the Summer of 1901-2, with some Account of the Lake Eyre Basin and the Flowing Wells of Central Australia, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 296; the Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas, Dr. Edward Westermarck, 377; the Negro Brain, Dr. R. B. Bean, 524; the Congress of Americanists at Quebec, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 595; the Maya of Yucatan, Dr. Tozzer, 596; the Ponca Sun Dance, G. A. Dorsey, 645; a People at School, H. Fielding Hall, Archibald R. Colquhoun, Supp. to May 3, vii
- Anti-tuberculosis Campaign, the, Dr. R. Fielding-Ould, 503
- Anti-typhoid Vaccine, Captain George Lamb and Captain W. B. C. Forster, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 91
- Aplin (O. V.), the Birds of Tunisia, J. I. S. Whitaker, 51
- Apollonius of Tyana, and other Essays, Thomas Whittaker, 533
- Apteryx, the Olfactory Sense in, Prof. W. B. Benham, 222
- Aquatic-dwelling Weevils, E. E. Lowe, 541
- Aquila, Spectrum of Nova, No. 2, 87; Magnitude Observations of, Dr. Guthnick, 253
- Archæology: Discovery of Seven Thousand Roman Coins, Aquila Dodgson, 20; Ancient Fire Festivals, Thereza Story-Maskelyne, 80; Notes on some Cornish Circles, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 126; Irish Cave Exploration, Dr. R. F. Scharff, 138; Illustrated Notes on Manks Antiquities, P. M. C. Kermodé and W. A. Herdman, 152; Death of Edouard Piette, 182; Prehistoric Remains found during Recent Years near Haslemere, Dr. Jonathan Hutchinson, F.R.S., and E. W. Swanton, 207; the International Congress of Anthropology and Prehistoric Archaeology, 211; the Genuineness of "Eoliths," 211; Evolution of Art during the Reindeer Age, Abbé Breuil, 212; Manx Archæology and Natural History, Prof. John Rhys, 223; Death of Dr. Adolf Voss, 382; Astronomy in the Old Testament, Prof. G. Schiaparelli, 410; Researches into the Origin of the Primitive Constellations of the Greeks, Phœnicians, and Babylonians, Robert Brown, jun., 410; Old Sinhalese Embroidery, Ethel M. Coomaraswamy, 450; Sinhalese Earthenware, A. K. Coomaraswamy, 498; Transactions of the Department of Archæology, Free Museum of Science and Art, H. R. Hall, 468; American Explorations in Crete, H. A. Boyd, Edith Hall, R. B. Seager, 469; the Archæological Congress at Vannes, 577; the Antiquities of the Jumez Plateau, E. L. Hewlett,

- 643; an Early Chapter in the History of Cornwall, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 644
- Architecture, Naval, the Stability of Submarines, Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 128, 270; J. H. Jeans, 270
- Arctic: New Arctic Expeditions, 163; the Wellman Balloon Expedition, W. de Fonvielle, 181; No Man's Land, a History of Spitsbergen from its Discovery in 1596 to the beginning of the Scientific Exploration of the Country, Sir Martin Conway, 381; the Norwegian Polar Expedition, 471; the Norwegian North Polar Expedition, 1893-6, vol. v., on Dead Water, V. Walfrid Ekman, Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 485
- Arendt (G.), G. Lejeune Dirichlet's Vorlesungen über die Lehre von den einfachen und mehrfachen bestimmten Integralen, 265
- Argyll (George Douglas, Eighth Duke of, K.G.), 1823-1900, 437
- β Arietis, the Radial Motion of, H. Ludendorff, 135
- Arithmetic: Easy Mathematics of all Kinds, chiefly Arithmetic, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., Supp. to May 3, viii
- Arithmetic for Schools and Colleges, John Alison and John B. Clark, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Arloing (S.), Experimental Production of Tubercle Bacillus and of Anti-tuberculous Vaccine, 240
- Armstrong (Prof.), on the Examination and Inspection of Schools, 503; on the Factors which determine Minimal Diet Values, 526
- Armstrong (Prof. Henry E., F.R.S.), Osmotic Pressure, 70; Thermodynamic Reasoning, 443; Experiments on the Measurement of Osmotic Pressure, 453; Studies on Enzyme Action, Lipase, 627
- Armstrong College, Newcastle-on-Tyne, the New Buildings of, 232
- Army Efficiency, Medical Science and, Lieut.-Colonel R. H. Firth, 612
- Arnold (Prof. J. O.), Influence of Nearly Pure Metallic Manganese alloyed with Varying Proportions of Nearly Pure Metallic Iron, 68; Some Scientific Centres, IX., the Metallurgical Department of the Sheffield University, 541
- Arrivat (M.), Alloys of Manganese and Molybdenum, 408
- Arrivat (G.), Constituents of the Alloys of Manganese and Molybdenum, 628
- Ashby (Dr. T., jun.), on the Excavations at Caerwent, 457; on Recent Discoveries in the Roman Forum, 457
- Ashcroft (Edgar A.), the World's Desires, or the Results of Monism, 217
- Ashcroft (Prof.), on the Central Technical College Lecture Table Testing Machine, 501
- Ashford (C. E.), on the Teaching of Mechanics, 501; on the Teaching of Mechanics by Experiment, 503
- Ashford (W. H. R.), Our Waterways, a History of Inland Navigation considered as a Branch of Water Conservancy, 169
- Ashworth (Dr. J. H.), Zoology at the British Association, 550
- Asiatic Society of Bengal, 96, 143, 264, 344, 508
- Asteroids, New Method for the Discovery of, J. H. Metcalf, 185
- Astrographic Object Glasses, New Forms of, Emil Schaefer, 231
- Astronomy: Ancient Eclipses, P. H. Cowell, 11; the Total Solar Eclipse of January, 1908, Dr. Downing, 18; Total Solar Eclipse of August 30, 1905, A. L. Cortie, 142; Italian Observations of the Total Solar Eclipse (1905), Prof. Ricco, 418; the Total Solar Eclipse of January, 1907, W. T. Lynn, 548; Solar Variability, Dr. S. P. Langley, 16; Our Astronomical Column, 18, 41, 64, 87, 112, 135, 158, 185, 210, 231, 253, 282, 306, 339, 371, 386, 417, 452, 474, 499, 524, 548, 575, 595, 619, 644; Astronomical Occurrences in May, 18; in June, 112; in July, 210; in August, 339; in September, 452; in October, 548; Comets 1906a and 1906c, Prof. Abetti, 18; E. Strömgren, 18; Comet 1906c, Miss Lamson, 64; Comet 1906b (Kopff), M. Ebell, 64, 158; Prof. Wolf, 158; Radiant Point of a Bright Meteor, Dr. Jiri Kavan, 18; Luminous Particles in the Chromosphere, Dr. Deslandres, 18; New Catalogue of Double Stars, Prof. R. G. Aitken, 18; Measures of Double and Multiple Stars, Prof. Doolittle, 88; New Double Stars, Rev. T. E. Espin, 211; Double Star Measures, Dr. G. van Biesbroeck, 371; Colours and Magnitudes of Double Stars, Mr. Lewis, 549; the Expected Return of Holmes's Comet, Dr. H. J. Zwiers, 41; Return of Holmes's Comet (1906f), Dr. Max Wolf, 474; Holmes's Comet (1906f), Prof. Wolf, 499, 525; the Luminosity of the Brighter Stars, George C. Comstock, 41; the Variable Radial Velocity of ϵ Aurigæ, Dr. H. Ludendorff, 41; Early Observations of Eros, 42; Observations of Satellites in 1904 and 1905, Prof. R. G. Aitken, 42; New Variable Stars in Orion, Prof. Max Wolf, 42; Method of Study of the Solar Corona at Other Times than during Eclipses, G. Millochau and M. Stefanik, 47; Photographing the Corona without a Total Eclipse, MM. Millochau and Stefanik, 112, 158; History of the Planetary System from Thales to Kepler, Dr. J. L. E. Dreyer, 49; the Astronomical and Astrophysical Society of America, 64; Solar Prominences during 1905, Prof. Mascari, 65; the Period of β Lyrae, Prof. Schaeberle, 65; the Motion of a Swarm of Particles the Centre of Gravity of which describes an Elliptic Orbit of small Eccentricity Round the Sun, Dr. E. J. Routh, 71; Spectrum of Nova Aquilæ No. 2, 87; Magnitude Observations of, Dr. Guthnick, 253; Stereo-comparator Discoveries of Proper Motions, Prof. Max Wolf, 87; Observations of Comet 1905c, 88; a Lunar Tide on Lake Huron, Prof. W. J. Loudon, 88; New Reduction of Groombridge's Circumpolar Catalogue for the Epoch 1810-0, F. W. Dyson, F.R.S., and W. G. Thackeray, 90; Telegraphic Determinations of Longitude made in the Years 1888-1902, 90; Terrestrial Temperatures and the Solar Radiation, C. G. Abbot, 112; the Distribution of the Stars, Prof. Kapteyn, 112; Observations of Comets, Prof. H. Howe, 112; the Figure and Stability of a Liquid Satellite, Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 115; Royal Astronomical Society, 119, 191; Notes on some Cornish Circles, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 126; Sunspot and Chromospheric Spectra, Prof. A. Fowler, 135; Proposed Daily Photographs of Chromospheric Radiations, M. Deslandres, 135; Stars with Variable Radial Velocities, J. H. Moore, 135; Prof. Frost, 135; Observations of Nova Persei No. 2, Messrs. Townley and Maddrill, 135; Observations of Shadow Bands, Dr. M. Roso de Luna, 135; the Radial Motion of β Arietis, H. Ludendorff, 135; Publications of the Nicolas Observatory, St. Petersburg, 135; the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, 135; Solar and Lunar Halos, Rowland A. Earp, 150; Solar and Lunar Cycles implied in the Prophetic Numbers in the Book of Daniel, Dr. W. Bell Dawson, 154; Observations of Nova Geminorum, Prof. Barnard, 158; Personal Equation in Photometric Observations, Prof. Ceraski, 158; Observations of Variable Stars, Miss Leavitt, 158; S. D. Townley, 159; Discussion of Faculae Observations, Prof. Mascari, 185; New Method for the Discovery of Asteroids, J. H. Metcalf, 185; Radial Velocity of a Draconid, H. Ludendorff, 185; Useful Tables and Formulæ for Astronomical Computations, Dr. W. de Sitter, 185; the Leeds Astronomical Society, 186; the Figure of the Sun, Dr. Poor, 210; Dr. Ambronn, 210; Discovery of Algol Variables, Mrs. Fleming, 210; an Interesting Minor Planet, Dr. Berberich, 210; Observations of Jupiter in 1903 and 1905-6, Mr. Denning, 210; Observations of Jupiter, Mr. Denning, 525; Rotation Period of Jupiter's Equatorial Region, Mr. Denning, 549; Jupiter's Sixth Satellite, 524, 575; Prof. Campbell, 524; Elements and Ephemeris of Jupiter's Seventh Satellite, Dr. F. E. Ross, 306; Jupiter's Seventh Satellite, Prof. Perrine, 619; Photometric Observations of Saturn's Satellites, Dr. P. Guthnick, 210; Observations of Phoebe in May and June, 1906, 548; Stars with Peculiar Spectra, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., and F. E. Baxandall, 214; Death of Prof. G. A. P. Rayet, 228, 367; Obituary Notice of, 382; Radiative Power of the Sun's Disc, Prof. Julius, 231; New Forms of Astrographic Object Glasses, Emil Schaefer, 231; Search-ephemeris for Finlay's Comet, L. Schulhof, 231; Finlay's Comet, L. Schulhof, 253; Rediscovery of Finlay's Comet (1906d), Herr Kopf, 282; L. Schulhof, 282; Finlay's Comet (1906f), L. Schulhof, 339, 371, 386, 417, 453, 499, 575; M. Fayet, 339; M. J.

- Guillaume, 417; M. Quéniisset, 575; Stereoscopic Measurement of Proper Motions, Prof. Max Wolf, 231; Early Meteors of the Perseid Shower, W. F. Denning, 246; the Radiants of the Perseid Shower, M. Wwedenski, 253; an Objective-prism Comparison Spectrograph, de Lisle Stewart, 253; Russian Astronomical Observations, 253; a New Observatory for Hamburg, 253; Preliminary Experiments on the Photographic Transit, S. Hirayama, 254; the Orbit of Castor, Dr. H. D. Curtis, 282; Planets and Planetary Observations, W. F. Denning, 282; Reflecting Telescopes of Short Focus, Prof. Vogel, 306; the Astronomical Society of Canada, 306; Magnitudes and Places of 251 Pleiades Stars, K. Schiller, 306; Observations of Minor Planets and Comets, Prof. E. Weiss, 306; a Study of the Sky, Prof. Herbert A. Howe, 315; an Unexplained Observation, Prof. Barnard, 339; the Rio de Janeiro Observatory, 340; Catalogue of 1772 Stars chiefly comprised within the Zone 85° - 90° N.P.D. for the Epoch 1000, deduced from Observations made at the Radcliffe Observatory, Oxford, during the Years 1894-1903, under the Direction of Prof. Arthur A. Rambaut, F.R.S., 341; Publications of the Astronomical Laboratory at Groningen, Components of the Proper Motions and other Quantities for the Stars of Bradley, Prof. J. C. Kapteyn, Tables for Photographic Parallax-observations, Dr. W. de Sitter, some Useful Trigonometrical Formulae and a Table of Goniometrical Functions for the Four Quadrants, Prof. J. C. Kapteyn and Prof. W. Kapteyn, 341; Cours d'Astronomie, Louis Maillard, 341; New Theories in Astronomy, William Stirling, 341; Study of an Apparatus designed by M. Lippmann for the Photographic Measurement of Right Ascensions, W. Ebert and C. Le Morvan, 343-4; die Bahnbestimmung der Himmelskörper, Julius Bauschinger, 345; die Gauss-Gibbssche Methode der Bahnbestimmung eines Himmelskörpers aus drei Beobachtungen, Prof. Johannes Frischauf, 345; a Large Meteor, W. F. Denning, 351; Observation of a Bright Meteor, Ph. Fauth, 371; the Aims of an Astronomer, Prof. E. C. Pickering, 368; a Compendium of Spherical Astronomy, with its Applications to the Determination and Reduction of Positions of the Fixed Stars, Prof. Simon Newcomb, 379; Planets and Planetary Observations, Mr. Denning, 386; a New Form of Spectroheliograph, G. Millochou and M. Stefánik, 386; Astronomy in the Old Testament, Prof. G. Schiaparelli, 410; Researches into the Origin of the Primitive Constellations of the Greeks, Phoenicians, and Babylonians, Robert Brown, jun., 410; a Memorial to the late Prof. Tacchini, 417; Report of the Paris Observatory for 1905, M. Lœwy, 417; the Spectra of Sun-spots and Red Stars, Prof. Hale and Prof. Adams, 418; Sir Norman Lockyer, 418; Discovery of a New Comet (1906e), Herr Kopff, 452; Herr Graff, 453; Comet 1906e (Kopff), M. Ebell, 474, 499, 575; Prof. E. C. Pickering, 499; Dr. Graff, 499; M. F. Sy, 508; Prof. Millosevich, 575; Messrs. Crawford and Champreux, 619; Greenwich Sun-spot Numbers, 453; the Origin of the Zodiacal Light, Maxwell Hall, 453; a Modified Form of Solar Eye-piece, Prof. Ceraski, 453; a Newly-discovered Planetary Nebula, Prof. Barnard, 474; Plea for an International Southern Telescope, Prof. E. C. Pickering, 474; Spectroscopic Observations of the Rotation of the Sun, Dr. J. Halm, 484; the Planet Mercury, Mr. Denning, 499; Observations of Satellites, Prof. Barnard, 499; the Kodaikanal Observatory, Monteith Macphail, 525; Observations of Solar Phenomena, 1906, Prof. Mascari, 525; Introduction to Astronomy, Prof. Forest Ray Moulton, 538; the Colours of Sun-spots, Th. Hansen, 548; the Relation between the Spectra of Sun-spots and Stars, W. S. Adams, 595; Sun-spot Spectra Observations, W. M. Mitchell, 619; a New Form of Wedge Photometer, H. Rosenberg, 575; Occultation of a Star by Venus, Dr. Downing, 575; Results of the International Latitude Service, 1902-1906, Prof. M. Albrecht, 575; the Amana Meteorite, Dr. G. D. Hinrichs, 575; Colour and Spectra of Solar Prominences, M. Ricco, 580; Observations of the Planet Mars during the Oppositions of 1894, 1896, 1808, 1901, and 1903, made at Flagstaff, Arizona, Percival Lowell, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 587; Observations of Long-period Variables, Prof. A. A. Nijland, 595; the Mount Wilson Spectroscopic Laboratory, 595; the Utility of Short-focus Reflectors, Dr. A. Berberich, 595; Prof. Barnard's "Unexplained Observation," Charles L. Brook, 595; Observations of Variable Stars, E. S. Haynes, 619; a New Form of Photometer, M.M. Deslandres and Bernard, 644; a Novel Planisphere, G. P. Serviss and L. Barritt, 645; the Oxford University Observatory, Prof. Turner, 645
- Atkinson (G. F.), First Studies of Plant Life, Supp. to October 11, v
- Atlas colorié des Plantes et des Animaux des Côtes de France, P. Kuckuck, Dr. M. Langeron, 102
- Atmosphere, the Meteorology of the Free, L. Teisserenc de Bort at Royal Society of Edinburgh, 255
- Atmosphere, the Nucleation of the Uncontaminated, Prof. Carl Barus, C. T. R. Wilson, F.R.S., 619
- Atmospheric Electricity in Algeria, Ch. Nordmann, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 505
- Atmospheric Pressure Changes of Long Duration, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 352
- Atoms, Models of, Prof. Alfred W. Porter, 563
- Auden (Dr. G. A.), a Collection of Crania, 458
- Auger (V.), New Method of preparing some Organic Compounds of Arsenic, 143; Decomposition of Copper Sulphate by Methyl Alcohol, 192
- August Rainfall, Alex. B. MacDowall, 8
- ϵ Aurigæ, the Variable Radial Velocity of, Dr. H. Ludendorff, 41
- Austin (Ernest Edward), Illustrations of British Blood-sucking Flies, 441
- Australia: Australian Ethnology, 100; Destruction of Animals in Australia, T. Steel at Linnean Society, New South Wales, 188; the Dead Heart of Australia, a Journey round Lake Eyre in the Summer of 1901-2, with some Account of the Lake Eyre Basin and the Flowing Wells of Central Australia, Prof. J. W. Gregory, 296
- Auvergne, l'Age des derniers Volcans de la France, Marcellin Boule, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 607
- Avalanche destroys Kwareli, 496
- Avogadro and Dalton, the Standing in Chemistry of their Hypotheses, Dr. Andrew N. Meldrum, 537
- Bacteriology: New Micro-organism producing Acetone, L. Bréaudat, 102; Experimental Production of Tubercle Bacillus and of Anti-tuberculous Vaccine, S. Arloing, 240; Channels of Entrance of the Tubercle Bacillus into the Organism, Dr. A. Calmette, 593; Longevity of *Bacillus typhosus* in Natural Waters and in Sewage, H. L. Russell and C. A. Fuller, 280; Bacteria in Relation to Plant Diseases, Erwin F. Smith, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 294; Opening of a New Laboratory at the Rothamsted Experimental Station, 307; Bacillus of Leprosy found in Mosquito and Bed-bug, Dr. W. J. Goodhue, 367
- Baeyer's (Adolf von) Gesammelte Werke, Prof. W. H. Perkin, jun., F.R.S., 73
- Bahnbestimmung der Himmelskörper, die, Julius Bauschinger, 345
- Bahnbestimmung eines Himmelskörpers aus drei Beobachtungen, die Gauss-Gibbssche Methode der, Prof. Johannes Frischauf, 345
- Bailey (L. H.), the Outlook to Nature, 315
- Baird (Dr. J. W.), the Contraction of the Colour Zones in Hysteria and in Neurasthenia, 574
- Baker (R. T.), Two Undescribed Species of Eucalyptus from Eastern Australia, 484
- Baker (T. Thorne), Colour-correct Photography, Supp. to October 11, vi
- Bakerian Lecture at Royal Society, Recent Advances in Seismology, Prof. John Milne, F.R.S., 42
- Baldwin-Wiseman (W. R.), Effect of Fire on Building Stones, Points of Importance for Fire Resistance, 134; Influence of Pressure and Porosity on the Motion of Subsurface Water, 374
- Ball (Dr. L. de), Refraktionstafeln, 465
- Ballistics: Death of Sir Alexander Moncrieff, K.C.B., F.R.S., 367

- Balloons and Kites in the Service of Meteorology, W. H. Dines, F.R.S., 35; see *Aëronautics*
- Balls (W. L.), "Sore-shin" Fungus, 650
- Balthazard (V.), Toxic Action and Localisation of the Radium Emanation, 375
- Baly (E. C. C.), Relation between Absorption Spectra and Chemical Constitution, the Isonitroso-compounds, 93; Relation between Absorption Spectra and Chemical Constitution, the Phenylhydrazones of Simple Aldehydes and Ketones, 141; New Element Present as an Impurity in Krypton and Xenon, 499
- Bantu Folklore (Medical and General), Dr. Matthew L. Hewat, Sir H. H. Johnstone, K.C.M.G., 28
- Barber (C. A.), Early Stages in the Development of the Haustoria of *Santalum album*, 643
- Barcroft (Joseph), Physiology at the British Association, 479
- Bargellini (G.), a New Hypothesis connecting the Fluorescence of Organic Substances with their Chemical Constitution, 618
- Barger (G.), Saponarin, a New Glucoside, 310
- Barnard (Prof.), Observations of Nova Geminorum, 158; an Unexplained Observation, 339; a Newly-discovered Planetary Nebula, 474; Observations of Satellites, 499
- Barnard's (Prof.) "Unexplained Observation," Charles L. Brook, 595
- Barometric Variations of Long Duration over Large Areas, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 352
- Barracough (S. H.), Hollow Lightning Conductor Crushed by the Discharge, 230
- Barrett (Dr. W. F., F.R.S.), Entoptic Vision, Haidinger's Brushes and other Entoptic Phenomena, 142
- Barritt (L.), a Novel Planisphere, 645
- Barrows (W. M.), the Effects of Inbreeding, Cross-breeding, and Selection upon *Drosophila*, 337
- Barus (Prof. Carl), the Nucleation of the Uncontaminated Atmosphere, 619
- Bashford (E. F.), Experimental Analysis of the Growth of Cancer, 483; Cancer, 529
- Basset (A. B., F.R.S.), the Mixed Transformation of Lagrange's Equations, 317, 489, 540
- Bassler (R. S.), Smithsonian Institution, Bulletin of the United States Museum, Fossil Invertebrates, 163
- Bastin (S. L.), Effects of Civilisation upon Climate, 547
- Bateman (H.), the Theory of Integral Equations, 71
- Bateson (W., F.R.S.), Vorlesungen über Deszendenztheorie mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Botanischen Seite der Frage gehalten an der Reichsuniversität zu Leiden, Dr. J. P. Lotsy, 146; Mendel's Laws of Inheritance, 475
- Baubigny (H.), Estimation of Cadmium in a Volatile or Organic Salt, 48
- Baudran (G.), a Curative Product derived from Tuberculinine, 408
- Bauer (Dr. L. A.), Report of Department of Research in Terrestrial Magnetism, 284
- Baumert (Dr. Georg), Lehrbuch der gerichtlichen Chemie, 440
- Bauschinger (Julius), die Bahnbestimmung der Himmelskörper, 345
- Baxandall (F. E.), Stars with Peculiar Spectra, 214
- Baynes (Robert E.), Origin of the Term "Metabolic," 56
- Beacom (Major), on the Irrigation Projects Inaugurated by the United States Government, 479
- Bean (Dr. R. B.), the Negro Brain, 524
- Beare (Prof. Hudson), on the New Engineering Laboratories of the University of Edinburgh, 500
- Beaufort Scale, the, Report of the Directors of the Meteorological Office upon an Inquiry into the Relation between the Estimates of Wind-force according to Admiral Beaufort's Scale and the Velocities Recorded by Anemometers belonging to the Office, G. C. Simpson, Sir G. H. Darwin, W. H. Dines, and Commander Hepworth, 106
- Beauverie (J.), Atlas colorié de la Flore Alpine, 561
- Beck (Messrs. R. and J.), Ultimate Microscope Resolving Power with Light of Different Wave-lengths, 60
- Bequerel (Paul), Longevity of Seeds, 264
- Bees, How do Inquiline, find the Nest of their Host? Oswald H. Latter, 200
- Beetle, Strength of a, Charles R. Keyser, 318
- Beilstein (Prof. T. T.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 641
- Béis (Constantin), Action of Mixed Organomagnesium Compounds upon Amides, 556
- Belgica Expedition, some Results of the, 298
- Belief, the Reconstruction of, W. H. Mallock, 217
- Bell (James Mackintosh), the Tarawera Volcanic Rift, New Zealand, 88
- Bell (Prof. Robert, F.R.S.), Geological Survey of Canada, 245
- Bell (Dr. Robert), Ten Years' Record of the Treatment of Cancer without Operation, 269
- Bell (T. R.), Characteristics of Certain Indian Butterflies, 183
- Benham (Prof. W. B.), the Olfactory Sense in Apteryx, 222
- Berberich (Dr.), an Interesting Minor Planet, 210; the Utility of Short-focus Reflectors, 595
- Berget (A.), Magnetic Collimator which Transforms a Binocular into an Instrument for taking Bearings, 143
- Berkeley (Earl of), Osmotic Pressure, 7, 54, 245; Osmotic Pressures of some Concentrated Aqueous Solutions, 261; Experiments on the Measurements of Osmotic Pressure, 453
- Bernard (M.), a New Form of Photometer, 644
- Bernstein (Dr.), Parasites of Malaria and the Phagocytic Action of the Polymorphonuclear Leucocytes, 141
- Berthelot (M.), Direct Synthesis of Nitric Acid and Nitrate from their Elements, 239; Synthesis of Amethyst Quartz, 651
- Berwerth (F.), the Meteorite of Kodaikanal, 644; Artificial Metabolites, 644
- Bibbins (Arthur), Status of the Mesozoic Floras of the United States, 81
- Bidwell (Shelford, F.R.S.), Stress in Magnetised Iron, 317
- Biesbroeck (Dr. G. van), Double Star Measures, 371
- Biese (Alfred), the Development of the Feeling for Nature in the Middle Ages and Modern Times, 293
- Biffen (R. H.), Mendel's Laws of Inheritance, 474
- Binning (S.), Electrolysis of Solutions of Thiocyanates in Pyridine and in Acetone, 239
- Biochemistry, Recent Advances in Physiology and, Supp. to May 3, x
- Biogen, Radiobes and, 1
- Biology: the Origin of Life, its Physical Basis and Definition, John Butler Burke, 1; Allgemeine Biologie, Oscar Hertwig, Prof. J. B. Farmer, F.R.S., 25; Physical Chemistry, and its Applications in Medical and Biological Science, Dr. Alex. Findlay, 53; Life and Matter, Sir Oliver Lodge, 78; Periodicity, Dr. Francis Darwin, 161; Variation in Animals and Plants, Dr. D. S. Jordan, 183; Cours de Chimie physique suivi d'Applications à la Chimie et à la Biologie, Victor Henri, Prof. Benjamin Moore, 241; Gedanken über Vererbung, Dr. Alexander Petrunkevitch, 244; les Problèmes de la Vie, Prof. Ermanno Giglio-Tos, 292; Biologische und Morphologische Untersuchungen über Wasser- und Sumpfgewächse, Prof. Hugo Glück, 411; the Various Structural Modifications for Flight occurring in Vertebrates, Prof. R. S. Lull, 415; Manner in which the Anemone *Metridium marginatum* Multiplies by Fission, M. L. Hammatt, 416; Death and Obituary Notice of Fritz Schaudinn, 496-7; the Biology of the Frog, Samuel J. Holmes, 560; Morphologie und Biologie der Algen, Dr. Friedrich Oltmanns, George Murray, F.R.S., 561; Biometry and Biology, a Reply to Prof. Pearson, J. J. Lister, 584; a Rejoinder, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 608; Biometry and Biology, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 636; Phases of the Gastrulation of the Horned Toad, C. L. Edwards and C. W. Hahn, 592; Handbook of Flower Pollination based upon Hermann Müller's Work "The Fertilisation of Flowers by Insects," Dr. Paul Knuth, 605; Gregor Mendel's Briefe an Carl Nägeli, 1806-73, 640; Marine Biology: Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., Andrew Scott, and James Johnstone, Frank Balfour Browne, 19; Report to the Government of Ceylon on the Pearl-oyster Fisheries of the Gulf of Manaar, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 57; Yolk-nucleus in the Oocyte of Antedon, Dr. G. C. Chubb, 61; Medusæ Collected in H.M.S. *Research* by Dr. Fowler in

- the Bay of Biscay, E. T. Browne, 70; Biscayan Plankton Collected during a Cruise of H.M.S. *Research* in 1900, Dr. G. H. Fowler, (1) the Cephalopoda, W. E. Hoyle, (2) the Medusa, E. T. Browne, 191; Atlas colorié des Plantes et des Animaux des Côtes de France, P. Kuckuck, Dr. M. Langeron, 102; Bucket for obtaining Samples of Water from Considerable Depths, Dr. C. Kofoid, 130; *Muggiaca atlantica* in the English Channel and Irish Sea during 1904, Dr. L. Gough, 130; Mode in which American Crayfish of the Genus *Cambarus* Lay their Eggs, Dr. E. A. Andrews, 133; Mollusca, Dr. Paul Pelseneer, 153; ein Jahr an Bord I.M.S. *Siboga*, Frau A. Weber, 106; New Pelagic Coelenterate from Java, *Dogiella malayana*, D. D. Pedaschenko, 229; the Fresh-water Fauna of India, Dr. Nelson Annandale, 472; Aquatic-dwelling Weevils, E. E. Lowe, 541; the Larval and Post-larval Stages in the Life-history of the Flatfish and Cod Families, 643; Distribution of the Crustacean *Calanus finmarchicus* in Icelandic Waters, O. Paulsen, 643
- Biometry, the Latest Critic of, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 465
- Biometry and Biology, a Reply to Prof. Pearson, J. J. Lister, 584; a Rejoinder, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 608, 636
- Biquard (Robert), the Presence of Neon amongst the Gases from some Hot Springs, 344
- Birds: the Birds of Tunisia, J. I. S. Whitaker, O. V. Aplin, 51; the Birds of the Isle of Man, P. G. Ralfe, 105; the Immigration of Summer Birds, 470; a Handbook of British Inland Birds, Anthony Collett, 511; a Pocket-book of British Birds, E. F. M. Elms, 511; the Birds of the British Islands, Charles Stonham, 607
- Birth-rate of Blackpool, Sir James Crichton-Browne, 545
- Bischoffsheim (Raphael), Death of, 131
- Bjerknes (V.), Recherche sur les Champs de Force hydrodynamiques, 265
- Black (A. C.), Natural Phenomena, a Collection of Descriptive and Speculative Essays on some of the By-paths of Nature, 633
- Blackman (Dr. V. H.), the Nature of Fertilisation, 551
- Blaise (E. E.), Relations of Functional Groups in Distant Positions, Cyclic Amines, 264
- Blake (Rev. J. F.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 278
- Blakeslee (Dr. A. F.), on the "Physiological Sex" in the Mucorineæ, 576
- Blanc (Dr. G. A.), Radio-active Substances in the Thermal Springs of Echailon and Salins Moutiers, in Savoy, 40; Method of Isolating Radio-thorium from Thorium Salts, 574
- Blanc (G.), Synthesis of $\beta\beta$ -dimethyl- and $\beta\beta$ -trimethyl-pimelic Acids, 72; Syntheses of Isolauroleone and Isolaurolic Acid, 120; Syntheses of Terebic and Pyroterebic Acids, 263
- Bloch (M.), Production of Aromatic Sulphamates by the Reduction of Nitro-compounds with Sodium Hydro-sulphite, 95
- Blood-pressure, Studies in, Physiological and Clinical, Dr. George Oliver, 638
- Blood-sucking Flies, Illustrations of British, Ernest Edward Austin, 441
- Bloxam (W. Popplewell), on a New Method of determining Indigotin, 526
- Blythe (W. H.), on Models of Cubic Surfaces, 197
- Boas (J. E. V.), Pleural Cavity Absent in Indian Elephant, 280
- Bogdanov (Dr. Alexander), Death of, 414
- Bois, Traité d'Exploitation commerciale des, A. Mathey, 441
- Bois-Reymond (A. du), Erfindung und Erfinder, 559
- Boletus coeruleus*, Colour Phenomena in, Edgar Trevithick, 318; Geo. Masee, 380
- Bölsche (Wilhelm), Haeckel, his Life and Work, 26
- Boltwood (Dr. Bertram), the Chemical Nature of Thorium and the Origin of its Radio-activity, 385; the Relative Proportion of Radium and Uranium in Radio-active Minerals, 451
- Boltzmann (Prof. Ludwig), Death of, 496; Obituary Notice of, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 569
- Bombay Locust, the, H. Maxwell-Lefroy, Fred. V. Theobald, 481
- Bonney (Prof. T. G., F.R.S.), on the Origin of the Trias, 549; l'Age des derniers Volcans de la France, Marcellin Boule, 607
- Booth (W. H.), Water Softening and Treatment, 464
- Bordas (F.), Rapidity of Absorption of Odours by Milk, 167; Estimation of Albuminoid and Gelatin Materials by Means of Acetones, 216
- Bort (L. Teisserenc de), the Meteorology of the Free Atmosphere, Address at Royal Society of Edinburgh, 255; Expedition to the Equatorial Regions of the Atlantic, 648
- Bosanquet (Prof. R. C.), on the Excavations Undertaken at Sparta by the British School at Athens, 457
- Bose (C. L.), Toxic Principles of the Bitter Variety of the Fruit of *Luffa aegyptiaca*, 643
- Botany: Original Habitat of the Coconut Palm, J. Ferguson, 16; White Mildew Disease on *Euonymus japonicus* in the South of England, E. S. Salmon, 16; the Heart of a Garden, Rosamund Marriott Watson, 29; the Wild Fauna and Flora of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, 53; Exalbuminous Grass-seeds, Dr. Otto Stapf, 61; Cyanogenetic Plants, Prof. Wyndham Dunstan, F.R.S., 61; the Bamboo-hat Industry in Java, Prof. L. de Wildeman, 85; *Termes gestroi*, Parasite of Para Rubber Trees, E. P. Stebbing, 85; the East Anglian Timber Willow, E. R. Pratt, 86; New South Wales Linnean Society, 95, 167, 312, 484, 508, 580, 652; Case of a Green Organ deprived of Assimilating Power, Jean Friedel, 120; Distribution of the Forest Flora of the Bombay Presidency and Sind, W. A. Talbot, 134; Vorlesungen über Deszendenztheorie mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Botanischen Seite der Frage gehalten an der Reichsuniversität zu Leiden, Dr. J. P. Lotsy, W. Bateson, F.R.S., 146; the Green Colour of Plants, Prof. E. Stahl, 157; Physiological Investigation of Fungus, *Phycomyces nitens*, Prof. L. Errera, 157; Periodicity, Dr. Francis Darwin, 161; Alien Flora of Britain, S. T. Dunn, 170; the Aconites of India, Dr. Otto Stapf, 170; an Enumeration of the Vascular Plants from Surinam, Dr. A. Pulle, 170; die europäischen Laubmoose, Georg Roth, 170; Kew Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, 180; Kew Publications, Sir W. T. Thiselton-Dyer, K.C.M.G., F.R.S., 198; Linnean Society, 191, 262; the Fungus Flora of Yorkshire, G. Masee and C. Crossland, 196; Plants and their Ways in South Africa, Bertha Stoneman, 221; Causes of the Pressure and Flow of Sap in the Maple, Dr. K. M. Wieland, 251; Origin of the Materials Utilised by the Ovary, Jean Friedel, 264; Longevity of Seeds, Paul Becquerel, 264; Tabulæ Botanice, 269; the Ripe Rot or Mummy Disease of Guavas, J. L. Sheldon, 280; Rubber from Castilleo Trees, J. C. Moore and J. Jones, 280; Functions of the Etheral Oils of Xerophytic Plants, Dr. R. Marloth, 288; Botanique—les Phanérogames des Terres Magellanique, E. de Wildeman, 298; Influence of the Absorption of Sugar on the Phenomena of Germination of Young Plants, W. Lubimenko, 312; Conspectus Floræ Græcæ, Auctore, E. de Halácsy, 314; Spread of St. John's Wort in Australia, 337; International Conference on Hybridisation and Plant-breeding, 371; India Peninsular Balsams, Sir Joseph Hooker, 385; Plant Rusts in Victoria, D. McAlpine, 385; Biologische und Morphologische Untersuchungen über Wasser- und Sumpfgewächse, Prof. Hugo Glück, 411; Study of the Basidiomycetous Fungus *Polyporus squamosus*, Prof. A. H. R. Buller, 415; Glycogen and Paraglycogen in the Fungi, Prof. L. Errera, 415; Gaseous Exchanges of a Green Plant Developed in the Light, Jules Lefèvre, 436; Death of Prof. H. Marshall Ward, F.R.S., 448; Obituary Notice of, Prof. S. H. Vines, F.R.S., 493; Death of C. Baron Clarke, F.R.S., 448; Obituary Notice of, 495; Ecology of New Zealand, Dr. Cockayne, 450; the Rubber-tree *Ficus elastica*, E. M. Coventry, 450; the *Goodyera repens* in Flower in Norfolk, Rev. Guy Halliday, 472; W. A. Nicholson, 544; a New Species of Sporormia, C. E. Fairman, 472; New Species of Amphispæria, C. E. Fairman, 472; Two Undescribed Species of Eucalyptus from Eastern Australia, R. T. Baker, 484; the Julianiaceæ, a New Natural Order of Plants, W. Botting Hemsley, F.R.S., 507; How to Find and Name Wild Flowers, Thomas Fox, 514; Hortus Veitchii, a History of the Rise and

- Progress of the Nurseries of Messrs. James Veitch and Sons, together with an Account of the Botanical Collectors and Hybridists employed by them and a List of the more Remarkable of their Introductions, James H. Veitch, 537; Suspended Germination of Seeds, 540; G. Claridge Druce, 586; Archibald Buchan-Hepburn, 636; "Fluctuating Variation" in New Zealand Plants, Dr. L. Cockayne, 546; the Flora of the Poor Knights Islands, Dr. L. Cockayne, 546; Luther Burbank's Work as a Plant-breeder, Prof. H. de Vries, 546; Atlas colorié de la Flore Alpine, J. Beauverie and L. Faucheron, 561; the Poisonous Principle of the *Zamia Palm*, E. A. Mann and T. I. Wallas, 580; Antarctic Botany, R. N. R. Brown, 593; Flora of Riccarton Bush, New Zealand, 593; Products of Development of Certain Species of Moulds, B. Gosio, 594; Handbook of Flower Pollination based on Hermann Müller's Work "The Fertilisation of Flowers by Insects," Dr. Paul Knuth, 605; Botanical Congress at Hamburg, 621; the Mechanism of Carbon Assimilation in Green Plants, the Photolytic Decomposition of Carbon Dioxide *in vitro*, F. L. Usher and J. H. Priestley, 627; New Examples of Rosaceæ containing Hydrocyanic Acid, L. Guignard, 628; Early Stages in the Development of the *Haustoria of Santalum album*, C. A. Barber, 643; Toxic Principles of the Bitter Variety of the Fruit of *Luffa aegyptiaca*, C. L. Bose, 643; the Red Colour of Certain Leaves and the Colour of Autumn Leaves, Armand Gautier, 651; a Text-book of Botany, John M. Coulter, Supp. to October 11, v; a First Course in Practical Botany, G. F. Scott Elliot, Supp. to October 11, v; First Studies of Plant Life, G. F. Atkinson, Supp. to October 11, v; a Text-book of Botany, M. Yates, Supp. to October 11, v; see also British Association
- Bottomley (Prof. W. B.), on a Successful Attempt to Inoculate Papilionaceous Plants with the Root-nodule Organisms belonging to Non-papilionaceous Leguminosæ and to Plants of quite Different Families, 576-7; on the Effect of Sprinkling Urine on the Floors of Greenhouses, 577
- Bouasse (H.), *Essais des Matériaux*, 174
- Bouchard (Ch.), Toxic Action and Localisation of the Radium Emanation, 375
- Boudouard (M.), the Substances Formed by the Action of Hydrochloric Acid upon Certain Metallic Silicides, 263
- Boule (Marcellin), *l'Age des derniers Volcans de la France*, 607
- Boulenger (Dr. G. A.), the Tanganyika Problem, 551
- Boulud (M.), Origin of the Carbon Monoxide Contained in Normal Blood, 484; the Dialysis of the Sugar of the Blood, 651
- Bourgeois (R.), Deviations from the Vertical in the Region of the Sahel, Algeria, 556
- Bouty (E.), *Cours de Physique de l'École Polytechnique*, iii., Radiations, Electricité, Ionisation, 147
- Bouveault (L.), α -Chlorocyclohexanone and its Derivatives, 120
- Bouvier (E. L.), Nidification of Bees in the Open Air, 95
- Bovey (Prof. Henry T.), Theory of Structures and Strength of Materials, 243
- Bowen (W. H.), Experimental Analysis of the Growth of Cancer, 483
- Boyce (Rubert, F.R.S.), Report to the Government of British Honduras upon the Outbreak of Yellow Fever in that Colony in 1905, together with an Account of the Distribution of the *Stegomyia fasciata* in Belize, and the Measures Necessary to Stamp Out or Prevent the Recurrence of Yellow Fever, 299
- Boyd (H. A.), American Explorations in Crete, 469
- Boynton (Dr. H. C.), Determination of the Hardness of the Constituents of Iron and Steel with the Aid of Jaggard's Microsclerometer, 69
- Brabrook (Sir Edward), on Health at School, 501
- Braehmer (Fritz), the Transformation of Oxygen into Ozone at High Temperatures, 185
- Breath, Carbon Dioxide in the, F. Southerden, 81
- Bréaudat (L.), New Micro-organism producing Acetone, 192
- Breeding Habits of the Tsetse-fly, the, Prof. E. A. Minchin, 636
- Breeding Industry, the, Walter Heape, F.R.S., Dr. Francis H. A. Marshall, 101
- Breuil (Abbé), the Evolution of Art during the Reindeer Age, 212
- Brighter Stars, the Luminosity of the, George C. Comstock, 41
- Brightwen (Mrs.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 38
- Brinkerhoff (W. R.), Experimental Variola and Vaccinia in Quadrupana, 109
- Bristol, Sanitary Congress at, 282
- Britain, Alien Flora of, S. T. Dunn, 170
- British Association at York, Forthcoming Meeting of the, 179; Provisional Programmes of the Sections, 275
- British Association: Meeting at York, 321, 355; Inaugural Address by Prof. E. Ray Lankester, M.A., LL.D., D.Sc., F.R.S., F.L.S., Director of the Natural History Departments of the British Museum, President of the Association, 321
- Section A (Mathematics and Physics)*—Opening Address by Principal E. H. Griffiths, Sc.D., F.R.S., President of the Section, 356; Experiments on the Measurement of Osmotic Pressure, Earl of Berkeley, 453; W. C. D. Whetham, 453; Prof. Armstrong, 453; the Evolution of the Elements, Frederick Soddy, 453; Hon. R. J. Strutt, 453; the Apparent Disappearance of Matter in Vacuum Tubes, Dr. O. W. Richardson and Dr. H. A. Wilson, 453; Prof. S. P. Thompson, 454; Indifference of Radio-activity to Temperature Changes, Prof. Schuster, 453; W. Makower, 453; Radium not Detected in Extra-terrestrial Bodies, Rev. A. L. Cortie, 454; the Notation and Use of Vectors, Prof. Olaus Henrici, 454; Dr. C. G. Knott, 454; Prof. W. M. Hicks, 454; on Radio-activity and the Internal Structure of the Earth, Hon. R. J. Strutt, 454; Prof. J. Milne, 454; Prof. J. W. Gregory, 454; Sir W. Crookes, 454; Sir G. Darwin, 454; Sir William Ramsay, 454; R. D. Oldham, 454; Frederick Soddy, 454; Prof. Hicks, 454; on the Nature of the Radiation from Gas Mantles, Mr. Swinburne, 454; Dr. H. Rubens, 454; Sir W. Ramsay, 455; on Photographs of the Arc Spectrum of Iron under High Pressures, W. G. Duffield, 455; on the Irregular Motions of the Earth's Pole, Major E. H. Hills and Prof. J. Larmor, 455; R. D. Oldham, 455; Prof. Schuster, 455; on a Possible Effect of Vibration on Zenith Distance Observations, Prof. H. H. Turner, 455; on a Glass of Low Electrical Resistivity, C. E. S. Phillips, 455; Researches on Nearly Pure Gaseous Ozone, Dr. Erich Ladenburg, 455; Dr. Rubens, 455; on the Rate of Decay of the Phosphorescence of Balmain's Paint, Rev. B. J. Whiteside, 455; Experiments on the Chemical and Electrical Changes Induced by Ultra-violet Light, Sir Wm. Ramsay and Dr. J. F. Spencer, 455; on the Positive Charge Carried by the Alpha Particle of Radium C, F. Soddy, 455; on Expansions in Products of Oscillatory Functions, Prof. A. C. Dixon, 456; on a Revised Theory of the Solution of Lagrange's Linear Equation $Pp + Qq = R$, Prof. A. R. Forsyth, 456
- Section B (Chemistry)*—Opening Address by Prof. Wyndham Dunstan, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S., F.C.S., President of the Section, Some Imperial Aspects of Applied Chemistry, 361; on an Apparatus for the Production of an Active Mixture of Gases which may be Used for Bleaching and Sterilising Purposes, S. Leatham and Wm. Cramp, 525; on the Production of Hydrogen Cyanide in Plants, Prof. Dunstan, 525; on the Glucosides containing the Hydrogen Cyanide, Dr. Henry, 526; Dr. Greshoff, 526; on the Utilisation of Atmospheric Nitrogen by Plants, Thomas Jamieson, 526; on the Products Obtained by submitting Caoutchouc to the Action of Ozone and then Distilling the Ozonide with Steam, Prof. Karl Harries, 526; on the Behaviour of Isoprene, Prepared from Oil of Turpentine, Prof. W. A. Tilden, 526; on the Chemistry of Gums, H. H. Robinson, 526; S. H. Davies, 526; on the Literature bearing on the Hydrolysis of Sugars, R. J. Caldwell, 526; on the Factors which Determine Minimal Diet Values, Dr. F. G. Hopkins, F.R.S., 526; Prof. Armstrong, 526; on Oxidation in Soils and its Relation to Productiveness, Dr. E. J. Russell and Dr. F. V. Darbishire, 526; on a New Method of Determining Indigotin, W. Poplewell Bloxam, 526

Section C (Geology)—Opening Address by G. W. Lamplugh, F.R.S., President of the Section, on British Drifts and the Interglacial Problem, 387; on the General Geological Structure of the Country Round York, Prof. Kendall, 549; on the Problems Connected with the Palaeozoic Glaciation of Australia, India, and South Africa, Prof. J. W. Gregory, 549; Prof. Edgeworth David, 549; T. H. Holland, 549; R. D. Oldham, 549; on the Origin of the Trias, Prof. Bonney and J. Lomas, 549; Prof. Cole, 550; R. D. Oldham, 550; Clement Reid, 550; on the Peculiar Properties of a Variety of Sodalite from Rajputana, T. H. Holland, 550

Section D (Zoology)—Opening Address by J. J. Lister, M.A., F.R.S., President of the Section, the Life-history of the Foraminifera, 400; Zoology at the British Association, Dr. J. H. Ashworth, 550; the Tanganyika Problem, J. E. S. Moore, 550; W. A. Cunningham, 550; Prof. J. W. Gregory, 550; Prof. Pelseneer, 550; Dr. G. A. Boulenger, 551; the Nature of Fertilisation, Dr. V. H. Blackman, 551; Prof. Calkins, 551; L. Doncaster, 551; Dr. Rosenberg, 551; Prof. Hickson, 551; H. Wager, 551; Spicule Formation in Sponges, Prof. Minchin, 551; Prof. Dendy, 551; W. Woodland, 551; Fishery Problems and Marine Investigations, Dr. E. J. Allen, 551; Dr. W. Garstang, 551; G. L. Alward, 551; Systematic Study of Oceanic Plankton, Dr. G. H. Fowler, 552; Life Cycle of the Protozoa, Prof. Calkins, 552; Miss Cull, 552; Infection of Monkeys with Guinea-worm, Dr. R. T. Leiper, 552; Habits of Tube-building Worms, Arnold T. Watson, 552; Papers on Lepidoptera, Prof. E. B. Poulton, 552; Dr. F. A. Dixey, 552; G. T. Porritt, 552; Mr. Doncaster, 553; Pineal Eye of Geotria and Sphenodon, Prof. Dendy, 553; Formation of Nucleoli, Prof. Havet, 553; Milk Dentition of the Primitive Elephant, Dr. C. W. Andrews, 553; a New Conception of Segregation, A. D. Darbishire, 553

Section E (Geography)—Opening Address by Sir George Goldie, President of the Section, the Scientific Treatment of Geography, 478; on Social Geography, Prof. G. W. Hope, 478; on Coast Erosion, Clement Reid, F.R.S., 478; on a Proposal for Improved Geodetic Measurements in Great Britain, Major E. H. Hills, 479; the Chagos Archipelago, J. Stanley Gardiner, 479; on the Scientific Results of the Survey of the Scottish Lochs, James Murray, 479; on the Irrigation Projects Inaugurated by the United States Government, Major Beacom, 479; on the Wheat Area in Central Canada, Prof. L. W. Lyde, 479; on the Past and Present of Asiatic Turkey, Prof. W. M. Ramsay, 479

Section G (Engineering)—Opening Address by J. A. Ewing, LL.D., F.R.S., M.Inst.C.E., President of the Section, 418; on Modern Armour and its Attack, Major W. E. Edwards, 500; on the Removal of Dust and Smoke from Chimney Gases, S. H. Davies and F. G. Fryer, 500; on Standardisation in British Engineering Practice, Sir John Wolfe-Barry, 500; on the Deformation and Fracture of Iron and Steel, W. Rosenhain, 500; on the Crystalline Structure of Metals, J. E. Stead, 500; on Structural Changes in Nickel Wire at High Temperatures, Dr. H. C. H. Carpenter, 500; on the New Engineering Laboratories of the University of Edinburgh, Prof. Hudson Beare, 500; on Glow Lamps and the Grading of Voltages, Sir W. H. Preece, 500; on the Advent of Single-phase Electric Traction, C. F. Jenkin, 500; on a General Supply of Gas for Light, Heat, and Power Production, A. J. Martin, 500; on Experiments illustrating the Balancing of Engines, Prof. W. E. Dalby, 501; on Recent Advances in Steam Turbines, Land and Marine, G. Stoney, 501; on an Application of Stream-line Apparatus to the Determination of the Direction and Approximate Magnitude of the Principal Stresses in Certain Portions of the Structure of Ships, J. Smith, 501; on the Teaching of Mechanics, C. E. Ashford, 501; on the Central Technical College Lecture Table Testing Machine, Prof. Ashcroft, 501; on Electropositive Coatings for the Protection of Iron and Steel from Corrosion, S. Cowper Coles, 501;

Colonel Crompton, 501; on Suction-gas Plants, Prof. Dalby, 501; on the Strength and Behaviour of Ductile Materials under Combined Stress, W. A. Scoble, 501; on Waterproof Roads as a Solution of the Dust Problem, D. Mackenzie, 501

Section H (Anthropology)—Opening Address by E. Sidney Hartland, President of the Section, Recent Research in the Origin of Magic and Religion, 456; on the Ethnography of the Ba-Yaka, T. A. Joyce and E. Torday, 456; on the Aborigines of Sungri Ujong, F. W. Knocker, 456; on Bronze Weapons and Implements found Near Khinaman, Major P. Molesworth Sykes, 456; Canon Greenwell, 456; Sir John Evans, 457; Prof. Ridgeway, 457; Prof. Petrie, 457; on the Webster Ruin, Rhodesia, E. M. Andrews, 457; on the Origin of the Guitar and Fiddle, Prof. Ridgeway, 457; on the Excavations Undertaken at Sparta by the British School at Athens, Prof. R. C. Bosanquet, 457; on the Prehistoric Civilisation of Southern Italy, T. E. Peet, 457; on the Evolution of Design in Greek and Turkish Embroideries, Miss L. F. Pesel, 457; on the "Red Hills" of the East Coast Salt Marshes, F. W. Rudler and W. H. Dalton, 457; on the Grotto at Gargas, Dr. E. Cartailhac, 457; on the Palaeolithic Site at Ipswich, Miss Nina F. Layard, 457; an Account of Excavations in Another Anglo-Saxon Cemetery at South Cave, Yorkshire, T. Sheppard, 457; Reports of Committee on the Age of Stone Circles, 457; on the Excavations at Caerwent, Dr. T. Ashby, jun., 457; on Recent Discoveries in the Roman Forum, Dr. T. Ashby, jun., 457; a Collection of Crania, Dr. G. A. Auden, 458; on a Recently Discovered Skeleton in Sooska Cave, H. Brodrick and A. C. Hill, 458; on the Relative Stature of the Men with Long Heads, Short Heads, and those with Intermediate Heads in the Museum at Driffield, J. R. Mortimer, 458; on England before the English, J. Gray, 458; on the Physical Characters of the Races of Britain, Dr. W. Wright, 458; Dr. Shruballs, 458; Prof. Ridgeway, 458; J. L. Myres, 458; Prof. Petrie, 458; on the Hyksos and Other Work of the British School of Archaeology in Egypt, Prof. Petrie, 458; on Early Traces of Human Types in the Aegean, J. L. Myres, 458; on a Survival of Two-fold Origin, Dr. W. H. R. Rivers, 458; on the Astronomy of the Islanders of the Torres Straits, Dr. W. H. R. Rivers, 458; on a Rare Anomaly in Human Crania from Kwaiawata Island, Dr. W. L. H. Duckworth, 458; on Photographs of Racial Types, T. E. Smurthwaite, 458

Section I (Physiology)—Opening Address by Prof. Francis Gotch, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S., Waynflete Professor of Physiology in the University of Oxford, President of the Section, 422; Physiology at the British Association, Joseph Barcroft, 479; on the Minimum Proteid Value in Diet, Dr. F. Gowland Hopkins, 479; B. Seebohm Rowntree, 479; on the Physiological Value of Rest, Dr. Theodore Dyke Acland and Dr. Bevan Lewis, 480; Prof. Gotch, 480; on the Form of Sewage Filters, Dr. George Reid, 480; on the Present System of Reporting and Isolating Infectious Diseases, Dr. Hime, 480

Section K (Botany)—Opening Address by Prof. F. W. Oliver, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S., President of the Section, the Seed, a Chapter in Evolution, 429; on some Aspects of the Present Position of Palaeozoic Botany, Dr. D. H. Scott, 575; on the Formation of the well-known Calcareous Nodules found in the Coal Seams of the Lower Coal-measures, Prof. Weiss, 576; Miss Stopes, 576; Mr. Lomax, 576; on the Phylogenetic Value of the Vascular Structure of Seedlings, Mr. Tansley, 576; Miss Thomas, 576; T. G. Hill, 576; A. W. Hill, 576; on the Structure and Wound-reactions of the Mesozoic Genus *Brachyphyllum*, Prof. Jeffrey, 576; Mr. Seward, 576; on a New *Stigmara*, Prof. Weiss, 576; on the "Physiological Sex" in the *Mucorinæ*, Dr. A. F. Blakeslee, 576; on a Successful Attempt to Inoculate Papilionaceous Plants with the Root-nodule Organisms belonging to Non-papilionaceous Leguminosæ and to Plants of Quite Different Families, Prof. W. B. Bottomley, 576-7; on the

- Effect of Sprinkling Urine on the Floors of Greenhouses, Prof. Bottomley, 577; Experiments to Show that Ciliation cannot be Used as a Taxonomic Character among Bacteria, Dr. Ellis, 577
- Section L (*Educational Science*)—Opening Address by Prof. M. E. Sadler, President of the Section, 501; Education at the British Association, Hugh Richardson, 501; on Health at School, Sir Edward Brabrook, 501; on Physical Education, Sir Lauder Brunton, 502; Estimates of the Time, Cost, and Usefulness of Medical Inspection, Dr. Ethel Williams, 502; on the Bases of True Hygiene, A. Burrell, 502; on the Education of Wage-earners of School Age, Mrs. J. R. MacDonald, 502; Physiological Value of Rest, Dr. Acland, 502; Dr. Bevan Lewis, 502; Dr. W. H. R. Rivers, 502; Dr. Macdougall, 502; on the Course of Experimental, Observational, and Practical Studies most Suitable for Elementary Schools, Sir Philip Magnus, 502; on School Training for the Home Duties of Women, Prof. A. Smithells, 502; Scientific Method in the Study of School Teaching, Prof. J. J. Findlay, 502; on the Examination and Inspection of Schools, Prof. Armstrong, 503; W. M. Heller, 503; Rev. E. C. Owen, 503; on the Teaching of Mechanics by Experiment, C. E. Ashford, 503
- British Association, the Electrical Signs of Life and their Abolition by Chloroform, Dr. Augustus D. Waller, F.R.S., at, 447
- British Association, Local Societies at the, 481
- British Association, Vectors, &c., at the, Dr. C. G. Knott, 585; Writer of the Report, 586
- British Association, the South African Medal of the, Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 225
- British Birds, a Pocket-book of, E. F. M. Elms, 511
- British Blood-sucking Flies, Illustrations of, Ernest Edward Austin, 441
- British Diptera, a Guide to, Rev. W. J. Wingate, 512
- British Fisheries, their Administration and their Problems, a Short Account of the Origin and Growth of British Sea-fishery Authorities and Regulations, James Johnstone, 535
- British Fresh-water Rhizopoda, James Cash and John Hopkinson, 52
- British Inland Birds, a Handbook of, Anthony Collett, 511
- British Inland Navigation, 169
- British Islands, the Birds of the, Charles Stonham, 607
- British Isles, the Butterflies of the, Richard South, 465
- British Medical Association, the Toronto Meeting of the, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 529
- British Woodlice, the, being a Monograph of the Terrestrial Isopod Crustacea occurring in the British Islands, Wilfred Mark Webb and Charles Sillem, 99
- Broca (André), Resistance of Electrolytes for High-frequency Currents, 166
- Brodie (F. J.), Mean Prevalence of Thunderstorms in British Islands, 1881-1905, 215
- Brodrick (H.), on a Recently Discovered Skeleton in Sooska Cave, 458
- Brook (Charles L.), Prof. Barnard's "Unexplained Observation," 595
- Brooks (F. E.), the Grape Curculio, 111
- Broom (Dr. R.), the Early Development of the Appendicular Skeleton of the Ostrich, with Remarks on the Origin of Birds, 376
- Brouardel (Dr.), Death of, 302; Obituary Notice of, 412
- Brown (Edward), Races of Domestic Poultry, 13
- Brown (Robert, jun.), Researches into the Origin of the Primitive Constellations of the Greeks, Phœnicians, and Babylonians, 410
- Brown (R. N. R.), Antarctic Botany, 593
- Browne (E. T.), Medusæ collected in H.M.S. *Research* by Dr. Fowler in the Bay of Biscay, 70; the Medusa, 191
- Browne (Frank Balfour), Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., Andrew Scott, and James Johnstone, 19
- Brownlee (Dr. John), Theory of Epidemics, 263
- Bruno (Giordano), In Memoriam of the 17th February, 1600, Alois Riehl, 244
- Brunton (J. D.), on the Heat Treatment of Wire, 69
- Brunton (Sir Lauder), on Physical Education, 502
- Bryan (Prof. G. H., F.R.S.), Death and Obituary Notice of Baron C. R. von der Osten Sacken, 180; Thermodynamics of Diffusion, 246; Obituary Notice of Prof. Ludwig Boltzmann, 569; Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Dr. Max Planck, Supp. to October 11, iii
- Bryology: die europäischen Laubmoose, Georg Roth, 170
- Buchan-Hepburn (Archibald), Suspended Germination of Seeds, 636
- Buchanan (E. M.), Resonant Properties of Fossilised Wood, 84
- Buddhism: Lotus Blossoms, Maung Nee, 221
- Budge (E. A. Wallis), the Egyptian Heaven and Hell, 10
- Building: Effect of Fire on Building Stones, Points of Importance for Fire Resistance, W. R. Baldwin-Wiseman, 134; a Method of Testing Building Material by Means of a Sand-blast Apparatus, H. Burchartz, 460; the Manufacture of Concrete Blocks and their Use in Building Construction, H. H. Rice and W. M. Torrance, 608
- Buller (Prof. A. H. R.), Study of the Basidiomycetous Fungus, *Polyporus squamosus*, 415
- Buller (Sir Walter Lawry, K.C.M.G., F.R.S.), Death of, 302; Obituary Notice of, 354
- Bulloch (Dr. William), the Specificity of the Opsonic Substances in the Blood Serum, 118
- Burchartz (H.), a Method of Testing Building Material by Means of a Sand-blast Apparatus, 460
- Burgess (Dr. James), Interpolation for a Table of Fractions with a Notice of Synthetic Division, 215
- Burke (John Butler), the Origin of Life, its Physical Bases and Definition, 1
- Burkill (I. Henry), the Fertilisation of *Pieris*, 296
- Burma: a People at School, H. Fielding Hall, Archibald R. Colquhoun, Supp. to May 3, vii
- Burrard (Lieut.-Colonel S. G., F.R.S.), an Account of the Scientific Work of the Survey of India and a Comparison of its Progress with that of Foreign Surveys Prepared for Use of the Survey Committee, 1905, 301
- Burrell (A.), on the Bases of True Hygiene, 502
- Burrows (Rev. F. R.), Geographical Gleanings, 351
- Burton (William), la Ceramique industrielle, *Chimie-Technologie*, A. Granger, 3
- Butter-making on the Farm and at the Creamery, C. W. Walker-Tisdale and T. R. Robinson, C. Simmonds, 6
- Butterflies of the British Isles, Richard South, 465
- Cady (Prof. W. G.), the Iron Arc, 443
- Cain (Dr. J. C.), International Celebration of the Jubilee of the Coal-tar Industry, 318
- Calcul graphique, Méthodes de, Frederico Oom, 265
- Calcul des Résidus et ses Applications à la Théorie des Fonctions, 1e, Ernst Lindelöf, 265
- Calcutta, Asiatic Society of Bengal, 96, 143, 264, 344, 508
- Calderwood (W. L.), the Smolt to Grilse Stage of the Salmon, 375
- Caldwell (R. J.), on the Literature bearing on the Hydrolysis of Sugars, 526
- Californian Earthquake of April 18, the, 178; Report upon the, 285
- Calkins (Prof.), the Nature of Fertilisation, 551; Life Cycle of the Protozoa, 552
- Calmette (Dr. A.), Intestinal Origin of Tuberculous Tracheo-bronchial Adenopathy, 143; Protective Inoculation against Tuberculosis, 182; Vaccination against Tuberculosis by the Digestive Tracts, 216; Channels of Entrance of the Tubercle Bacillus into the Organism, 593
- Cambridge Philosophical Society, 94, 191
- Cameron (Dr. Isabella), Study of the Diaries of Students' Residences in Edinburgh, 263
- Campbell (A.), Bifilar Galvanometer Free from Zero Creep, 166
- Campbell (Dr. A. W.), Histological Studies on the Localisation of Cerebral Function, Supp. to May 3, iii
- Campbell (Norman R.), Osmotic Pressure, 79
- Campbell (Prof.), the Californian Earthquake, 524; Jupiter's Sixth Satellite, 524
- Canada, the Astronomical Society of, 306

- Canada, Geological Survey of, A. P. Low, 175; Prof. Robert Bell, F.R.S., 245; F. R. S., 245
- Cancer: Ten Years' Record of the Treatment of Cancer without Operation, Dr. Robert Bell, 269; Experimental Analysis of the Growth of Cancer, E. F. Bashford, J. A. Murray, and W. H. Bowen, 483; see *Morbology*
- Cape Town: South African Philosophical Society, 376
- Capron (A. J.), Method of Compressing Steel Ingots, 68
- Carbohydrate Metabolism, on, with an Appendix on the Assimilation of Carbohydrate into Proteid and Fat, followed by the Fundamental Principles and the Treatment of Diabetes, Dialectically Discussed, Dr. F. W. Pavy, F.R.S., 631
- Carbon Dioxide in the Breath, F. Southerden, 81
- Carboni fossili inglesi, Dr. Guglielmo Gherardi, 514
- Carnegie (Dr. Andrew), Modern Needs in Universities, Address at the University of Edinburgh, 648
- Carnegie (Douglas), Optical Illusions, 610
- Carpenter (F. W.), the Effects of Inbreeding, Cross-breeding, and Selection upon *Drosophila*, 337
- Carpenter (Dr. H. C. H.), on Structural Changes in Nickel Wire at High Temperatures, 500
- Carré (H.), Distemper in Dogs, 48
- Carruthers (D.), Ascents in the Ruwenzori Range, 132
- Carruthers (William, F.R.S.), Vitality of Farm Seeds, 475
- Cartailhac (Dr. E.), on the Grotto at Gargas, 457
- Cash (James), British Fresh-water Rhizopoda, 52
- Castle (W. E.), the Effects of Inbreeding, Cross-breeding, and Selection upon *Drosophila*, 337
- Castor, the Origin of, Dr. H. D. Curtis, 282
- Cave Exploration, Irish, Dr. R. F. Scharrf, 138
- Cell in Modern Biology, the, Prof. J. B. Farmer, F.R.S., 25
- Ceramique industrielle, la, *Chimie-Technologie*, A. Granger, William Burton, 3
- Ceraski (Prof.), Personal Equation in Photometric Observations, 158; a Modified Form of Solar Eye-piece, 453
- Cerebral Function, Histological Studies on the Localisation of, Dr. A. W. Campbell, Supp. to May 3, iii
- Ceylon, Report to the Government of, on the Pearl-oyster Fisheries of the Gulf of Manaar, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 57
- Chablay (E.), Reduction of the Primary Unsaturated Alcohols of the Fatty Series by the Metal-ammoniums, 312
- Chabrie (C.), Contribution to the Study of Ultramarine, 376
- Challenger Society, 70, 311
- Chamberlin (Thomas C.), *Geology: Earth History*, 557
- Champreux (Mr.), Comet 1906e (Kopff), 619
- Chapman (F.), Importance of Halimeda as a Reef-forming Organism, with a Description of the Halimeda-limestones of the New Hebrides, 165
- Chapman (Dr. H. G.), on the Main Source of "Precipitable" Substance and on the *Rôle* of the Homologous Proteid in Precipitin Reactions, 531; the Cerebral Localisation in the Bandicoot, 652
- Charcoal, Absorption of the Radio-active Emanation by, Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S., 634
- Charlier (C. V. L.), Researches into the Theory of Probability, 187
- Chattaway (Dr. F. D.), Copper Mirrors obtained by the Deposition of Metallic Copper upon Glass, 204
- Chatterton (Prof. A.), Experiments on Well Irrigation at Metrosapuram in 1902-5, 86
- Chaulin (M.), Apparatus for the Destruction of Mosquitoes, 414
- Chavanne (G.), Action of Ammonia on Ethyl Glyoxylate, 24
- Chemistry: la Ceramique industrielle, *Chimie-Technologie*, A. Granger, William Burton, 3; Outlines of Inorganic Chemistry, Frank Austin Gooch and Claude Frederick Walker, 5; Persons Insured against Accidents in Germany, 14; Chemical Composition of Ash of the Vesuvius Eruption, Prof. Zinno, 17; Crystals of Sylvite in Blocks thrown out by Recent Eruption of Vesuvius, A. Lacroix, 102; Differences of Temperature in Chemical Drying Cupboards, Dr. M. C. Schuyten, 17; Osmosis and Osmotic Pressure, Prof. Louis Kahlenberg, 19; Osmotic Pressure, Earl of Berkeley, 7, 54, 245; W. C. D. Whetham, F.R.S., 54, 102, 295; E. G. J. Hartley, 54, 245; Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 79; Norman R. Campbell, 79; Prof. L. Kahlenberg, 222; the Nature of Solution and of Osmotic Pressure, C. S. Hudson, 231; Osmotic Pressures of some Concentrated Aqueous Solutions, Earl of Berkeley and E. G. J. Hartley, 261; Pure Ferro-molybdenums, Em. Vigouroux, 23; Action of Ammonia on Ethyl Glyoxylate, L. J. Simon and G. Chavanne, 24; Acid Properties of Starch, E. Demoussy, 24; State of Colouring Matters in Crystals Coloured Artificially, P. Gaubert, 24; New Determination of the Melting Points of Platinum and Palladium, Prof. Nernst and H. von Wartenberg, 40; Estimation of Cadmium in a Volatile or Organic Salt, H. Baubigny, 48; Atomic Weight of Terbium, G. Urbain, 48; Absolute Atomic Weight of Terbium, G. D. Hinrichs, 167; *Physikalisch-chemisches Centralblatt*, 53; Physical Chemistry, and its Applications in Medical and Biological Science, Dr. Alex. Findlay, 53; Oxygen Rescue Apparatus, Messrs. Wallach, 60; Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. Wilhelm Meyerhoffer, Prof. van 't Hoff, 63; Reduction in the Price of Photographic and other Glass of High Quality, F. Heller, 65; Process for the Direct Utilisation of the Nitrogen of the Atmosphere for the Production of Artificial Manure and other Chemical Products, Dr. Adolf Frank, 65; the Sixth International Congress of Applied Chemistry, 65; New Method of Extracting Poor Sulphur Ores by Means of Bisulphide of Carbon, Prof. N. Rossi, 66; Distribution of Radium in the Earth's Crust and on the Earth's Internal Heat, Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 70, 407; Polonium Identical with Radium F, Drs. Meyer and von Schweidler, Madame Curie, 185; Radio-lead a Mixture of Radium D, Radium E, and Radium F, Drs. Meyer and von Schweidler, 185; Cause of Explosion of Sealed Glass Tubes containing Radium Bromide, Paul L. Mercanton, 253; the Relative Proportion of Radium and Uranium in Radio-active Minerals, Messrs. Rutherford and Boltwood, 451; the Recent Controversy on Radium, F. Soddy, 516; Lord Kelvin, 539; Synthesis of $\beta\beta$ -Dimethyl- and $\beta\beta$ -Trimethylpimelic Acids, G. Blanc, 72; Adolf von Baeyer's gesammelte Werke, Prof. W. H. Perkin, jun., F.R.S., 73; Chemistry of the Proteids, Dr. Gustav Mann, 75; Carbon Dioxide in the Breath, F. Southerden, 81; E. A. Parkyn, 133; Studies of Fluorite, Harry W. Morse, 87; Normal Distribution of Chlorine in the Natural Waters of New York and New England, Daniel D. Jackson, 89; the Field Assay of Water, Marshall O. Leighton, 90; Chemical Society, 93, 141, 190, 262, 310; Relation between Absorption Spectra and Chemical Constitution, the Isonitroso-compounds, E. C. C. Baly, Miss E. G. Marsden, and A. W. Stewart, 93; Derivatives of Brazilein, P. Engels and W. H. Perkin, jun., 93; Pipitzaboic Acid, J. McConnell Sanders, 93; Constitution of Ammonium Amalgam, Miss E. M. Rich and M. W. Travers, 93; Action of Light on Potassium Ferrocyanide, G. W. A. Foster, 93; Constitution of Cellulose, A. G. Green and A. G. Perkin, 93; New Derivatives of Pinene, F. P. Leach, 93; Society of Chemical Industry, 94, 142, 215; the Gutzeit Test for Arsenic, J. A. Goode and Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 94; New Method of preparing some Organic Compounds of Arsenic, V. Auger, 143; Absorption of Gallic Acid by Organic Colloids, W. P. Dreaper and A. Wilson, 94; Synthesis of Penta-methyl-ethanol, Louis Henry, 95; Action of Ammonia Gas on Anhydrous Neodymium Chloride, C. Matignon and R. Trannoy, 95; some Special Brasses, Léon Guillet, 95; Method for the Detection and Estimation of Small Quantities of Iron, A. Mouneyrat, 95; Production of Aromatic Sulphamates by the Reduction of Nitro-compounds with Sodium Hydrosulphite, A. Seyewetz and M. Bloch, 95; Silver Dioxide and Silver Peroxynitrate, E. R. Watson, 96; the Rusting of Iron, Dr. G. T. Moody, 116, 564; J. T. Nance, 142; J. Newton Friend, 540, 610; Hugh Richardson, 586; Hexamethylethane, Louis Henry, 119; Syntheses of Isolauroleone and Isolaurolic Acid, G. Blanc, 120; α -Chlorocyclohexanone and its Derivatives, L. Bouveault and F. Chereau, 120; Relation between Absorption Spectra and Chemical Constitution, the Phenylhydrazones of Simple Aldehydes and Ketones, E. C. C. Baly and W. B. Tuck, 141; the Electrochemical

Problem of the Fixation of Nitrogen, Prof. Phillippe A. Guye, 142; Densities of Liquid Nitrogen and Liquid Oxygen and of their Mixtures, J. K. H. Inglis and J. E. Coates, 142; the Molybdilactate and the Tungstlactate of Ammonium, G. G. Henderson, 142; Direct Oxidation of Cæsium and some Properties of the Peroxide of Cæsium, E. Rengade, 143; Gases from Thermal Springs, Charles Moureu, 143; Reaction of the Oxydase Type Presented by the Halogen Compounds of the Rare Earths, E. Fouard, 143; Death and Obituary Notice of Dr. Rudolf Knietzsch, 155; Nearly Total Transformation of the Dextrins arising from the Saccharification of Starch into Maltose, A. Fernbach and J. Wolff, 167; Paltreubin, E. Jungfleisch and H. Leroux, 167; Variations in the State of Amorphous Carbon under the Influence of Temperature, O. Manville, 167; Pure Ferrotingstens, Em. Vigouroux, 167; Rapidity of Absorption of Odours by Milk, F. Bordas and Toutplain, 167; Qualitative Reaction of Phosphorus, M. Mauriceau-Beaupré, 167; Conversations on Chemistry, W. Ostwald, 173; Marcell Nencki Omnia Opera, 173; Fermentation Changes that give the Quality to *Flavoured Rums*, C. Allan, 184; the Transformation of Oxygen into Ozone at High Temperatures, Franz Fischer and Fritz Braehmer, 185; Action of Oxygen on Rubidium-ammonia, E. Rengade, 263; the Liquefaction of Air and its Application to the Manufacture of Oxygen and Nitrogen, Georges Claude, 306; Reaction between Hydrogen Peroxide and Potassium Persulphate, J. A. N. Friend, 190; Action of Magnesium Methyl Iodide on Dextrimonene Nitrosochlorides, W. A. Tilden and F. G. Shephard, 190; Electrolysis of Potassium Ethyl Dipropyl Malonate, D. C. Crichton, 190; Oxidation of Hydrocarbons by Ozone at Low Temperatures, J. Drugman, 190; Ammonium Selenate and Isodimorphism in the Alkali Series, A. E. H. Tutton, 190; Vapour Pressures of Binary Mixtures, part i., the Possible Types of Vapour-pressure Curves, A. Marshall, 190; Behaviour of Acetylene with Electrical Discharges of High Frequency, H. Jackson and D. N. Laurie, 190; Behaviour of the Vapours of Methyl Alcohol and Acetaldehyde with Electrical Discharges of High Frequency, H. Jackson and D. N. Laurie, 190; Action of Sulphur Dioxide and Aluminium Chloride on Aromatic Compounds, S. Smiles and R. Le Rossignol, 190; Resolution of Lactic Acid by Morphine, J. C. Irvine, 190; Utilisation of Turf for the Intensive Production of Nitrates, A. Müntz and E. Lainé, 191; Thiocarbamide as a Solvent for Gold, J. Moir, 191; Hydroxides of Rubidium, Cæsium, and Lithium, M. de Forcrand, 192; Action of Silicon Chloride on Nickel, Em. Vigouroux, 192; Decomposition of Copper Sulphate by Methyl Alcohol, V. Auger, 192; Soluble Albuminoid Materials of Milk, M. Lindet and L. Amman, 192; Chemical Examination of the Milk and Butter-fat of the Indian Buffalo, E. R. Watson, 344; the Cyanide Industry Theoretically and Practically Considered, R. Robine and M. Lenglen, Dr. T. K. Rose, 195; Recently Devised Stability Test for Cordite, Dr. O. Silberrad and Dr. R. C. Farmer, 204; the Perkins Coal-tar Colour Jubilee Celebration, 206, 240, 302; the International Celebration of the Jubilee of the Coal-tar Industry, Dr. J. C. Cain, 318; American Celebration of Coal-tar Industry Jubilee, 496; American Chemists and the Jubilee of the Coal-tar Colour Industry, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 514; Sulphur Dioxide as a Disinfectant, Dr. John Wade, 209; Purifying and Stabilising Gun-cotton, Dr. R. Robertson, 215; Chemical Composition of Glauconite, Drs. Léon W. Collet and Gabriel W. Lee, 215; Liquefaction of Air by Expansion with External Work, Georges Claude, 216; Magnetic Properties of the Compounds of Boron and Manganese, Binet du Jassoneix, 216; Three New Compounds of Selenium and Antimony, P. Chrétien, 216; Attack of Platinum by Sulphuric Acid, L. Quennesson, 216; Estimation of Albuminoid and Gelatin Materials by Means of Acetone, F. Bordas and M. Touplain, 216; Products of the Reaction, at a High Temperature, of Sodium Isobutylate and Propylate of Camphor, A. Haller and J. Minguin, 216; Static Method of Comparing the Densities of Gases, R. Threlfall, F.R.S., 238; Simple Form of Rotating Kathode for Electrochemical Analysis, Dr. F. Mollwo

Perkin, 239; Electrolysis of Solutions of Thiocyanates in Pyridine and in Acetone, S. Binning and Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 239; Direct Synthesis of Nitric Acid and Nitrates from their Elements, M. Berthelot, 239; Action of Carbon Monoxide at a Red Heat upon Steam, and of Hydrogen upon Carbon Dioxide, Armand Gautier, 240; Use of Metallic Oxides as Catalysts in Oxidation, Paul Sabatier and Alphonse Mailhe, 240; Melezitose and Turanose, Georges Tanret, 240; Cours de Chimie physique suivi d'Applications à la Chimie et à la Biologie, Victor Henri, Prof. Benjamin Moore, 241; Dairy Chemistry, Harry Snyder, 243; Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. Hugo von Gilm, 251; Physical Constants of Ammonia; Dr. E. P. Perman and J. H. Davies, 261; Constituents of the Essential Oil from the Fruit of *Pittosporum undulatum*, F. B. Power and F. Tutin, 262; Decomposition of Nitrocellulose, O. Silberrad and R. C. Farmer, 262; Action of Steam upon Sulphides, Armand Gautier, 263; Syntheses of Terebic and Pyroterebic Acids, A. Haller and G. Blanc, 263; Substances formed by the Action of Hydrochloric Acid upon Certain Metallic Silicides, M. Boudouard, 263; Researches on the Pyrazolones, New Methods of Synthesis, Ch. Moureu and J. Lazennec, 263; Relations of Functional Groups in Distant Positions, Cyclic Amines, E. E. Blaise and M. Houillon, 264; a Treatise on Chemistry, Sir H. E. Roscoe, F.R.S., and C. Schorlemmer, F.R.S., 267; Action of Sulphuretted Hydrogen on some Oxides, Armand Gautier, 287; Solubility of Carbon in Calcium Carbide, H. Morel Kahn, 288; the Life and Experiences of Sir Henry Enfield Roscoe, D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S., 289; Imports and Exports of Germany for the Year 1905, 279; Old Pewter, H. M. Cooke, 281; Death of J. A. Wanklyn, 302; Saponarin, a New Glucoside, G. Barger, 310; Constitution of Umbellulone, F. Tutin, 310; Electrolysis of Dilute Solutions of Acids and Alkalies at Low Potentials, Dissolving of Platinum at the Anode by a Direct Current, Dr. G. Senter, 311; Electrolytic Oxidation, H. D. Law, 311; an Oxidation Product of Indigotin, A. G. Perkin, 311; Indigo-yellow, A. G. Perkin, 311; the Alkylation of *l*-Arabinose, T. Purdie and R. E. Rose, 311; Hydrolysis of Ammonium Salts by Water, E. G. Hill, 311; the Addition of Alkyl Halides to Alkylated Sugars and Glucosides, J. C. Irvine and Miss A. M. Moody, 311; Aldehydrol and the Hydrates of Compounds containing a Carbonyl Group, W. M. Colles, 311; Action of the Silent Discharge on Cyanogen, H. Gaudechon, 312; Reduction of the Primary Unsaturated Alcohols of the Fatty Series by the Metal-ammoniums, E. Chablay, 312; Lecture Notes on Chemistry for Dental Students, Dr. H. Carlton Smith, 315; Composition of Indian Rain and Dew, Dr. J. W. Leather, 337; the Reduction of Molybdenum Dioxide by Boron, and the Combination of Boron with Molybdenum, Binet du Jassoneix, 344; the Composition of an Acetic Ferment, E. Alilaire, 344; the Presence of Neon amongst the Gases from some Hot Springs, Charles Moureu and Robert Biquard, 344; Problems in Animal Metabolism, J. B. Leathes, 349; Action of Emulsine on β -Glycosides, Prof. Hugh Ryan and G. Ebrill, 374; Composition of a Nitrogen Mineral Water at St. Edmundsbury, Lucan, Dr. W. E. Adeney, 374; Two Lecture Experiments in Illustration of the Theory of Ionisation, Dr. W. W. Taylor, 375; Contribution to the Study of Ultramarine, C. Chabrie and F. Levallois, 376; Zirconium Silicide (ZrSi) and Titanium Silicide (TiSi), Otto Hönigschmid, 376; the Alloys of Lead and Calcium, L. Hackspill, 376; the Constitution of Hordenine, E. Léger, 376; the Diamino-acids derived from Ovalbumen, L. Hugouneq and J. Galimard, 376; Joseph Priestley, T. E. Thorpe, F.R.S., 378; the Chemical Nature of Thorium and the Origin of its Radio-activity, Dr. Bertram Boltwood, 385; Isolation and Identification of Radio-thorium from the Sediments of Bad Kreuznach, Messrs. Elster and Geitel, 473; Method of Isolating Radio-thorium from Thorium Salts, G. A. Blanc and O. Angelucci, 574; Method of Estimating the Proportion of Radium or Thorium in a Mineral by Means of the γ Rays which it Emits, A. S. Eve, 574; the Affinity Constants of Amphoteric Electrolytes, I., Methyl Derivatives of Para-amino-benzoic Acid and of

- Glycine, John Johnston, II., Methyl Derivatives of Ortho- and Meta-amino-benzoic Acids, A. C. Cumming, III., Methylated Amino-acids, James Walker, 407; Alloys of Manganese and Molybdenum, M. Arrivant, 408; Silver Sulphide, Selenide, and Telluride, H. Pélabon, 408; a Curative Product derived from Tuberculinine, G. Baudran, 408; a Fireproof Celluloid, 415; the Iodo-mercurates of Sodium and Barium, A. Duboin, 436; the Borostannates of the Alkaline Earths, the Reproduction of Nordenskiöldine, L. Ouvrard, 436; Lehrbuch der gerichtlichen Chemie, Dr. Georg Baumert, Dr. M. Dennstedt, and Dr. F. Voigtländer, 440; Naturkonstanten in Alphabetischer Anordnung, Prof. Dr. H. Erdmann and Dr. P. Köthner, 442; Thermodynamic Reasoning, Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 443; W. C. D. Whetham, F.R.S., 443; the Radio-activity of the Chemical Elements, C. W. Raffety, 444; the Oxidation of Atmospheric Nitrogen in the Electric Arc, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 444; Death of G. W. Lehmann, 449; Metallic Lead Electrolytically Deposited from an Acidified Solution of Lead Acetate, R. C. Snowdon, 452; Behaviour of Ferromanganese Anodes in Solutions of Caustic Soda, G. R. White, 452; Preparation of Pure Barium starting from its Suboxide, M. Guntz, 460; Water Softening and Treatment, W. H. Booth, 464; Wentzki's Method of Purifying Hydrogen which Contains Arsenic, 471; the Blue Substance formed by the Action of Iodine on Starch Paste, M. Padoa and B. Savaré, 473-4; Method for determining Velocities of Saponification, James Walker, 483; New Element Present as an Impurity in Krypton and Xenon, Dr. Baly, 499; Dr. Rudolf Schmidt, 499; Death of Prof. Leon Prunier, 521; the Main Source of "Precipitable" Substance, and on the Role of the Homologous Protein in Precipitin Reactions, Prof. D. A. Welsh and Dr. H. G. Chapman, 531; the Atomic Weight of Silver, P. A. Guye and G. Ter-Gazarain, 532, 548; Avogadro and Dalton, the Standing in Chemistry of their Hypotheses, Dr. Andrew N. Meldrum, 537; Hydrolysis of Iron, Chromium, Tin, Cobalt, and Nickel Salts by Solutions containing Alkali Iodide and Iodate, S. E. Moody, 547; the Petroleum of North America, Clifford Richardson, 547; Report of the Government Laboratory for the Year ending March 31, 548; Action of Fluorine on Chlorine, and a New Method of Formation of Hypochlorous Acid, Paul Lebeau, 556; Action of Mixed Organo-magnesium Compounds upon Amides, Constantin Béis, 556; Chemical and Electrical Changes induced by Light, H. S. Allen, 564; Selenium and Tellurium Elements Isomorphous, Drs. G. Pellini and G. Vio, 574; Physical Properties of Fused Magnesium Oxide, H. M. Goodwin and R. D. Mailev, 574; the Basic Carbonates of Magnesium, W. A. Davis, 574; the Poisonous Principle of the Zamia Palm, E. A. Mann and T. I. Wallas, 580; Products of Development of Certain Species of Moulds, B. Gosio, 594; a New Hypothesis connecting the Fluorescence of Organic Substances with their Chemical Constitution, Profs. Luigi Francesconi and G. Bargellini, 618; the New Muspratt Laboratory of Physical and Electro-chemistry at the University of Liverpool, 624; the Mechanism of Carbon Assimilation in Green Plants, the Photolytic Decomposition of Carbon Dioxide *in vitro*, F. L. Usher and J. H. Priestley, 627; Studies on Enzyme Action, Lipase, Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., and Dr. Ernest Ormerod, 627; New Examples of Rosaceæ containing Hydrocyanic Acid, L. Guignard, 628; Constituents of the Alloys of Manganese and Molybdenum, G. Arrivaut, 628; the Alcoholic Ferment of Yeast-juice, part II., the Coferment of Yeast-juice, Dr. Arthur Harden and W. J. Young, 628; Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. T. T. Beilstein, 641; Toxic Principles of the Bitter Variety of the Fruit of *Luffa aegyptiaca*, C. L. Bose, 643; Prussic Acid in Fodder Plants, Dr. J. W. Leather, 649; Succinic Pinacone, Louis Henry, 651; the Dialysis of the Sugar of the Blood, R. Lepine and M. Boulud, 651; Chemical Functions of Textiles, Léo Vignon, 651; the Condensation of Acetylenic Nitriles with the Amines, Ch. Moureu and I. Lazennec, 652; Experimental Electro-chemistry, N. Munro Hopkins, Supp. to May 3, vi; Abhandlungen und Vorträge zur Geschichte der Naturwissenschaften, Prof. E. O. von Lippmann, Supp. to October 11, vii
- Chereau (F.), α -Chlorocyclohexanone and its Derivatives, 120
- Child (Prof. C. D.), Ionisation and Temperature, 125
- Chinese Observation of Nature, W. Hoskyns-Abraham, 351
- Chisholm (Geo. G.), an Introduction to Practical Geography, A. T. Simmons and Hugh Richardson, 27
- Chloroform, the Electrical Signs of Life and their Abolition by, Dr. Augustus D. Waller, F.R.S., 447
- Chree (Dr. C., F.R.S.), Atmospheric Electricity in Algeria, Ch. Nordmann, 505; Stress in Magnetised Iron, 539
- Chrétien (P.), Three New Compounds of Selenium and Antimony, 216
- Chromosphere, Luminous Particles in the, Dr. Deslandres, 18
- Chromospheric Radiations, Proposed Daily Photographs of, M. Deslandres, 135
- Chromospheric Spectra, Sun-spot and, Prof. A. Fowler, 135
- Chronology: Solar and Lunar Cycles implied in the Prophetic Numbers in the Book of Daniel, Dr. W. Bell Dawson, 154; the Day of the Week for any Date, W. E. Johnson, 271
- Chrystal (Prof.), Limnographic Apparatus and Measurements on Loch Earn, 483
- Chubb (Dr. G. C.), Yolk-nucleus in the Oocyte of Antedon, 61
- Civita (T. Levi), sur la Recherche des Solutions particulières des Systèmes différentiels et sur les Mouvements stationnaires, 265
- Clark (A. H.), the Effects of Inbreeding, Cross-breeding, and Selection upon *Drosophila*, 337
- Clark (John B.), Arithmetic for Schools and Colleges, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Clarke (C. Baron, F.R.S.), Death of, 448; Obituary Notice of, 495
- Classen (E.), German Scientific and Technological Reader, 583
- Claude (Georges), Liquefaction of Air by Expansion with External Work, 216; the Liquefaction of Air and its Application to the Manufacture of Oxygen and Nitrogen, 306
- Clerk (Dugald), Specific Heat of, Heat Flow from, and other Phenomena of the Working Fluid in the Cylinder of the Internal Combustion Engine, 164
- Clerke (Agnes M.), Modern Cosmogonies, 350
- Close (Major C. F.), Text-book of Topographical and Geographical Surveying, 98
- Clough (C. T.), the Geology of Mid-Argyll, 9
- Clowes (Dr.), Cancer, 529
- Coal: Carboni fossili inglesi, Dr. Guglielmo Gherardi, 514
- Coal-tar Industry, International Celebration of the Jubilee of the, Dr. J. C. Cain, 318; American Chemists and the Jubilee of the, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 514; see Chemistry
- Coates (J. E.), Densities of Liquid Nitrogen and Liquid Oxygen and of their Mixtures, 142
- Cockayne (Dr.), Ecology of New Zealand, 450; "Fluctuating Variation" in New Zealand Plants, 546; the Flora of the Poor Knights Islands, 546
- Cockerell (T. D. A.), Fossil Fauna and Flora of the Florissant Shales, 370
- Cohn (Dr. H.), Death of, 521; Obituary Notice of, 545
- Coins, Discovery of Seven Thousand Roman, Aquila Dodgson, 20
- Cole (Prof. Grenville A. J.), Petrogenesis, Dr. C. Doelter, 242; the Alleged Triassic Foraminifera of Chellaston, near Derby, 480; on the Origin of the Trias, 550; Geological Studies in South Africa, 646
- Coleman (H. S.), Cleaning of Work by Means of the Electric Current, 23
- Coles (S. Cowper), on Electropositive Coatings for the Protection of Iron and Steel from Corrosion, 501
- Colles (W. M.), Aldehydrol and the Hydrates of Compounds containing a Carbonyl Group, 311
- Collet (Dr. Léon W.), Chemical Composition of Glauconite, 215

- Collett (Anthony), a Handbook of British Inland Birds, 511
- Collinge (Walter E.), Report on the Injurious Insects and Other Animals observed in the Midland Counties during 1905, 293
- Collins (F. Howard), "390° Mariners' Compass Card," 594
- Collodion Emulsion, Henry Oscar Klein, 5
- Coloration of Sodalite, Fugitive, Jas. Currie, 564
- Colour Illusions, B. J. P. R., 586
- Colour Phenomena in *Boletus coeruleus*, Edgar Trevi-thick, 318; Geo. Masee, 380
- Colour Photography: M. Lippmann's Method of Photo-graphy in Colour, 459; Natural-colour Photography, Dr. E. König, Supp. to October 11, vi; Colour-correct Photo-graphy, T. Thorne Baker, Supp. to October 11, vi
- Colouring of Guereza Monkeys, Mr. Lydekker, 309
- Colours and Magnitudes of Double Stars, Mr. Lewis, 549
- Colours of Sun-spots, the, Th. Hansen, 548
- Colquhoun (Archibald R.), a People at School, H. Fielding Hall, Supp. to May 3, vii
- Comets: Comets 1906a and 1906c, Prof. Abetti, 18; E. Ström-gren, 18; Comet 1906c, Miss Lamson, 64; Comet 1906b (Kopff), M. Ebell, 64, 158; Prof. Wolf, 158; Observations of Comet 1905c, 88; the Expected Return of Holmes's Comet, Dr. H. J. Zwiers, 41; Return of Holmes's Comet (1906f), Prof. Max Wolf, 474; Holmes's Comet (1906f), Prof. Wolf, 499, 525; Observations of Comets, Prof. H. Howe, 112; Search-ephemeris for Finlay's Comet, M. L. Schulhof, 231; Finlay's Comet (1906d), L. Schulhof, 253, 282, 339, 371, 386, 417, 453, 499, 522; Herr Kopf, 282; M. Fayet, 339; M. J. Guillaume, 417; M. Quéni-set, 575; Observations of Minor Planets and Comets, Prof. E. Weiss, 306; Dis-covery of a New Comet (1906e), Herr Kopf, 452; Herr Graff, 453, 499; Comet 1906e (Kopff), M. Ebell, 474, 499, 575; Prof. E. C. Pickering, 499; Prof. Millosevich, 575; Messrs. Crawford and Champreux, 619
- Commutator Motors, Single-phase, F. Punga, 606
- Compass Adjustment, Lectures on, Captain W. R. Martin, 221
- Compatriots' Club Lectures, Supp. to October 11, ix
- Comstock (George C.), the Luminosity of the Brighter Stars, 41
- Concrete Blocks, the Manufacture of, and their Use in Building Construction, H. H. Rice and W. M. Torrance, 608
- Condensation Nuclei, C. T. R. Wilson, F.R.S., 619
- Condon (T.), Seal-skull from Miocene of the Oregon Coast, 208
- Congo, Reports of the Expedition to the, 1903-5, Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, 269
- Congresses: the International Congress of Anthropology and Prehistoric Archaeology, 211; Botanical Congress at Hamburg, 621
- Constable (F. C.), Poverty and Hereditary Genius, a Criticism of Mr. Francis Galton's Theory of Hereditary Genius, 350
- Constellations, Researches into the Origin of the Primitive, of the Greeks, Phœnicians, and Babylonians, Robert Brown, jun., 410
- Conway (Sir Martin), No Man's Land, a History of Spits-bergen from its Discovery in 1596 to the Beginning of the Scientific Exploration of the Country, 381
- Cooke (H. M.), Old Pewter, 281
- Coomaraswamy (A. K.), Sinhalese Earthenware, 408
- Coomaraswamy (Ethel M.), Old Sinhalese Embroidery, 450
- Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905 delivered at the, Sir Patrick Manson, Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, Supp. to May 3, ix
- Copperthwaite (W. C.), Tunnel Shields and the Use of Compressed Air in Subaqueous Works, 348
- Cornish Circles, Notes on some, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., 126
- Corona, Photographing the, without a Total Eclipse, MM. Millochau and Stefanik, 112, 158
- Cortie (A. L.), Total Solar Eclipse of August 30, 1905, 142; Radium not detected in Extra-terrestrial Bodies, 454
- Corvus cornix* and *C. corone*, Distribution of the Forms of, J. A. Harvie-Brown, 175; the Reviewer, 175
- Cosmogony: History of the Planetary System from Thales to Kepler, Dr. J. L. E. Dreyer, 49; Modern Cosmo-gonies, Agnes M. Clerke, 350
- Cotswolds, Highways and Byways in Oxford and the, Herbert A. Evans, 124
- Coulter (John M.), a Text-book of Botany, Supp. to October 11, v
- Couturat (Louis), les Principes des Mathématiques, 265
- Cousins (H. H.), Cassava Trials at the Hope Experiment Station, Jamaica, 208
- Coutts (Dr. J. M.), Recent Epidemic of Trypanosomiasis in Mauritius, 375
- Coventry (E. M.), the Rubber-tree *Ficus elastica*, 450
- Cowan (J. L.), United States "Dry-farming," 304
- Cowell (P. H.), Ancient Eclipses, 11
- Cramp (Wm.), on an Apparatus for the Production of an Active Mixture of Gases which may be Used for Bleach-ing and Sterilising Purposes, 525
- Craniology: Craniology of Natives of the Madras Presi-dency, Thugs, Veddahs, Tibetans, and Seistanis, Sir William Turner, K.C.B., 215; Skull of Immanuel Kant Contrasted with that of a Member of the Neanderthal Race, A. Rauber, 280; the Correlation between Intelli-gence and the Size of the Head, Dr. Raymond Pearl, 304; Skulls of Californian Indians, A. Hrdlicka, 335
- Crawford (Mr.), Comet 1906e, 619
- Crichton (D. C.), Electrolysis of Potassium Ethyl Dipropyl Malonate, 190
- Crichton-Browne (Sir James), Birth-rate of Blackpool, 545
- Crime, Chemistry and the Detection of, 440
- Critic of Biometry, the Latest, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 465
- Croft (W. B.), some Simple Questions on the Images of Microscopes and Telescopes, 71
- Crompton (Colonel), on Electropositive Coatings for the Protection of Iron and Steel from Corrosion, 501
- Crookes (Sir William, F.R.S.), the Ultra-violet Spectrum of Ytterbium, 343; on Radio-activity and the Internal Structure of the Earth, 454
- Crossland (C.), the Fungus Flora of Yorkshire, 196
- Crustacea: the British Woodlice, being a Monograph of the Terrestrial Isopod Crustacea occurring in the British Islands, Wilfred Mark Webb and Charles Sillem, 99
- Crystallography: the Action of "α" Radiation on Diamonds, C. W. R., 271
- Crystals: State of Colouring Matters in Crystals Coloured Artificially, P. Gaubert, 24
- Cubic Surfaces, on Models of, W. H. Blythe, 197
- Cull (Miss), Life Cycle of the Protozoa, 552
- Cumberland, a Larch Sawfly in, 529
- Cumming (A. C.), Methyl Derivatives of Ortho- and Meta-amino-benzoic Acids, 407
- Cunnington (W. A.), the Tanganyika Problem, 550
- Curie (Madame), Polonium Identical with Radium F, 185
- Currie (Jas.), Fugitive Coloration of Sodalite, 564
- Curtis (Dr. H. D.), the Origin of Castor, 282
- Cyanide Industry, the, Theoretically and Practically Con-sidered, R. Robine and M. Lenglen, Dr. T. K. Rose, 195
- Cytology: *Algemeine Biologie*, Oscar Hertwig, Prof. J. B. Farmer, F.R.S., 25
- Dairy Chemistry, Harry Snyder, 243
- Dalby (Prof. W. E.), on Experiments Illustrating the Balancing of Engines, 501; on Suction-gas Plants, 501
- Dale (Sir David, Bart.), Death of, 38
- Dale (T. F.), the Fox, 78
- Dall (W. H.), Smithsonian Institution, Bulletin of the United States Museum, Fossil Invertebrates, 163
- Dalton (W. H.), on the "Red Hills" of the East Coast Salt Marshes, 457
- Dalton, Avogadro and, the Standing in Chemistry of their Hypotheses, Dr. Andrew N. Meldrum, 537
- Daniel, Solar and Lunar Cycles implied in the Prophetic Numbers in the Book of, Dr. W. Bell Dawson, 154
- Darbishire (A. D.), a New Conception of Segregation, 553
- Darbishire (Dr. F. V.), on Oxidation in Soils and its Rela-tion to Productiveness, 526

- Darwin (Dr. Francis), Periodicity, 161
- Darwin (Sir G. H., K.C.B., F.R.S.), the Bicentenary Celebration of the Birth of Benjamin Franklin, 36; Report of the Directors of the Meteorological Office upon an Inquiry into the Relation between the Estimates of Wind-force According to Admiral Beaufort's Scale and the Velocities Recorded by Anemometers belonging to the Office, 106; the Figure and Stability of a Liquid Satellite, 115; the South African Medal of the British Association, 225; on Radio-activity and the Internal Structure of the Earth, 454
- Darwinism and the Problems of Life, a Study of Familiar Animal Life, Prof. Conrad Guenther, 268
- Date, the Day of Week for any, W. E. Johnson, 271
- Date of Easter, the, Alexander D. Ross, 175; Chas. Leigh, 175; Dr. J. L. E. Dreyer, 199; Rev. C. S. Taylor, 200
- Davenport (C. B.), Inheritance in Poultry, 583
- David (Prof. Edgeworth), on the Problems connected with the Palæozoic Glaciation of Australia, India, and South Africa, 549
- Davies (J. H.), Physical Constants of Ammonia, 261
- Davies (S. H.), on the Removal of Dust and Smoke from Chimney Gases, 500; on the Chemistry of Gums, 526
- Davis (Harvey N.), the Longitudinal Vibrations of a Rubbed String, 473
- Davis (W. A.), the Basic Carbonates of Magnesium, 574
- Davison (Dr. Charles), the Earthquake in South Wales, 225
- Dawson (Dr. W. Bell), Solar and Lunar Cycles implied in the Prophetic Numbers in the Book of Daniel, 154
- Day (Arthur L.), Small Plates of Quartz Glass Suitable for Optical Apparatus, 87; Lime-silica Series of Minerals, 644
- Day of Week for any Date, the, W. E. Johnson, 271
- Dead, Letters from the Dead to the, Oliver Lector, 102
- Dead Heart of Australia, the, a Journey Round Lake Eyre in the Summer of 1901-2, with some Account of the Lake Eyre Basin and the Flowing Wells of Central Australia, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 296
- Dead-water, on, the Norwegian North Polar Expedition, 1893-6, vol. v., V. Walfrid Ekman, Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 485
- Deafness in Man, Hereditary, E. Schuster, 63, 108
- Defects in Ostrich Feathers in South Africa, Prof. J. E. Duerden, 55
- Deinhardt (Kurt), the Deinhardt-Schlomann Series of Technical Dictionaries in Six Languages, English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian, 6
- Déléarde (A.), Intestinal Origin of Tuberculous Tracheobronchial Adenopathy, 143
- Demoussy (E.), Acid Properties of Starch, 24
- Dendy (Prof.), Spicule Formation in Sponges, 551; Pineal Eye of Geotria and Sphenodon, 553
- Denmark, the Development of Agriculture in, R. J. Thompson, 103
- Denning (W. F.), Observations of Jupiter in 1903 and 1905-6, 210; Early Meteors of the Perseid Shower, 246; Planets and Planetary Observations, 282, 386; a Large Meteor, 351; the Planet Mercury, 409; Observations of Jupiter, 525; Rotation Period of Jupiter's Equatorial Region, 549
- Dennstedt (Dr. M.), Lehrbuch der gerichtlichen Chemie, 440
- Dentistry: Lecture Notes on Chemistry for Dental Students, Dr. H. Carlton Smith, 315
- Deslandres (Dr.), Luminous Particles in the Chromosphere, 18; Proposed Daily Photographs of Chromospheric Radiations, 135; a New Form of Photometer, 644
- Destruction of Animals in Australia, T. Steel at Linnean Society, New South Wales, 188
- Destructors: the Disposal of Municipal Refuse, H. de B. Parsons, 630; Garbage Crematories in America, W. M. Venable, 630
- Deszendenztheorie, Vorlesungen uber, mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Botanischen Seite der Frage gehalten an der Reichsuniversität zu Leiden, Dr. J. P. Lotsy, W. Bateson, F.R.S., 146
- Determinants, the Theory of, in the Historical Order of Development, Dr. T. Muir, F.R.S., 462
- Dewar (Sir James, F.R.S.), Metallic Jacketed Vacuum Vessels, 60; New Charcoal Calorimeter and Thermoscope, 203; the Matteucci Medal awarded to, 477
- Diamonds, the Action of "a" Radiation on, C. W. R., 271
- Dickinson and Shields's (Messrs.) Soap Bubble Fountain, 111
- Dictionaries, the Deinhardt-Schlomann Series of Technical, in Six Languages, English German, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian, Kurt Deinhardt and Alfred Schlomann, 6
- Dieseldorff (E. P.), Mexican and Central American Antiquities, Calendar Systems, and History, 30
- Diet: Study of the Diets of Students' Residences in Edinburgh, Dr. Isabella Cameron, 263; Diet and Diets, Prof. A. Gautier, 380
- Diffoth (Paul), Agriculture Générale, le Sol et les Labours, 4
- Diffusion, Thermodynamics of, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 246
- Dines (W. H., F.R.S.), Balloons and Kites in the Service of Meteorology, 35; Report of the Directors of the Meteorological Office upon an Inquiry into the Relation between the Estimates of Wind-force according to Admiral Beaufort's Scale and the Velocities recorded by Anemometers belonging to the Office, 106; Typical Squall at Oxshott, May 25, 1906, 215
- Diptera, Durham, a Preliminary List of, with Analytical Tables, Rev. W. J. Wingate, 512
- Dirichlet's (G. Lejeune), Vorlesungen über die Lehre von den einfachen und mehrfachen bestimmten Integralen, G. Arendt, 265
- Discovery of Logarithms, the, Cecil Seymour-Browne, 174; the Reviewer, 175
- Discovery of Magnetic Declination, the, Prof. G. Hellmann, 137
- Disease: Preventable Disease and Military Strength, 154; Family Diseases and Temperaments, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 245; Bacteria in Relation to Plant Diseases, Erwin F. Smith, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 294; the Management of a Nerve Patient, Dr. A. T. Schofield, 440; Diseases of Sheep, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 623
- Disinfectant, Sulphur Dioxide as a, Dr. John Wade, 209
- Distant (W. L.), a Synonymic Catalogue of Homoptera, part i., Cicadidæ, 107; the Fauna of British India, including Ceylon and Burma, Rhynchota, vol. iii., Heteroptera-Homoptera, 220
- Distillation: Hindu Method of manufacturing Spirit from Rice, J. C. Ray, 96
- Distribution of the Stars, Prof. Kapteyn, 112
- Disturbance of Greenwich Observations, 200
- Diurnal Variation of Ionisation in Closed Vessels, George C. Simpson, 8; Dr. O. W. Richardson, 55
- Dixey (Dr. F. A.), Papers on Lepidoptera, 552
- Dixon (Prof. A. C.), on Expansions in Products of Oscillatory Functions, 456
- Dodgson (Aquila), Discovery of Seven Thousand Roman Coins, 20
- Doelter (Dr. C.), Petrogenesis, 242
- Doflein (Dr. F.), Termite Truffles, 157; Ostasienfahrt. Erlebnisse und Beobachtungen eines Naturforschers in China, Japan, und Ceylon, 510
- Dog-feeding, the Secrets of, 149
- Dollo (L.), Zoologie-Poissons, 298
- Doncaster (L.), the Nature of Fertilisation, 551; Papers on Lepidoptera, 553
- Doolittle (Prof.), Measures of Double and Multiple Stars, 88
- Dorsey (G. A.), the Ponca Sun Dance, 645
- Double Stars: New Catalogue of Double Stars, Prof. R. G. Aitken, 18; New Double Stars, Rev. T. E. Espin, 211; Measures of Double and Multiple Stars, Prof. Doolittle, 88; Double-star Measures, Dr. G. van Biesbroeck, 371; Colours and Magnitudes of Double Stars, Mr. Lewis, 549
- Dow (J. S.), Colour Phenomena in Photometry, 166
- Downing (Dr.), the Total Solar Eclipse of January, 1908, 18; Occultation of a Star by Venus, 57c
- α Draconis, Radial Velocity of, H. Ludendorff, 185
- Dreaper (W. P.), Absorption of Gallic Acid by Organic Colloids, 94
- Dredge (James), Death of, 414

- Dreyer (Dr. J. L. E.), History of the Planetary System from Thales to Kepler, 49; the Date of Easter, 199
- Druce (G. Claridge), Suspended Germination of Seeds, 586
- Druce (Prof.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 277
- Drugman (J.), Oxidation of Hydrocarbons by Ozone at Low Temperatures, 190
- du Jassoneix (Binet), Magnetic Properties of the Compounds of Boron and Manganese, 216; the Reduction of Molybdenum Dioxide by Boron and the Combination of Boron with Molybdenum, 344
- Dublin, Royal Irish Academy, 166, 374
- Dublin Royal Society, 142, 166, 311
- Duboin (A.), the Iodomercurates of Sodium and Barium, 436
- Duckworth (Dr. W. L. H.), on a Rare Anomaly in Human Crania from Kwaiawata Island, 458
- Duddell (W.), Mechanical and Electrical Phenomena occurring in the Telephonic Transmission of Speech, 60
- Duerden (J. E.), Defects in Ostrich Feathers in South Africa, 55
- Duffield (W. G.), on Photographs of the Arc Spectrum of Iron under High Pressures, 455
- Dunell (G. R.), Speed and Stability in Railway Travelling, 636
- Dunn (S. T.), Alien Flora of Britain, 170
- Dunstan (Prof. Wyndham, F.R.S.), Cyanogenetic Plants, 61; a Variety of Thorianite from Galle, Ceylon, 190; Opening Address in Section B at the Meeting of the British Association at York, some Imperial Aspects of Applied Chemistry, 361; on the Production of Hydrogen Cyanide in Plants, 525
- Durham Diptera, a Preliminary List of, with Analytical Tables, Rev. W. J. Wingate, 512
- Dussaud (M.), Amplification of Sounds, 580
- Dutton (Major C. E.), Possible Relationship between Volcanic Action and Radio-activity, 184
- Dwight (Prof. W. B.), Death of, 470
- Dyke (John C. Van), the Opal Sea, 269
- Dynamics: the Mixed Transformation of Lagrange's Equations, Prof. T. Levi-Civita, 488; A. B. Basset, F.R.S., 489, 540; Dr. E. J. Routh, F.R.S., 516; the Dynamics of Living Matter, Prof. Jacques Loeb, 631
- Dynamite Explosions at Vinterarken, near Stockholm, 62
- Dyson (F. W., F.R.S.), New Reduction of Groombridge's Circumpolar Catalogue for the Epoch 1810-0, 90
- Earp (Rowland A.), Solar and Lunar Halos, 150
- Earth, the Face of the, (Das Antlitz der Erde), Prof. Eduard Suess, 629
- Earth History, Geology, Thomas C. Chamberlin and Rollin D. Salisbury, 557
- Earth-eating and the Earth-eating Habit in India, D. Hooper and H. H. Mann, 543
- Earth's Interior, the, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 412
- Earthquakes: Earthquake Shocks in California, 14; the San Francisco Earthquake of April 18, Dr. T. J. J. See, 30; the Californian Earthquake of April 18, 178; Report upon, 285; Possible Connection between the Recent Disturbances at Vesuvius and San Francisco, Rev. H. V. Gill, 166; Earthquakes in Chile, 37, 522; in Calabria, 155; the Earthquake in South Wales, 206; Dr. Charles Davison, 225; Earthquake in Perthshire, 251; in Semirechensk, Central Asia, 382; in India, 382; the Earthquake in South America, 412, 471; Earthquakes at Valparaiso and Santiago, 449; in New South Wales, 449; at Matlock, 449; in Norway, 471; Earthquakes at Sicily, 522, 544; at Transcaucasia, 522; in Peru, 544; Earthquakes at Puertorico, 571; at St. Thomas, 571; Horizontal Pendulums and Earthquake Eclipses, Dr. C. Coleridge Farr, 515; Prof. John Milne, F.R.S., 515
- East, the Vanishing, Archibald R. Colquhoun, Supp. to May 3, vii
- Easter, the Date of, Alexander D. Ross, 175; Chas. Leigh, 175; Dr. J. L. E. Dreyer, 199; Rev. C. S. Taylor, 200
- Ebell (M.), Comet 1906c, 64; Comet 1906b, 64, 158; Comet 1906e (Kopff), 474, 499, 575
- Ebert (H.), Magnetische Kraftfelder, 583
- Ebert (W.), Study of an Apparatus designed by M. Lippmann for the Photographic Measurement of Right Ascensions, 343-4
- Ebrill (E.), Action of Emulsine on β -Glycosides, 374
- Eccles (Dr. W. H.), Effect of Oscillations on Iron in a Magnetic Field, 262
- Eclipses: Ancient Eclipses, P. H. Cowell, 11; the Total Solar Eclipse of January, 1908, Dr. Downing, 18; the Total Solar Eclipse of January, 1907, W. T. Lynn, 548; Italian Observations of the Total Solar Eclipse, 1905, Prof. Ricco, 418; Photographing the Corona without a Total Eclipse, MM. Millochau and Stefanik, 112, 158
- Economic Zoology, Fred. V. Theobald, 293
- Economics, Agricultural, an Introduction to the Study of, Henry C. Taylor, 193
- Edinburgh: Edinburgh Royal Society, 94, 191, 215, 263, 375, 483; the Tarpan and its Relationship with Wild and Domestic Horses, Prof. J. C. Ewart, F.R.S., at, 113; the Meteorology of the Free Atmosphere, L. Teisserenc de Bort at, 255; the Royal Society of Edinburgh and the National Galleries of Scotland: Bill, 137; the Royal Society of Edinburgh and the Government, 150; Modern Needs in Universities, Dr. Andrew Carnegie at the University of Edinburgh, 648
- Edington (Dr. Alex.), Recent Epidemic of Trypanosomiasis in Mauritius, 375
- Edmunds (Arthur), Regeneration of Nerves, 579
- Education: the Education and Training of the Engineer, 33; Visit of Representatives of University Education in France, 83, 159; the Launching of a University, and other Papers, Dr. J. D. C. Gilman, 123; the New Buildings of Armstrong College, Newcastle-on-Tyne, 232; School Gardening for Little Children, Lucy R. Latter, 411; Death and Obituary Notice of Monsignor Molloy, 571; the Place of the Modern University in the State, 589; Proposed Changes in the Mathematical Tripos at Cambridge, 641; Modern Needs in Universities, Dr. Andrew Carnegie at the University of Edinburgh, 648; see also British Association
- Edwards (C. L.), Phases of the Gastrulation of the Horned Toad, 592
- Edwards (Major W. E.), on Modern Armour and its Attack, 500
- Eggar (W. D.), a Manual of Geometry, 124
- Eggs, White- and Brown-shelled, 489
- Egypt: a Descriptive Catalogue of the Tertiary Vertebrata of the Fayûm, Egypt, based on the Collection of the Egyptian Government in the Geological Museum, Cairo, and on the Collection in the British Museum (Natural History), London, Dr. C. W. Andrews, F.R.S., 175; the Source of the Blue Nile, a Record of a Journey through the Sudan to Tsana in Western Abyssinia, and of the Return to Egypt by the Valley of the Atbara, with a Note on the Religion, Customs, &c., of Abyssinia, Arthur J. Hayes, Entomological Appendix by Prof. E. B. Poulton, F.R.S., Sir H. H. Johnston, K.C.M.G., 247; the Physiography of the River Nile and its Basin, Captain H. G. Lyons, 461; Agriculture in Egypt, 649
- Egyptology: the Egyptian Heaven and Hell, E. A. Wallis Budge, 10
- Ehlers (Herrn Geheimen Regierungsrat Prof. Ernst), Festschrift zur Feier seines siebenzigsten Geburtstages am 11 Nov. 1905, Dr. F. W. Gamble, 50
- Eichorn (Dr. Gustav), Wireless Telegraphy, 290
- Eigenmann (Prof. Carl), Zoological Distribution of Fresh-water Fishes of South and Central America, 183
- Ekman (V. Walfrid), the Norwegian North Polar Expedition, 1893-6, vol. v., on Dead-water, 485
- Elasticity, a Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of, A. E. H. Love, 74
- Electricity: Osmotic Pressure, Earl of Berkeley, 7, 54, 245; E. J. Hartley, 54, 245; W. C. D. Whetham, F.R.S., 54, 102, 295; Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 79; Norman B. Campbell, 79; Prof. L. Kahlenberg, 222; Electrical Measuring Machine, Dr. P. E. Shaw, 22; Clearing of Work by Means of the Electric Current, H. S. Coleman, 23; Method of Exploding Mines by Means of Acoustic Waves, 40; Standard Test for Transformers and Transformer Iron, Dr. D. K. Morris and G. A. Lister, 64; a Galvanometer with a Movable Needle for Alternating Currents, Henri Abraham, 72; Dead Points of a Galvanometer Needle for Transient Currents, A. Russell, 93; Measurement of the Earth Air Current

- and the Origin of Atmospheric Electricity, C. T. R. Wilson, 94; les Procédés de Commande à Distance au Moyen de l'Électricité, Captain Régis Frilley, 125; Behaviour of Platinised Electrodes, H. D. Law, 141; the Electrochemical Problem of the Fixation of Nitrogen, Prof. Philippe A. Guye, 142; the Theory of Moving Coil and other Kinds of Ballistic Galvanometers, Prof. H. A. Wilson, 166; Bifilar Galvanometer Free from Zero Creep, A. Campbell, 166; Applications of Bessel's Functions to Physics, Prof. F. Purser, 166; Resistance of Electrolytes for High-frequency Currents, André Broca and S. Turchini, 166; Automatic Arc-lamp, H. Tomlinson and G. T. Johnston, 166; Long-flame Arc Lamps, L. Andrews, 573; the Magnetic Inertia of a Charged Sphere in a Field of Electric Force, G. F. C. Searle, F.R.S., 108; Visibly Luminous Electrical Discharges in *vacuo* obtained with Comparatively Low Electrical Pressures, A. A. C. Swinton, 204; Method of obtaining Continuous Currents from a Magnetic Detector of the Self-restoring Type, L. H. Walter, 214; Electricity Meters, a Treatise on the General Principles, Construction, and Testing of Continuous Current and Alternating Current Meters for the Use of Electrical Engineers and Students, Henry G. Solomon, 219; Theory of Directive Antennæ or Unsymmetrical Hertzian Oscillators, Prof. J. A. Fleming, F.R.S., 238; Effects of Self-induction in an Iron Cylinder, Prof. Ernest Wilson, 239; Simple Form of Rotating Kathode for Electrochemical Analysis, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 239; Electrolysis of Solutions of Thiocyanates in Pyridine and in Acetone, S. Binning and Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 239; Effect of Radium in facilitating the Visible Electric Discharge in *vacuo*, A. A. C. Swinton, 262; Effect of the Electric Spark on the Activity of Metals, T. A. Vaughton, 262; Dielectric Strength of Thin Liquid Films, Dr. P. E. Shaw, 262; Effect of Oscillations on Iron in a Magnetic Field, Dr. W. H. Eccles, 262; Aufnahme und Analyse von Wechselstromkurven, Dr. Ernst Orlich, Dr. J. A. Harker, 268; Telegraphy, T. E. Herbert, Maurice Solomon, 290; the Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy, Dr. J. A. Fleming, Maurice Solomon, 290; Wireless Telegraphy, Dr. Gustav Eichorn, Maurice Solomon, 290; Wireless Telegraphy, W. J. White, Maurice Solomon, 290; an Electrically Controlled Petrol Motor-bus, 302; Electricity in Mines, 309; Action of the Silent Discharge on Cyanogen, H. Gaudechon, 312; the Positive Charge carried by the α Particle, Frederick Soddy, 316; Moteurs à Collecteur à Courants alternatifs, Dr. F. Niethammer, Val. A. Fynn, 346; Relation existing between Electrical Resistance and the Viscosity of Electrolytic Solutions, P. Massoulier, 376; die neueren Wandlungen der electrischen Theorien einschliesslich der Elektronentheorie zwei Vorträge, Dr. Gustave Holzmüller, 380; the Oxidation of Atmospheric Nitrogen in the Electric Arc, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 444; the Electrical Signs of Life and their Abolition by Chloroform, Dr. Augustus D. Waller, F.R.S., 447; Metallic Lead Electrolytically deposited from an Acidified Solution of Lead Acetate, R. C. Snowdon, 452; Elementary Electrical Engineering in Theory and Practice, J. H. Alexander, 488; Atmospheric Electricity in Algeria, Ch. Nordmann, Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 505; Optical Illusions on Electric Fan, T. Terada, 540; Chemical and Electrical Changes induced by Light, H. S. Allen, 564; Electrical Engineering in Theory and Practice, G. D. Aspinall Parr, 581; Electrical Organs of the Proboscis-fish, H. Schlichter, 592; Influence of Electric Fields on Spectral Lines, Prof. G. F. Hull, 603; Single-phase Commutator Motors, F. Punga, 606; Elementary Electrical Calculations, W. H. N. James and D. L. Sands, 608; Photoelectric Properties of Anthracene, A. Pochettino, 618; the New Muspratt Laboratory of Physical and Electrochemistry at the University of Liverpool, 624; Ionic Velocities in Air at Different Temperatures, P. Phillips, 627; Electrical Nature of Matter and Radio-activity, Prof. Harry C. Jones, 632; Résistance, Inductance et Capacité, M. J. Rodet, 633; Experimental Electrochemistry, N. Munro Hopkins, Supp. to May 3, vi
- Elements of Geology, the, Prof. W. H. Norton, 102
- Elliot (G. F. Scott), a First Course in Practical Botany, Supp. to October 11, v
- Ellis (Dr.), Experiments to show that Ciliation cannot be used as a Taxonomic Character among Bacteria, 577
- Elms (E. F. M.), a Pocket-book of British Birds, 511
- Elster (M.), Isolation and Identification of Radio-thorium from the Sediments of Bad Kreuznach, 473
- Elston (T. S.), the Fluorescence of Anthracene Vapour, 385
- Embleton (Alice L.), Origin of the Sertoli or Foot-cells of the Testis, 260
- Embryology: the Breeding Industry, Walter Heape, F.R.S., Dr. Francis H. Marshall, 101
- Engels (P.), Derivatives of Brazilein, 93
- Engineering: the Deinhardt-Schlomann Series of Technical Dictionaries in Six Languages, English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian, Kurt Deinhardt and Alfred Schlomann, 6; the Education and Training of the Engineer, 33; Death of Sir David Dale, Bart., 38; Modern Milling Machines, Joseph G. Horner, 149; Specific Heat of, Heat Flow from, and other Phenomena of the Working Fluid in the Cylinder of the Internal Combustion Engine, Dugald Clerk, 164; the Principles and Practice of Iron and Steel Manufacture, Walter Macfarlane, 197; a Practical Manual of Tides and Waves, W. H. Wheeler, 218; Electricity Meters, a Treatise on the General Principles, Construction, and Testing of Continuous Current and Alternating Current Meters for the Use of Electrical Engineers and Students, Henry G. Solomon, 219; Theory of Structures and Strength of Materials, Prof. Henry T. Bovey, 243; Great Tunnels, Lewis M. Haupt, 280; Tunnel Shields, and the Use of Compressed Air in Subaqueous Works, W. C. Copperthwaite, 348; Modern Tunnel Practice, D. McNeely Stauffer, 409; Iron and Steel Institute, 340; the Geometry of the Screw Propeller, W. J. Goudie, 350; die neuen Wandlungen der electrischen Theorien einschliesslich der Elektronentheorie zwei Vorträge, Dr. Gustave Holzmüller, 380; Death of James Dredge, 414; Elementary Electrical Engineering in Theory and Practice, J. H. Alexander, 488; Institution of Civil Engineers' Medal Awards, 571; Electrical Engineering in Theory and Practice, G. D. Aspinall Parr, 581; the Standardisation of Error, 593; the Manufacture of Concrete Blocks, and their Use in Building Construction, H. H. Rice and W. M. Torrance, 608; Speed and Stability in Railway Travelling, G. R. Dunell, 636; Engineering Mathematics, Simply Explained, H. H. Harrison, Supp. to May 3, viii; see also British Association
- Entomology: der Gegensatz zwischen geographischer und nictgeographischer Variation, Karl Jordan, 6; *Termes gestroi*, Parasite of Para Rubber Trees, E. P. Stebbing, 85; Entomological Society, 119, 214; Death of Baron C. R. Von der Osten Sacken, 108; Obituary Notice of, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 180; Experiments relating to the Compound Eyes of Insects, E. J. Spitta, 109; the Grape Curculio, F. E. Brooks, 111; Relative Proportion of the Sexes in *Helopeltis theivora*, H. H. Mann, 143; a Monograph of the Insect Injuries to Indian Corn, S. A. Forbes, Fred. V. Theobald, 160; Departmental Notes on the Insects that affect Forestry, E. P. Stebbing, Fred. V. Theobald, 160; Characteristics of Certain Indian Butterflies, T. R. Bell, 183; a Synonymic Catalogue of Homoptera, part i., Cicadidae, W. L. Distant, 197; How do Inquiline Bees find the Nest of their Host? Oswald H. Latter, 200; Rash caused by Caterpillars of Gold-tail Moth (*Liparis auriflua*), 206; the Fauna of British India, including Ceylon and Burma, Rhynchota, vol. iii., Heteroptera—Homoptera, W. L. Distant, 220; the Source of the Blue Nile, a Record of a Journey through the Sudan to Tsana in Western Abyssinia, and of the Return to Egypt by the Valley of the Atbara, with a Note on the Religion, Customs, &c., of Abyssinia, Arthur Hayes, Entomological Appendix by Prof. E. B. Poulton, F.R.S., Sir H. H. Johnston, K.C.M.G., 247; Report on the Injurious Insects and other Animals observed in the Midland Counties during 1905, Walter E. Collinge, Fred. V. Theobald, 293; the Fertilisation of Pieris, I. Henry Burkill, 296; the Rose-breasted Grosbeak and the Potato-beetle, 304; Strength of a Beetle, Charles R. Keyser, 318; the Effects of Inbreeding, Cross-breeding, and Selection upon *Drosophila*, W. E. Castle, F. W. Carpenter, A. H. Clark, S. O.

- Mast, and W. M. Barrows, 337; Illustrations of British Blood-sucking Flies, Ernest Edward Austen, 441; a Fruit-attacking Insect, *Ceratitis capitata*, Alfred Giard, 460; the Butterflies of the British Isles, Richard South, 465; the Hope Reports, vol. v., 1903-6, 487; Insect Pests of the Farm and Garden, F. Martin-Duncan, 488; a Larch Sawfly in Cumberland, 529; Life-history of the Common House-fly, *Musca domestica*, L., C. Gordon Hewitt, 604; the "Digger-wasps" of North America, H. T. Fernald, 616; the Breeding Habits of the Tsetse-fly, Prof. E. A. Minchin, 636; Damage done to Crops by the Mexican Cotton-boll Weevil, Dr. W. E. Hinds, 642; the Cotton Worm, *Prodenia littoralis*, F. C. Willcocks, 649; the Cotton-boll Worm *Earias insulana*, F. C. Willcocks, 649
- Entropy of Radiation, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii
- Equatorial Region, Rotation Period of Jupiter's, Mr. Denning, 549
- Erdmann (Prof. Dr. H.), Naturkonstanten in Alphabetischer Anordnung, 442
- Eredia (Dr. F.), Fall of Dust on February 6 in Italy, 64; Rainfall Values at Collegio Romano for Eighty-one Years, 184
- Erfindung und Erfinder, A. du Bois-Reymond, 559
- Eros, Early Observations of, 42
- Errera (Prof. L.), Physiological Investigation of Fungus *Phycomyces nitens*, 157; Glycogen and Paraglycogen in the Fungi, 415
- Eruption of Vesuvius, the, Dr. H. Sjögren, 7
- Espin (Rev. T. E.), New Double Stars, 211
- Estimation of Blood-pressure, 638
- Ethics, Dr. C. W. Saleeby, 560
- Ethics, Anthropological, Dr. Edward Westermarck, 377
- Ethnology: Hopi Kacinas, Drawn by Native Artists, Jesse Walter Fewkes, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30; Iroquoian Cosmology, J. N. B. Hewitt, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30; Two Summers' Work in Pueblo Ruins, Jesse Walter Fewkes, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30; Mayan Calendar Systems, II., Cyrus Thomas, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30; the Hako, a Pawnee Ceremony, Alice C. Fletcher and James R. Murie, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30; the Zuni Indians, their Mythology, Esoteric Fraternities, and Ceremonies, Matilda Coxé Stevenson, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30; Mexican and Central American Antiquities, Calendar Systems, and History, E. Selser, E. Förstmann, P. Schellhas, C. Sapper, and E. P. Dieseldorff, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30; Haida Texts and Myths, Skidegate Dialect, John R. Swanton, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30; Two Years among New Guinea Cannibals, A. E. Pratt and H. Pratt, Dr. C. G. Seligmann, 58; Ethnological Notes on the Aboriginal Tribes of New South Wales and Victoria, R. H. Mathews, 100; the Source of the Blue Nile, a Record of a Journey through the Sudan to Tsana in Western Abyssinia, and of the Return to Egypt by the Valley of the Atbara, with a Note on the Religion, Customs, &c., of Abyssinia, Arthur J. Hayes, Entomological Appendix by Prof. E. B. Poulton, F.R.S., Sir H. H. Johnston, K.C.M.G., 247; Ethnographic Notes in Southern India, E. Thurston, 611
- Eucken (Rudolf), Beiträge zur Einführung in die Geschichte der Philosophie, 533
- Eugenics: Noteworthy Families (Modern Science), Francis Galton, F.R.S., and Edgar Schuster, 97; Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty, Frederick Adams Woods, 97
- Europäischen Laubmoose, die, Georg Roth, 170
- European Vertebrates, Dr. O. Schmiedeknecht, 463
- Evans (Herbert A.), Highways and Byways in Oxford and the Cotswolds, 124
- Evans (Dr. J. W.), Skiodroms and Isogyres, 239
- Evans (Sir John), on Bronze Weapons and Implements found near Khinaman, 457
- Eve (A. S.), Some Scientific Centres, VIII., the MacDonald Physics Building, McGill University, Montreal, Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S., 272; Method of estimating the Proportion of Radium or Thorium in a Mineral by Means of the γ Rays which it Emits, 574
- Evolution: der Gegensatz zwischen geographischer und nichtgeographischer Variation, Karl Jordan, 6; Ernst Haeckel, der Mann und sein Werk, Carl W. Neumann, 26; Haeckel, his Life and Work, Wilhelm Bölsche, 26; Last Words on Evolution, a Popular Retrospect and Summary, Ernst Haeckel, 26; Evolution the Master-key, Dr. C. W. Saleeby, 122; Vorlesungen über Deszendenztheorie mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Botanischen Seite der Frage gehalten an der Reichsuniversität zu Leiden, Dr. J. P. Lotsy, W. Bateson, F.R.S., 146; Darwinism and the Problems of Life, a Study of Familiar Animal Life, Prof. Conrad Guenther, 268; Relation between Heredity and Variation, Dr. J. Gross, 369; the Various Structural Modifications for Flight occurring in Vertebrates, Prof. R. S. Lull, 415; Racial and Habitual Evolution, Rev. John T. Gulick, 486; Illogical Geology, the Weakest Point in the Evolution Theory, George McCready Price, 513; the Evolution of the Globe, 557; Gregor Mendel's Briefe an Carl Nägeli, 1866-73, 640
- Ewart (Prof. J. C., F.R.S.), the Tarpan and its Relationship with Wild and Domestic Horses, 113
- Ewing (J. A., LL.D., F.R.S., M.Inst.C.E.), Opening Address in Section I at the Meeting of the British Association at York, 418
- Exploration: Exploration in the Himalayas, Mrs. Bullock Workman, 19; New Arctic Expeditions, 163
- Explosives: Recently devised Stability Test for Cordite, Dr. O. Silferrad and Dr. R. C. Farmer, 204; Researches on Explosives, Sir A. Noble, Bart., K.C.B., F.R.S., 506
- Face of the Earth, the, (Das Antlitz der Erde), Prof. Eduard Suess, 629
- Faculae Observations, Discussion of, Prof. Mascari, 185
- Failyer (George H.), Behaviour of Manures in Soils, 339
- Fairman (C. E.), a New Species of Sporormia, 472; a New Species of Amphispheeria, 472
- Family Ability, 97
- Family Diseases and Temperaments, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 245
- Faraday Society, 23, 141, 239, 311
- Farmer (Prof. J. B., F.R.S.), Allgemeine Biologie, Oscar Hertwig, 25
- Farmer (Dr. R. C.), Recently devised Stability Test for Cordite, 204; Decomposition of Nitrocellulose, 262
- Farr (Dr. C. Coleridge), Horizontal Pendulums and Earthquake Echoes, 515
- Faucheron (L.), Atlas Colorié de la Flore Alpine, 561
- Fauna of British India, including Ceylon and Burma, Rhynchota, vol. iii., Heteroptera—Homoptera, W. L. Distant, 220
- Fauna and Flora of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, the Wild, 53
- Fauth (Ph.), Observation of a Bright Meteor, 371
- Fauvel (Pierre), the Excretion of the Endogenous Purins and Uric Acid, 192; Influence of Chocolate and Coffee on the Excretion of Uric Acid, 240
- Fayet (M.), Finlay's Comet (1906d), 339
- Fayûm, Egypt, a Descriptive Catalogue of the Tertiary Vertebrata of the, based on the Collection of the Egyptian Government in the Geological Museum, Cairo, and on the Collection in the British Museum (Natural History), London, Dr. C. W. Andrews, F.R.S., 175
- Feeling for Nature, the Development of the, in the Middle Ages and Modern Times, Alfred Biese, 293
- Ferguson (J.), Original Habitat of the Coconut Palm, 16
- Fernald (H. T.), the "Digger-wasps" of North America, 616
- Fernbach (A.), Nearly Total Transformation of the Dextrins arising from the Saccharification of Starch into Maltose, 167
- Fertilisation of Pieris, the, I. Henry Burkill, 296
- Fewkes (Jesse Walter), Hopi Kacinas, Drawn by Native Artists, 30; Two Summers' Work in Pueblo Ruins, 30
- Fiedler (Prof. H. G.), a First German Course for Science Students, 78
- Fielding-Ould (Dr. R.), the Anti-tuberculosis Campaign, 503
- Figure and Stability of a Liquid Satellite, the, Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 115
- Figure of the Sun, the, Dr. Poor, Dr. Ambrönn, 210

- Filon (Dr. L. N. G.), Expansion of Polynomials in Series of Functions, 71
- Findlay (Dr. Alex.), Physical Chemistry and its Applications in Medical and Biological Science, 53
- Findlay (Prof. J. J.), Scientific Method in the Study of School Teaching, 502
- Finger-print Method of Identification, 415
- Finlay's Comet, Search-ephemeris for, M. L. Schulhof, 231
- Finlay's Comet (1906d), L. Schulhof, 253, 282, 339, 371, 386, 453, 499, 575; M. Fayet, 339; M. Quénesset, 575; Rediscovery of, Herr Kopf, 282
- Fire Festivals, Ancient, Thereza Story-Maskelyne, 80
- Firth (Lieut.-Colonel R. H.), Medical Science and Army Efficiency, 612
- Fischer (Franz), the Transformation of Oxygen into Ozone at High Temperatures, 185
- Fisher (Rev. O.), Radium and Geology, 585, 635
- Fisheries: Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., Andrew Scott, and James Johnstone, Frank Balfour Browne, 19; Report to the Government of Ceylon on the Pearl-oyster Fisheries of the Gulf of Manaar, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 57; the International Fisheries Investigations, 130; British Fisheries, their Administration and their Problems, a Short Account of the Origin and Growth of British Sea-fishery Authorities and Regulations, James Johnstone, 535
- Fishes, the Study of Fossil, Dr. A. Smith Woodward, F.R.S., at Geologists' Association, 597
- Fishing, Salmon, W. Earl Hodgson, 568; the Science of Dry Fly Fishing, Fred. G. Shaw, 568
- FitzGerald (Mabel Purefoy), the Lumbo-sacral-coccygeal Cord of the Macaque Monkey, 260
- Flame Cones, the Oscillation of, Prof. Arthur Smithells, F.R.S., 80
- Flashlight Photographs of Wild Animals, 489
- Flatters (Abraham), Methods in Microscopical Research, Vegetable Histology, 29
- Flechsig (M.), the Localisation of Functions in the Frontal and Pre-frontal Regions, 416
- Flemer (J. A.), an Elementary Treatise on Phototopographic Methods and Instruments, 172
- Fleming (Mrs.), Discovery of Algal Variables, 210
- Fleming (Prof. J. A., F.R.S.), Theory of Directive Antennae or Unsymmetrical Hertzian Oscillators, 238; the Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy, 290
- Fletcher (Alice C.), the Hako, a Pawnee Ceremony, 30
- Fletcher (L., F.R.S.), a Search for a Buried Meteorite, G. K. Gilbert, 490
- Flett (J. S.), the Geology of Mid-Argyll, 9
- Flies, Illustrations of British Blood-sucking, Ernest Edward Austin, 441
- Flight, the Various Structural Modifications for, occurring in Vertebrates, Prof. R. S. Lull, 415
- Flora of Britain, Alien, S. T. Dunn, 170
- Flora, the Wild Fauna and, of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, 53
- Flora Graeca, Conspectus, E. de Halácsy, 314
- Flower Pollination, Handbook of, based on Hermann Müller's Work "The Fertilisation of Flowers by Insects," Dr. Paul Knuth, 605
- Flowers, Wild, How to Find and Name, Thomas Fox, 514
- Fluorescence: Studies of Fluorite, Harry W. Morse, 87
- Fly Fishing, the Science of Dry, Fred. G. Shaw, 568
- Flying Fish in the Triassic, O. Abel, 530
- Folklore: Bantu Folklore (Medical and General), Dr. Matthew L. Hewat, Sir H. H. Johnston, K.C.M.G., 28; the Story of Yedigei and Toktamys, 477
- Fontaine (William M.), Status of the Mesozoic Floras of the United States, 81
- Fonville (W. de), the Wellman Balloon Expedition, 181
- Foraminifera, the Alleged Triassic, of Chellaston, near Derby, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 489
- Forbes (S. A.), a Monograph of the Insect Injuries to Indian Corn, 160
- Forbes (Urquhart A.), Our Waterways, a History of Inland Navigation considered as a Branch of Water Conservancy, 169
- Forcrand (M. de), Hydroxides of Rubidium, Caesium, and Lithium, 192
- Ford (Dr.), an Antitoxin for Poisonous Fungi, 529
- Forestry: *Traité d'Exploitation commerciale des Bois*, A. Mathey, 441; Departmental Notes on the Insects that affect Forestry, E. P. Stebbing, Fred. V. Theobald, 160; the Rubber-tree *Ficus elastica*, E. M. Coventry, 450; Manual of Forestry, Dr. W. Schlich, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, x
- Forster (Captain W. B. C.), Anti-typhoid Vaccine, 91
- Förstmann (E.), Mexican and Central American Antiquities, Calendar Systems and History, 30
- Forsyth (Prof. A. R.), on a Revised Theory of the Solution of Lagrange's Linear Equation $Pp + Qq = R$, 456
- Forthcoming Books of Science, 599
- Fossils: Smithsonian Institution, Bulletin of the United States National Museum, Fossil Invertebrates, Charles Schuchert, W. H. Dall, T. W. Stanton, and R. S. Bassler, 163; Fossil Fauna and Flora of the Florissant Shales, T. D. A. Cockerell, 370; the Study of Fossil Fishes, Dr. A. Smith Woodward, F.R.S., at Geologists' Association, 597
- Foster (G. W. A.), Action of Light on Potassium Ferrocyanide, 93
- Fouard (E.), Reaction of the Oxydase Type presented by the Halogen Compounds of the Rare Earths, 143
- Founders of Geology, the, Sir Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., Supp. to May 3, v
- Fournel (P.), Determination of the Transformation Points of some Steels by the Electrical Resistance Treatment, 288
- Fowler (Prof. A.), Sun-spot and Chromospheric Spectra, 135
- Fowler (Dr. G. H.), Biscayan Plankton collected during a Cruise of H.M.S. *Research* in 1900, 191; Systematic Study of Oceanic Plankton, 552
- Fowler (H. W.), American Fresh-water "Heterognathous" Fishes, 616
- Fox, the, T. F. Dale, 78
- Fox (Thomas), How to Find and Name Wild Flowers, 514
- Fox-Strangways (Mr.), Geological Survey of the Country between Derby, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, and Loughborough, 307
- France: Forthcoming Visit of Representatives of University Education in France, 83, 159; Atlas Colorié des Plantes et des Animaux des Côtes de, P. Kuckuck, Dr. M. Langeron, 102; l'Age des derniers Volcans de la France, Marcellin Boule, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 607
- Francesconi (Prof. Luigi), a New Hypothesis connecting the Fluorescence of Organic Substances with their Chemical Constitution, 618
- Frank (Dr. Adolf), Process for the Direct Utilisation of the Nitrogen of the Atmosphere for the Production of Artificial Manure and other Chemical Products, 65
- Franklin (Benjamin), the Bicentenary Celebration of the Birth of, Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 36
- Fream (Dr. William), Death and Obituary Notice of, 132
- Frequency-distributions, the Theory of, 187
- Friedel (Jean), Case of a Green Organ deprived of Assimilating Power, 120; Origin of the Materials Utilised by the Ovary, 264
- Friend (J. A. N.), Reaction between Hydrogen Peroxide and Potassium Persulphate, 190
- Friend (J. Newton), the Rusting of Iron, 540, 610
- Frilley (Captain Régis), les Procédés de Commande à Distance au Moyen de l'Électricité, 125
- Frischauf (Prof. Johannes), die Gauss-Gibbssche Methode der Bahnbestimmung eines Himmelskörpers aus drei Beobachtungen, 345
- Frog, the Biology of the, Samuel J. Holmes, 560
- Froggatt (W. W.), New Tick of the Family Argasidae, 508
- Frost (Prof.), Stars with Variable Radial Velocities, 135
- Fry (Sir Edw. P. C., F.R.S.), a Remarkable Lightning Discharge, 198
- Fryer (F. G.), on the Removal of Dust and Smoke from Chimney Gases, 500
- Fugitive Coloration of Sodalite, Jas. Currie, 564
- Fuller (C. A.), Longevity of *Bacillus typhosus* in Natural Waters and in Sewage, 280

- Fundus Oculi, the Photography of the, Dr. J. Herbert Parsons, 104
- Fungi: the Fungus Flora of Yorkshire, G. Masee and C. Crossland, 196
- Fynn (Val. A.), Moteurs a Collecteur a Courants alternatifs, Dr. F. Niethammer, 346
- Galimard (J.), the Diamino-acids derived from Ovalbumen, 376
- Gallenkamp (W.), Results of Recent Rainfall Investigations, 230
- Galloway (Dr. A. R.), Cross-breeding in Poultry, 524
- Galton (Dr. Francis, F.R.S.), Noteworthy Families (Modern Science), 97; Measurement of Resemblance, 562
- Galton's (Francis) Theory of Hereditary Genius, Poverty and Hereditary Genius, a Criticism of, F. C. Constable, 350
- Gamble (Dr. F. W.), Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Zoologie, Festschrift zur Feier seines siebenzigsten Geburtstages am 11 Nov. 1905, Herrn Geheimen Regierungsrat Prof. Ernst Ehlers, 50
- Garbage Crematories in America, W. M. Venable, 630
- Garcia (Manuel), Death and Obituary Notice of, 227
- Garden, the Heart of a, Rosamund Marriot Watson, 29
- Garden, in My, 149
- Garden Shrimps, 99
- Gardening, School, for Little Children, Lucy R. Latter, 411
- Gardiner (J. Stanley), the Chagos Archipelago, 479
- Garrod (E. K.), the Unit of Strife, 217
- Garstang (Dr. W.), Fishery Problems and Marine Investigations, 551
- Gastine (G.), New Method for the Microscopical Analysis of Flour, 167
- Gatin-Gruzewska (Mme. Z.), Effect of Adrenalin on the Amount of Glycogen in Muscle, 143
- Gaubert (P.), State of Colouring Matters in Crystals Coloured Artificially, 24
- Gaudechon (H.), Action of the Silent Discharge on Cyanogen, 312
- Gauss-Gibbsche Methode der Bahnbestimmung eines Himmelskörpers aus drei Beobachtungen, die, Prof. Johannes Frischauf, 345
- Gautier (Armand), Action of Carbon Monoxide at a Red Heat upon Steam, and of Hydrogen upon Carbon Dioxide, 240; Action of Steam upon Sulphides, 263; Action of Sulphuretted Hydrogen on some Oxides, 287; Diet and Dietetics, 380; the Red Colour of Certain Leaves and the Colour of Autumn Leaves, 651
- Gaylord (Prof.), Cancer, 529
- Gehirn und Rückenmark, Leitfaden für das Studium der Morphologie und des Faserverlaufs, Dr. Emil Villiger, 442
- Geikie (Sir Archibald, F.R.S.), the Founders of Geology, Supp. to May 3, v
- Geitel (M.), Isolation and Identification of Radio-thorium from the Sediments of Bad Kreuznach, 473
- Geminorum, Nova, Observations of, Prof. Barnard, 158
- Gems: Precious Stones and Simple Methods for their Identification, G. F. Herbert Smith, 204
- Genetics: Vorlesungen über Deszendenztheorie mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Botanischen Seite der Frage gehalten an der Reichsuniversität zu Leiden, Dr. J. P. Lotsy, W. Bateson, F.R.S., 146
- Genius, Poverty and Hereditary, a Criticism of Mr. Francis Galton's Theory of Hereditary Genius, F. C. Constable, 350
- Geodesy: the Adjustment of Observations by the Method of Least Squares, with Applications to Geodetic Work, T. W. Wright and J. F. Hayford, 148; Report of the Geodetic Survey of Part of Southern Rhodesia executed by Mr. Alexander Simms, Government Surveyor, under the Direction of Sir David Gill, 554; Deviations from the Vertical in the Region of the Sahel, Algeria, R. Bourgeois, 556
- Geography: an Introduction to Practical Geography, A. T. Simmons and Hugh Richardson, Geo. G. Chisholm, 27; les tremblements de terre, Geographie Séismologique, Comte F. de Montessus de Ballore, 76; the Tarawera Volcanic Rift, New Zealand, James Mackintosh Bell, 88; Text-book of Topographical and Geographical Surveying, Major C. F. Close, 98; a Plea for an Expedition to Melanesia, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 187; the Source of the Blue Nile, a Record of a Journey through the Sudan to Tsana in Western Abyssinia, and of the Return to Egypt by the Valley of the Atbara, with a Note on the Religion, Customs, &c., of Abyssinia, Arthur J. Hayes, Entomological Appendix by Prof. E. B. Poulton, F.R.S., Sir H. H. Johnston, K.C.M.G., 247; Höhlenkunde, mit Berücksichtigung der Karstphänomene, Dr. W. von Knebel, 314; Geographical Gleanings, Rev. F. R. Burrows, 351; No Man's Land, a History of Spitsbergen from its Discovery in 1596 to the beginning of the Scientific Exploration of the Country, Sir Martin Conway, 381; Russian Geographical Works, 476; Lhasa and its Mysteries, with a Record of the Expedition of 1903-4, L. A. Waddell, C.B., 518; the Ascent of Ruwenzori, Duke of the Abruzzi, Vittorio Sella, 528; see also British Association
- Geology: the Geology of Mid-Argyll, J. B. Hill, B. N. Peach, C. T. Clough, H. Kynaston, J. J. H. Teall, and J. S. Flett, 9; Death of Prof. Eugène Renevier, 37; Coal-fields in the Shan States, T. D. La Touche and R. R. Simpson, 40; Distribution of Radium in the Earth's Crust and on the Earth's Internal Heat, Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 70; Radium and Geology, Rev. O. Fisher, 585; B. J. Palmer, 585; Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 610; Prof. J. Joly, F.R.S., 635; T. Mellard Reade, 635; Rev. O. Fisher, 635; Geological Society, 71, 141, 165, 239, 374; Phosphatic Chalks of Winterbourne and Boxford, Berkshire, H. J. Osborne White and Llewellyn Treacher, 71; Death and Obituary Notice of Charles Eugene De Rance, 84; Death of Prof. I. C. Russell, 84; Obituary Notice of, 226; the Elements of Geology, Prof. W. H. Norton, 102; Death of Dr. Ernst Schellwien, 108; Geological Survey of Canada, A. P. Low, 175; Prof. Robert Bell, F.R.S., 245; F. R. S., 245; Geology of the Volcanic Area of the East Moreton and Wide Bay Districts, H. I. Jensen, 167; Importance of Halimeda as a Reef-forming Organism, with a Description of the Halimeda-limestones of the New Hebrides, F. Chapman and D. Mawson, 165; Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. N. S. Shaler, 226; Recumbent Folds produced as a Result of Flow, Prof. W. J. Sollas, 239; the Crag of Iceland, Dr. Helgi Pjetursson, 239; Death and Obituary Notice of Rev. J. F. Blake, 278; Blackening of Rocks in Rivers, A. Lucas, 280; the Dead Heart of Australia, a Journey round Lake Eyre in the Summer of 1901-2, with some Account of the Lake Eyre Basin and the Flowing Wells of Central Australia, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 296; Recent Researches in Regional Geology, 307; Geological Survey of the Country between Derby, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, and Loughborough, Mr. Fox-Strangways and Prof. Watts, 307; l'Idrografia dei Colli Euganei, Luigi de Marchi, 308; Ore-deposits of the Stangalp, W. A. Humphrey, 308; Etude sur l'Etat actuel des Mines du Transvaal, George Moreau, 313; Carnmoney Chalcedony, J. Strachan, 336; Man and the Glacial Period, Prof. Sollas, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 372; Interference-phenomena in the Alps, Dr. Maria M. Ogilvie-Gordon, 374; Death of Richard Glascott Symes, 382; the Earth's Interior, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., 412; George Douglas, Eighth Duke of Argyll, K.G., 1823-1900, 437; the Physiography of the River Nile and its Basin, Captain H. G. Lyons, 461; Death of Prof. W. B. Dwight, 470; a Search for a Buried Meteorite, G. K. Gilbert, L. Fletcher, F.R.S., 490; Illogical Geology, the Weakest Point in the Evolution Theory, George McCready Price, 513; a Text-book of Mining Geology, James Park, 520; Geology, Earth History, Thomas C. Chamberlin and Rollin D. Salisbury, 557; Laterite in Bangalore and Kolar, E. W. Wetherell, 573; the Study of Fossil Fishes, Dr. A. Smith Woodward, F.R.S., at Geologists' Association, 597; the Face of the Earth (Das Antlitz der Erde), Prof. Eduard Suess, 629; Report of the Geological Survey of Canada, 644; Geological Studies in South Africa, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 646; Country between Pretoria and Pietersburg, Mr. Kynaston, 646; the Gneisses of the Limpopo Flats, Dr. F. W. Voit, 647; the Founders of Geology,

- Sir Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., Supp. to May 3, v; see also British Association
- Geometry: a Manual of Geometry, W. D. Eggar, 124; the Geometry of the Screw Propeller, W. J. Goudie, 350
- Geophagy: Earth-eating and the Earth-eating Habit in India, D. Hooper and H. H. Mann, 543
- Gerichtlichen Chemie, Lehrbuch der, Dr. Georg Baumert, Dr. M. Dennstedt, and Dr. F. Voigtländer, 440
- German Congress of Experimental Psychology, Dr. C. Spearman, 45
- German Course for Science Students, a First, Prof. H. G. Fiedler and F. E. Sandbach, 78
- German Grammar for Science Students, Prof. W. A. Osborne and Ethel E. Osborne, 380
- German Scientific and Technological Reader, E. Classen and J. Lustgarten, 583
- Germination of Seeds, the Suspended, 540; G. Claridge Druce, 586; Archibald Buchan-Hepburn, 636
- Geruch, Geschmack und, Dr. Wilhelm Sternberg, 631
- Geschmack und Geruch, Dr. Wilhelm Sternberg, 631
- Geysers: the Hot-spring Areas of Iceland, Dr. Walther von Knebel, 16
- Gherardi (Dr. Guglielmo), Carboni fossili inglesi, 514
- Giard (Alfred), a Fruit-attacking Insect, *Ceratitis capitata*, 460; Ravages of *Loxostega (Eurycreon) sticticalis* in the Cultivation of Beet-root of the Central Plateau, 628
- Giglio-Tos (Prof. Ermanno), les Problèmes de la Vie, 292
- Gilbert (G. K.), a Search for a Buried Meteorite, 490
- Gill (Sir David), Report of the Geodetic Survey of Part of Southern Rhodesia executed by Alexander Simms, Government Surveyor, under the Direction of, 554
- Gill (Rev. H. V.), Possible Connection between the Recent Disturbance at Vesuvius and San Francisco, 166
- Gilm (Prof. Hugo von), Death and Obituary Notice of, 251
- Gilman (Dr. J. D. C.), the Launching of a University, and other Papers, 123
- Glacial Period, Man and the, Prof. Sollas, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 372
- Glass, Experiments made on the Coefficient of Expansion at Low Temperatures of Jena and Thüringen, Prof. H. Kamerlingh Onnes and Dr. W. Heuse, 594
- Glasses, New Forms of Astrographic Object, Emil Schaer, 231
- Globe, the Evolution of the, 557
- Glück (Prof. Hugo), Biologische und Morphologische Untersuchungen über Wasser- und Sumpfgewächse, 411
- Goetz (Rev. E.), Observations at Bulawayo, 1897-1904, 308
- Goldie (Sir George), Opening Address in Section E at the Meeting of the British Association at York, the Scientific Treatment of Geography, 478
- Golding (John), Assimilation of Nitrogen by Leguminous Plants, 475
- Gomery (A. de Gerlache de), Expédition Antarctique Belge, Résultats du Voyage du S.Y. *Belgica* en 1897-99 sous le Commandement de, 298
- Gooch (Frank Austin), Outlines of Inorganic Chemistry, 5
- Goode (J. A.), the Gutzeit Test for Arsenic, 94
- Goodhue (Dr. W. J.), Bacillus of Leprosy found in Mosquito and Bed-bug, 367
- Goodrich (E. S.), Median and Paired Fins, 252
- Goodwin (H. M.), Physical Properties of Fused Magnesium Oxide, 574
- Goold (Joseph), Vibration Experiments, 59
- Gosio (B.), Products of Development of Certain Species of Moulds, 504
- Gotch (Prof. Francis, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S., Waynflete Professor of Physiology in the University of Oxford), Opening Address in Section I at the Meeting of the British Association at York, 422; on the Physiological Value of Rest, 480
- Göttingen Royal Society of Sciences, 143, 408
- Goudie (W. J.), the Geometry of the Screw Propeller, 350
- Gough (Dr. L.), *Muggiæa atlantica* in the English Channel and Irish Sea during 1904, 130
- Graff (Dr.), Discovery of a New Comet (1906e), 453; Comet 1906e (Kopff), 490
- Grammar, German, for Science Students, Prof. W. A. Osborne and Ethel E. Osborne, 380
- Granger (A.), la Ceramique industrielle, Chimie-Technologie, 3
- Gray (Dr. Albert A.), Observation on the Labyrinth of Certain Animals, 626
- Gray (J.), on England before the English, 458
- Greece: Conspectus Floræ Graecæ, E. de Halácsy, 314
- Green (A. G.), Constitution of Cellulose, 93
- Greenwell (Canon), on Bronze Weapons and Implements found near Khinaman, 456
- Greenwich: the Royal Observatory, 135; the Disturbance of Greenwich Observations, 200; Greenwich Sun-spot Numbers, 453
- Greg (Robert Philips), Death and Obituary Notice of, 448
- Gregory (Prof. J. W., F.R.S.), the Dead Heart of Australia, a Journey round Lake Eyre in the Summer of 1901-2, with some Account of the Lake Eyre Basin and the Flowing Wells of Central Australia, 296; on Radioactivity and the Internal Structure of the Earth, 454; on the Problems Connected with the Palæozoic Glaciation of Australia, India, and South Africa, 549; the Tanganyika Problems, 550
- Gréhant (N.), Effect of Breathing Air containing from 5 per cent. to 10 per cent. of Carbon, 312
- Greiner (H.), α -Rays emitted by Prof. Marckwald's Radio-tellurium Capable of causing Fluorescence in Glass, &c., 40
- Greshoff (Dr.), on the Glucosides containing the Hydrogen Cyanide, 526
- Grierson (Dr. G. A.), the Languages of India and the Linguistic Survey, Lecture at Society of Arts, 283
- Griffiths (Principal E. H., Sc.D., F.R.S.), Opening Address in Section A at the Meeting of the British Association at York, 356
- Groningen, Publications of the Astronomical Laboratory at, Components of the Proper Motions and other Quantities for the Stars of Bradley, Prof. J. C. Kapteyn, Tables for Photographic Parallax-observations, Dr. W. de Sitter, some Useful Trigonometrical Formulæ and a Table of Goniometrical Functions for the Four Quadrants, Prof. J. C. Kapteyn and Prof. W. Kapteyn, 341
- Groombridge's Circumpolar Catalogue for the Epoch 1810-0, New Reduction of, F. W. Dyson, F.R.S., and W. G. Thackeray, 90
- Gross (Dr. J.), Relation between Heredity and Variation, 369
- Gruner (Prof. Paul), die Radioaktiven Substanzen und die Theorie des Atomzerfalls, 538
- Guédras (Marcel), Transmissibility of Tuberculosis by Alimentary Casein, 264
- Guenther (Prof. Conrad), Darwinism and the Problems of Life, a Study of Familiar Animal Life, 268
- Guereza Monkeys, Colouring of, Mr. Lydekker, 309
- Guérin (C.), Intestinal Origin of Tuberculous Tracheobronchial Adenopathy, 143; Protective Inoculation against Tuberculosis, 182; Vaccination against Tuberculosis by the Digestive Tracts, 216
- Guignard (L.), New Examples of Rosaceæ containing Hydrocyanic Acid, 628
- Guillaume (M. J.), Comet 1906d, 417
- Guillet (Léon), some Special Brasses, 95
- Gulick (Rev. John T.), Evolution, Racial and Habitudipal, 486
- Guntz (M.), Preparation of Pure Barium starting from its Suboxide, 460
- Guthnick (Dr. P.), Photometric Observations of Saturn's Satellites, 210; Magnitude Observations of Nova Aquilæ No. 2, 253
- Guye (Prof. Phillippe A.), the Electrochemical Problem of the Fixation of Nitrogen, 142; the Atomic Weight of Silver, 532, 548
- Guyou (E.), a Singular Effect of Friction, 119; Application of the Telephone and the Claude-Driencourt Astrolabe to the Determination of the Longitude of Brest, 240
- Haanel (Dr. E.), Smelting of Canadian Iron Ores by the Electrothermic Process, 311
- Hackett (F. E.), Magneto-optic Rotation, 142
- Hackett (F. E.), Absorption of β Radiation by Matter, 311
- Hackett (J. E.), the Absorption of β Radiation by Matter, 142
- Hackspill (L.), the Alloys of Lead and Calcium, 376

- Haddon (Dr. A. C., F.R.S.), Hopi Katcinas, Drawn by Native Artists, Jesse Walter Fewkes, 30; Iroquoian Cosmology, J. N. B. Hewitt, 30; Two Summers' Work in Pueblo Ruins, Jesse Walter Fewkes, 30; Mayan Calendar Systems, II., Cyrus Thomas, 30; the Hako, a Pawnee Ceremony, Alice C. Fletcher and James R. Murie, 30; the Zufi Indians, their Mythology, Esoteric Fraternities, and Ceremonies, Matilda Coxé Stevenson, 30; Mexican and Central American Antiquities, Calendar Systems and History, E. Seler, E. Förstmann, P. Schellhas, C. Sapper, and E. P. Dieseldorff, 30; Haida Texts and Myths, Skidegate Dialect, John R. Swanton, 30; a Plea for an Expedition to Melanesia, 187; the Congress of Americanists at Quebec, 595
- Haeckel (Ernst), Last Words on Evolution, a Popular Retrospect and Summary, 26
- Haeckel (Ernst), *der Mann und sein Werk*, Carl W. Neumann, 26
- Haeckel, his Life and Work, Wilhelm Bölsche, 26
- Hahn (C. W.), Phases of the Gastrulation of the Horned Toad, 592
- Haida Texts and Myths, Skidegate Dialect, John R. Swanton, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Hako, the, a Pawnee Ceremony, Alice C. Fletcher and James R. Murie, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Halácsy (E. de), *Conspectus Floræ Graecæ*, 314
- Hale (Prof.), the Spectra of Sun-spots and Red Stars, 418
- Hall (A. D.), the Book of the Rothamsted Experiments, 121
- Hall (Edith), American Explorations in Crete, 469
- Hall (H. Fielding), a People at School, Supp. to May 3, vii
- Hall (H. R.), Transactions of the Department of Archaeology, Free Museum of Science and Art, 468
- Hall (H. S.), Elementary Trigonometry, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Hall (Maxwell), the Origin of the Zodiacal Light, 453
- Haller (A.), Products of the Reaction, at a High Temperature, of Sodium Isobutylate and Propylate of Camphor, 216; Syntheses of Terebic and Pyroterebic Acids, 263
- Halliburton (Dr. W. D., F.R.S.), Regeneration of Nerves, 579
- Halliday (Rev. Guy), the *Goodyera repens* in Flower in Norfolk, 472
- Halm (Dr. J.), Spectroscopic Observations of the Rotation of the Sun, 484
- Halos, Solar and Lunar, Rowland A. Earp, 150
- Hamburg, Botanical Congress at, 621
- Hamburg, a New Observatory for, 253
- Hammatt (M. L.), Manner in which the Anemone, *Metridium marginatum*, Multiplies by Fission, 416
- Hands (A.), Vagaries of Lightning Reproduced Experimentally, 23
- Hansen (Th.), the Colours of Sun-spots, 548
- Harben Lectures, Prof. Metschnikoff's, 107
- Harden (Dr. Arthur), the Alcoholic Ferment of Yeast-juice, part ii., the Coferment of Yeast-juice, 628
- Hardy (G. H.), Theorems Connected with Abel's Theorem on the Continuity of Power Series, 23
- Harker (Dr. J. A.), Aufnahme und Analyse von Wechselstromkurven, Dr. Ernest Orlich, 268; on the "Kew" Scale of Temperature and its Relation to the International Hydrogen Scale, 531
- Harries (Prof. Karl), on the Products obtained by Submitting Caoutchouc to the Action of Ozone and then Distilling the Ozonide with Steam, 526
- Harris (Dr. D. Fraser), Use of Soluble Prussian Blue in Investigating the Reducing Power of Animal Tissue, 375
- Harrison (H. H.), Engineering Mathematics, Simply Explained, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Harrison (Dr. Thomas), Death of, 591
- Harting (James Edmund), Recreations of a Naturalist, 82
- Hartl (Prof.), the "Optical Disc," 338
- Hartland (E. Sidney), Opening Address in Section H at the Meeting of the British Association at York, Recent Research in the Origin of Magic and Religion, 456
- Hartley (E. G. J.), Osmotic Pressure, 54, 245; Osmotic Pressures of some Concentrated Aqueous Solutions, 261
- Hartmann (Eduard von), Death and Obituary Notice of, 182
- Harvie-Brown (J. A.), Distribution of the Form of *Corvus cornix* and *C. corone*, 175
- Haupt (Lewis M.), Great Tunnels, 280
- Havet (Prof.), Formation of Nucleoli, 553
- Hayes (Arthur), the Source of the Blue Nile, a Record of a Journey through the Sudan to Tsana in Western Abyssinia, and of the Return to Egypt by the Valley of the Atbara, with a Note on the Religion, Customs, &c., of Abyssinia, 247
- Hayford (J. F.), the Adjustment of Observations by the Method of Least Squares, with Applications to Geodetic Work, 148
- Haynes (E. S.), Observations of Variable Stars, 619
- Headden (W. P.), Phosphorescent Calcite from Joplin, Missouri, 41
- Heape (Walter, F.R.S.), the Breeding Industry, 101
- Heart of a Garden, the, Rosamund Marriott Watson, 29
- Heat: New Apparatus for determining the Mechanical Equivalent of Heat or Thermal Capacity of Water, Prof. H. Rubens, 40; the Latent Heat of Fusion of Ice, A. Leduc, 41; Ionisation and Temperature, Prof. C. D. Child, 125; Prof. J. J. Thomson, F.R.S., 125; Specific Heat of, Heat Flow from, and other Phenomena of the Working Fluid in the Cylinder of the Internal Combustion Engine, Dugald Clerk, 164; New Charcoal Calorimeter and Thermoscope, Sir James Dewar, F.R.S., 203; Heat of Formation of Carbonyl-hydroferro-cyanic Acid, J. A. Muller, 263; Method for Calibrating Thermometers for Use in the Determination of Freezing Points of Aqueous Solutions, Messrs. Richards and Jackson, 451; Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Dr. Max Planck, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii
- Heaven and Hell, the Egyptian, E. A. Wallis Budge, 10
- Heller (F.), Reduction in the Price of Photographic and other Glass of High Quality, 65
- Heller (W. M.), on the Examination and Inspection of Schools, 503
- Hellmann (Prof. G.), the Discovery of Magnetic Declination, 137
- Hemsalech (G. A.), Method for the Study of the Movements of Metallic Vapours in the Oscillating Spark, 263
- Hemsley (W. Botting, F.R.S.), the Julianiaceæ, a New Natural Order or Plants, 507
- Henderson (G. G.), the Molybdilactate and the Tungstilactate of Ammonium, 142
- Henri (Victor), Cours de Chimie physique suivi d'Applications à la Chimie et à la Biologie, 241
- Henrici (Prof. Olaus), the Notation and Use of Vectors, 454
- Henry (Louis), Synthesis of Penta-methyl-ethanol, 95; Hexamethylethane, 119; Succinic Pinacone, 651
- Henry (Dr.), on the Glucosides containing the Hydrogen Cyanide, 526
- Hepworth (Commander), Report of the Director of the Meteorological Office upon an Inquiry into the Relation between the Estimates of Wind-force according to Admiral Beaufort's Scale, and the Velocities recorded by Anemometers belonging to the Office, 106
- Herbert (T. E.), Telegraphy, 290
- Herdman (Prof. W. A., F.R.S.), Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel, 19; Report to the Government of Ceylon on the Pearl-oyster Fisheries of the Gulf of Manaar, 57; Illustrated Notes on Manks Antiquities, 152
- Heredity: Noteworthy Families (Modern Science), Francis Galton, F.R.S., and Edgar Schuster, 97; Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty, Frederick Adams Woods, 97; Inheritance of an Abnormality, Prof. Herbert McLeod, F.R.S., 150; Gedanken über Vererbung, Dr. Alexander Petrunkevitch, 244; Family Diseases and Temperaments, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 245; les Problèmes de la Vie, Prof. Ermanno Giglio-Tos, 292; the Effects of Inbreeding, Cross-breeding, and Selection upon *Drosophila*, W. E. Castle, F. W. Carpenter, A. H. Clark, S. O. Mast, and W. M. Barrows, 337; Poverty and Hereditary Genius, a Criticism of Mr. Francis Galton's Theory of Hereditary Genius, F. C. Constable, 350; Relation between Heredity and Variation, Dr. J. Gross, 369; Cross-breeding in Poultry, Dr. A. R. Gallo-

- way, 524; Mendel's Law, 524; Inheritance in Poultry, C. B. Davenport, 583; Gregor Mendel's Briefe an Carl Nägeli, 1866-73, 640
- Hergesell (Prof. H.), Exploration of the Upper Air over the Atlantic North of the Tropic of Cancer, 40; Methods of making Balloon Ascents, 648
- Hermite et de Stieltjes, Correspondance d', 265
- Heron (David), Relation of Fertility in Man to Social Status, Studies in National Deterioration, 451
- Herring (P. T.), Action of Pituitary Extracts upon the Kidney, 190
- Hertwig (Oscar), *Algemeine Biologie*, 25
- Herzen (Alexandre), Death of, 449
- Heuse (Dr. W.), Experiments made on the Coefficient of Expansion at Low Temperatures of Jena and Thüringen Glass, 594
- Hewat (Dr. Matthew L.), Bantu Folklore (Medical and General), 28
- Hewett (E. L.), the Antiquities of the Jumez Plateau, 643
- Hewitt (C. Gordon), Life-history of the Common House-fly, *Musca domestica*, L., 604
- Hewitt (J. N. B.), Iroquoian Cosmology, 30
- Hewlett (Prof. R. T.), Methods in Microscopical Research Vegetable Histology, 29; Anti-typhoid Vaccine, Captain George Lamb and Captain W. B. C. Forster, 91; Bacteria in Relation to Plant Diseases, Erwin F. Smith, 294; Beri-beri in Monkeys, 529; the Toronto Meeting of the British Medical Association, 529; Diseases of Sheep, 623
- Hicks (Prof. W. M.), the Notation and Use of Vectors, 454
- Hicks (Prof.), on Radio-activity and the Internal Structure of the Earth, 454
- Hickson (Prof.), the Nature of Fertilisation, 551
- Hight (George Ainslie), the Unity of Will, Studies of an Irrationalist, 380
- Highways and Byways in Oxford and the Cotswolds, Herbert A. Evans, 124
- Hill (A. C.), on a Recently Discovered Skeleton in Sooska Cave, 458
- Hill (A. W.), on the Phylogenetic Value of the Vascular Structure of Seedlings, 576
- Hill (E. G.), Hydrolysis of Ammonium Salts by Water, 311
- Hill (J. B.), the Geology of Mid-Argyll, 9
- Hill (Dr. J. P.), Development of *Ornithorhynchus*, 555
- Hill (T. G.), on the Phylogenetic Value of the Vascular Structure of Seedlings, 576
- Hills (Major E. H.), on the Irregular Motions of the Earth's Pole, 455; on a Proposal for Improved Geodetic Measurements in Great Britain, 479
- Hiltner (Dr.), Assimilation of Nitrogen by Leguminous Plants, 475
- Himalayas, Exploration in the, Mrs. Bullock Workman, 19
- Hime (Dr.), on the Present System of Reporting and Isolating Infectious Diseases, 480
- Hinds (Dr. W. E.), Damage done to Crops by the Mexican Cotton-boll Weevil, 642
- Hinrichs (G. D.), Absolute Atomic Weight of Terbium, 167; the Amana Meteorite, 575
- Hirayama (S.), Preliminary Experiments on the Photographic Transit, 254
- Histology: Methods in Microscopical Research—Vegetable Histology, Abraham Flatters, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 29; Histological Studies on the Localisation of Cerebral Function, Dr. A. W. Campbell, Supp. to May 3, iii
- Hodgson (Dr. Shadworth H.), Interrelation of the Academical Sciences, 337
- Hodgson (W. Earl), Salmon Fishing, 568
- Hodson (T. C.), the "Genna" (Tabu) among the Tribes of Assam, 165
- Hoff (Prof. van 't), Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. Wilhelm Meyerhoffer, 63
- Höhlenkunde, mit Berücksichtigung der Karstphänomene, Dr. W. von Knebel, 314
- Holland (Philip), Sands and Sediments, 546
- Holland (T. H.), on the Problems Connected with the Palæozoic Glaciation of Australia, India, and South Africa, 549; on the Peculiar Properties of a Variety of Sodalite from Rajputana, 550
- Holmes (Samuel J.), the Biology of the Frog, 560
- Holmes's Comet, the Expected Return of, Dr. H. J. Zwiers, 41
- Holmes's Comet (1906f), Return of, Dr. Max Wolf, 474, 499, 525
- Holz Müller (Dr. Gustave), die neueren Wandlungen der elektrischen Theorien einschliesslich der Elektronentheorie zwei Vorträge, 380
- Homoptera, a Synonymic Catalogue of, part i., Cicadidae, W. L. Distant, 197
- Honduras, Report to the Government of British, upon the Outbreak of Yellow Fever in that Colony in 1905, together with an Account of the Distribution of the *Stegomyia fasciata* in Belize, and the Measures Necessary to Stamp out or Prevent the Recurrence of Yellow Fever, Rubert Boyce, F.R.S., Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, 299
- Hong Kong, a Typhoon on September 18 at, 521
- Hönigschmid (Otto), Zirconium Silicide (ZrSi) and Titanium Silicide (TiSi), 376
- Hönnann (Prof.), Death of, 250
- Hooker (Sir Joseph), India Peninsular Balsams, 385
- Hooper (D.), Earth-eating and the Earth-eating Habit in India, 543
- Hope (Prof. G. W.), Social Geography, 478
- Hope Reports, the, vol. v., 1903-6, 487
- Hopi Katinas, Drawn by Native Artists, Jesse Walter Fewkes, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Hopkins (Dr. F. Gowland), on the Minimum Proteid Value in Diet, 479; on the factors which Determine Minimal Diet Values, 526
- Hopkins (N. Munro), Experimental Electrochemistry, Supp. to May 3, vi
- Hopkinson (John), British Fresh-water Rhizopoda, 52
- Horizontal Pendulums and Earthquake Echoes, Dr. C. Coleridge Farr, 515; Prof. John Milne, F.R.S., 515
- Horizontal Rainbow, a, V. Schaffers, 125
- Horner (Joseph G.), Modern Milling Machines, 149
- Horses, the Tarpan and its Relationship with Wild and Domestic, Prof. J. C. Ewart, F.R.S., 113
- Horticulture: International Conference on Hybridisation and Plant-breeding, 371; a Fruit-attacking Insect, *Ceratitis capitata*, Alfred Giard, 460; Hortus Veitchii, a History of the Rise and Progress of the Nurseries of Messrs. James Veitch and Sons, together with an Account of the Botanical Collectors and Hybridists employed by them and a List of the more Remarkable of their Introductions, James H. Veitch, 537
- Hoskyns-Abrahall (W.), Chinese Observation of Nature, 351
- Houillon (M.), Relations of Functional Groups in Distant Positions, Cyclic Amines, 264
- Howe (Prof. H.), Observations of Comets, 112
- Howie (Prof. Herbert A.), a Study of the Sky, 315
- Hoyle (W. E.), the Cephalopoda, 191
- Hrdlicka (Ales.), Preservation of Brains for Anatomical and Anthropological Investigations, 209; Skulls of Californian Indians, 335
- Huber (P. B.), Spectra of Alloys, 72
- Hudson (C. S.), the Nature of Solution and of Osmotic Pressure, 231
- Huggins (Sir William, K.C.B., O.M.), the Royal Society, or Science in the State and in the Schools, 466
- Hugounenq (L.), the Diamino-acids derived from Ovalbumen, 376
- Hull (Prof. G. F.), Influence of Electric Fields on Spectral Lines, 603
- Humphrey (W. A.), Ore-deposits of the Stangalp, 308
- Hutchinson (Dr. Jonathan, F.R.S.), Prehistoric Remains found during Recent Years near Haslemere, 207
- Hybridisation and Plant-breeding, International Conference on, 371
- Hydrodynamiques, Recherche sur les Champs de Force, V. Bjerknæs, 265
- Hydrography: Proposed Memorial to Sir William Wharton, K.C.B., F.R.S., 131; a Practical Manual of Tides and Waves, W. H. Wheeler, 218; Hydrographic Surveying Methods, Tables and Forms of Notes, S. H. Lea, Commander H. C. Lockyer, 221; Travaux hydrographiques et Instructions nautique, G. Lecointe, 298
- Hydrology: Hydrology in the United States, 89; the Movement of Underground Water, Investigations on Field Measurements, Prof. Slichter, 89; Normal Distribution

- of Chlorine in the Natural Waters of New York and New England, Daniel D. Jackson, 89; the Field Assay of Water, Marshall O. Leighton, 90
- Hygiene: Personal Hygiene designed for Undergraduates, Dr. A. A. Woodhall, 78; Prof. Metschnikoff's Harben Lectures, 107; Sulphur Dioxide as a Disinfectant, Dr. John Wade, 209
- Ichthyology: the Food of Plaice and Dabs, James Johnstone, 20; the Lymphatics of Fish, W. F. Allen, 156; Zoological Distribution of Fresh-water Fishes of South and Central America, Prof. Carl Eigenmann, 183; the Coral-frequenting Fishes of Polynesia, W. Saville-Kent, 204; Median and Paired Fins, E. S. Goodrich, 252; Zoologie-Poissons, L. Dollo, 298; the Smolt to Grilse Stage of the Salmon, W. L. Calderwood, 375; Electrical Organs of the Proboscis-fish, H. Schlichter, 592; American Fresh-water "Heterognathous" Fishes, H. W. Fowler, 616; the Larval and Post-larval Stages in the Life-history of the Flat-fish and Cod Families, 643
- Illogical Geology, the Weakest Point in the Evolution Theory, George McCready Price, 513
- Illusions, Colour, B. J. P. R., 586
- Illusions, Optical, Douglas Carnegie, 610
- Illusions, Optical, on Electric Fan, T. Terada, 540
- Immigrations of Summer Residents in the Spring of 1905, Report on the, 470
- India: Exploration in the Himalayas, Mrs. Bullock Workman, 19; Statistics of Mortality from Snakes and Bites, 39; Coalfields in the Shan States, T. D. La Touche and R. R. Simpson, 40; Report of the Indian Survey Committee, 1904-5, 67; an Account of the Scientific Work of the Survey of India, and a Comparison of its Progress with that of Foreign Surveys, Prepared for Use of the Survey Committee, 1905, Lieut.-Colonel S. G. Burrard, F.R.S., 301; Experiments on Well Irrigation at Metropuram in 1902-5, Prof. A. Chatterton, 86; Hindu Method of Manufacturing Spirit from Rice, J. C. Ray, 96; Tank Fauna of India, Dr. N. Annandale, 96; Distribution of the Forest Flora of the Bombay Presidency and Sind, W. A. Talbot, 134; the Aconites of India, Dr. Otto Stapf, 170; the Fauna of British India, including Ceylon and Burma, Rhynchota, vol. iii., Heteroptera-Homoptera, W. L. Distant, 220; the Languages of India and the Linguistic Survey, Dr. G. A. Grierson at Society of Arts, 283; Abnormal Features of the Weather of the Past Half-year, Dr. Walker, 369; Meteorological Kites in India, 448; the Rubber-tree, *Ficus elastica*, E. M. Coventry, 450; Old Sinhalese Embroidery, Ethel M. Coomaraswamy, 450; Sinhalese Earthenware, A. K. Coomaraswamy, 498; Rat Destruction in Mysore City, 472; Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture in India, H. Maxwell-Lefroy, Fred. V. Theobald, 481; Earth-eating and the Earth-eating Habit in India, D. Hooper and H. H. Mann, 543; Ethnographic Notes in Southern India, E. Thurston, 611; Transmission of Plague by Fleas, Hon. N. C. Rothschild, 616; Artificial Manures for India, F. G. Sly, 649
- Indian Corn, a Monograph of the Insect Injuries to, S. A. Forbes, Fred. V. Theobald, 160
- Induction and Conduction Motors, Val. A. Fynn, 346
- Industry, the Relations between Science and, Prof. G. Lippmann, 386
- Inertia, the Magnetic, of a Charged Sphere in a Field of Electric Force, G. F. C. Searle, F.R.S., 198
- Inglis (J. K. H.), Densities of Liquid Nitrogen and Liquid Oxygen, and of their Mixtures, 142
- Inheritance in Poultry, C. B. Davenport, 583
- Innes (R. T. A.), Thermometer Scales, 150
- Inorganic Chemistry, Outlines of, Frank Austin Gooch and Claude Frederic Walker, 5
- Inquiline Bees, how do they Find the Nest of their Host? Oswald H. Latter, 200
- Insects: a Monograph of the Insect Injuries to Indian Corn, S. A. Forbes, Fred. V. Theobald, 160; Departmental Notes on the Insects that affect Forestry, E. P. Stebbing, Fred. V. Theobald, 160; Report on the Injurious Insects and other Animals observed in the Midland Counties during 1905, Walter E. Collinge, Fred. V. Theobald, 293; Insect Pests of the Farm and Garden, F. Martin-Duncan, 488
- Institution of Civil Engineers' Medal Awards, 571
- Insurance: Persons Insured against Accident in Germany, 14
- Integralen, G. Lejeune Dirichlet's Vorlesungen über die Lehre von den einfachen und mehrfachen bestimmten, G. Arendt, 265
- Integrals used in Physics, Volume and Surface, J. G. Leatham, 265
- International Celebration of the Jubilee of the Coal-tar Industry, Dr. J. C. Cain, 318
- International Congress of Anthropology and Prehistoric Archaeology, 211
- International Congress of Applied Chemistry, the Sixth, 65
- International Exhibition, the Milan, 46
- International Fisheries Investigations, the, 130
- International Science, Prof. Arthur Schuster, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 233, 256
- International Southern Telescope, Plea for an, Prof. E. C. Pickering, 474
- International Testing Conference, 503
- Interpretation of Meteorological Records, Dr. John Aitken, F.R.S., 30
- Interrelation of the Academical Sciences, Dr. Shadworth H. Hodgson, 337
- Inventor, the Genesis of the, 559
- Invertebrates, Fossil, Charles Schuchert, W. H. Dall, T. W. Stanton, and R. S. Bessler, 163
- "Iona," Elizabeth A. McHardy, 197
- Ionisation, Diurnal Variation of, in Closed Vessels, George C. Simpson, 8; Dr. O. W. Richardson, 55
- Ionisation and Temperature, Prof. C. D. Child, 125; Prof. J. J. Thomson, F.R.S., 125
- Irish Cave Exploration, Dr. R. F. Scharff, 138
- Iron, the Rusting of, Dr. G. T. Moody, 116, 564; J. Newton Friend, 540, 610; Hugh Richardson, 586
- Iron, Stress in Magnetised, Shelford Bidwell, F.R.S., 317; Dr. C. Chree, 539
- Iron Arc, the, Prof. W. G. Cady, 443
- Iron and Steel Institute, the, 68, 340
- Iron and Steel Manufacture, the Principles and Practice of, Walter Macfarlane, 197
- Iroquoian Cosmology, J. N. B. Hewitt, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Irvine (J. C.), Resolution of Lactic Acid by Morphine, 190; the Addition of Alkyl Halides to Alkylated Sugars and Glucosides, 311
- Isle of Man, the Birds of the, P. G. Ralfe, 105
- Italian Observations of the Total Solar Eclipse (1905), Prof. Ricco, 418
- Italy, Fall of Dust on February 6 in, Dr. F. Eredia, 64
- Jackson (Daniel D.), Normal Distribution of Chlorine in the Natural Waters of New York and New England, 89
- Jackson (H.), Behaviour of Acetylene with Electrical Discharges of High Frequency, 190; Behaviour of the Vapours of Methyl Alcohol and Acetaldehyde with Electrical Discharges of High Frequency, 190
- Jackson (Mr.), Method for Calibrating Thermometers for Use in the Determination of Freezing points of Aqueous Solutions, 451
- James (W. H. N.), Elementary Electrical Calculations, 608
- Jamieson (Thomas), on the Utilisation of Atmospheric Nitrogen by Plants, 526
- Jamin (J.), Cours de Physique de l'Ecole Polytechnique, 147
- Japan: Erlebnisse und Beobachtungen eines Naturforschers in China, Japan, und Ceylon, Dr. Franz Doflein, 510
- Jastrow (Joseph), the Sub-conscious, 533
- Jeans (J. H.), the Stability of Submarines, 270
- Jeffrey (Prof.), on the Structure and Wound-reactions of the Mesozoic Genus *Brachyphyllum*, 576
- Jenkin (C. F.), on the Advent of Single-phase Electric Traction, 500
- Jensen (H. J.), Geology of the Volcanic Area of the East Moreton and Wide Bay Districts, 167
- Johnson (W. E.), the Day of Week for any Date, 271
- Johnston (G. T.), Automatic Arc-lamp, 166
- Johnston (Sir H. H., K.C.M.G.), Bantu Folklore (Medical and General), Dr. Matthew L. Hewat, 28; the Source

- of the Blue Nile, a Record of a Journey through the Sudan to Tsana in Western Abyssinia, and of the Return to Egypt by the Valley of the Atbara, with a Note on the Religion, Customs, &c., of Abyssinia, Arthur Hayes, Entomological Appendix by Prof. E. B. Poulton, F.R.S., 247
- Johnston (John), Methyl Derivatives of Para-amino-benzoic Acid and of Glycine, 407
- Johnston-Lavis (Dr. H. J.), a New Vesuvian Mineral, 103; Lantern-slide Views illustrating the Late Eruption of Vesuvius, 165; Another New Vesuvian Mineral, 174
- Johnstone (James), Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool, and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel, 19; the Food of Plaice and Dabs, 20; British Fisheries, their Administration and their Problems, a Short Account of the Origin and Growth of British Sea-fishery Authorities and Regulations, 535
- Joly (Prof. J., F.R.S.), Radium and Geology, 635
- Jones (B. Mouat), a Variety of Thorianite from Galle, Ceylon, 190
- Jones (Prof. Harry C.), the Electrical Nature of Matter and Radio-activity, 632
- Jones (Prof. Henry), the Philosophy of Martineau in Relation to the Idealism of the Present Day, 53
- Jones (J.), Rubber from Castillea Trees, 280
- Jordan (Dr. D. S.), Variation in Animals and Plants, 183
- Jordan (Karl), der Gegensatz zwischen geographischer und nichtgeographischer Variation, 6
- Joyce (T. A.), on the Ethnography of the Ba-Yaka, 456
- Jubilee of the Coal-tar Industry, International Celebration of the, Dr. J. C. Cain, 318; American Chemists and the, Prof. R. Meldola, F.R.S., 514; see Chemistry
- Julius (Prof.), Radiative Power of the Sun's Disc, 231
- Jungfleisch (E.), Paltreubin, 167
- Jupiter: Observations of Jupiter in 1903 and 1905-6, Mr. Denning, 210; Observations of Jupiter, Mr. Denning, 525; Jupiter's Sixth Satellite, 595; Prof. Campbell, 524; Elements and Ephemeris of Jupiter's Seventh Satellite, Dr. F. E. Ross, 306; Jupiter's Seventh Satellite, Prof. Perrine, 619; Rotation Period of Jupiter's Equatorial Region, Mr. Denning, 549
- Kahlenberg (Prof. Louis), Osmosis and Osmotic Pressure, 19; Osmotic Pressure, 222
- Kahn (H. Morel), Solubility of Carbon in Calcium Carbide, 288
- Kant's (Immanuel) Grundlegung zur Metaphysik der Sitten, 488
- Kapteyn (Prof. J. C.), the Distribution of the Stars, 112; Components of the Proper Motions and other Quantities for the Stars of Bradley, 341; some Useful Trigonometrical Formulæ and a Table of Goniometrical Functions for the Four Quadrants, 341
- Kapteyn (Prof. W.), some Useful Trigonometrical Formulæ and a Table of Goniometrical Functions for the Four Quadrants, 341
- Karstphänomene, Höhlenkunde mit Berücksichtigung der, Dr. W. von Knebel, 314
- Katayama (T.), Condensed Vegetable Milk, 649
- Kause (Georg), Oologia universalis palæarctica, 79
- Kaván (Dr. Jif), Radiant Point of a Bright Meteor, 18
- Keith (Dr. R. D.), on the Relationships between Hæmolytic and the Phagocytosis of Red Blood Cells, 118
- Keller (C. A.), Electrothermics of Iron and Steel, 23
- Kelly (Dr. Henry A.), a Text-book of General Zoology, 633
- Kelvin (Lord), the Recent Radium Controversy, 539
- Kendall (Prof.), on the General Geological Structure of the Country round York, 549
- Kermode (P. M. C.), Illustrated Notes on Manks Antiquities, 152
- Kew: the Wild Fauna and Flora of the Royal Botanic Gardens, 53; Kew Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, 180; Kew Publications, Sir W. T. Thiselton-Dyer; K.C.M.G., F.R.S., 198
- Keyser (Charles R.), Strength of a Beetle, 318
- Keyserling (Hermann Graf), das Gefüge der Welt, Versuch einer kritische Philosophie, 533
- Kistiakowsky (Prof. W.), Relationship between the Surface-tension Values of Different Liquids Analogous to Trouton's Rule, 548
- Kites, Meteorological, in India, 448
- Klein (Henry Oscar), Colloid Emulsion, 5
- Knebel (Dr. Walther von), the Hot-spring Areas of Iceland, 16; Höhlenkunde mit Berücksichtigung der Karstphänomene, 314
- Knietsch (Dr. Rudolf), Death and Obituary Notice of, 155
- Knight (S. R.), Elementary Trigonometry, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Knocker (F. W.), on the Aborigines of Sungei Ujong, 456
- Knott (Dr. C. G.), the Notation and Use of Vectors, 454; Vectors, &c., at the British Association, 585
- Knowles (F. K.), Influence of Nearly Pure Metallic Manganese alloyed with varying Proportions of Nearly Pure Metallic Iron, 68
- Knuth (Dr. Paul), Handbook of Flower Pollination based on Hermann Müller's Work "The Fertilisation of Flowers by Insects," 605
- Kodaikanal Observatory, the, Monteith Macphail, 525
- Kofoid (Dr. C.), Bucket for obtaining Samples of Water from Considerable Depths, 130
- König (Dr. E.), Natural-colour Photography, Supp. to October 11, vi
- Kopff (Herr), Rediscovery of Finlay's Comet (1906d), 282; Discovery of a New Comet (1906e), 452
- Kopff, Comet 1906b, M. Ebell, 158; Prof. Wolf, 158
- Kopff, Comet 1906e, M. Ebell, 474, 499, 575; Prof. E. C. Pickering, 499; Dr. Graff, 499; Prof. Millosevich, 575; Messrs. Crawford and Champreux, 619
- Korté (Dr. de), Beri-beri in Monkeys, 529
- Köthner (Dr. P.), Naturkonstanten in Alphabetischer Anordnung, 442
- Kowalski (J. de), Spectra of Alloys, 72
- Kronthal (Dr. Paul), the Soul as the Sum of Reflexes, 15
- Kuckuck (P.), Atlas Colorié des Plantes et des Animaux des Côtes de France, 102
- Kynaston (H.), the Geology of Mid-Argyll, 9
- Kynaston (Mr.), Country between Pretoria and Pietersburg, 646
- La Touche (T. D.), Coalfields in the Shan States, 40
- Laboratories: Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool, and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., Andrew Scott, and James Johnstone, Frank Balfour Browne, 19; National Physical Laboratory, 205; Opening of a New Laboratory at the Rothamsted Experimental Station, 307; the Mount Wilson Spectroscopic Laboratory, 595
- Lacroix (A.), Crystals of Sylvite in Blocks thrown out by Recent Eruption of Vesuvius, 192
- Ladenburg (Dr. Erich), Researches on Nearly Pure Gaseous Ozone, 455
- Lagrange's Equations, the Mixed Transformation of, A. B. Basset, F.R.S., 317, 489, 540; Prof. T. Levi-Civita, 488; Dr. E. J. Routh, F.R.S., 516
- Laidlaw (F. F.), Polyclad Turbellaria from Cape Verde Islands, 261
- Lainé (E.), Utilisation of Turf for the Intensive Production of Nitrates, 191
- Lamb (Captain George), Anti-typhoid Vaccine, 91
- Lamplugh (G. W., F.R.S.), Opening Address in Section C at the Meeting of the British Association at York, on British Drifts and the Interglacial Problem, 387
- Lamson (Miss), Comets 1906b and 1906c, 64
- Lane-Clayton (Miss J. E.), the Factors which determine the Growth and Activity of the Mammary Glands, 22
- Langeron (Dr. M.), Atlas Colorié des Plantes et des Animaux des Côtes de France, 102
- Langley (Prof. J. N., F.R.S.), on Nerve Endings and on Special excitable Substances in Cells, 482
- Langley (Dr. S. P.), Solar Variability, 16
- Languages of India and the Linguistic Survey, the, Dr. G. A. Grierson at Society of Arts, 283
- Langkester (Prof. E. Ray, M.A., LL.D., D.Sc., F.R.S., F.L.S.), Inaugural Address at the Meeting of the British Association at York, 321
- Lapparent (A. de), Earthquake in California according to the Preliminary Official Report, 287

- Larch Sawfly in Cumberland, a, 529
 Larmor (Prof. J.), on the Irregular Motions of the Earth's Pole, 455
 Laryngology: Death and Obituary Notice of Manuel Garcia, 227
 Latitude Service, Results of the International, 1902-1906, Prof. Th. Albrecht, 575
 Letter (Lucy R.), School Gardening for Little Children, 411
 Letter (Oswald H.), How do Inquiline Bees find the Nest of their Host? 200
 Laubmoose, die europäischen, Georg Roth, 170
 Laur (Francis), Gold and Silver in the Trias of Meurthe-et-Moselle, 240
 Laurie (D. N.), Behaviour of Acetylene with Electrical Discharges of High Frequency, 190; Behaviour of the Vapours of Methyl Alcohol and Acetaldehyde with Electrical Discharges of High Frequency, 190
 Laveran (A.), Trypanosomiasis of the Upper Niger, 311-2
 Law (E. F.), Causes of Brittle and Blistered Tin Plates, 68
 Law (H. D.), Behaviour of Platinised Electrodes, 141; Electrolytic Oxidation, 311
 Layard (Miss Nina F.), on the Palæolithic Site at Ipswich, 457
 Lazennec (J.), the Pyrazolones, New Methods of Synthesis, 263; the Condensation of Acetylenic Nitriles with the Amines, 652
 Le Morvan (C.), Study of an Apparatus designed by M. Lippmann for the Photographic Measurement of Right Ascensions, 343-4
 Le Rossignol (R.), Action of Sulphur Dioxide and Aluminium Chloride on Aromatic Compounds, 190
 Lea (S. H.), Hydrographic Surveying, Methods, Tables, and Forms of Notes, 221
 Leach (F. P.), New Derivatives of Pinene, 93
 Leatham (J. G.), Volume and Surface Integrals used in Physics, 265
 Leather (Dr. J. W.), Composition of Indian Rain and Dew, 337; Prussic Acid in Fodder Plants, 649
 Leathes (J. B.), Problems in Animal Metabolism, 349
 Leavitt (Miss), Observations of Variable Stars, 158
 Lebeau (Paul), Action of Fluorine on Chlorine and a New Method of Formation of Hydrochlorous Acid, 556
 Lecointe (G.), Travaux hydrographiques et Instructions nautique, 298
 Leq (H.), Cultures du Midi de l'Algérie et de la Tunisie, 269
 Lector (Oliver), Letters from the Dead to the Dead, 102
 Ledoux (A. R.), New Method of Mining Kaolin, 618
 Leduc (A.), the Latent Heat of Fusion of Ice, 41
 Lee (Gabriel W.), Chemical Composition of Glauconite, 215
 Leeds Astronomical Society, the, 186
 Leetham (S.), on an Apparatus for the Production of an Active Mixture of Gases which may be used for Bleaching and Sterilising Purposes, 525
 Lefèvre (Jules), Gaseous Exchanges of a Green Plant Developed in the Light, 436
 Léger (E.), the Constitution of Hordenine, 376
 Lehmann (G. W.), Death of, 449
 Leiden, Vorlesungen über Deszendenztheorie mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Botanischen Seite der Frage gehalten an der Reichsuniversität zu, Dr. J. P. Latsy, W. Bateson, F.R.S., 146
 Leigh (Chas.), the Date of Easter, 175
 Leighton (Marshall O.), the Field Assay of Water, 90
 Leiper (Dr. R. T.), Infection of Monkeys with Guinea-worm, 552
 Lempfert (R. G. K.), the Thunder-squall of February 8, 1906, 94; the Life-history of Surface Air-currents, a Study of the Surface Trajectories of Moving Air, 162
 Lenglen (M.), the Cyanide Industry Theoretically and Practically Considered, 195
 Lépine (R.), Origin of the Carbon Monoxide contained in Normal Blood, 484; the Dialysis of the Sugar of the Blood, 651
 Leprosy, Bacillus of, found in Mosquito and Bed-bug, Dr. W. J. Goodhue, 367
 Leroux (H.), Paltreubin, 167
 Letters from the Dead to the Dead, Oliver Lector, 102
 Levallois (F.), Contribution to the Study of Ultramarine, 376
 Levi-Civita (Prof. T.), the Mixed Transformations of Lagrange's Equations, 488
 Levin (M.), Polonium a Homogeneous Source of a Ray, 385
 Lewis (Dr. Bevan), on the Physiological Value of Rest, 480, 502
 Lewis (Francis J.), Plant Remains in the Scottish Peat Mosses, 263
 Lewis (Mr.), Colours and Magnitudes of Double Stars, 549
 Lhasa and its Mysteries, with a Record of the Expedition of 1903-4, L. A. Waddell, C.B., 518
 Life, the Origin of, its Physical Bases and Definition, John Butler Burke, 1
 Life and Matter, Sir Oliver Lodge, 78
 Light, Chemical and Electrical Changes induced by, H. S. Allen, 564
 Lightning Discharge, a Remarkable, Sir Edw. Fry, P.C., F.R.S., 198
 Lightning Flashes, R. T. A. I., 8
 Lindelöf (Ernst), le Calcul des Résidues et ses applications à la Théorie des Fonctions, 265
 Lindet (M.), Soluble Albuminoid Materials of Milk, 192
 Linnean Society, 191, 262
 Linnean Society, New South Wales, 95, 167, 312, 484, 508, 580, 652; Destruction of Animals in Australia, T. Steel, 188
 Linville (Dr. Henry R.), a Text-book of General Zoology, 633
 Lippmann (Prof. E. O. von), Abhandlungen und Vorträge zur Geschichte der Naturwissenschaften, Supp. to October 11, vii
 Lippmann (Prof. G.), the Relations between Science and Industry, 386; Interference Photography in Colours, 408
 Lippmann's (M.), Method of Photography in Colour, 459
 Liquid Satellite, the Figure and Stability of a, Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 115
 Lister (G. A.), Standard Test for Transformers and Transformer Iron, 64
 Lister (J. J., M.A., F.R.S.), Opening Address in Section D at the Meeting of the British Association at York, the Life-history of the Foraminifera, 400; Biometry and Biology, a Reply to Prof. Pearson, 584
 Liverpool: Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., Andrew Scott, and James Johnstone, Frank Balfour Browne, 19; Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, Reports of the Expedition to the Congo, 1903-5, 269; the New Muspratt Laboratory of Physical and Electrochemistry at the University of Liverpool, 624
 Living Matter, the Dynamics of, Prof. Jacques Loeb, 631
 Loch Fyne, at the Head of, 9
 Lockyer (Commander H. C.), Hydrographic Surveying, Methods, Tables, and Forms of Notes, S. H. Lea, 221
 Lockyer (Sir Norman, K.C.B., F.R.S.), Notes on some Cornish Circles, 126; Stars with Peculiar Spectra, 214; the Spectra of Sun-spots and Red Stars, 418; an Early Chapter in the History of Cornwall, 644
 Lockyer (Dr. William J. S.), Barometric Variations of Long Duration over Large Areas, 352; Observations of the Planet Mars during the Oppositions of 1894, 1896, 1898, 1901, and 1903, made at Flagstaff, Arizona, Percival Lowell, 587
 Locomotion: an Electrically Controlled Petrol Motor-bus, 302
 Locust, the Bombay, H. Maxwell-Lefroy, Fred. V. Theobald, 481
 Lodge (Sir Oliver, F.R.S.), Life and Matter, 78; the Earth's Interior, 412; Easy Mathematics of all Kinds, Chiefly Arithmetic, Supp. to May 3, viii
 Loeb (Prof. Jacques), the Dynamics of Living Matter, 631
 Lœwy (M.), Report of the Paris Observatory for 1905, 417
 Logarithms, the Discovery of, Cecil Seymour-Browne, 174; the Reviewer, 175
 Logeman (W. H.), Production of Secondary Rays by α Rays from Polonium, 555
 Lomas (J.), on the Origin of the Trias, 549
 Lomax (Mr.), on the Formation of the well-known Cal-

- careous Nodules found in the Coal Seams of the Lower Coal-measures, 576
- London: the Zoological Society of London, a Sketch of its Foundation and Development, and the Story of its Farm, Museum, Gardens, Menagerie, and Library, Henry Scherren, 129
- Longitude of Brest, Application of the Telephone and the Claude-Driencourt Astrolabe to the Determination of the, E. Guyou, 240
- Longitude, Telegraphic Determinations of, made in the Years 1888-1902, 90
- Lorentz (H. A.), Lehrbuch der Physik, 147
- Lorenzo (Prof. Giuseppe de), Eruption of Vesuvius in April, 1906, 141
- Lotsy (Dr. J. P.), Vorlesungen über Deszendenztheorie mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Botanischen Seite der Frage gehalten an der Reichsuniversität du Leiden, 146
- Lotus Blossoms, Maung Nee, 221
- Loudon (Prof. W. J.), a Lunar Tide on Lake Huron, 88
- Love (A. E. H.), a Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of Elasticity, 74
- Low (A. P.), Geological Survey of Canada, 175
- Lowe (E. E.), Aquatic-dwelling Weevils, 541
- Lowell (Percival), Observations of the Planet Mars during the Oppositions of 1894, 1896, 1898, 1901, and 1903, made at Flagstaff, Arizona, 587
- Lubimenko (W.), Influence of the Absorption of Sugar on the Phenomena of Germination of Young Plants, 312
- Lucas (A.), Blackening of Rocks in Rivers, 280
- Ludendorff (Dr. H.), the Variable Radial Velocity of ϵ Aurigæ, 41; the Radial Motion of β Arietis, 135; Radial Velocity of α Draconis, 185
- Lull (Prof. R. S.), the Various Structural Modifications for Flight occurring in Vertebrates, 415
- Luminosity of the Brighter Stars, George C. Comstock, 41
- Luminous Particles in the Chromosphere, Dr. Deslandres, 18
- Luna (Dr. M. Roso de), Observations of Shadow Bands, 135
- Lunar Halos, Solar and, Rowland A. Earp, 150
- Lunar Tide on Lake Huron, a, Prof. W. J. Loudon, 88
- Lustgarten (J.), German Scientific and Technological Reader, 583
- Lyde (Prof. L. W.), on the Wheat Area in Central Canada, 479
- Lydekker (Mr.), Colouring of Guereza Monkeys, 309
- Lyman (Theodore), Extreme Ultra-violet Spectrum of Hydrogen, 87
- Lynn (W. T.), the Total Solar Eclipse of January, 1907, 548
- Lyons (Captain H. G.), Report on the Rain of the Nile Basin in 1905, 308; the Physiography of the River Nile and its Basin, 461
- β Lyræ, the Period of, Prof. Schaeberle, 65
- McAlpine (D.), Plant Rusts in Victoria, 385
- McClelland (Prof. J. A.), the Absorption of β Radiation by Matter, 142, 311
- MacDonald (Mrs. J. R.), on the Education of Wage-earners of School Age, 502
- MacDonald Physics Building, the, McGill University, Montreal, Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S., A. S. Eve, 272
- MacDougall (Dr.), on the Physiological Value of Rest, 502
- MacDowall (Alex. B.), August Rainfall, 8
- Macfadyen (Dr. Allan), on the Properties of an Antityphoid Serum obtained from the Goat, 118
- Macfarlane (Walter), the Principles and Practice of Iron and Steel Manufacture, 197
- McGill University, Montreal, some Scientific Centres, VIII., the MacDonald Physics Building, Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S., A. S. Eve, 272
- McHardy (Elizabeth), "Iona," 107
- Machines, Modern Milling, Joseph G. Horner, 149
- Mackenzie (D.), on Waterproof Roads as a Solution of the Dust Problem, 501
- McLeod (Prof. Herbert, F.R.S.), Inheritance of an Abnormality, 150
- Macphail (Monteith), the Kodaikanal Observatory, 575
- Maddrell (Mr.), Observations of Nova Persei No. 2, 135
- Magazine of Systematised Notes, the Scientific Roll and, 174
- Magnetism: Superposition of Mechanical Vibrations upon Magnetisation and Conversely in Iron, Steel, and Nickel, James Russell, 94; the Discovery of Magnetic Declination, Prof. G. Hellmann, 137; Magneto-optic Rotation, F. E. Hackett, 142; Magnetic Collimator which Transforms a Binocular into an Instrument for Taking Bearings, A. Berget, 143; Influence of a very Strong Magnetic Field on the Spark Spectra of Palladium, Rhodium, and Ruthenium, J. E. Purvis, 191; Experiments on the Band Spectrum of Nitrogen in a Magnetic Field of 41-000 Units, J. E. Purvis, 191; the Magnetic Inertia of a Charged Sphere in a Field of Electric Force, G. F. C. Searle, F.R.S., 108; Method of obtaining Continuous Currents from a Magnetic Detector of the Self-restoring Type, L. H. Walter, 214; Magnetic Properties of the Compounds of Boron and Manganese, Binet du Jassoneix, 216; Lectures on Compass Adjustment, Captain W. R. Martin, 221; Theory of Directive Antennæ or Unsymmetrical Hertzian Oscillators, Prof. J. A. Fleming, F.R.S., 238; Effect of Oscillations on Iron in a Magnetic Field, Dr. W. H. Eccles, 262; Report of Department of Research in Terrestrial Magnetism, Dr. L. A. Bauer, 284; Stress in Magnetised Iron, Shelford Bidwell, F.R.S., 317; Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 539; Models of Atoms, Prof. Alfred W. Porter, 563; Magnetische Kraftfelder, H. Ebert, 583
- Magnitude Observations of Nova Aquilæ No. 2, Dr. Guthnick, 253
- Magnus (Sir Philip), on the Course of Experimental, Observational, and Practical Studies most Suitable for Elementary Schools, 502
- Magnusson (E.), Notes on Shipbuilding and Nautical Terms of Old in the North, 77
- Mahoney (Daniel James), Two Modifications of the Quartz Wedge, 317
- Mailey (R. D.), Physical Properties of Fused Magnesium Oxide, 574
- Mailhe (Alphonse), Use of Metallic Oxides as Catalysers in Oxidation, 240
- Maillard (Louis), Cours d'Astronomie, 341
- Makower (W.), Indifference of Radio-activity to Temperature Changes, 453
- Malaria: Parasites of Malaria and the Phagocytic Action of the Polymorphonuclear Leucocytes, Dr. Bernstein, 141; Sanitation and Malaria in the Roman Campagna, 156; Measures Taken to Stamp Out Malaria at Port Swettenham, Dr. Hamilton Wright, 367
- Mallock (W. H.), the Reconstruction of Belief, 217
- Man and the Glacial Period, Prof. Sollas, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 372
- Manchester: Studies in Anatomy from the Anatomical Department of the University of Manchester, 464; Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, 604
- Manks Antiquities, Illustrated Notes on, P. M. C. Ker-mode and Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 152
- Mann (E. A.), the Poisonous Principle of the Zamia Palm, 580
- Mann (Dr. Gustav), Chemistry of the Proteids, 75
- Mann (H. H.), Relative Proportion of the Sexes in *Helopeltis theivora*, 143; Earth-eating and the Earth-eating Habit in India, 543
- Manson (Sir Patrick), Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905, delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco. Supp. to May 3, ix
- Manufacture of Cyanides, the, R. Robine and M. Lenglen, Dr. T. K. Rose, 195
- Manville (O.), Variations in the State of Amorphous Carbon under the Influence of Temperature, 167
- Manx Archæology and Natural History, Prof. John Rhys, 223
- Marage (M.), Acoustical Properties of Buildings, 368
- Marchi (Luigi de), L'Idrografia dei Colli Euganei, 308
- Marine Biology: Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., Andrew Scott and James Johnstone, Frank Balfour Browne, 19; Report to the Government of Ceylon

- on the Pearl-oyster Fisheries of the Gulf of Manaar, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 57; Yolk-nucleus in the Oocyte of Antedon, Dr. G. C. Chubb, 61; Medusæ. Collected in H.M.S. *Research* by Dr. Fowler in the Bay of Biscay, E. T. Browne, 70; Biscayan Plankton Collected during a Cruise of H.M.S. *Research* in 1900, Dr. G. H. Fowler, (1) the Cephalopoda, W. E. Hoyer, (2) the Medusæ, E. T. Browne, 191; Atlas Colorié des Plantes et des Animaux des Côtes de France, P. Kuckuck, Dr. M. Langeron, 102; Bucket for Obtaining Samples of Water from Considerable Depths, Dr. C. Kofoid, 130; *Muggiara atlantica* in the English Channel and Irish sea during 1904, Dr. L. Gough, 130; Mode in which American Crayfish of the Genus *Cambarus* Lay their Eggs, Dr. E. A. Andrews, 133; Ein Jahr an Bord I.M.S. *Siboga*, Frau A. Weber, 196; New Pelagic Cœlenterate from Java, *Dogiella Malayana*, D. D. Pedaschenk, 229; Erlebnisse und Beobachtungen eines Naturforschers in China, Japan, und Ceylon, Dr. Franz Doflein, 510; The Distribution and Dispersal of the Young and Eggs of Pelagic Fishes, 546; the Larval and Post-Larval Stages in the Life-History of the Flatfish and Cod Families, 643; Distribution of the Crustacean *Calanus finmarchicus* in Icelandic Waters, O. Paulsen, 643
- Marloth (Dr. R.), Functions of the Ethereal Oils of Xerophytic Plants, 288
- Marriott (William), Some Facts about the Weather, 295
- Mars: Observations of the Planet Mars during the Oppositions of 1894, 1896, 1898, 1901, and 1903, made at Flagstaff, Arizona, Percival Lowell, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 587
- Marsden (Miss E. G.), Relation between Absorption Spectra and Chemical Constitution, the Isonitroso-compounds, 93
- Marsden (R. Sydney), Sixteen Years' Observations on the Relation of Temperature and Rainfall to the Spread of Scarletina, Measles, and Typhoid Fever, 142
- Marshall (A.), Vapour Pressure of Binary Mixtures, Part I., the Possible Types of Vapour-pressure Curves, 190
- Marshall (Dr. Francis H.), the Breeding Industry, Walker Heape, F.R.S., 101
- Martin (A. J.), on a General Supply of Gas for Light, Heat, and Power Production, 500
- Martin (Captain W. R.), Lectures on Compass Adjustment, 221
- Martin-Duncan (F.), Insect Pests of the Farm and Garden, 488
- Martineau, the Philosophy of, in Relation to the Idealism of the Present Day, Prof. Henry Jones, 53
- Martius (Prof.), Physiological Effects of Mental Actions, 20
- Martorelli (Prof. Giacinto), Specimen of Ross's Polar Gull from Neighbourhood of Sardinia, 64
- Martyn (G. H.), Musical Thunder, 200
- Marx (Dr. E.), Velocity of Röntgen Rays, 547
- Mascari (Prof.), Solar Prominences during 1905, 65; Discussion of Faculæ Observations, 185; Observations of Solar Phenomena, 1906, 525
- Masseé (G.), the Fungus Flora of Yorkshire, 196; Colour Phenomena in *Boletus coerulescens*, 380
- Massoulier (P.), Relation Existing between Electrical Resistance and the Viscosity of Electrolytic Solutions, 376
- Maß (S. O.), the Effects of In-breeding, Cross-breeding, and Selection upon *Drosophila*, 337
- Mata (Rev. M. S.), The Great Typhoon in the Philippine Islands in September, 1905, 232
- Materials, Theory of Structures and Strength of, Prof. Henry T. Bovey, 243
- Matériaux, Essais des, H. Bouasse, 174
- Mathematics: Theorems Connected with Abel's Theorem on the Continuity of Power Series, G. H. Hardy, 23; Mathematical Society, 23, 71; Expansion of Polynomials in Series of Functions, Dr. L. N. G. Filon, 71; the Motion of a Swarm of Particles the Centre of Gravity of which Describes an Elliptic Orbit of Small Eccentricity round the Sun, Dr. E. J. Routh, 71; Theory of Integral Equations, H. Bateman, 71; a Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of Elasticity, A. E. H. Love, 74; a Manual of Geometry, W. D. Eggar, 124; the Discovery of Logarithms, Cecil Seymour-Browne, 174; the Reviewer, 175; Researches into the Theory of Probability, C. V. L. Charlier, 187; on Models of Cubic Surfaces, W. H. Blythe, 197; Interpolation for a Table of Fractions, with a Notice of Synthetic Division, Dr. James Burgess, 215; Theory of Directive Antennæ or Unsymmetrical Hertzian Oscillators, Prof. J. A. Fleming, F.R.S., 238; Correspondance d'Hermite et de Stieltjes, 265; G. Lejeune Dirichlet's Vorlesungen über die Lehre von den einfachen und mehrfachen bestimmten Integralen, G. Arendt, 265; Le Calcul des Résidus et ses Applications à la Théorie des Fonctions, Ernst Lindelöf, 265; Les Principes des Mathématiques, Louis Coururat, 265; Méthodes de Calcul Graphique, Frederico Oom, 265; Volume and Surface Integrals used in Physics, J. G. Leathem, 265; Recherche sur les Champs de Force Hydrodynamiques, V. Bjerknæs, 265; Sur la Recherche des Solutions particulières des Systèmes différentiels et sur les Mouvements stationnaires, T. Levi Civita, 265; The Stability of Submarines, J. H. Jeans, 270; Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 128, 270; the Mixed Transformation of Lagrange's Equations, A. B. Basset, F.R.S., 317, 489, 540; Prof. T. Levi-Civita, 488; Dr. E. J. Routh, F.R.S., 516; the Theory of Determinants in the Historical Order of Development, Dr. T. Muir, F.R.S., 462; the Longitudinal Vibrations of a Rubbed String, Harvey N. Davis, 473; Vectors, &c., at the British Association, Dr. C. G. Knott, 585; Writer of the Report, 586; Death of Dr. Thomas Harrison, 591; Proposed Changes in the Mathematical Tripos at Cambridge, 641; Easy Mathematics of all Kinds, Chiefly Arithmetic, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., Supp. to May 3, viii; Arithmetic for Schools and Colleges, John Alison and John B. Clark, Supp. to May 3, viii; Elementary Trigonometry, H. S. Hall and S. R. Knight, Supp. to May 3, viii; Engineering Mathematics, Simply Explained, H. H. Harrison, Supp. to May 3, viii, *see also* British Association
- Mathews (R. H.), Notes on the Aboriginal Tribes of New South Wales and Victoria, 100
- Mathey (A.), Traité d'Exploitation Commerciale des Bois, 441
- Matignon (C.), Action of Ammonia Gas on Anhydrous Neodymium Chloride, 95
- Matter, the Dynamics of Living, Prof. Jacques Loeb, 631
- Matter, Life and, Sir Oliver Lodge, 78
- Matter and Radio-activity, the Electrical Nature of, Prof. Harry C. Jones, 632
- Matteucci Medal, the, Awarded to Sir James Dewar, 477
- Mauricheau-Beaupré (M.), Qualitative Reaction of Phosphorus, 167
- Mawson (D.), Importance of Halimeda as a Reef-forming Organism, with a Description of the Halimeda-Limestones of the New Hebrides, 165
- Maxwell-Lefroy (H.), Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture in India, 481
- Mayan Calendar Systems, II., Cyrus Thomas, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Meade-Waldo (Mr.), the Sea-Serpent, 202
- Meads (C. S.), Adaptive Modifications of the Occipital Condyles in Mammalian Skulls, 369
- Measurement of Resemblance, Dr. Francis Galton, F.R.S., 562
- Measures of Double and Multiple Stars, Prof. Doolittle, 88
- Mechanics: Lateral Vibration of Bars Subjected to Forces in the Direction of their Axes, J. Morrow, 71
- Mechanism of the Universe, the, 49
- Medicine: Bantu Folklore (Medical and General), Dr. Matthew L. Hewat, Sir H. H. Johnstone, K.C.M.G., 28; Physical Chemistry and its Applications in Medical and Biological Science, Dr. Alex. Findlay, 53; Death of Dr. Brouardel, 302; Obituary Notice of, 412; a Curative Product Derived from Tuberculinin, G. Baudran, 408; Death of Prof. Léon Adrien Prunier, 414; the Management of a Nerve Patient, Dr. A. T. Schofield, 440; Death of Dr. Morache, 521; the Toronto Meeting of the British Medical Association, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 529; Medical Science and Army Efficiency, Lieut.-Colonel R. H. Firth, 612; Death and Obituary Notice of William Sedgwick, 641; the Growth of Truth, Dr. William Osler, Harveian Oration at the Royal College of Physicians, 642; Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for

- 1905, delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Sir Patrick Manson, Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, Supp. to May 3, ix; a System of Medicine, Supp. to October 11, viii
- Melanesia, a Plea for an Expedition to, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 187
- Meldola (Prof. R., F.R.S.), American Chemists and the Jubilee of the Coal-tar Colour Industry, 514
- Meldrum (Dr. Andrew N.), Avogadro and Dalton, the Standing in Chemistry of their Hypotheses, 537
- Memorial to the late Prof. Tacchini, A, 417
- Mendel's (Gregor), Briefe an Carl Nägeli, 1866-73, 640
- Mental Actions, Physiological Effects of, Prof. Martius, 20
- Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty, Frederick Adams Woods, 97
- Mercanton (Paul L.), Cause of Explosion of Sealed Glass Tubes Containing Radium Bromide, 253
- Mercury, the Planet, Mr. Denning, 499
- Merritt (Ernest), Studies in Luminescence, Law of Decay of the Phosphorescence of Sidot Blende, 209
- Meslin (Georges), Interference Effects Produced by a Grating Limiting a Thin Plate, 95
- Mesozoic Floras of the United States, Status of the, Lester F. Ward, William M. Fontaine, Arthur Bibbins and G. R. Wieland, A. C. Swards, F.R.S., 81
- "Metabolic," Origin of the Term, Robert E. Baynes, 56
- Metabolism, Animal, Problems in, J. B. Leathes, 349
- Metabolism, On Carbohydrate, with an Appendix on the Assimilation of Carbohydrate into Proteid and Fat, followed by the Fundamental Principles and the Treatment of Diabetes Dialectically Discussed, Dr. F. W. Pavy, F.R.S., 631
- Metallurgy: Steel and Pig-Iron Production in England, Germany, and United States, 18; Electrothermics of Iron and Steel, C. A. Keller, 23; Rotating Electric Steel Furnace in the Artillery Construction Works, Turin, Ernesto Stassano, 23; the Iron and Steel Institute, 68; Method of Compressing Steel Ingots, A. J. Capron, 68; Influence of Silicon, Phosphorus, Manganese, and Aluminium on Chill in Cast-Iron, E. Adamson, 68; Influence of Nearly Pure Metallic Manganese Alloyed with Varying Proportions of nearly Pure Metallic Iron, Prof. J. O. Arnold and F. K. Knowles, 68; Use of Oxygen in Removing Blast-Furnace Obstructions, C. de Schwarz, 68; Causes of Brittle and Blistered Tin Plates, E. F. Law, 68; Effect of Copper in Steel, F. H. Wigham, 69; Deformation and Fracture of Iron and Mild Steel, W. Rosenhain, 69; Determination of the Hardness of the Constituents of Iron and Steel with the aid of Jaggars' Microsclerometer, Dr. H. C. Boynton, 69; on the Heat Treatment of Wire, J. D. Brunton, 69; Some Special Brasses, Léon Guillet, 95; the Principles and Practice of Iron and Steel Manufacture, Walter Macfarlane, 197; Death and Obituary Notice of George James. Snelus, F.R.S., 207; Molecular Changes in Nickel Steel, C. E. Stromeyer, 223; Determination of the Transformation Points of some Steels by the Electrical Resistance Method, P. Fournel, 288; Smelting of Canadian Iron Ores by the Electrothermic Process, Dr. E. Haanel, 311; Some Scientific Centres, IX., the Metallurgical Department of the Sheffield University, Prof. J. O. Arnold, 541
- Metaphysics: Immanuel Kants Grundlegung zur Metaphysik der Sitten, 488
- Metcalf (J. H.), New Method for the Discovery of Asteroids, 185
- Metchnikoff (Prof.), Transmission and Prophylaxis of Syphilis, 62; Harben Lectures, 107
- Metchnikoff (El.), Researches on the Whitening of Fur and Feathers in Winter, 95
- Meteorology: Lightning Flashes, R. T. A. I., 8; August Rainfall, Alex. B. MacDowall, 8; Vagaries of Lightning Reproduced Experimentally, A. Hands, 23; Value of a Projected Image of the Sun for Meteorological Study, Miss C. O. Stevens, 23; Royal Meteorological Society, 23, 94, 215; Interpretation of Meteorological Records, Dr. John Aitken, F.R.S., 30; Balloons and Kites in the Service of Meteorology, W. H. Dines, F.R.S., 35; Atmospheric Circulation and its Relation to Weather, Dr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S., 38; Normal General Circulation of the Atmosphere at the Surface and in the Upper Air, and the Relation of Temperature and Rainfall to the General Circulation and Local Disturbances, Dr. W. N. Shaw, 63; Exploration of the Upper Air over the Atlantic North of the Tropic of Cancer, Prof. H. Hergesell, 40; Climate of Pamplemousses, Mauritius, 64; Fall of Dust on February 6 in Italy, Dr. F. Eredia, 64; Weather Report for Week Ending Saturday, May 19, 86; the Thunder-Squall of February 8, 1906, R. G. K. Lempfert, 94; Measurement of the Earth Air Current, and the Origin of Atmospheric Electricity, C. T. R. Wilson, 94; Report of the Director of the Meteorological Officer upon an Inquiry into the relation between the Estimates of Wind-Force according to Admiral Beaufort's Scale, and the Velocities recorded by Anemometers belonging to the Office, G. C. Simpson, Sir G. H. Darwin, W. H. Dines, and Commander Hepworth, 106; Weekly Weather Report for the Period ending May 26, 110; Rainfall, Dr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S., 110; Egyptian Meteorological Report for the Year 1903, 110; the "Green Ray," Prof. Rambaut, 111; a Horizontal Rainbow, V. Schaffers, 125; Sixteen years' Observations on the Relation of Temperature and Rainfall to the Spread of Scarletina, Measles, and Typhoid Fever, R. Sydney Marsden, 142; Müller-Pouillet's Lehrbuch der Physik und Meteorologie, 147; Thermometer Scales, R. T. A. Innes, 150; Weekly Weather Report for the Period ending June 9, 156; the Life-history of Surface Air-currents: a Study of the Surface Trajectories of Moving Air, Dr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S., and R. G. K. Lempfert 162; Rainfall Values at Collegio Romano for Eighty-one Years, Dr. F. Eredia, 184; Weather Report for Week Ending June 16, 184; Meteorological Observations at Stonyhurst College for 1905, 186; Report of the Sonnblick Station for 1905, 186; Meteorology of India for 1904, 186; Report of the Government Observatory, Bombay, 186; Report of the Meteorological Department of the Transvaal for 1905, 186; Temperature of Fresh-water Lochs of Scotland, with special reference to Loch Ness, E. M. Wedderburn, 191; a Remarkable Lightning Discharge, Sir Edward Fry, P.C., F.R.S., 198; Mean Prevalence of Thunderstorms in British Islands, 1881-1905, F. J. Brodie, 215; Typical Squall at Oxshott, May 25, 1906, W. H. Dines, 215; Rainstorm of June 28, 228; Hollow Lightning Conductor Crushed by the Discharge, Prof. J. A. Pollock and S. H. Barraclough, 230; Results of Recent Rainfall Investigations, W. Gallenkamp, 230; the Great Typhoon in the Philippine Islands in September, 1905, Rev. M. S. Mata, 232; the Meteorology of the Free Atmosphere, L. Teisserenc de Bort, at Royal Society of Edinburgh, 255; some Facts about the Weather, William Marriott, 295; the Hottest Weather this Summer, 303; Weekly Weather Report, 303; Meteorological Reports, 308; Summary of the Temperature Conditions at Chemulpo, H. Mukasa, 308; the Management of the Wet-bulb Thermometer, T. Okado, 308; Observations at Bulawayo, 1897-1904, Rev. E. Goetz, 308; Observations in South Australia during 1902 and 1903, Sir Charles Todd, 308; Report of the Government Astronomer of Natal for the Year 1905, 308; Report on the Rain of the Nile Basin in 1905, Captain H. G. Lyons, 308; the Physiography of the River Nile and its Basin, Captain H. G. Lyons, 461; Report of the Falmouth Observatory Committee, 309; Rainfall Observations at Dehra Dun for Thirty-six Years, 1868-1903, 309; Barometric Variations of Long Duration over Large Areas, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 352; Abnormal Features of the Weather of the Past Half-year, Dr. Walker, 369; the International Balloon Ascents of April 5 and May 3, 384; Meteorological Observatory at Tokio, Results for 1904-5, 384; the Determination of the Size of Cloud Components from the Phenomena of Optical Meteorology, Dr. J. M. Pernter, 416; Meteorological Kites in India, 448; Meteorological Observations in the Philippine Islands during 1903, 450; Refraktionstafeln, Dr. L. de Ball, 465; the Week's Weather, 472; Practical Meteorology, 477; Meteorological Chart of the North Atlantic and Mediterranean for September, 478; Limnographic Apparatus and Measurements on Loch Earn, Prof. Chrystal, 483; Weather for the Week ending September 8, 498; Weather conditions during June and

- July in India, with an Estimate of the Monsoon Rainfall during August and September, 1906, 498; Remarkable Rainbow Phenomena, M. Spence, 516; George C. Simpson, 541; Rev. C. S. Taylor, 541; Prof. J. M. Pernter, 564; C. T. Whitnell, 586; Weather during the Past Week, 521; on the "Kew" scale of Temperature and its Relation to the International Hydrogen Scale, Dr. J. A. Harker, 531; the China Sea Typhoons of September 18, 545; Effects of Civilisation upon Climate, S. L. Bastin, 547; Devastating West India Hurricane, September 26 and 27, 572; Meteorological Observations, 622; Report of the U.S. Weather Bureau for the Year 1904-5, 622; Colorado College Observatory, Annual Meteorological Summary for 1905, 622; Observations in Mauritius, 622; Rainfall in German South-West Africa in 1904-5, 622; Report of the Liverpool Observatory, 1905, 623; South African Meteorology, Dr. H. R. Mill, 623; Report of the Observatory Department of the National Physical Laboratory for the Year 1905, 623; the Warm Air Current at the Height of 10-12 Kilometres, Dr. R. Nimführ, 623; Rainfall in the Philippines, 623; Meteorological Data, Dr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S., 635; Hurricane in West Indies on October 17, 642; Weather for the Past Week, 642; Aeronautics and Meteorology, 647
- Meteors: Radiant Point of a Bright Meteor, Dr. Jiří Kavan, 18; Early Meteors of the Perseid Shower, W. F. Denning, 246; the Radiants of the Perseid Shower, M. Wwedenski, 253; a Large Meteor, W. F. Denning, 351; Observation of a Bright Meteor, Ph. Fauth, 371;
- Meteorites: a Search for a Buried Meteorite, G. K. Gilbert, L. Fletcher, F.R.S., 490; the Amana Meteorite, Dr. G. D. Hinrichs, 575; the Meteorite of Kodaikanal, F. Berwerth, 644
- Meters, Electricity, a Treatise on the General Principles; Construction, and testing of Continuous Current, and Alternating Current Meters for the Use of Electrical Engineers and Students, Henry G. Solomon, 219
- Method of Science, Lectures on the, 149
- Metric System of Weights and Measures in the Colonies, the, 614
- Metschnikoff (Prof.), Transmission and Prophylaxis of Syphilis, 62; Harben Lectures, 107
- Mexican and Central American Antiquities, Calendar Systems and History, E. Seler, E. Förstmann, P. Schellhas, C. Sapper, and E. P. Dieseldorff, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Meyer (Dr. Stefan), Polonium Identical with Radium F, 185; Radio-lead a Mixture of Radium D, Radium E, and Radium F, 185
- Meyerhoffer (Prof. Wilhelm), Death and Obituary Notice of, Prof. van 't Hoff, 63
- Microscopy: Methods in Microscopical Research—Vegetable Histology, Abraham Flatters, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 29; Ultimate Microscope Resolving Power with Light of Different Wave-lengths, Messrs. R. and J. Beck, 60; Improved Metallurgical Microscope for Examination of Metal Specimens, W. Rosenhain, 60; Parasites of Malaria and the Phagocytic Action of the Polymorphonuclear Leucocytes, Dr. Bernstein, 141; Royal Microscopical Society, 141, 261; Lehrbuch der vergleichenden mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbeltiere. Part v., Parietal Organ, Dr. F. K. Studnička, Part vi., Atmungsapparat, Dr. Albert Oettel, 145; New Method for the Microscopical Analysis of Flour, G. Gastine, 167; Microscopic Changes in the Nervous System in a Case of Chronic Dourine, Dr. F. W. Mott, F.R.S., 238; Gesamelte Abhandlungen, E. Abbe, 582
- Middleton (Prof. T. H.), the Book of the Rothamsted Experiments, A. D. Hall, 121
- Migrations into Nearer and Further India, 283
- Milan International Exhibition, the, 46
- Military Strength, Preventable Disease and, 154
- Mill (Dr. H. R.), South Africa Meteorology, 623
- Milling Machines, Modern, Joseph G. Horner, 149
- Milochau (G.), Method of Study of the Solar Corona at Other Times than during Eclipses, 47; Photographing the Corona without a Total Eclipse, 112, 158; Photography of the Infra-red Spectrum, 240; Optical Arrangement Generalising the Use of the Telescope of 1 Metre Diameter at the Observatory of Meudon, 287; a New Form of Spectroheliograph, 386
- Millosevich (Prof.), Comet 1906e (Kopff), 575
- Milne (Prof. John, F.R.S.), Recent Advances in Seismology, Bakerian Lecture at Royal Society, 42; on Radioactivity and the internal Structure of the Earth, 454; Horizontal Pendulums and Earthquake Echoes, 515
- Milne (J. R.), the Polarimeter, Two Appliances, 483
- Minchin (Prof.), Spicule Formation in Sponges, 551; the Breeding Habits of the Tsetse-Fly, 636
- Mineralogy: Phosphorescent Calcite from Joplin, Missouri, W. P. Headden, 41; Report of the Geological Survey of Western Australia for 1905, 86; a New Vesuvian Mineral, Dr. H. J. Johnston-Lavis, 103; Another New Vesuvian Mineral, Dr. H. J. Johnston-Lavis, 174; a Variety of Thorianite from Galle, Ceylon, Wyndham R. Dunstan, F.R.S., and B. Mouat Jones, 190; Chemical Composition of Glauconite, Drs. Léon W. Collet and Gabriel W. Lee, 215; Increase in the Exports of Manganese from India, 230; Mineralogical Society, 239; Petrogenesis, Dr. C. Doelter, Prof. Greville, A. J. Cole, 242; Sartorite from the Binnenthal, Dr. C. O. Trechmann, 239; Gold and Silver in the Trias of Meurthe-et-Moselle, Francis Laur, 240; Distribution of Radium in the Earth's Crust, Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 407; Death and Obituary Notice of Robert Phillips Greg, 448; Death of Prof. S. L. Penfield, 449; Fugitive Coloration of Sodalite, Jas. Currie, 564; the Meteorite of Kodaikanal, F. Berwerth, 644; Artificial Metabolites, F. Berwerth, 644; Synthesis of Amethyst Quartz, M. Berthelot, 651
- Minerals, Lime-Silica Series of, A. L. Day and E. S. Shepherd, 644
- Mines, Method of Exploding, by Means of Acoustic Waves, 40
- Minguin (J.), Products of the Reaction at a High Temperature, of Sodium Isobutylate and Propylate of Camphor, 216
- Mining: New Method of Extracting Poor Sulphur Ores by Means of Bisulphide of Carbon, Prof. N. Rossi, 66; Statistics Relating to Mines and Quarries in the British Colonies and in Foreign Countries in 1904, 111; 1905 Statistics of Mines and Quarries in the United Kingdom, 158; Death of Prof. Hönnann, 250; Electricity in Mines, 309; Smelting of Canadian Iron Ores by the Electrothermic Process, Dr. E. Haanel, 311; Etude ur Etat actuel des Mines du Transvaal, George Moreau, 313; Carbon fossili inglese, Dr. Guglielmo Gherardi, 514; a Text-book of Mining Geology, James Park, 520; Mining in Cornwall, 523; Annual Meeting of the Institution of Mining Engineers, 523; the Magnesite Mines of South Africa, 573; Menzies Goldfield (North Coolgardie), H. P. Woodward, 593; New Method of Mining Kaolin, A. R. Ledoux, 618; Use of Coal-Cutting Machinery in British Collieries, 644
- Minor Planet, an Interesting, Dr. Berberich, 210
- Minor Planets and Comets, Observations of, Prof. E. Weiss, 306
- Mitchell (W. M.), Sun-spot Spectra Observations, 619
- Models of Atoms, Prof. Alfred W. Porter, 563
- Models of Cubic Surfaces, on, W. H. Blythe, 197
- Moir (J.), Thiocarbamide as a Solvent for Gold, 191
- Molecular Changes in Nickel Steel, C. E. Stromeyer, 223
- Molloy (Monsignor), Death and Obituary Notice of, 571
- Mollusca: Mollusca, Dr. Paul Pelseuer, 153; the American Pond-Snail, H. E. Walter, 497
- Moncrieff (Sir Alexander, K.C.B., F.R.S.), Death of, 367
- Monism, the World's Desires or the Results of, Edgar A. Ashcroft, 217
- Monkeys, Colouring of Gureza, Mr. Lydekker, 309
- Montessus de Ballore (Comte F. de), Les Tremblements de Terre, Geographie Séismologique, 76
- Moody (Miss A. M.), the Addition of Alkyl Halides to Alkylated Sugars and Glucosides, 311
- Moody (Dr. G. T.), The Rusting of Iron, 116, 564
- Moody (S. E.), Hydrolysis of Iron, Chromium, Tin, Cobalt, and Nickel Salts, by Solutions containing Alkali Iodide and Iodate, 547
- Moore (Prof. Benjamin), Cours de Chimie physique suivi d'Applications à la Chimie et à la Biologie, Victor Henri, 241

- Moore (J. C.), Rubber from *Castellia* Trees, 280
 Moore (J. E. S.), the Tanganyika Problem, 550
 Moore (J. H.), Stars with Variable Radial Velocities, 135
 Morache (Dr.), Death of, 521
 Moral Ideas, the Origin and Development of the, Dr. Edward Westermarck, 377
 Morbology: Plague Transmission by Rat-fleas, 39; Transmission of Plague by Fleas, Hon. N. C. Rothschild, 616; Distemper in Dogs, H. Carré, 48; Beri-beri, Baron Takati, 62; Transmission and Prophylaxis of Syphilis, Prof. Metchnikoff, 62; Prof. Metschnikoff's Hárben Lectures, 107; Experimental Variola and Vaccinia in Quadrumana, W. R. Brinkerhoff and E. E. Tyzzer, 109; Parasites of Malaria and the Phagocytic Action of the Polymorphonuclear Leucocytes, Dr. Bernstein, 141; Sanitation and Malaria in the Roman Campagna, 156; Measures Taken to Stamp Out Malaria at Port Swettenham, Dr. Hamilton Wright, 367; Malaria in Greece, Prof. Ronald Ross, F.R.S., 522; Sixteen Years' Observations on the Relation of Temperature and Rainfall to the Spread of Scarlatina, Measles, and Typhoid Fever, R. Sydney Marsden, 142; Intestinal Origin of Tuberculous, Tracheobronchial Adenopathy, A. Calmette, C. Guerin, and A. Déléarde, 143; Preventable Disease and Military Strength, 154; Experimental Infection by *Trypanosoma brucei*. The Destruction of the Parasite in the Spleen, A. Rodet and G. Vallet, 167; Rash Caused by Caterpillars of Gold-tail Moth (*Liparis auriflua*), 206; Death and Obituary Notice of Lieut. Forbes Tulloch, 207; Vaccination against Tuberculosis by the Digestive Tracts, A. Calmette and C. Guérin, 216; Emil Roux, 216; On Diagnosis of Tubercle by the Examination of the Blood, and on Spontaneous Phagocytosis, Dr. A. E. Wright and Staff-Surgeon Reid, 248; On Spontaneous Phagocytosis and on the Phagocytosis which is Obtained with the Heated Serum of Patients who have Responded to Tubercular Infection or to the Inoculation of a Tubercle Vaccine, Dr. A. E. Wright and Staff-Surgeon Reid, 248; Transmissibility of Tuberculosis by Alimentary Casein, Marcel Guédra, 264; the Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign, Dr. R. Fielding-Ould, 503; Channels of Entrance of the Tubercle Bacillus into the Organism, Dr. A. Calmette, 593; Microscopic Changes in the Nervous System in a Case of Chronic Dourine, Dr. F. W. Mott, F.R.S., 238; Theory of Epidemics, Dr. John Brownlee, 263; Reports of the Expedition to the Congo, 1903-5. Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, 269; Ten Years' Record of the Treatment of Cancer without Operation, Dr. Robert Bell, 269; Experimental Analysis of the Growth of Cancer, E. F. Bashford, J. A. Murray and W. H. Bowen, 483; Cancer, Dr. Clowes, 529; Dr. Bashford, 529; Prof. Gaylord, 529; Report to the Government of British Honduras upon the Outbreak of Yellow Fever in that Colony in 1905, together with an Account of the Distribution of the *Stegomyia fasciata* in Belize, and the measures necessary to stamp out or prevent the Recurrence of Yellow Fever, Rubert Boyce, F.R.S., Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, 299; Trypanosomiasis of the Upper Niger, A. Laveran, 311-2; Recent Epidemic of Trypanosomiasis in Mauritius, Dr. Alex. Edington and Dr. J. M. Coultis, 375; Bacillus of Leprosy Found in Mosquito and Bed-bug, Dr. W. J. Goodhue, 367; Beri-beri in Monkeys, Prof. Hewlett and Dr. de Korté, 529; Diseases of Sheep, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 623
 Moreau (George), Etude sur l'Etat actuel des Mines du Transvaal, 313
 Morphology: British Fresh-water Rhizopoda, James Cash and John Hopkinson, 52; Mollusca, Dr. Paul Pelseener, 153; Pleural Cavity Absent in Indian Elephant, J. E. V. Boas, 280; Biologische und Morphologische Untersuchungen über Wasser-und Sumpfwächse, Prof. Hugo Glück, 411; Gehirn und Rückenmark. Leitfaden für das Studium der Morphologie und des Faserverlaufs, Dr. Emil Villiger, 442; Morphologie und Biologie der Algen, Dr. Friedrich Oltmanns, George Murray, F.R.S., 561
 Morris (Dr. D. K.), Standard Test for Transformers and Transformer Iron, 64
 Morrow (J.), Lateral Vibration of Bars subjected to Forces in the Direction of their Axes, 71
 Morse (Harry W.), Studies of Fluorite, 87
 Mortimer (J.R.), on the Relative Stature of the Men with Long Heads, Short Heads, and those with Intermediate Heads in the Museum at Driffield, 458
 Mosquitoes: Report to the Government of British Honduras upon the Outbreak of Yellow Fever in that Colony in 1905, together with an Account of the Distribution of the *Stegomyia fasciata* in Belize, and the Measures necessary to Stamp out or Prevent the Recurrence of Yellow Fever, Rubert Boyce, F.R.S., Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, 299; Measures Taken to Stamp Out Malaria at Port Swettenham, Dr. Hamilton Wright, 367; Apparatus for the Destruction of Mosquitoes, M. Chaulin, 414
 Motors: an Electrically Controlled Petrol Motor-bus, 302; Moteurs, a Collecteur a Courants alternatifs, Dr. F. Niethammer, Val. A. Fynn, 346; Single-phase Commutator, F. Punga, 606
 Mott (Dr. F. W., F.R.S.), Microscopic Changes in the Nervous System in a Case of Chronic Dourine, 238; Regeneration of Nerves, 579
 Moulton (Prof. Forest Ray), Introduction to Astronomy, 538
 Mouneyrat (A.), Method for the Detection and Estimation of Small Quantities of Iron, 95
 Mountaineering: Ascents in the Ruwenzori Range, R.B. Woosnam, D. Carruthers and A. F. R. Wollaston, 132; Ascent of Peak in Kashmir, Dr. Bullock Workman, 413
 Mount Wilson Spectroscopic Laboratory, the, 595
 Moureu (Charles), Gases from Thermal Springs, 143; the Pyrazolones, New Method of Synthesis, 263; the Presence of Neon amongst the Gases from Some Hot Springs, 344; the Condensation of Acetylenic Nitriles with the Amines, 652
 Muir (Dr. T., F.R.S.), the Theory of Determinants in the Historical Order of Development, 462
 Mukasa (H.), Summary of the Temperature Conditions at Chemulpo, 308
 Muller (J. A.), Heat of Formation of Carbonyl-hydroferrocyanic Acid, 263
 Müller-Pouillet's Lehrbuch der Physik und Meteorologie, 147
 Müller's (Hermann), Handbook of Flower Pollination based on, "The Fertilisation of Flowers by Insects," Dr. Paul Knuth, 605
 Muntz (A.), Utilisation of Turf for the Intensive Production of Nitrates, 191
 Murché (Vincent T.), Science Readers, Book vii, 633; Object Lessons in Elementary Science, Stage vii, 633
 Murie (James R.), the Hako, a Pawnee Ceremony, 30
 Murray (George, F.R.S.), Morphologie und Biologie der Algen, Dr. Friedrich Oltmanns, 561
 Murray (J. A.), Experimental Analysis of the Growth of Cancer, 483
 Murray (James), on the Scientific Results of the Survey of the Scottish Lochs, 479
 Museums: a Descriptive Catalogue of the Tertiary Vertebrata of the Fayum, Egypt, based on the Collection of the Egyptian Government in the Geological Museum, Cairo, and on the Collection in the British Museum (Natural History), London, Dr. C. W. Andrews, F.R.S., 175; the Museums Association, 255
 Music: Death and Obituary Notice of Manuel Garcia, 227
 Musical Thunder, G. H. Martyn, 200
 Muspratt Laboratory of Physical and Electrochemistry at the University of Liverpool, the New, 624
 Mycology: the Fungus Flora of Yorkshire, G. Masee and C. Crossland, 196; Colour Phenomena in *Boletus coeruleus*, Edgar Trevithick, 318; George Masee, 380; Cherry Leaf Scorch, E. S. Salmon, 649
 Myres (J. L.), on the Physical Characters of the Races of Britain, 458; on Early Traces of Human Types in the Ægean, 458
 Mythology: the Zuñi Indians, their Mythology, Esoteric Fraternities, and Ceremonies, Matilda Coxe Stevenson, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
 Nägeli (Carl), Gregor Mendel's Briefe an, 1866-73, 640
 Nance (J. T.), Rusting of Iron, 142
 National Galleries of Scotland Bill, the Royal Society of Edinburgh and, 137
 National Physical Laboratory, 205

- Natural-colour Photography, Dr. E. König, Supp. to October 11, vi
- Natural History: Races of Domestic Poultry, Edward Brown, W. B. Tegetmeier, 13; Death and Obituary Notice of Mrs. Brightwen, 38; the Fox, T. F. Dale, 78; Recreations of a Naturalist, James Edmund Harting, 82; the Haunts of the Okapi, Captain Boyd Alexander, 88; Nidification of Bees in the Open Air, E. L. Bouvier, 95; New South Wales Linnean Society, 95, 167, 312, 508, 580, 652; Tank Fauna of India, Dr. N. Annandale, 96; the British Woodlice, being a Monograph of the Terrestrial Isopod Crustacea occurring in the British Islands, Wilfred Mark Webb and Charles Sillem, 99; Atlas Colorié des Plantes et des Animaux des Côtes de France, P. Kuckuck, Dr. M. Langeron, 102; In My Garden, 149; Termite Truffles, Dr. F. Doflein, 157; Symbiosis in a Crab, Dr. A. Willey, 157; Destruction of Animals in Australia, T. Steel at Linnean Society, New South Wales, 188; Linnean Society, 191, 262; the Sea-Serpent, Messrs. Nicoll and Meade-Waldo, 202; Manx Archaeology and Natural History, Prof. John Rhys, 223; Animal Heroes, being the Histories of a Cat, a Dog, a Pigeon, a Lynx, Two Wolves, and a Reindeer, E. T. Seton, 295; Chinese Observations of Nature, W. Hoskyns-Abraham, 351; a Preliminary List of Durham Diptera with Analytical Tables, Rev. W. J. Wingate, 512; Sparrow Caught in Spider's Web, B. G. Tours, 522
- Natural Phenomena, a Collection of Descriptive and Speculative Essays on some of the By-paths of Nature, F. A. Black, 633
- Natural Science: Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. H. A. Ward, 250
- Nature, the Development of the Feeling for, in the Middle Ages and Modern Times, Alfred Biese, 293
- Nature, the Outlook to, L. H. Bailey, 315
- Nature, the Religion of, E. Kay Robinson, 513
- Naturkonstanten in Alphabetischer Anordnung, Prof. Dr. H. Erdmann and Dr. P. Köthner, 442
- Naval Architecture: the Stability of Submarines, Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 128, 270; J. H. Jeans, 270; the *Mauretania*, 522
- Navigation: Notes on Shipbuilding and Nautical Terms of Old in the North, E. Magnusson, 77; New Pilot Charts, 138; Our Waterways, a History of Inland Navigation considered as a Branch of Water Conservancy, Urquhart A. Forbes and W. H. R. Ashford, 169; Lectures on Compass Adjustment, Captain W. R. Martin, 221; Norwegian North Polar Expedition, 1893-6, vol. v., on Dead-water, V. Walfrid Ekman, Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 485; "360° Mariners' Compass Card," F. Howard Collins, 504
- Nebula, a Newly Discovered Planetary, Prof. Barnard, 474
- Nee (Maung), Lotus Blossoms, 221
- Nencki (Marceli), Omnia Opera, 173
- Nernst (Prof.), New Determination of the Melting Points of Platinum and Palladium, 40
- Nerve Patient, the Management of a, Dr. A. T. Schofield, 440
- Neumann (Carl W.), Ernst Haeckel, der Mann und sein Werk, 26
- Neurology: Gehirn und Rückenmark, Leitfaden für das Studium der Morphologie und des Faserverlaufs, Dr. Emil Villiger, 442; Histological Studies on the Localisation of Cerebral Function, Dr. A. W. Campbell, Supp. to May 3, iii
- New Guinea Cannibals, Two Years among, A. E. Pratt and H. Pratt, Dr. C. G. Seligmann, 58
- New South Wales: New South Wales Linnean Society, 95, 167, 312, 484, 508, 580, 652; Destruction of Animals in Australia, T. Steel, 188; Ethnological Notes on the Aboriginal Tribes of New South Wales and Victoria, R. H. Mathews, 100; New South Wales Royal Society, 264, 460
- New Zealand, the Tarawera Volcanic Rift, James Mackintosh Bell, 88
- Newcastle-on-Tyne, the New Buildings of Armstrong College, 232
- Newcomb (Prof. Simon), a Compendium of Spherical Astronomy with its Applications to the Determination and Reduction of Positions of the Fixed Stars, 379
- Nickel Steel, Molecular Changes in, C. E. Stromeyer, 223
- Nicholas Observatory, St. Petersburg, Publications of the, 135
- Nichols (E. L.), Studies in Luminescence, Law of Decay of the Phosphorescence of Sidot Blende, 209
- Nicholson (W. A.), the *Goodyera repens* in Norfolk, 544
- Nicoll (Mr.), the Sea-serpent, 202
- Niethammer (Dr. F.), Moteurs a Collecteur a Courants alternatifs, 346
- Nijland (Prof. A. A.), Observations of Long-period Variables, 595
- Nile Basin, Report on the Rain of the, for 1905, Captain H. G. Lyons, 308
- Nile, the Physiography of the River, and its Basin, Captain H. G. Lyons, 461
- Nimführ (Dr. R.), the Warm Air Current at the Height of 10-12 Kilometres, 623
- Nitrogen, Oxidation of Atmospheric, in the Electric Arc, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 444
- No Man's Land, a History of Spitsbergen from its Discovery in 1596 to the Beginning of the Scientific Exploration of the Country, Sir Martin Conway, 381
- Noble (Sir A., Bart., K.C.B., F.R.S.), Researches on Explosives, 506
- Norden (Charles Van), the Great San Francisco Earthquake, 133
- Nordmann (Ch.), Atmospheric Electricity in Algeria, 505
- North Sea, Summer Temperatures of the, 212
- Norton (Prof. W. H.), the Elements of Geology, 102
- Norwegian North Polar Expedition, 1893-6, vol. v., on Dead Water, V. Walfrid Ekman, Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 485
- Noteworthy Families (Modern Science), Francis Galton, F.R.S., and Edgar Schuster, 97
- Nova Aquilæ No. 2, Spectrum of, 87; Magnitude Observations of, Dr. Guthnick, 253
- Nova Geminorum, Observations of, Prof. Barnard, 158
- Nova Persei No. 2, Observations of, Messrs. Townley and Maddrell, 135
- Nucleation of the Uncontaminated Atmosphere, Prof. Carl Barus, C. T. R. Wilson, F.R.S., 619
- Objective-prism Comparison Spectrograph, an, de Lisle Stewart, 253
- Observatories: the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, 135; the Disturbance of Greenwich Observations, 200; Publications of the Nicholas Observatory, St. Petersburg, 135; a New Observatory for Hamburg, 253; Report of the Falmouth Observatory Committee, 309; Catalogue of 1772 Stars chiefly comprised within the Zone 85°-90° N.P.D. for the Epoch 1000, deduced from Observations made at the Radcliffe Observatory, Oxford, during the Years 1894-1903, under the Direction of Prof. Arthur A. Rambaut, F.R.S., 341; the Oxford University Observatory, Prof. Turner, 645; the Rio de Janeiro Observatory, 340; Report of the Paris Observatory for 1905, M. Lœwy, 417; the Kodaikanal Observatory, Monteith Macphail, 525
- Occultation of a Star by Venus, Dr. Downing, 575
- Oceanography: the Opal Sea, John C. Van Dyke, 269
- Ogilvie-Gordon (Dr. Maria M.), Interference-phenomena in the Alps, 374
- Okado (T.), the Management of the Wet-bulb Thermometer, 308
- Okapi, the Haunts of the, Captain Boyd Alexander, 88; a New Specimen of the, Major P. H. G. Powell-Cotton, 578
- Oldham (R. D.), on Radio-activity and the Internal Structure of the Earth, 454; on the Irregular Motions of the Earth's Pole, 455; on the Problems connected with the Palæozoic Glaciation of Australia, India, and South Africa, 549; on the Origin of the Trias, 550
- Olfactory Sense in Apteryx, the, Prof. W. B. Benham, 222
- Oliver (Prof. F. W., M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S.), Opening Address in Section K at the Meeting of the British Association at York, the Seed, a Chapter in Evolution, 429
- Oliver (Dr. George), Studies in Blood-pressure, Physiological and Clinical, 638

- Oltmanns (Dr. Friedrich), Morphologie und Biologie der Algen, 561
- Onnes (Prof. H. Kamerlingh), Experiments Made on the Co-efficient of Expansion at Low Temperatures of Jena and Thüringen Glass, 594
- Oologia universalis palaeartica, Georg Kause, 79
- Oom (Frederico), Méthodes de Calcul graphique, 265
- Opal Sea, the, John C. Van Dyke, 269
- Ophthalmology: the Photography of the Fundus Oculi, Dr. J. Herbert Parsons, 104; Death of Prof. Hermann Cohn, 521, 545
- Oppel (Dr. Albert), Lehrbuch der vergleichenden mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbeltiere. Part vi, Atmungsapparat, 145
- Opsonins and Tuberculosis, 248
- Optics: Some Simple Questions on the Images of Microscopes and Telescopes, W. B. Croft, 71; Small Plates of Quartz Glass Suitable for Optical Apparatus, Arthur L. Day and E. S. Shepherd, 87; Interference Effects Produced by a Grating Limiting a Thin Plate, Georges Meslin, 95; Magneto-optic Rotation, F. E. Hackett, 142; Entoptic Vision, Haidinger's Brushes and Other Entoptic Phenomena, Dr. W. F. Barrett, F.R.S., 142; Magnetic Collimator which Transforms a Binocular into an Instrument for Taking Bearings, A. Berget, 143; Colour Phenomena in Photometry, J. S. Dow, 166; Copper Mirrors obtained by the Deposition of Metallic Copper upon Glass, Dr. F. D. Chattaway, 204; Studies in Luminescence, Law of Decay of the Phosphorescence of Sidot Blende, E. L. Nichols and Ernest Merritt, 209; New Forms of Astrographic Object Glasses, Emil Schaer, 231; Skiodroms and Isogyres, Dr. J. W. Evans, 239; Sensibility of the Retina for Luminous Radiations, Milan Stéfánik, 264; Optical Arrangement Generalising the Use of the Telescope of 1 metre diameter at the Observatory of Meudon, G. Millochau, 287; Two Modifications of the Quartz Wedge, Daniel James Mahoney, 317; the "Optical Disc," Prof. Hartl, 338; the Fluorescence of Anthracene Vapour, T. S. Elston, 385; Photoelectric Properties of Anthracene, A. Pochettino, 618; a Modified Form of Solar Eyepiece, Prof. Ceraski, 453; the Polarimeter, Two Appliances, J. R. Milne, 483; Physical Optics, R. W. Wood, 509; Optical Illusions on Electric Fan, T. Terada, 540; Colour Illusions, B.J.P.R., 586; Optical Illusions, Douglas Carnegie, 610; the Contraction of the Colour Zones in Hysteria and in Neurasthenia, Dr. J. W. Baird, 574; Gesammelte Abhandlungen, E. Abbe, 582; a New Hypothesis Connecting the Fluorescence of Organic Substances with their Chemical Constitution, Prof. Luigi Francesconi and G. Bargellini, 618
- Orbits: the Orbit of Castor, Dr. H. D. Curtis, 282; Die Bahnbestimmung der Himmelskörper, Julius Bauschinger, 345; Die Gauss-Gibbs'sche Methode der Bahnbestimmung eines Himmelskörpers aus drei Beobachtungen, Prof. Johannes Frischauf, 345
- Origin of Life, the, Its Physical Bases and Definition, John Butler Burke, 1
- Origin of the Term "Metabolic," Robert E. Baynes, 56
- Origin of the Zodiacal Light, the, Maxwell Hall, 453
- Origins, Australian, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 296
- Orion, New Variable Stars in, Prof. Max Wolff, 42
- Orlich (Dr. Ernst), Aufnahme und Analyse von Wechselstromkurven, 268
- Ormerod (Dr. Ernest), Studies on Enzyme Action, Lipase, 627
- Ornithology: Races of Domestic Poultry, Edward Brown, W. B. Tegetmeier, 13; the Birds of Tunisia, J. I. S. Whitaker, O. V. Aplin, 51; Defects in Ostrich Feathers in South Africa, Prof. J. E. Duerden, 55; Specimen of Ross's Polar Gull from Neighbourhood of Sardinia, Prof. Giacinto Martorelli, 64; the Birds of the Isle of Man, P. G. Ralfe, 105; an Ibis "Rookery" in Victoria, 109; Distribution of the Forms of *Corvus cornix* and *C. Corone*, J. A. Harvie-Brown, 175; the Reviewer, 175; the Olfactory Sense in *Apteryx*, Prof. W. B. Benham, 222; Death of Sir Walter Lawry Buller, K.C.M.G., F.R.S., 302; Obituary Notice of, 354; the Rose-breasted Grosbeak and the Potato-beetle, 304; the Early Development of the Appendicular Skeleton of the Ostrich, with Remarks on the Origin of Birds, Dr. R. Broom, 376; the Wholesale Destruction for Purposes of Millinery of Certain Species of Birds, 384; Report on the Immigrations of Summer Residents in the Spring of 1905, 470; White- and Brown-shelled Eggs, 489; a Handbook of British Inland Birds, Anthony Collett, 511; a Pocket-book of British Birds, E. F. M. Elms, 511; the Birds of the British Islands, Charles Stonham, 607
- Osborn (Prof. H. F.), the Gigantic Carnivorous Dinosaur *Tyrannosaurus*, 416
- Osborne (Prof. W. A. and Ethel E.), German Grammar for Science Students, 380
- Oscillation of Flame Cones, the, Prof. Arthur Smithells, F.R.S., 80
- Osler (Dr. William), the Growth of Truth, Harveian Oration at the Royal College of Physicians, 642
- Osmosis and Osmotic Pressure, Prof. Louis Kahlenberg, 19
- Osmotic Pressure, Earl of Berkeley, 7, 54, 245; W. C. D. Whetham, F.R.S., 54, 102, 295; E. G. J. Hartley, 54, 245; Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 79; Norman R. Campbell, 79; Prof. Louis Kahlenberg, 222
- Ostasienfahrt, Erlebnisse und Beobachtungen eines Naturforschers in China, Japan, and Ceylon, Dr. Franz Doflein, 510
- Ostrich Feathers, Defects in, in South Africa, Prof. J. E. Duerden, 55
- Ostwald (W.), Conversations on Chemistry, 173
- Outlook to Nature, the, L. H. Bailey, 315
- Ouvrard (L.), the Borostannates of the Alkaline Earths, the Reproduction of Nordenskiöldine, 436
- Owen (Rev. E. C.), on the Examination and Inspection of Schools, 503
- Oxford and the Cotswolds, Highways and Byways in, Herbert A. Evans, 124
- Oxford University Observatory, the, Prof. Turner, 645
- Oxidation of Atmospheric Nitrogen in the Electric Arc, the, Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin, 444
- Padoa (M.), the Blue Substance formed by the Action of Iodine on Starch Paste, 473-4
- Palaeobotany: Status of the Mesozoic Floras of the United States, Lester F. Ward, William M. Fontaine, Arthur Bibbins, and G. R. Wieland, A. C. Seward, F.R.S., 81; Structure of some Carboniferous Ferns, Dr. D. H. Scott, F.R.S., 261; Plant Remains in the Scottish Peat Mosses, Francis J. Lewis, 263; New Fern from the Coal-Measures, M. C. Stopes, 386
- Palaeoichthyology: a Carboniferous Fish-Fauna from the Mansfield District, Victoria, Dr. A. Smith Woodward, 336; Flying Fish in the Triassic, O. Abel, 530; the Study of Fossil Fishes, Dr. A. Smith Woodward, F.R.S., at Geologists' Association, 597
- Palaeontology: Graptolites from Bolivia, Dr. Ethel M. R. Wood, 71; First Recorded Occurrence of Blastoida in New South Wales, T. G. Taylor, 95; Phylogeny of Gastropod of the Eocene Genus *Volutilithes*, Dr. R. Smith, 156; Smithsonian Institution, Bulletin of the United States Museum, Fossil Invertebrates, Charles Schuchert, W. H. Dall, T. W. Stanton, and R. S. Bassler, 163; a Descriptive Catalogue of the Tertiary Vertebrata of the Fayûm, Egypt, based on the Collection of the Egyptian Government in the Geological Museum, Cairo, and on the Collection in the British Museum (Natural History) London, Dr. C. W. Andrews, F.R.S., 175; Seal-Skull from Miocene of the Oregon Coast, T. Condon, 208; Man and the Glacial Period, Prof. Sollas, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 372; Some Recent Palaeontological Papers, 530; a Cetacean *Palaeophocarna andrussovi* from the Middle Miocene of the Taman Peninsula, O. Abel, 530; the Gigantic Carnivorous Dinosaur *Tyrannosaurus*, Prof. H. F. Osborn, 416; the Alleged Triassic Foraminifera of Chellaston, near Derby, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 489
- Palmer (B. J.), Radium and Geology, 585
- Pape (Dr. K.), Death of, 108
- Papius (Karl Frhr. von), Das Radium und die radioactiven, 125
- Paris Academy of Sciences, 23, 47, 71, 95, 119, 143, 167, 191,

- 216, 239, 263, 287, 311, 343, 375, 408, 436, 460, 484, 508, 532, 556, 580, 628, 651
- Paris Observatory, Report of the, for 1905, M. Loewy, 417
- Park (James), a Text-book of Mining Geology, 520
- Parkyn (E. A.), Carbon Dioxide in the Breath, 133
- Parr (G. D. Aspinall), Electrical Engineering in Theory and Practice, 581
- Parsons (H. de B.), the Disposal of Municipal Refuse, 630
- Parsons (Dr. J. Herbert), the Photography of the Fundus Oculi, 104
- Patent Laws: Erfindung und Erfinder, A. du Bois-Reymond, 559
- Pathology: Relations between Emotional States and Infection, M. Vaschide, 167; Death of Dr. Alexander Bogdanov, 414; Pathology and Physiology of the Cell Nucleus, Prof. Adami, 529; the Contraction of the Colour Zones in Hysteria and in Neurasthenia, Dr. J. W. Baird, 574; Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905, delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Sir Patrick Manson, Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, Supp. to May 3, ix
- Patton (Captain W. S.), a Parasite in the White Corpuscles of the Blood of Indian Palm Squirrels, 369
- Paulsen (O.), Distribution of the Crustacean *Calanus finmarchicus* in Icelandic Waters, 643
- Pavy (Dr. F. W., F.R.S.), on Carbohydrate Metabolism, with an Appendix on the Assimilation of Carbohydrate into Proteid and Fat, followed by the Fundamental Principles and the Treatment of Diabetes, Dialectically Discussed, 631
- Pawlow (Prof. Ivan), Psychical Faculties or Processes in the Higher Animals, 592
- Peach (B. N.), the Geology of Mid-Argyll, 9
- Pearl (Dr. Raymond), the Correlation between Intelligence and the Size of the Head, 304
- Pearl-oyster Fisheries of the Gulf of Manaar, Report to the Government of Ceylon on the, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 57
- Pearson (Prof. Karl, F.R.S.), Family Diseases and Temperaments, 245; the Latest Critic of Biometry, 465; Biometry and Biology, a Rejoinder, 608; Biometry and Biology, 636
- Pearson (Prof.), a Reply to, Biometry and Biology, J. J. Lister, 584
- Pedaschenk (D. D.), New Pelagic Cœlenterate from Java, *Dogielia malayana*, 229
- Peddie (Dr. W.), Vibrating Systems not Subject to Boltzmann-Maxwell Law, 94
- Peet (T. E.), on the Prehistoric Civilisation of Southern Italy, 457
- Pélabon (H.), Silver Sulphide, Selenide, and Telluride, 408
- Pellini (Dr. G.), Selenium and Tellurium Elements Isomorphous, 574
- Pelsener (Dr. Paul), Mollusca, 153; the Tanganyika Problem, 550
- Penfield (Prof. S. L.), Death of, 449
- People at School, a, H. Fielding Hall, Archibald R. Colquhoun, Supp. to May 3, vii
- Peringuey (L.), Round Perforated Stones (Tikæ) Alleged to have been Made by Bushmen for the Purpose of Giving Weight to the "Kibi" or Digging Stick, 288
- Perkin (A. G.), Constitution of Cellulose, 93; an Oxidation Product of Indigotin, 311; Indigo-yellow, 311
- Perkin (Dr. F. Mollwo), the Gutzeit Test for Arsenic, 94; Simple Form of Rotating Kathode for Electrochemical Analysis, 239; Electrolysis of Solutions of Thiocyanates in Pyridine and in Acetone, 239; Oxidation of Atmospheric Nitrogen in the Electric Arc, 444
- Perkin (Prof. W. H., jun., F.R.S.), Adolf von Baeyer's Gesammelte Werke, 73; Derivatives of Brazilin, 93
- Perkin Coal-tar Colour Industry Jubilee Celebrations, 206, 249, 302, 318, 496, 514
- Perman (Dr. E. P.), Physical Constants of Ammonia, 261
- Pernter (Dr. J. M.), the Determination of the Size of Cloud Components from the Phenomena of Optical Meteorology, 416; Remarkable Rainbow Phenomena, 564
- Perrine (Prof.), Jupiter's Seventh Satellite, 610
- Persei, Nova, No. 2, Observations of, Messrs. Townley and Maddrill, 135
- Perseid Shower, Early Meteors of the, W. F. Denning, 246
- Perseid Shower, the Radiants of the, M. Wwedenski, 253
- Personal Equation in Photometric Observations, Prof. Ceraski, 158
- Pesel (Miss L. F.), on the Evolution of Design in Greek and Turkish Embroideries, 457
- Petrie (Prof.), on Bronze Weapons and Implements found near Khinaman, 457; on the Physical Characters of the Races of Britain, 458; on the Hyksos and other Work of the British School of Archaeology in Egypt, 458
- Petrogenesis, Dr. C. Doelter, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 242
- Petroleum, the First Mention of, in North and South America, Alfred Sang, 338
- Petrunkewitsch (Dr. Alexander), Gedanken über Vererbung, 244
- Philippine Islands, the Great Typhoon in the, in September, 1905, Rev. M. S. Mata, 232
- Phillips (C. E. S.), on a Glass of Low Electrical Resistivity, 455
- Phillips (P.), Ionic Velocities in Air at Different Temperatures, 627
- Philology: the Languages of India and the Linguistic Survey, Dr. G. A. Grierson at Society of Arts, 283
- Philosophy: Philosophical Society of Philadelphia, the Bicentenary Celebration of the Birth of Benjamin Franklin; Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 36; the Philosophy of Martineau in Relation to the Idealism of the Present Day, Prof. Henry Jones, 53; Philosophical Society, Cambridge, 94, 191; Evolution the Master-key, Dr. C. W. Saleeby, 122; Death and Obituary Notice of Eduard von Hartmann, 182; the World's Desires, or the Results of Monism, Edgar A. Ashcroft, 217; the Scientific Temper in Religion, and other Addresses, Rev. P. N. Waggett, 217; the Reconstruction of Belief, W. H. Mallock, 217; the Unit of Strife, E. K. Garrod, 217; Giordano Bruno, In Memoriam of the 17th February, 1600, Alois Riehl, 244; Immanuel Kant's Grundlegung zur Metaphysik der Sitten, 488; Psychology, Sociology, Ethics, Dr. C. W. Saleeby, 560; Herbert Spencer, Prof. J. Arthur Thomson, 533; Reconnoitres in Reason and the Table-book, Norman Alliston, 533; Eine Untersuchung über Raum, Zeit und Begriffe vom Standpunkt des Positivismus, Eberhard Zschimmer, 533; Beiträge zur Einführung in die Geschichte der Philosophie, Rudolf Eucken, 533; Apollonius of Tyana, and other Essays, Thomas Whittaker, 533; das Gefüge der Welt, Versuch einer kritischen Philosophie, Hermann Graf Keyserling, 533; the Sub-conscious, Joseph Jastrow, 533
- Phœbe, Observations of, in May and June, 1906, 548
- Photography: Collodion Emulsion, Henry Oscar Klein, 5; Photography of the Fundus Oculi, Dr. J. Herbert Parsons, 104; Photographing the Corona without a Total Eclipse, MM. Millochau and Stefanik, 112, 158; Proposed Daily Photographs of Chromospheric Radiations, M. Deslandres, 135; an Elementary Treatise on Photographic Methods and Instruments, J. A. Flemer, 172; Preliminary Experiments on the Photographic Transit, S. Hirayama, 254; Tables for Photographic Parallax-observations, Dr. W. de Sitter, 341; a New Photographic Paper, 370; Interference Photography in Colours, G. Lippmann, 408; Messrs. Wratten and Wainwright's Panchromatic Plates, 417; M. Lippmann's Method of Photography in Colour, 459; Flashlight Photographs of Wild Animals, 489; Royal Photographic Society's Annual Exhibition, 553; Natural-colour Photography, Dr. E. König, Supp. to October 11, vi; Colour-correct Photography, T. Thorne Baker, Supp. to October 11, vi
- Photometer, a New Form of Wedge, H. Rosenberg, 575
- Photometer, a New Form of, MM. Deslandres and Bernard, 644
- Photometric Observations, Personal Equation in, Prof. Ceraski, 158
- Photometric Observations of Saturn's Satellites, Dr. P. Guthnick, 210
- Physics: Osmotic Pressure, Earl of Berkeley, 7, 54, 245; W. C. D. Whetham, F.R.S., 54, 102, 295; E. G. J. Hartley, 54, 245; Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 79; Prof. Louis Kahlenberg, 222; Osmosis and Osmotic Pressure, Prof. Louis Kahlenberg, 19; the Nature of

- Solution and of Osmotic Pressure, C. S. Hudson, 231; Diurnal Variation of Ionisation in Closed Vessels, George C. Simpson, 8; Dr. O. W. Richardson, 55; the Inversion Points of the Joule-Kelvin Effect for a Fluid passing through a Porous Plug, Prof. Alfred W. Porter, 17; *Physikalisch-chemisches Centralblatt*, 53; Physical Chemistry and its Applications in Medical and Biological Science, Dr. Alex. Findlay, 53; Origin of the Term "Metabolic," Robert E. Baynes, 56; Vibration Experiments, Joseph Goold, 59; Metallic Jacketed Vacuum Vessels, Sir James Dewar, F.R.S., 60; Physical Society, 71, 93, 166, 215, 262; a Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of Elasticity, A. E. H. Love, 74; the Oscillation of Flame Cones, Prof. Arthur Smithells, F.R.S., 80; Vibrating Systems not Subject to Boltzmann-Maxwell Law, Dr. W. Peddie, 94; Superposition of Mechanical Vibrations upon Magnetisation and Conversely in Iron, Steel, and Nickel, James Russell, 94; Oceanic Physics, T. Steel, 95; Death of Dr. K. Pape, 108; Soap Bubble Fountain, Messrs. Dickinson and Shields, 111; the Figure and Stability of a Liquid Satellite, Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 115; a Singular Effect of Friction, E. Guyou, 119; Ionisation and Temperature, Prof. C. D. Child, 125; Prof. J. J. Thomson, F.R.S., 125; Müller-Pouillets Lehrbuch der Physik und Meteorologie, 147; Cours de Physique de l'École Polytechnique, J. Jamin, Radiations, Électricité, Ionisation, E. Bouty, 147; Lehrbuch der Physik, H. A. Lorentz, 147; Applications of Bessel's Functions to Physics, Prof. F. Purser, 166; Essais des Matériaux, H. Bouasse, 174; New Charcoal Calorimeter and Thermoscope, Sir James Dewar, F.R.S., 203; National Physical Laboratory, 205; Fluid Resistance, Colonel R. de Villamil, 215; Static Method of Comparing the Densities of Gases, R. Threlfall, F.R.S., 238; Physical Chemistry applied to Chemistry and Biology, Victor Henri, Prof. Benjamin Moore, 241; Thermodynamics of Diffusion, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 246; Physical Constants of Ammonia, Dr. E. P. Perman and J. H. Davies, 261; Volume and Surface Integrals used in Physics, J. G. Leatham, 265; Some Scientific Centres, VIII., the MacDonald Physics Building, McGill University, Montreal, Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S., A. S. Eve, 272; Death and Obituary Notice of Prof. Drude, 277; Transition from the Liquid to the Solid State and the Foam-structure of Matter, Prof. G. Quincke, *For.Mem.R.S.*, 342; Influence of Pressure and Porosity on the Motion of Subsurface Water, W. R. Baldwin-Wiseman, 374; Viscosity of Solutions, C. Ranken and Dr. W. W. Taylor, 375; Relation Existing between Electrical Resistance and the Viscosity of Electrolytic Solutions, P. Massoulier, 376; Naturkonstanten in Alphabetischer Anordnung, Prof. Dr. H. Erdmann and Dr. P. Köthner, 442; Thermodynamic Reasoning, Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 443; W. C. D. Whetham, F.R.S., 443; the Iron Arc, Prof. W. G. Cady, 443; Method for Calibrating Thermometers for Use in the Determination of Freezing Points of Aqueous Solutions, Messrs. Richards and Jackson, 451; Norwegian North Polar Expedition, 1893-6, vol. v., on Dead-water, V. Walfrid Ekman, Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 485; Death of Prof. Ludwig Boltzmann, 496; Obituary Notice of, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 569; Researches on Explosives, Sir A. Noble, Bart., K.C.B., F.R.S., 506; Physical Optics, R. W. Wood, 509; a Simple Method of Boring Glass Tubing, Dr. P. N. Raikow, 524; Handbuch der Physik, Dr. A. Winkelmann, 536; die radioaktiven Substanzen und die Theorie des Atomzerfalles, Prof. Paul Gruner, 538; Sands and Sediments, T. Mellard Reade and Philip Holland, 546; Velocity of Röntgen Rays, Dr. E. Marx, 547; Velocity of the α Particle emitted by Radium C at Various Points of its Path measured by Prof. Rutherford, 547; Relationships between the Surface-tension Values of Different Liquids Analogous to Trouton's Rule, Prof. W. Kistiakowsky, 548; Models of Atoms, Prof. Alfred W. Porter, 563; Physical Properties of Fused Magnesium Oxide, H. M. Goodwin and R. D. Mailey, 574; Ionisation produced by Hot Platinum in Different Gases, Prof. O. W. Richardson, 579; Magnetische Kraftfelder, H. Ebert, 583; Experiments Made on the Coefficient of Expansion at Low Temperatures of Jena and Thüringen Glass, Prof. H. Kamerlingh Onnes and Dr. W. Heuse, 594; the Nucleation of the Uncontaminated Atmosphere, Prof. Carl Barus, C. T. R. Wilson, F.R.S., 619; the New Muspratt Laboratory of Physical and Electrochemistry at the University of Liverpool, 624; Opalescence in Fluids near the Critical Temperature, Prof. Sydney Young, F.R.S., 627; Ionic Velocities in Air at Different Temperatures, P. Phillips, 627; Résistance, Inductance et Capacité, M. J. Rodet, 633; Science Readers, Book vii., Vincent T. Murché, 633; Object Lessons in Elementary Science, Stage vii., Vincent T. Murché, 633; Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Dr. Max Planck, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii; Abhandlungen und Vorträge zur Geschichte der Naturwissenschaften, Prof. E. O. von Lippmann, Supp. to October 11, vii
- Physiography of the River Nile and its Basin, the, Captain H. G. Lyons, 461
- Physiology: Physiological Effects of Mental Actions, Prof. Martius, 20; the Factors which Determine the Growth and Activity of the Mammary Glands, Miss J. E. Lane-Clayton and Prof. E. H. Starling, F.R.S., 22; Reciprocal Innervation of Antagonistic Muscles, Successive Induction, Prof. C. S. Sherrington, F.R.S., 47; Cell Communications between Blastomeres, C. Shearer, 47; Carbon Dioxide in the Breath, F. Southerden, 81; E. A. Parkyn, 133; Researches on the Whiteness of Fur and Feathers in Winter, El. Metchnikoff, 95; the Breeding Industry, Walter Heape, F.R.S., Dr. Francis H. Marshall, 101; on the Relationship between Haemolysis and the Phagocytosis of Red Blood Cells, Dr. R. D. Keith, 118; the Specificity of the Oponic Substances in the Blood Serum, Dr. William Bullock and G. T. Western, 118; Effect of Adrenalin on the Amount of Glycogen in Muscle, Mme. Z. Gatin-Gruzewska, 143; Physiological Investigation of Fungus, *Phycomyces nitens*, Prof. L. Errera, 157; Relations between Emotional States and Infection, M. Vaschide, 167; Action of Pituitary Extracts upon the Kidney, Prof. E. A. Schäfer, F.R.S., and P. T. Herring, 190; the Excretion of the Endogenous Purins and Uric Acid, Pierre Fauvel, 192; Microscopic Changes in the Nervous System in a Case of Chronic Dourine, Dr. F. W. Mott, F.R.S., 238; Influence of Chocolate and Coffee on the Excretion of Uric Acid, Pierre Fauvel, 240; Origin of the Sertoli, or Foot-cells of the Testis, C. E. Walker and Alice L. Embleton, 260; Effect of Breathing Air containing from 5 per cent. to 10 per cent. of Carbon, N. Gréhan, 312; Problems in Animal Metabolism, J. B. Leathes, 349; a Parasite in the White Corpuscles of the Blood of Indian Palm Squirrels, Captain W. S. Patton, 369; Use of Soluble Prussian Blue in Investigating the Reducing Power of Animal Tissue, Dr. D. Fraser Harris, 375; the Electrical Signs of Life and their Abolition by Chloroform, Dr. Augustus D. Waller, F.R.S., 447; Death of Alexandre Herzen, 449; Action of Anæsthetics on Living Tissues, the Frog's Skin, N. H. Alcock, 459; on Nerve Endings and on Special Excitable Substances in Cells, Prof. J. N. Langley, F.R.S., 482; Origin of the Carbon Monoxide Contained in Normal Blood, R. Lépine and M. Boulud, 484; Pathology and Physiology of the Cell Nucleus, Prof. Adami, 529; the Main Source of "Precipitable" Substance and on the *Rôle* of the Homologous Proteid in Precipitin Reactions, Prof. D. A. Welsh and Dr. H. G. Chapman, 531; Regeneration of Nerves, Dr. F. W. Mott, F.R.S., Prof. W. D. Halliburton, F.R.S., and Arthur Edmunds, 579; on Carbohydrate Metabolism, with an Appendix on the Assimilation of Carbohydrate into Proteid and Fat, followed by the Fundamental Principles and the Treatment of Diabetes, Dialectically Discussed, Dr. F. W. Pavy, F.R.S., 631; the Dynamics of Living Matter, Prof. Jacques Loeb, 631; Geschmack und Geruch, Dr. Wilhelm Sternberg, 631; Studies in Blood-pressure, Physiological and Clinical, Dr. George Oliver, 638; the Dialysis of the Sugar of the Blood, R. Lépine and M. Boulud, 651; a Third Mandibular Canal in the Infant, R. Robinson, 652; Histological Studies on the Localisation of Cerebral Function, Dr. A. W. Campbell, Supp. to May 3, iii; Recent Advances in Physiology and Biochemistry, Supp. to May 3, x

- Pickering (Prof. E. C.), the Aims of an Astronomer, 368;
Plea for an International Southern Telescope, 474;
Comet 1906e (Kopff), 499
- Pieris, the Fertilisation of, I. Henry Burkill, 296
- Piette (Edouard), Death of, 182; Obituary Notice of, 278
- Pilot Charts, New, 138
- Pjetursson (Dr. Helgi), the Crag of Iceland, 239
- Plague: Transmission of Plague by Fleas, Hon. N. C. Rothschild, 616
- Planck (Dr. Max), Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Supp. to October 11, iii
- Planets: Observations of Satellites in 1904 and 1905, Prof. R. G. Aitken, 42; History of the Planetary System from Thales to Kepler, Dr. J. L. E. Dreyer, 49; an Interesting Minor Planet, Dr. Berberich, 210; Observations of Jupiter in 1903 and 1905-6, Mr. Denning, 210; Observations of Jupiter, Mr. Denning, 525; Elements and Ephemeris of Jupiter's Seventh Satellite, Dr. F. E. Ross, 306; Jupiter's Seventh Satellite, Prof. Perrine, 619; Jupiter's Sixth Satellite, 595; Prof. Campbell, 524; Rotation Period of Jupiter's Equatorial Region, Mr. Denning, 549; Photometric Observations of Saturn's Satellites, Dr. P. Guthnick, 210; Planets and Planetary Observations, W. F. Denning, 282, 386; Observations of Minor Planets and Comets, Prof. E. Weiss, 306; a Newly Discovered Planetary Nebula, Prof. Barnard, 474; the Planet Mercury, Mr. Denning, 499; Observations of Satellites, Prof. Barnard, 499; Occultation of a Star by Venus, Dr. Downing, 575; Observations of the Planet Mars during the Oppositions of 1894, 1896, 1898, 1901, and 1903, made at Flagstaff, Arizona, Percival Lowell, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 587
- Planisphere, a Novel, G. P. Serviss and L. Barritt, 645
- Plant-breeding, International Conference on Hybridisation and, 371
- Plant Diseases, Bacteria in Relation to, Erwin F. Smith, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 294
- Plants and their Ways in South Africa, Bertha Stoneman, 221
- Pleiades Stars, Magnitudes and Places of 251, K. Schiller, 306
- Pochettino (A.), Photoelectric Properties of Anthracene, 618
- Pollock (Prof. J. A.), Hollow Lightning Conductor Crushed by the Discharge, 230
- Ponca Sun Dance, the, G. A. Dorsey, 645
- Poor (Dr.), the Figure of the Sun, 210
- Porritt (G. T.), Papers on Lepidoptera, 552
- Porter (Prof. Alfred W.), the Inversion Points of the Joule-Kelvin Effect for a Fluid Passing through a Porous Plug, 17; Models of Atoms, 563
- Positivismus, eine Untersuchung über Raum, Zeit und Begriffe vom Standpunkt des, Eberhard Zschimmer, 533
- Pottery: la Ceramique industrielle, Chimie-Technologie, A. Granger, William Burton, 3
- Poulton (Prof. E. B., F.R.S.), the Source of the Blue Nile, a Record of a Journey through the Sudan to Tsana in Western Abyssinia, and of the Return to Egypt by the Valley of the Atbara, with a Note on the Religion, Customs, &c., of Abyssinia, Arthur Hayes, Entomological Appendix by, 247; Papers on Lepidoptera, 552
- Poultry, Inheritance in, C. B. Davenport, 583
- Poultry, Races of Domestic, Edward Brown, W. B. Tegetmeier, 13
- Poverty and Hereditary Genius, a Criticism of Mr. Francis Galton's Theory of Hereditary Genius, F. C. Constable, 350
- Powell-Cotton (Major P. H. G.), a New Specimen of the Okapi, 578
- Power (F. B.), Constituents of the Essential Oil from the Fruit of *Pittosporum undulatum*, 262
- Pratt (A. E. and H.), Two Years among New Guinea Cannibals, 58
- Pratt (Edwin A.), the Transition in Agriculture, 193
- Pratt (E. R.), the East Anglian Timber Willow, 86
- Pratt (Dr. H. S.), a Course in Vertebrate Zoology, Supp. to October 11, viii
- Preece (Sir W. H., K.C.B., F.R.S.), on Glow Lamps and the Grading of Voltages, 500
- Prehistoric Archaeology, the International Congress of Anthropology and, 211
- Pressure, Osmotic, W. C. D. Whetham, F.R.S., 102
- Preventable Disease and Military Strength, 154
- Price (George McCready), Illogical Geology, the Weakest Point in the Evolution Theory, 513
- Priestley (Joseph), T. E. Thorpe, F.R.S., 378
- Priestley (J. H.), the Mechanism of Carbon Assimilation in Green Plants, the Photolytic Decomposition of Carbon Dioxide *in vitro*, 627
- Probability, Researches into the Theory of, C. V. L. Charlier, 187
- Procédés de Commande à Distance au Moyen de l'Électricité, les, Captain Régis Frilley, 125
- Proper Motions, Stereoscopic Measurement of, Prof. Max Wolf, 231
- Proteids, Chemistry of the, Dr. Gustav Mann, 75
- Prunier (Prof. Léon Adrien), Death of, 414, 521
- Psychology: the Soul as the Sum of Reflexes, Dr. Paul Kronthal, 15; Physiological Effects of Mental Actions, Prof. Martius, 20; German Congress of Experimental Psychology, Dr. C. Spearman, 45; the Unity of Will, Studies of an Irrationalist, George Ainslie Hight, 380; the Character of Consciousness, Prof. G. M. Stratton, 416; the Localisation of Functions in the Frontal and Pre-frontal Regions, Flechsig and Sciamanna, 416; Psychology, Dr. C. W. Saleeby, 560; Psychical Faculties or Processes in the Higher Animals, Prof. Ivan Pawlow, 592
- Pueblo Ruins, Two Summers' Work in, Jesse Walter Fewkes, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Pulle (Dr. A.), an Enumeration of the Vascular Plants from Surinam, 170
- Punga (F.), Single-phase Commutator Motors, 606
- Punnett (R. C.), Mendel's Laws of Inheritance, 475
- Purdie (T.), the Alkylation of *l*-Arabinose, 311
- Purser (Prof. F.), Applications of Bessel's Functions to Physics, 166
- Purvis (J. E.), Influence of a very Strong Magnetic Field on the Spark Spectra of Palladium, Rhodium, and Ruthenium, 191; Experiments on the Band Spectrum of Nitrogen in a Magnetic Field of 41,000 Units, 191
- Quartz Wedge, Two Modifications of the, Daniel James Mahoney, 317
- Quatercentenary Celebrations of the University of Aberdeen, the, 565
- Quebec, the Congress of Americanists at, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 595
- Quénisset (M.), Finlay's Comet 1906d, 575
- Quennesson (L.), Attack of Platinum by Sulphuric Acid, 216
- Quincke (Prof. G., For.Mem.R.S.), the Transition from the Liquid to the Solid State and the Foam-structure of Matter, 342
- Rabies: the Pasteur Institute, 415
- Radcliffe Observatory, Oxford, Catalogue of 1772 Stars chiefly Comprised within the Zone 85°-90° N.P.D. for the Epoch 1000, deduced from Observations made at the, during the Years 1894-1903, under the Direction of Prof. Arthur A. Rambaut, F.R.S., 341
- Radial Motion of β Arietis, the, H. Ludendorff, 135
- Radial Velocities, Stars with Variable, J. H. Moore, 135; Prof. Frost, 135
- Radial Velocity of ϵ Aurigæ, the Variable, Dr. H. Ludendorff, 41
- Radial Velocity of α Draconis, H. Ludendorff, 185
- Radiant Point of a Bright Meteor, Dr. Jiri Kavan, 18
- Radiants of the Perseid Shower, the, M. Wwedenski, 253
- Radiation, Solar, Terrestrial Temperatures and the, C. G. Abbot, 112
- Radiative Power of the Sun's Disc, Prof. Julius, 231
- Radio-activity, Possible Relationship between Volcanic Action and, Major C. E. Dutton, 184
- Radio-activity, Volcanoes and, Dr. T. J. J. See, 444
- Radioaktiven Substanzen und die Theorie des Atomzerfalles, die, Prof. Paul Gruner, 538
- Radiobes and Biogen, 1
- Radiography: the *n*-Rays, Dr. P. Stefanelli, 17; Radioactive Substances in the Thermal Springs of Echaillon and Salins Moutiers, in Savoy, Dr. G. A. Blanc, 40;

- α Rays Emitted by Prof. Marckwald's Radio-tellurium capable of causing Fluorescence in Glass, &c., H. Greinacher, 40; the Action of " α " Radiation on Diamonds, C. W. R., 271; the Positive Charge carried by the α Particle, Frederick Soddy, 316; the Nature of the α Ray, Frederick Soddy, 385; Polonium a Homogeneous Source of a Ray, M. Levin, 385; Velocity of the α Particle Emitted by Radium C at Various Points of its Path Measured by Prof. Rutherford, 547; das Radium und die radioactiven Stoffe, Karl Frhr. von Papius, 125; Polonium Identical with Radium F, Drs. Meyer and von Schweidler, Madame Curie, 185; Radiolead a Mixture of Radium D, Radium E, and Radium F, Drs. Meyer and von Schweidler, 185; Effect of Radium in Facilitating the Visible Electric Discharge *in vacuo*, A. A. C. Swinton, 262; Effect of the Electric Spark on the Activity of Metals, T. A. Vaughton, 262; Toxic Action and Localisation of the Radium Emanation, Ch. Bouchard and V. Balthazard, 375; Method of Estimating the Proportion of Radium or Thorium in a Mineral by Means of the γ Rays which it Emits, A. S. Eve, 574; Radium and Geology, Rev. O. Fisher, 585, 635; B. J. Palmer, 585; Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 610; Prof. J. Joly, F.R.S., 635; T. Mellard Reade, 635; the Recent Controversy on Radium, F. Soddy, 516; Lord Kelvin, 539; Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S., 634; the Absorption of β Radiation by Matter, Prof. J. A. McClelland and J. E. Hackett, 142, 311; the Chemical Nature of Thorium and the Origin of its Radio-activity, Dr. Bertram Boltwood, 385; Method of Isolating Radio-thorium from Thorium Salts, G. A. Blanc and O. Angelucci, 574; the Radio-activity of the Chemical Elements, C. W. Raffety, 444; die radioactiven Substanzen und die Theorie des Atomzerfalles, Prof. Paul Gruner, 538; Velocity of Röntgen Rays, Dr. E. Marx, 547; Production of Secondary Rays by α Rays from Polonium, W. H. Logeman, 555; Photoelectric Properties of Anthracene, A. Pochettino, 618; a New Hypothesis connecting the Fluorescence of Organic Substances with their Chemical Constitution, Prof. Luigi Francesconi and G. Bargellini, 618; Ionic Velocities in Air at Different Temperatures, P. Phillips, 627; the Electrical Nature of Matter and Radio-activity, Prof. Harry C. Jones, 632; Absorption of the Radioactive Emanation by Charcoal, Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S., 634; Synthesis of Amethyst Quartz, M. Berthelot, 651
- Radium: das Radium und die radioactiven Stoffe, Karl Frhr. von Papius, 125; the Recent Controversy on Radium, F. Soddy, 516; Lord Kelvin, 539; Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S., 634; Radium and Geology, Rev. O. Fisher, 585, 635; B. J. Palmer, 585; Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S., 610; Prof. J. Joly, F.R.S., 635; T. Mellard Reade, 635; *see also* Radiography
- Raffety (C. W.), the Radio-activity of the Chemical Elements, 444
- Raikow (Dr. P. N.), a Simple Method of Boring Glass Tubing, 524
- Railways: Speed and Stability in Railway Travelling, G. R. Dunell, 637
- Rainbow, a Horizontal, V. Schaffers, 125
- Rainbow Phenomena, Remarkable, M. Spence, 516; George C. Simpson, 541; Rev. C. S. Taylor, 541; Prof. J. M. Pernter, 564; C. T. Whitmell, 586
- Rainfall, August, Alex. B. MacDowall, 8
- Ralfe (P. G.), the Birds of the Isle of Man, 105
- Rambaut (Prof.), the "Green Ray," 111
- Rambaut (Prof. Arthur A., F.R.S.), Catalogue of 1772 Stars chiefly comprised within the Zone 85° - 90° N.P.D. for the Epoch 1000, deduced from Observations made at the Radcliffe Observatory, Oxford, during the Years 1894-1903, under the Direction of, 341
- Ramsay (Sir William), on Radio-activity and the Internal Structure of the Earth, 454; on the Nature and Radiation from Gas Mantles, 455; Experiments on the Chemical and Electrical Changes induced by Ultra-violet Light, 455
- Ramsay (Prof. W. M.), on the Past and Present of Asiatic Turkey, 479
- Rance (Charles Eugene De), Death and Obituary Notice of, 84
- Ranken (C.), Viscosity of Solutions, 375
- Rauber (A.), Skull of Immanuel Kant contrasted with that of a Member of the Neanderthal Race, 280
- Ray (J. C.), Hindu Method of Manufacturing Spirit from Rice, 96
- Rayet (Prof. G. A. P.), Death of, 228, 367; Obituary Notice of, 382
- Reade (T. Mellard), Sands and Sediments, 546; Radium and Geology, 635
- Reason and the Table-book, Reconnoitres in, Norman Alliston, 533
- Reflectors, the Utility of Short-focus, Dr. A. Berberich, 595
- Refraktionstafeln, Dr. L. de Ball, 465
- Refuse, the Disposal of Municipal, H. de B. Parsons, 630
- Reid (Clement, F.R.S.), on Coast Erosion, 478; on the Origin of the Trias, 550
- Reid (Dr. George), on the Form of Sewage Filters, 480
- Reid (Staff-Surgeon), on Diagnosis of Tubercle by the Examination of the Blood, and on Spontaneous Phagocytosis, 248; on Spontaneous Phagocytosis and on the Phagocytosis which is Obtained with the Heated Serum of Patients who have Responded to Tubercular Infection or to the Inoculation of a Tubercle Vaccine, 248
- Religion, the Scientific Temper in, and other Addresses, Rev. P. N. Waggett, 217
- Religion of Nature, the, E. Kay Robinson, 513
- Renevier (Prof. Eugène), Death of, 37
- Rengade (E.), Direct Oxidation of Cæsium and some Properties of the Peroxide of Cæsium, 143; Action of Oxygen on Rubidium-ammonia, 263
- Resemblance, Measurement of, Dr. Francis Galton, F.R.S., 562
- Résistance, Inductance et Capacité, M. J. Rodet, 633
- Respiration: Lehrbuch der vergleichenden mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbeltiere, Part v., Parietal Organ, Dr. F. K. Studnička, part vi., Atmungsapparat, Dr. Albert Opperl, 145

REVIEWS AND OUR BOOKSHELF.

- The Origin of Life, its Physical Basis and Definition, John Butler Burke, 1
- La Ceramique industrielle, Chimie-Technologie, A. Granger, William Burton, 3
- Agriculture Générale, le Sol et les Labours, Paul Diffloth, 4
- Outlines of Inorganic Chemistry, Frank Austin Gooch and Claude Frederic Walker, 5
- Collodion Emulsion, Henry Oscar Klein, 5
- Der Gegensatz zwischen geographischer und nichtgeographischer Variation, Karl Jordan, 6
- Butter-making on the Farm and at the Creamery, C. W. Walker-Tisdale and T. R. Robinson, C. Simmonds, 6
- The Deinhardt-Schlomann Series of Technical Dictionaries in Six Languages, English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian, Kurt Deinhardt and Alfred Schlomann, 6
- The Geology of Mid-Argyll, J. B. Hill, B. N. Peach, C. T. Clough, and H. Kynaston, J. H. Teall and J. S. Flett, 9
- The Egyptian Heaven and Hell, E. A. Wallis Budge, 10
- Races of Domestic Poultry, Edward Brown, W. B. Tegetmeier, 13
- Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., Andrew Scott, and James Johnstone, Frank Balfour Browne, 19
- Allgemeine Biologie, Oscar Hertwig, Prof. J. B. Farmer, F.R.S., 25
- Ernst Haeckel, der Mann und sein Werk, Carl W. Neumann, 26
- Haeckel, his Life and Work, Wilhelm Bölsche, 26
- Last Words on Evolution, a Popular Retrospect and Summary, Ernst Haeckel, 26
- An Introduction to Practical Geography, A. T. Simmons and Hugh Richardson, Geo. G. Chisholm, 27
- Bantu Folklore (Medical and General), Dr. Matthew L. Hewat, Sir H. H. Johnston, K.C.M.G., 28
- Sociological Papers, 29
- The Heart of a Garden, Rosamund Marriott Watson, 29
- Methods in Microscopical Research—Vegetable Histology, Abraham Flatters, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 29

- Hopi Katinas, Drawn by Native Artists, Jesse Walter Fewkes, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Iroquoian Cosmology, J. N. B. Hewitt, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Two Summers' Work in Pueblo Ruins, Jesse Walter Fewkes, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Mayan Calendar Systems, Cyrus Thomas, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- The Hako, a Pawnee Ceremony, Alice C. Fletcher and James R. Murie, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- The Zuñi Indians, their Mythology, Esoteric Fraternities, and Ceremonies, Matilda Coxé Stevenson, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Mexican and Central American Antiquities, Calendar Systems and History, E. Seler, E. Förstmann, P. Schellhas, C. Sapper, and E. P. Dieseldorff, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- Haida Texts and Myths, Skidegate Dialect, John R. Swanton, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
- History of the Planetary Systems from Thales to Kepler, Dr. J. L. E. Dreyer, 49
- Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Zoologie, Festschrift zur Feier seines siebenzigsten Geburtstages am 11 Nov. 1905, Herrn Geheimen Regierungsrat Prof. Ernst Ehlers, Dr. F. W. Gamble, 50
- The Birds of Tunisia, J. I. S. Whitaker, O. V. Aplin, 51
- British Fresh-water Rhizopoda, James Cash and John Hopkinson, 52
- Physikalisch-chemisches Centralblatt, 53
- The Philosophy of Martineau in Relation to the Idealism of the Present Day, Prof. Henry Jones, 53
- The Romance of the South Seas, Clement L. Wragge, 53
- The Wild Fauna and Flora of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, Kew Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, 53
- Physical Chemistry, and its Applications in Medical and Biological Science, Dr. Alex. Findlay, 53
- Report to the Government of Ceylon on the Pearl-oyster Fisheries of the Gulf of Manaar, Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., 57
- Two Years among New Guinea Cannibals, A. E. Pratt and H. Pratt, Dr. C. G. Seligmann, 58
- Report of the Indian Survey Committee, 1904-5, 67
- Adolf von Baeyer's gesammelte Werke, Prof. W. H. Perkin, jun., F.R.S., 73
- A Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of Elasticity, A. E. H. Love, 74
- Chemistry of the Proteids, Dr. Gustav Mann, 75
- Les Tremblements de Terre, Géographie Séismologique, Comte F. de Montessus de Ballore, 76
- Notes on Shipbuilding and Nautical Terms of Old in the North, E. Magnusson, 77
- A First German Course for Science Students, Prof. H. G. Fiedler and F. E. Sandbach, 78
- Personal Hygiene Designed for Undergraduates, Dr. A. A. Woodhall, 78
- Life and Matter, Sir Oliver Lodge, 78
- The Fox, T. F. Dale, 79
- Oologia universalis palæarctica, Georg Kause, 79
- Status of the Mesozoic Floras of the United States, Lester F. Ward, William M. Fontaine, Arthur Bibbins, and G. R. Wieland, Prof. A. C. Seward, F.R.S., 81
- Recreations of a Naturalist, James Edmund Harting, 82
- New Reduction of Groombridge's Circumpolar Catalogue for the Epoch 1810-0, F. W. Dyson, F.R.S., and W. G. Thackeray, 90
- Telegraphic Determinations of Longitude made in the Years 1888-1902, under the Direction of Sir W. H. M. Christie, K.C.B., F.R.S., Astronomer Royal, 90
- Noteworthy Families (Modern Science), Francis Galton, F.R.S., and Edgar Schuster, 97
- Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty, Frederick Adams Woods, 97
- Text-book of Topographical and Geographical Surveying, Major C. F. Close, 98
- The British Woodlice, being a Monograph of the Terrestrial Isopod Crustacea occurring in the British Islands, Wilfred Mark Webb and Charles Sillem, 99
- Ethnological Notes on the Aboriginal Tribes of New South Wales and Victoria, R. H. Mathews, 100
- The Breeding Industry, Walter Heape, F.R.S., Dr. Francis H. A. Marshall, 101
- The Elements of Geology, Prof. W. H. Norton, 102
- Letters from the Dead to the Dead, Oliver Lector, 102
- Atlas Colorié des Plantes et des Animaux des Côtes de France, Dr. M. Langeron, 102
- The Birds of the Isle of Man, P. G. Ralfe, 105
- Report of the Director of the Meteorological Office upon an Inquiry into the Relation between the Estimates of Wind-force according to Admiral Beaufort's Scale and the Velocities recorded by Anemometers belonging to the Office, with a Report by G. C. Simpson, M.Sc., and Notes by Sir G. H. Darwin, W. H. Dines, and Commander Hepworth, 106
- The Book of the Rothamsted Experiments, A. D. Hall, Prof. T. H. Middleton, 121
- Evolution the Master-key, Dr. C. W. Saleeby, 122
- The Launching of a University, and other Papers, Dr. J. D. C. Gilman, 123
- Highways and Byways in Oxford and the Cotswolds, Herbert A. Evan, 124
- A Manual of Geometry, W. D. Eggar, 124
- Les Procédés de Commande à Distance au Moyen de l'Électricité, Captain Régis Frilley, 125
- Das Radium und die radioactiven Stoffe, Karl Frhr. von Papius, 125
- The Zoological Society of London, a Sketch of its Foundation and Development, and the Story of its Farm, Museum, Gardens, Menagerie, and Library, Henry Scherren, F.Z.S., 129
- Lehrbuch der vergleichenden mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbelthiere, Part v., Parietal Organ, Dr. F. K. Studnička, Part vi., Atmungsapparat, Dr. Albert Oppel, 145
- Vorlesungen über Deszendenztheorien mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Botanischen Seite der Frage gehalten an der Reichsuniversität zu Leiden, Dr. J. P. Lotsy, W. Bateson, F.R.S., 146
- Müller-Pouillet's Lehrbuch der Physik und Meteorologie, 147
- Cours de Physique de l'École Polytechnique, J. Jamin, 147
- Lehrbuch der Physik, H. A. Lorenz, 147
- The Adjustment of Observations by the Method of Least Squares, with Applications to Geodetic Work, T. W. Wright and J. F. Hayford, 148
- Modern Milling Machines, Joseph G. Horner, 149
- Lectures on the Method of Science, 149
- The Secrets of Dog-feeding, 149
- In My Garden, 149
- Illustrated Notes on Manks Antiquities, P. M. C. Kermodé and W. A. Herdman, 152
- A Treatise on Zoology, Part v., Mollusca, Dr. Paul Pelseener, 153
- Solar and Lunar Cycles implied in the Prophetic Numbers in the Book of Daniel, Dr. W. Bell Dawson, 154
- A Monograph of the Insect Injuries to Indian Corn, S. A. Forbes, Fred. V. Theobald, 160
- Departmental Notes on the Insects that affect Forestry, E. P. Stebbing, Fred. V. Theobald, 160
- The Life-history of Surface Air-currents, a Study of the Surface Trajectories of Moving Air, Dr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S., and R. G. K. Lempfert, 162
- Smithsonian Institution, Bulletin of the United States National Museum, Catalogue of Fossils, Minerals, Rocks, &c., Fossil Invertebrates, 163
- Our Waterways, a History of Inland Navigation considered as a Branch of Water Conservancy, Urquhart A. Forbes and W. H. R. Ashford, 169
- Alien Flora of Britain, S. T. Dunn, 170
- The Aconites of India, Dr. Otto Stapf, 170
- An Enumeration of the Vascular Plants from Surinam, Dr. A. Pulle, 170
- Die europäischen Laubmoose, Georg Roth, 170
- An Elementary Treatise on Phototopographic Methods and Instruments, J. A. Flemer, 172
- Conversations on Chemistry, First Steps in Chemistry, W. Ostwald, 173
- Marceli Nencki Omnia Opera, 173
- Essais des Matériaux, H. Bouasse, 174
- The Scientific Roll and Magazine of Systematised Notes, 174
- A Descriptive Catalogue of the Tertiary Vertebrates of the

- Fayum, Egypt, based on the Collection of the Egyptian Government in the Geological Museum, Cairo, and on the Collection in the British Museum (Natural History), London, C. W. Andrews, 175
- Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, 180
- Researches into the Theory of Probability, C. V. L. Charlier, 187
- The Transition in Agriculture, Edwin A. Pratt, 193
- An Introduction to the Study of Agricultural Economics, Henry C. Taylor, 193
- The Development of Agriculture in Denmark, R. J. Thompson, 193
- The Cyanide Industry Theoretically and Practically Considered, R. Robine and M. Lenglen, Dr. T. K. Rose, 195
- Ein Jahr an Bord I.M.S. *Siboga*, Frau A. Weber, 196
- The Fungus Flora of Yorkshire, G. Masee and C. Crossland, 196
- The Principles and Practice of Iron and Steel Manufacture, Walter Macfarlane, 197
- On Models of Cubic Surfaces, W. H. Blythe, 197
- A Synonymic Catalogue of Homoptera, W. L. Distant, 197
- Iona, Elizabeth A. McHardy (Mrs. Raymond Smith), 197
- The World's Desires, or the Results of Monism, Edgar A. Ashcroft, 217
- The Scientific Temper in Religion and other Addresses, Rev. P. N. Waggett, 217
- The Reconstruction of Belief, W. H. Mallock, 217
- The Unit of Strife, E. K. Garrod, 217
- A Practical Manual of Tides and Waves, W. H. Wheeler, 218
- Electricity Meters, a Treatise on the General Principles, Construction, and Testing of Continuous Current and Alternating Current Meters for the Use of Electrical Engineers and Students, Henry G. Solomon, 219
- The Fauna of British India, including Ceylon and Burma, Rhynchota, vol. iii., Heteroptera-Homoptera, W. L. Distant, 220
- Plants and their Ways in South Africa, Bertha Stoneman, 221
- Lectures on Compass Adjustment, Captain W. R. Martin, 221
- Lotus Blossoms, Maung Nee, 221
- Hydrographic Surveying, Methods, Tables, and Form of Notes, S. H. Lea, Commander H. C. Lockyer, 221
- Cours de Chimie physique suivi d'Applications à la Chimie et à la Biologie, Victor Henri, Prof. Benjamin Moore, 241
- Petrogenesis, Dr. C. Doelter, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 242
- Theory of Structures and Strength of Materials, Prof. Henry T. Bovey, 243
- Dairy Chemistry, Harry Snyder, 243
- Gedanken über Vererbung, Dr. Alexander Petrunkevitch, 244
- Giordano Bruno, in Memoriam of the 17th February, 1600, Alois Riehl, 244
- The Source of the Blue Nile, a Record of a Journey through the Sudan to Lake Tsana in Western Abyssinia, and of the Return to Egypt by the Valley of the Atbara, with a Note on the Religion, Customs, &c., of Abyssinia, Arthur J. Hayes, Entomological Appendix, Prof. E. B. Poulton, F.R.S., Sir H. H. Johnston, K.C.M.G., 247
- On the Diagnosis of Tubercle by the Examination of the Blood, and on Spontaneous Phagocytosis, Dr. A. E. Wright and Staff-Surgeon Reid, 248
- On Spontaneous Phagocytosis and on the Phagocytosis which is obtained with the Heated Serum of Patients who have responded to Tubercular Infection, or, as the Case may be, to the Inoculation of a Tubercle Vaccine, Dr. A. E. Wright and Staff-Surgeon Reid, 248
- Preliminary Experiments on the Photographic Transit, S. Hirayama, 254
- Correspondance d'Hermite et de Stieltjes, 265
- G. Lejeune Dirichlet's Vorlesungen über die Lehre von den einfachen und mehrfachen bestimmten Integralen, G. Arendt, 265
- Le Calcul des Résidus et ses Applications à la Théorie des Fonctions, Ernst Lindelöf, 265
- Les Principes des Mathématiques, Louis Couturat, 265
- Méthodes de Calcul graphique, Frederico Oom, 265
- Volume and Surface Integrals used in Physics, J. G. Leatham, 265
- Recherche sur les Champs de Force hydrodynamiques, V. Bjerknes, 265
- Sur la Recherche des Solutions particulières des Systèmes différentiels et sur les Mouvements stationnaires, T. Levi Civita, 265
- A Treatise on Chemistry, Sir H. E. Roscoe, F.R.S., and C. Schorlemmer, F.R.S., 267
- Darwinism and the Problems of Life, a Study of Familiar Animal Life, Prof. Conrad Guenther, 268
- Aufnahme und Analyse von Wechselstromkurven, Dr. Ernst Orlich, Dr. J. A. Harker, 268
- Cultures du Midi de l'Algérie et de la Tunisie, C. Rivière and H. Leq, 269
- Tabulæ Botanicae, 269
- Reports of the Expedition to the Congo, 1903-5, Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, 269
- Ten Years' Record of the Treatment of Cancer without Operation, Dr. Robert Bell, 269
- The Opal Sea, John C. Van Dyke, 269
- Report of Department of Research in Terrestrial Magnetism, L. A. Bauer, 284
- The Life and Experiences of Sir Henry Enfield Roscoe, D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S., 289
- Telegraphy, T. E. Herbert, Maurice Solomon, 290
- The Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy, Dr. J. A. Fleming, Maurice Solomon, 290
- Wireless Telegraphy, Dr. Gustav Eichorn, Maurice Solomon, 290
- Wireless Telegraphy, W. J. White, Maurice Solomon, 290
- Les Problèmes de la Vie, Prof. Ermanno Giglio-Tos, 292
- Report on the Injurious Insects and other Animals observed in the Midland Counties during 1905, Walter E. Collinge, Fred. V. Theobald, 293
- The Development of the Feeling for Nature in the Middle Ages and Modern Times, Alfred Biese, 293
- A Handbook of York and District, 294
- Bacteria in Relation to Plant Diseases, Erwin F. Smith, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 294
- Outlines of Zoology, Prof. J. A. Thomson, 294
- Animal Heroes, being the Histories of a Cat, a Dog, a Pigeon, a Lynx, two Wolves, and a Reindeer, E. T. Seton, 295
- Some Facts about the Weather, William Marriott, 295
- The Dead Heart of Australia, a Journey round Lake Eyre in the Summer of 1901-2, with some Account of the Lake Eyre Basin and the Flowing Wells of Central Australia, Prof. J. W. Gregory, F.R.S., 296
- Expédition Antarctique Belge, Résultats du Voyage du S.Y. *Belgica* en 1897-99 sous le Commandement de A. de Gerlache de Gomery, Rapports scientifiques, Travaux hydrographiques et Instructions nautiques, G. Lecointe, Botanique—les Phanérogames des Terres Magellaniques, E. de Wildeman, Zoologie—Poissons, L. Dollo, 298
- Report to the Government of British Honduras upon the Outbreak of Yellow Fever in that Colony in 1905, together with an Account of the Distribution of the *Stegomyia fasciata* in Belize, and the Measures necessary to Stamp out or Prevent the Recurrence of Yellow Fever, Rubert Boyce, F.R.S., Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, 299
- An Account of the Scientific Work of the Survey of India, and a Comparison of its Progress with that of Foreign Surveys prepared for Use of the Survey Committee, 1905, Lieut.-Colonel S. G. Burrard, F.R.S., 301
- Étude sur l'Etat actuel des Mines du Transvaal, les Gîtes—leur Valeur, Étude industrielle et financière, George Moreau, 313
- Conspectus Floræ Graecæ, E. de Halácsy, 314
- Höhlenkunde, mit Berücksichtigung der Karstphänomene, Dr. W. von Knebel, 314
- The Outlook to Nature, L. H. Bailey, 315
- Lecture Notes on Chemistry for Dental Students, Dr. H. Carlton Smith, 315
- A Study of the Sky, Prof. Herbert A. Howe, 315
- Catalogue of 1772 Stars chiefly comprised within the Zone 85°-90° N.P.D. for the Epoch 1000, deduced from Observations made at the Radcliffe Observatory, Oxford,

- during the Years 1894-1903, under the Direction of Prof. Arthur A. Rambaut, F.R.S., 341
- Publications of the Astronomical Laboratory at Groningen, Components of the Proper Motions and other Quantities for the Stars of Bradley, Tables for Photographic Parallax-observations, Dr. W. de Sitter, some Useful Trigonometrical Formulæ and a Table of Goniometrical Functions for the Four Quadrants, Prof. J. C. Kapteyn and Prof. W. Kapteyn, 341
- Cours d'Astronomie, Louis Maillard, 341
- New Theories in Astronomy, William Stirling, 341
- Die Bahnbestimmung der Himmelskörper, Julius Bauschinger, 345
- Die Gauss-Gibbssche Methode der Bahnbestimmung eines Himmelskörpers aus drei Beobachtungen, Prof. Johannes Frischauf, 345
- Moteurs a Collecteur a Courants alternatifs, Dr. F. Niethammer, Val. A. Fynn, 346
- Tunnel Shields, and the Use of Compressed Air in Subaqueous Works, W. C. Copperthwaite, 348
- Problems in Animal Metabolism, J. B. Leathes, 349
- Poverty and Hereditary Genius, a Criticism of Mr. Francis Galton's Theory of Hereditary Genius, F. C. Constable, 350
- Modern Cosmogonies, Agnes M. Clerke, 350
- The Geometry of the Screw Propeller, W. J. Goudie, 350
- Geographical Gleanings, Rev. F. R. Burrows, 351
- The Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas, Dr. Edward Westermarck, 377
- Joseph Priestley, T. E. Thorpe, F.R.S., 378
- A Compendium of Spherical Astronomy with its Applications to the Determination and Reduction of Positions of the Fixed Stars, Prof. Simon Newcomb, 379
- Die neueren Wandlungen der elektrischen Theorien einschliesslich der Elektronentheorie zwei Vorträge, Dr. Gustave Holzmüller, 380
- The Unity of Will, Studies of an Irrationalist, George Ainslie Hight, 380
- Diet and Dietetics, A. Gautier, 380
- German Grammar for Science Students, Prof. W. A. Osborne and Ethel E. Osborne, 380
- No Man's Land, a History of Spitsbergen from its Discovery in 1596 to the beginning of the Scientific Exploration of the Country, Sir Martin Conway, 381
- Modern Tunnel Practice, D. McNeely Stauffer, 409
- Astronomy in the Old Testament, Prof. G. Schiaparelli, 410
- Researches into the Origin of the Primitive Constellations of the Greeks, Phœnicians, and Babylonians, Robert Brown, jun., 410
- Biologische und morphologische Untersuchungen über Wasser- und Sumpfgewächse, Prof. Hugo Glück, 411
- School Gardening for Little Children, Lucy R. Latter, 411
- George Douglas, Eighth Duke of Argyll, K.G., K.T. (1823-1900), 437
- Lehrbuch der gerichtlichen Chemie, Dr. Georg Baumert, Dr. M. Dennstedt, and Dr. F. Voigtländer, 440
- The Management of a Nerve Patient, Dr. A. T. Schofield, 440
- Traité d'Exploitation commerciale des Bois, A. Mathey, 441
- Illustrations of British Blood-sucking Flies, Ernest Edward Austen, 441
- Gehirn und Rückenmark, Leitfaden für das Studium der Morphologie und des Faserverlaufs, Dr. Emil Villiger, 442
- Naturkonstanten in alphabetischer Anordnung, Prof. Dr. H. Erdmann and Dr. P. Köthner, 442
- The Physiography of the River Nile and its Basin, Captain H. G. Lyons, 461
- The Theory of Determinants in the Historical Order of Development, Dr. T. Muir, F.R.S., 462
- Die wirbelthiere Eurôpa's mit Berücksichtigung der Faunen von Vorderasien und Nordafrika, Dr. O. Schmiedeknecht, 463
- Water Softening and Treatment, W. H. Booth, 464
- Studies in Anatomy from the Anatomical Department of the University of Manchester, 464
- Refraktionstafeln, Dr. L. de Ball, 465
- The Butterflies of the British Isles, Richard South, 465
- Transactions of the Department of Archaeology, Free Museum of Science and Art, H. R. Hall, 468
- Report on the Immigrations of Summer Residents in the Spring of 1905, 470
- Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture in India, H. Maxwell Lefroy, Fred. V. Theobald, 481
- The Norwegian North Polar Expedition, vol. v., on Dead Water, V. Walfrid Ekman, Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 485
- Evolution, Racial and Habitudinal, Rev. John T. Gulick, 486
- The Hope Reports, 487
- Insect Pests of the Farm and Garden, F. Martin-Duncan, 488
- Elementary Electrical Engineering in Theory and Practice, J. H. Alexander, 488
- Immanuel Kants Grundlegung zur Metaphysik der Sitten, 488
- Physical Optics, R. W. Wood, 509
- Ostasienfahrt, Erlebnisse und Beobachtungen eines Naturforschers in China, Japan, und Ceylon, Dr. Franz Doflein, 510
- A Handbook of British Inland Birds, Anthony Collett, 511
- A Pocket-book of British Birds, E. F. M. Elms, 511
- A Preliminary List of Durham Diptera, with Analytical Tables, Rev. W. J. Wingate, 512
- Illogical Geology, the Weakest Point in the Evolution Theory, George McCready Price, 513
- The Religion of Nature, E. Kay Robinson, 513
- Carboni fossili inglesi, Dr. Guglielmo Gherardi, 514
- How to Find and Name Wild Flowers, Thomas Fox, 514
- Lhasa and its Mysteries, with a Record of the Expedition of 1903-4, L. A. Waddell, C.B., 518
- A Text-book of Mining Geology, James Park, 520
- Herbert Spencer, Prof. J. Arthur Thomson, 533
- Reconnoitres in Reason and the Table-book, Norman Alliston, 533
- Eine Untersuchung über Raum, Zeit und Begriffe vom Standpunkt des Positivismus, Eberhard Zschimmer, 533
- Beiträge zur Einführung in die Geschichte der Philosophie, Rudolf Eucken, 533
- Apollonius of Tyana and other Essays, Thomas Whittaker, 533
- Das Gefüge der Welt, Versuch einer kritischen Philosophie, Hermann Graf Keyserling, 533
- The Sub-conscious, Joseph Jastrow, 533
- British Fisheries, their Administration and their Problems, a Short Account of the Origin and Growth of British Sea-fishery Authorities and Regulations, James Johnstone, 535
- Handbuch der Physik, Dr. A. Winkelmann, 535
- Hortus Veitchii, a History of the Rise and Progress of the Nurseries of Messrs. James Veitch and Sons, together with an Account of the Botanical Collectors and Hybridists employed by them and a List of the more Remarkable of their Introductions, James H. Veitch, 537
- Avogadro and Dalton, the Standing in Chemistry of their Hypotheses, Dr. Andrew N. Meldrum, 537
- Die Radioaktiven Substanzen und die Theorie des Atomzerfalles, Prof. Paul Gruner, 538
- Introduction to Astronomy, Prof. Forest Ray Moulton, 538
- Earth-eating and the Earth-eating Habit in India, D. Hooper and H. H. Mann, 544
- Report of the Geodetic Survey of Part of Southern Rhodesia executed by Mr. Alexander Simms, Government Surveyor, under the Direction of Sir David Gill, K.C.B., F.R.S., 554
- Geology, Earth History, Thomas C. Chamberlin and Rollin D. Salisbury, 557
- Erfindung und Erfinder, A. du Bois-Reymond, 559
- Psychology, Sociology, Ethics, Dr. C. W. Saleeby, 560
- The Biology of the Frog, Samuel J. Holmes, 560
- Morphologie und Biologie der Algen, Dr. Friedrich Oltmanns, George Murray, F.R.S., 561
- Atlas colorié de la Flore alpine, J. Beauverié and L. Faucheron, 561
- Salmon Fishing, W. Earl Hodgson, 568
- The Science of Dry Fly Fishing, Fred. G. Shaw, 568
- Electrical Engineering in Theory and Practice, G. D. Aspinall Parr, 581
- Gesammelte Abhandlungen, E. Abbe, 582
- Magnetische Kraefffelder, H. Ebert, 583
- Inheritance in Poultry, C. B. Davenport, 583

- German Scientific and Technological Reader, E. Classen and J. Lustgarten, 583
- Observations of the Planet Mars during the Oppositions of 1894, 1896, 1898, 1901, and 1903, made at Flagstaff, Arizona, Percival Lowell, Dr. William J. S. Lockyer, 587
- Handbook of Flower Pollination based upon Hermann Müller's Work "The Fertilisation of Flowers by Insects," Dr. Paul Knuth, 605
- Single-phase Commutator Motors, F. Punga, 606
- L'Age des derniers Volcans de la France, Marcellin Boule, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 607
- The Birds of the British Islands, Charles Stonham, 607
- The Manufacture of Concrete Blocks and their Use in Building Construction, H. H. Rice and W. M. Torrance, 608
- Elementary Electrical Calculations, W. H. N. James and D. L. Sands, 608
- Ethnographic Notes in Southern India, E. Thurston, 611
- The Nucleation of the Uncontaminated Atmosphere, Prof. Carl Barus, C. T. R. Wilson, F.R.S., 619
- The Face of the Earth (Das Antlitz der Erde), Prof. Eduard Suess, 629
- The Disposal of Municipal Refuse, H. de B. Parsons, 630
- Garbage Crematories in America, W. M. Venable, 630
- On Carbohydrate Metabolism, with an Appendix on the Assimilation of Carbohydrate into Proteid and Fat, followed by the Fundamental Principles and the Treatment of Diabetes, dialectically discussed, Dr. F. W. Pavey, F.R.S., 631
- The Dynamics of Living Matter, Prof. Jacques Loeb, 631
- Geschmack und Geruch, Dr. Wilhelm Sternberg, 631
- The Electrical Nature of Matter and Radio-activity, Prof. Harry C. Jones, 632
- Résistance, Inductance et Capacité, M. J. Rodet, 633
- Natural Phenomena, a Collection of Descriptive and Speculative Essays on some of the By-paths of Nature, F. A. Black, 633
- A Text-book of General Zoology, Dr. Henry R. Linville and Dr. Henry A. Kelly, 633
- Science Readers, Book vii., Vincent T. Murché, 633
- Object Lessons in Elementary Science, Stage vii., Vincent T. Murché, 633
- Studies in Blood-pressure, Physiological and Clinical, Dr. George Oliver, 639
- Gregor Mendel's Briefe an Carl Nägeli, 1866-73, Ein Nachtrag zu den veröffentlichten Bastardierungsversuchen Mendels, 640
- The Ponca Sun Dance, G. A. Dorsey, 645
- LITERARY SUPPLEMENTS.
- Histological Studies on the Localisation of Cerebral Function, Dr. A. W. Campbell, Supp. to May 3, iii
- The Founders of Geology, Sir Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., Supp. to May 3, v
- Experimental Electrochemistry, N. Munroe Hopkins, Supp. to May 3, vi
- A People at School, H. Fielding Hall, Archibald R. Colquhoun, Supp. to May 3, vii
- Easy Mathematics of all Kinds, chiefly Arithmetic, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., Supp. to May 3, viii
- Arithmetic for Schools and Colleges, John Alison and John B. Clark, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Elementary Trigonometry, H. S. Hall and S. R. Knight, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Engineering Mathematics, Simply Explained, H. H. Harrison, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905 delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Sir Patrick Manson, Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, Supp. to May 3, ix
- Recent Advances in Physiology and Biochemistry, Supp. to May 3, x
- Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Dr. Max Planck, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii
- A Text-book of Botany, John M. Coulter, Supp. to October 11, v
- A First Course in Practical Botany, G. F. Scott Elliot, Supp. to October 11, v
- First Studies of Plant Life, G. F. Atkinson, Supp. to October 11, v
- A Text-book of Botany, M. Yates, Supp. to October 11, v
- Natural-colour Photography, Dr. E. König, Supp. to October 11, vi
- Colour-correct Photography, T. Thorne Baker, Supp. to October 11, vi
- Abhandlungen und Vorträge zur Geschichte der Naturwissenschaften, Prof. E. O. von Lippmann, Supp. to October 11, vii
- A System of Medicine, Supp. to October 11, viii
- A Course in Vertebrate Zoology, Dr. H. S. Pratt, Supp. to October 11, viii
- Compatriots' Club Lectures, Supp. to October 11, ix
- Manual of Forestry, Dr. W. Schlich, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, x
- Rhizopoda, British Fresh-water, James Cash and John Hopkinson, 52
- Rhynchota, vol. iii., Heteroptera—Homoptera, the Fauna of British India, including Ceylon and Burma, W. L. Distant, 220
- Rhys (Prof. John), Manx Archæology and Natural History, 223
- Ricco (Prof.), Italian Observations of the Total Solar Eclipse, 1905, 418; Colour and Spectra of Solar Prominences, 580
- Rice (H. H.), the Manufacture of Concrete Blocks and their Use in Building Construction, 608
- Rice Spirit: Hindu Method of Manufacturing Spirit from Rice, J. C. Ray, 96
- Rich (Miss E. M.), Constitution of Ammonium Amalgam, 93
- Richards (Mr.), Method for Calibrating Thermometers for Use in the Determination of Freezing Points of Aqueous Solutions, 451
- Richardson (Clifford), the Petroleums of North America, 547
- Richardson (Hugh), an Introduction to Practical Geography, 27; Education at the British Association, 501; the Rusting of Iron, 586
- Richardson (Dr. O. W.), Diurnal Variation of the Ionisation in Closed Vessels, 55; the Apparent Disappearance of Matter in Vacuum Tubes, 453; Ionisation produced by Hot Platinum in Different Gases, 579
- Ridgeway (Prof.), on Bronze Weapons and Implements found near Khinaman, 457; on the Origin of the Guitar and Fiddle, 457; on the Physical Characters of the Races of Britain, 458
- Riehl (Alois), Giordano Bruno, in Memoriam of the 17th February, 1600, 244
- Rio de Janeiro Observatory, the, 340
- Rivers (Dr. W. H. R.), on a Survival of Two-fold Origin, 458; on the Astronomy of the Islanders of the Torres Straits, 458; on the Physiological Value of Rest, 502
- Rivière (C.), Cultures du Midi de l'Algérie et de la Tunisie, 269
- Rix (Herbert), Death and Obituary Notice of, 615
- Robertson (Dr. R.), Purifying and Stabilising Gun-cotton, 215
- Robine (R.), the Cyanide Industry Theoretically and Practically Considered, 195
- Robinson (E. Kay), the Religion of Nature, 513
- Robinson (H. H.), on the Chemistry of Gums, 526
- Robinson (R.), a Third Mandibular Canal in the Infant, 652
- Robinson (T. R.), Butter-making on the Farm and at the Creamery, 6
- Rocks, the Making of, Dr. C. Doelter, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 242
- Rodet (A.), Experimental Infection by *Trypanosoma brucei*, the Destruction of the Parasite in the Spleen, 167
- Rodet (M. J.), Résistance, Inductance et Capacité, 633
- Roman Coins, Discovery of Seven Thousand, Aquila Dodgson, 20
- Romance of the South Seas, the, Clement L. Wragge, 53
- Roscoe (Sir H. E., F.R.S.), a Treatise on Chemistry, 267; the Life and Experiences of Sir Henry Enfield Roscoe, D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S., 289
- Rose (R. E.), the Alkylation of *l*-Arabinose, 311

- Rose (Dr. T. K.), the Cyanide Industry Theoretically and Practically Considered, R. Robine and M. Lenglen, 195
- Rosenberg (Dr.), the Nature of Fertilisation, 551
- Rosenberg (H.), a New Form of Wedge Photometer, 575
- Rosenhain (W.), Improved Metallurgical Microscope for Examination of Metal Specimens, 60; Deformation and Fracture of Iron and Mild Steel, 69; on the Deformation and Fracture of Iron and Steel, 500
- Ross (Alexander D.), the Date of Easter, 175
- Ross (Dr. F. E.), Elements and Ephemeris of Jupiter's Seventh Satellite, 306
- Ross (Prof. Ronald, F.R.S.), Malaria in Greece, 522
- Rossi (Prof. N.), New Method of Extracting Poor Sulphur Ores by Means of Bisulphide of Carbon, 66
- Rotation Period of Jupiter's Equatorial Region, Mr. Denning, 549
- Roth (Dr.), Message Sticks, 110
- Roth (Georg), die europäischen Laubmoose, 170
- Rothamsted Experimental Station, Opening of a New Laboratory at the, 307
- Rothamsted Experiments, the Book of the, A. D. Hall, Prof. T. H. Middleton, 121
- Rothschild (Hon. N. C.), Transmission of Plague by Fleas, 616
- Routh (Dr. E. J., F.R.S.), the Motion of a Swarm of Particles the Centre of Gravity of which Describes an Elliptic Orbit of Small Eccentricity round the Sun, 71; the Mixed Transformation of Lagrange's Equations, 516
- Roux (Émile), Vaccination against Tuberculosis by the Digestive Tracts, 216
- Rowntree (Seeböhm), on the Minimum Proteid Value in Diet, 479
- Royal Astronomical Society, 119, 191
- Royal College of Physicians, Harveian Oration at the, the Growth of Truth, Dr. William Osler, 642
- Royal Dublin Society, 166, 142, 311
- Royal Institution, International Science, Prof. Arthur Schuster, F.R.S., 233, 256; Man and the Glacial Period, Prof. Sollas, F.R.S., at, 372
- Royal Irish Academy, 142, 166, 374
- Royal Meteorological Society, 23, 94, 215
- Royal Microscopical Society, 141, 261
- Royal Observatory, Greenwich, the, 135
- Royal Photographic Society's Annual Exhibition, 553
- Royal Society: Royal Society, 22, 47, 70, 118, 104, 190, 214, 238, 260, 342, 407, 459, 482, 500, 531, 555, 579, 603, 626; Bakerian Lecture at, Recent Advances in Seismology, Prof. John Milne, F.R.S., 42; Royal Society Conversazione, 59, 203; the Figure and Stability of a Liquid Satellite, Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 115; the Royal Society, or Science in the State and in the Schools, Sir William Huggins, K.C.B., O.M., &c., 466; Death and Obituary Notice of Herbert Rix, 615
- Royal Society, Edinburgh: Royal Society, Edinburgh, 94, 191, 215, 263, 375, 483; the Tarpan and its Relationship with Wild and Domestic Horses, Prof. J. C. Ewart, F.R.S., 113; the Royal Society of Edinburgh and the National Galleries of Scotland Bill, 137; the Royal Society of Edinburgh and the Government, 150; the Meteorology of the Free Atmosphere, L. Teisserenc de Bort at, 255
- Royal Society, New South Wales, 264, 460
- Royal Society of Sciences, Göttingen, 143, 408
- Royalty, Mental and Moral Heredity in, Frederick Adams Woods, 97
- Rubens (Prof. H.), New Apparatus for Determining the Mechanical Equivalent of Heat or Thermal Capacity of Water, 40
- Rubens (Dr. H.), on the Nature of the Radiation from Gas Mantles, 454; Researches on Nearly Pure Gaseous Ozone, 455
- Rückenmark, Gehirn und Leitfaden für das Studium der Morphologie und des Faserverlaufs, Dr. Emil Villiger, 442
- Rudler (F. W.), on the "Red Hills" of the East Coast Salt Marshes, 457
- Russell (A.), Dead Points of a Galvanometer Needle for Transient Currents, 93
- Russell (Dr. E. J.), on Oxidation in Soils and its Relation to Productiveness, 526
- Russell (H. L.), Longevity of *Bacillus typhosus* in Natural Waters and in Sewage, 280
- Russell (Prof. I. C.), Death of, 84; Obituary Notice of, 226
- Russell (James), Superposition of Mechanical Vibrations upon Magnetisation, and Conversely in Iron, Steel, and Nickel, 94
- Russia: Russian Astronomical Observations, 253; Russian Geographical Works, 476; the Story of Yedigei and Toktamysch, 477
- Rusting of Iron, the, Dr. G. T. Moody, 116, 564; J. Newton Friend, 540, 610; Hugh Richardson, 586
- Rutherford (Prof. E., F.R.S.), some Scientific Centres, VIII., the MacDonald Physics Building, McGill University, Montreal, 272; the Relative Proportion of Radium and Uranium in Radio-active Minerals, 451; Velocity of the α Particle Emitted by Radium C at Various Points of its Path, Measured by, 547; Absorption of the Radio-active Emanation by Charcoal, 634; the Recent Radium Controversy, 634
- Ruwenzori, the Ascent of, Duke of the Abruzzi, Signor Vittorio Sella, 528
- Ryan (Prof. Hugh), Action of Emulsine on β -Glycosides, 374
- Sabatier (Paul), Use of Metallic Oxides as Catalysers in Oxidation, 240
- Sabine (Wallace C.), Acoustical Properties of Buildings, 368
- Sacken (Baron C. R. von der Osten), Death of, 108; Obituary Notice of, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 180
- Sadler (Prof. M. E.), Opening Address in Section L at the Meeting of the British Association at York, 501
- St. Petersburg, Publications of the Nicholas Observatory, 135
- Saleeby (Dr. C. W.), Evolution the Master-key, 122; Psychology, Sociology, Ethics, 560
- Salisbury (Rollin D.), Geology, Earth History, 557
- Salmon (E. S.), White Mildew Disease on *Euonymus japonicus* in the South of England, 16; Cherry Leaf Scorch, 649
- Salmon (Georges), Death of, 449
- Salmon Fishing, W. Earl Hodgson, 568
- San Francisco Earthquake of April 18, the, Dr. T. J. J. See, 30; see Earthquakes
- Sandbach (F. E.), a First German Course for Science Students, 78
- Sanders (J. McConnell), Pipitzahoic Acid, 93
- Sands (D. L.), Elementary Electrical Calculations, 608
- Sang (Alfred), the First Mention of Petroleum in North and South America, 338
- Sanitation: Sanitation and Malaria in the Roman Campagna, 156; Sanitary Congress at Bristol, 282; the Disposal of Municipal Refuse, H. de B. Parsons, 630; Garbage Crematories in America, W. M. Veronesi, 630
- Sapper (C.), Mexican and Central American Antiquities, Calendar Systems and History, 30
- Satellites: Observations of Satellites in 1904 and 1905, Prof. R. G. Aitken, 42; Observations of Satellites, Prof. Barnard, 499; the Figure and Stability of a Liquid Satellite, Sir G. H. Darwin, K.C.B., F.R.S., 115; Elements and Ephemeris of Jupiter's Seventh Satellite, Dr. F. E. Ross, 306; Jupiter's Seventh Satellite, Prof. Perrine, 619; see also Astronomy
- Saturn's Satellites, Photometric Observations of, Dr. P. Guthnick, 210
- Savarè (B.), the Blue Substance formed by the Action of Iodine on Starch Paste, 473-4
- Saville-Kent (W.), the Coral-frequenting Fishes of Polynesia, 204
- Sawfly, a Larch, in Cumberland, 529
- Schaeberle (Prof.), the Period of β Lyræ, 65
- Schaer (Emil), New Forms of Astrographic Object Glasses, 231
- Schäfer (Prof. E. A., F.R.S.), Action of Pituitary Extracts upon the Kidney, 190
- Schaffers (V.), a Horizontal Rainbow, 125
- Scharff (Dr. R. F.), Irish Cave Exploration, 138
- Schäudinn (Fritz), Death and Obituary Notice of, 496-7

- Schellhas (P.), Mexican and Central American Antiquities, Calendar Systems and History, 30
- Schellwien (Dr. Ernst), Death of, 108
- Scherren (Henry), the Zoological Society of London, a Sketch of its Foundation and Development, and the Story of its Farm, Museum, Gardens, Menagerie, and Library, 129
- Schiaparelli (Prof. G.), Astronomy in the Old Testament, 410
- Schiller (K.), Magnitudes and Places of 251 Pleiades Stars, 306
- Schlich (Dr. W., F.R.S.), Manual of Forestry, Supp. 10 October 11, x
- Schlichter (H.), Electrical Organs of the Proboscis-fish, 592
- Schlomann (Alfred), the Deinhardt-Schlomann Series of Technical Dictionaries in Six Languages, English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian, 6
- Schmidt (Dr. Rudolf), New Element Present as an Impurity in Krypton and Xenon, 499
- Schmiedeknecht (Dr. O.), die wirbelthiere Europa's mit Berücksichtigung der Faunen von Vorderasien und Nordafrika, 463
- Schofield (Dr. A. T.), the Management of a Nerve Patient, 440
- School Gardening for Little Children, Lucy R. Latter, 411
- Schorlemmer (C., F.R.S.), a Treatise on Chemistry, 267
- Schreiner (Oswald), Behaviour of Manures in Soils, 339
- Schuchert (Charles), Smithsonian Institution, Bulletin of the United States Museum, Fossil Invertebrates, 163
- Schulhof (L.), Search-ephemeris for Finlay's Comet, 231; Finlay's Comet, 253; Rediscovery of Finlay's Comet (1906d), 282; Finlay's Comet (1906d), 339, 371, 386, 417, 453, 499, 575
- Schuster (Prof. Arthur, F.R.S.), International Science, Discourse at Royal Institution, 233, 256; Indifference of Radio-activity to Temperature Changes, 453; on the Irregular Motions of the Earth's Pole, 455
- Schuster (Edgar), Noteworthy Families (Modern Science), 97
- Schuster (E.), Hereditary Deafness in Man, 63, 108
- Schuyten (Dr. M. C.), Differences of Temperature in Chemical Drying Cupboards, 17
- Schwarz (C. de), Use of Oxygen in Removing Blast-furnace Obstructions, 68
- Schweidler (Dr. Egon von), Polonium Identical with Radium F, 185; Radio-lead a Mixture of Radium D, Radium E, and Radium F, 185
- Sciamanna (M.), the Localisation of Functions in the Frontal and Pre-frontal Regions, 416
- Science: a First German Course for Science Students, Prof. H. G. Fiedler and F. E. Sandbach, 78; the Royal Society of Edinburgh and the National Galleries of Scotland Bill, 137; the Royal Society of Edinburgh and the Government, 150; Lectures on the Method of Science, 149; the South-Eastern Union of Scientific Societies, 161; the Scientific Roll and Magazine of Systematised Notes, 174; the Scientific Temper in Religion, and other Addresses, Rev. P. N. Waggett, 217; International Science, Prof. Arthur Schuster, F.R.S., at Royal Institution, 233, 256; the Sporadic Publication of Scientific Papers, 319; Interrelation of the Academical Sciences, Dr. Shadworth H. Hodgson, 337; German Grammar for Science Students, Prof. W. A. Osborne and Ethel E. Osborne, 380; the Relations between Science and Industry, Prof. G. Lippmann, 386; German Scientific and Technological Reader, E. Classen and J. Lustgarten, 583; Forthcoming Books of Science, 599; Science Readers, Book vii., Vincent T. Murché, 633; Object Lessons in Elementary Science, Stage vii., Vincent T. Murché, 633
- Scientific Centres, some, VIII., the MacDonald Physics Building, McGill University, Montreal, Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S., A. S. Eve, 272; IX., the Metallurgical Department of the Sheffield University, Prof. J. O. Arnold, 541
- Scoble (W. A.), on the Strength and Behaviour of Ductile Materials under Combined Stress, 501
- Scotland: the Geology of Mid-Argyll, J. B. Hill, B. N. Peach, C. T. Clough, H. Kynaston, J. J. H. Teall, and J. S. Flett, 9; Iona, Elizabeth A. McHardy, 197
- Scott (Andrew), Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel, 19
- Scott (Dr. D. H., F.R.S.), Structure of some Carboniferous Ferns, 261; on some Aspects of the Present Position of Palaeozoic Botany, 575
- Screw Propeller, the Geometry of the, W. J. Goudie, 350
- Sea, Summer Temperatures of the North, 212
- Sea, the Opal, John C. Van Dyke, 269
- Sea-fishery Authorities and Regulations, British Fisheries, their Administration and their Problems, a Short Account of the Origin and Growth of British, James Johnstone, 535
- Sea-level, the Geological History of the, 629
- Sea-serpent, the, Messrs. Nicoll and Meade-Waldo, 202
- Seager (R. B.), American Explorations in Crete, 469
- Searle (G. F. C., F.R.S.), the Magnetic Inertia of a Charged Sphere in a Field of Electric Force, 198
- Sedgwick (William), Death and Obituary Notice of, 641
- See (Dr. T. J. J.), the San Francisco Earthquake of April 18, 30; Volcanoes and Radio-activity, 444
- Seeds, Suspended Germination of, 540; G. Claridge Druce, 586; Archibald Buchan-Hepburn, 636
- Segregation as a Factor in Evolution, 486
- Seismology: Recent Advances in Seismology, Bakerian Lecture at Royal Society, Prof. John Milne, F.R.S., 42; les Tremblements de Terre, Géographie Séismologique, Comte F. de Montessus de Ballore, 76; the Great San Francisco Earthquake, 133; Charles Van Norden, 133; Possible Connection between the Recent Disturbance at Vesuvius and San Francisco, Rev. H. V. Gill, 166; the Californian Earthquake of April 18, 178; Report upon the Californian Earthquake of April 18, 285; Earthquake in California according to the Preliminary Official Report, A. de Lapparent, 287; the Californian Earthquake, Prof. Campbell, 524; Possible Relationship between Volcanic Action and Radio-activity, Major C. E. Dutton, 184; the Earthquake in South Wales, Dr. Charles Davison, 225; the Earthquake in South America, 412; Horizontal Pendulums and Earthquake Echoes, Dr. C. Coleridge Farr, 515; Prof. John Milne, F.R.S., 515
- Seler (E.), Mexican and Central American Antiquities, Calendar Systems and History, 30
- Seligmann (Dr. C. G.), Two Years among New Guinea Cannibals, A. E. Pratt and H. Pratt, 58
- Sella (Vittorio), the Ascent of Ruwenzori, 528
- Sender (Dr. G.), Electrolysis of Dilute Solutions of Acids and Alkalis at Low Potentials, Dissolving of Platinum at the Anode by a Direct Current, 311
- Serotherapy: Anti-typhoid Vaccine, Captain George Lamb and Captain W. B. C. Forster, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 91; on the Properties of an Antityphoid Serum obtained from the Goat, Dr. Allan Macfadyen, 118; Protective Inoculation against Tuberculosis, Dr. Calmette and M. Guérin, 182; Experimental Production of Tubercle Bacillus and of Anti-tuberculous Vaccine, S. Arloing, 240; Snake-bite in India, 277; the Pasteur Institute, 415; an Antitoxin for Poisonous Fungi, Dr. Ford, 529
- Serviss (G. P.), a Novel Planisphere, 645
- Seton (E. T.), Animal Heroes, being the Histories of a Cat, a Dog, a Pigeon, a Lynx, two Wolves, and a Reindeer, 295
- Seward (A. C., F.R.S.), Status of the Mesozoic Floras of the United States, Lester F. Ward, William M. Fontaine, Arthur Bibbins, and G. R. Wieland, 81; on the Structure and Wound-reactions of the Mesozoic Genus *Brachyphyllum*, 576
- Seyewetz (A.), Production of Aromatic Sulphamates by the Reduction of Nitro-compounds with Sodium Hydro-sulphite, 95
- Seymour-Browne (Cecil), the Discovery of Logarithms, 174
- Shadow Bands, Observations of, Dr. M. Roso de Luna, 135
- Shaler (Prof. N. S.), Obituary Notice of, 226
- Shaw (Fred. G.), the Science of Dry Fly Fishing, 568
- Shaw (Dr. P. E.), Electrical Measuring Machine, 22; Dielectric Strength of Thin Liquid Films, 262
- Shaw (Dr. W. N., F.R.S.), Atmospheric Circulation and its Relation to Weather, 38; Normal General Circulation of the Atmosphere at the Surface and in the Upper Air, and the Relation of Temperature and Rainfall to the General Circulation and Local Disturbances, 63; Rainfall, 110; the Life-history of Surface Air-currents, a

- Study of the Surface Trajectories of Moving Air, 162;
Meteorological Data, 635
- Shearer (C.), Cell Communications between Blastomeres, 47
- Sheep, Diseases of, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 623
- Sheffield University, some Scientific Centres, IX., the Metallurgical Department of the, Prof. J. O. Arnold, 541
- Sheldon (J. L.), the Ripe Rot or Mummy Disease of Guavas, 280
- Shepherd (F. G.), Action of Magnesium Methyl Iodide on Dextralimonene Nitroschlorides, 190
- Shepherd (E. S.), Small Plates of Quartz Glass Suitable for Optical Apparatus, 87; Lime-silica Series of Minerals, 644
- Shepherd (F. R.), Agriculture in St. Kitts, 593
- Sheppard (T.), an Account of Excavations in Another Anglo-Saxon Cemetery at South Cave, Yorkshire, 457
- Sherrington (Prof. C. S., F.R.S.), Reciprocal Innervation of Antagonistic Muscles, Successive Induction, 47
- Shipbuilding, Notes on, and Nautical Terms of Old in the North, E. Magnusson, 77
- Short-focus Reflectors, the Utility of, Dr. A. Berberich, 595
- Shrubsall (Dr.), on the Physical Characters of the Races of Britain, 458
- Siboga, Ein Jahr an Bord I.M.S., Frau A. Weber, 196
- Silberrad (Dr. O.), Recently Devised Stability Test for Cordite, 204; Decomposition of Nitrocellulose, 262
- Sillem (Charles), the British Woodlice, being a Monograph of the Terrestrial Isopod Crustacea occurring in the British Islands, 99
- Simmonds (C.), Butter-making on the Farm and at the Creamery, C. W. Walker-Tisdale and T. R. Robinson, 6
- Simmons (A. T.), an Introduction to Practical Geography, 27
- Simms (Alexander), Report of the Geodetic Survey of Part of Southern Rhodesia executed by, under the Direction of Sir David Gill, 554
- Simon (L. J.), Action of Ammonia on Ethyl Glyoxylate, 24
- Simpson (George C.), Diurnal Variation of Ionisation in Closed Vessels, 8; Report of the Directors of the Meteorological Office upon an Inquiry into the Relation between the Estimates of Wind-force according to Admiral Beaufort's Scale, and the Velocities recorded by Anemometers belonging to the Office, 106; Remarkable Rainbow Phenomena, 541
- Simpson (R. R.), Coalfields in the Shan States, 40
- Sitter (Dr. W. de), Useful Tables and Formulae for Astronomical Computations, 185; Tables for Photographic Parallax-observations, 341
- Sjögren (Dr. H.), the Eruption of Vesuvius, 7
- Sky, a Study of the, Prof. Herbert A. Howie, 315
- Slichter (Prof.), the Movement of Underground Water Investigations on Field Measurements, 89
- Sly (F. G.), Artificial Manures for India, 649
- Smiles (S.), Action of Sulphur Dioxide and Aluminium Chloride on Aromatic Compounds, 190
- Smith (Erwin F.), Bacteria in Relation to Plant Diseases, 294
- Smith (G. F. Herbert), Precious Stones and Simple Methods for their Identification, 204
- Smith (Dr. H. Carlton), Lecture Notes on Chemistry for Dental Students, 315
- Smith (J.), on an Application of Stream-line Apparatus to the Determination of the Direction and Approximate Magnitude of the Principal Stresses in Certain Portions of the Structure of Ships, 501
- Smith (Dr. R.), Phylogeny of Gastropod of the Eocene Genus *Volutilithes*, 156
- Smithells (Prof. Arthur, F.R.S.), the Oscillation of Flame Cones, 80; on School Training for the Home Duties of Women, 502
- Smithsonian Institution: Bulletin of the United States National Museum, Fossil Invertebrates, Charles Schuchert, W. H. Dall, T. W. Stanton, and R. S. Bassler, 163
- Smurthwaite (T. E.), on Photographs of Racial Types, 458
- Snakes, Statistics of Mortality from, and Bites, 39
- Snelus (George James, F.R.S.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 207
- Snowdon (R. C.), Metallic Lead Electrolytically Deposited from an Acidified Solution of Lead Acetate, 452
- Snyder (Harry), Dairy Chemistry, 243
- Society of Arts, the Languages of India and the Linguistic Survey, Dr. G. A. Grierson at, 283
- Society of Chemical Industry, 94, 142, 215
- Sociological Papers, 29
- Sociology, Dr. C. W. Saleeby, 560
- Sodalite, Fugitive Coloration of, Jas. Currie, 564
- Soddy (Frederick), the Positive Charge carried by the α Particle, 316; the Nature of the α Ray, 385; the Evolution of the Elements, 453; on Radio-activity and the Internal Structure of the Earth, 454; on the Positive Charge carried by the Alpha Particle of Radium C, 455; the Recent Controversy on Radium, 516
- Soil and its Tillage, the, 4
- Solar Eclipse of January, 1908, the Total, Dr. Downing, 18
- Solar Eclipse of January, 1907, the Total, W. T. Lynn, 548
- Solar Eclipse, Italian Observations of the Total, 1905, Prof. Ricco, 418
- Solar Eye-piece, a Modified Form of, Prof. Ceraski, 453
- Solar and Lunar Cycles implied in the Prophetic Numbers in the Book of Daniel, Dr. W. Bell Dawson, 154
- Solar and Lunar Halos, Rowland A. Earp, 150
- Solar Phenomena, 1906, Observations of, Prof. Mascari, 525
- Solar Prominences during 1905, Prof. Mascari, 65
- Solar Radiation, Terrestrial Temperatures and the, C. G. Abbot, 112
- Sollas (Prof. W. J.), Recumbent Folds produced as a Result of Flow, 239; Man and the Glacial Period, Lecture at Royal Institution, 372
- Solomon (Henry G.), Electricity Meters, a Treatise on the General Principles, Construction, and Testing of Continuous Current and Alternating Current Meters for the Use of Electrical Engineers and Students, 219
- Solomon (Maurice), Telegraphy, T. E. Herbert, 290; the Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy, Prof. J. A. Fleming, 290; Wireless Telegraphy, Dr. Gustav Eichorn, 290; Wireless Telegraphy, W. J. White, 290
- South (Richard), the Butterflies of the British Isles, 465
- South Africa, Geodetic Operations in, Alexander Simms, 554; Sir David Gill, 554
- South African Philosophical Society, 288, 376
- South-Eastern Union of Scientific Societies, the, 161
- South Seas, the Romance of the, Clement L. Wragge, 53
- Southerden (F.), Carbon Dioxide in the Breath, 81
- Spearman (Dr. C.), German Congress of Experimental Psychology, 45
- Spectroheliograph, a New Form of, G. Millochau and M. Stéfaniik, 386
- Spectrum Analysis: Luminous Particles in the Chromosphere, Dr. Deslandres, 18; Contribution to the Study of the Infra-red Spectrum, Milan Stefanik, 71; Study of the Infra-red Region of the Spectrum, Milan Stefanik, 184; Photography of the Infra-red Spectrum, G. Millochau, 240; Binocular Spectroscope, Dr. W. Marshall Watts, 60; Spectra of Alloys, J. de Kowalski and P. B. Huber, 72; the Ultra-violet Portion of the Spectrum of a High-tension Arc in Air, Prof. B. Walter, 87; Extreme Ultra-violet Spectrum of Hydrogen, Theodore Lyman, 87; the Ultra-violet Spectrum of Ytterbium, Sir William Crookes, F.R.S., 343; Spectrum of Nova Aquilæ No. 2, 87; Relation between Absorption Spectra and Chemical Constitution, the Isonitroso-compounds, E. C. C. Baly, Miss E. G. Marsden, and A. W. Stewart, 03; Relation between Absorption Spectra and Chemical Constitution, the Phenylhydrazones of Simple Aldehydes and Ketones, E. C. C. Baly and W. B. Tuck, 141; New Arrangement for the Spectroscopy of Phosphorescent Substances, C. de Watteville, 110; Sun-spot and Chromospheric Spectra, Prof. A. Fowler, 135; the Green Colour of Plants, Prof. E. Stahl, 157; Photographing the Corona without a Total Eclipse, MM. Millochau and Stefanik, 158; Influence of a very Strong Magnetic Field on the Spark Spectra of Palladium, Rhodium, and Ruthenium, J. E. Purvis, 191; Experiments on the Band Spectrum of Nitrogen in a Magnetic Field of 41,000 Units, J. E. Purvis, 191; Stars with

- Peculiar Spectra, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., and F. E. Baxandall, 214; an Objective-prism Comparison Spectrograph, de Lisle Stewart, 253; Method for the Study of the Movements of Metallic Vapours in the Oscillating Spark, G. A. Hemsalech, 263; Sensibility of the Retina for Luminous Radiations, Milan Stefánik, 264; the Fluorescence of Anthracene Vapour, T. S. Elston, 385; Messrs. Wratten and Wainwright's Pan-chromatic Plates, 417; the Spectra of Sun-spots and Red Stars, Prof. Hale and Prof. Adams, 418; Sir Norman Lockyer, 418; Relation between the Spectra of Sun-spots and Stars, W. S. Adams, 595; Sun-spot Spectra Observations, W. M. Mitchell, 619; Spectroscopic Observations of the Rotation of the Sun, Dr. J. Halm, 484; New Element Present as an Impurity in Krypton and Xenon, Dr. Baly, 499; Dr. Rudolf Schmidt, 499; Colour and Spectra of Solar Prominences, M. Ricco, 580; the Mount Wilson Spectroscopic Laboratory, 595; Influence of Electric Fields on Spectral Lines, Prof. G. F. Hull, 603
- Speed and Stability in Railway Travelling, G. R. Dunell, 637
- Spence (M.), Remarkable Rainbow Phenomena, 516
- Spencer (Herbert), Prof. J. Arthur Thomson, 533
- Spencer (Dr. J. F.), Experiments on the Chemical and Electrical Changes induced by Ultra-violet Light, 455
- Spherical Astronomy, a Compendium of, with its Applications to the Determination and Reduction of Positions of the Fixed Stars, Prof. Simon Newcomb, 379
- Spitsbergen, the Early History of, Sir Martin Conway, 381
- Spitta (E. J.), Experiments relating to the Compound Eyes of Insects, 109
- Sporadic Publication of Scientific Papers, the, 319
- Stability of Submarines, the, Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 128, 270; J. H. Jeans, 270
- Stahl (Prof. E.), the Green Colour of Plants, 157
- Stanton (T. W.), Smithsonian Institution, Bulletin of the United States Museum, Fossil Vertebrates, 163
- Stapf (Dr. Otto), Exalbuminous Grass-seeds, 61; the Aconites of India, 170
- Starling (Prof. E. H., F.R.S.), the Factors which determine the Growth and Activity of the Mammary Glands, 22
- Stars: New Catalogue of Double Stars, Prof. R. G. Aitken, 18; Measures of Double and Multiple Stars, Prof. Doolittle, 88; New Double Stars, Rev. T. E. Espin, 211; Double Star Measures, Dr. G. van Biesbroeck, 371; Colours and Magnitudes of Double Stars, Mr. Lewis, 549; the Luminosity of the Brighter Stars, George Comstock, 41; the Variable Radial Velocity of ϵ Aurigæ, Dr. H. Ludendorff, 41; Early Observations of Eros, 42; New Variable Stars in Orion, Prof. Max Wolf, 42; the Period of β Lyrae, Prof. Schaeberle, 65; Stereo-comparator Discoveries of Proper Motions, Prof. Max Wolf, 87; Spectrum of Nova Aquilæ No. 2, 87; Magnitude Observations of, Dr. Guthnick, 253; New Reduction of Groombridge's Circumpolar Catalogue for the Epoch 1810-0, F. W. Dyson, F.R.S., and W. G. Thackeray, 90; the Distribution of the Stars, Prof. Kapteyn, 112; Observations of Nova Persei No. 2, Messrs. Townley and Maddrell, 135; Stars with Variable Radial Velocities, J. H. Moore, 135; Prof. Frost, 135; Observations of Nova Geminorum, Prof. Barnard, 158; Observations of Variable Stars, Miss Leavitt, 158; S. D. Townley, 159; Radial Velocity of α Draconis, H. Ludendorff, 185; Stars with Peculiar Spectra, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S., and F. E. Baxandall, 214; Stereo-scopic Measurement of Proper Motions, Prof. Max Wolf, 231; Preliminary Experiments on the Photographic Transit, S. Hirayama, 254; the Orbit of Castor, Dr. H. D. Curtis, 282; Magnitudes and Places of 251 Pleiades Stars, K. Schiller, 306; an Unexplained Observation, Prof. Barnard, 339; Components of the Proper Motions and other Quantities for the Stars of Bradley, Prof. J. C. Kapteyn, 341; Catalogue of 1772 Stars chiefly comprised within the Zone 85° - 90° N.P.D. for the Epoch 1000, deduced from Observations made at the Radcliffe Observatory, Oxford, during the Years 1804-1003, under the Direction of Prof. Arthur A. Rambaut, F.R.S., 341; a Compendium of Spherical Astronomy, with its Applications to the Determination and Reduction of Positions of the Fixed Stars, Prof. Simon Newcomb, 379; the Spectra of Sun-spots and Red Stars, Prof. Hale and Prof. Adams, 418; Sir Norman Lockyer, 418; Occultation of a Star by Venus, Dr. Downing, 575; Observations of Long-period Variables, Prof. A. A. Nijland, 595; Relation between the Spectra of Sun-spots and Stars, W. S. Adams, 595; Observations of Variable Stars, E. S. Haynes, 619
- Stassano (Ernesto), Rotating Electric Steel Furnace in the Artillery Construction Works, Turin, 23
- State, the Place of the Modern University in the, 589
- Statistics: Relation of Fertility in Man to Social Status, Studies in National Deterioration, David Heron, 451; Birth-rate of Blackpool, Sir James Crichton-Browne, 545
- Stauffer (D. McNeely), Modern Tunnel Practice, 409
- Stead (J. E.), on the Crystalline Structure of Metals, 500
- Steam Boilers and Manufactures, Treatment of Water for, W. H. Booth, 464
- Stebbing (E. P.), *Termes gestroi*, Parasite of Para Rubber Trees, 85; Departmental Notes on the Insects that affect Forestry, 160
- Steel (T.), Oceanic Physics, 95; Question of Rabbit Destruction, 95; Destruction of Animals in Australia, Address at Linnean Society, New South Wales, 188
- Steel Institute, Iron and, 340
- Steel Manufacture, the Principles and Practice of Iron and, Walter Macfarlane, 197
- Steel, Molecular Changes in Nickel, C. E. Stromeyer, 223
- Stefanelli (Dr. P.), the n -Rays, 17
- Stefanik (M.), Method of Study of the Solar Corona at other Times than during Eclipses, 47; Contribution to the Study of the Infra-red Spectrum, 71; Photographing the Corona without a Total Eclipse, 112, 158; Study of the Infra-red Region of the Spectrum, 184; Sensibility of the Retina for Luminous Radiations, 264; a New Form of Spectroheliograph, 386
- Stephens (Dr. J. W. W.), Report to the Government of British Honduras upon the Outbreak of Yellow Fever in that Colony in 1905, together with an Account of the Distribution of the *Stegomyia fasciata* in Belize, and the Measures Necessary to Stamp Out or Prevent the Recurrence of Yellow Fever, Dr. Rubert Boyce, F.R.S., 299; Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905, delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Sir Patrick Manson, Supp. to May 3, ix
- Stereo-comparator Discoveries of Proper Motions, Prof. Max Wolf, 87
- Stereoscopic Measurement of Proper Motions, Prof. Max Wolf, 231
- Sternberg (Dr. Wilhelm), Geschmack und Geruch, 631
- Stevens (Miss C. O.), Value of a Projected Image of the Sun for Meteorological Study, 23
- Stevenson (Matilda Cox), the Zuñi Indians, their Mythology, Esoteric Fraternities, and Ceremonies, 30
- Stewart (A. W.), Relation between Absorption Spectra and Chemical Constitution, the Isonitroso-compounds, 93
- Stewart (de Lisle), an Objective-prism Comparison Spectrograph, 253
- Stieltjes, Correspondance d'Hermite et de, 265
- Stirling (William), New Theories in Astronomy, 341
- Stoneman (Bertha), Plants and their Ways in South Africa, 221
- Stonham (Charles), the Birds of the British Islands, 607
- Stony (G.), on Recent Advances in Steam Turbines, Land and Marine, 501
- Stopes (Miss M. C.), New Fern from the Coal-measures, 386; on the Formation of the well-known Calcareous Nodules found in the Coal Seams of the Lower Coal-measures, 576
- Story-Maskelyne (Thereza), Ancient Fire Festivals, 80
- Strachan (J.), Carnmoney Chalcedony, 336
- Stratton (Prof. G. M.), the Character of Consciousness, 416
- Stress in Magnetised Iron, Shelford Bidwell, F.R.S., 317; Dr. C. Chree, F.R.S., 539
- Strife, the Unit of, E. K. Garrod, 217
- Stromeyer (C. E.), Molecular Changes in Nickel Steel, 223
- Strömgren (E.), Comets 1906a and 1906c, 18
- Structures and Strength of Materials, Theory of, Prof. Henry T. Bovey, 243

- Strutt (Hon. R. J., F.R.S.), Distribution of Radium in the Earth's Crust and on the Earth's Internal Heat, 70; Distribution of Radium in the Earth's Crust, 407; the Evolution of the Elements, 453; on Radio-activity and the Internal Structure of the Earth, 454; Radium and Geology, 610
- Studnička (Dr. F. K.), Lehrbuch der vergleichenden mikroskopischen Anatomie der Wirbeltiere, Part v., Parietal Organ, 145
- Sub-conscious, the, Joseph Jastrow, 533
- Subaqueous Works, Tunnel Shields and the Use of Compressed Air in, W. C. Copperthwaite, 348
- Submarines, the Stability of, Sir W. H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S., 128, 270; J. H. Jeans, 270
- Subterranean Geography, 314
- Suess (Prof. Eduard), the Face of the Earth (Das Antlitz der Erde), 629
- Summer Temperatures of the North Sea, 212
- Sun: Terrestrial Temperatures and the Solar Radiation, C. G. Abbot, 112; Discussion of the Faculae Observations, Prof. Mascari, 185; the Figure of the Sun, Dr. Poor, 210; Dr. Ambronn, 210; Radiative Power of the Sun's Disc, Prof. Julius, 231; Observations of Solar Phenomena, 1906, Prof. Mascari, 525; Sun-spot and Chromospheric Spectra, Prof. A. Fowler, 135; the Spectra of Sun-spots and Red Stars, Prof. Hale and Prof. Adams, 418; Sir Norman Lockyer, 418; Greenwich Sun-spot Numbers, 453; the Colours of Sun-spots, Th. Hansen, 548; Relation between the Spectra of Sun-spots and Stars, W. S. Adams, 595; Sun-spot Spectra Observations, W. M. Mitchell, 619; *see also* Astronomy
- Sun Dance, the, Ponca, G. A. Dorsey, 645
- Surface Air-currents, the Life-history of, a Study of the Surface Trajectories of Moving Air, Dr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S., and R. G. K. Lempfert, 162
- Surinam, an Enumeration of the Vascular Plants from, Dr. A. Pulle, 170
- Surveying: Report of the Indian Survey Committee, 1904-5, 67; Text-book of Topographical and Geographical Surveying, Major C. F. Close, 98; an Elementary Treatise on Phototopographic Methods and Instruments, J. A. Flemer, 172; an Account of the Scientific Work of the Survey of India, and a Comparison of its Progress with that of Foreign Surveys, prepared for Use of the Survey Committee, 1905, Lieut.-Colonel S. G. Burrard, F.R.S., 301
- Suspended Germination of Seeds, 540; G. Claridge Druce, 586; Archibald Buchan-Hepburn, 636
- Swanton (E. W.), Prehistoric Remains found during Recent Years near Haslemere, 207
- Swanton (John R.), Haida Texts and Myths, Skidegate Dialect, 30
- Swinburne (Mr.), on the Nature of the Radiation from Gas Mantles, 454
- Swinton (A. A. C.), Visibly Luminous Electrical Discharges *in vacuo* obtained with Comparatively Low Electrical Pressures, 204; Effect of Radium in Facilitating the Visible Electric Discharge *in vacuo*, 262
- Sy (M. F.), Observations of the Kopff Comet, 508
- Sykes (Major P. Molesworth), on Bronze Weapons and Implements found near Khinaman, 456
- Symes (Richard Glascott), Death of, 382
- Syphilis, Transmission and Prophylaxis of, Prof. Metchnikoff, 62
- System of Medicine, a, Supp. to October 11, viii
- Tacchini (the late Prof.), a Memorial to the, 417
- Takaki (Baron), Beri-beri, 62
- Talbot (W. A.), Distribution of the Forest Flora of the Bombay Presidency and Sind, 134
- Tanret (Georges), Melezitose and Turanose, 240
- Tansley (Mr.), on the Phylogenetic Value of the Vascular Structure of Seedlings, 576
- Tarawera Volcanic Rift, New Zealand, the, James Mackintosh Bell, 88
- Tariff Reform and the Empire, Supp. to October 11, ix
- Tarpan, the, and its Relationship with Wild and Domestic Horses, Prof. J. C. Ewart, F.R.S., 113
- Taylor (Rev. C. S.), the Date of Easter, 200; Remarkable Rainbow Phenomena, 541
- Taylor (Henry C.), an Introduction to the Study of Agricultural Economics, 193
- Taylor (T. G.), First Recorded Occurrence of Blastoidea in New South Wales, 95
- Taylor (Dr. W. W.), Viscosity of Solutions, 375; Two Lecture Experiments in Illustration of the Theory of Ionisation, 375
- Teall (J. J. H.), the Geology of Mid-Argyll, 9
- Tegetmeier (W. B.), Races of Domestic Poultry, Edward Brown, 13
- Telegraphy: Telegraphic Determinations of Longitude made in the Years 1888-1902, 90; Commercial Application of Wireless Telegraphy, 250; Telegraphy, T. E. Herbert, Maurice Solomon, 290; the Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy, Dr. J. A. Fleming, Maurice Solomon, 290; Wireless Telegraphy, Dr. Gustav Eichorn, Maurice Solomon, 290; Wireless Telegraphy, W. J. White, Maurice Solomon, 290
- Telephony: Mechanical and Electrical Phenomena occurring in the Telephonic Transmission of Speech, W. Duddell, 60; Method of obtaining Continuous Currents from a Magnetic Detector of the Self-restoring Type, L. H. Walter, 214
- Telescope, Plea for an International Southern, Prof. E. C. Pickering, 474
- Telescopes, Reflecting, of Short Focus, Prof. Vogel, 306
- Temperaments, Family Diseases and, Prof. Karl Pearson, F.R.S., 245
- Temperature, Ionisation and, Prof. C. D. Child, 125; Prof. J. J. Thomson, F.R.S., 125
- Temperatures, Summer, of the North Sea, 212
- Temperatures, Terrestrial, and the Solar Radiation, C. G. Abbot, 112
- Ter-Gazarian (G.), the Atomic Weight of Silver, 532, 548
- Terada (T.), Optical Illusions on Electric Fan, 540
- Terrestrial Magnetism, Report of Department of Research in, Dr. L. A. Bauer, 284
- Terrestrial Temperatures and the Solar Radiation, C. G. Abbot, 112
- Testament, Astronomy in the Old, Prof. G. Schiaparelli, 410
- Testing Conference, International, 503
- Textiles, Chemical Functions of, Léo Vignon, 651
- Thackeray (W. G.), New Reduction of Groombridge's Circumpolar Catalogue for the Epoch 1810-0, 90
- Theobald (Fred. V.), a Monograph of the Insect Injuries to Indian Corn, S. A. Forbes, 160; Departmental Notes on the Insects that affect Forestry, E. P. Stebbing, 160; Report on the Injurious Insects and other Animals observed in the Midland Counties during 1905, Walter E. Collinge, 293; Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture in India, H. Maxwell-Lefroy, 481
- Thermodynamics: the Inversion Points of the Joule-Kelvin Effect for a Fluid Passing through a Porous Plug, Prof. Alfred W. Porter, 17; Thermodynamics of Diffusion, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., 246; Thermodynamic Reasoning, Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., 443; W. C. D. Whetham, F.R.S., 443; Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Dr. Max Planck, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii
- Thermometer Scales, R. T. A. Innes, 150
- Thiselton-Dyer (Sir W. T., K.C.M.G., F.R.S.), Kew Publications, 198
- Thomas (Cyrus), Mayan Calendar Systems, II., 30
- Thomas (Miss), on the Phylogenetic Value of the Vascular Structure of Seedlings, 576
- Thomas (O.), Two New Mammals from South Australia, 141
- Thompson (Prof. J. A.), Outlines of Zoology, 294
- Thompson (R. J.), the Development of Agriculture in Denmark, 193
- Thompson (Prof. S. P.), the Apparent Disappearance of Matter in Vacuum Tubes, 453
- Thomson (Prof. J. Arthur), Herbert Spencer, 533
- Thomson (Prof. J. J., F.R.S.), Ionisation and Temperature, 125
- Thorpe (T. E., F.R.S.), Joseph Priestley, 378
- Threlfall (R., F.R.S.), Static Method of Comparing the Densities of Gases, 238
- Thunder, Musical, G. H. Martyn, 200
- Thurston (E.), Ethnographic Notes in Southern India, 611

- Thyng (F. W.), Squamosal Bone of the Skull in the Four-footed Vertebrates, 85
- Tibet: Lhasa and its Mysteries, with a Record of the Expedition of 1903-4, L. A. Waddell, C.B., 518
- Tick of the Family Argasidæ, a New, W. W. Froggatt, 508
- Tide on Lake Huron, a Lunar, Prof. W. J. Loudon, 88
- Tides and Waves, a Practical Manual of, W. H. Wheeler, 218
- Tilden (W. A.), Action of Magnesium Methyl Iodide on Dextrolimonene Nitroschlorides, 190; on the Behaviour of Isoprene prepared from Oil of Turpentine, 526
- Todd (Sir Charles), Observations in South Australia during 1902 and 1903, 308
- Tomaselli (Prof. S.), Death of, 414
- Tomlinson (H.), Automatic Arc-lamp, 166
- Topography: Text-book of Topographical and Geographical Surveying, Major C. F. Close, 98; an Elementary Treatise on Phototopographic Methods and Instruments, J. A. Flemer, 172; an Account of the Scientific Work of the Survey of India, and a Comparison of its Progress with that of Foreign Surveys prepared for Use of the Survey Committee, 1905, Lieut.-Colonel S. G. Burrard, F.R.S., 301; Duke of the Abruzzi's Expedition to Ruwenzori, Vittorio Sella, 528
- Torday (E.), on the Ethnography of the Ba-Yaka, 456
- Toronto Meeting of the British Medical Association, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 529
- Torrance (W. M.), the Manufacture of Concrete Blocks and their Use in Building Construction, 608
- Touplain (M.), Estimation of Albumenoid and Gelatin Materials by Means of Acetones, 216
- Tours (B. G.), Sparrow Caught in Spider's Web, 522
- Toutplain (M.), Rapidity of Absorption of Odours by Milk, 167
- Townley (Mr.), Observations of Nova Persei No. 2, 135
- Townley (S. D.), Observations of Variable Stars, 159
- Tozzer (Dr.), the Maya of Yucatan, 596
- Trajectories of Moving Air, the Life-history of Surface Air-currents, a Study of the Surface, Dr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S., and R. G. K. Lempfert, 162
- Trannoy (R.), Action of Ammonia Gas on Anhydrous Neodymium Chloride, 95
- Transformation of Lagrange's Equations, the Mixed, A. B. Basset, F.R.S., 317, 480, 540; Prof. T. Levi Civita, 488; Dr. E. J. Routh, F.R.S., 516
- Transvaal, Étude sur l'État actuel des Mines du, George Moreau, 313
- Travers (M. W.), Constitution of Ammonium Amalgam, 93
- Treacher (Llewellyn), Phosphatic Chalks of Winterbourne and Boxford, Berkshire, 71
- Trechmann (Dr. C. O.), Sarcorite from the Binnenthal, 239
- Tregarthen (J. C.), the Otter in the British Isles, 183
- Trevithick (Edgar), Colour Phenomena in *Boletus coeruleus*, 318
- Triassic Foraminifera, the Alleged, of Chellaston, near Derby, Prof. Grenville A. J. Cole, 489
- Trigonometry: some Useful Trigonometrical Formulæ and a Table of Goniometrical Functions for the Four Quadrants, Prof. J. C. Kapteyn and Prof. W. Kapteyn, 341; Elementary Trigonometry, H. S. Hall and S. R. Knight, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Tropical Diseases, Lectures on, being the Lane Lectures for 1905 delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Sir Patrick Manson, Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, Supp. to May 3, ix
- Tropical Medicine, Liverpool School of, Reports of, the Expedition to the Congo, 1903-5, 269
- Trypanosomiasis in Mauritius, Recent Epidemic of, Dr. Alex. Edington and Dr. J. M. Coutts, 375
- Tsetse-fly, the Breeding Habits of the, Prof. E. A. Minchin, 636
- Tuberculosis: Vaccination against Tuberculosis by the Digestive Tracts, A. Calmette and C. Guérin, 216; Emile Roux, 216; on Diagnosis of Tubercle by the Examination of the Blood, and on Spontaneous Phagocytosis, Dr. A. E. Wright and Staff-Surgeon Reid, 248; on Spontaneous Phagocytosis and on the Phagocytosis which is obtained with the Heated Serum of Patients who have Responded to Tubercular Infection or to the Inoculation of a Tubercle Vaccine, Dr. A. E. Wright and Staff-Surgeon Reid, 248; the Anti-tuberculosis Campaign, Dr. R. Fielding-Ould, 503; Channels of Entrance of the Tubercle Bacillus into the Organism, Dr. A. Calmette, 593; see also Morbology
- Tuck (W. B.), Relation between Absorption Spectra and Chemical Constitution, the Phenylhydrazones of Simple Aldehydes and Ketones, 141
- Tulloch (Lieut. Forbes), Death and Obituary Notice of, 207
- Tunisia, the Birds of, J. J. S. Whitaker, O. V. Aplin, 51
- Tunisia, Cultures du Midi de l'Algérie et de la, C. Rivière and H. Lecq, 269
- Tunnelling: Tunnel Shields and the Use of Compressed Air in Subaqueous Works, W. C. Copperthwaite, 348; Modern Tunnel Practice, D. McNeely Stauffer, 409
- Turchini (S.), Resistance of Electrolytes for High-frequency Currents, 166
- Turner (Prof. H. H.), on a Possible Effect of Vibration on Zenith Distance Observations, 455
- Turner (Prof.), the Oxford University Observatory, 645
- Turner (Sir William, K.C.B.), Craniology of Natives of the Madras Presidency, Thugs, Veddahs, Tibetans, and Seistanis, 215
- Tutin (F.), Constituents of the Essential Oil from the Fruit of *Pittosporum undulatum*, 262; Constitution of Umbellulone, 310
- Tutton (A. E. H.), Ammonium Selenate and Isodimorphism in the Alkali Series, 190
- Typhoon in the Philippine Islands in September, 1905, the Great, Rev. M. S. Mata, 232
- Tyzzer (E. E.), Experimental Variola and Vaccinia in *Quadrumania*, 109
- Undergraduates, Personal Hygiene Designed for, Dr. A. A. Woodhall, 78
- United States: Hydrology in the United States, 89; Smithsonian Institution, Bulletin of the United States National Museum, Fossil Invertebrates, Charles Schuchert, W. H. Dall, T. W. Stanton, and R. S. Bassler, 163
- Unity of Will, the, Studies of an Irrationalist, George Ainslie Hight, 380
- Universities: University and Educational Intelligence, 20, 46, 69, 91, 117, 139, 164, 189, 212, 237, 260, 286, 310, 342, 373, 406, 435, 459, 482, 505, 539, 554, 578, 602, 625, 650; Visit of Representatives of University Education in France, 83, 159; the Launching of a University and other Papers, Dr. J. D. C. Gilman, 123; Aberdeen University Quatercentenary Celebrations, 188, 565; Some Scientific Centres, VIII., the MacDonald Physics Building, McGill University, Montreal, Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S., A. S. Eve, 272; Studies in Anatomy from the Anatomical Department of the University of Manchester, 464; Some Scientific Centres, IX., the Metallurgical Department of the Sheffield University, Prof. J. O. Arnold, 541; the Place of the Modern University in the State, 589; the New Muspratt Laboratory of Physical and Electrochemistry at the University of Liverpool, 624; the Oxford University Observatory, Prof. Turner, 645; Modern Needs in Universities, Dr. Andrew Carnegie at the University of Edinburgh, 648
- Urbain (G.), Atomic Weight of Terbium, 48
- Usher (F. L.), the Mechanism of Carbon Assimilation in Green Plants, the Photolytic Decomposition of Carbon Dioxide *in vitro*, 627
- Vaccination against Tuberculosis by the Digestive Tracts, A. Calmette and C. Guérin, 216; Emile Roux, 216
- Vaccine, Anti-typhoid, Captain George Lamb and Captain W. B. C. Forster, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 91
- Vallet (G.), Experimental Infection by *Trypanosoma brucei*, the Destruction of the Parasite in the Spleen, 167
- Vannes, the Archaeological Congress at, 577
- Variable Stars: Variable Radial Velocity of ϵ Aurigæ, Dr. H. Ludendorff, 41; New Variable Stars in Orion, Prof. Max Wolf, 42; Stars with Variable Radial Velocities, J. H. Moore, 135; Prof. Frost, 135; Observations

- of Variable Stars, Miss Leavitt, 158; S. D. Townley, 159; Discovery of Algol Variables, Mrs. Fleming, 210; Observations of Long-period Variables, Prof. A. A. Nijland, 595; Observations of Variable Stars, E. S. Haynes, 619
- Variation: Races of Domestic Poultry, Edward Brown, W. B. Tegetmeier, 13
- Vaschide (M.), Relations between Emotional States and Infection, 167
- Vascular Plants from Surinam, an Enumeration of the, Dr. A. Pulle, 170
- Vaughton (T. A.), Effect of the Electric Spark on the Activity of Metals, 262
- Vectors, &c., at the British Association, Dr. C. G. Knott, 585; Writer of the Report, 586
- Vegetable Histology, Methods in Microscopical Research, Abraham Flatters, Prof. R. T. Hewlett, 29
- Veitch (James H.), Hortus Veitchii, a History of the Rise and Progress of the Nurseries of Messrs. James Veitch and Sons, together with an Account of the Botanical Collectors and Hybridists employed by them, and a List of the more Remarkable of their Introductions, 537
- Venable (W. M.), Garbage Crematories in America, 630
- Venus, Occultation of a Star by, Dr. Downing, 575
- Vererbung, Gedanken über, Dr. Alexander Petrunkevitch, 244
- Vertebrate Zoology, a Course in, Dr. H. S. Pratt, Supp. to October 11, viii
- Vertebrates, the Respiratory System of, 145
- Vesuvian Mineral, a New, Dr. H. J. Johnston-Lavis, 103, 174
- Vesuvius, the Eruption of, Dr. Hj. Sjögren, 7
- Victoria, Ethnological Notes on the Aboriginal Tribes of New South Wales and, R. H. Mathews, 100
- Vie, les Problèmes de la, Prof. Ermanno Giglio-Tos, 292
- Vignon (Léo), Chemical Functions of Textiles, 651
- Vigouroux (Em.), Pure Ferro-molybdenums, 23; Pure Ferro-tungstens, 167; Action of Silicon Chloride on Nickel, 192
- Villamil (Colonel R. de), Fluid Resistance, 215
- Villiger (Dr. Emil), Gehirn und Rückenmark, Leitfaden für das Studium der Morphologie und des Faserverlaufs, 442
- Vines (Prof. S. H., F.R.S.), Obituary Notice of Prof. H. Marshall Ward, F.R.S., 493
- Vio (Dr. G.), Selenium and Tellurium Elements Isomorphous, 574
- Viticulture: the Grape Curculio, F. E. Brooks, 111
- Vogel (Prof.), Reflecting Telescopes of Short Focus, 306
- Voigtlander (Dr. F.), Lehrbuch der gerichtlichen Chemie, 440
- Voit (Dr. F. W.), the Gneisses of the Limpopo Flats, 647
- Volcanoes: the Eruption of Vesuvius, Dr. Hj. Sjögren, 7; Chemical Composition of Ash of the Vesuvius Eruption, Prof. Zinno, 17; Another New Vesuvian Mineral, Dr. H. J. Johnston-Lavis, 103, 174; Eruption of Vesuvius in April, 1906, Prof. Giuseppe de Lorenzo, 141; Lantern-slide Views Illustrating the late Eruption of Vesuvius, Prof. H. J. Johnston-Lavis, 165; Possible Connection between the Recent Disturbances at Vesuvius and San Francisco, Rev. H. V. Gill, 166; the Alteration in Vesuvius by the late Eruption, 305; Stromboli in Eruption, 37; the Tarawera Volcanic Rift, New Zealand, James Mackintosh Bell, 88; Possible Relationship between Volcanic Action and Radio-activity, Major C. E. Dutton, 184; Volcanoes and Radio-activity, Dr. T. J. J. See, 444; the Physical Geography of Volcanoes, Dr. Tempest Anderson, 527; L'Age des derniers Volcans de la France, Marcellin Boule, Prof. T. G. Bonney, F.R.S., 607; Eruption of Mont Pelée, 615
- Voss (Dr. Adolf), Death of, 382
- Vries (Prof. H. de), Luther Burbank's Work as a Plant-breeder, 546
- Waddell (L. A., C.B.), Lhasa and its Mysteries, with a Record of the Expedition of 1903-4, 518
- Wade (Dr. John), Sulphur Dioxide as a Disinfectant, 209
- Wager (H.), the Nature of Fertilisation, 551
- Waggett (Rev. P. N.), the Scientific Temper in Religion and other Addresses, 217
- Wales, the Earthquake in South, Dr. Charles Davison, 225
- Walker (C. E.), Origin of the Sertoli or Foot-cells of the Testis, 260
- Walker (Claude Frederic), Outlines of Inorganic Chemistry, 5
- Walker (Dr.), Abnormal Features of the Weather of the Past Half-Year, 369
- Walker (James), Methylated Amino-acids, 407; Method for determining Velocities of Saponification, 483
- Walker-Tisdale (C. W.), Butter-making on the Farm and at the Creamery, 6
- Wallach (Messrs.), Oxygen-Rescue Apparatus, 60
- Wallas (T. I.), the Poisonous Principle of the Zamia Palm, 580
- Waller (Dr. Augustus D., F.R.S.), the Electrical Signs of Life and their Abolition by Chloroform, 447
- Walter (Prof. B.), the Ultra-violet Portion of the Spectrum of a High-tension Arc in Air, 87
- Walter (H. E.), the American Pond-snail, 497
- Walter (L. H.), Method of obtaining Continuous Currents from a Magnetic Detector of the Self-restoring Type, 214
- Wanklyn (J. A.), Death of, 302
- Ward (Prof. H. A.), Death and Obituary Notice of, 250
- Ward (Prof. H. Marshall, F.R.S.), Death of, 448; Obituary Notice of, Prof. S. H. Vines, F.R.S., 493
- Ward (Lester F.), Status of the Mesozoic Floras of the United States, 81
- Wärmestrahlung, Vorlesungen über die Theorie der, Dr. Max Planck, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii
- Wartenberg (H. von), New Determination of the Melting Points of Platinum and Palladium, 40
- Wasser- und Sumpfgewächse, Biologische und Morphologische Untersuchungen über, Prof. Hugo Glück, 411
- Water Softening and Treatment, W. H. Booth, 464
- Waterways, Our, a History of Inland Navigation considered as a Branch of Water Conservancy, Urquhart A. Forbes and W. H. R. Ashford, 169
- Watson (Arnold T.), Habits of Tube-building Worms, 552
- Watson (E. R.), Silver Dioxide and Silver Peroxynitrate, 96; Chemical Examination of the Milk and Butter-fat of the Indian Buffalo, 344
- Watson (Rosamund Marriott), the Heart of a Garden, 29
- Watteville (C. de), New Arrangement for the Spectroscopy of Phosphorescent Substances, 119
- Watts (Dr. W. Marshall), Binocular Spectroscope, 60
- Watts (Prof.), Geological Survey of the Country between Derby, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, and Loughborough, 307
- Waves, a Practical Manual of Tides and, W. H. Wheeler, 218
- Weather, some Facts about the, William Marriott, 295
- Webb (Wilfred Mark), the British Woodlice, being a Monograph of the Terrestrial Isopod Crustacea occurring in the British Islands, 99
- Weber (Frau A.), Ein Jahr an Bord I.M.S. Siboga, 196
- Wechselstromkurven, Aufnahme und Analyse von, Dr. Ernst Orlich, Dr. J. A. Harker, 268
- Wedderburn (E. M.), Temperature of Fresh-water Lochs of Scotland, with Special Reference to Loch Ness, 101
- Wedge Photometer, a New Form of, H. Rosenberg, 575
- Wcevils, Aquatic-dwelling, E. E. Lowe, 541
- Wegener, Balloon Journey by the Brothers, 302
- Weights and Measures, the Metric System of, in the Colonies, 614
- Weiss (Prof. E.), Observations of Minor Planets and Comets, 306
- Weiss (Prof.), on a New Stigmara, 576; on the Formation of the well-known Calcareous Nodules found in the Coal Seams of the Lower Coal-measures, 576
- Welsh (Prof. D. A.), the Main Source of "Precipitable" Substance, and on the Rôle of the Homologous Proteid in Precipitin Reactions, 531
- Wentzki (O.), Method of Purifying Hydrogen which Contains Arsenic, 471
- Westermarck (Dr. Edward), the Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas, 377
- Western (G. T.), the Specificity of the Opsonic Substances in the Blood Serum, 118

- Wetherell (E. W.), Laterite in Bangalore and Kolar, 573
 Wharton (Sir William, K.C.B., F.R.S.), Proposed Memorial to, 131
 Wheeler (W. H.), a Practical Manual of Tides and Waves, 218
 Whetham (W. C. D., F.R.S.), Osmotic Pressure, 54, 102, 295; Thermodynamic Reasoning, 443; Experiments on the Measurement of Osmotic Pressure, 453
 Whitaker (J. I. S.), the Birds of Tunisia, 51
 White (G. R.), Behaviour of Ferromanganese Anodes in Solutions of Caustic Soda, 452
 White (H. J. Osborne), Phosphatic Chalks of Winterbourne and Boxford, Berkshire, 71
 White (Sir W. H., K.C.B., F.R.S.), the Stability of Submarines, 128, 270; the Norwegian North Polar Expedition, 1893-6, vol. v., on Dead-water, V. Walfrid Ekman, 485
 White (W. J.), Wireless Telegraphy, 290
 White- and Brown-shelled Eggs, 489
 Whiteside (Rev. B. J.), on the Rate of Decay of the Phosphorescence of Balmain's Paint, 455
 Whitmell (C. T.), Remarkable Rainbow Phenomena, 586
 Whittaker (Thomas), Apollonius of Tyana, and other Essays, 533
 Wieland (G. R.), Status of the Mesozoic Floras of the United States, 81
 Wieland (Dr. K. M.), Causes of the Pressure and Flow of Sap in the Maple, 251
 Wigham (F. H.), Effect of Copper in Steel, 69
 Wild Flowers, how to find and Name, Thomas Fox, 514
 Wildeman (Prof. E. de), the Bamboo-hat Industry in Java, 85; Botanique—Les Phanérogames des Terres Magellaniques, 298
 Will, the Unity of, Studies of an Irrationalist, George Ainslie Hight, 380
 Willcocks (F. C.), the Cotton Worm, *Prodenia littoralis*, 649; the Cotton Boll-worm, *Earias insulana*, 649
 Willey (Dr. A.), Symbiosis in a Crab, 157
 Williams (Dr. Ethel), Estimates of the Time, Cost, and Usefulness of Medical Inspection, 502
 Wilson (A.), Absorption of Gallic Acid by Organic Colloids, 94
 Wilson (C. T. R., F.R.S.), Measurement of the Earth Air Current and the Origin of Atmospheric Electricity, 94; the Nucleation of the Uncontaminated Atmosphere, Prof. Carl Barus, 619
 Wilson (Prof. Ernest), Effects of Self-induction in an Iron Cylinder, 239
 Wilson (Prof. H. A.), the Theory of Moving Coil and other Kinds of Ballistic Galvanometers, 166; the Apparent Disappearance of Matter in Vacuum Tubes, 453
 Wilson (Prof. J. T.), Development of Ornithorhynchus, 555
 Wind-force, Report of the Director of the Meteorological Office upon an Inquiry into the Relation between the Estimates of, according to Admiral Beaufort's Scale, and the Velocities recorded by Anemometers belonging to the Office, G. C. Simpson, Sir G. H. Darwin, W. H. Dines, and Commander Hepworth, 106
 Wingate (Rev. W. J.), a Preliminary List of Durham Diptera, with Analytical Tables, 512
 Winkelmann (Dr. A.), Handbuch der Physik, 536
 Wirbelthiere Europa's mit Berücksichtigung der Faunen von Vorderasien und Nordafrika, die, Dr. O. Schmiedeknecht, 463
 Wirbeltiere, Lehrbuch der vergleichenden mikroskopischen Anatomie der, Part v., Parietal Organ, Dr. F. K. Studnička, Part vi., Atmungsapparat, Dr. Albert Oppel, 145
 Wireless Telegraphy: Commercial Application of Wireless Telegraphy, 250; the Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy, Dr. J. A. Fleming, Maurice Solomon, 290; Wireless Telegraphy, Dr. Gustav Eichorn, Maurice Solomon, 290; Wireless Telegraphy, W. J. White, Maurice Solomon, 290
 Wolf (Prof. Max), New Variable Stars in Orion, 42; Stereo-comparator Discoveries of Proper Motions, 87; Comet 1906b, 158; Stereoscopic Measurement of Proper Motions, 231; Return of Holmes's Comet (1906f), 474; Holmes's Comet (1906f), 499, 525
 Wolfe-Barry (Sir John), on Standardisation in British Engineering Practice, 500
 Wolff (J.), Nearly Total Transformation of the Dextrins arising from the Saccharification of Starch into Maltose, 167
 Wollaston (A. F. R.), Ascents in the Ruwenzori Range, 132
 Wood (Dr. Ethel M. R.), Graptolites from Bolivia, 71
 Wood (R. W.), Physical Optics, 509
 Woodhall (Dr. A. A.), Personal Hygiene designed for Undergraduates, 78
 Woodland (W.), Spicule Formation in Sponges, 551
 Woods (Dr. Frederick Adams), Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty, 97
 Woodward (Dr. A. Smith, F.R.S.), a Carboniferous Fish-fauna from the Mansfield District, Victoria, 336; the Study of Fossil Fishes, Address at Geologists' Association, 507
 Woodward (H. P.), Menzies Goldfield (North Coolgardie), 593
 Woosnam (R. B.), Ascents in the Ruwenzori Range, 132
 Workman (Mrs. Bullock), Exploration in the Himalayas, 19
 Workman (Dr. Bullock), Ascent of Peak in Kashmir, 413
 Worms: Polyclad Turbellaria from Cape Verde Islands, F. F. Laidlaw, 261
 Wragge (Clement L.), the Romance of the South Seas, 53
 Wratten and Wainwright's (Messrs.) Panchromatic Plates, 417
 Wright (Dr. A. E.), on Diagnosis of Tubercle by the Examination of the Blood, and on Spontaneous Phagocytosis, 248; on Spontaneous Phagocytosis and on the Phagocytosis which is obtained with the Heated Serum of Patients who have Responded to Tubercular Infection or to the Inoculation of a Tubercle Vaccine, 248
 Wright (Dr. Hamilton), Measures taken to Stamp out Malaria at Port Swettenham, 367
 Wright (T. W.), the Adjustment of Observations by the Method of Least Squares, with Applications to Geodetic Work, 148
 Wright (Dr. W.), on the Physical Characters of the Races of Britain, 458
 Wwedenski (M.), the Radiants of the Perseid Shower, 253
 Yates (M.), a Text-book of Botany, Supp. to October 11, v
 Yellow Fever: Report to the Government of British Honduras upon the Outbreak of, in that Colony in 1905, together with an Account of the Distribution of the *Stegomyia fasciata* in Belize, and the Measures necessary to Stamp out or Prevent the Recurrence of Yellow Fever, Rubert Boyce, F.R.S., Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, 299
 York, Forthcoming Meeting of the British Association at, 179; Provisional Programmes of the Sections, 275; see British Association
 York, a Handbook of, and District, 294
 Yorkshire, the Fungus Flora of, G. Massee and C. Crossland, 196
 Young (Prof. Sydney, F.R.S.), Opalescence in Fluids near the Critical Temperature, 627
 Young (W. J.), the Alcoholic Ferment of Yeast-juice, Part ii., the Coferment of Yeast-juice, 628
 Zinno (Prof.), Chemical Composition of Ash of the Vesuvius Eruption, 17
 Zodiacal Light, the Origin of the, Maxwell Hall, 453
 Zoology: Zoological Society, 22, 93, 141, 166, 261; Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Zoologie, Festschrift zur Feier seines siebenzigsten Geburtstages am 11 Nov. 1905, Herrn Geheimen Regierungsrat Prof. Ernst Ehlers, Dr. F. W. Gamble, 50; British Fresh-water Rhizopoda, James Cash and John Hopkinson, 52; the Wild Fauna and Flora of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, 53; Squamosal Bone of the Skull in the Four-footed Vertebrates, F. W. Thyng, 85; the Haunts of the Okapi, Captain Boyd Alexander, 88; a New Specimen of the Okapi, Major P. H. G. Powell-Cotton, 578; the Tarpan and its Relationship with Wild and Domestic Horses, Prof. J. C. Ewart, F.R.S., 113; the Zoological Society of London, a Sketch of its Foundation and Development,

and the Story of its Farm, Museum, Gardens, Menagerie, and Library, Henry Scherren, 129; Two New Mammals from South Australia, O. Thomas, 141; a Treatise on Zoology, Mollusca, Dr. Paul Pelseuer, 153; the Otter in the British Isles, J. C. Tregarthen, 183; Zoological Distribution of Fresh-water Fishes of South and Central America, Prof. Carl Eigenmann, 183; the Sea-serpent, Messrs. Nicoll and Meade-Waldo, 202; Pleural Cavity Absent in Indian Elephant, J. E. V. Boas, 280; Report on the Injurious Insects and other Animals observed in the Midland Counties during 1905, Walter E. Collinge, Fred. V. Theobald, 293; Outlines of Zoology, Prof. J. A. Thomson, 294; Zoologie—Poissons, L. Dollo, 298; Colouring of Guereza Monkeys, Mr. Lydekker, 309; Adaptive Modifications of the Occipital Condyles in Mammalian Skulls, C. S. Meads, 369; die wirbelthiere Europa's mit Berücksichtigung der Faunen von Vorderasien und Nordafrika, Dr. O. Schmiedeknecht, 463; the Development of Ornithorhynchus, Prof. J. T. Wilson and Dr. J. P. Hill, 555; Improvements at the Clifton Zoological Gardens, Bristol, 571; a Text-book of General Zoology, Dr. Henry R. Linville and Dr. Henry A. Kelly, 633; the Cerebral Localisation in the Bandicoot, H. G. Chapman, 652; a Course in Vertebrate Zoology, Dr. H. S. Pratt, Supp. to October 11, viii
Zschimmer (Eberhard), Eine Untersuchung über Raum, Zeit und Begriffe vom Standpunkt des Positivismus, 533
Zulu-Kafir, Folklore and Medicine of the, Sir H. H. Johnston, K.C.M.G., 28
Zuñi Indians, the, their Mythology, Esoteric Fraternities, and Ceremonies, Matilda Coxie Stevenson, Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., 30
Zwiers (Dr. H. J.), the Expected Return of Holmes's Comet, 41

INDEX TO LITERARY SUPPLEMENTS.

Alison (John), Arithmetic for Schools and Colleges, Supp. to May 3, viii
Anthropology: a People at School, H. Fielding Hall, Archibald R. Colquhoun, Supp. to May 3, vii
Arithmetic: Easy Mathematics of All Kinds, Chiefly Arithmetic, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., Supp. to May 3, viii; Arithmetic for Schools and Colleges, John Alison and John B. Clark, Supp. to May 3, viii
Atkinson (G. F.), First Studies of Plant Life, Supp. to October 11, v
Baker (T. Thorne), Colour-correct Photography, Supp. to October 11, vi
Biochemistry, Recent Advances in Physiology and, Supp. to May 3, x
Botany: a Text-book of Botany, John M. Coulter, Supp. to October 11, v; a First Course in Practical Botany, G. F. Scott Elliot, Supp. to October 11, v; First Studies of Plant Life, G. F. Atkinson, Supp. to October 11, v; a Text-book of Botany, M. Yates, Supp. to October 11, v
Bryan (Prof. G. H., F.R.S.), Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Dr. Max Planck, Supp. to October 11, iii
Burma: a People at School, H. Fielding Hall, Archibald R. Colquhoun, Supp. to May 3, vii
Campbell (Dr. A. W.), Histological Studies on the Localisation of Cerebral Function, Supp. to May 3, iii
Cerebral Function, Histological Studies on the Localisation of, Dr. A. W. Campbell, Supp. to May 3, iii
Chemistry: Experimental Electrochemistry, N. Munro, Supp. to May 3, vi; Abhandlungen und Vorträge zur Geschichte der Naturwissenschaften, Prof. E. O. von Lippmann, Supp. to October 11, vii
Clark (John B.), Arithmetic for Schools and Colleges, Supp. to May 3, viii
Colour Photography: Natural-colour Photography, Dr. E. König, Supp. to October 11, vi; Colour-correct Photography, T. Thorne Baker, Supp. to October 11, vi

Colquhoun (Archibald R.), a People at School, H. Fielding Hall, Supp. to May 3, vii
Compatriots' Club Lectures, Supp. to October 11, ix
Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905 delivered at the, Sir Patrick Manson, Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, Supp. to May 3, ix
Coulter (John M.), a Text-book of Botany, Supp. to October 11, v
East, the Vanishing, Archibald R. Colquhoun, Supp. to May 3, vii
Electrochemistry, Experimental, N. Munro Hopkins, Supp. to May 3, vi
Elliot (G. F. Scott), a First Course in Practical Botany, Supp. to October 11, v
Engineering Mathematics, Simply Explained, H. H. Harrison, Supp. to May 3, viii
Entropy of Radiation, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii
Forestry, a Manual of, Dr. W. Schlich, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, x
Founders of Geology, the, Sir Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., Supp. to May 3, v
Geikie (Sir Archibald, F.R.S.), the Founders of Geology, Supp. to May 3, v
Geology, the Founders of, Sir Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., Supp. to May 3, v
Hall (H. Fielding), a People at School, Supp. to May 3, vii
Hall (H. S.), Elementary Trigonometry, Supp. to May 3, viii
Harrison (H. H.), Engineering Mathematics, Simply Explained, Supp. to May 3, viii
Heat: Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Dr. Max Planck, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii
Histological Studies on the Localisation of Cerebral Function, Dr. A. W. Campbell, Supp. to May 3, iii
Hopkins (N. Munro), Experimental Electrochemistry, Supp. to May 3, vi
Knight (S. R.), Elementary Trigonometry, Supp. to May 3, viii
König (Dr. E.), Natural-colour Photography, Supp. to October 11, vi
Lippmann (Prof. E. O. von), Abhandlungen und Vorträge zur Geschichte der Naturwissenschaften, Supp. to October 11, vii
Lodge (Sir Oliver, F.R.S.), Easy Mathematics of All Kinds, Chiefly Arithmetic, Supp. to May 3, viii
Manson (Sir Patrick), Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905 delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Supp. to May 3, ix
Mathematics: Easy Mathematics of All Kinds, Chiefly Arithmetic, Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., Supp. to May 3, viii; Arithmetic for Schools and Colleges, John Alison and John B. Clark, Supp. to May 3, viii; Elementary Trigonometry, H. S. Hall and S. R. Knight, Supp. to May 3, viii; Engineering Mathematics, Simply Explained, H. H. Harrison, Supp. to May 3, viii
Medicine: Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905 delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Sir Patrick Manson, Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, Supp. to May 3, ix; a System of Medicine, Supp. to October 11, viii
Natural-colour Photography, Dr. E. König, Supp. to October 11, vi

- Neurology: Histological Studies on the Localisation of Cerebral Function, Dr. A. W. Campbell, Supp. to May 3, iii
- Pathology: Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905 delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Sir Patrick Manson, Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, Supp. to May 3, ix
- People at School, a, H. Fielding Hall, Archibald R. Colquhoun, Supp. to May 3, vii
- Photography: Natural-colour Photography, Dr. E. König, Supp. to October 11, vi; Colour-correct Photography, T. Thorne Baker, Supp. to October 11, vi
- Physics: Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Dr. Max Planck, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii; Abhandlungen und Vorträge zur Geschichte der Naturwissenschaften, Prof. E. O. von Lippmann, Supp. to October 11, vii
- Physiology: Histological Studies on the Localisation of Cerebral Function, Dr. A. W. Campbell, Supp. to May 3, iii; Recent Advances in Physiology and Biochemistry, Supp. to May 3, x
- Planck (Dr. Max), Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Supp. to October 11, iii
- Pratt (Dr. H. S.), a Course in Vertebrate Zoology, Supp. to October 11, viii
- Schlich (Dr. W., F.R.S.), a Manual of Forestry, Supp. to October 11, x
- Stephens (Dr. J. W. W.), Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905 delivered at the Cooper Medical College, Sir Patrick Manson, Supp. to May 3, ix
- System of Medicine, a, Supp. to October 11, viii
- Tariff Reform and the Empire, Supp. to October 11, ix
- Thermodynamics: Vorlesungen über die Theorie der Wärmestrahlung, Dr. Max Planck, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii
- Trigonometry, Elementary, H. S. Hall and S. R. Knight, Supp. to May 3, viii
- Tropical Diseases, Lectures on, being the Lane Lectures for 1905 delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco, Sir Patrick Manson, Dr. J. W. W. Stephens, Supp. to May 3, ix
- Vertebrate Zoology, a Course in, Dr. H. S. Pratt, Supp. to October 11, viii
- Wärmestrahlung, Vorlesungen über die Theorie der, Dr. Max Planck, Prof. G. H. Bryan, F.R.S., Supp. to October 11, iii
- Yates (M.), a Text-book of Botany, Supp. to October 11, v
- Zoology, a Course in Vertebrate, Dr. H. S. Pratt, Supp. to October 11, viii



A WEEKLY ILLUSTRATED JOURNAL OF SCIENCE

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

THURSDAY, MAY 3, 1906.

RADIOBES AND BIOGEN.

The Origin of Life: Its Physical Basis and Definition.

By John Butler Burke. Pp. xiv+350; with illustrations. (London: Chapman and Hall, Ltd., 1906.) Price 16s. net.

MR. J. B. BURKE describes, under the name of "radiobes," minute bodies which appeared in sterilised bouillon when small quantities of radium chloride or bromide were brought into contact therewith.

"A minute quantity of the salt contained in a small glass tube, one end of which was drawn out to a fine point, was introduced into an ordinary test-tube containing bouillon. The test-tube was plugged with cotton-wool in the usual way with such experiments, and then sterilised at a temperature of 130° C. for about thirty minutes at a time. On cooling, as soon as the liquid had coagulated, the fine end of the inner tube containing the radium was broken by means of a wire hook in a side tube. The salt was thus allowed to drop on the surface of the gelatin. After twenty-four hours signs of growth were already visible."

The radiobes had appeared! They were at first like diplococci, and varied considerably in size from mere specks as seen with a $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch lens. There is a lack of precise measurements.

"The growth is from the minutest visible specks, which develop into two dots, then into a dumb-bell shaped appearance, later a biscuit-shape, and later still more like frog's spawn, through various stages, as in the figures, until a shape is reached different from its previous forms, when it divides and loses its individuality, and ultimately becomes resolved into minute crystals."

Some of them show a nucleated structure, which may exhibit subdivision "as in karyokinesis"; they are stainable; they are credited with "assimilation"; there is a "stoppage of growth at a certain stage of development"; there is a peculiar segmentation, like that in yeast-cells, said to be quite different from any

cleavage due to surface tension; and, finally, there is a disintegration. The author speaks of them as intermediate between crystals and bacteria, and as possessing $n-1$ of the n properties of living bacilli.

The author is somewhat vacillating in his description of his "radiobes," but he does not regard them as living things in the ordinary sense. They "obviously lie altogether outside the beaten track of living things" (p. 109), but they may bridge over the apparently insuperable gap between the organic and inorganic world (p. 110).

"Forms we have obtained are analogous to living types and may be called artificial forms of life, but they are not the same as life as we know it to-day; they may help, however, to fill in some of the gaps between living and dead matter" (p. 187).

"These bodies are neither crystalline nor colloid in disguise, though colloids, as aggregates, but something more: and crystals in their constituent parts. The point which distinguishes them from both of these is perhaps the fundamental principle which marks them out at once as possessing the elements of vitality in a primitive and most undeveloped state" (p. 112).

The author started with proteid material, which we know to be an essential constituent of organisms, which has not as yet been artificially synthesised, and he brought into contact with this a stimulus provocative of molecular change, namely, a radium salt; he thus obtained radiobes, and the interesting point is whether these do in any way approximate in their behaviour to simple organisms. As we have not studied radiobes we can only judge from the evidence the author adduces, and it seems to us entirely inconclusive. We find no convincing evidence of assimilation, cyclic development, or reproduction in the ordinary sense of these terms; and we do not think the author succeeds in showing that radiobes are essentially different from the minute aggregates or mimic cells produced by many other experimenters. We cannot bring ourselves to believe that little bodies which are soluble in water will throw light on the nature or origin of living organisms. The evidence of anything approaching the behaviour of an organism

seems to us so flimsy that we cannot but wonder at such a paragraph as this:—

“The structure and composition of such artificial cells is sufficient to enable them to perform the functions of organic life, as distinct from such simpler forms of vitality which we at first supposed inorganic matter to possess. Thus they can assimilate, grow, pass into higher types, subdivide, multiply, and finally, having gone through the whole cyclic process, disintegrate and lose their structure in the course of time, being sensitive all the while to external stimulation, both electrical and chemical, in various degrees” (p. 133).

The explanation of the author's apparent oscillation between scientific caution and imaginative hope is to be found in the fact that he has re-defined the ordinary biological terms. Life, for instance, is

“the specialised mode of motion of a complex system of molecules in a dynamically unstable state, so that there is a continuous or continual change, or flux of its substance, between the individual aggregates of molecules and their surroundings” (p. 49).

“An organism has a structure, a nucleus, and an external boundary or cell-wall, and its vitality may be described as being a continuous process of adjustment between its internal and its external relations” (p. 102).

There is metabolism in the phenomena of flames, fluorescence, and phosphorescence—“a physical process which is not merely analogous to, but essentially of the same kind as, even if incomparably simpler than, organic metabolism” (p. 179). It is this re-editing of the biological dictionary that enables the author to write regarding his radiobes:—

“We can say perhaps that we are witnesses at last to the first beginnings of life in its higher sense; but though apparently a case of abiogenesis, to our mind it seems to be a case of biogenesis, from the view of matter which we take, of biogenesis indeed carried to its logical extreme.”

We sympathise with the author's vigorous protest against the libel implied in the phrase “dead matter,” but we do not think the apartness of vital sequences is diminished by giving a more elastic definition to “life” and “metabolism.” As to the bearing of radiobes on the problem of the origin of living creatures upon the earth, we do not think that it amounts to much, not only because Mr. Burke started with proteid material (the natural synthesis of which it is at least difficult to imagine), but also because it seems to us too short and easy a disposal of problems simply to suppose that the coordination and regulation of organic metabolism, the power of effective response, and other insignia of living creatures are secondary acquisitions gradually wrought out in the course of selection. Our business is to try to make the hypothesis of primitive abiogenesis more plausible, and we can only do this by condescending to discuss the detailed difficulties in a concrete fashion.

Mr. Burke's method is different; he elaborates a new theory of vitality which seems to us quite in the air.

“For anything we know there is no such thing as really dead matter, and there may be in all matter a

certain amount of energy stored up which would entitle it to be regarded as possessing a certain amount of potential life” (p. 186).

He postulates original units of life, bio-elements, biogens, or ultimate nuclei, possibly consisting of cyanogen (as suggested by Pflüger's well-known hypothesis), more probably of something with a larger store of energy—“an element possessing many of the chemical properties of carbon and the radio-active properties of the more unstable elements.”

“Life-activity is a phenomenon of matter as much as radio-activity, although really of a more complex kind, and the manner in which the energy is stored up in the ultimate nucleus is probably pretty much the same. Such nuclei may have existed, like the chemical elements themselves, throughout the universe for an almost indefinite time. To account for their formation would be the same as to account for the formation of the elements” (p. 166).

They may have existed in the nebula which formed the earth or they may have been borne to the earth by meteors, as has been previously suggested.

“The formation of cellular life as we see it to-day was the result of the subsequent interaction of this radio- or bio-element with organic compounds,” and of course there was an elimination of failures when nature was trying her prentice hand at organism-making. One of these failures Mr. Burke may have been on the track of when he made his radiobes. In ordinary cell-life the bio-element persists as the vital spark, the nucleus within the nucleus, the *n*th or ultimate nucleus, the real source of vital energy. It is also the hereditary substance, and it “may be all of us that survives when we have shuffled off this mortal coil.”

The author tells us much more about biogens than about radiobes, soaring in a region where verification and contradiction are alike impossible. He supports his theory by arguments from analogy, mainly drawn from his studies on the “physical metabolism” seen in the phenomena of fluorescence and phosphorescence, and he shows that the theory is the natural outcome of his discovery of radiobes, to which the bouillon supplies the soil or constituents, but the radium the seed or vital spark. It is difficult for a biologist to follow the details of this physicist's theory of vitality, *e.g.* when we read of two kinds of biogens—the “characterless nebulous biogen” which corresponds to an ovum, and the concentrated biogen which corresponds to a spermatozoon. But Mr. Burke's general view may be indicated by quoting a few more sentences.

“Life is as much a phenomenon of matter as electricity is. More clearly, life and matter are merely different phenomena of electricity, matter being merely the fossilised state of biogen, and life of the phenomena which take place in biogen in that stage through which electronic aggregations have to pass before they are converted into the crystalline forms of electrons which we call the chemical atoms of matter” (p. 192).

If this is what the author calls “more clearly,” his standard of lucidity must be very divergent from that of the mean of the biological race. Biogen is

"nothing more or less than *matter in the process of becoming.*"

"Biogen may be regarded as the intermediate state between free electricity and condensed electricity which we call matter—the hiatus between electricity as we know it and matter as we know it; the missing link that bears

'The heavy and the dreary weight
Of all this unintelligible world.'

We cannot follow the author further with his new "Naturphilosophie," but it is interesting to point out that, although he says life-activity is a phenomenon of matter, he is far from being a materialist. For matter, he tells us, is really *mind-stuff*, and "atoms are nothing more than ideas." We have always suspected that this would turn out to be the case.

As an interesting book on a perennially interesting theme "The Origin of Life" will probably soon pass into a second edition, and we therefore note a few errata. "Wiesmann" (p. 56), "Debois" (p. 175), "Luduc" (p. 208), "nucleosus" (p. 136), "mytosis" (p. 137), are obvious misprints. We suppose that the "chlorophyll" referred to thrice on p. 135 is a misprint for chromatin, but the author seems confused in his picture of a typical cell. Mitosis is not "the multiplication of the chromosome"; the centrosome is not "the inner portions of the nucleus, or nucleolus"; and we cannot speak of "the karyokinesis of the centrosome." There are several such errors indicative of haste, and there is a disconcerting lack of correspondence between some of the figures and the references to them in the text.

The author is so enthusiastic over his radiobes and *n*th nuclei that we almost wish we could believe more in the importance of either of them. The former seem to us very far from possessing $n-1$ of the n properties of the simplest living creature we know; the latter seem to us ingenious fictions too remote from everyday physiology to have even suggestive value. But these are merely our opinions, and it may be that Mr. Burke will, by more precise observations and more restrained theorising, justify the views of those who have hailed him as a pioneer and a prophet.

J. A. T.

PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF POTTERY.

La Ceramique industrielle. Chimie-Technologie.

By A. Granger. Pp. x+644. (Paris: Gauthier-Villars, 1905.) Price 7 francs.

THIS is an excellent example of the technological handbooks which the young Frenchman and German find ready to their hands when they proceed from school or college to take up industrial work, and which, in so many businesses, the young Englishman just as conspicuously lacks. At the present moment there is no English book on pottery manufacture, other than indifferent translations of a French and a German book, to which a student of the principles of pottery manufacture can turn, and these deal most accurately with processes unknown or unused in England.

The volume in question is, as is perhaps inevitable,

NO. 1905, VOL. 74]

stronger on the theoretical than on the practical side. The first nine chapters, comprising about half the book, give a clear and logical account of the physical and chemical properties of the materials used in the preparation of pottery paste and glazes of all descriptions, together with laboratory methods of chemical analysis and such methods as have been devised for testing the degree of fineness, plasticity, and tensile strength of the various natural clays and clay mixtures, as well as a theoretical discussion of the behaviour of complex mixtures of silicates (clays and glazes) when fired at varying temperatures up to their fusion point. All this is put forward with that clearness of expression and logical precision of arrangement that seem to come so naturally to the French teacher.

The feeling cannot be resisted that the author, with the very best intentions, has covered too much ground. It would seem as if he had attempted to describe every known process, apart from its merits or demerits, with the result that the student is overwhelmed with methods, and at the same time left without a clue as to the suitability of particular methods in special circumstances. In the section on silicate analysis, for example, the ordinary methods of treatment are given for silicates soluble in strong acids, and the methods of attack with carbonate of soda, lime, baryta, oxide of lead, boracic acid, and hydrofluoric acid for the insoluble silicates, yet not one of the processes is described in such detail as would enable the student to conduct an analysis, and the refinements and corrections introduced into the ordinary methods of silicate analysis by Hillebrand, without which it is impossible to guarantee one's results, are never mentioned. In the same way, in the sections dealing with the various methods used by potters for determining the temperature of their kilns, a long account is given of Wedgwood's pyrometer, Seger cones, and all the later forms of electrical pyrometers, including the Fery radiation pyrometer, but there is no adequate discussion of the relative value of these different methods in the actual working of a pottery, the observations on the employment of pyrometers (pp. 257-261) being simply a one-sided account of the merits and demerits of Seger cones.

The second half of the book contains a reasonably detailed account of the processes of manufacture, firing, glazing, and decoration of bricks, tiles, terracotta, refractory pottery, stoneware, earthenware, and porcelain. Again the method is excellent, but, of course, too much has been attempted, and it seems obvious that the student would have been better trained or assisted by a more complete treatment of one or two sections only. From the English point of view, the greatest failure of the book is the ignorance shown of actual English methods in those branches of pottery manufacture where this country is supreme. Thus the account given of the manufacture of English earthenware is not merely incomplete, but is full of misapprehensions—even of mistakes. The mixtures said to be used for English bodies and glazes are such as no first-rate potter would dream of using; the description

of our ovens and kilns is singularly incomplete, and the statement is made that, owing to the nature of the English earthenware bodies, the firing of on-glaze decorations in the continuous kiln has been a failure, when, as a matter of fact, many of these kilns are in successful operation. The treatment accorded to our English bone-china is just as incomplete.

The accounts of French and German processes are naturally much better, not only because the author is better acquainted with them, but no doubt because so much more has already been published about them.

The author had the excellent idea of adding to his volume a vocabulary of technical terms in German, English, and French, and tables showing the relative importance of the industry in various countries. Unfortunately, the idea has been very imperfectly executed. In the vocabulary many of the English terms are such as no potter would use, while some few of them are nonsense; and the figures given as to the extent of the industry in various countries are so incomplete and incomparable as to be positively misleading. On the whole, however, the book must be described as excellent for its purpose; and the English potter might well wish that he had such a book to put into the hands of the young men who are likely to occupy responsible positions on his works.

WILLIAM BURTON.

THE SOIL AND ITS TILLAGE.

Agriculture Générale. Le Sol et les Labours. By Paul Diffloth. Pp. xii+490. (Paris: J. B. Baillière et Fils, 1906.) Price 5 francs.

THIS is the first book of a new French agricultural encyclopædia, which is being published in forty volumes, under the direction of M. G. Wéry, assistant director of the Institut National Agronomique. It is written by Prof. Paul Diffloth. The aim of the encyclopædia is expressed in an introduction by Dr. Paul Regnard, successor to the late M. Eugène Risler as director of the institute. It is to extract from the present teaching of agricultural science all that is available for immediate application by the practical farmer, making him acquainted at the same time with the scientific facts upon which actual practice is based.

Dr. Regnard pays a compliment to English agriculturists by stating that they have never accepted the notion which he attributes to his own countrymen that agricultural science is antagonistic to practical experience. We fear the compliment is not altogether deserved, and that French and English farmers have much in common in this respect; yet the remarkable progress in the direction of higher agricultural education during the past ten years in this country may be regarded as both cause and effect of the gradual disappearance of the idea that the practice of agriculture can derive no advantage from the labours and teachings of science.

With the love of logical analysis which characterises French scientific literature, M. Diffloth's work is divided and subdivided almost *ad infinitum*. An idea

of its completeness may be gathered from a summary of these divisions. The book comprises two main branches, viz. "Agrologie" and "The Preparation of the Soil," the former being defined as the study of land in relation to agriculture and of the relationship which subsists between the nature of a soil and its produce. The first branch treats of the soil, the sub-soil, their physical and chemical properties; water in relation to fertility, its distribution, rainfall, permeability, impermeability, water levels, wells, water-courses, &c.; the analysis of soils by processes physical, mechanical, geological, chemical, &c.; the relations of the soil with the plant, comprising the subjects of nitrification, denitrification, humus, fertility, and the nature of the soil suited to different plants. The second branch of the book, "The Preparation of the Soil," treats of cultivation, the clearing of land, peaty and brackish soils, and the improvement of soils by warping, tree planting, levelling, removal of rocks, stones; tillage operations, including digging, drainage, and the various systems of ploughing; semi-tillage, so called, consisting of scarifying, cultivating (in its technical sense), extirpation of weeds, &c.; harrowing, rolling; and, lastly, of manures and artificial fertilisers.

We do not remember ever before to have read any precise definition of what agriculture is. The author defines it as the art of obtaining from the soil the maximum of substances useful to man at the minimum cost. We do not quarrel with such a definition, though it represents the ideal rather than the actual.

Full justice is done to the part played by the soil in the sustenance of plants, and in particular to the nitrogen problem, which has been the subject of so much scientific investigation and discussion during the past twenty years. The author indicates briefly the discoveries made by de Saussure, Dumas, Bous-singault, and others as to the action of carbonic acid of the air and of nitrogen in the soil in the nourishment of plants; the work of mineral salts as demonstrated by Berthier, Sprengel, and Liebig; the experiments of Schläesing and Müntz showing the action of ferments in transforming organic nitrogen into nitric acid and of micro-organisms in nitrification; and, lastly, the experiments of Hellriegel and Wilfarth revealing the existence of bacteria in the nodules found on the roots of leguminous plants and the absorption by their agency of nitrogen from the free and unlimited supplies present in the air.

M. Diffloth refers to the great developments in France and other Continental countries of the principle of agricultural cooperation. Its successful application to Ireland is well known, and in Great Britain, too, it is now making some headway. The future of agriculture, writes the author, may be summed up in two words as living symbols of its progress and prosperity, "Science et Association." We agree that if "Practice with Science" have been the agricultural watchwords of the nineteenth century signs are not wanting that "Science with Cooperation" may be those of the twentieth.

The practical operations of French husbandry are carefully described, with their scientific significance;

but as they differ in many respects from the English, the chief interest of the book for English readers of French agricultural literature will lie in its admirable exposition of the scientific principles underlying practice. The book is well illustrated on the whole, but in some cases the photographic reproductions can hardly be regarded as truly illustrative. Otherwise we have nothing but admiration for the manner in which Prof. Diffloth in this first volume has given effect to the aim of the new French agricultural encyclopædia.

INORGANIC CHEMISTRY FOR STUDENTS.

Outlines of Inorganic Chemistry. By Frank Austin Gooch and Claude Frédéric Walker. Pp. xxiv+514. (New York: The Macmillan Co.; London: Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1905.) Price 7s. 6d. net.

THE authors say in the preface that their aim is "to introduce the student to chemistry by consideration of the simplest and fewest things." Their intention is laudable enough, but it may be questioned whether their plan of entering into a long discussion of "the consecutive development of the principles upon which systematic chemistry rests," before taking up the descriptive part of the subject, is one which can be commended.

The first 233 pages of the book are entirely devoted to theoretical matters, and a wide range of subjects is included. Beginning with an exposition of the outward characteristics and quantitative laws of chemical combination, the authors pass on to discuss balanced actions, chemical equilibrium, and the phase rule. Then follows a short chapter on specific heats and thermochemistry, after which the student is "introduced" to atoms, molecules, ions, and electrons. Finally an attempt is made to teach him something about the kinetic theory of gases, the properties of solutions, the theory of valency, constitutional formulæ, physical isomerism, and stereochemical relationships. Whatever fault the reader may have to find with the mode of presentment in this part of the book, he will have no reason to complain of lack of variety. The authors have attempted too much, and have sacrificed clearness to the exigencies of space. The beginner will, we fear, be confused, and the more advanced student will find the treatment of the subject inadequate and superficial.

Without attempting any detailed criticism of these theoretical chapters, which would indeed serve no useful purpose, we may give one or two examples of what we think an unsatisfactory way of presenting ideas to the beginner. In speaking of chemical changes, the authors make use of the term "factor" to denote "substances which enter into reactions"; thus we read of "the change of the factor mercuric oxide into the elementary products mercury and oxygen by heat," and so on. Nor do we think their invention of the clumsy expression "mass-unit weight" of an element will at all help the student to grasp the idea of "atomic weight." The beginner will probably be at a loss to understand why the com-

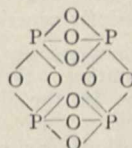
pound NO is called "nitrogen dioxide," whilst CO is called "carbon monoxide."

The descriptive part of the book (493 pages), which is arranged in accordance with the periodic system, calls for little comment. Much valuable space is wasted on elaborate constitutional formulæ, the majority of which are advanced without the slightest attempt at proof or criticism. When, however, the authors do discuss such matters they are not always convincing, as the following example will show:—

"The possible constitution of phosphorus pentoxide may be made a matter of discussion. If we assign to phosphorus the symbol

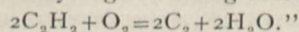


suggested by the specific gravity of phosphorus in vapour condition, we might conceive phosphorus pentoxide, formed by the complete oxidation of phosphorus, to have a similar constitution.



Of the molecular weight of phosphorus in solid condition, or of phosphorus pentoxide, we have no knowledge, so we find it convenient to represent both substances by the simplest possible equivalent symbols, P and P₂O₅."

We thought that the once prevalent idea of the preferential combustion of hydrogen in hydrocarbon flames had long since been discarded; the authors however, still believe in it, for in discussing the luminosity of the acetylene flame they tell us that the gas "burns from an ordinary gas jet with a flame which is luminous, but very sooty from finely divided free carbon, the hydrogen burning first



In short, we find much in this book which would deter us from recommending it as a clear and trustworthy exposition of chemical facts and theories.

W. A. B.

OUR BOOK SHELF.

Collodion Emulsion. By Henry Oscar Klein. Pp. 95. (London: Penrose and Co., 1905.) Price 5s. net.

The advent of gelatin plates has almost driven collodion out of the photographic world. The wet collodion process has all along retained its position in some kinds of photo-mechanical work, but collodion emulsions seemed to have no place left for them until a few years ago their advantages for certain technical purposes were insisted on, and the publishers and author of this volume did a good deal towards reintroducing them into this country on a commercial basis. As collodion emulsion can now be purchased the author has very little to say about the preparation of it; he only quotes two or three formulæ from other workers. The volume must be regarded as a guide to the practical user of commercial emulsions. Their applications in the making of ferrotypes, lantern slides, opals, and transparencies, and for photograph-

ing on wood are concisely described; but the principal part of the work, and by far the most important, deals with the colour sensitising of emulsions, and the applications of such sensitised emulsions to the production of negatives in the many methods of dealing with and reproducing colour that are now in vogue.

The applications of the newer sensitisers are described in many scattered communications, and often with very little discrimination between the practically useful and the merely theoretically interesting. Mr. Klein states that he has included only those that have passed the test of time and been found to be thoroughly practical. It is in this that the value of the work lies, and we think that it would have been better to have restricted the volume to this aspect of the subject. The occasional references to the underlying scientific facts will not help the practical man, nor would they if they were free from the errors that now disfigure them. A volume of practical instructions is not the place for a page or two of chemical equations or the expression of theoretical views that have often been called in question. However, these occupy but little space, and scarcely interfere with the use of the book as a strictly practical manual.

Der Gegensatz zwischen geographischer und nicht-geographischer Variation. By Karl Jordan. Pp. 59; with 73 figures in the Text. (Leipzig: W. Engelmann, 1905.)

THE present treatise affords an excellent example of the light that may be thrown on questions of biological interest by the scientific use of entomological data. Dr. Jordan here presents a valuable *résumé* of some of the most important results of the elaborate investigation of the chitinous sex-organs of insects, more particularly the Papilios and Sphingidæ, carried on by him for many years past at the zoological museum at Tring. These researches, the detailed results of which have already appeared in the pages of "Novitates Zoologicae," are of high interest, not only to entomologists, but also to all students of the methods of evolution.

It must, however, be confessed that the author's interpretations are less acceptable than his facts. Starting from the position that "species" have a real objective existence, he endeavours to show that new species could only have arisen from geographically isolated variations, not from variations occurring side by side with the parent form. The main fact on which he relies is that while "individual" or "seasonal" variation of forms inhabiting the same locality is never accompanied by a variation in the sex-organs (with the single known exception of *Papilio xuthus*), the diverse geographical forms of a species are in very many cases found to be distinct from one another in sex-organs as well as in aspect. There is thus a correlation in the latter case which does not exist in the former, and which seems to the author to warrant the conclusion that these geographical forms only can occupy the position of incipient species. Some of the obvious objections to this view are dealt with by Dr. Jordan, others are left unnoticed.

A slight inaccuracy occurs on p. 177, where a figure of *Byblia goetzius* is said to represent *B. ilithyia*, while the true *B. ilithyia* bears the legend *B. anvatara*; both mistakes being repeated in the text. A more serious matter is the absence of any detailed reference to Mr. G. A. K. Marshall's work on this genus and his remarkable discoveries in the genus *Precis*. Some special recognition of these should have found a place, even in a treatise of general nature like the present. It will be gathered from what has been said that Dr. Jordan's conclusions are open to criticism. There can, however, be no

doubt as to the value of the researches so ably carried on by himself and others in connection with the ample material of Mr. Rothschild's museum at Tring.

F. A. D.

Butter-making on the Farm and at the Creamery.

By C. W. Walker-Tisdale and T. R. Robinson.

Sixth edition, revised and enlarged. Pp. 162. (London: Office of the *Dairy World*, 1906.) Price

2s. 6d. net.

WE import into the United Kingdom perhaps twice as much butter as we make, and pay twenty millions yearly for it. Some, at least, of these millions would have been saved to the agricultural industry if our farmers and dairymen had given as much intelligent study to the principles of butter-making as, for instance, the Danes have done. Unfortunately, however, in such matters as the use of centrifugal cream-separators, the employment of pure bacterial cultures for "starters," and the general organisation of the industry, we did not lead the way; we were content to follow, and that, too, with somewhat halting footsteps. Even now the small butter-maker is often a sad empiricist. If cleanliness, for example, is an article of faith with him—and frequently it is not—he holds it as a dogma, not as reasoned knowledge.

The little book under notice may help in the recovery of some of those lost millions. It gives an outline of approved present-day practice in butter-making, though it does not purport to offer much in the way of theoretical explanation and discussion. Mainly it is an account of how best to conduct the operations of a small modern dairy. It is practical and simple; well suited for the elementary dairy-student, for the farmer's son who wishes to know something more than mere rule-of-thumb work, and for the private maker who supplies his own household from his own cows. The first few pages deal with the design, construction, and equipment of the dairy. Then cream is considered, and its separation and "ripening" are described, after which we pass to the churning and subsequent operations. A number of simple arithmetical examples are worked out to illustrate various points that arise. The last thirty pages deal, briefly and in a more technical manner, with the operations of a fully-equipped creamery, including "pasteurisation" and refrigerating.

The book does not profess to be much more than a useful note-book and practical guide, but as far as it goes it is excellent.

C. SIMMONDS.

The Deinhardt-Schlomann Series of Technical Dictionaries in Six Languages: English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian. By Kurt Deinhardt and Alfred Schlomann. Vol. i. *The Machine-Elements and Tools for Working in Metal and Wood.* Together with an Appendix, edited by P. Stülpnagel. Pp. 403; 823 illustrations. (London: Archibald Constable and Co., Ltd., 1906.) Price 5s. net.

THIS volume is the first of a series intended to aid engineers and others in reading technical works in any of the principal modern languages. Terms of general importance only are included; they are classified into subjects and many are accompanied by an explanatory sketch. Formulæ and symbols, serving as they do the purpose of an international language, are introduced wherever possible. The translations have been tested in workshops and offices in the various countries represented; so the work ought to prove of service in reading technical literature. The convenient pocket size of the dictionary, the systematic arrangement of its matter, and the full alphabetical index of words in each of the six languages should gain for it a sphere of usefulness among technical students.

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.]

Osmotic Pressure.

THE publication of a paper by Mr. Spens in vol. lxxvii. Proc. Roy. Soc., p. 234, in which he criticises a relation between the vapour and osmotic pressures of a solution which Mr. Hartley and I had deduced (see same volume), seems to be an opportune moment for directing the attention of physical chemists to the necessity for an agreement as to what is meant by the term osmotic pressure.

Mr. Spens, following Duhem, points out that the osmotic pressure, defined as the difference between the pressure on the solvent and the pressure applied to a solution to keep it in equilibrium with the solvent, when the two are separated by a semi-permeable membrane, varies according to the pressure on the solvent. He suggests using a definite pressure on the solvent, say its vapour pressure, as the standard.

I would point out that, by accepting this definition, one is necessarily bound to compare two solutions when they are under different conditions—not only on account of the different vapour pressures of different solvents, but also on account of the different pressures on the solutions themselves.

The following consideration will, I think, make this clear, and at the same time will suggest a more scientific standard.

There seem to be two methods of examining directly the osmotic phenomena of a solution.

(1) One, which I may call the osmotic "force" method, depends essentially on the determination of the rate at which the solvent will flow through a semi-permeable membrane into an infinite mass of solution when there is no pressure on the latter.

It is evident that if one knew the frictional resistance to the flow, the heat developed, &c., one could calculate the osmotic "force" in absolute units.

I would mention, in parenthesis, that Mr. Hartley and I have made some comparative experiments in this direction with results which were not entirely satisfactory.

(2) All other direct methods give what may be called equilibrium pressures; they depend on the measurement of the pressure necessary to bring about a balance between the solution and the solvent. These equilibrium pressures cannot, on account of the compression of the solution, be measured under the same conditions.

An example will show this plainly. The equilibrium pressure between a solution of 540 grams of cane-sugar in the litre of solution and the solvent (water) under atmospheric pressure is, in round numbers, 70 atmospheres. The equilibrium pressure for 750 grams in the litre is 134 atmospheres. In the actual measurements each solution had been compressed, in one case by 71 atmospheres and in the other by 135 atmospheres. The conditions were therefore not comparable.

If we could measure the osmotic "force" of these two solutions as in (1) then comparable results would be obtained, for in both cases the solution and the solvent would be under the same pressure (gravitational).

Up to the present, so far as I am aware, no serious attempts to measure the osmotic "force" have been made, but I would suggest that, pending these, the relation between the vapour and osmotic pressures of a solution as deduced by Mr. Hartley and myself may be useful for the purpose of comparing the osmotic pressures of different solutions.

This relation gives the osmotic pressure of a solution when it is under no pressure but its own vapour pressure. A knowledge of the vapour pressure, together with the density of the solvent, is all that is required for calculating

that pressure; while to apply the standard that Mr. Spens proposes, it is necessary to determine the increment in volume of the solution when unit mass of solvent enters it, and in some cases it may be necessary to obtain the coefficient of compression of the solution.

The experimental work saved by the adoption of the standard here proposed is apparent when it is remembered that, owing to the want of suitable semi-permeable membranes, the measurement of equilibrium pressures is confined to but a few substances dissolved in water.

Foxcombe, near Oxford.

BERKELEY.

The Eruption of Vesuvius.

YESTERDAY I ascended the cone of Vesuvius up to the crater, being, I suppose, one of the first climbers after the eruption. The ascent was made from Torre Annunziata without any difficulties, but care had to be taken to avoid the courses of the avalanches of stones and ashes rushing from the cone and spreading over the slopes more than half a mile from the foot of the cone.

I estimated the new crater to have a diameter of about 3000 feet; the bottom was not visible, but the walls could be seen to a depth of about 1000 feet. The inner walls are nearly perpendicular, partly overhanging, and I saw pieces of the very narrow crater edge breaking down, in this way still enlarging the crater. The very regular stratified construction of the crater walls was visible. The height of the crater edge is very different from what it was before the eruption, being greatest on the west side, and diminishing in irregular steps to the north and east. At the point to which I ascended the aneroid showed an elevation of 3760 feet. From this point, which was on the southern side, the Somma was clearly visible over the lower northern edge of the crater. This shape of the crater may account for the fact that the showers of lapilli and other fragmentary products which destroyed the villages of Ottajano and San Giuseppe were given a direction to the north and east over the Somma.

The crater now closely corresponds to the descriptions of the great crater formed in 1822, and described by Forbes and Scrope. From the throat of the crater I heard a constant roaring, and saw that white clouds of vapour filled the huge hollow, but I did not see any ejections of stones or dust.

On descending I visited the points where the lava streams started from the foot of the cone. The first lava reached the surface on the morning of April 4 a little west of the Casa Firenze, but it soon stopped. Another stream started from Casa Firenze, destroying the buildings, and flowed half the way toward Bosco-Trecase. The lava which damaged a part of Bosco-Trecase started on April 6 a little lower on the slope, and divided into two parallel branches. The quantity of lava during this eruption was on the whole comparatively small. No lava came from the crater. The general characteristics of the eruption are the immense amount of volcanic ash, lapilli, and other fragmentary material ejected, and this makes the eruption of April, 1906, very similar to that of the year 79 A.D.

Visiting the destroyed village Ottajano on April 19, I made the following curious observation. A great number of the window glasses are broken, but among the others there are many regularly penetrated or pierced by circular holes one or two inches in size. These holes are as common on the northern and eastern sides of the houses as on the other sides, and they can therefore not have been caused by the showers of lapilli, which only came from the south-west. Some people ascribed these holes to the very heavy lightning which accompanied the fall of the lapilli, but I am not aware that electrical discharges may produce such effects.

It may be of interest to note that when visiting the volcanic vents of the Phlegrean Plain to investigate if any kind of volcanic activity was shown in connection with the eruption of Vesuvius I heard that the emanation of steam from the Solfatara diminished greatly during the days of the strongest eruption of Vesuvius; normal conditions set in later.

Hj. SJÖGREN.

Naples, April 23.

Lightning Flashes.

In your issue of January 14, 1886 (vol. xxxiii., p. 245), Mr. T. Mackenzie reported lightning from a bank of cloud to the clear sky, but, as it was quite dark, one cannot be certain that there were no indistinct outliers. In Hann's "Lehrbuch der Meteorologie" (ed. 1, p. 632) other cases of lightning from a cloud to the clear sky are referred to.

On the evening of March 26, at 6.30 p.m., before dusk had set in, there was a large thunder cumulo-nimbus cloud about eight miles north of Johannesburg. The summit of this cloud was very sharp against a clear dark blue sky. There was no false cirrus. Six flashes of lightning darted from near the summit of the cloud into the clear sky. The longest path was about ten degrees. One flash returned to the cloud, the others finished in the clear sky. Before dusk set in this phenomenon ceased to occur. All the flashes were directed to that part of the sky from which the cloud moved.

In a well-known book on meteorology we read "it is impossible to say whether a flash of lightning moves from a cloud to the earth or in an opposite direction," and further that the lightning is instantaneous. Hann does not confirm these statements, and it is time that they were modified in English text-books. Quite frequently I have observed lightning flashes leaving a cloud for the earth, but fading away before reaching it; the opposite pheno-

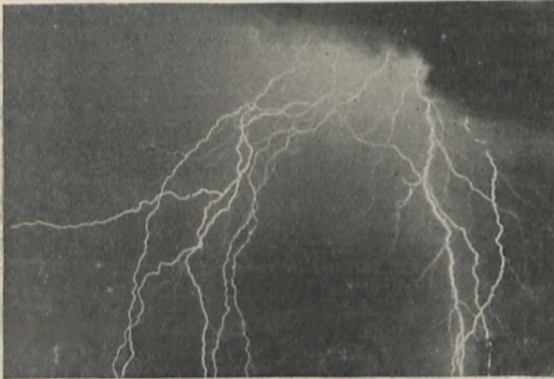


FIG. 1.—Lightning at Vereeniging, 1903.

menon has not been observed. The paths of lightning shown by photographs taken in the Transvaal all indicate discharges from cloud to cloud, and from cloud to earth. The enclosed photograph, taken by Mr. T. N. Leslie at Vereeniging, is typical. Some flashes of lightning are instantaneous, the majority are not, but I do not think any exceeds a duration of a third of a second. The revolving wheel has been used, and shows that the duration is often certainly much longer than 1/40th of a second. Johannesburg, April 2. R. T. A. I.

Diurnal Variation of Ionisation in Closed Vessels.

UNTIL Messrs. Campbell and Wood give us some more definite information as to the magnitude of the daily variation which they have found in the natural ionisation of air in closed vessels (NATURE, April 19, vol. lxxiii., p. 583), it is somewhat premature to go into a detailed discussion as to how this discovery will affect theories of atmospheric electricity. Still, the letter in NATURE of April 26 (vol. lxxiii., p. 607) on this question from Dr. O. W. Richardson calls for some remarks.

The facts are shortly:—(1) Messrs. Campbell and Wood discover that the natural ionisation of air in a closed vessel has a double daily period, the maxima being between 8 a.m. and 10 a.m. and between 10 p.m. and 1 a.m., the corresponding minima being at 2 p.m. and 4 a.m.; (2) the potential gradient in the lower atmosphere has, at most places, also a double period, the maxima being at about 8 a.m. and 8 p.m., and the minima at about 4 a.m. and midday. Thus, allowing for a certain amount of uncertainty in the exact determination of the times of the maxima and minima, we may say that the daily variations

of the natural ionisation and the potential gradient are similar.

In order to discuss a possible dependency of these two factors, Dr. Richardson assumes that "the distribution of the earth's field reduces itself to a case very similar to that between two plane electrodes immersed in a gas and maintained at a constant difference of potential." It is more than questionable as to whether this assumption is justifiable or not, for in atmospheric electricity we are dealing with constant quantities of electricity, and not with constant potentials. But, rather than follow up this objection, I would prefer to look at the problem from a different point of view, and show that the exact contrary conclusions can be deduced.

In discussing this problem, it is usual to accept that there is a negative charge on the earth's surface, and that the corresponding positive charge is a volume charge distributed in the atmosphere. Now all the measurements which we have of the daily variation of potential gradient have been made within a few metres of the surface. Within these few metres there can be, relative to the charge on the earth, very little volume charge, so what our measurements actually refer to is the charge on the surface, the relation being $dv/dh = -4\pi\sigma$. The point to notice in this is that, with a given charge on the surface and the corresponding charge in the atmosphere above, the vertical distribution of the charge and the conducting state of the upper atmosphere do not in the slightest affect the potential gradient within a few metres of the surface. If the potential gradient changes there it can only be by a change in the surface charge on the earth.

If there is a penetrating radiation which, besides ionising the air in closed vessels, also ionises the air in the atmosphere, we should expect from Messrs. Campbell and Wood's experiments the ionisation of the air in all parts of the atmosphere to have a daily variation. Thus the air quite near the surface would twice a day be exceptionally conducting; one would expect that at these times there would be a greater loss of the surface charge, and so the remaining charge to be diminished, and with it the potential gradient. The consequence would be a daily variation of the potential gradient corresponding to the variation of ionisation, but the maxima of one corresponding to the minima of the other.

That such a relation does exist between the ionisation of the lower atmosphere and potential gradient has been shown by many observers situated in most parts of the globe. Thus from Messrs. Campbell and Wood's results one would expect minima of the potential gradient to occur at about 8 a.m. and 10 p.m.; this is the exact reverse of what really occurs.

Thus it would appear as if Messrs. Campbell and Wood have added one more to the many puzzling factors connected with atmospheric electricity.

Manchester University.

GEORGE C. SIMPSON.

August Rainfall.

ACCORDING to Greenwich experience, August has been a very dry month considerably oftener about sun-spot *maxima* than about *minima*. This fact may be of some practical interest.

Using Mr. Nash's table (from 1815), let us confine our attention to the three years about the eight maxima and the three about the eight minima, i.e. twenty-four years in each division.

The driest August in the *minima* division was in '55, with 1.40 inches. But in the *maxima* division there are ten cases of lower values, ranging from 1.25 inches down to 0.45 inch, viz. '38, '49, '59, '61, '69, '71, '82, '83, '84, '93. Since 1837 no three-year group of this division has been without at least one such very dry August, two have had two, and one three.

The total August rainfall in those twenty-four-year groups is, in the sun-spot *maxima* division, 50.25 inches, in the *minima* division 66.50 inches, the higher value thus showing an excess of 16.25 inches (nearly one-third of the lower).

The sun-spot maximum we are now near (1905?) has not been here considered, but I may remark that in 1904 we had one of those low August values (1.24 inches).

ALEX. B. MACDOWALL.

AT THE HEAD OF LOCH FYNE.¹

A LARGER number of contributors even than those mentioned on the title-page have conspired to make this memoir authoritative and complete. It is descriptive of Sheet 37 of the 1-inch geological map of Scotland, an attractive work published in 1903, in which the north-east and south-west lines of the Caledonian earth-folding predominate, and are followed out in the trend of the intrusive masses. The memoir is illustrated by excellent plates, one of which is here reproduced; and the fact that part of the ground is familiar to the tourist gives it an additional interest.

The region described is cut, from corner to corner, by the noble inlet of Loch Fyne. The parallel reach

landscape. The fundamental rocks of the district are metamorphic, and formed a part of the Caledonian continent, on which the Old Red Sandstone gathered; and Mr. Hill points out how denudation is removing the Devonian lavas and lake-deposits in the north-west, and is revealing, in the sculpture of the old continent, a highland much like that of modern days. The ice-flows of the Glacial epoch, however, have moulded the present surface in many of its details, have left erratic blocks in quaint positions on the hills, and have deposited moraines and banks of gravel across the edges of the ancient schists.

The metamorphosed series is mainly of sedimentary origin, with many bands of limestone. The albite-schists (p. 15), which are "highly micaceous or chloritic rocks with grains or crystals of clear



FIG. 1.—The summit of the Pass of Glencroe, with Loch Restil. The rugged hill scenery is formed by the Ben Bheula schists. From "The Geology of Mid-Argyll."

of Loch Awe lies in the north-west, and Loch Eck, banked out by gravel terraces from the sea, comes in near Loch Long in the south-east. The traveller by land usually enters the region by the steep and rugged fastnesses of Glencroe, and leaves it by Glen Aray, if he is willing to face the rain-swept moorland above which Cruachan towers in the north. The geological surveyors, however, have become familiar with a wide area practically untrodden by any visitor. Mr. Hill's appreciative introduction should be read with the aid of the hill-shaded Ordnance map, Sheet 37, one of the most beautiful products of a draughtsman who surely possessed a sentiment for

¹ "The Geology of Mid-Argyll." By J. B. Hill, with the collaboration of B. N. Peach, C. T. Clough, and H. Kynaston, with petrographical notes by J. J. H. Teall and J. S. Flett. Pp. vi+166. Memoirs of the Geological Survey, Scotland. (Glasgow, for H.M. Stationery Office: J. Hedderwick and Sons, Ltd., 1905.) Price 8s.

secondary albite," are of special interest. Dr. Teall supplies an analysis, showing 3.2 per cent. of soda and an equal amount of potash. This allows 28 per cent. of the rock to be formed of albite. "Green beds," which are hornblendic, and yet are not the intrusive epidiorites so familiar in Dalradian areas, occur in a band south-east of Loch Fyne, and may have been derived clastically from some preexisting basic igneous series (p. 18). True zills of epidiorite occur, however, plentifully among the metamorphic rocks between Loch Awe and Loch Fyne. In the same region there are numerous later intrusions of quartz-porphry and other igneous rocks, probably post-Silurian in age. "Kentallenite," described in detail by Mr. Hill in 1900 (Quart. Journ. Geol. Soc., vol. lvi., p. 531), and first known from the Appin promontory, occurs here and there, as a link between

the masses rich in alkalis and the biotite-peridotites. Mr. Kynaston (p. 102) regards this rock, with the granites and diorites of the north-west area, as contemporaneous with the Ben Cruachan granite, that is, as later than the Lower Old Red Sandstone lavafloes. The regional metamorphism of the older rocks of mid-Argyll is not due to these numerous intrusive masses, nor to any concealed dome of granite. It increases in intensity from north-west to south-east, and also along the strike of the ancient sedimentary series in a north-easterly direction, so that comparatively unaltered rocks of the "Loch Awe group" (p. 76) pass, outside the limits of Sheet 37, into schists of a very pronounced degree of crystallisation. Local thermal alteration tends to mask both the original clastic structures and the subsequent foliation (p. 39).

The form of the lake-floors in connection with the passage of ice across them is interestingly discussed in chapter xiii. At the time of maximum glaciation, the upper portion of the Loch Fyne ice moved out westward towards the Sound of Jura, the general south-westerly course being resumed as the ice thinned down again and became guided by the topographic features. It is held that Loch Awe at one time drained southward, when the level of its waters was nearly 200 feet higher than at present.

The economic resources of the district, which are neither conspicuous nor generally accessible, are referred to at the close of the memoir. If petrographic details naturally predominate in such a work, they only testify to the scientific thoroughness with which the Geological Survey is encouraged to explore the Scottish highlands.

THE EGYPTIAN HEAVEN AND HELL.¹

IN his "Egyptian Heaven and Hell" Dr. Wallis Budge has contributed another work to his already long list of books dealing with the subject of ancient Egyptian religions. It appears in three-volume form in the useful little series of "Books on Egypt and Chaldæa," written by Dr. Budge and Mr. L. W. King, and published by Messrs. Kegan Paul. Those who are interested in the subject are familiar with Dr. Budge's edition of the "Book of the Dead" in the same series. These volumes form a companion work, being an edition of the two subsidiary collections of funerary texts, "The Book of the Am-Tuat (that which is in Hades)" and "The Book of the Gates," which accompanied the great "Chapters of Coming Forth into the Day," the "Book of the Dead" proper. As in the former work, Dr. Budge gives the text, translation, and illustrations from the original papyri.

The two subsidiary books differ somewhat in purpose and scope from the "Book of the Dead" itself. The latter is a collection of spells and "words of magic power" to be learnt by the dead in order to win their way past the dangers of the unseen world into the presence of Osiris. The individual dead man, identified with Osiris, "the Osiris N," is the central figure of every chapter of the "Book of the Dead." "Chapter so-and-so. I, the Osiris so-and-so, say," and so on. But in the Book of That

¹ "The Egyptian Heaven and Hell." By E. A. Wallis Budge, Litt.D. Vol. i., The Book Am-Tuat, pp. viii+273; vol. ii., The Book of Gates, pp. viii+306; vol. iii., The Contents of the Books of the Other World described and compared, pp. xviii+232. (London: Kegan Paul and Co., Ltd., 1906.) Price 6s. net each volume.

which is in Hades, and in the Book of the Gates, the dead man is not the principal figure. In fact, in the first-named (hereinafter called "The Book of the Tuat") he hardly appears at all; the book is merely a description of the other world as it appears to the beatified spirits who follow the bark of the sun-god in its passage through Hades (the Tuat) from west to east, from his setting to his rising. During the night the dead sun-god, known as Auf ("his limbs," i.e. the carcass of the sun), sails through the regions of the underworld to give light to the dwellers therein, and during his voyage the souls of the blessed rise up and join themselves to his boat. It is a weird conception, and the description of these regions of the dark beyond, as given in Dr. Budge's book, is still more weird. The Tuat is divided into several distinct Tuats, each corresponding to one of the great Egyptian necropolises, Abydos, Thebes, Sakkara, and Heliopolis. Each has its peculiar features, and appears to be tenanted by demons and spirits with unpronounceable names and of strange appearance, some of whom are good and help the bark of the god on its way, while others are bad and seek by every means in their power to oppose its progress. These are vanquished in succession as the sun passes their territories. The "Book of the Gates" is so called on account of its chief feature being the successive mention of the gates of the Tuats, each of which has its demon-guardian, who is passed by means of the appropriate spell. In it the

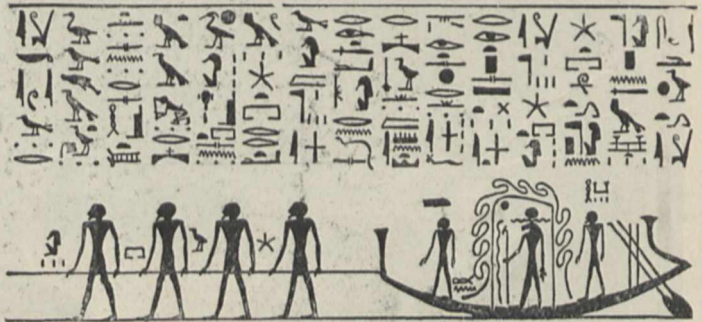


FIG. 1.—The Boat of the Sun towed by Gods of the Tuat. From "The Egyptian Heaven and Hell," vol. ii., The Book of Gates.

god Osiris appears, but not to the extent to which he appears in the "Book of the Dead," the chapters of which seem to have originally emanated from the original seat of his worship at Busiris in the Delta. Indeed, the "Book of the Tuat" may be a much later invention of the Theban priests, designed to divert the attention of the faithful from the northern Osiris to the sun-god of Thebes. It is homogeneous in plan, which the "Book of the Dead" is not. Dr. Budge gives a parallel version of both subsidiary books in his third volume, so that they can conveniently be compared. In the same volume are to be found his introduction and a most compendious index.

The pictures of these two books are extremely remarkable. Their general appearance will be well known to those who have visited the tombs of the kings at Thebes, or have seen the wonderful alabaster sarcophagus of King Seti I. in Sir John Soane's museum in Lincoln's Inn Fields. Under the eighteenth and nineteenth dynasties the walls of the royal tombs were decorated with scenes from the "Book of the Tuat" and "Book of the Gates," so that the dead monarchs could see in pictures at least the weird forms which the imagination of the

Egyptians conceived as inhabiting the tomb-world; and occasionally sarcophagi were ornamented in the same manner. Some of the best illustrations in Dr. Budge's book are taken from the sculptures of Seti's sarcophagus.

The conceptions of the rewards and punishments

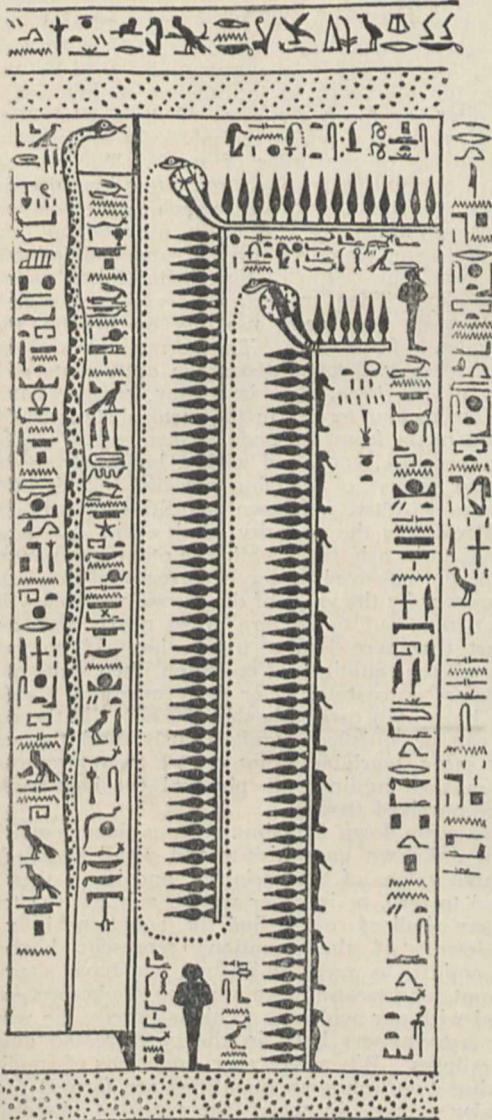


FIG. 2.—The Gate of the Serpent Agebi. From "The Egyptian Heaven and Hell," vol. ii., The Book of Gates.

of the dead in the next world as given in these two books are also well worth the attention of the anthropologist.

ANCIENT ECLIPSES.

THE results of recent discussion of ancient eclipses may for convenience be divided into three sections. The conclusion of each section depends upon the truth of the conclusions of the preceding sections, but not vice versa, that is to say, the results of the last section may be rejected without in the least impairing the validity of the earlier conclusions. The results are as follows:—

(1) If an astronomer had been asked a year ago by
NO. 1905, VOL. 74]

a historian or a chronologist whether the tables of the sun and moon accurately accounted for the recorded phenomena of ancient eclipses, he could only have replied that the tables failed altogether to account for the solar eclipses; that they had been empirically altered so as to account for the observed times of certain lunar eclipses; and that the question whether the tables so altered accounted for the magnitudes of the same lunar eclipses had not even been examined. There seemed to be no possible modification of the tables that would bring them into harmony with the recorded solar eclipses, and it was therefore the received opinion that the historical accounts of these were untrustworthy. The first result is that two slight modifications of the existing tables will cause them to satisfy the records.

The modifications in question may be stated as follows:—Define the nodical month as the mean period between one passage of the moon from south to north of the ecliptic and the next passage, and define the nodical year as the mean period between one passage of the sun from south to north of the plane of the moon's orbit and the next passage, purely periodic variations being left out of account. Then the eclipses show that the rate of change of length of both the nodical month and nodical year as given in the tables must be altered.

(2) The second section of the results is concerned with the question, "In order to alter the rate of variation of the nodical year, are we to alter the acceleration of the node or of the sun?" Now the motion of the node depends upon theory, and the same theory which accounts for its motion at the present time will suffice to calculate its motion at any time during the last few centuries. The motion of the sun, however, is purely a question of observation. Unknown causes may easily be conceived as altering its motion. The second result is therefore to ascribe an acceleration to the sun's motion to account for the variation in the nodical year inferred from ancient eclipses, or in other words, we may leave out the word "nodical" in our statement and say, "The ancient eclipses indicate certain definite rates of change in the lengths of the month and year."

(3) We lastly require some physical explanation of the sun's acceleration. Here there are many possibilities. The æther may offer a sensible resistance to the passage of the earth; or an electro-magnetic theory of gravitation may compel us to take account of the small, but not infinitesimal, ratio between the velocity of a planet in its orbit and the velocity of light; or again, electrical theories of matter somewhat modify the old conception of mass, and with it the fundamental equations of motion on which planetary theory rests. But the explanation tentatively put forward at the April meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society is as follows:—Let us suppose the acceleration of the sun to be due to a change in the length of the day caused by tidal friction. The tides check the rotation of the earth, lengthen the day, and therefore apparently increase all diurnal movements by the same fraction of their whole amounts. Introducing numbers for greater definiteness, let us suppose that in a century the day increases in length by a two-hundredth part of a second of time. Then in a century the sun's apparent rate of motion will increase by one part in seventeen million, which is exactly the change indicated by the eclipses. If, however, the moon's apparent rate of motion also increased by one part in seventeen million the acceleration would be ten times larger than that indicated by the eclipses.

But if the tides are checking the diurnal rotation of the earth, it follows from the principle of conserva-

tion of angular momentum that the moon must be receding from the earth, and absorbing the spin lost by the earth. This implies that the moon is really moving more slowly. It is impossible to make accurate calculations, for the action of the tides on an earth with oceans and continents of irregular shape cannot be computed, and it is impossible to say how the tidal action varies for different positions of the moon in its elliptic orbit. Hence we cannot say how far the action of the tides is distributed between changes in the length of the month and changes in the eccentricity of the moon's orbit. But it seems a plausible hypothesis that the large eccentricity of the moon's orbit was evolved somehow, presumably by tides, and that the eccentricity is therefore increasing, and calculation shows that if the rate of increase assigned to the eccentricity be about one-hundredth of a second of arc a century, the consequent change in the absolute angular velocity of the moon is such as to cancel nine-tenths of the apparent decrease in the length of the month, leaving the remaining one-tenth in agreement with the change inferred from ancient eclipses. This explanation, it should be clearly understood, only shows that certain correlated quantities are of the right order of magnitude: it is unable to prove or disprove an exact numerical relation.

In the remaining part of this article the basis of the conclusion of the first section is examined. That is the foundation, which must be rendered secure before interest can attach to any superstructure.

Let us select a definite eclipse, for instance, the eclipse of Thucydides in the first year of the Peloponnesian War. The record states that stars appeared. It is certain on the other hand that the eclipse, at the most, could only have been annular. There is therefore a strong presumption that Athens was not far from the central line of the eclipse, or in other words, at the time of conjunction in longitude as seen from Athens, the difference of apparent latitudes must have been small. The hypothesis that Athens was the place of observation has been objected to. This however is the natural interpretation of the passage in Thucydides; let us adopt it for the present and see where it leads. For Athens, therefore, let the difference of apparent latitude for the instant of apparent conjunction in longitude be computed from the present tables. The result is so large as absolutely to negative the possibility that stars could have been seen. Reserving the hypothesis that the record is untrustworthy as a last refuge in case of trouble, let us suppose for the present that the tables require alteration.

What kind of alteration is permissible? It has been argued in *Ast. Nach.*, No. 3682, on physical grounds, that only one unknown quantity may be introduced. Now against physical reasoning of this kind, strong objections may be urged. It proceeds necessarily on the assumption that the general nature of the problem of the apparent motions of the sun and moon is fully understood. It absolutely limits the investigation to the numerical determination of quantities connected with a preconceived theory, and it prevents, at the outset, the attainment of results of a new character. Now as the preconceived theory was entirely based upon two centuries of observation, there is no improbability in our knowledge being widened, when the period of observation is largely increased. In the whole of astronomy there is not a single case of a theoretical value of a secular term, that is to say, a term proportional to the square of the time, being confirmed by observation. This is because the series of modern observations is not yet long enough. Is it not possible that one or two centuries hence the

observed values of these terms will lay bare a whole series of new phenomena? Physical considerations of the kind alluded to absolutely prevent the achievement of such a result. They may advantageously be replaced in the following manner by considerations of a purely geometrical character.

It being, for a time at least, granted that the eclipse of Thucydides suggests that the existing tables require large modifications, geometrical considerations tell us, that in order to diminish by 200" or thereabouts the difference of latitude at conjunction, we must alter the mean distances of the sun and moon from the node as given by the tables for the year -430 by quantities of the order of 2000". The only geometrical alternative is to assume alterations ten times as large in some other quantity such as the position of the perigee, and this alternative may be put aside. Now the mean distances can be expanded in powers of the time, the origin of time being taken near the present day. Then modern observations forbid the correction of the mean motions or of the terms independent of the time. The corrections are therefore necessarily thrown about the coefficients of the square of the time, that is to say, upon what are called the secular terms, in the mean distances of the sun and moon from the node. Geometrical considerations therefore, combined with a becoming modesty as to our powers of applying physical considerations, present us with two unknown quantities for correction, one of which is the quantity admitted in *Ast. Nach.*, No. 3682 to be arbitrary, while the other is a new one.

If the preconceived theory is correct and the records are trustworthy the value of the second variable will on solution turn out to be zero or so nearly zero as to suggest that zero is the true value. If no values satisfy all the equations of condition, then some of the records are untrustworthy or the geometrical considerations have been carelessly thought out. If the equations can be satisfied simultaneously, and the value of the second variable is not zero, a very strong case is established against the physical considerations of the preconceived theory.

If we write down five simultaneous linear equations in two unknown quantities x and y , all satisfied by the same values of the variables, and if we then put y equal to zero, or in other words, rub out the terms in y , we shall of course find the equations in x are inconsistent. If the equations represent historical data, and if, as men of science, we have a proper contempt for literature, we shall no doubt proceed to quarrel with our evidence. This is exactly the way in which astronomers have in the past treated ancient solar eclipses. When, however, equations of condition involving two unknown quantities are formed for all the solar eclipses in which the place of observation appears to have been fairly near the central line, whereas modern tables give residuals of the order of 200", that is to say, make the apparent differences of latitude at conjunction in longitude of the order of 200", values can be found for the unknown quantities, which will make all the residuals less than 50"; in other words, whereas the present tables would leave about ten per cent. of the sun's diameter visible, the alterations proposed never leave so much as two per cent. visible.

Let it be here stated that no solar eclipse is an exception to the above statement. The conclusions rest, not upon the evidence of a majority but upon the unanimous evidence of all eclipses used. A list of these is given in *Monthly Notices*, lxx., p. 861, and a reference is given on p. 867 to the eclipse of Agathocles. The eclipse of Thales has not been

worked up as it occurred a hundred years before the birth of Herodotus; its evidence, whether for or against, is held to be inadmissible.

A confirmation of these results is supplied by the lunar eclipses of the Almagest. On working them up, it is found that the residuals are so large as to show that they are entitled to far less weight than the solar eclipses. Their value lies in the fact that the separate determinations from the lunar eclipses group themselves round the values derived from solar eclipses. The lunar eclipses are given in Monthly Notices, lxi., pp. 6-7; they are nineteen in number, and in only ten cases is a numerical estimate of the magnitude recorded. These ten cases alone therefore test the newly-discovered fact which, in language that becomes appropriate only if the second section of results is admitted, states that the earth's orbital motion is subject to a secular acceleration of $4''$. Now of the ten lunar eclipses available, seven give accelerations lying between $2''$ and $6''$. It is therefore hard to believe that zero and not $4''$ is the correct value. The times of the lunar eclipses are equally striking in their confirmation of the result. Nearly thirty years ago a correction was introduced into Hansen's Tables based upon these eclipses. The main question is one of evidence. It is no use to point out in the third section of this paper how certain changes may be accounted for, if they are not shown to exist. On the other hand, no objections to a particular explanation of the physical reason can weaken the case for the observed fact that these changes are taking place. What is sufficient evidence? Two eclipses would suffice, if they had been described with a wealth of detail that established complete confidence in the records. A hundred eclipses of the actual sort would probably satisfy the most sceptical, even though the place assigned were always "tacitly assumed (to be) the capital where the record was made, or the place where the poet or historian lived." The smaller number of eclipses, which it has alone been possible to produce, should suffice to make a case almost if not completely amounting to certainty. P. H. COWELL.

VARIATIONS OF DOMESTIC POULTRY.¹

THE book under notice is one of an original character. It is an attempt to describe all the different races of domestic poultry that exist in various parts of the world, and as such is not without its value, as it gives us a description of the races of fowls as they exist, not only in Asia, but in the various States of Europe and the United States of America. The book treats almost solely of the races of fowls from a fancier's point of view. The plumage and external characters which would be noticed in a show-pen are those that are dwelt upon, and as a scientific treatise the work cannot be regarded as having any special value, and would be unfairly treated if it were regarded from the same standpoint as Darwin's "Variation of Animals under Domestification."

The illustrations, which are very numerous, are not original, but taken from the fancy poultry journals, where the birds are drawn with the usual exaggeration of the points valued by the fancier, and bred for securing prizes. The consequence is that some of them are good and others quite the reverse, but the plumage in many is exaggerated. To scientific ornithologists this history of the location of colour in the different parts of the plumage of birds, and the

fixture of the patterns in the races, is one of considerable interest. To those acquainted with the details of poultry breeding it is well known that any variation of the colour or texture of feathers which appears in any particular specimen can, by careful selection of the offspring, for a series of generations, be readily perpetuated, and by crossing with other varieties almost any pattern or disposition of colour can be obtained, and what is called a new breed formed. This is illustrated by the engraving, which we borrow from the work, of a German race at present but little known in this country, called the Lakenfelder. In this the colours are transposed from their general position, and a remarkable looking fowl is produced, which is correctly represented in the engraving.

It is of much scientific interest to trace the extent of the variation which can be induced by careful breeding. In the fowl, these variations have been almost exclusively confined to the plumage, which in some instances has been increased to an enormous extent, as in the production of quill feathers 8 inches long on the feet of the show Cochin, and the general

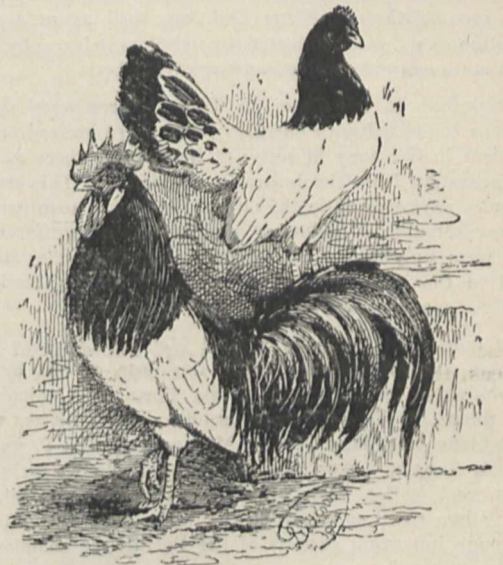


FIG. 1.—Lakenfelders. From "Races of Domestic Poultry."

increase of the plumage to a great extent, so that the modern show Cochin does not at all resemble the original birds brought from Shanghai. In other cases the plumage has been partially abolished, as in the Nackthäse or Transylvanian naked necks, in which the head and neck are entirely denuded of feathers, and the skin assumes the red colour of the comb. These variations are permanent, and are intensified by long-continued breeding. The production of spangles or dark markings at the end of the feathers, of bordered margins of black on a light ground in the whole of the body feathers, and of regular transverse bars across each feather of the plumage, have all been accomplished and perpetuated by careful selection.

The various breeds of ducks, geese, and turkeys are also treated of.

The work contains in an appendix a very elaborate and useful list of the names of the races in all the European languages, which will prove of great value to all investigating the subject of variation.

W. B. TEGETMEIER.

¹ "Races of Domestic Poultry." By Edward Brown. Pp. xi+234; illustrated. (London: Edward Arnold, 1906.) Price 6s. net.

NOTES.

THE gentlemen's conversazione at the Royal Society will be held on Wednesday next, May 9.

THE summer meeting of the American Chemical Society will this year be held in Ithaca, N.Y., on June 28-30.

It is announced that the German Government has issued invitations for an International Conference on Wireless Telegraphy to meet on June 28.

THE sixth International Congress of Applied Chemistry was opened at Rome on April 26 by the King and Queen of Italy in the presence of the Diplomatic Body, the members of the Cabinet, high officials of the State, and about two thousand delegates. Speeches were delivered by Prof. E. Paternò, president of the congress, Signor Boselli, Minister of Public Instruction, Prof. O. Witt, and delegates of the chief nations represented at the congress. The British delegates are Prof. W. A. Tilden, F.R.S., Prof. W. N. Hartley, F.R.S., and Dr. J. J. Dobbie, F.R.S.

A REUTER telegram from New York states that the new French liner *La Provence*, when 1800 miles from Poldhu and 1700 miles from Cape Cod, on April 25 at 2 p.m., simultaneously communicated by wireless telegraphy with both stations, and received answers from both.

ACCORDING to the *Chemiker Zeitung* there were 183,532 persons connected with chemistry who were insured against accident in Germany in 1904; of these, 1535 cases received compensation from the insurance companies. This number includes 109 cases of death, 14 completely and 1040 partially incapacitated from following their vocation in life, whilst 372 were only for a time unable to work; the amount paid to the injured or the relatives of the deceased was nearly 2,200,000 marks.

IN honour of the International Medical Congress to be held in Lisbon this year, there has been opened a small exhibition of the products of the Portuguese colonies in the rooms of the Colonial Museum. The exhibits, which are chiefly from Cape Verde, Mozambique, the Portuguese Indies, Angola, Timor, and Guinea, deal almost exclusively with wool, coffee, cocoa, and india-rubber; palm oil, &c., and other raw materials of the fatty and oil industries, although important exports of the Portuguese colonies, are not represented.

ARRANGEMENTS are being made to hold a "Country in Town" exhibition at the Whitechapel Art Gallery in July. The object of the exhibition is to show East Londoners what can be done to bring into the neighbourhood something of the beauty of nature. It is proposed to show living things, pictures and models, materials and appliances, plans for the improvement of certain areas in London, and exhibits explaining city life in Japan and other countries. Contributions towards the necessary expenses are asked for, and these may be sent to the Rev. Canon Barnett at Toynbee Hall, E.

THE ninth annual meeting of the Childhood Society will be held on Tuesday next, May 8, at the residence of the president, Earl Egerton of Tatton. Sir Edward Brabrook, C.B., will deliver an address. The chief object of the society is to promote the study of educational methods and of the environment of children during school life, best suited to ensure satisfactory mental and physical development of children. The society numbers among its members representatives of educational science, teachers, medical experts, and others interested in the investigation of mental and physical conditions of childhood.

EARTHQUAKE shocks have again been common during the past week. Reuter's messages show that on April 25 a disturbance was felt at 3.15 p.m. at San Francisco, and lasted nearly a minute. This shock was also felt at Oakland and Berkeley. On April 26 shocks were felt at Salinas, 100 miles south of San Francisco, at 8 p.m. and 9.50 a.m., and these were followed by a third on April 27 at 2 a.m. Each of these three disturbances lasted about four seconds. A later telegram reports that earthquakes were felt at Salinas every day from April 18 to 27. On April 27, too, four disturbances of increasing intensity were felt at Dresden, and on April 28 in Schönberg, Brambach, and other places in the Vogtland district. Two slight shocks were felt at San Francisco on the morning of April 30.

It is arranged that the International Association for Testing Materials, which holds its congresses about every three years in industrial centres in various countries, shall this year meet in the Academy of Science at Brussels on September 3-8. The King of Belgium has accorded the congress his patronage, while Prince Albert of Belgium will be one of the honorary presidents, as also will the Ministers of Finance, Railways, War, and Trade, and the Mayor of Brussels. Among the papers to be read will be one on the industries of Belgium, by Baron E. de Laveleye and M. Camerman. It is expected that a considerable number of members and delegates from this country will be present at the congress. Mr. J. E. Stead, F.R.S., Middlesbrough, is the English secretary of the association.

At the annual general meeting of the Institution of Civil Engineers, held on April 24, Sir Alexander B. W. Kennedy, F.R.S., was elected president of the institution. The council has made the following awards for papers read and discussed before the institution during the past session:—A Telford gold medal to Mr. J. A. Saner, a Watt gold medal to Mr. G. G. Stoney, and a George Stephenson gold medal to Dr. T. E. Stanton; Telford premiums to Mr. Leonard Bairstow, Mr. H. S. Bidwell, Mr. J. J. Webster, Mr. Cathcart, Mr. W. Methven, Mr. H. A. Mavor, Sir Frederick R. Upcott, K.C.V.O., C.S.I., and a Manby premium to Mr. D. E. Lloyd-Davies. The presentation of these awards, together with those for papers which have not been subject to discussion, and will be announced later, will take place at the inaugural meeting of next session.

IN Tennyson's "Palace of Art" occur the lines:—

"She saw the snowy poles and Moons of Mars,
That mystic field of drifted light
In mid Orion, and the married stars."

This at first sight looks like a literary parallel to Swift's well-known fortuitous forecast of the discovery of the Martian satellites, and Mr. J. S. Stevenson, writing from Blairavon, Norwood, Ceylon, points out that Prof. H. H. Turner quotes it in "Modern Astronomy" as having been written in 1835. This, however, appears not to have been the case; for Mr. Stevenson, on reference to the biography of the late poet laureate by the present Lord Tennyson has found the note, "The 'Moons of Mars' is the only modern reading here, all the rest are more than half a century old." Scientific discovery was thus not anticipated by Tennyson in the mention of Martian satellites.

THE Paris correspondent of the *Times* made the following announcement in a message on Monday night:—"The Prince of Monaco formally announced to the French Minister of Education to-day his decision to establish in Paris the Oceanographic Institute that he has founded. He will endow the institute with the magnificent museum

now existing at Monaco, including its laboratories, collections, aquaria, &c. The Prince has set apart 4,000,000 francs (160,000*l.*) for the maintenance of the institute. It will be established on grounds recently bought by the University of Paris with the assistance of the Prince in the rue Saint-Jacques and the rue d'Ulm. The scientific direction of the institute is vested in an international committee of specialists in oceanography. The French Government has expressed its formal thanks for this really princely gift."

THE first of a series of four lectures on atmospheric circulation and its relation to weather was delivered by Dr. W. N. Shaw at the University of London on Tuesday, May 1. Dr. Shaw referred to the valuable contributions to meteorology in the last fifty years by Dr. Buchan, Abercromby, and Clement Ley, and he pointed out that, so far as the forecasting of the weather is concerned, no great advance has been made in recent years, and that it is necessary to take into consideration the atmosphere in the upper regions and to deal with the general circulation as a whole. Great advance has been made recently in that way by the use of kites and balloons, and the direction of the air currents in the higher regions can be determined from the records of the barometer, thermometer, and hygrometer obtained in those ascents. Some very interesting diagrams were thrown on the screen, showing the circulation at a height of 4000 metres, from charts constructed by M. Teisserenc de Bort, and also showing the results of international upper-cloud observations as deduced by Dr. Hildebrandsson for various parts of the globe.

THE contents of Irish Fisheries Scientific Investigations, 1904, No. 6 (1905), includes a paper on "plankton" collected at light-stations, by Dr. L. H. Gough, and hydrographical observations made at the same. In connection with the plankton, it is noticeable that when this comprises a large number of copepod crustaceans, the vegetable organisms are much less numerous than usual, and *vice versa*.

THE four articles in the April issue of the *Zoologist* are equally divided between birds and fishes. In recording the rare birds seen in Norfolk during 1905, Mr. John Gurney again notices the occurrence of quite a number of avocets on Breydon Flats. The birds of Derbyshire, as observed in 1904-5, form the subject of an article by the Rev. Mr. Jourdain. Mr. L. E. Adams describes his own observations on the mode of flight of flying-fishes, while Prof. McIntosh discusses certain Japanese food-fishes.

SIX new fishes from Japan, described by Messrs. Jordan and Seale, form the subject of No. 1445 of the Proceedings of the U.S. National Museum; while the succeeding number of the same journal (No. 1446) is devoted to descriptions of new American Palæozoic ostracod crustaceans, by Messrs. Ulrich and Bassler. In No. 1447 of the Proceedings Mr. J. W. Gidley describes the skull of a ruminant allied to the musk-ox from Pleistocene strata in New Mexico. The new generic name *Liops* is proposed for this ruminant, which is of special interest on account of its southern habitat.

THE trustees of the Indian Museum, Calcutta, according to the report for the past financial year, have decided to charge an admission-fee of 8 annas on Sundays between the hours of 3 p.m. and 5 p.m., in order to give the educated classes an opportunity of studying the contents of the galleries under more favourable opportunities than has

been hitherto possible. As a rule, the galleries are absolutely crowded with members of the illiterate class throughout the time when they are open to the general public. It is proposed greatly to enlarge the museum, at an estimated cost of 2½ lakhs of rupees—a sum apparently already at the disposal of the trustees.

MR. F. A. LUCAS, curator of The Museum, Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, Brooklyn, N.Y., desires to direct attention to a photograph of Laysan Island, issued several years ago, showing on the beach a large turtle, and, what is more important, a large seal, which appeared to be of the genus *Monachus*. He points out that if this seal really belongs to the genus *Monachus*, the fact is of great scientific interest, as it would make the seal circum-tropical. Mr. Lucas would be glad to know if anything has been published regarding this seal, specimens of which he believes were taken to Europe.

A PAMPHLET has reached us containing an address delivered by Dr. Paul Kronthal before the Berlin Psychological Society in October of last year on the idea of the soul (Jena: Gustav Fischer). The lecturer, continuing the investigation of which notice has already been taken in these columns, elaborates his account of the soul as the sum of reflexes. This definition, he claims, does justice to all the facts, *e.g.* of inheritance of physical characteristics, of mental disease, of memory, and the like. He occupies several pages with a discussion of the freedom of the will, a conception which, it appears, is abandoned by all consistent theologians, men of science, historians, and jurists. But it appears also from the later half of the lecture that to define the soul as the sum of reflexes satisfies only natural science; from the standpoint of metaphysics we must speak of the soul as sensation. Apparently, too, the metaphysical view leads directly to solipsism, and the metaphysical world consists of abstractions like love, hate, joy, sorrow, good, bad. The world of the scientific man, on the other hand, is made up of five entities, which at first sight appear very real as compared with these abstractions, but which are ultimately admitted to be five metaphysical ideas—time, space, matter, energy, number. It is further admitted that the fundamental law of causality is for natural science undemonstrable. Dr. Kronthal concludes his somewhat paradoxical lecture with two dicta—that the honourable metaphysician must grant that the conceptions of natural science are the more justifiable, and that no thoughtful man of science can deny that the conceptions of natural science are in the last resort only matters of faith.

A CATALOGUE of microscopical objects and accessories has been received from Mr. R. G. Mason; a special feature is made of geological and stained botanical sections that can be mounted by purchasers. A section of limestone sent as a sample of the mounted objects shows a variety of Foraminifera, and is otherwise a desirable specimen, also a double-stained section of pine stem is a thoroughly satisfactory preparation.

THE second number of the *Journal of Economic Biology* contains papers on the effects of metazoan parasites on their hosts, by Messrs. Shipley and Fearnside; on the bionomics of grain weevils, by Mr. F. J. Cole; on the deposition of eggs and larvæ in *Æstrus ovis*, by Mr. W. E. Collinge; and on the ox-warble flies, by Mr. A. D. Imms. The reviews and current literature, with notes, which complete the number are a valuable feature of the journal.

A SERIES of identifications of Philippine plants is published in Publication No. 35 of the Bureau of Government Laboratories, Manila. Mr. H. N. Ridley has worked out the Scitamineæ, describing three new species of Amomum; Mr. C. B. Clarke has named the Acanthaceæ; Dr. E. Häckel has identified a collection of grasses; and Mr. E. D. Merrill contributes some notes on Cuming's Philippine plants, as well as the fourth series of diagnoses of new or noteworthy plants. Among the latter are two new species of Rhizophoraceæ, a *Gynotrochea* growing in forest at an altitude of 4000 feet, and a *Pellacalyx*, also new species of *Eugenia* and of *Saurauia*.

THE original habitat of the coconut palm has often been the subject of speculation. In a paper read before the Ceylon branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, Mr. J. Ferguson, tracing the early history of the cultivation of the coconut palm in Ceylon, accepts the general dictum that the plant is not indigenous, and attributes its origin to nuts washed up by the sea. It is recorded that, at the instigation of a Singhalese king, a plantation was formed on the south coast as early as the middle of the first century, and subsequently King Prákrama Báhu the Great also interested himself in extending its cultivation.

IN the Journal of the Royal Horticultural Society (vol. xxix., part iv.) Mr. E. S. Salmon describes a white mildew disease that has been prevalent on shrubs of *Euonymus japonicus* in the south of England. From the mycelium on the surface of the leaf, hyphæ are produced that pierce the cuticle of the epidermis and form haustoria in the epidermal cells, thus enabling the fungus to maintain its parasitic life. The mycelium persists on the leaves through the winter, so that perithecial resting spores are not required and are not formed. The disease can be checked by collecting and burning in the winter all leaves that bear the white patches of hibernating mycelium; also treatment with sulphur or other fungicides is recommended.

THE paper on ramie read by Mrs. E. Hart before the Society of Arts, and printed in the Journal of the Society (April 6), is interesting, not only as it indicates some of the difficulties that had to be overcome in spinning and weaving, but also because it bears out the opinion that, given cooperation between producer and manufacturer, the cultivation, preparation, and weaving of ramie can be profitably undertaken. In the matter of decortication, Mrs. Hart advocates hand-stripping in preference to machines wherever cheap labour can be obtained, and recommends that the degumming process should be carried out under expert supervision in the mills. The fabrics that have been woven of pure ramie, warp and weft, vary from the lightest gossamer to a heavy cloth.

IN Hawaii, root disease of the sugar-cane produced by a species of the basidiomycetous fungus *Marasmius*—not improbably *Marasmius sacchari*—is so prevalent that a Bulletin (No. 2 of the Division of Pathology and Physiology) has been issued to provide information on the subject. The writer, Mr. L. Lewton-Brain, traces the connection between the fungus that attacks primarily the growing point of the root and the symptoms, similar to those caused by drought, of rolled-up leaves, matted leaf-sheaths, and undeveloped roots; also he indicates how the plant can be strengthened by judicious irrigation and by liming the soil. A variety possessed of a certain power of resistance to the disease has been found in the Yellow Caledonia, but a variety that is perfectly immune has yet to be discovered.

THE *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift* (vol. v., No. 8) contains a long paper by Dr. W. R. Eckardt on the climatic conditions of past geological times. The author deals specially with the climate of the Carboniferous and Tertiary periods, and concludes that the explanation of all changes of climate is to be sought in variations in the distribution of land and sea.

WE have received a copy of the tide tables for Charlottetown, Picton, and St. Paul Island, C.B., for the year 1906, issued by the Department of Marine and Fisheries of the Dominion of Canada. The tables are based on direct observations made at eleven localities in the south-western portion of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and in Cabot Strait. It has been ascertained that the tides can best be deduced from St. Paul Island, for which continuous records extending over four years are available.

DR. WALTHER VON KNEBEL contributes a paper to the *Naturwissenschaftliche Rundschau* (vol. xxi., No. 12) on the hot-spring areas of Iceland. A careful comparison of the conditions occurring in the regions of geysers and of solfataras leads the author to the conclusion that only a small part of the water ejected by the geysers is "juvenile," the bulk of it coming from the ordinary ground water. Geysers occur, in effect, where ground water is abundant and volcanic action relatively feeble, and solfataras where volcanic action is more vigorous and the amount of ground water deficient.

WE have received a copy of the meteorological records for 1905, published in the second annual report of the Agricultural Department of the British East Africa Protectorate, which extends, roughly speaking, from 5° N. to 5° S. latitude, the sea coast north of the equator forming part of the Italian Somaliland. The report contains rainfall observations at a large number of stations, and general observations at eight stations, several of which exceed 6000 feet in altitude. The work is a valuable contribution to meteorological knowledge, and will be found most useful when arrangements can be made for dealing with the meteorology of all our colonies according to some regular and properly organised plan. A good beginning was made in this direction by the Meteorological Council in a work entitled "Climatological Observations at Colonial and Foreign Stations, I., Tropical Africa," published in 1904, from tables prepared by Mr. E. G. Ravenstein. This work contained results from several of the stations included in the report of the Nairobi Agricultural Department.

IN his last report as secretary of the Smithsonian Institution of Washington, the late Dr. S. P. Langley dealt with the work of the Astrophysical Observatory for the year ending June 30, 1905. The evidence of solar variability is not in the report considered as conclusive. However, two lines of investigation have become very prominent in the work of the observatory, and these will almost certainly lead to a conclusion regarding this important question. The first of these is the almost daily bolometric examination of the large solar image formed by the great horizontal telescope, for the purpose of detecting changes in the transparency of the solar absorbing envelope. This work depends so little on the transparency of the earth's atmosphere that it can be done almost as well in Washington as at a station more favoured as regards atmospheric transparency. The year's work did not give evidence of very marked variations either in the transparency of the sun's envelope or in the supposedly dependent mean temperature of the earth, but, on the contrary, the results of

the observations continued most of the time near the mean in both respects. The second line of investigation is the determination of the total solar radiation outside our atmosphere, by observations with the bolometer and pyrliometer at a station situated in a relatively clear and cloudless region and at a considerable altitude. This work is being done on Mount Wilson, in southern California, and it seems that the estimates it is hoped to obtain there will be so close an approximation to the truth that if a notable variation of solar radiation outside our atmosphere occurs the results will show it.

THE much-debated *n*-rays form the subject of a short note by Dr. P. Stefanelli in the *Rendiconto* of the Naples Academy, xi., 12. Referring to Meyer's experiments on the decrease of phosphorescence in sulphide of lime when placed in the glass receiver of an air pump, Dr. Stefanelli considers the effects to be attributable to the fall of temperature produced by the expansion of the air, and not to depend on the existence of *n*-rays for their explanation.

IN NATURE of January 11 (vol. lxxiii., p. 246) Mr. C. E. Benham pointed out that Swedenborg in his "Principia," published in 1733, constantly regarded both heat and light as ethereal undulations. Mr. I. H. H. Gosset, of St. Aubyns, Hove, now informs us that, as a matter of fact, in the year 1719, fourteen years before he published his "Principia," Swedenborg wrote a treatise "On Tremulation," in which he advanced the theory of ethereal undulations as applicable to our vital forces, light, heat, sound, &c.

IN the *Philosophical Magazine* for April, Prof. Alfred W. Porter discusses the inversion points of the Joule-Kelvin effect for a fluid passing through a porous plug. The paper is a simple and straightforward deduction from the laws of thermodynamics. The condition that an infinitesimal difference of pressure on the two sides of the plug should give rise to no "cooling" or "heating effects" is given by the equation $Tdv/dT - v = 0$, and when the pressure-volume-temperature equation is given, this condition determines a curve in the p, T or v, T diagram formed by the inversion points. Prof. Porter's paper is mainly taken up with examining the form of this curve corresponding to various assumed equations of state, such as that of van der Waals or Dieterici. From the form of the curves it is shown that in general two inversion temperatures exist for the same pressure, between certain limits of pressure; in the case of van der Waals's equation, the maximum limit is nine times the critical pressure. Finally, the author points out that the experimental study of these inversion curves affords a very valuable method of testing the relative validity of different equations of state. Theoretically also a knowledge of the inversion curve and the equation of state referred to any given thermometric scale afford sufficient data to determine the relation between that scale and the absolute temperature.

ACCORDING to the annual report of the Badische Anilin- und Soda-Fabrik, the price of artificial indigo is now one-third less than that of the natural product, the yield of which was last year so small that the requirements of the eastern markets could not be satisfied.

IN the *Far Eastern Review* (vol. ii., No. 9), a monthly engineering journal published at Manila, Shanghai, and Yokohama, Mr. A. C. Hobble gives some excellent illustrations of the largest hydroelectric installation in southern Asia, at the Cauvery River Falls, in Mysore. There is a fall of 400 feet. Power is transmitted at a pressure of 35,000 volts over duplicate 3-phase lines a distance of 92 miles to the Kolar gold mines.

IN the *Chemiker Zeitung* we read of a serious laboratory accident to Dr. Franz Wartensberger, a German chemist, who is credited with having discovered a new explosive considerably more violent than dynamite, and to whom it is said that the American Government offered to pay one million dollars for the explosive, provided its discoverer were able to suggest a suitable method of firing it electrically instead of using a fuse. As Dr. Wartensberger was experimenting with this idea in mind an unexpected explosion is supposed to have taken place, and he was so badly hurt that it is doubtful whether he will recover.

THE ash of the Vesuvius eruption contained, according to Prof. Zinno's analysis, various quantities of silica, alumina, lime, magnesia, iron, and manganese; traces of ammonium chloride were frequently found, but these may possibly have been formed after the ash had fallen. No indications of either free sulphur or of free acid were detectable. The deposit of the ash is held to have been beneficial to vegetation rather than the reverse, especially in the growth of vines, grass, and vegetables, a fact that has been observed on other occasions.

IN an interesting note to the *Chemiker Zeitung* for April 21, Dr. M. C. Schuyten, of Antwerp, directs attention to the differences of temperature which are observable in chemical drying cupboards. Dr. Schuyten was led to consider the question experimentally from the fact that mercury phenyldimethylpyrazolone bromide was found to melt in a drying cupboard when the thermometer did not register a temperature so high as its melting point. The temperature of the air in the cupboard was observed in the great majority of cases to be very much less than that of the walls and shelves; a volatile liquid placed in a vessel in direct communication with the case evaporated much more quickly than when suspended by threads. From the numerical data given variations of 20° C. and more are noticeable.

WE learn from the *Chemist and Druggist* that the Committee on Ways and Means, which sat at Washington on March 30, authorised a favourable report on the Free Alcohol Bill, which removes the internal revenue duty from denaturised alcohol for use in the arts and sciences. The Bill has the approval of Commissioner Yerkes, and it is estimated that the annual loss in revenue will not exceed 100,000l., and may not be more than 60,000l. It is held that the Bill will be of great benefit to manufacturers, and will afford an enlarged market for farm products from which alcohol is made. The sale of denaturised alcohol as a beverage or for liquid medicinal purposes is forbidden by the measure.

THE following particulars of two prizes offered by the French Government may prove of interest to industrial chemists:—(i.) The methylation of alcohol (prize of 20,000 francs). (1) The smell and taste of the proposed methylating addition must be such as to preclude the use of methylated alcohol as a drink; (2) the smell of the methylating addition must, however, not be so objectionable and strong as to prove harmful to those engaged in the manufacture of or in industries using methylated spirits, that is to say, the use of such bodies as acetylene, asafetida, garlic, &c., is not permitted; (3) the method of methylating adopted may not leave any deposit on the wick or on any part of the lamp, if likely to interfere with the process of burning, as, for example, sea salt, sodium sulphate, alum, tincture of aloe, &c.; (4) the methylating additive may not be separable by fractional distillation; (5) it may not contain any substance which will attack the metallic parts of

lamps or motors, e.g. ammonia, nitrobenzene, sulphuric acid, carbon bisulphide, &c.; (6) nor may it be poisonous; (7) further, its cost must not be so high as to prejudice the use of methylated spirits for industrial purposes or household use; (8) its presence in methylated alcohol must be easily detectable; (9) it must possess advantages over that now in use in France, and not permit of any swindling of the Excise. It might be remarked that the discovery of a methylating additive which shall fulfil all the foregoing conditions is a matter of great difficulty; indeed, four years ago the Russian Government offered a prize of about 50,000 marks for a similar purpose, without, however, as yet having had a satisfactory entry. (ii.) The use of alcohol for illuminating purposes (prize of 50,000 francs). In this the competitors are allowed full scope as to the proposed system to be followed in order that alcohol may be used for illuminating purposes under the same conditions as petroleum. Suggestions, together with the necessary apparatus and methods of using, are to be sent to the Chef du Service des Laboratoires du Ministère des Finances, 11 rue de la Douane, Paris.

It was pointed out recently by a correspondent of the *Times* that though in the manufacture of pig-iron before 1880 England was preeminent, and the product was 50 per cent. more than that of the United States and Germany combined, yet ten years later the former country produced more than England, and the United States and Germany together twice as much. In 1903 Germany produced more than England, while the United States alone produced twice as much as England. In 1880 England produced 45 per cent. of the world's make, Germany 15 per cent., the United States 14 per cent. In 1903 the United States produced 39 per cent., Germany 20 per cent., and England only 19 per cent. With steel the case is even worse. Since 1880 steel has replaced wrought iron in nearly all manufactures, and in 1830 the United States and Germany manufactured about 30 per cent. less than England. In 1888 the United States equalled England. In 1893 Germany nearly equalled, and the United States largely exceeded England. About 1898 Germany's manufacture was much greater than that of England, and America's manufacture three times as great. These figures show that during the last twenty-five years England has receded from a position of great preeminence to the lowest place among the three great steel-producing countries. On the other hand, between 1900 and 1905, the importation of iron and steel into England increased very largely, the importation in 1905 being 1,435,000 tons, as against 741,402 tons in 1900.

MESSRS. E. DENT AND Co. have lately introduced a new astronomical clock which should find its way into many observatories where an accurate instrument is required at a moderate cost. For the sum of 21l. they supply a clock with a 10-inch dial, dead-beat escapement, and wooden rod seconds pendulum in a solid mahogany case; and after examining the instrument we have no hesitation in pronouncing it a marvel of cheapness.

OUR ASTRONOMICAL COLUMN.

ASTRONOMICAL OCCURRENCES IN MAY:—

- May 1-6. Epoch of Aquarid meteoric shower (Radiant $338^{\circ} - 2^{\circ}$).
2. 17h. Mercury at greatest elongation, $26^{\circ} 46'$ W.
 4. 10h. 4m. Minimum of Algol (β Persei).
 5. 13h. 33m. to 14h. 3m. Moon occults γ Virginis (mag. 3.0).
 6. 2h. Venus in conjunction with Mars. (Venus $0^{\circ} 5' S$).

- May 11. 15h. Venus in conjunction with Jupiter. (Venus $1^{\circ} 11' N$).
15. Venus. Illuminated portion of disc = 0.921. Of Mars = 0.990.
18. oh. Mars in conjunction with Jupiter. (Mars $1^{\circ} 6' N$).
20. 23h. Ceres in conjunction with Moon. (Ceres $1^{\circ} 6' S$).
24. 5h. Mars in conjunction with Moon. (Mars $4^{\circ} 57' N$).
- „ 11h. 46m. Minimum of Algol (β Persei).
25. 3h. Venus in conjunction with Moon. (Venus $4^{\circ} 51' N$).
27. 8h. 35m. Minimum of Algol (β Persei).

COMETS 1906a AND 1906c.—The results of a number of observations of comets 1906a and 1906c, made at the Royal Observatory at Arcetri during February and March, are recorded in No. 4083 of the *Astronomische Nachrichten* by Prof. Abetti.

The same journal also contains the following set of elements, and an ephemeris extending to May 8, for comet 1906c, computed by Herr E. Strömngren from places determined on March 19 (Nizza), 22 (Glasgow, Mo.), and 29 (Arcetri).

Elements.

$$\begin{aligned} T &= 1906 \text{ Feb. } 20^{\circ} 7555 \text{ M.T. Berlin.} \\ \infty &= 274^{\circ} 46' \cdot 4 \\ \Omega &= 71^{\circ} 47' \cdot 7 \\ i &= 84^{\circ} 36' \cdot 8 \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} T \\ \infty \\ \Omega \\ i \end{aligned}} \right\} 1906 \cdot 0$$

$$\log q = 9 \cdot 84916$$

THE TOTAL SOLAR ECLIPSE OF JANUARY, 1908.—For the information of those astronomers who intend to observe next January's eclipse, Dr. Downing has prepared a number of astronomical details for the observations at two islands in the Pacific which are favourably placed.

These two stations are Hull Island (long. = $172^{\circ} 13' W$, lat. = $4^{\circ} 30' S$.) and Flint Island (long. = $151^{\circ} 48' W$, lat. = $11^{\circ} 26' S$.), now the properties of Lever's Pacific Plantations Company, Port Sunlight, Cheshire, with whom intending observers should communicate.

As the errors of the moon's tabular places now amount to sensible and apparently increasing quantities, Dr. Downing warns observers that the calculated times of the several phases may differ sensibly from the observed times. To obviate the possible inconvenience arising from this source, he gives the number of seconds before the commencement of totality that the cusps will subtend specified angles (Monthly Notices R.A.S., vol. lxxvi., No. 5).

RADIANT POINT OF A BRIGHT METEOR.—In No. 4083 of the *Astronomische Nachrichten* Dr. Jiří Kaván publishes an account of a bright meteor observed at Prague at 6h. 21m. (M.E.T.) on October 1, 1905.

From observations of the altitude and azimuth, Dr. Kaván has deduced the following positions for the beginning and end points of the meteor's path:—

$$\begin{array}{llll} \text{Beginning ...} & \dots & \alpha = 293^{\circ} \cdot 1 & \dots & \delta = -2^{\circ} \cdot 6 \\ \text{End ...} & \dots & \alpha = 273^{\circ} \cdot 4 & \dots & \delta = -11^{\circ} \cdot 1 \end{array}$$

The duration of the meteor's flight was 2 to 2.5 seconds, and the colour of the object was green.

LUMINOUS PARTICLES IN THE CHROMOSPHERE.—The details of the equipment employed by Dr. Deslandres, in his experiments to determine whether the chromosphere contains luminous liquid or solid particles, are described in No. 14 (April 2) of the *Comptes rendus*. The results of the experiments were briefly described in these columns on April 19 (vol. lxxiii., p. 592).

NEW CATALOGUE OF DOUBLE STARS.—In No. 93 of the Lick Observatory Bulletins, Prof. R. G. Aitken publishes the detailed measures of 350 new double stars, A 901 to A 1250 inclusive. The stars contained in the present catalogue are similar in character to those published in Prof. Aitken's previous lists; 267 of them, or 76 per cent. of the entire number, have apparent distances less than $2''$, 31 of them less than $0 \cdot 25''$, while only 9 approach the limit of $5''$. Some of the pairs consist of closer components to Struve and Herschel stars, and most of them were observed with the 36-inch refractor.

EXPLORATIONS IN THE HIMALAYAS.

THE paper read by Mrs. Bullock Workman before the Royal Geographical Society in November last is published in the February number of the *Geographical Journal*. An account is given of the exploring work carried out by Dr. and Mrs. Bullock Workman during 1903 in the region of the Karakoram mountains lying south-west of the Hispar glacier, or between that glacier and the Indus. This region is cut off from the Hispar glacier by a practically continuous ridge, and is crossed by glaciers moving from north and north-west, the chief being the Chogo Lungma, Alchori, Hoh Lumba, and Sosbon glaciers. The work of the expedition consisted chiefly in the examination of the Hoh Lumba and Sosbon glaciers, and in ascents of Mounts Chogo (21,500 feet) and Lungma (22,568 feet), near the head of the Chogo Lungma glacier.

The narrow Hoh ravine runs northward from the junction with the Braldo River, and is ascended along the



FIG. 1.—Nangma Tapsa and the huge terminal moraine of the Hoh Lumba, forming a large hill about 500 feet high; its age is indicated by the tree growth covering its surface.

precipitous cliffs of nude mountains. It is filled by old glacial débris several hundreds of feet deep, the river cutting its way often at a great depth. Some four miles up is Pirnar Tapsa, a small grazing ground, and two miles beyond is Nangma Tapsa, a similar spot at an elevation of 11,595 feet. Immediately above this is a huge terminal moraine, of which we are able to reproduce a photograph. The snout of the glacier is about a mile further up, and the total length from the snout to the source on the "col des Aiguilles" is twelve miles. The expedition found much evidence that the glacier has retreated somewhat rapidly of late years.

OSMOSIS AND OSMOTIC PRESSURE.

NO problem is of greater importance in modern physical chemistry than the determination of the true nature of osmosis and of osmotic pressure. Although for some considerable period this problem has to most chemists appeared solved, several recent investigations have thrown doubt upon the validity of van 't Hoff's hypothesis that the osmotic pressure developed in solutions is purely a kinetic phenomenon. The experiments of Battelli and Stephanini in this connection have already been referred to in *NATURE* (vol. lxxii., p. 541). Some remarkable results which have

been obtained by Prof. Louis Kahlenberg are now described in the *Transactions of the Wisconsin Academy* (March) and the *Journal of Physical Chemistry* (vol. x., pp. 141-209); these, if subsequently verified, will invalidate van 't Hoff's theory, and, what is of even greater importance, destroy the basis of the theory of electrolytic dissociation, developed by Arrhenius, upon which modern physical chemistry so largely depends.

Prof. Kahlenberg's experiments would indicate that the osmotic pressure developed in the case of any solution depends essentially on the nature of the membrane used, even when this is practically semi-permeable, as well as on the nature and concentration of the solution. Strictly speaking, there is no definite osmotic pressure characterising a solution of given concentration at a definite temperature; the pressure depends on the septum employed. It is recalled to mind that van 't Hoff's conception really rests on the measurements of osmotic pressure made by Pfeffer, that these measurements were few in number and were obtained with one membrane only, and that several recent direct measurements of osmotic pressures have given values not in accord with the gas laws. It is stated that in order to obtain a definite value for the osmotic pressure it is absolutely necessary that the solution within the osmometer should be well stirred, a precaution that has hitherto been omitted in all measurements. The measurements obtained by the author, observing this precaution, did not agree in any case with the gas laws.

The magnitude as well as the direction of the osmotic pressure are, according to Prof. Kahlenberg, determined by the power of the membrane to "imbibe" the solvent and solute, and by the mutual solubilities of the substances dealt with. Cases of abnormal dialysis are adduced in support of this theory. Thus a colloid, copper oleate, dissolved in pyridine, will diffuse through a rubber membrane, whilst a crystalloid, cane sugar, remains behind. Again, when a solution of camphor and cane sugar in pyridine is subjected to dialysis through the same membrane, the camphor diffuses through it, and the cane sugar is again left behind. In this case two crystalloids are separated completely by dialysis. Such facts are not reconcilable with the ordinary views of diffusion. Some suggestive remarks by the late Prof. Raoult, contained in a letter to Prof. Bancroft, in criticism of van 't Hoff's theory are now published for the first time.

MARINE BIOLOGY ON THE WEST COAST.¹

THE report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel is a somewhat thicker volume than was the report for 1904, and contains some interesting papers.

Besides the introduction and general account of the work by Prof. Herdman, and a report upon the classes, visitors, &c., at Piel by Mr. Andrew Scott, it contains eleven scientific papers, two of which are from Prof. Herdman's pen, while Mr. James Johnstone is responsible for five and Mr. Andrew Scott for four, one of which he contributes jointly with Mr. Thomas Baxter. The papers are upon the same lines of work as have been carried on in previous years, but the one upon mussel transplantation, by Messrs. Scott and Baxter, describes for the first time an experi-

¹ No. xiv. Report for 1905 on the Lancashire Sea Fisheries Laboratory at the University of Liverpool and the Sea Fish Hatchery at Piel. Drawn up by Prof. W. A. Herdman, F.R.S., Hon. Director of the Scientific Work, assisted by Mr. Andrew Scott and Mr. James Johnstone. Illustrated. (Liverpool, 1906.)

ment commenced some years ago, which has given interesting results. The removal of mussels from overcrowded beds and the laying down of new grounds and the restocking of old ones has proved eminently successful, and the increased rate of growth of transplanted individuals is very marked.

From the report on the sea-fish hatching at Piel we learn that more than a million plaice larvæ and nearly twelve million flounder larvæ were liberated during the breeding season, and a similar report upon the sea-fish hatching at Port Erin shows that five million plaice larvæ were liberated off the Isle of Man, but we look in vain for any word which will show us that the liberation of these fry during several years has produced any effect upon the fisheries of the district.

An interesting paper upon trawling observations, by Mr. James Johnstone, contains a section upon the food of plaice, dabs, and other fishes, and we gather that the results so far obtained tend to show that the plaice and the dab are not competitors for food, although living upon the same ground; that whereas the former feed chiefly upon molluscs, the latter prefer Ophiurids and Crustacea, although they are less particular as to the nature of their food than are the plaice. Mr. Todd's observations as to the food of these species in the North Sea seem to bear out the omnivorous tendency of the dab, but they also seem to show that the chief food of both species in that region consists of molluscs.

Mr. Johnstone also contributes a paper on the marked fish experiments, in which he sets out the migrations of the plaice in the district, as shown by the re-capture of marked specimens. He finds that the fish tend to move along the shore lines during the winter months, and to migrate off-shore during the summer months, which facts appear to agree with the results so far determined as to the migrations of this species in the North Sea.

Mr. Andrew Scott's report on the tow-nettings for the year contains a large amount of material, but the author has not drawn conclusions therefrom, so that the paper is somewhat heavy reading.

Prof. Herdman's paper upon the oligodynamic action of copper, dealing with the possibilities of purifying infected shell-fish by immersion in distilled water which has been in contact with copper-foil, is extremely interesting, but is in the nature of a preliminary statement, as he is about to investigate the whole question in conjunction with Prof. B. Moore.

The volume is illustrated, including a useful series of plates of copepods, trematodes, &c., in connection with Mr. Andrew Scott's "Faunistic Notes."

FRANK BALFOUR BROWNE.

PHYSIOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF MENTAL ACTIONS.

THE most recent number of the *Beiträge zur Psychologie und Philosophie* (Band i., Heft 4) contains two articles, one by the editor, Prof. Martius, on the theory of the influence exerted on pulse and respiration by mental stimuli, while the other, by Mr. C. Minnemann, discusses pulse and respiration as studied in the subjects of genuine, first-hand emotion. Prof. Martius starts with pointing out the contradictory opinions held by other investigators regarding the effect of attention, of joyful or painful emotions on pulse and respiration. This diversity he regards as partly due to the neglect of several precautions, and he proceeds to study, amongst other points, those fluctuations of the pulse which are in direct correspondence with respiration periods. He then examines the plethysmographic method, and comes to the conclusion that variations of volume registered by it are partly due to movements of the limb under investigation, and that the method cannot be used at present to secure any definite results regarding the circulation of the blood.

Elaborate details and analyses are next given of his experiments on five human subjects; they are classed thus:—(1) effects on the pulse of artificial alterations in respiration (e.g. deepening, acceleration, retardation of breathing); (2) effects of bodily activity on pulse and respiration; (3) effects of mental activity; (4) effects of

bodily pain; (5) effects of taste and smell (whether pleasant or unpleasant); (6) effects of moods (of joy and depression) artificially induced, e.g. by hearing witty stories, recalling the contents of certain poems, or the like.

With regard to many points Prof. Martius thinks that definite conclusions are at present impossible; all that he regards as established is the presence of a series of types of general emotional or "affective" states, and especially the distinction of the two types of activity and rest. But the methods described are insufficient to characterise definitely for us special emotions like those of fear or sympathy. It seems established, too, that joy and sorrow do not possess definite complexes of symptoms by which they can be separated from one another, and further, bodily and mental activity produce the same appearances. Hence while the will and the intellect are not to be regarded as one, they cannot be separated, and we can never analyse the products of intellect merely into sensations and feelings. The other article follows the same lines and reaches a similarly safe conclusion, that we can read out of the experiment curves nothing but the most general characteristics of emotional states, viz. excitement or repression.

DISCOVERY OF SEVEN THOUSAND ROMAN COINS.

A COARSE earthenware jar containing upwards of seven thousand "third brass" Roman coins was recently unearthed by the ploughshare on the farm of Mrs. Wheatley, Stanley, near Wakefield. In very early times the bed of the river Calder, which has a remarkable sweep at this point, was deepened by the ancient Britons or Romans, and an embankment made with the sand; in this the jar, with its contents, was deposited 1500 years ago.

The coins all belong to the Constantinian group; to Constantine the Great, to his mother Helena, his step-mother Theodora, his four sons, Crispus, Constantine, Constantius, and Constans, Licinius his brother-in-law, with his wife Constantina and their son Licinius, and to Delmatius. The reverses are chiefly of the "Gloria Exercitus" type.

One-half of nearly five thousand coins, which I have carefully examined is, in about equal quantities, of the "Urbs Roma" type, with wolf and twins on the reverse, and "Constantinopolis," with a Victory on the reverse with spear and shield, standing on the prow of a vessel; these latter were struck to commemorate the founding of Constantinople A.D. 330. There are twelve represented of the twenty-four mints of issue known to us, among which are Carthage, Alexandria, Antioch, Rome; but most are from Treves in Germany, the residence of the governor of the west, Lyons, and Constantina, now Arles in France.

Very few of them, if any, have ever been in circulation. They are most likely a portion of a military chest concealed during a threatened raid or invasion. It is remarkable that ten or twelve years ago a find of seventeen thousand was made in the Forest of Dean, covering the same period, of exactly the same types, with a similar redundancy of certain coins and a scarcity of others. A series of the Stanley coins has been presented to the museum of the Leeds Philosophical and Literary Society, and are now on exhibition. AQUILA DODGSON.

UNIVERSITY AND EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

OXFORD.—The date of the fellowship examination in chemistry at Merton College has been altered from September 25 to September 18. Candidates are asked to send their names to the Warden on or before September 1, and to call on him on September 17, by which date they should submit to him any dissertations or papers, or evidence of research they have done.

During the vacancy of the Linacre chair of comparative anatomy, Mr. Edwin S. Goodrich, fellow of Merton College, has been appointed to act as deputy-professor.

New College has resolved to raise the college contribution to the stipend of the Wykeham professor of physics to 650l. a year, thereby increasing the total income of the professorship to 800l. a year.

H. W. Normanton, of Batley Grammar School, has been elected to a natural science postmastership at Merton College. A. H. Simpson, of Rugby School, has been elected to a natural science scholarship at Corpus Christi College.

CAMBRIDGE.—The striking success of the Appointments Board in procuring appointments for young graduates at Cambridge is shown by the following figures:—in 1902 the number of appointments obtained was 67; in 1903, 93; in 1904, 102; in 1905, 134. These appointments fall mainly into the following classes:—appointments under various public authorities at home and abroad, industrial and technical appointments, administrative appointments on railways, appointments for scientific work of various kinds, and lectureships in university colleges.

Major E. H. Hills, C.M.G., R.E., late head of the Topographical Department of the War Office, will deliver a public lecture on the geography of international frontiers, at the Sedgwick Museum, on Saturday, May 5.

The governing body of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge, proposes in the summer, if suitable candidates apply, to make an election to the Wollaston research studentship in physics. The value of the studentship will be 120*l.* a year. It will be tenable in the first instance for one year, but may be prolonged for a second year. Candidates for the studentship must be more than twenty-one and under twenty-five years of age on the first day of October, 1906. The studentship is open to students of all British, colonial, and American universities. Applications should be made before July 21 to the Master (the Rev. E. S. Roberts).

The Gilbey lecturer on the history and economics of agriculture gives notice that he will lecture on "The Relations of Rent, Profits and Wages in Agriculture, and the bearing on Rural Depopulation," on Tuesday, May 15, and the three following days.

By the bequest of Dr. E. H. Perowne, the late Master of Corpus, a fine collection of specimens of amber has been acquired by the Sedgwick Museum.

ON Commemoration Day, Wednesday, May 9, after the presentation of graduates at the University of London, there will be a reception at Bedford College for Women from four to seven o'clock.

PROF. T. W. RICHARDS, professor of chemistry at Harvard University, has been designated by the German Government as Harvard visiting professor at the University of Berlin for the academic year 1906-7.

THE fiftieth anniversary of the foundation of the University of Melbourne was celebrated last week. Congratulatory addresses were presented by representatives of British and other universities.

IT is proposed to form an association of past students of the Technical College, Finsbury. With this end in view a meeting of old students will be held at the college on May 8. Sir Owen Roberts will preside. Any old student who has not received a notice of this meeting is requested to communicate with Mr. J. W. G. Brooker, Durlstone, Brockley Park, Forest Hill, S.E.

PROF. WALTER NERNST, director of the chemical physics institute, Berlin, is to deliver a course of lectures on experimental and theoretical applications of thermodynamics in Yale University, Connecticut. He will also give the Silliman lectures, founded in memory of Benjamin Silliman, father and son, the former of whom was connected with Yale so far back as 1805, and is best known to European people as the founder of *Silliman's American Journal of Science and Arts*.

UNDER the doubtfully appropriate title of "Technical Overtraining in Germany," attention is directed in the *Journal of the Society of Arts* for March 30 to what is undoubtedly a real danger. It is not a question of overtraining in the sense that the courses of the technical colleges are of too high a scientific standard, but the danger lies in the great increase in the number of technically trained students, an increase which makes the supply greatly in excess of the demand. A survey of the figures given, which are largely based on the report of the American Consul at Mannheim, shows that in such

branches of technical instruction as building, for example, there has been an increase of, say, 200 per cent. in ten years in the output of the technical colleges, whereas in such subjects as medicine and theology there has been a considerable falling off in the number of students. As the writer of the note points out, "The consequence of this over-production in technical resources is a constantly diminishing rate of wages."

THE Government of India has decided, says the *Pioneer Mail*, to make to the Punjab University for the next four years an annual grant of 20,000 rupees. The main purpose of the grant is to assist in the improvement and efficiency of the constituent colleges in those respects in which an inspection by the University showed them to be defective. The Government of India has decided that no part of the grant shall be devoted to the improvement of the Government colleges. In addition to this grant, another of 10,000 rupees a year for four years has been assigned to the Punjab University by the Government of India. This sum is to be regarded as a consolidated grant to be applied primarily to the inspection of colleges and to strengthening the administration of the University. The Government of India has made a further grant of 30,000 rupees a year for four years for building purposes and for the equipment of the new Senate hall and the University library.

SPEAKING on Saturday last at the opening of a new grammar school at Farnham, the Archbishop of Canterbury remarked that secondary education in England has not made progress during the last fifty years commensurate with that made by those forms of education that are both above and below it. He believes that the explanation lies in a certain unwillingness to bring this kind of education under central government and organisation. He does not believe that either the German or French people are more anxious as a whole for higher education than we are in England, but they will consent to what English people will not consent to, viz. a kind of drilling on the subject which will bring about a uniformity that can better promote progress than the more lax, scattered, and independent efforts which the people of this country in their national nature prefer to the more hide-bound and red-tape systems. The Education Bill recently introduced in Parliament, if it passes into law, will give English people an opportunity which they have never had before of taxing themselves ten times as much for secondary education. No one will be forced to do it, but everyone will be able to do it, and those who have been pining to be able to give more largely to the cause of secondary education will, if the Bill becomes law, have an opportunity of doing so.

THE paramount importance of secondary education in any national system designed to educate the children of all social grades becomes more recognised every year by those in authority. The presence of the President of the Board of Education at the opening of the new county school at Acton on April 28, and of Sir William Anson, late Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, at Sutton Coldfield on April 27, on a similar occasion, are indications of this recognition. Speaking at Acton, Mr. Birrell said the only difference of a philosophical character between elementary and secondary education turns upon the lengths of time available for each. There is naturally a distinction between children who remain at school only to the age of fourteen and those who stay until sixteen or seventeen years of age. The great thing for the nation to accomplish is the wise selection of those children who are fitted to benefit from a prolonged educational course, and to see that they get it, irrespective of their rank or position in life. Sir William Anson, dealing with the question of the curriculum in secondary schools, said he does not think it is possible ever to revert to the old type of classical school. He went on to say that the claims of science are nowadays never likely to be disregarded, but the study of languages should not be neglected. He remarked, in conclusion, that the overloading of the curriculum of secondary schools with subjects which might be postponed to a later stage is a mistake.

It appears from an article by the special correspondent of the *Times* at Palo Alto, published in Tuesday's issue, that the Leland Stanford Junior University at Palo Alto

suffered great damage by the earthquake on April 18. A massive gateway of stone at the main entrance to the University grounds is now a ruin, and the great dragons which surmounted it lie broken to pieces on the ground. An immense memorial arch has been wrecked, and a fine marble memorial to Henry Lathrop, Mrs. Stanford's brother, has been demolished. The museum has been seriously damaged, the whole roof of the art gallery having fallen in, and part of the roof of the other wing. The entire centre of the building devoted to the department of chemistry is a wreck. The gymnasium, just completed and never used, is an absolute ruin, and another large new building, the library, also just completed and about to be dedicated, is in the same condition. The building devoted to zoology and physiology is not much damaged. The president of the University, Dr. D. S. Jordan, who was at home at the time of the earthquake, believes that the shock of April 18 was not only one of the severest, but also one of the longest duration on record. The *Times* correspondent learns also that the narrow-gauge railway to Santa Cruz has been so badly damaged that it will be months before trains can again be run. There are many tunnels on this line, and in various instances these tunnels, which formerly were straight lines, are now corkscrew-shaped. At San Jose a flower garden was turned into a lake of mud from which a dozen geysers burst into activity after the earthquake.

THE current number of the *University Review* contains an inspiring article on "Science and the Public" by Major Ronald Ross, F.R.S., professor of tropical medicine in the University of Liverpool. Insistence is laid on the fact that science is almost exclusively the work of individuals, and that, though willing enough to benefit by the discoveries and inventions of men of science, the public is in no sense imbued with the scientific spirit. Instead of cultivating the absolutely impartial judgment demanded by science, the public encourages the habit of mind eulogised by Tennyson, "believing where we cannot prove," and forgets there is nothing meritorious in such conduct, but much that is the reverse. The essay proceeds to show that to this willingness to ignore science and scientific methods may be traced the credulity of the public which leads it to subsidise quack medicine, to ignore beneficent discoveries like that of Jenner, to hamper scientific research by unintelligent anti-vivisection societies, and generally to proclaim its adherence to the policy of "muddling through." An instance is given by Major Ross from his own experience which shows how slightly as yet the mass of mankind has been influenced by scientific methods. More than seven years ago it was demonstrated that malaria is conveyed from man to man by a group of gnats, and several obvious and practicable modes of prevention were suggested in consequence of the discovery. But when these measures were urged upon the public and governments of our tropical colonies, the so-called educated white people scoffed at the whole discovery, without troubling to ascertain the facts, and the governments, with the exception of a few, took no action which could for a moment be called adequate. The magnitude of the offence may be gathered when it is remembered that half the people in the tropics suffer from the disease every year; but in view of recent events it is easy to see that the world will be dominated eventually more and more by the disciplined and scientific peoples, and those nations which reject science will be set aside.

SOCIETIES AND ACADEMIES.

LONDON.

Royal Society, January 25.—"An Electrical Measuring Machine." By Dr. P. E. Shaw. Communicated by Prof. J. H. Poynting, F.R.S.

The principle of the measuring machines in general use is that one face of the gauge rests against one jaw, fixed, of the machine, whilst the other jaw is moved forward by a screw until it touches the other face. These machines may be called mechanical-touch machines in contradistinction to the new machine called the electric-touch machine. This depends on the same general principle as the electric micrometer used by the author in several researches.

Objections to the mechanical-touch methods are:—

(1) they involve strain in the machine of a much larger order than in the electric method; (2) they are less sensitive; (3) it is impossible to measure between point and point. To measure between points or rounded points is essential in accurate metrology, especially for gauges with flat ends; for when each jaw has a flat face and each end of the gauge has also a flat face, each of these four faces having errors in planeness and parallelism, the resulting measurements must be erroneous. If, however, measurement be taken between small spheres on the screw ends, no assumptions as to planeness and parallelism are made, and such errors vanish from the results.

The electric measuring machine consists of (a) two headstocks containing micrometer screws; (b) a table to carry the gauge; (c) a massive slide bed, on which run the headstocks and table. The gauge to be measured is clamped on the table, and is set true with respect to the micrometer screws by two rotations and two translations provided in the table. This adjustment is made by special electric-touch methods devised for the purpose. To make a measurement of the gauge the left screw is brought into electric contact (indicated by a telephone) with the gauge; then the right screw is brought into electric touch with it, and when current passes through from one measuring point to the other the two divided heads on the micrometer screws are read. To turn the graduated head the screw system is not actually touched by the hand, but is worked by an outside hand-pulley and string.

Special care is taken in the design of the machine to avoid periodical screw error and backlash.

A careful calibration by wave-lengths of several millimetres of the screws shows where they are specially uniform, and therefore fit for use.

Results are obtained for all kinds of gauges. For bar gauges with flat ends, measurements taken at many places reveal considerable variation in thickness, so that irregular contour curves, roughly centred in the centre of the gauge faces, can be drawn showing that the ends are far from being plane or parallel. These errors in bar gauges have not been previously pointed out or measured. The author contends that all bar gauges should be measured by this method and the errors registered, so that, even if the errors are not corrected, by re-scraping or otherwise, they will be known and allowed for.

Cylindrical and spherical gauges are also tested; these are shown to be much more nearly perfect than bar gauges.

A further use of the machine is in the measurement of non-conducting bodies, such as glass plates, the thickness of which can be measured with great accuracy.

Readings are taken with ease and certainty to 1/250,000th of an inch, and one-quarter of this can be obtained if specially desired.

March 1.—"An Experimental Inquiry into the Factors which determine the Growth and Activity of the Mammary Glands." By Miss J. E. Lane-Clayton, D.Sc., and Prof. E. H. Starling, F.R.S.

So far as the authors' experiments go, they show that the growth of the mammary glands during pregnancy is due to the action of a specific chemical stimulus produced in the fertilised ovum. The amount of this substance increases with the growth of the foetus, and is therefore largest during the latter half of pregnancy. Lactation is due to the removal of this substance, which must therefore be regarded as exerting an inhibitory influence on the gland cells, hindering their secretory activity and furthering their growth. It is probable that the specific substance is diffusible, and will withstand the boiling temperature.

The authors do not, however, claim that these conclusions are firmly established. A final decision can only be given by a research carried on under more favourable conditions. In fact, a farm is required where the authors could have at their disposal 500 rabbits, and could arrange for a plentiful supply each day of rabbits about the middle of pregnancy.

Zoological Society, April 10.—Mr. H. Druce, vice-president, in the chair.—The fresh-water fishes of the island of Trinidad: C. Tate Regan. The author's remarks were chiefly based on a collection made by Mr. Lechmere Guppy, jun., and presented by him to the British Museum.

The collection was accompanied by natural history notes and by a series of beautifully executed water-colour drawings. Forty species of fresh-water fishes were now known from the island; these were enumerated in the paper, and four of them described as new to science.—The collection of Alcyonarians made by Mr. Cyril Crossland at Zanzibar in 1901-2: Prof. J. A. Thomson and W. D. Henderson. Specimens of sixty-five species or varieties were contained in the collection, of which twenty-seven were described as new.—Cyclopia in osseous fishes, as observed in several advanced trout embryos: Dr. J. F. Gemmill. A detailed account of the anatomy of the specimens was given, and a comparison made with Cyclopia in mammals. The author's views were also put forward regarding the mode of origin of this condition in fishes.—Cases of supernumerary eyes, and local deficiency and re-duplication of the notochord, in trout embryos: Dr. Gemmill.—Descriptions of three new varieties of butterflies of the genus *Heliconius*: P. I. Lathy.

Faraday Society, April 10.—Prof. A. J. K. Huntington in the chair.—Electrothermics of iron and steel: C. A. Keller. The author deals with the present position of his processes; he describes the electrical steel plant which Messrs. J. Holtzer and Co. have just installed in their works at Unieux (Loire). This is a 1500 h.p. plant, and will utilise in a single furnace the current from a 20,000-ampere Westinghouse alternator. The furnace, which rests on a steel cradle and can be tilted, weighs about 50,000 kilos.; the various mechanical and electrical controls are obtained by hydraulic motors. The steel obtained from a Siemens-Martin furnace will be run into the electric furnace immediately after the oxidising melt, and for the remaining operations of deoxidising and refining the current exclusively will be used.—Note on the rotating electric steel furnace in the Artillery Construction Works, Turin: Ernesto Stassano. The furnace described and illustrated in the paper is being installed by the "Forni Termoelettrici Stassano" Company for the Italian War Office. It is of the author's well-known arc type, and absorbs 140 kilowatts, yielding 2400 kilos. of steel in twenty-four hours. The current is a rotary one with 80 volts between each phase. The consumption of electrodes is less than 5 kilos. per ton of steel, and the cost of renewing the refractory covering of the furnace 10 francs per ton of metal made. The furnace is principally used for refining pig-iron and smelting scrap. The product ordinarily made is used for artillery projectiles.—Note on recent developments in the Gin electric steel furnace: Gustave Gin. The author's canal-type of furnace is now installed at the Plettenberg Works, Westphalia, of which illustrations are given in the paper, but it is not stated which particular type of furnace has there been experimented with. The following types are described:—(1) furnace with canals and chambers; (2) combination furnace; (3) induction furnace.—Notes on the cleaning of work by means of the electric current: H. S. Coleman. The work to be cleaned (usually preparatory to electro-plating) is suspended in a hot solution of equal quantities of brown Montreal potash and sodium hydrate contained in a wrought-iron tank. The work and the tank are connected to a dynamo, and the tank used as the anode for five to ten minutes, the voltage being about 2.5. The current is then reversed for a short time, until the surface of the work is clear and bright. The operation is repeated as many times as may be necessary.

Royal Meteorological Society, April 18.—Mr. R. Bentley, president, in the chair.—Some so-called vagaries of lightning reproduced experimentally: A. Hands. The author, in the course of an extended investigation into the effects of lightning, has come across many cases that have been called vagaries, but which on a close inspection have proved to be extraordinary only in the erroneous way in which they were described, and, had they been correctly reported, would have appeared perfectly consistent with preconceived ideas—in fact, could have been foretold in every case if the conditions that led to those effects had been known before the events occurred. The author reproduced experimentally several so-called vagaries of lightning, showing by means of rough models the conditions under which they occurred.—The value of a projected

image of the sun for meteorological study: Miss C. O. Stevens. By this method it has been ascertained that where the direction of movement of the atmosphere is tangential to the limb of the sun, the phenomenon of "boiling" displays a coursing or rippling character, and that where it is perpendicular to the limb of the sun, the character of the movements of distortion is that of springing in and out of the area of the sun's image. Both these elements of movement are continuous even in the absence of all visible cloud, and it is possible, not only to detect, but also to distinguish between overlying invisible atmospheric strata.

Mathematical Society, April 26.—Prof. A. R. Forsyth, president, and subsequently Prof. W. Burnside, vice-president, in the chair.—Perpetuants and contra-perpetuants: Prof. E. B. Elliott. It is proposed to apply a method, based on the use of symmetric functions and of certain differential operators, to the discovery of complete systems of perpetuants of given partial degrees in assigned sets of coefficients, which shall be equivalent in their aggregate to those which have been arrived at by the systematic examination of symbolic products. Contra-perpetuants are introduced in connection with Hermite's doctrine of reciprocity between degree and extent in systems of seminvariants when this doctrine is correlated with the theory of perpetuants.—A set of intervals about the rational numbers: A. R. Richardson. A definite construction is given for associating a set of intervals with the rational numbers, in such a way that all the rational numbers are included in the intervals, and certain definite sets of irrational numbers are excluded from all the intervals.—Some theorems connected with Abel's theorem on the continuity of power series: G. H. Hardy. The paper deals with the generalisation, for series of which the terms are continuous functions of a variable, of certain well-known theorems relating to power series. The convergence of $\sum a_n$ is sufficient to secure the uniform convergence of $\sum a_n f_n(x)$ in an interval in which all the functions $f_n(x)$ are continuous, and these functions diminish in value as n increases; a similar theorem holds also if $\sum a_n$ diverges, but is of the type which can be summed by averages.—The canonical forms of the ternary sextic and quaternary quartic: Prof. A. C. Dixon. The forms are the sums of ten sixth, or fourth, powers, as the case may be. Processes are given for carrying out the reductions to these forms, and it is shown that in each case there are two solutions.—The accuracy of interpolation by finite differences: W. F. Sheppard. The paper deals with the relative accuracy of the ordinary advancing-difference formula and the central-difference formulae in regard to the two sources of error which arise (1) from omitting the remainder in the series by which the values of a function are calculated, (2) from the fact that tabulated values of a function are only approximate.—The geometrical interpretation of apolar binary forms: C. F. Russell. The paper is concerned with geometrical constructions which may be regarded as generalisations of the construction of the fourth harmonic point of three given points in a definite order. For two apolar forms of the same order, analogous to two quadratic forms harmonically related, the construction is linear.—Two cubic curves in triangular relation: Prof. F. Morley.—The question of the existence of transfinite numbers: P. E. B. Jourdain.—A question in the theory of aggregates: Prof. A. C. Dixon.

PARIS.

Academy of Sciences, April 17.—M. H. Poincaré in the chair.—The president announced the death of Prof. Langley, correspondent of the academy.—The evaluation of the foco-facial distances of microscopic objectives: L. Malassez. A comparison of two experimental methods with the results of a formula developed by the author in previous papers.—Pure ferro-molybdenums: contribution to the study of their constituents: Em. Vigouroux. Alloys of iron and molybdenum containing varying proportions of the two constituents were submitted to treatment either with dilute hydrochloric acid or an acid solution of cuprous chloride. The insoluble residues from fourteen separate alloys were analysed, and the following four compounds of iron and molybdenum isolated in a pure state:— Fe_2Mo , Fe_3Mo_2 , FeMo , FeMo_2 . The physical and chemical proper-

ties of each of these are given.—A characteristic reaction of ethyl glyoxylate: the action of ammonia on this ether and its derivatives: L. J. Simon and G. Chavanne. By the action of ammonia on ethyl glyoxylate a substance $C_4H_5N_3O_4$ is formed. This is blue-black in colour, and possesses very powerful tinctorial properties, and hence may form a useful test for this ester. The composition of this substance has not yet been established.—The acid properties of starch: E. Demoussy. Starch possesses all the characters of a feeble acid, comparable with carbonic acid, and resembling in this respect the other carbohydrates. It forms compounds with metallic hydroxides which are dissociable by water, and can absorb small quantities of neutral salts. These properties probably play a part in the absorption of mineral matters by plants.—The state of colouring matters in crystals coloured artificially: P. Gaubert. It has been shown in previous papers that there are two cases in the artificial colouring of crystals; in the first case the crystal is only coloured when the solution from which the crystal is depositing is nearly saturated with the colouring material; in the other case the crystal is coloured, whatever the dilution of the colouring material. The present paper gives details of measurements made on crystals of the latter class, phthalic acid, with methylene blue in solution. It was found that the ratio of the concentrations of the methylene blue in the liquid and crystals was practically constant, although the absolute concentration of the methylene blue was made to vary within wide limits. Similar results were found with methylene blue and crystals of urea nitrate.—The Vesuvian origin of the dry storm observed at Paris on the morning of April 11: Stanislas Meunier. A microscopical examination of the dust deposited during this storm showed it to be identical in nature with the dust from Vesuvius in 1822.

DIARY OF SOCIETIES.

THURSDAY, MAY 3.

ROYAL SOCIETY, at 4.—Election of Fellows.—At 4.30.—On a Static Method of Comparing the Densities of Gases: R. Threlfall, F.R.S.—The Stability of Submarines: Sir William H. White, K.C.B., F.R.S.—The Action on Bacteria of Electrical Discharges of High Potential and Rapid Frequency: A. G. R. Foulerton and A. M. Kellas.—The Action of Pituitary Extracts upon the Kidney: Prof. E. A. Schäfer, F.R.S., and P. T. Herring.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 5.—The Digestive Tract in Birds and Mammals: Dr. P. Chalmers Mitchell.

CHEMICAL SOCIETY, at 8.30.—The Relation between Absorption-Spectra and Chemical Constitution, part v.: The *iso*Nitroso-compounds: E. C. C. Baly, E. G. Marsden, and A. W. Stewart.—The Action of Tribromopropane on the Sodium Derivative of Ethyl Malonate, part ii.: W. H. Perkin, jun., and J. L. Simonsen.—Brazillin and Hæmatoxylin, part vii.—Some Derivatives of Brazilein: P. Engels, and W. H. Perkin, jun.—Pipitazohic Acid: J. M. Sanders.—The Constitution of the Hydroxides and Cyanides obtained from Acridine, Methyl-acridine and Phenanthridine Methiodides: C. K. Tinker.—The Constitution of Ammonium Amalgam: E. M. Rich and M. W. Travers.—Action of Light on Potassium Ferrocyanide: G. W. A. Foster.

LINNEAN SOCIETY, at 8.—Origin of Gymnosperms (*Continuation of Discussion*): Dr. D. H. Scott, F.R.S.

CIVIL AND MECHANICAL ENGINEERS' SOCIETY, at 8.—Some Observations on Bacterial Tank Operations: Dr. W. O. Travis.

FRIDAY, May 4.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 9.—The Steam Turbine on Land and at Sea: Hon. Charles A. Parsons, C.B., F.R.S.

GEOLOGISTS' ASSOCIATION, at 8.—The Erosion of the Batoka Gorge of the Zambesi: G. W. Lamplugh, F.R.S.

MONDAY, MAY 7.

ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY, at 8.30.—From the Victoria Nyanza to Kilimanjaro: Col. G. E. Smith, R.E.

SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY, at 8.—Some Notes on the Gutzeit Test for Arsenic: J. Goode and Dr. F. Mollwo Perkin.—The Separation of Brucine and Strychnine. Influence of Nitrous Acid in Oxidation by Nitric Acid: W. C. Reynolds and R. Sutcliffe.—Absorption of Gallic Acid by Organic Colloids: W. P. Dresper and A. Wilson.

VICTORIA INSTITUTE, at 4.30.—The Zodiac: its History and Biblical References: Rev. A. B. Grimaldi.

TUESDAY, MAY 8.

SOCIETY OF ARTS, at 8.—Damascening, and the Inlaying and Ornamenting of Metallic Surfaces: Sherard Cowper-Coles.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON, at 5.—The Atmospheric Circulation and its Relation to Weather: Dr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 5.—Glands and their Products: Prof. W. Stirling.

WEDNESDAY, MAY 9.

SOCIETY OF ARTS, at 8.—Bridge Building by Means of Caissons, including Remarks upon Compressed Air Illness: Prof. Thomas Oliver.

GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—The Eruption of Vesuvius in April, 1906: Prof. Giuseppe de Lorenzo.—The Ordovician Rocks of Western Caermarthenshire: D. C. Evans.

THURSDAY, MAY 10.

ROYAL SOCIETY, at 4.30.—*Probable Papers*: "Adsorption" and "Occlusion": the Law of Distribution in the Case in which one of the Phases possesses Rigidity: Prof. M. W. Travers, F.R.S.—Cyanogenesis in Plants, part iv., Phaseolunatin in Common Flax (*Linum usitatissimum*): part v., The Occurrence of Phaseolunatin in Cassava (*Manihot Aipi* and *Manihot Utilissima*): Prof. W. R. Dunstan, F.R.S., Drs. T. A. Henry, and S. J. M. Auld.—A Variety of Thorianite from Galle, Ceylon: Prof. W. R. Dunstan, F.R.S., and B. Mouat Jones.—The Mechanism of Carbon Assimilation in Green Plants: the Photolytic Decomposition of Carbon Dioxide *in vitro*: F. L. Usher and J. H. Priestley.

INSTITUTION OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS, at 8.—Long Flame Arc Lamps: L. Andrews (Adjourned Discussion).

FRIDAY, MAY 11.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 9.—Some Astronomical Consequences of the Pressure of Light: Prof. J. H. Poynting, F.R.S.

PHYSICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—The Effect of a Rapid Discharge on the Throw of a Galvanometer: A. Russell.—Exhibition of Lippmann Capillary Dynamo and Electromotor: Prof. H. A. Wilson.—Exhibition of an Apparatus for demonstrating the Movements of the Diaphragms of Telephonic Transmitters and Receivers and the Current flowing into and out of the Cable during Speech: W. Duddell.

ROYAL ASTRONOMICAL SOCIETY, at 5.

MALACOLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—Notes on the Subgenus *Malluvium*: E. A. Smith, I.S.O.—Notes on some Species of the Genus *Mitra*, with the Description of *M. Brattinghami*, n.sp.: E. A. Smith, I.S.O.—On some Land- and Fresh-water Mollusca from Sumatra, part ii.: Rev. R. Ashington Bullen.—Notes on a Collection of Nudibranchs from the Cape Verde Islands: C. Crossland and Sir Charles Eliot, K.C.M.G.—Notes on Indian and Ceylonese Species of *Glossula*: Col. R. H. Beddome.

CONTENTS.

PAGE

Radiobes and Biogen. By J. A. T. J.	1
Principles and Practice of Pottery. By William Burton	3
The Soil and its Tillage	4
Inorganic Chemistry for Students. By W. A. B.	5
Our Book Shelf:—	
Klein: "Collodion Emulsion"	5
Jordan: "Der Gegensatz zwischen geographischer und nichtgeographischer Variation."—F. A. D.	6
Walker-Tisdale and Robinson: "Butter-making on the Farm and at the Creamery."—C. Simmonds	6
Deinhardt and Schломann: "The Deinhardt-Schlomm Series of Technical Dictionaries in Six Languages: English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian"	6
Letters to the Editor:—	
Osmotic Pressure.—Earl of Berkeley	7
The Eruption of Vesuvius.—Dr. Hj. Sjögren	7
Lightning Flashes. (<i>Illustrated</i>).—R. T. A. I.	8
Diurnal Variation of Ionisation in Closed Vessels.—George G. Simpson	8
August Rainfall.—Alex. B. MacDowell	8
At the Head of Loch Fyne. (<i>Illustrated</i>)	9
The Egyptian Heaven and Hell. (<i>Illustrated</i>)	10
Ancient Eclipses. By P. H. Cowell	11
Variations of Domestic Poultry. (<i>Illustrated</i>). By W. B. Tegetmeier	13
Notes	14
Our Astronomical Column:—	
Astronomical Occurrences in May	18
Comets 1906 <i>a</i> and 1906 <i>c</i>	18
The Total Solar Eclipse of January, 1908	18
Radiant Point of a Bright Meteor	18
Luminous Particles in the Chromosphere	18
New Catalogue of Double Stars	18
Explorations in the Himalayas. (<i>Illustrated</i>)	19
Osmosis and Osmotic Pressure	19
Marine Biology on the West Coast. By Frank Balfour Browne	19
Physiological Effects of Mental Actions	20
Discovery of Seven Thousand Roman Coins. By Aquila Dodgson	20
University and Educational Intelligence	20
Societies and Academies	22
Diary of Societies	24

SUPPLEMENT TO "NATURE."

Localisation of Cerebral Functions. By F. W. M.	iii
Pioneers of Geology	v
Electrochemistry. By F. M. P.	vi
The Vanishing East. By Archibald R. Colquhoun	vii
Elementary Mathematics	viii
Tropical Medicine. By Dr. J. W. W. Stephens	ix
Progressive Teaching in Physiology. By W. D. H.	x

SUPPLEMENT TO "NATURE."

LOCALISATION OF CEREBRAL FUNCTIONS.

Histological Studies on the Localisation of Cerebral Function. By Dr. A. W. Campbell. Pp. xx+360. Published by aid of a subsidy from the Royal Society. (Cambridge: University Press, 1905.) Price 18s. net.

THIS important monograph is a very valuable contribution to neurological science, for the following reasons:—(1) It further establishes a correlation between histological structure and physiological function in the brain. (2) It furnishes a complete descriptive atlas of admirable illustrations of the cell and fibre structure of the human cerebral cortex, whereby neurologists will be enabled, by adopting Dr. Campbell's methods, to examine pathological states of the cerebral cortex and compare the same with the normal. (3) It deals with certain important pathological conditions of the cerebral cortex bearing upon the subject of correlation of function and structure in a fuller, more precise and detailed manner than has hitherto been attempted, viz. amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, tabes dorsalis, amputation of limbs, and deaf-mutism. (4) It adds to our knowledge, by a complete comparative survey of the cell and fibre structure, of the cerebral cortex in the following mammals:—cat, dog, pig, anthropoid apes, and man.

The author in a short introduction refers to the work of some previous observers, and claims that he has pieced together the disjointed knowledge of the histology of the cerebral cortex by a complete survey of its cell and fibre architecture. It is excusable for one who has devoted a number of years to its study to make the following statement:—"the microscopist will probably succeed in defining and rubbing the corners off the boundaries of the productive field" which experimental and clinico-anatomical observations have shown to be correlated with precise functions, which, however, have not, as the author says, come from the "pens" of the physiologists or from "an honoured coterie of observers following in the footsteps of Broca," but from an army, of whom, in England, Hughlings Jackson was the leader.

We doubt very much whether present methods of histology will throw any new light, beyond that which has been already shed by Flechsig, on the higher functions of the cerebral cortex; in fact, that Dr. Campbell should have used six out of eight brains from persons of unsound mind dying in Rainhill Asylum, with the assurance that they in no way differed from the normal, is not very hopeful in this respect.

Chapter i. deals with material and methods. The essential feature was the systematic examination of every part of the cortex according to a definite plan of dividing the hemisphere into fifty or sixty blocks; these were numbered, and sections from each block of the uniform thickness of 25μ were taken at intervals of 1 mm. and subsequently stained for cells and fibres by two well known methods, then mounted. Microscopic drawings were then made to scale, the

low power at a magnitude of $80/1$ and the high power at $480/1$.

Dr. Campbell, having thus acquired a topographical knowledge of the cell and fibre structure of the human cortex, has applied that knowledge to a comparative histological survey of the brain of the anthropoid apes, and of certain pathological conditions of the cerebral cortex.

Chapter ii. consists of general histological considerations on medullated fibre arrangement and cell lamination. It may be noted that the author has made seven layers of cells; it would probably have been better had he restricted the term layers to those which are laid down in the developing embryo.

Chapter iii. deals with the pre-central or motor area. Bevan Lewis and Clarke, in a valuable communication to the Proceedings of the Royal Society, 1878, mapped out the motor area by the presence of the large Betz cells, which they showed were found only in the ascending frontal convolution and a small co-terminous portion of the para-central lobule. Dr. Campbell confirms these observations, and shows that the same distribution of the large cells occurs in the anthropoid apes. Moreover, the distribution of these cells coincides absolutely with the field which Sherrington and Grünbaum have found respond to unipolar faradisation, thus affording the connecting link necessary to apply the stimulation experiments on the anthropoid apes' brains to the localisation of the motor area in man. Strong confirmatory evidence of the localisation of volitional muscular movements residing in the pre-central area is afforded by the examination of the brain in two cases of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, a disease limited to the motor system of neurons. The author describes a wholesale disappearance of giant cells of Betz in this region. He asserts that in the same brain the post-central gyrus entirely escaped affection.

In three cases of amputation of the leg and a like number of cases of amputation of the arm, in which the central convolutions were examined in a series of sections, alterations were discovered limited in distribution to fields agreeing closely with the leg and arm areas delimited by experimental observation. At the level of the superior genu the annectant gyrus or buttress, which is relatively devoid of "giant cells," seems to be an important guide to the point where the trunk area intervenes between those of the arm and leg.

Chapter iv. is on post-central and intermediate post-central areas. This area is readily defined in the anthropoid ape and man, and is limited in its distribution to the post-central or ascending parietal gyrus and its para-central annexe; the floor of the fissure of Rolando is the anterior boundary. Its cortical structure is different from that of the pre-central area; it exhibits structural features similar to that of known sensory areas (the visual and auditory). Dr. Campbell therefore denies its motor function. But, it may be asked, would histological studies have been listened to any more now than when Bevan Lewis described the distribution of the motor cells had it not been that experimental observations on anthropoid

apes showed that it did not respond to unipolar excitation, and that partial ablation gave rise to no interference with movement? The author makes a good deal of the fact that he has examined three cases of *tabes dorsalis*, and observed profound cortical alterations concentrated in this area. He would argue, therefore, that correlated systems of sensory neurons were alone affected. Without denying the probability of this fact, which has been put forward by previous authorities, it may be doubted whether the evidence is altogether satisfactory, for two of the cases were admitted tabo-paralysis, and the other was not free from suspicion.

Chapter v. deals with the visual area. There are two definite and distinct areas, named by Bolton visuo-sensory and visuo-psychic. The distribution of the first corresponds to the line of Gennari, and occupies especially the region of the calcarine fissure; it is therefore often spoken of as the calcarine, or more properly the striate area. Campbell confirms Bolton's work on the visuo-sensory area, and delimits the second definable visuo-psychic area, which forms a skirt to the first, and practically covers the remainder of the occipital lobe. It is characterised by a remarkable wealth of nerve fibres and curious large pyramidal cells. In the chimpanzee and orang analogous areas were demonstrated, but it was found that they extended much more widely on the lateral surface of the hemispheres. It is curious that Dr. Campbell has not observed that in a very considerable percentage of lunatics' brains the visuo-sensory (striate) area extends from 10 mm. to 30 mm. on to the external surface. Moreover, Eliot Smith has shown that this condition exists in a very considerable percentage of the brains of Egyptians.

Connected within the sylvian fissure, and occupying the transverse temporal gyri, is a small but important field characterised by coarse fibres and large pyramidal cells. This the author calls *audito-sensory*; the skirt of cortex circumjacent he terms *audito-psychic*. These two areas correspond with the primordial and intermediary myelogenic areas mapped out by Flechsig. The author remarks that the remainder of the temporal lobe is characterised by a poverty in cells and fibres of large size.

The angular gyrus is not endowed with any specialised architecture, although clinico-anatomical evidence shows that it has a special function connected with word vision. Dr. Campbell does not even consider the cortical localisation of impressions coming from the semi-circular canals by the external auditory nerves, although he describes cortical changes in a case of deaf-mutism.

The author admits that although histological researches of previous observers leave hardly anything further to be learnt concerning the morphology of the cell and fibre elements resident in the cortex of the limbic lobe, "yet the exact cortical localisation of the olfactory and gustatory centres is sadly wanting." The lobus pyriformis is probably the principal cortical centre, although not the sole one, governing the olfactory sense. Its structure is characterised by superficially placed clusters of stellate

cells, and a tendency on the part of projection fibres to reach the surface.

The cell and fibre architecture of the hippocampal area and cornu ammonis show characteristic features, and yet the functions of these parts are obscure. Neither do we know the function of the gyrus fornicatus; but the author decides against its being concerned with common sensation by the fact that there is a total absence of large fibres and large cells found in other sensory regions.

Histological observations show that the cortex of the parietal lobe possesses all the cell laminae of, and a similar arrangement of nerve fibres to, the intermediate post-central area, but it differs in containing a smaller number of special large pyramidal cells and of large medullated fibres. The boundaries of this region, however, are not very definite or its characteristics very clear. Is it a fact that "a homologous area can be traced phylogenetically throughout the *vertebrate* series," or does the author really mean mammals?

The intermediate pre-central area is characterised by a similarity of structure to the pre-central area in the fact that there are large cells and coarse, medullated fibres, but they are greatly reduced in numbers. He also points out that the stellate cells are much less abundant than behind the Rolandic fissure. He regards this area as being a cortical region presiding over complex later developed skilled movements, which clinico-anatomical observations had previously proved. Moreover, the area agrees closely with the intermediate area of Flechsig mapped out by developmental methods. He finds that the whole inferior frontal convolution is similar in structure, and he assumes, therefore, that it is similar in function, and therefore governs the motor element in speech. This argument is, however, not very convincing.

Chapter x. deals with the remainder of the frontal lobe, which he divides into frontal and pre-frontal. The results of this chapter are disappointing, for it might be expected that histological studies would have thrown more light on the possible functions of this lobe; for the author states on p. 248:—

"Without adding materially to our knowledge of the functions of the frontal lobes, histology throws light on some of the observations of previous observers." "No explanation can be given of the truth that stimulation of the frontal lobe produces eye movements."

He rather exaggerates the poverty of fibres in this region according to some authorities.

Chapter xi. is concerned with the island of Reil, which consists of two types of cortex, the anterior similar to the lobus ovriformis, the posterior to the adjacent first temporal convolution. The insula is old, and it plays a more important part in primitive mammals than in man.

At the end of each chapter is a summary and an index of references to the work of other observers on the subject. The book concludes with a valuable addendum, part i. containing a comprehensive survey of the cell and fibre architecture of the cortex of three types of mammals, the cat, dog, and pig.

Part ii. takes into consideration the function and homologues of the areas which can be defined by the difference in cell and fibre characters. There is a vast amount of information and patient, careful work in this book, and it is impossible in a review to do more than indicate some of the principal points; but all men of science who are interested in the subject of brain structure in man and animals will be well repaid by a careful study of the work, aided by the admirably executed twenty-nine plates illustrating the cell and fibre structure of the brain and the topography of the histologically defined areas.

F. W. M.

PIONEERS OF GEOLOGY.

The Founders of Geology. Second edition. By Sir Archibald Geikie, F.R.S. Pp. xi+486. (London: Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1905.) Price 10s. net.

A FOUNDATION should be laid on a sound bottom, and should be itself constructed so as to hold together in one solid mass. For this, each man engaged upon it must carry out thoroughly the work entrusted to him, one in an obscure corner mixing the mortar, another, more in evidence, laying the bricks.

So in the building up of systems of knowledge we must take care that our theories are based upon those ascertained facts which we call the laws of nature, and, further, that each stage in the superstructure is consistent. It is difficult to appraise exactly the value of the work of each. Many a modest and retiring worker has suggested good things which have afterwards been followed up by others; many a thoughtful student has pointed out faulty reasoning upon which vast theories were being erected.

Sir Archibald Geikie, on a former occasion, came round and selected for commendation or for criticism some of those who have been most prominent in building up the science of geology, and pointed out what was good and what might have been better done. He now inspects more in detail the work of those who laid the very foundations or prepared the ground for their reception, and gives us, first of all, a sketch of what, as we gather from very scattered notices, were the views held by the Greeks and Romans on geological questions. Then he carries us through the dark ages, in which only a small spark of intelligent observation gleamed here and there.

In order to present the speculations of the earliest writers who have referred to the subject in some definite order, our author considers them under three heads. In the Mediterranean area underground processes forced themselves upon the attention of all thoughtful and observant men, and, when we remember the story of Graham Island, which was rapidly thrown up, had the British flag hoisted upon it by Admiral Smythe, and then disappeared, it is interesting to note that Strabo and Pliny confirm the sudden appearance of islands due to ejected material. These and other ancient writers, however, could not get very far in the exploration of earthquakes and volcanoes, but referred them to wind pent up in vast cavities in the bowels of the earth.

With regard to the processes at work upon the surface of the earth, we learn that the ancient philosophers inferred that the sea now covers areas that were once dry land, and that land will appear where we now find sea, but that these phenomena escape our notice because they take place successively during periods of time, which, in comparison with our brief existence, are immensely protracted.

Herodotus calls Egypt "the gift of the Nile," while Strabo points out that deltas are prevented from advancing seawards indefinitely by the wash of the waves.

Then followed the dark ages, so far as concerned investigations into the operations of nature, until the Arabs took up the work and the learned Avicenna translated Aristotle, and expressed, even more clearly than did his Greek master, opinions regarding the origin of mountains and valleys, which show a singular forecast of modern geology.

Sir Archibald Geikie leads us on in his happy style through the later middle ages, pointing out the prejudices that hindered free inquiry, and bringing in great names, like that of Leonardo da Vinci, which we would hardly expect to find among the pioneers of geology.

Many were the shifts to which men were driven in those days in order to avoid collision with ecclesiastical authority. Some said that what looked like bones, shells, and plants in the rocks were introduced during Noah's flood; some refused to admit that they were anything but earthy concretions; and one writer went so far as to suggest that even the potsherds of Monte Testaccio at Rome were only natural productions of the earth. Some clear-headed writers tried from time to time to place scientific inquiry upon a better and more independent footing. Steno, for instance, in the seventeenth century, broke away from all preconceived ideas and prejudices, and his treatise "De Solido intra solidum naturaliter contento" marks an epoch in the history of geological investigation.

The next phase was characterised by the appearance of a number of cosmogonies, or historical sketches of the manner in which it was supposed that the crust of the earth had been built up and reached its present condition. Men's judgment was often wrested, and facts and logic strained, in the attempt to make these "theories of the earth," as they were called, consistent with orthodox ideas and with themselves, but, though they did little to advance scientific truth, they at any rate forced people to think about such things.

Buffon recognised that the earth was only part of a great planetary system, and suggested that many of the changes produced upon its surface were such as would be evolved in a mass gradually cooling down. He worked long and carefully, appealing to observation and experiment, and often getting very near a good theory, but never quite achieving it.

Sir Archibald Geikie could not, of course, in the case of the ancient writers, tell us much of their personality, their bringing up, and early associations. The description of these gives a human interest to

his account of the later writers, and enables us to realise many circumstances which coloured their scientific work.

It is interesting to learn that the majority of the more notable of those who have created the science of geology have been men engaged in other pursuits who have devoted their leisure to scientific research. Until lately there was no training in natural science such as can now be obtained at our universities and elsewhere. The nearest approach to it was the instruction given in the medical schools, and many of the best geologists have been medical men. None could, then, have been called professional geologists in the sense of having been trained specially for geological study, and but few in the sense of having made it their life's work and received pay for it, such as Sedgwick, who, having been a resident fellow of great distinction in both classics and mathematics, was appointed professor of geology, or Murchison, who, having been a soldier, was made director of the Geological Survey.

The author has recast and added to the biographical sketches of the great leaders of geology as drawn in his first edition, and has made a good book yet better. It is a work which should be in the hands of all students of geology, while the general reader cannot fail to be interested in this chapter in the history of discovery told in such charming, simple language.

ELECTROCHEMISTRY.

Experimental Electrochemistry. By N. Munroe Hopkins, Ph.D. Pp. xiv+284. (London: Archibald Constable and Co., Ltd., 1905.) Price 12s. net.

THE author's desire is, as he states in the preface, to produce a book which will prove useful both in the laboratory and in the lecture theatre, or, as he probably means, for home study. The book commences with a brief historical review of the subject, and the student is intended to carry out some of the classical experiments upon which the foundations of this essentially experimental branch of chemistry and physics have been built up. For example, he is instructed how to repeat Sir Humphry Davy's work on the isolation of the alkali metals. A portion of this chapter is also devoted to instructions how to manipulate the electrical supply by cutting down the current from the lighting mains with a lamp resistance, or to alter the voltage by means of a small motor generator. The author then comes to the subject of electrolytic dissociation. Dr. Hopkins is no half-hearted supporter of the ionic theory; it is evidently his sheet anchor, by which all other theories must be tested, and if they do not conform then there is evidently something lacking in these theories. It must be admitted that the author makes out a very strong case for the theory of electrolytic dissociation, and he gives experiment after experiment to prove his case. Chapter ii. deals with osmotic pressure and how to carry out the determinations; a complicated apparatus is described for experimentally proving the principle of Soret. In chapter iii. boiling- and

freezing-point methods are dealt with, and experiments are described to show that chemical action will not take place except in the presence of moisture.

The next chapter treats of experiments in electrolytic induction. Some of these experiments are of an extremely interesting character, although whether opponents of the ionic theory would be prepared to admit that they are valid proofs of the theory is open to doubt. Starting with the well known fact that a negatively charged conductor will induce an opposite charge in the end of a rod brought into its neighbourhood, he describes experiments to show that the same holds good in the case of an electrolyte, and then argues that, as electricity can only pass through a liquid by means of ions, therefore the induced charge is caused by ionic movement. In the experiment of Ostwald and Nernst, where the actual liberation of hydrogen by an induced charge is made visible to the naked eye, the proof seems complete. The author, however, gives other very interesting cases where the induced charge is shown by means of a delicate mirror galvanometer, and in which no chemical change is obvious, any more than it is obvious in the case of a solid conductor. Some of the most novel experiments in this direction described by the author are those in which he shows that a magnet induces a current of electricity in an electrolyte, the magnet being placed in the centre of a glass coil containing the electrolyte.

The chapter on the velocity of electrolytic conduction is interesting, and the question of the absolute velocity of the ions is very fully dealt with. Here again the author shows his ingenuity by the number of novel experiments which he describes, and by his modification of the experiments of other workers. A large number of experiments are described to illustrate Faraday's laws, both in connection with dissolved and fused electrolytes. Dr. Hopkins also describes an experiment to illustrate the mechanical transfer of matter through solid glass. A piece of glass rod is taken with platinum wires fused into either end, the wires being about 1 cm. apart in the centre. The two wires are connected in series with a milliammeter and with the electric lighting circuit. No current, of course, passes, but on heating with a Bunsen burner until the glass commences to soften a deflection is noticed on the ammeter. With the softening of the glass, therefore, the ions are free to travel, at any rate; the glass is no longer an insulator.

The portion of the book dealing with electrolytic analysis is very short, and will be useful more as a suggestion as to what can be done than as a guide for analytical purposes. To a certain extent the same remarks apply to the electrolytic preparations which are given. The part devoted to furnace work, that is, laboratory furnace work, is pretty full. A good deal of space is given to the isolation of aluminium and also of sodium. The section devoted to calcium should be brought up to date.

An interesting account is given of the production of nitric acid from the atmosphere, with historical notes, and this chapter fails in one thing only—no

mention is made of the Birkeland successful manufacturing process. This is hardly the author's fault, because it is so recent that the author could only have added it to the book as a supplement, bearing in mind the time a book takes to pass through the press. A few organic preparations are given, such, for example, as the preparation of chloroform; not having tried it as illustrated by the author we wonder whether it is a success. It looks very similar to the description of processes which we know are not successful.

The last portion of the book is devoted to primary and secondary cells, and to the generation of electricity from carbon. Nothing is impossible in science, and perhaps some day the glowing hope of many young and some old investigators may be realised, and the carbon cell become our source of electrical energy.

The book is well printed and splendidly illustrated. The author is an American, and it makes our mouths water to think of the magnificent equipment which his laboratory must possess. It is not difficult to understand why electrochemistry flourishes abroad; the foundations were laid here, part of the superstructure was raised, but where is the finished building? We advise those interested in electrochemistry, and also those who do not believe in it—and there are a goodly few—to read this book.

F. M. P.

THE VANISHING EAST.

A People at School. By H. Fielding Hall. Pp. viii + 286. (London: Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1906.) Price 10s. net.

THERE are several different ways in which to write of foreign countries, and Mr. Fielding Hall, who knows his Burma as thoroughly as it can be known by a European, has chosen the psychological point of view and the philosophical method. He had already broken ground in this direction in his "Soul of a Nation," and one hoped that the fascinating study afforded by that book was to be continued in the present one, which deals with the Burmese in their transition stage. The hope is not altogether fulfilled. An author must not complain if his work is always measured by his own highest achievement, and, although "People at School" is an interesting and suggestive book, it is disappointing after the "Soul of a Nation." It is, as the author confesses, made up of chapters written at odd times, and the result of this method is a certain amount of repetition and some contradiction, while the style is so jerky and broken as to become fatiguing; but, when these criticisms as to manner have been made, one is still aware that the matter of the book is unusually good and interesting. So much has been written of eastern countries that it is no small achievement to give an unhackneyed rendering of so familiar a theme—and Mr. Hall is never conventional and at the same time is always faithful to life.

The first half of the book gives a picture of Burma before and at the time of the British "occupation" of

Upper Burma. In writing of times that are past and gone, while still within our recollection, we have all to be on our guard against a popular illusion as to the "good old days." My sympathies are naturally with Mr. Hall in his half-stifed regrets for the picturesque period of Burmese history. I too knew old Burma; I too sat under a banyan tree and represented the majesty of England to a district, dispensing paternal justice with the sureness (and successfulness) of youth and profound faith in the mission of the Anglo-Saxon. I shared the dacoit hunts the wearisome monotony of which, varied by the writing of picturesque reports, Mr. Hall describes with such humour and veracity. Moreover, I assisted (as he was not able to do) in the settling-down period, and am able to endorse his remarks as to the only policy possible towards a conquered people and the folly of burning villages as reprisals; and we were both younger in those days than we are now and life was much more of a vast adventure. We must not cast too much personal glamour over the good old times when we comment on the dull sobriety of Burma to-day—the well administered Indian province.

Nevertheless, a feeling of depression creeps over me as I read of the Burman of to-day. He is prosperous, says Mr. Hall, but is losing his sense of the joyousness of life. One's memories of Burma are inextricably interwoven with the picture of a childishly happy people—the most attractively merry, gentle, light-hearted people of the East. Have we put them into a dull, conventional mill? Are we crushing them with the weight of our materialistic civilisation? Despite his half-hearted disclaimers Mr. Hall is evidently afraid that this is so, and, although he stoutly hopes that this is only a transition period—a people at school—and that manhood will bring the Burman a newer and brighter horizon, yet one cannot but regret that political destiny made it necessary for us to destroy the Burmese ideals when we could give them nothing better. Our system of government, as Mr. Hall shows clearly, while respecting native laws and custom, is inevitably a superstructure, unlike the system which grows up from the soil. Even our method of employing the headmen of villages as Government officials has its weak side, and it is interesting to note that a similar system regarding the chiefs of tribes is having the same effect in South Africa. Both headman and chief are no longer regarded by villagers or tribe as representatives of the people, but as those of the Government. It is a strong distinction.

There are several points on which I must join issue with Mr. Hall. He would have us believe that the Indian money-lender and coolie and the Chinese trader are really helpful to the Burmese and advance their progress. So long as the Burman is able to retain his hold of the soil that may be, but how long can he do this in the teeth of foreign invasion? Mr. Hall also rests too much of his psychology on the presumed "youth" of the Burmans as a race, disregarding their many points of resemblance with other Indo-Chinese peoples. One would have liked a comparison also with the Japanese, who have many of

the "youthful" characteristics of the Burmese. While the former "adapt" Occidental civilisation, however, the Burmese can only "adopt" it, with the result that it seems to denationalise them.

The interesting chapter on women, who play so large a part in Burma, being the equals of men legally and socially, suggests another interesting comparison (which Mr. Hall seems to miss) with the French nation. The Burmese law of inheritance (that is the Buddhist law that a man may make no disposal of his goods after death) resembles the French system of dividing the property between the children. The result in both countries is to limit individual ambitions and to raise the legal status of women, who become co-partners with their husbands in all business affairs and are often much the better horse.

That this book is rather suggestive than conclusive is one of its charms, and no one who cares for the mysterious and vanishing East should fail to read this study of a people at school.

ARCHIBALD R. COLQUHOUN.

ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS.

- (1) *Easy Mathematics of All Kinds*. Vol. i. *Chiefly Arithmetic*. By Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S. Pp. xv+436. (London: Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1905.) Price 4s. 6d.
- (2) *Arithmetic for Schools and Colleges*. By John Alison and John B. Clark. Pp. viii+471+xlvii. (Edinburgh and London: Oliver and Boyd, 1905.) Price 4s.
- (3) *Elementary Trigonometry*. By H. S. Hall and S. R. Knight. Fourth edition, revised and enlarged. Pp. xv+415. (London: Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1905.) Price 4s. 6d.
- (4) *Engineering Mathematics, Simply Explained*. By H. H. Harrison. Pp. 165. (London: Percival Marshall and Co.) Price 1s. 6d. net.

(1) ONE of the reasons which induced a busy scientific man like Sir Oliver Lodge to write a book on easy mathematics is thus given by the author in the preface:—

"The mathematical ignorance of the average educated person has always been complete and shameless, and recently I have become so impressed with the unedifying character of much of the arithmetical teaching to which ordinary children are liable to be exposed that I have ceased to wonder at the widespread ignorance, and have felt compelled to try and take some step towards supplying a remedy."

No teacher of arithmetic or elementary mathematics can afford to be without this most suggestive book, in which the results of much thought and a wide experience are presented in a deeply fascinating style, and untrammelled by conventional or artificial restrictions. The first four chapters give suggestions for teaching very young children the operations of counting and the simple rules of arithmetic. The appeal is made through their games and any concrete things in which they are likely to have an interest, and vulgar and decimal fractions and negative quantities seem to present no difficulties. The writer is emphatic in his declaration that the whole subject of

mathematics is essentially experimental and should be developed on an experimental basis. Concrete quantities are quite early dealt with like abstract numbers, and multiplied and divided freely, e.g. 60 miles/1 hour is the *speed* of an express train. The author advises that units should, where suitable, be inserted in the numerator and denominator of a fraction, and cancelled like ordinary numbers, in order to emphasise the *dimensions* of the quantities under consideration.

But it is impossible in a short article to give any adequate account of the book, treating as it does, to mention only a few things, of the decimalisation of money, indices, logarithms, incommensurables and discontinuity, approximations, progressions, means and averages, differentiation, &c., with interesting historical references and digressions, the whole being continuously illustrated and illuminated by applications drawn from the wide domain of natural science, of which the author has so extensive a knowledge.

(2) The arithmetic by Messrs. Alison and Clark is a very complete treatise, written mainly on conventional lines, and devoting a large portion of its space to commercial aspects of the subject. But the authors do not forget that the physical laboratory has also claims on their attention, and they give many good exercises in physics and mechanics, using four-figure tables of logarithms, and approximate methods of computation in appropriate cases. The authors are very partial to abstract reasoning, and general propositions seem to us to be introduced and deductions established somewhat prematurely, before the boy can have the concrete and experimental knowledge requisite to understand the matter. Thus in chapter vi., immediately after the completion of the four simple rules, the laws of the operations for the symbols are fully discussed; but it is wisely hinted that this chapter may be skipped on a first reading.

The text-book is intended for use in both schools and colleges. It is profusely supplied with examples of varying grades of difficulty. The answers collected at the end of the volume themselves occupy forty-seven pages of closely printed matter. The book is very suitable for advanced pupils and for prospective teachers, but beginners would require guidance as to what parts to omit.

(3) The new edition of Messrs. Hall and Knight's "Elementary Trigonometry" has been revised and enlarged by the introduction and use of four-figure tables of logarithms and antilogarithms of numbers, and of natural and logarithmic functions of angles, also by examples of the graphing of trigonometrical functions, and the insertion of additional examples of a practical nature. A first course is specially outlined which, by omitting some of the more advanced formulæ, allows numerical computations by four-figure tables to be reached at a comparatively early stage, and most teachers will no doubt follow this plan.

The revision has brought the fourth edition up to modern requirements, and little more need be said about a book the great merits of which are so generally recognised. In defining the ratios and establishing the fundamental formulæ for angles of any magni-

tude, we should like to have seen the essentially vector nature of the subject made more manifest, and at intervals enforced by examples drawn from physics and mechanics. There seems no good reason why in elementary text-books of trigonometry practical applications should in the main be confined to the ship-tower-flagstaff type of examples.

(4) The text-book on engineering mathematics by Mr. H. H. Harrison comprises chapters on arithmetic, algebra, trigonometry, mensuration, logarithms, squared paper, and the calculus. The presentation of the subject by the author is crude and uninteresting, no examples are provided for practice, and the book cannot be recommended for any class of student.

TROPICAL MEDICINE.

Lectures on Tropical Diseases, being the Lane Lectures for 1905 delivered at the Cooper Medical College, San Francisco. By Sir Patrick Manson. Pp. viii+230. (London: Constable and Co., Ltd., 1905.) Price 7s. 6d. net.

TROPICAL pathology no doubt owes much of its fascination to the fact that new diseases, or the causes of old diseases, have only within the last decade been completely elucidated, and that every year, if not every month, fresh facts appear and fresh subjects of inquiry suggest themselves. Thus almost before the ætiology of sleeping sickness was fully elucidated, students of tropical pathology were given a fresh subject of inquiry from the discovery of the cause of the dreaded "tick fever" of Tete on the Zambesi, and of other parts of tropical Africa. When the interest in the Anophelinae and *Stegomyia fasciata* had somewhat waned, the tropical pathologist had his attention diverted to tsetse-flies, and then again the hue and cry was in the direction of ticks, especially in Africa towards *Ornithodoros moubata*, the transmitter of the spirochæte of "tick fever."

In India the malariologist must have recently received a severe shock to find that many of his most familiar cases, which he designated "malaria cachexia with enlarged spleen," are in all probability due to an entirely new parasite, or at least the parasite can be found in the organs of such cases. In tropical pathology Africa has provided many of these novelties, but, in the opinion of medical men who have travelled widely in tropical Africa, there is not now much probability left of the production of a completely "new" disease. We do not, of course, imply that many minor discoveries do not remain to be made, and, indeed, even great ones, such as the causes of yellow fever and beri-beri; and to the investigator who is content with elucidating minor problems these fascinating lectures will afford numerous examples of the kind of work that still remains to be done.

But a word of caution is perhaps necessary; for the reader is presented with a host of interesting suggestions and speculations, and unless he advances cautiously and weighs these carefully in the light of experience, he may well take the phantom hypothesis for fact, for it would be possible in this particular

branch of pathology to adduce examples where hypothesis simply has actually retarded the acquisition of knowledge. We would prefer rather to see the investigator laboriously accumulate facts and to base on these his own hypothesis rather than, starting with a ready-made hypothesis, to try and adapt his facts to it. With this caution we think these lectures should serve as a stimulant to the jaded investigator depressed by the slowness of his own advance, as he perhaps remembers that it took Ross some two years or so to work out the mosquito cycle of the malaria parasite, and that the first hypothesis as to the path followed by the parasite in the mosquito was a wrong one.

While, then, a perusal of these lectures has raised some doubts in our minds as to the general validity of presenting those, presumably novices, with a number of interesting suggestions, yet for even the veteran there is abundance of sound common sense to be found here which he will do well to treasure up. If, further, we venture to criticise various statements in detail, we do not do so in a spirit of opposition, but simply as an expression of a difference of opinion. The author (p. 2) refers to helminthology as "until recently an insignificant if not a despised branch of pathology"; but surely this is somewhat forgetful of the claims on our gratitude and respect of such helminthologists as Leukart, Dujardin, Rudolphi, Cobbold, Küchenmeister, &c. We can only in part agree with the opinion that, regarded "as a cultivating medium, there is no difference between the juices and tissues of an Esquimaux and those of a Caucasian or those of a negro." For what else but a difference of medium is the explanation of the fact that the healthy countryman will survive wounds and infections that prove fatal to the less resistant townsman? It is partly a difference of medium in the host, we believe, that causes malaria to be a mild disease in temperate regions, and a deadly one in tropical climates, where in both cases we may be dealing with a single infection of a particular person. In what else does the good of change of air, a sea voyage, &c., consist, but in producing a change of medium in the host in which, e.g., the dysentery amœba is living?

In treating of filariasis (p. 80) we do not think the author sufficiently emphasises the fact that the final link in the chain of evidence connecting the mosquito with the transmission of filaria is wanting. Grassi and Noe's experiments on the transmission of filariæ to dogs by means of mosquitoes are by no means convincing, and to experiment on man is hardly possible. In the case of the malaria parasite the experiment has been done several times, but it was Schaudinn who actually first saw the malarial sporozoit penetrate the red cell. We had made the same experiment as Schaudinn on many occasions without success, except that we saw the sporozoit transformed into a body indistinguishable from a so-called "ring form," and if the investigator follows out the method given on p. 98 he will not see what Schaudinn describes. For Schaudinn expressly says that on using sporozoits taken from the salivary gland he got no results; it was only on using sporo-

zoites taken from large oocysts in the stomach that he got (two) successful results.

In discussing the aetiology of sleeping sickness we think the author scarcely puts Colonel Bruce's discovery in its proper light. We would say that without Castellani's observation possibly Bruce would not have thought of or discovered the trypanosome, just as Dutton might never have discovered the *Trypanosoma gambiense* had it not been for Forde. But to claim Castellani as the discoverer of the aetiology of sleeping sickness is, we consider, hardly right. Further, the author appears to have some doubts as to whether this trypanosome is really the cause of the disease, and cites, by way of caution, the fact that similar evidence could have been adduced in favour of the embryo *F. perstans*. But to us it seems that the "evidence" in favour of *F. perstans* was never at any time on the same footing as that of *Trypanosoma gambiense*, and, as a matter of fact, collapsed immediately the hypothesis was tested by facts.

We cannot here discuss the evidence in favour of regarding *T. gambiense* as the cause of sleeping sickness, but it is supplied by a body of epidemiological, pathological, and experimental evidence surely conclusive.

Finally, the author suggests (p. 124) that, in the case of *T. gambiense*, the negro of the endemic areas of this parasite has acquired an immunity similar to that of antelopes in regard to *T. brucei*. But, so far as we are aware, there is not the slightest evidence of this, and, in fact, the evidence is to the contrary, viz. that where a negro has *T. gambiense* in his blood he will surely die sooner or later (of sleeping sickness).

We consider that for the medical man the most valuable portions of the book are those dealing with the diagnosis and treatment of tropical fevers, and these should be taken to heart, for it is not uncommon, for example, for a patient to die of liver abscess who has been treated throughout for "fever"; but fever is not always malarial, as is too often supposed.

The book has numerous illustrations in the text, but, with some exceptions, these are not entirely successful. We would heartily recommend those who wish for a series of stimulating, unconventional lectures to peruse this book. J. W. W. STEPHENS.

PROGRESSIVE TEACHING IN PHYSIOLOGY.

Recent Advances in Physiology and Biochemistry.

Edited by Leonard Hill, M.B., F.R.S. Pp. xix+740. (London: E. Arnold, 1906.) Price 18s. net.

THE rapid advances that physiology is making are reflected not only in the journals that deal with research, but also in the vigour with which the teachers of the subject are applying themselves to their duties in relation to their students. At several centres in London there are every year now given courses of advanced lectures, open free to all the students of the London medical schools, in which they may hear from the lips of the investigators themselves the result of their research, and witness the most important of their experiments.

The book now before us is a corresponding expres-

sion of this teaching energy, and one can only hope that authors and publishers alike may find their venture a success. Students have not the time for hunting up original papers, but they ought readily to imbibe a summary of recent research when it is presented to them in an attractive way.

The collaborators deal with subjects on which each is competent to speak, because they have themselves worked at those they write about. Thus the editor, Mr. Leonard Hill, treats of the subjects of respiration and fat-metabolism. Dr. J. J. R. Macleod gives a summary of recent work in connection with carbohydrate metabolism, uric acid formation, and the immunity question. Another aspect of the respiratory process is dealt with by Dr. Pembrey, who also writes on internal secretions; and some interesting chapters on lymph production, absorption, and excretion by Dr. Beddard follow next.

All the subjects are treated in a lucid manner, and will give to advanced students a clear idea of the present position reached by physiologists on many of the thorny problems that beset the path of the original worker.

The opening articles of the volume, which are from the pen of Prof. B. Moore, come into a somewhat different category. He deals with the applications of physical chemistry to physiological phenomena, especially in connection with secretion, and the action of enzymes. He gives the latest views and results on this most important subject, and teachers and students alike owe him a debt of gratitude for his able treatment of these somewhat obscure questions. Those parts which relate to the rules and formulæ which regulate the processes of reaction-velocity and the like will be found rather difficult to many, for physiologists and medical students are, as a rule, rather rusty in their mathematics. But Prof. Moore's articles are not mere abstracts of the work of himself and others, for he has chosen them as the vehicle for the promulgation of a new doctrine, of which the keynote is struck in the opening chapter. The main object of his succeeding chapters is to convince the reader that this new conception is right, and will explain much that has hitherto been puzzling. The cell is treated as a transformer of energy, but the new energy produced, which is characteristic of living structures, cannot be brought into line with the known forms of energy in the inorganic world. It differs from heat and electricity, for instance, as much as, or more than, heat and electricity differ from each other, and he dubs it "biotic energy." Biotic energy is not, however, the old vitalistic principle revived under a new name, for it obeys the law of conservation of energy, and its investigation is capable of numerical and exact treatment just as that of heat and electricity is. A review is not the place to enter into any detailed criticism of such a view. The idea will serve to stimulate others to renewed research, and one foresees it will meet with considerable opposition in the future. Any doctrine which involves controversy is to be welcomed, and finality in the discovery of truth is brought nearer as the workers are provided with new theories as a basis of work.

W. D. H.