ment of biology; economic entomology, of agriculture. They have all the difference between them that there is between a pure science and an economic science. Can we as a society include them both? I think we should not. On the other hand, the economic entomologists are nearly all at the same time scientific entomologists. These we can and do welcome.

AFRICAN AND AMERICAN.

AT a meeting of the Canadian Institute, Toronto, Jan. 24, Mr. D. R. Keys, M.A., read, on behalf of Mr. A. F. Chamberlain, M.A., fellow in Clark University, Worcester, Mass., a valuable and interesting paper entitled "African and American: the Contact of the Negro and the Indian." He said that the history of the negro on the continent of America has been studied from various points of view, but in every case with regard to his contact with the white race. It must therefore be a new as well as an interesting inquiry, when we endeavor to find out what has been the effect of the contact of the foreign African with the native American stocks. Such an investigation must extend its lines of research into questions of physiology, psychology, philology, sociology, and mythology.

The writer took up the history of the African negro in America in connection with the various Indian tribes with whom he has come into contact. He referred to the baseless theories of pre-Columbian negro races in America, citing several of these in illustration. He then took up the question ethnographically, beginning with Canada. The chief contact between African and American in Canada appears to have taken place on one of the Iroquois reservations near Brantford. A few instances have been noticed elsewhere in the various provinces, but they do not appear to have been very numerous. In New England, especially in Massachusetts, considerable miscegenation appears to have taken place, and in some instances it would appear that the Indians were bettered by the admixture of negro blood which they received. The law which held that children of Indian women were born free appears to have favored the taking of Indian wives by negroes.

On Long Island the Montauk and Shinnacook Indians have a large infusion of African blood, dating from the times of slavery in the Northern States. The discovery made by Dr. Brinton, that certain words (numerals) stated by the missionary Pyrlaeus to be Nanticoke Indian were really African (probably obtained from some runaway slave or half-breed), was referred to. In Virginia some little contact of the two races has occurred, and some of the free negroes on the eastern shore of the Chesapeake peninsula show evident traces of Indian blood. The State of Florida was for a long time the home of the Seminoles, who, like the Cherokees, held negroes in slavery. One of their chiefs was said, in 1835, to have had no fewer than one hundred negroes. Here considerable miscegenation has taken place, although the authorities on the subject seem to differ considerably on questions of fact. In the Indian Territory, to which Cherokees, Seminoles, and other Indian tribes of the Atlantic region have been removed, further contact has occurred, and the study of the relations of the Indian and negro in the Indian Territory, when viewed from a sociological standpoint, are of great interest to the student of history and ethnography. The negro is regarded in a different light by different tribes of American aborigines. After mentioning a few isolated instances of contact in other parts of the United States, the writer proceeded to discuss the relations of African and Indian mythology, coming to about the same conclusion as Professor T. Crane, that the Indian has probably borrowed more from the negro than has the negro from the Indian. The paper concluded with calling the attention of the members of the institute to the necessity of obtaining with all possible speed information regarding (1) the results of the intermarriage of Indian and negro, the physiology of the offspring of such unions; (2) the social status of the negro among the various Indian tribes, the Indian as a slaveholder; (3) the influence of Indian upon negro and of negro upon Indian mythology.

DEPOPULATION OF FRANCE.[1]

IT is somewhat startling to find that the depopulation of France is becoming a common subject of discussion among the *savants* of that country. The phrase is perhaps somewhat stronger than the circumstances of the case warrant, the fact being that the population of France is simply stationary. Still it is a striking and significant circumstance, that, while the population of all the other great European nations is steadily and rapidly advancing, that of France remains at a standstill. On economic grounds, this arrest of increase in number might seem not altogether an unmixed evil, inasmuch as it should tend to diminish over-competition, and to ease the already excessive struggle for existence among the lower classes; but an impression widely prevails, that, given a fairly normal and healthy social condition, a growth of population is a natural result, and that a stationary or declining population is an index of some grave disorder of the body politic. We cannot adequately discuss this large and difficult question, but our French neighbors evidently think that something is amiss, and are looking around for the cause and for its remedy. Probably the causes are numerous and complex. Social habits may account for a good deal. The French custom of subdividing land and of providing a dowry for girls offers an obvious motive for keeping down the number of children. Where, as in the west of Ireland, the peasantry have a cheap food-supply, and are constitutionally averse to thrift, large families are the rule; but in France thrift is a virtue carried almost to excess, and the obligation of the parents to provide for each new accession to the family is clearly recognized. Moral causes have been supposed to play a large part in the arrest of the population of France, and we are far from underestimating their importance; but this is a difficult and delicate problem, on which it would be rash to dogmatize without the most ample evidence.

While some of the causes of the phenomenon under discussion may be obscure and remote, others lie under our eyes, and cannot be too carefully scrutinized or too frankly acknowledged. In a recent address before the Académie de Médecine, Dr. Brouardel drew attention to the abnormal mortality from small-pox and typhoid-fever which prevails in France. He points out that while Germany loses only 110 persons per annum from small-pox, France actually loses 14,000. Dr. Brouardel attributes this astounding difference to the rigid way in which vaccination is enforced in Germany, and to the carelessness of his own countrymen in this matter. Statistics show that in 1865, when vaccination was not obligatory in Prussia, the mortality was 27 per 100,000 inhabitants. After vaccination was enforced, the mortality fell in 1874 to 3.60 per 100,000, and in 1886 to 0.049. At the present time the mortality from this cause in France is 43 per 100,000. We make a present of these figures of Dr. Brouardel to the Royal Commission on Vaccination.

As regards typhoid-fever, the deaths due to this disease in France amount to 23,000 per annum. Dr. Brouardel gives a great variety of statistics to show that the liability to typhoid is in direct proportion to the imperfections in the water-supply, and that, in proportion as a sufficient supply of pure water is provided, typhoid abates. Thus, at Vienne the typhoid mortality was 200 per 100,000 while the inhabitants drank surface, hence often polluted, water; but this mortality fell to 10 per 100,000 on a thoroughly good supply being obtained. At Angoulême the introduction of a new supply of pure water reduced the number of cases of typhoid in the proportion of 0.063 to 18. At Amiens, among the military population, the typhoid mortality fell from 111 per 10,000 to 7 when a pure supply of water was secured by artesian wells. At Rennes the inhabitants formerly drank from contaminated wells, with the result that typhoid-fever was always endemic. The introduction of pure water reduced the deaths from typhoid among the military population from 43 per 10,000 to 2. Investigations carried out at Besançon, Tours, Carcassonne, Paris, and Bordeaux entirely corroborate the above striking figures. Typhoid-fever is responsible for the death of 1 soldier in 335 in France, or 298 per 100,000, and this in time of peace. In war its ravages are even far greater. Thus the expeditionary

[1] From the London Lancet, Dec. 20, 1890.

corps to Tunis in 1881, consisting of 20,000 men, had 4,500 cases of typhoid, with 884 deaths.

Dr. Brouardel concludes by affirming that if vaccination and re-vaccination were rendered obligatory in France, and if the towns were everywhere supplied with pure water, the country would save from 25,000 to 30,000 lives annually, and these, for the most part, of young persons of marriageable age. He therefore proposes to the academy to adopt the following conclusions: "that the sanitary law in preparation ought to render vaccination obligatory; it ought to furnish sufficient authority to the municipalities, or in their default the prefect or the government, to secure the public health against the dangers which result from using polluted water."

In the discussion which followed Dr. Brouardel's communication many important points were elicited. One speaker drew attention to the evils which arose from cheap lodging-houses. Another insisted upon the superiority of supplying pure water to any methods of filtration. At Angoulême filtration was tried with some advantage, but the provision of a pure supply proved much more successful.

We may learn something from the anxieties of our neighbors. If the outcry against compulsory vaccination now prevailing in some quarters in this country should unhappily effect any slackening in our vigilance in this matter, we shall surely pay the penalty in a heavier mortality from one of the most loathsome of diseases. The example of Germany in this matter is admirable, and cannot be too widely known or too carefully followed. The provision of an absolutely pure supply of water to our large cities is a much more difficult problem than the thorough enforcement of vaccination, but it is at least the ideal towards which our efforts must be directed. It is an immense gain to know positively both the source of danger and the means of averting it, and we must never rest content so long as an acknowledged source of disease, misery, and national weakness is permitted to exist in our midst.

MEAT-PRESERVATION.

DR. HANS BEU points out that nearly all the newer methods of preparing preserved meats have had to give way before the older methods of boiling, drying, salting, and smoking, which, along with freezing, preserve the taste and digestibility of meats better than any of the chemical methods that have more recently been recommended. As stated in the *British Medical Journal*, all these old methods hinder decomposition, and keep meats eatable for a longer or shorter period. Cold acts by preventing putrefactive changes in meat, 2° to 4° C., with good ventilation, preventing the development of most organisms. Boiling, with subsequent exclusion of air, is, of course, good, but can only be carried out in large establishments and under specially favorable conditions. Drying gets rid of the water, without which micro-organisms cannot develop; but, although there is no loss of albuminoid or salts when this method is used, the taste is somewhat impaired. Salt also acts by removing water, but it also removes the extractives, and interferes with the delicate flavor of both meat and fish. Smoke acts partly by drying, the heat at which it is generated rendering this necessary, but partly, also, by the action of the small quantities of the antifermentative constituents, such as creosote, carbolic acid, and even volatile oils, which appear to have a direct action on the vitality of putrefactive organisms.

The author agrees with Förster, that salt has little or no effect upon most pathogenic organisms, but it undoubtedly interferes with the development of the cholera bacillus and of anthrax bacillus that contains no spores, and probably, also, of some of the non-pathogenic but putrefactive forms.

As the result of his experiments on a very large number of food-materials, such as ham, bacon, pork, various kinds of sausages, and fish, Beu comes to the conclusion that most meats are salted not only to preserve the taste, but also to withdraw a large proportion of the water from flesh; that smoking also withdraws a considerable quantity of water, that it hides the salty taste, and that, being able to penetrate dried flesh, it is better able to exert its antiputrefactive action than on fresh meat. Salted lean flesh, exposed to the action of smoke at from 22° to 25° C. for forty-eight hours, no longer contained liquefying organisms, which had been present in considerable numbers before the smoking operation was commenced, but non-liquefying organisms disappeared only on the ninth day of smoking. Salt bacon salted for ten days, and then exposed to the action of smoke for forty-eight hours, also showed no liquefying organisms with a fragment from near the centre taken with the most strict precautions, and broken up in liquid gelatine, which was afterwards allowed to solidify. All non-liquefying organisms had disappeared on the seventh day of smoking. Bacon salted for five weeks contained no organisms after seven days' smoking. Fresh unsalted meat contained both kinds after six days of smoking, and sausage also contained both at the end of twelve days; this being exactly in accordance with what would be expected from the large amount of water that it contained, from the nature of the meat used, and from the many manipulative processes through which it has to go before the smoking is commenced. Fish may be preserved for a short time by smoking only, but it could not be kept permanently. Hams and larger sausages require a longer period of smoking than do similar smaller articles of diet.

THE MAHOGANY TRADE OF HONDURAS.[1]

THE Republic of Honduras, as well as the territory known as British Honduras, have long been celebrated for their forests of mahogany and other fine-grained woods. Belize, the capital of the British possessions in Central America, now a city of considerable commercial importance, owes, says the United States consul at Ruatan, its origin and wealth to the mahogany-cutters. During the first half of the present century, princely fortunes were quickly accumulated in the business; but, since iron and steel have taken the place of wood in the construction of vessels, the mahogany trade has decreased to a notable extent, although it is still large and profitable. The mahogany cuttings of British Honduras require at present more capital to carry them on than formerly. The expense and difficulty of getting out the wood has greatly increased, as but comparatively few trees can now be found near to the banks of rivers and streams of sufficient depth of water to float the logs to the coast. In Spanish Honduras, and especially within the limits of the consular district of Ruatan, there are still forests abounding in mahogany and other precious woods, where foreign industry and capital might be safely and profitably employed.

The following is the system employed in manipulating the mahogany and in felling the trees, and in hewing, hauling, rafting, and embarking the logs in Honduras. Having selected and secured a suitable locality, and arranged with one of the exporting-houses of Belize to advance the means in provisions and money to carry on the works, the mahogany-cutter hires his gang of laborers for the season. Nearly all labor contracts are made during the Christmas holidays, as the gangs from the mahogany-works all congregate in Belize at that period. The men are hired for a year, at wages varying from twelve to twenty dollars a month. They generally receive six months' wages in advance, one-half of which is paid in goods from the house which furnishes the capital. The cash received by the laborers is mostly wasted in dissipation before they leave the city. Early in January the works are commenced. Camps, or "banks" as they are called, are organized at convenient places on the margin of some river in the district to be worked. Temporary houses, thatched with palm-leaves, are erected for the laborers, and a substantial building for the store aad dwelling of the overseer. The workmen are divided into gangs, and a captain appointed over each gang, whose principal duty is to give each man his daily task, and see that the same is properly done.

All work in mahogany-cutting is done by tasks. The best laborers are out at daybreak, and generally finish their task before eleven o'clock. The rest of the day can be spent in fishing, hunting, collecting India-rubber and sarsaparilla, or in working up mahogany into dories, paddles, bowls, etc., for all of which a ready market is found. The mahogany-tree hunter is the best paid and the most important laborer in the service. Upon

[1] From the Journal of the Society of Arts, London.