

mile, and a mean breadth of half a mile, covering an area of 1540 acres, and containing 13,907 million cubic feet of water; the maximum depth is 436 feet, and the mean

running nearly parallel to, and about a mile to the south of, that occupied by Loch Laggan. The *west loch* is the larger and deeper of the two, nearly two miles long by one-third of a mile in greatest breadth, covering an area of about 263 acres, and containing 408 million cubic feet of water, with a maximum depth of 81 feet and a mean depth of 35½ feet. The basin is simple, the contour lines being continuous, but narrowing more decidedly than the outline from the centre to each end, the slopes being much steeper towards the centre of the loch. The *east loch* is about half a mile distant from the west loch, the stream conveying the overflow from the west loch winding through the boggy flat between them. It is 1¼ miles long by a quarter of a mile in greatest breadth, covering an area of about 146 acres, and containing 191 million cubic feet of water, with a maximum depth of 69 feet and a mean depth of 31 feet. The deep water is all towards the upper end, the lower half being very shallow.

Besides the larger lochs thus briefly summarised, details are given in the paper of Loch Pattack, the highest loch surveyed in the basin, with a maximum depth of 58 feet and a mean depth of 14 feet;

of Loch Ghuilbinn, with a maximum depth of 49 feet and a mean depth of 13 feet; of an Dubh Lochan, a very small but relatively deep loch near Loch Treig,



Photo.]

FIG. 2.—Loch Lochy, from the southern end.

[James Chumley.]

depth 207 feet. The loch forms a narrow triangle, broadest towards the south and tapering towards the outflow, the steep slope of the hills being continued under water. The basin is simple, all the contours approximately following the shore-line, but the line of greatest depth is nearer the western shore. The 400-foot area is about two miles in length, the two ends approaching very close to the west side, where the steepest slopes occur. The valley is so narrow relatively to the depth of the loch that, in the central parts, the steep slopes reach far towards the middle and leave comparatively little level bottom, but towards the south end, where the loch is broader and not quite so deep, there is a greater extent of nearly flat bottom. It is interesting to note that seiches were first observed by the staff of the Lake Survey in Loch Treig.

Loch Ossian lies at an elevation of about 1270 feet above the sea to the north of Rannoch Moor, trending north-east and south-west, with its long axis slightly curved, and of nearly uniform breadth throughout. It is 3½ miles long, and nearly half a mile in greatest breadth, the mean breadth being one-third of a mile. The superficial area is nearly 660 acres, and the volume of water about 1224 million cubic feet, the maximum depth 132 feet, and the mean depth 43 feet. The lake-floor is very uneven, both the transverse and longitudinal sections being undulate.

Loch Laggan, situated between the Highland and West Highland Railways, the coach road from Kingussie to Tulloch passing along the northern shore, trends north-east and south-west, and is of the usual elongate, narrow form of Scottish lochs, narrowest in the central parts and somewhat expanded towards each end, where deeper water occurs; the outline is very irregular, and the bottom correspondingly irregular, with a number of larger and smaller islands in the narrower parts. It is more than seven miles in length, two-thirds of a mile in maximum breadth, the mean breadth being nearly half a mile, and the superficial area about 1900 acres. The maximum depth is 174 feet, the mean depth 68 feet, and the volume of water about 5600 million cubic feet. The shallower contour lines are continuous, and follow approximately the outline of the shore, but all the deeper contours are much broken up. There are four 75-foot areas and six 100-foot areas, the largest and deepest approaching the west end.

Lochan na h-Earba is the name applied to two distinct lochs (now differing by nearly 10 feet in level, though they may once have formed a single loch) lying in a valley

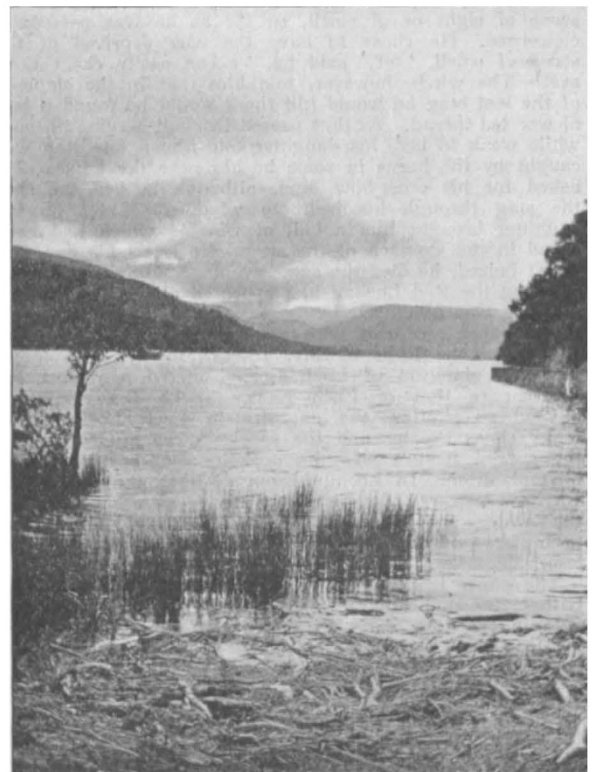


Photo.

James Chumley.

FIG. 3.—Loch Arkaig, from the east end.

with a maximum depth of 40 feet and a mean depth of 15½ feet; of Lochan Lunn dà-Bhrà, with a maximum depth of 25 feet and a mean depth of 8½ feet; and

of Loch nan Gabhar, a little weedy hollow only 5 feet deep, which is evidently being rapidly silted up. An interesting account is also given of the Red Lochan at Tulloch, a small pond lying in an extensive morainic terrace near the north end of Loch Treig, called in Gaelic by a name signifying "brown eye." It is only about 30 yards in longest diameter and 5 feet deep in the centre, fed only by rains, and, though it has no outflow except by percolation through the gravel, its surface is maintained almost constantly at the same level. The water is always turbid, and varies in colour from dull green to brown or red. When examined in May, 1902, the water was brown, the collection with the coarse net was pale yellow, while that taken by the fine net was decidedly red; there were only two abundant organisms, the larva of an insect (*Corethra*) known as the "phantom larva," and a reddish-coloured rotifer, *Anuraea valga*, to which the colour of the water was evidently due, for none of the other organisms were abundant enough to be held responsible for the colour of the water. On placing the collections in formalin, a blood-red sediment was deposited, which was found to consist chiefly of *Anuraea valga* and myriads of its red eggs. Examined subsequently at different seasons, the changes of colour were doubtless correlated with the predominance of one or other organism. None of the other ponds in close proximity shared the turbidity and reddish-brown colour of the Red Lochan, the peculiarity being probably due to its being more closely shut in, the surrounding rim of gravel being 14 feet or more above the pond, and there is besides a fringe of birch trees. The water is stagnant, which favours the growth of certain organisms, particularly *Anuraea valga*. It is said that wildfowl never settle on the pond, and that the common frog cannot live in it. The following legend was related to Sir John Murray concerning this Red Lochan:—"Many centuries ago there lived in these parts a noted hunter named Donnail. In return for some services rendered to the witch of Ben-a-Vreich, she offered to deprive the deer of the sense of sight or of smell, so far as he was personally concerned. He chose to have the deer deprived of the sense of smell, 'for,' said he, 'I can easily cheat their eye. The witch, however, told him that in the stomach of the last stag he would kill there would be found a ball of worsted thread. As time passed Donnail became ill, and, while weak in bed, his daughter told him a fine stag was caught by the horns in some bushes near the house. He asked for his cross-bow, and, although in bed, he shot the stag through his bedroom window. Later on his daughter brought him a ball of worsted which had been found in the stomach of the stag. He knew his end was near; indeed, he died the same evening. On the following morning the Red Lochan had appeared at the place where the stag was killed."

The paper concludes with some interesting notes on the biology of the lochs by Mr. James Murray, who found that the plankton of Loch Lochy offered a remarkable contrast to that of Loch Ness, though the conditions seemed so similar, the quantity in Loch Lochy being many times greater and the species more numerous, but the special feature was the quantity and variety of the phytoplankton. In Lochan Lunn dà-Bhrà the *Diaptomus* was so deep red that when the nets were drawn from the water they seemed to contain blood; the same peculiarity was observed in An Dubh Lochan, but in a lesser degree.

The paper is illustrated by coloured maps showing the bathymetry and orography, and there are several woodcuts in the text, some of which are reproduced in this notice.

THE STRUCTURE OF METALS.¹

THE lecturer said that his purpose was to give some account of researches in which he had been engaged for a good many years, dealing with the manner in which metals were built up and the manner in which their structures allowed them to yield when they were compelled to change their shape by being overstrained. A piece of metal was not a homogeneous single thing; it was a

¹ Abstract of "Wilde" Lecture, delivered by Dr. J. A. Ewing, F.R.S., before the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society on February 18.

collocation of grains or granules, which built it up just as granules of ice built up a glacier. The grains of metal were irregular in shape and unequal in size. Their existence was revealed by polishing and etching the surface of the metal and examining it under the microscope, when the grains could readily be distinguished by differences of texture, and the boundaries between them could be clearly traced. Investigation showed that each grain was, in fact, a separate crystal, and the irregular boundaries were due to casual inequalities in the rates at which the various crystals had grown during their formation, which might occur when the metal was solidifying from a fluid state, or when it passed in the solid state through certain temperatures at which re-crystallisation took place. Each grain might be regarded as composed of an immense number of molecular brickbats grouped in perfectly regular tactical formation, but the direction in which these brickbats were piled was different in different grains; hence on being etched the polished surface showed differences in texture and in behaviour as to reflecting light. Microscopic photographs illustrating these features in iron and other metals were exhibited.

When the metal was strained beyond the elastic limit, and thereby compelled to change its form, the change of form took place by slips occurring between the layers of molecular brickbats in the individual granules. The discovery of these slips had been made by the lecturer in conjunction with Mr. Walter Rosenhain, by noticing certain lines to appear on the polished surface of a piece when subjected to severe strain. These lines, which they called slip lines, looked like minute crevasses, but were really steps caused by the slipping of one layer on its neighbours, just as cards might slip in a pack. In any one crystal grain there were at least three sets of independent parallel planes in which such slips could take place, and these allowed the grain to undergo complete alteration of form as a result of the straining. Microscopic photographs were exhibited showing three systems of slip lines on the surface, corresponding to slips in three directions throughout the substance of the grain. The true nature of these slip lines was made apparent by means of obliquely incident light, which showed them as little steps in the surface. An interesting direct confirmation of this had been afforded by recent experiments of Mr. Rosenhain in which cross-sections of the stepped surface had been obtained.

Dr. Ewing next explained, by aid of models, a theory which he had recently advanced as to the structure of the crystal granule itself. This theory might be regarded as an extension of the views he put forward fifteen years ago to explain the phenomena of magnetic induction by the mutual actions of polarised magnetic molecules. Cohesion in the crystalline structure might similarly be regarded as due to the mutual forces between polarised molecules, the polar quality of which determined the regular tactical formation in which they grouped themselves to form the crystal. For this purpose he conceived of each molecule as possessing polarity along each of three rectangular axes; in other words, as having six poles exercising forces of attraction on the opposed poles of neighbouring molecules.

The lecturer proceeded, by aid of the model, to demonstrate the process of crystal-building with these polarised molecules for brickbats. He showed how, under certain conditions, a group of dissenting molecules might be formed within the crystal grain, possessing a certain degree of stability, though not in complete harmony with the molecules around them. Evidence for the existence of such groups was furnished by the microscope in the examination of iron and other metals. The process of straining was next considered, and it was shown that the conception of polarised molecules was in agreement with what was known of the actual behaviour of metals during, first, the elastic stage of straining, and, second, the stage where much greater yielding took place and permanent set was produced. The molecular theory explained how energy was dissipated in the process of straining, and also how elastic "fatigue" resulted. After any severe strain the piece was a long time in recovering its full amount of elastic quality, but the recovery could be accelerated by heating it. These phenomena were accounted for by