Photographic Irradiation

I HOPE you will allow me space to correct a slight misunderstanding which has got into the present discussion on photographic irradiation. Mr. Crofts (NATURE, vol. x. p. 245) places my views in opposition to those of Lord Lindsay and Mr. Ranyard. Mr. Stillman (NATURE, vol. x. p. 381), who has given us such valuable information on the molecular condition of different preparations of collodion, also takes the same view. Now in reality Lord Lindsay's and Mr. Ranyard's views are not opposed to mine. I have simply attempted to prove that molecular reflection was *a cause* of photographic irradiation, not that it was *the only cause*, as I quite agree with Lord Lindsay and Mr. Ranyard, that the imperfections of the lens are also causes of photographic irradiation, and in NATURE, vol. x. p. 185, I pointed out one form of irradiation due to the lens. But the imperfection of the lens which is most fatal is that pointed out by Lord Lindsay and Mr. Ranyard, namely, the inability of the lens to bring all the rays to a focus, whether this results from the imperfections of the outside portion of the lens, or from imperfect achromatic* correction. No maker of lenses will tell you that any lens, far less that every lens which he puts out, is perfectly corrected for dispersion. Working with such an instrument, it is very clear that if we only allow an exposure sufficient to give an image on the part of the collodion where the great proportion of the rays are focused, then the photographic impression will give very nearly the true boundary line. But suppose we allow more light to pass through the lens, either by turning the camera to a brighter light or by giving a longer exposure, then it is clear that the unfocused rays which gave no impression when the exposure was short, will now impress themselves on the collodion, and thus the photographic impression will be extended beyond the true boundary line.

That there should be difference of results in experiments on photographic irradiation is quite to be expected, as there are so many variables in the experiments. The light, temperature, and condition of the collodion are all constantly changing, and the conditions under which the experimenters work, and the apparatus and chemicals used, are different for each experimenter; different results may therefore be expected. If the experimenter use a good lens, and employ only the central portion of it, the imperfection due to the lens may be small in quantity. But if his lens is imperfectly shaped and badly corrected for dispersion, and he uses the full aperture, the result will be very different. Again, if the experimenter work with different collodions, Mr. Stillman has shown that, altogether independent of the lens, a very slight change in the preparation of the collodion greatly alters the amount of irradiation. So far as I can at present judge, the imperfections of the lens and molecular reflection are not opponents, but allied enemies, which we must meet on the same field. JOHN AITKEN

Darroch, Falkirk, N.B.

Can Land-crabs Live under Water?

WHEN in Atchin, in Sumatra, during the second Dutch expedition, it occurred to me to put to experimental test a statement which I thought I had seen in some book or other—this book turns out to be Prof. Marshall's work on "Physiology"—to the effect that land-crabs are drowned when kept immersed in water.

On one occasion I kept one of these crabs under water for two hours, after which time it was as lively as ever; and on another day a larger specimen was kept submerged for exactly four hours, after the lapse of which time it was somewhat subdued, but by no means moribund.

Unfortunately the duration of my experiments was always limited by the necessities of ablution, as our largest receptacle for fluids was a small-sized Huntley and Palmer's biscuit-tin, which served as our only washing apparatus, as well as the laboratory—eventually a very leaky one—for my experiments, for a period of four months spent under an equatorial sun.

New University Club, Sept. 22 J. C. GALTON

* We here require some new word, or we must greatly extend our conception of achromatism, as we have here to deal with rays far beyond the limits of the sensitiveness of the eye; and the word achromatic, as applied to lenses for chemical purposes, is somewhat misleading. I may here offer two suggestions as to how the imperfect power of the lens to bring all the different rays to a focus may be partially corrected:—(1) By using a collodion which is as nearly as possible only sensitive to those rays which the lens can bring to a focus; or (2) by providing each lens used for making accurate observations with a screen, which shall stop back all the rays beyond the limits which the lens can focus.

Salivary Glands of Cockroach

I SEE in NATURE, vol. x. p. 381, a letter on the salivary glands of the cockroach, by Dr. W. Ainslie Hollis, in which he remarks:—

"As far as my experience carried me, the sacculi, the supposed reservoirs of the saliva, never contained naturally any liquid whatever, but on opening the thorax were invariably found to be collapsed and empty."

A few days ago I was observing some of these creatures. I examined several shortly after they were caught; in these the sacculi were empty, but others which I had kept alive in a cup with only a few drops of water for a day or two, had invariably the sacculi distended with liquid.

I will not attempt to explain these facts, but leave that to others more capable than myself. CHAS. WORKMAN

Belfast, Sept. 21

THE AUSTRIAN POLAR EXPEDITION

THE Vienna correspondent of the *Times* supplies some interesting details concerning this important expedition. Events have proved that there has not been an expedition better fitted out, as to ship, stores, or crew, than that in which this North Pole Expedition left Bremerhaven on June 13, 1872.

As to the crew of twenty-four men, it was composed of three naval officers, Lieutenants Weyprecht and Brosch and Ensign Orel; two engineers, and fifteen picked Dalmatian sailors; Lieut. Payer, of the Jägers, an Alpine Club man, with two Tyrolese mountaineers; Haller and Kletz, and the Hungarian Képesy as surgeon. It was thus calculated for land work not less than sea work, and events proved that the company had been well sorted.

The object of the expedition being to find a north-easterly passage towards the coast of Siberia, the expedition having arrived at Tromsoe, and having taken on board Capt. Carlsen as harpooner and ice-master, started on the 14th of July for the sea and the coast of Novaya Zemlya. At Novaya Zemlya they met the Norwegian yacht *Jsbjörn*, in which Count Wilczek and Baron Sternberg, two of the chief promoters of the expedition, had come over from Spitzbergen to establish a store for them near Cape Nassau. They were for two years the last human beings they saw. The stores being laid in a cleft of the rocks inaccessible to the Polar bears, and the state of the ice looking more promising, the ships parted company on the 21st of August, the *Tegethoff* going north, the *Jsbjörn* south. The hope proved to be fallacious long before evening. The *Tegethoff* was icebound, and never was got out again. The temperature sank, copious snowfalls cemented the loose ice-fields, and the *Tegethoff* was surrounded by a solid mass of ice.

In this precarious state the ship lay for five months, the ice freezing together and bursting in turn, and so exposing it perpetually to fresh pressure. All was prepared for leaving the ship. The stores were brought on deck and a portion placed on the ice. This was the most trying time of the whole. Every moment the alarm was sounded and the signal given for leaving the ship. It was sufficient to wear out the strongest. In spite of this, meteorological and other observations were carried on. The strain on the mind told on the state of health in spite of all precautions, and scurvy and pulmonary affections set in.

All this time the ship was being driven in a north-easterly direction until, towards the end of January, 1873, 73 W. long. and 79 lat. were reached on February 25. The sun appeared again after five months on the horizon, and on the 25th the pressure of ice ceased. A massive wall had been formed round the ship, protecting it from further injury. The drifting was now to the north-west. Milder weather having set in, the hope revived of setting the ship free, and for five months the work went on. By dint of boring and blasting the fore part of

the ship was made free, but to free the aft proved impossible, ice of 30 ft. thickness lying underneath.

Disheartened, the expedition had almost resigned itself to have to pass another winter in the same position, when, on the 31st of August, high land was seen in the north, some fourteen nautical miles off. The feeling at first of great joy at the unexpected discovery became soon a torture. To be so close and not to be able to get to that unknown land. At last, towards the end of October, the ship drifted to about three miles off one of the islands which lay before the main land, and there the ship froze in at the beginning of November, and lies still in 79° 51′ N. lat. and 58° 36′ W. long. Here the winter of 1873-74 was passed in comparative quiet.

During the time a series of highly interesting astronomical, meteorological, and magnetical observations were made. The Northern Lights were very numerous and magnificent—white, red, and green, with crowns, bands, and rays of great size and brilliancy. The needle was so disturbed that oscillation became the rule and steadiness the exception. The cold was more intense than the year before, there being 37° Réaumur below zero on the ship. But the supply of fresh bear's meat and the absence of that strain on the mind produced by constant danger kept the crew in better health. The reappearance of the sun on the 24th of February did the rest for all except Krisch, the engineer, who died of consumption on the 17th of March, and was buried in the newly discovered land, between two basalt columns; for the explorations had already begun.

A first expedition of Payer, the two Tyrolese, four sailors, and the only three dogs remaining started for the mainland, went up the promontories named Tegethoff and M'Clintock, 2,500 ft. high, and up the Nordenskjold Fjord, bordered by the large Souklar glacier. It was still very cold, 40° Réaumur. All was still white with snow and hoar-frost, making the symmetrical rock columns look like candied sugar.

The second expedition of thirty days started on the 24th of March. The temperature had risen, but snow-drifts, wet, and the breaking up of ice made the journey still more dangerous. Of course, before getting the map it will be impossible to form a clear image of the configuration of the country. The atmosphere over the ice being hazy, the only way for making observations was by going to the heights, and by these means a succession of points was established—Cape Koldewey, 80° 15′; Cape Frankfurt, 80° 25′; Cape Ritter, 80° 45′; Cape Kane, 81° 10′; and Cape Fligely, 82° 5′, all on the Austria Sound. The diminished stores and the short available time necessitated forced marches, so one-half of the party was left under a rocky eminence in 81° 38′, and Payer, Lieut. Orel, the sailor Zaninovich, and the three dogs started to cross Crown Prince Rudolf's Land. Undeterred by a dangerous accident, the expedition went on by a roundabout way to the coast, and along it again northward. The progress became more and more difficult and dangerous; it was all fresh ice, often not more than a few inches thick. From Cape Fligely, the most northerly point touched, another elevated point, named Cape Wien, was sighted in 83°, the most northerly point of the known earth. Then the journey back again was more dangerous than the advance, but on the 25th of April the ship was seen on the spot where it had been left.

After a few days' rest, very much wanted, a third expedition was made, again to the west—like the first—when a high mountain, Cape Brünn, 40 miles from the ship, opened out a view over the mountainous country, with the Humboldt Peak, about 5,000 ft. high, as its culminating point.

Already, in March, a council had been held, and the decision had been come to to abandon the ship and to try to make their way back on sledges and boats. On the 20th of May the colours were nailed to the masts of the ship, and the expedition started with three boats and as many large sledges. The exertions proved almost too much. The journey had to be made five times over, three times tugging at boats and sledges, then twice back again. The continual south wind driving the ice northward seemed to make all efforts to get south useless, and after eight months' toil it seemed as if nothing remained but to return to the ship and pass there another winter. In the second half of July, however, north winds set in with rain, loosening the ice, and breaking it up, until on the 13th of August the expedition got into free water. It was in the unusually high latitude of 77° 40′. Had it not been for this exceptionally favourable state of the ice, the impression is that the expedition would not have been able to return. Now there was the pulling for the land. The crew and officers, divided into two watches, took it in turn day and night, so that forty miles' progress was made daily. On the second day the mountain of Nowaja Saulja was sighted. There were still provisions for a fortnight. A portion was left on shore, and then the southern bays were searched for Russian fishermen. None were found at the Barents Islands; bad weather set in, the sea ran high, all were wet through and unable to pull. It was already settled that the White Sea was to be made if no ship was found up to the 28th. However, on the 29th, two fishermen were sighted in a boat belonging to the schooner *Nicolay*, which brought the expedition to Vardöe on the 2nd of September.

The new land, as far as discovered, is about the size of Spitzbergen, and consists of several large masses intersected by fjords and surrounded by islands. A large passage called the Austria Sound separates these masses and forks under 82° north latitude into a north-easterly arm, which could be followed up to Cape Pest in the furthest north. The mountains are dolomitic. Their middle elevation is from 2,000 to 3,000 feet, only towards the south they may rise up to 5,000. All the depressions between the summits are occupied by glaciers of gigantic size, as they only occur in arctic regions. The vegetation is much poorer than that of Greenland, Spitzbergen, or Novaya Zemlya, and in the south, except for Polar bears, it is devoid of animal life too. Several attempts were made to pass through the country, but they were found impossible, mountains barred the road, so progress was tried along the coast line, and the more the explorers penetrated north by west the more the temperature rose, and the coasts of Crown Prince Rudolf Land were found to be tenanted by myriads of birds, elks, &c., traces of bears, foxes, and hares appeared, and seals lay on the ice. In spite of the treacherous nature of the road, it was continued to 82° 5′, where, at Cape Fligely, a wide expanse of water only covered with ice of recent formation was seen. In spite of this the explorers think the open Polar sea a delusion. Without raising a theory about the possible connection of this new land with Gillis Land in the south-west, the opinion is that it bears out up to a certain point Peterman's assumption of an inner arctic archipelago.

The fact of the expedition having found *hares* in the newly discovered land seems significant of a channel, not invariably frozen in winter, between Franz-Joseph Land and Spitzbergen, since hares do not occur in the latter.

In Norway the members of the expedition were received with the greatest enthusiasm, at Hamburg they were welcomed like bringers of good tidings, and on their entry into Vienna they could not have received a greater ovation had they been the remnant of a conquering army. All this they have richly merited, and there can be no doubt that Lieutenants Payer and Weyprecht have won for themselves a place in the first rank of arctic explorers.

A second Austrian Arctic Exploring Expedition is

being prepared at Vienna to start next summer. One half of the expedition will seek to advance to the north, under Lieut. Payer, by way of East Greenland, and the other half, under Count Wilczek, will proceed *viâ* Siberia. The object of the expedition is to ascertain if the newly-discovered Franz-Joseph Land is a continent or an island.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE

THE twenty-third meeting of this Association, which commenced at Hartford, under the presidency of Dr. J. L. Le Conte, on Aug. 12, seems to have been a successful one. Apart from the regular growth in prosperity which is exhibited every year, there was the unusual accession of the chemists, who have resolved to make their science strongly represented, and there was the excitement and interest which attended an important change in the constitution of the Association. The nature of the change we have already indicated (vol. x. p. 382). There was an unusually large attendance of the most eminent American representatives of science. The Association meets at Detroit next year on the second Wednesday of August.

The president's address consisted chiefly of allusions to some of the principal scientific events of the year, and of a summary of the matters to come before the Association. At a later period of the meeting the retiring president gave his address, in which he reviewed the progress of scientific instruments and methods. We can only refer very briefly to some of the more important papers read.

In a paper *On the Periodicity of the Rainfall in the United States in Relation to the Periodicity of the Solar Spots*, by Prof. John Brocklesby, the author concludes from his investigations that in the United States there is a connection existing between rainfalls and variations in the sun-spot area; the rainfall rising above the mean when the sun-spot area is in excess and falling below it when it is deficient.

Differential Measurements of Solar Temperature, by Prof. S. P. Langley of Pittsburgh, Pa. After stating the aims of the Alleghany Observatory at Pittsburgh, and giving details of the work now carried on there, consisting largely of observations and photographs of the sun, Prof. Langley said that there is a very wide variation in both the heat and light, and probably also in the actinic force of different parts of the sun. The difference is due principally, but not wholly, to differences in atmospheric absorption. Prof. Henry observed that the image of a sun-spot is colder than the photosphere surrounding it. Secchi has shown that the heat of the sun diminishes as we approach its edge, and he thinks that there is a different temperature at the sun's equator and the poles. Prof. Langley gave details of his own experiments with a thermopile upon these points. He finds that the observation of Prof. Henry is correct. But comparing the image of the spot with the photosphere immediately surrounding it, he finds that the image of a spot not far from the centre is uniformly warmer than that of the edge. To get the full significance of this observation we must consider that the image of the same spot is at the same time darker and colder than the photosphere near the centre, and darker and warmer than the photosphere near the edge. A series of measurements of the heat from the centre to the edge were made.

It does not appear as the result of these experiments that there is so great a selective absorption of heat in the lower regions of the sun's atmosphere, that when rays come from the edge of the disc and pass through a greater proportional thickness of his atmosphere, the heat is filtered from them and the light allowed to go through. We find that the heat falls away so very rapidly towards the edge as to indicate a much greater thinness of the solar chromosphere than has been hitherto admitted. We appear to have been led to the conclusion that there is a local obscuration over the spot very remarkable both in degree and kind. Prof. Langley exhibited a photograph of a sun-spot that looked, he said, like a sketch of a crystallising substance; when, however, we consider the enormous areas involved, we find the analogies of crystallisation wholly fail us, and we may more probably account for the facts by a hypothesis of cyclonic action. He concluded by pointing out the great value of these studies in connection with investigations in terrestrial meteorology.

Distribution of the Poles of Nebulæ, by Prof. Cleveland Abbe, of Washington. The general problem attacked in the present paper is the question whether there are planes that have a definite relation to nebulæ.

It may in general be stated that the positions of planes of rotation among the nebulæ do not show any such uniformity as is the case with the solar system: on the contrary, they are at all possible angles with each other. But there is this remarkable feature: that their nodes cluster about a point in R.A. 12h. 45m. and declination 60° N., that point being the North Pole of the plane near which lie the majority of the so-called axes of rotation.

Cave Fauna of the Middle States, by Prof. A. S. Packard, jun., of Salem, Mass.—For about a month during the last part of April and early in May last, Prof. Packard was engaged with Mr. T. G. Sanborn in exploring the caves of Kentucky under the auspices of the Geological Survey of that State, Prof. Shaler accompanying Prof. Packard. They first examined the Mammoth Cave, and doubled the number of animals known to exist therein and in others adjoining. An exploration, with Prof. Shaler, of the Carter Caves in Grayson County, Ky., also revealed a rich fauna composed of twenty species. Prof. Packard also examined Wyandotte Cave alone, and found a wingless Procus and two species of Thysanura new to the cave. Several caves within sixteen miles of New Albany, Ind., at Bradford, were examined. Finally, a careful examination of Weyer's Cave, in Virginia, and the adjoining Cave of the Fountains revealed a fauna containing some twenty species, no life having been previously reported from those caves.

These results show a great uniformity in the distribution of life—more than would at first be expected, though these caves lie in a faunal region nearly identical as regards the external world, and the temperature of the caves is very constant. Still some notable differences occurred.

Change by Gradual Modification not the Universal Law, by Thomas Meehan, of Germantown, Penn.—After adducing many instances in support of the theory that new forms are often generated by "leaps," Mr. Meehan concludes with the following propositions:—1. Morphological changes in individual plants are not always by gradual modifications. 2. Variations from specific forms follow the same law. 3. Variations are often sudden and also of such decided character as to seem generic. 4. These sudden formations perpetuate themselves similarly in all respects to forms springing from gradual modifications. 5. Variations of similar character occur in widely separated localities. 6. Variations occur in communities of plants simultaneously by causes affecting nutrition, and perhaps by other causes. Mr. Meehan argues from these premises that new and widely distinct species may be suddenly evolved from pre-existing forms without the intervention of connecting links.

This paper provoked considerable discussion. Prof. Morse said that the impression seemed to prevail among a great many that Prof. Meehan's paper was an argument against Darwinism, while in reality, in whatever sense you look at it, it was a corroboration of the theory of evolution. Prof. C. V. Riley insisted that most of the circumstances cited by Prof. Meehan found their parallels in what were generally known to zoologists as well as botanists as "sports" or even "monstrosities," and that Mr. Darwin himself had instanced some of the most interesting cases.

Prof. Asa Gray remarked that he only wished to state in respect to variations occurring abruptly as they did, that those certainly were not the kind of things which Mr. Darwin would have regarded as in any way interfering with his view, and he did not think Mr. Meehan had rightly comprehended the statement to which he had called attention. "I think (pursued Prof. Gray) that the statement, whatever it is, taken in connection with the remark which Mr. Riley made, and which Mr. Darwin a good deal insists upon, viz., that he does not look to monstrosities for the introduction of new forms, because the monstrosities may be expected to be taken out of relation to the surrounding circumstances, and that it is only those modifications which are in relation to surroundiug and changing circumstances that can be utilised and turned to account—is not to be found fault with. Mr. Darwin distinctly notes that monstrosities may be hereditary, and so may be supposed even to be continued if they were sufficient in relation to surrounding circumstances. So, if Mr. Darwin readily takes into his view changes like that which everyone calls monstrosities, he may readily be expected not to regard it as any infringement upon the maxim that varieties should come into existence quite abruptly with considerable differences. I think it is true that varieties are apt to arise in