and courses of work put forward by various examining authorities, and methods of teaching were discussed.

The principal resolutions passed by the conference dealt with the educational proposals of the Government, and the London University Commission Report. The conference urged the "necessity for improved provision for technical education and the organisation of technical education on a national basis." In addition, attention was directed "to the urgent necessity for increased grants from the State in aid of technical education," higher salaries for teachers to be a first charge upon these increased grants. With regard to the London University Commission report, a resolution was passed unanimously opposing any limitation of the existing facilities for obtaining external degrees, and the proposed exclusion of external students from the examinations in the faculty of technology, including engineering. This resolution also stated that many of the criticisms made in the report concerning London polytechnics and technical institutions are obviously founded on an incomplete knowledge of the work done in these institutions. The association strongly deprecated any weakening of the connection between these institutions and the University in view of the excellent results which have followed in the past as a result of the present relationships between the polytechnics and the University. The higher work in these institutions, whether day or evening, should form an integral part of the organisation of the faculties of science and technology.

A public meeting was held in connection with the conference in the large hall of the Bradford Technical College, the principal speaker being the Right Hon. J. A. Pease, M.P., the President of the Board of Education. During the course of his speech, Mr. Pease emphasised the importance of technical education, especially in the day-time if possible, and the necessity of "gradually bringing into the educational net nearly the whole of the population which left school between the ages of twelve and fourteen." New regulations would shortly be issued which, by means of larger grants and more elastic conditions, would favour the development of junior technical schools, "which would be linked up with the colleges and classes of a superior character." Mr. Pease criticised external examinations "as a waste of money and effort, and resulting in very little good." In concluding, he suggested that the key of the educational situation is to give more power, coupled with greater financial aid from the State, to the local authorities.

J. WILSON.

## THE NATIONAL PHYSICAL LABORATORY.

THE annual meeting of the general board of the National Physical Laboratory was held recently at the rooms of the Royal Society, when the report and accounts for the year 1912 and the statement of work for 1913 were presented and approved for transmission to the president and council of the Royal Society.

In former years this meeting has usually been held at Teddington during the month of March, and has been combined with an inspection of the laboratory by the members of the board. In consequence of a change in the financial year, the annual inspection will in future be held at a later date. This year it is to take place on Thursday, June 26, when the Right Hon. A. J. Balfour will open the new buildings recently erected.

These buildings complete a scheme initiated in 1909 to provide laboratories for metallurgy and optics, with administrative offices, at an estimated cost of 30,000*l.*, exclusive of equipment; of this sum the Treasury undertook to provide 15,000*l.*, provided the remainder were forthcoming from other sources.

In 1910 the late Sir Julius Wernher generously provided 10,000*l.* for the erection of the metallurgy laboratory, and on learning lately that the actual cost had exceeded the sum available by 936*l.*, Lady Wernher most kindly defrayed the deficit.

To secure the further sum necessary for the completion of the scheme, and to obtain funds for the equipment of the buildings, an "Additional Funds Committee," of which the late Sir William White was chairman, was appointed during 1912. In its report this committee states that the Royal Commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851 had generously given a donation of 5000*l.* to the building fund, thus completing, with the gift from Sir Julius Wernher, the 15,000*l.* required to meet the Treasury grant.

Generous help towards the equipment has been received from many sources, including a number of the City companies. The committee, however, points out that considerable sums are still necessary to provide adequately the equipment which is essential for the proper development of the work.

The block of buildings for optics and administration is now nearly complete, and it is to open these that Mr. Balfour has promised to be present on June 26.

## ATMOSPHERIC REFRACTION IRREGULARITIES.

THE anomalies of atmospheric refraction are numerous, and at various times irregularities extending over periods of one minute, one day, and one year have been discussed, that of the order of one second being generally known and causing "unsteady seeing." The variation of the order of one minute was discovered by Nusl and Fric experimentally in 1908, and they concluded that this irregularity had an amplitude of nearly a second of arc. The existence of such a large amplitude and its importance in meridional work suggested to Prof. Frank Schlesinger a redetermination by a perfectly independent method, and this he has done and described in a recent number of the Publications of the Allegheny Observatory (vol. iii., No. 1). He has based his measures on photographs of ordinary star trails made with the help of stationary long-focus instruments, and these he has had secured for him, according to a programme, by Prof. Slocum with the 40-in. Yerkes refractor, and Prof. Seares with the Mount Wilson 60-in. reflector, the star trails being those of the Pleiades group. The result deduced from the Yerkes plates, as is illustrated by curves in the publication, is to show the presence of this slow fluctuation, every one of the seven trails remaining at times above or below its mean position for a considerable fraction of a minute.

The same series of photographs was used to determine whether neighbouring stars showed the same fluctuations and whether the minor fluctuations were real. The curves plotted from these photographs thoroughly endorsed both these views, one figure showing the fluctuations of Merope and Alcyone as absolutely identical. To decide whether such one-minute fluctuations were common to mountain sites as well as low-lying situations, the Mount Wilson photographic trails were employed, and handled in the same way. The conclusion drawn was that the irregularities were of the same character, the amplitude being of the same order and the extreme range about one second of arc. Prof. Schlesinger thus directs attention to the fact that these results set a limit of accuracy to meridian work and show that photographic determinations of the distance between two widely separated objects are much more accurate than micrometer (excluding double image or heliometer) observations with the same instrument, because the former are affected alike, the same time element being common to each.

## PROPERTIES AND STRUCTURE OF ICE.

AN interesting account of a number of experiments by Prof. R. S. Tarr and Dr. J. L. Rich, of Cornell University, appears in the *Zeitschrift für Gletscherkunde* (Band vi., p. 225). The results agree mainly with those obtained by Mügge and MacConnell, and show that, as urged in 1869 by W. Mathews, those of Prof. Tyndall and Canon Moseley were inconclusive, through not taking sufficient account of the time-element in the problem. These recent experiments, which were both numerous and designed to test the various properties of ice, show that it welds readily at a temperature of 0° C.; that when a block of ice has been cut through by a wire and regelation has occurred, optical continuity is re-established, the new-forming crystals being controlled by those previously in existence, and that the welding, at temperatures well below the freezing point, to some extent resembles what has been observed in marble after being crushed.

The authors tentatively advance four propositions; the first, that the observed deformation is of the nature of plasticity, *i.e.* it is not initiated until a certain strain is reached, the plastic yield-point lying near the breaking point of the ice; the second, that the ease with which deformation may be produced varies with the direction in the crystal; the third, that the optical properties of a crystal are affected by such deformation, the effect being dependent upon the direction in the crystal in which the deformation takes place; and the fourth that granular ice, composed of interlocking crystals, is subject to deformation equally with a single ice-crystal. Pond-ice was mostly used in the experiments, but granular snow- and glacier-ice were also employed. The authors notice a suggestive fact in regard to the first, that in a cake 30 cm. thick, about 10 cm. at the top consisted of finely granular ice; the next 15 cm. of coarse prismatic crystals of ice, standing perpendicular to the water surface, and the remainder of finely granular ice with diversely oriented crystals.

## THE WINDS IN THE FREE AIR.[1]

IT was noticed in very early times that the wind in the upper air may be very different from what it is on the surface. Lucretius says: "See you not too that clouds from contrary winds pass in contrary directions; the upper in contrary way to the lower." Bacon advocated the use of kites in studying the winds; but it is only in quite recent years that any systematic attempt has been made to investigate the free air above the surface of the earth. Kites have been flown to a height of four miles, but it is a matter of some delicacy to get even so high as two miles.

The temperature of the free air may be recorded by a meteorograph attached to a small rubber balloon, which continues to ascend until the pressure of the gas inside bursts the envelope, and the instrument descends again to the surface. The beautiful instrument constructed by Mr. W. H. Dines, F.R.S., the pioneer of upper air research in this country, is so light that the torn fabric of the balloon is sufficient to act as a parachute and check the speed of descent.

[1] Discourse delivered at the Royal Institution on Friday, April 11, by Mr. Charles J. P. Cave.

The general result of the observations has been to show that the temperature of the air decreases with height up to a certain point, above which the temperature distribution is nearly isothermal; however much higher the balloon may ascend, there is little further change of temperature. This upper layer, discovered by M. Teisserenc de Bort, whose recent death meteorologists of every country lament, is called the stratosphere; the lower part of the atmosphere is the part that is churned up by ascending and descending convection currents, and is called the troposphere. The height at which the stratosphere is reached, as well as the temperature of the layer, varies from day to day and from place to place. In these latitudes it is met with at heights varying from about 8 to 14 km., with temperatures varying from $-40°$ to $-80°$ C.

It is not, however, with temperatures that I am chiefly concerned to-night, but with the wind currents in the different layers of the atmosphere. If one of the balloons carrying instruments, or a smaller pilot-balloon, is observed with a theodolite, its position from minute to minute can be determined, and from its trajectory, or its path, as it ascends, the winds that it encounters can be calculated.

The theodolite used is constructed specially for the purpose; a prism in the telescope reflects the light at right angles, so that the observer is always looking in a horizontal direction, even if the balloon is overhead. It is important that the observer should be in as comfortable a position as possible, for an ascent sometimes lasts more than an hour and a half, during which time the observer can only take his eye from the telescope for a few seconds at a time, otherwise he may lose sight of the balloon and be unable to find it again.

The balloon having been started from one end of the base, observations are taken from both ends at exactly the same times, usually every minute. From the positions of the balloon at each successive minute, which are plotted on a diagram, the run of the balloon during the minute can be measured, and hence the wind velocity during that minute can be obtained. After the wind velocities have been measured off, and the wind directions obtained from the directions of the lines on the diagram, another diagram is constructed showing the relation of the wind velocity and direction to the height.

It is not necessary, however, to have two observers if the rate of ascent of the balloon is known; in such a case, the complete path of the balloon can be calculated from the observations of one theodolite. It is not, however, possible to know the rate of ascent with complete accuracy, as up and down currents in the air will affect the normal rate. In practice, especially in clear weather, the method is fairly satisfactory. The method of one theodolite requires less preparation, and the subsequent calculations of the path of the balloon are less laborious, than in the case of observations taken with two theodolites from opposite ends of a base line.

The best time for observations is towards sunset, so that the balloon reaches its greatest height after the sun has set on the surface of the earth; at such times the balloon, still illuminated by the sun, shines like a planet, and on one occasion I should have found it impossible to tell which was the balloon and which was Venus, except for the movement of the balloon. The distances at which balloons may be seen through the telescope of the theodolite are remarkable. A striking instance was when the flash of the sun on the small meteorograph was seen, not once, but repeatedly, when the balloon was about nine miles above the sea and at a horizontal distance of about thirty miles.