

Vapour Tension.
 Vector.*
 Veering.
 Velocity.
 Vernier.*
 Vertical.*
 Viscosity.
 Visibility.*
 Vortex.

Water-Atmosphere.
 Waterspout.

Water-Vapour.
 Waves.*
 Weather. (I)
 Weather maxim.*
 Wedge.
 Weight.
 Wet Bulb.
 Whirlwind.
 Wind.*
 Winter.

Zenith.
 Zodiac.

METEOROLOGICAL OFFICE.

[Confidential.]

METEOROLOGICAL GLOSSARY

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 for the use of

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.

For units or systems of units.

F.P.S. is equivalent to foot-pound-second system of units.

C.G.S. " " centimetre-gramme-second system of units.

B.T.U. " " British Thermal units.

The following are also used :—

For the expression of	Abbreviation.	Meaning.
Angle ...	° ' "	Degrees, minutes, seconds of arc.
Density ...	g/m ³ g/cc lb/cu. ft.	Grammes per cubic metre. Grammes per cubic centimetre. Pounds per cubic foot.
Length ...	mm cm m k	Millimetre. Centimetre. Metre. Kilometre.
Mass ...	g kg	Gramme. Kilogramme.
Pressure ...	mb cb	Millibar. Centibar.
Temperature	A C F	Absolute scale of temperature. Centigrade scale of temperature. Fahrenheit scale of temperature.
Velocity ...	m/s mi/hr	Metres per second. Miles per hour.
Volume ...	cc m ³	Cubic centimetre. Cubic metre.

METEOROLOGICAL GLOSSARY.

CONTAINING INFORMATION IN EXPLANATION OF
TECHNICAL METEOROLOGICAL TERMS.

Details as to the use of meteorological instruments are given in the *Observer's Handbook* and as to the numerical computations in the *Computer's Handbook* to both which reference is made in the glossary when required.

In accordance with the practice of the Oxford Dictionary the initial word of each article is in black type and words in the body of the text are printed in small capitals when they are the subjects of articles in another part of the glossary.

METEOROLOGICAL GLOSSARY.

Absolute Extremes.—The word extreme is often used with reference to temperature to denote the highest and lowest temperatures recorded at an observing station in the course of time. As the observations are generally summarised for a year, extreme temperatures come to mean the highest and lowest temperatures of a year. When the survey is taken over a longer period, 10 years, 20 years, 35 years or 200 years, according to the duration of the observations the highest and lowest temperatures observed during the whole period are called the absolute extremes. The journalistic expression would be "the record," high or low as the case may be.

The absolute extremes for the British Isles are, highest 310.8° A., (100° F.); lowest 245.8° A., (-17° F.). Those for Belgium, highest 311.2° A., (100.8° F.); lowest 243.2° A., (-21.6° F.). The Surface of the Globe, highest 330° A., (134.6° F.); lowest 203.2° A., (-93.6° F.).

Absolute Temperature.—The temperature of the centigrade thermometer increased by 273, more properly called the temperature on the absolute or thermodynamic scale. The absolute scale is formulated by reasoning about the production of mechanical work at the expense of heat which is the special province of the science of thermodynamics, see ENTROPY, but for practical purposes the scale may be taken as identical with that based on the change of volume and pressure of one of the permanent gases with heat. For the highest degree of refinement the hydrogen scale is used in comparison with the absolute scale. But for the purposes of meteorological

reckoning the differences of behaviour of the permanent gases, Hydrogen, Oxygen, Nitrogen are unimportant. In physical calculations for meteorological purposes the absolute temperature is the natural scale, the densities of air at any two temperatures on the absolute scale are inversely proportional to the temperatures. Thus the common formula for a gas,

$$\frac{p}{\rho (273 + t)} = \frac{p_0}{\rho_0 (273 + t_0)}$$

where p is the pressure, ρ the density and t the temperature Centigrade of the gas at one time, p_0 , ρ_0 , t_0 the corresponding values at another, becomes

$$\frac{p}{\rho T} = \frac{p_0}{\rho_0 T_0},$$

when T and T_0 are the temperatures on the absolute scale. Its most important feature for practical meteorology is that from its definition there can be no negative temperatures. The zero of the absolute scale is the temperature at which all that we call heat would have been spent. In the centigrade scale all temperatures below the freezing point of water have to be prefixed by the negative sign $-$. This is very inconvenient especially for recording observations in the upper air, which never gives temperatures above the freezing point in our latitudes at 4 kilometres (13,000 feet), and often gives temperatures below the freezing point nearer the surface.

The absolute temperature comes into meteorology in other ways; for example, the rate at which heat goes out into space from the earth depends upon the fourth power of the absolute temperature of the radiant substance according to Stefan's Law.

Some common temperatures on the absolute scale and their equivalents in Centigrade and Fahrenheit are :—

—	° A.	° C.	° F.
The freezing point of mercury	234·2	−38·8	−37·8
The freezing point of water	273	0	32
The mean temperature of London.	282·7	9·7	49·5
“Temperate” as shown on an ordinary thermometer.	285·8	12·8	55
The best temperature for a living room.	290	17	62·6
A hot summer day	300	27	80·6
The temperature of the human body.	310	37	98·6

Adiabatic.—The word which is applied in the science of thermodynamics to the corresponding changes which may take place in the pressure and density of a substance when no heat can be communicated to it or withdrawn from it.

In ordinary life we are accustomed to consider that when the temperature of a body rises it is because it takes in *heat* from a fire, from the sun or from some other source, but in the science of thermodynamics it is found to be best to consider the changes which occur when a substance is compressed or expanded without any possibility of heat getting to it or away from it. In the atmosphere such a state of things is practically realised in the interior of a mass of air which is rising to a position of lower pressure or sinking to one of higher pressure. There is, in consequence, a change of temperature which is called

mechanical or dynamical and which must be regarded as one of the most vital of meteorological phenomena because it accounts largely for the formation and disappearance of cloud and probably for the whole of our rainfall.

Tyndall illustrated the change of temperature due to sudden compression by pushing in the piston of a closed glass syringe and thus igniting a piece of tinder in the syringe. The heating of a bicycle pump is a common experience due to the same cause.* On the other hand the refrigeration of air is often obtained simply by expansion, particularly in the free atmosphere.

To plan out the changes of temperature of a substance under compression and rarefaction alone, we have to suppose the substance enclosed in a case impermeable to heat—the word *adiabatic* has been coined to denote impermeable to heat in that sense. The changes of temperature thereby produced are very great, for example :

For adiabatic change of pressure decreasing from 1000 mb. by			The fall of temperature from 290° A. 62·6° F. is	
mb.	in.		° C.	° F.
10 or	0·30		0·9 or	1·6
100 „	2·95		8·7 „	15·7
200 „	5·91		18·2 „	32·8
300 „	8·86		28·4 „	51·1
400 „	11·81		39·9 „	71·8
500 „	14·77		52·8 „	95·0
600 „	17·72		67·6 „	121·7
700 „	20·67		85·5 „	153·9
800 „	23·62		108·1 „	194·6
900 „	26·58		141·3 „	254·3

* Dangerous heating may result on firing a gun from the sudden compression of gas within the bursting charge of the shell if there are cavities in the explosive therein.

Aërology.—The study of the free air, a word that has come into use recently to indicate that part of meteorology which is concerned with the study of the upper air.

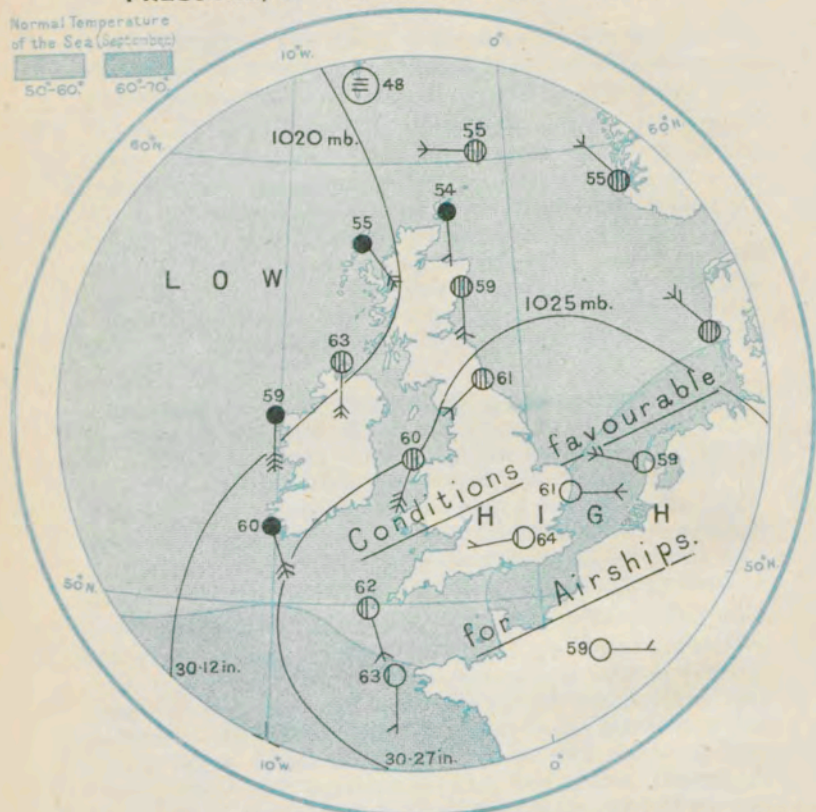
Air.—The mixture of gases which forms the atmosphere. An account of its composition is given in the introduction. Air always carries some dust and often, in the upper regions, collections of water globules which are called clouds; in meteorology the dust is regarded as an impurity, and the clouds as an addition to the air, not part of it. The dust, though an impurity, is important as it makes the formation of cloud and rain possible whenever the temperature of a mass of air gets below the DEW-POINT.

Air-meter.—The name given to an apparatus designed to measure the flow of air. It consists of a light wheel with inclined vanes carried by the spokes, and a set of counting dials to show the number of revolutions of the wheel. Its graduations can be tested on a whirling table. As generally sold it is the most portable form of ANEMOMETER, its box not being more than four inches each way. But it cannot be used with success by a careless observer.

Airship-weather.—*Favourable weather.*—The most favourable conditions for airships are calms or light airs, with good seeing from above, extending over the whole area to be traversed and persistent for the whole period, say 24 hours. Detached low clouds may be an advantage, but precipitation whether in the form of rain, snow or hail, would spoil the occasion. The favourable conditions thus defined are characteristic of the central part of an area of high barometric pressure which, in technical language, is called an ANTICYCLONE. Thus, for operating across the North Sea, the primary meteorological conditions will

AIRSHIP WEATHER. FIG. 1.

DISTRIBUTION OF TEMPERATURE, WEATHER, WIND, AND PRESSURE, 6 P.M. 6th SEPTEMBER, 1915.

Normal Temperature
of the Sea (September)

ISOBARS are drawn for intervals of five millibars.

WIND.—Direction is shown by arrows flying with the wind.
Force, on the scale 0-12, is indicated by the number of feathers.
Calm

TEMPERATURE.—Given in degrees Fahrenheit

WEATHER.—Shown by the following symbols:—

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| ○ clear sky. | ⊖ sky $\frac{1}{2}$ clouded. |
| ◐ sky $\frac{1}{2}$ clouded. | ⊗ sky $\frac{3}{4}$ clouded. |
| ⦿ overcast sky. | ● rain falling |
| ⬤ snow. | ▲ hail. |
| ⋆ mist. | ≡ fog. |
| T thunder. | ⚡ thunderstorm. |

be favourable when the barometer readings at Helder, Yarmouth and Grisez are higher than those at surrounding places, because the three places named will then be in the central region of an anticyclone.

During an anticyclone the pressure is, as a rule, above the normal for the place; thus, pressures above 1,020 millibars (30.1 inches) are generally to be found in anticyclones, and this has given rise to the statement that a high barometer in itself indicates favourable conditions for airships and *vice versa*. This is often, but not always, the case. If one plots the pressure on a map the favourable area extends outward from the central region where the highest pressures are found until the pressure begins to fall away rapidly, and then one finds strong winds and, possibly, also rain or snow.

An anticyclone is indicated on a map by drawing lines of equal pressure, ISOBARS, which naturally enclose the area of highest pressure. The lines of an anticyclone, generally speaking, run in roughly parallel curves and are easily recognisable on a map, such as the one reproduced here, Fig. 1. The shape is sometimes that of a regular curve, more or less like a circle or an oval, as in this instance, but often it is quite irregular and straggles over a large region. Anywhere near what may be called the top of it, *i.e.*, the region of highest pressure, there are calms or light airs. Further away the winds begin to range themselves in circulation round the central region—easterly winds on the south side, westerly on the north. Further out, as one gets towards the regions of low pressure, the winds become brisker, and on the margins of an anticyclone they may be very strong, but on the eastern side they are generally steady, not changeable or squally.

It is characteristic of an anticyclone that when it is

once set up and well marked it generally lasts two or three days; sometimes it is persistent for a week or 10 days, occasionally even more. An anticyclone is, in fact, typical of settled weather, and consequently the setting in of a large anticyclone over the area of operations may be regarded as providing an ample period of favourable weather.

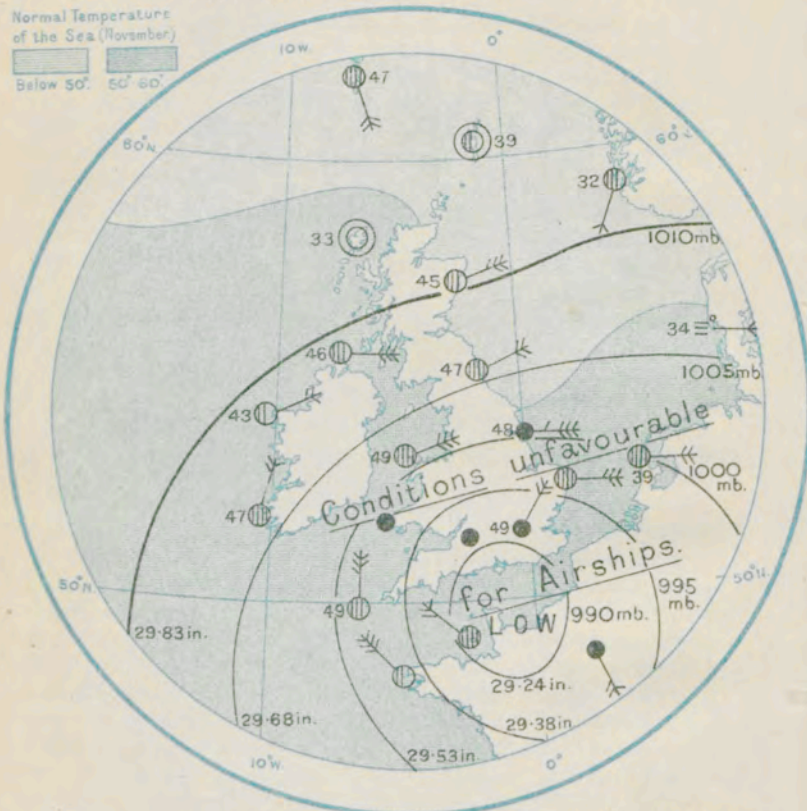
An anticyclone in our neighbourhood generally drifts eastward or north-eastward. It has northerly winds on its eastern or front side, so that the setting in of a northerly wind veering to N.E. generally means that an anticyclone is coming over, and as it will take two or three days at least to pass, the navigator is practically sure of a few days of fair conditions, and while the central region is going over and the wind is slacking down from north-east to calm, and then changing to south or south-west, there is practically certain to be a perfect day, possibly two or three, for operating an airship.

All that an airship navigator has to do, therefore, to hit upon a favourable time for a raid is to choose the occasion when there is an anticyclone with its central area over southern England or the Channel, advancing slowly eastward as most of them do. He may then reckon on two or three days' favourable weather, and if he watches the map may extend his forecast day by day as he notes the behaviour of the anticyclone. An anticyclone is such a well-recognised creature in meteorological maps that observations from one half of it are sufficient to go upon in forming a judgment as to its existence. Its end comes with the southerly wind that marks its western side, so that a southerly wind, even a light one, is a warning which no hostile navigator is likely to disregard.

In winter it is often foggy in anticyclonic weather, particularly when the anticyclone is going away, and

AIRSHIP WEATHER. FIG. 2.

DISTRIBUTION OF TEMPERATURE, WEATHER, WIND, AND PRESSURE, 7 A.M. 1st NOVEMBER, 1915.

Normal Temperature
of the Sea (November)
Below 50° 50° 60°

ISOBARS are drawn for intervals of five millibars.

WIND.—Direction is shown by arrows flying with the wind.

Force, on the scale 0-12, is indicated by the number of feathers.

Calm

TEMPERATURE.—Given in degrees Fahrenheit.

WEATHER.—Shown by the following symbols:—

- clear sky.
- ◐ sky 1/4 clouded.
- ◑ sky 3/4 clouded.
- ⦿ overcast sky.
- ☉ rain falling
- ☎ snow.
- ☎ hail.
- ☎ mist.
- ☎ fog.
- ☎ thunder.
- ☎ thunderstorm.

sometimes it is cloudy and gloomy, but there is never heavy rain in the central region and seldom any rain at all.

Unfavourable weather.—The most unfavourable weather for hostile operations with airships is cyclonic weather represented on the map by a region of relatively low barometer round which strong winds circulate. (See figure 2.) It is the opposite of anticyclonic weather. The cyclonic depression passes rapidly across the map and the weather goes through a well-known cycle of phases in the course of twelve to twenty-four hours. A well-developed cyclonic depression makes successful air raiding impossible partly because of the strength of the wind which may reach 30, 60 or 70 miles an hour in the upper regions, and still more because of its variability (the wind is gusty and squally and is also liable to regular changes), which may give the ship as much lee-way as traverse. This, in darkness, means losing the course and probably losing the bearings. Besides, there is often heavy rain or snow with cyclonic weather.

In the South of England cyclonic weather generally begins with a southerly or south-westerly wind, and as there is frequently a succession of depressions passing along the same track there are successive fallings and risings of the barometer and successive phases of southerly wind veering to N.W. with the rising barometer and backing again to S.W. with a falling barometer.

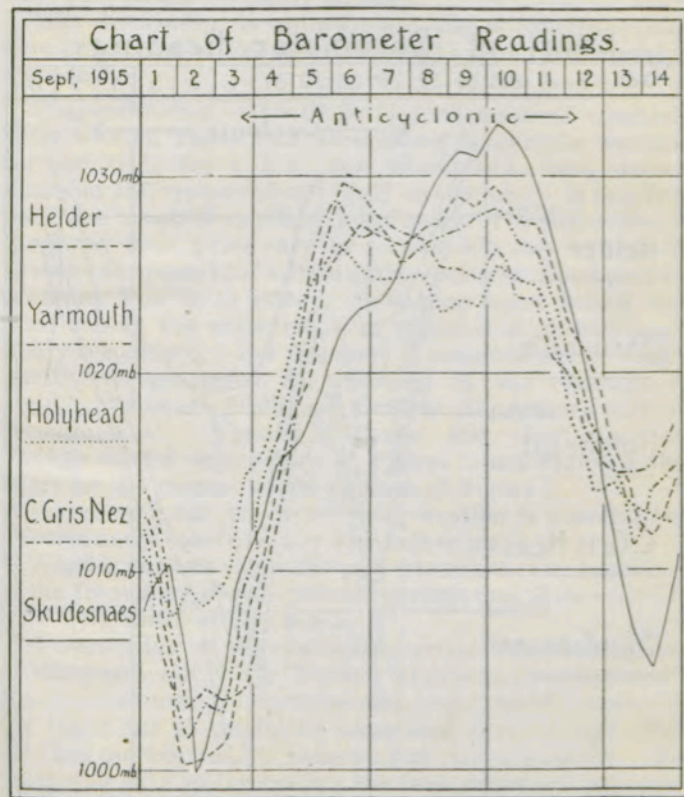
Between two successive depressions there is often a day of perfect weather, light, transparent airs and clear skies. An airship commander who started at the right time might use this brilliant interval to make a raid, but without extremely expert forecasting which would require ample telegraphic information it is too dangerous. He is more likely to wait until the setting in of a northerly or north-easterly wind marks the beginning of an anticyclone.

Risky weather. — Between these two extremes of easily identifiable weather, favourable or unfavourable, there are a number of times which may be called risky, periods of slow transition between anticyclonic and cyclonic, or periods of vague type without marked features.

These require an expert knowledge of meteorology if they are to be dealt with successfully. So far as we know, hostile aircraft have used special meteorological observations (with pilot balloons) to identify a case in which a strong north-easterly wind, too strong for easy navigation, fell off and became much lighter in the upper air. That is characteristic of easterly and north-easterly winds, but there are exceptions. To make use of the proper occasion in this particular is certainly clever, but it is risky; because we can only take advantage of such cases when we happen to find them and we do not know any law of their distribution. In this connexion it may be remarked that airships are not likely to take the air at night in a strong wind. Not knowing precisely the distribution of air currents, it is impossible to lay a course for an objective across wind, so the objective must be approached ultimately up wind. That means the slowest speed at the most critical point.

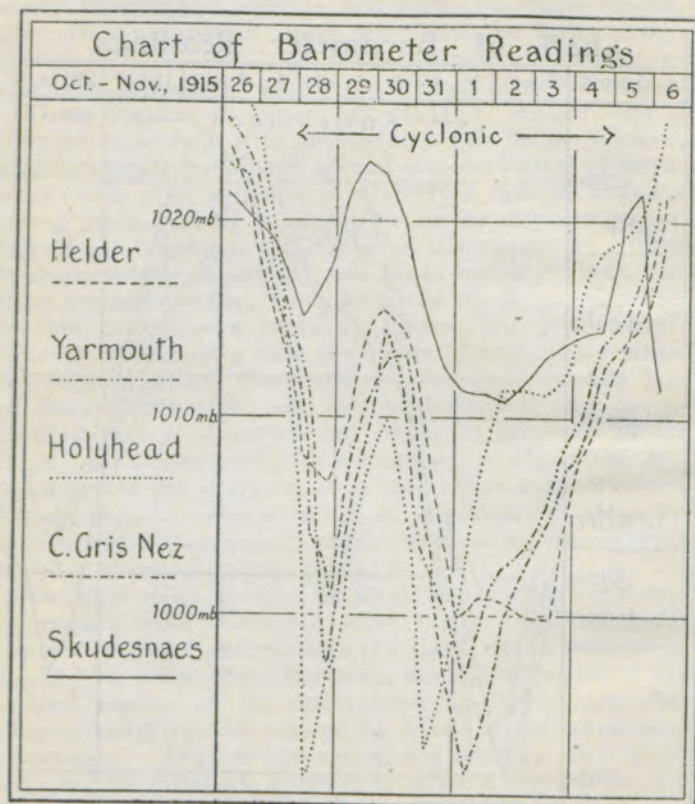
The most risky weather for an airship is when a cyclonic depression with southerly wind in its front advances rapidly eastward and replaces the light airs in front of it. Light airs, it has been remarked, are characteristic of the central region of an anticyclone, but they are also characteristic of the region in front of an advancing depression. Depressions sometimes advance at a rapid rate, say 25 miles an hour—600 miles a day—always in that case from the west or south-west. In winter the risk which an airship runs depends a good deal upon the position of the centre of the depression. On the northern

FIGURE 3.



Variations of the Barometric pressure at five stations during the passage of an anticyclone in September, 1915.

FIGURE 4.



Variations of Barometric pressure during the passage of two consecutive cyclonic depressions in October-November, 1915.

side of it or in its rear there is often snow, in the latter case with strong northerly winds.

This description is quite typical, and is exactly applicable to the case of February 17th, 1915, when two airships were lost.

Prognostication.—It will be understood from what has been written above that forecasting favourable weather for air raids for a few days ahead is an easy matter when an anticyclone shows itself on the map. It requires only the most elementary knowledge of weather-study. Similarly it is quite easy to recognise a day or two in advance the periods of unfavourable weather. The best way of doing this is to have a daily map upon which the positions of the anticyclone or cyclonic depressions are easily recognised. But if a chart of consecutive barometer readings is preferred, the charting of the readings at Helder, Yarmouth, Holyhead, Grisnez, Skudesnaes may be recommended. Figure 3 shows the chart for the passage of the anticyclone of Figure 1, and Figure 4 the chart for the passage of the cyclone of Figure 2.

Forecasting for the more risky weather is a matter for experts and a careful study of weather maps.

What is curious about the past late summer and autumn is the frequency of anticyclonic periods and their coincidence with times of new moon.

A succession of depressions is generally characteristic of the weather of North-Western Europe and consequently a competent meteorological establishment would naturally lay itself out to catch the occasional opportunity. But this has not been at all necessary in the past season. No particular skill in forecasting has been required.

Altimeter.—An aneroid barometer graduated to show height instead of pressure. The most that an aneroid

barometer can do is to give a satisfactory measure of the pressure of the air. The pressure is very largely affected by the height and therefore whatever indicates the pressure gives a rough indication also of the height.

The accurate determination of the height of a position requires a knowledge of the temperature of the air at successive steps so that a mean temperature may be obtained for the column between the position and the earth. There are various short ways of making estimates of the temperature of the column, but in any case the temperature at the top and bottom should be noted.*

Alto-cumulus.—A form of composite cloud of middle height (10,000 feet to 25,000 feet). It consists of fleecy groups of cloudlets called by the French "gros-moutons." The separate cloudlets are thick enough to show a darkening of the white, the similar groups of smaller and higher clouds, cirro-cumulus, show no shadow. See CLOUDS.

Alto-stratus.—A sheet of continuous cloud of middle height, of considerable size and moderate thickness, sometimes covering the whole sky. It must be distinguished from cirro-stratus which is higher and thinner, and stratus without any prefix which is the lowest form of cloud-sheet.

Anemobiagraph. See ANEMOGRAPH.

Anemogram.—The record of an anemograph.

Anemograph.—An instrument for recording by its own mechanism the velocity or force, and the direction of the wind. The best known forms of anemograph are the Robinson Cup anemograph similar to that designed

* The pressure at the foot of the column must also be known and the lack of this knowledge is a source of error with a machine travelling over great distances. A special note on the subject can be obtained from the Meteorological Office.

by Beckley for Kew Observatory, the Pressure Tube anemograph with direction recorder similar to that designed by Dines for Benson Observatory (which might be called the Harpagraph or gust recorder), the anemobiagraph designed by Halliwell for Negretti and Zambra, the Dines Pressure Tube recorder with direction recorder designed by Rooker for R. W. Munro.

The Royal Observatory at Greenwich and the Observatory of the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board near Liverpool have a pressure plate anemograph by Osler.

Anemometer.—An instrument for measuring the velocity or force of the wind. Anemometers register in various ways; by counting the number of revolutions of cups in a measured time, by the difference of water level in a tube, and in other ways. Information as to the construction and use of various anemometers is given in the *Observer's Handbook*.

Anemoscope.—An instrument for indicating the existence of wind and showing its direction. The one best known to the Meteorological Office is that designed by Mr. J. Baxendell which is provided with recording mechanism. It is an observatory-instrument, not a portable one.

Aneroid Barometer.—An instrument for determining the pressure of the atmosphere. It consists of a shallow circular metal box with an airtight cover and, as a rule, is nearly exhausted of air. Both faces of the box are corrugated with circular corrugations so that the distance between the centres of the opposite faces may vary under the varying pressure of the atmosphere. A suitable train of levers moves a small hand like the hand of a watch, and by this hand the distance between the

faces and hence the atmospheric pressure is indicated on a dial.

An aneroid is light, portable and convenient, and a good aneroid will give reliable indications of the pressure, but the zero of most instruments is liable to change and, therefore, an aneroid requires to be compared from time to time with a mercury barometer.

Aneroidograph.—A self-recording aneroid. An aneroid-barometer provided with mechanism for recording the variations of pressure of the atmosphere. See BAROGRAPH.

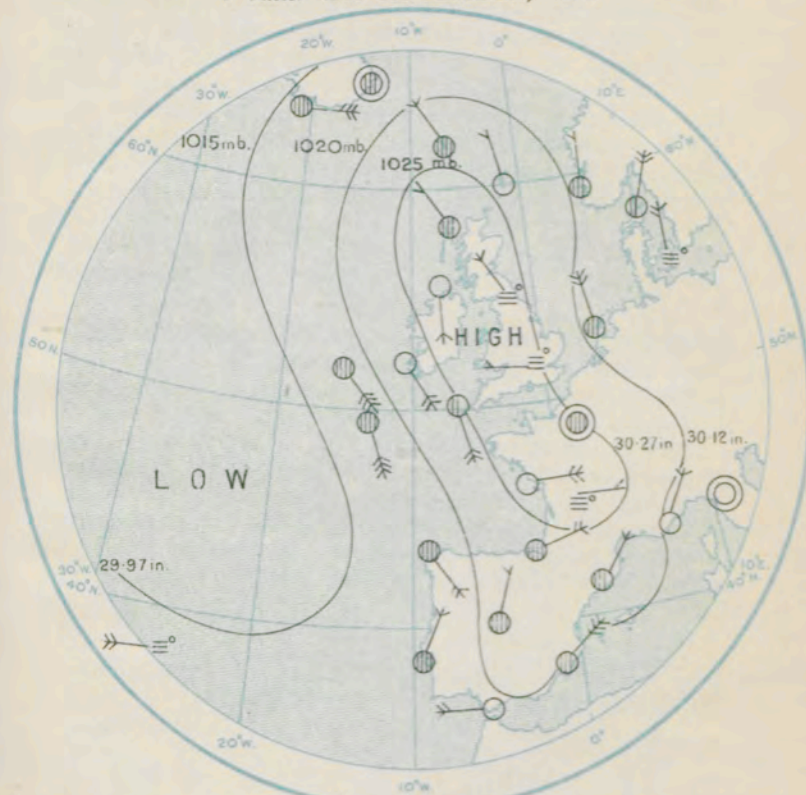
Anticyclone.—An anticyclone is a region in which the barometric pressure is high relatively to its surroundings and is generally shown on the weather charts by a series of closed isobars, the region of highest pressure being the central region of the anticyclone. In a well-marked anticyclone the isobars are roughly circular or oval curves, the wind blows spirally outwards in accordance with Buys Ballot's Law, and the pressure in the central parts is very seldom under 1,015 millibars or 30.00 inches. See Plate XI.

Certain parts of the earth, notably large parts of the latitude belts of about 30° N. and 30° S., also continental areas in the winter in temperate latitudes are anticyclonic regions. In the Siberian anticyclone of winter the pressure is often as high as 1,050 millibars or 31.00 inches, and in the Azores-anticyclone in summer the pressure is usually about 1,025 millibars or 30.25 inches, and in winter about 1,020 millibars or 30.10 inches.

Anticyclones are characterised by calms and light winds and an absence of rain; the desert regions of the earth are anticyclonic regions. But in the temperate zones, short of gales and strong winds, almost any

ANTICYCLONE.

DISTRIBUTION OF WEATHER, WIND, AND PRESSURE,
7 A.M. 17th NOVEMBER, 1915.



ISOBARS are drawn for intervals of five millibars.

WIND.—Direction is shown by arrows flying with the wind.

Force, on the scale 0-12, is indicated by the number of feathers.

Calm

WEATHER.—Shown by the following symbols:—

	clear sky.		sky $\frac{1}{4}$ clouded.
	sky $\frac{1}{2}$ clouded.		sky $\frac{3}{4}$ clouded.
	overcast sky.		rain falling.
	snow.		hail.
	mist.		thunder.
	thunderstorm.		

weather may occasionally occur in an anticyclone. In England they are generally accompanied in winter by dull, cheerless weather and fogs, and in summer by bright, hot weather.

The causes of anticyclones are still unknown. We have learnt in recent years that the temperature of the air in them between the heights of 2 and 10 kilometres (1-6 miles) is higher, but at still greater heights lower than its environment.

For the anticyclone in relation to weather refer to the *Introduction*, and see also AIRSHIP-WEATHER and ISOBARS.

Aqueous Vapour.—Aqueous vapour is always present in the atmosphere and, although it never represents more than a small fraction of the whole, it has physical properties that give it great importance in meteorology. In a closed space wherever there is a free surface of ice or water, evaporation takes place until the water-vapour exerts a definite pressure of saturation, depending only upon the temperature, and not upon the pressure of the surrounding air. This pressure of saturation is very much greater at high than at low temperatures as is shown in the following table:—

Temperature.		Pressure of Saturation in millibars.	Temperature.		Pressure of Saturation in millibars.
°F	°A		°F	°A	
10	260·8	2·4	60	288·6	17·6
20	266·3	3·7	70	294·1	24·7
30	271·9	5·8	80	299·7	34·6
40	277·5	8·5	90	305·2	47·8
50	283·0	12·2	100	310·8	65·0

The mass of water contained in saturated air at different temperatures is given in the following table :—

Temperature.		Mass in grammes of water vapour per cubic metre of saturated air.	Temperature.		Mass in grammes of water vapour per cubic metre of saturated air.
°F.	°A.		°F.	°A.	
32	273°0	5	70	294°1	18
40	277°5	7	80	299°7	25
50	283°0	9	90	305°2	34
60	288°6	13	100	310°8	45

It is easily seen from these figures that saturated air must at once yield rain or snow if cooled, and even air that does not contain all the aqueous-vapour possible will ultimately deposit moisture if sufficiently cooled.

In the passage from the liquid to the gaseous state great quantities of heat are absorbed,—536 calories for every gramme evaporated at the boiling point and even more if the water is initially cold. Conversely much heat is yielded up when condensation occurs. See p. 159.

Tyndall has shown that the heat radiated from a black body at the boiling point of water is readily absorbed by aqueous vapour, which must, therefore, have a corresponding power of radiation. Spectrum analysis shows also that some of the visible radiation of the sun is strongly absorbed.

Atmosphere.—See *Introduction*.

Aurora.—An illumination of the atmosphere frequently observed in high northerly and southerly latitudes, which takes the form of delicately coloured arches, streamers or sheets. It is believed to be due to electrical discharges in the uppermost regions of the atmosphere, and occurs most frequently at times when the sun's surface is in a disturbed

state. The aurora of the northern hemisphere is known as the aurora borealis, that of the southern hemisphere as the aurora australis.

Autumn.—Autumn, in meteorology, comprises the three months of September, October and November, the first three months of the farmer's year. In astronomical text-books it is defined as the period commencing with the autumnal equinox and ending with the winter solstice, *i.e.*, from September 23rd to December 22nd, but such a practice is confusing. Astronomically the winter solstice should not be the commencement of winter but mid-winter, and the summer solstice midsummer. See SEASONS.

Average.—The word originally meant the adjustment between the interested parties of the charges for loss or damage to a ship at sea, but now it has been adopted for other uses. The average of a number of quantities is obtained by adding them together and dividing by the number of them. The average value of any meteorological element for a particular station would be obtained in this way from a long and regular series of observations, but would not have any very exact meaning if the climate were changing. In the annual publication *British Rainfall* average is applied to the mean rainfall of a place or area for a series of years, while for the mean rainfall for a given period of a number of points uniformly distributed over an area the term *general rainfall* is reserved.

soundings of the air over the sea have been obtained. We have not taken part in that side of the inquiry.

Very remarkable facts about the temperature of the free air have been disclosed by soundings with ballons-sondes. Their general characteristics are shown in the diagram on page 72 which exhibits graphs of temperature and height for 44 soundings obtained for the Meteorological Office in 1907-8. The reader should notice that though in every ascent the balloon reached a position (somewhere near ten kilometres) after which the temperature ceased to fall yet the range of temperature at that level for the whole series is larger than the range at the surface.

Additional soundings have enabled us to put forward a table of the average temperature of the free air at different levels in the several months of the year which is given on p. 75.

Particulars as to the variation of the meteorological elements, temperature, wind and humidity derived from observations with ballons-sondes, kites and pilot balloons are given in Geophysical Memoirs, No. 5, by Major E. Gold, D.S.O., published by the Meteorological Office.

*Average Temperature at different levels in the atmosphere up to twelve kilometres for the several months of the year.

TABLE OF RESULTS OBTAINED WITH BALLONS-SONDES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Height in k.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year.
	°A	°A	°A	°A	°A	°A	°A	°A	°A	°A	°A	°A	
12	217	218	219	220	221	222	222	221	221	219	218	217	220
11	17	17	17	19	20	21	22	22	21	20	19	18	19
10	20	20	20	22	24	25	26	26	26	24	23	21	23
9	24	23	24	26	29	31	34	33	33	31	28	25	28
8	30	29	30	32	36	38	41	41	41	38	35	32	35
7	37	36	37	39	42	45	47	48	47	45	41	38	42
6	43	43	44	46	49	52	55	55	54	51	49	45	49
5	50	49	50	52	56	59	61	62	61	58	55	52	55
4	57	56	57	59	62	65	67	68	67	64	61	58	62
3	63	62	63	65	68	71	73	74	73	70	67	64	68
2	67	66	67	70	73	76	78	79	78	75	72	69	73
1	71	71	73	76	79	82	83	83	81	79	75	72	77
Ground	76	76	77	82	85	88	89	89	86	83	80	77	82

* Taken from Geophysical Memoirs, No. 2 (W. H. Dines).

Bar.—The unit of atmospheric pressure, being equal to the pressure of one million dynes (one megadyne) per square centimetre. The BAR is equal to the pressure of 29.5306 inches or 750.076 mm. of mercury at 32°F. and in latitude 45°. The name was introduced into practical meteorology by V. Bjerknes and objection has been raised by McAdie of Harvard College on the ground that the name had been previously appropriated by chemists to the C.G.S. unit of pressure, the dyne per square centimetre. The meteorological bar is thus one million chemical bars and what chemists call a *bar* we should call a *microbar*. One bar is 100 CENTIBARS or 1,000 MILLIBARS.

Barogram.—The continuous record of atmospheric pressure yielded by a self-recording barometer. See p. 166.

Barograph.—A self-recording barometer, an instrument which records automatically the changes of atmospheric pressure. In the mercury or float barograph the movements of the mercury in a barometer are communicated by a float to a pen in contact with a moving sheet of paper carried by a revolving drum which is driven by clockwork.

The portable barographs which are in common use are arranged to record the variations of pressure shown by an aneroid barometer and on that account they are sometimes referred to as aneroidographs. Particulars as to the method of using these instruments are given in the Observer's Handbook.

Barometer.—An instrument for measuring the pressure of the atmosphere. The mercury barometer has been found to be the most satisfactory form for general use. The principle underlying this type of instrument

is quite simple. If a glass tube 3 feet long, closed at one end, is filled with mercury, and the open end is temporarily stopped up and immersed in an open vessel of the same liquid, then if the tube is held in a vertical position and the immersed end is re-opened, the mercury will fall until the level inside the tube stands at a height of about 30 inches above the mercury in the trough. The pressure of the atmosphere on this free mercury surface balances the tendency of the enclosed column to fall, and the height supported in this way represents the atmospheric pressure at the time. In order to compute the pressure the length or height of the column of mercury has to be measured. Different mercury barometers vary as regards the method of reading this height, and in all the temperature of the mercury and the latitude of the place must be taken into account.

In the aneroid barometer the pressure of the atmosphere causes deformations in a spring inside a closed metallic box, which has been exhausted of air, and these are communicated to a pointer moving over a suitably engraved scale.

For the purposes of meteorology the pressure of the atmosphere has to be determined to the ten-thousandth part, which is a much higher degree of accuracy than is required in other meteorological measurements. Special contrivances and precautions are therefore required which are duly set out in the Observer's Handbook.

Beaufort notation.—A table of letters for weather. See *Introduction*, p. 10.

Barometric tendency.—The change in the barometric pressure within the three hours preceding an observation. See *Introduction*, p. 35.

Beaufort Scale.—The scale of wind force devised by Admiral Beaufort in 1805. An explanation has been given in the *Introduction*, p. 15; the following is a more comprehensive table of equivalents. (See *Observer's Handbook*.)

Table of Equivalents in Force and Velocity.

Pressure of Wind on a Plate		Equiva- lent velocity in miles per hour.	Beaufort Number.	Limits of Velocities.			
in lbs. per square ft.	in Milli- bars (10^3 dynes per cm^2).			Statute Miles per Hour.	Nautical Miles per Hour.	Metres per Second.	Feet per Second.
0	0	0	0	Less than 1	Less than 1	Less than 0.3	Less than 2
.01	.01	2	1	1-3	1-3	0.3-1.5	2-5
.08	.04	5	2	4-7	4-6	1.6-3.3	6-11
.28	.13	10	3	8-12	7-10	3.4-5.4	12-18
.67	.32	15	4	13-18	11-16	5.5-8.0	19-27
1.31	.62	21	5	19-24	17-21	8.1-10.7	28-36
2.3	1.1	27	6	25-31	22-27	10.8-13.8	37-46
3.6	1.7	35	7	32-38	28-33	13.9-17.1	47-56
5.4	2.6	42	8	39-46	34-40	17.2-20.7	57-68
7.7	3.7	50	9	47-54	41-47	20.8-24.4	69-80
10.5	5.0	59	10	55-63	48-55	24.5-28.4	81-93
14.0	6.7	68	11	64-75	56-65	28.5-33.5	94-110
Above 17.0	Above 8.1	Above 75	12	Above 75	Above 65	33.6 or above.	Above 110

Blizzard.—A gale of wind with the temperature below freezing, the air being filled with fine dry snow. The snow may not be actually descending from the clouds but be merely raised from the snow-covered ground. The fine powdery snow peculiar to these storms is formed only at very low temperatures so that the phenomenon is practically confined to the polar regions and the large land areas of the temperate zone. During a blizzard the temperature often rises, possibly because the violent wind causes a mixing of the lowest layers of the atmosphere and brings down air that is often warmer than the excessively cold air lying near the ground in the still, clear winter night.

Bora.—A cold wind occurring in the northern Adriatic, very violent, which blows from the high plateaus which lie to the northward. These plateaus may become extremely cold in clear winter weather, and passing cyclonic systems allow the air to flow down to lower levels. The actual violence of the wind in a bora is largely due to the weight of the cold air of the plateau causing it to run down the slope like a torrent or cataract of water. The wind experienced may therefore be independent of Buys Ballot's Law. The adiabatic warming due to the increased pressure below is not sufficient to prevent the resulting wind from being cold. In the Meteorological Office it is proposed to call local winds of this character "katabatic" in order to distinguish them from the winds which show the normal relation to the distribution of atmospheric pressure and are called "geostrophic" winds.

Breeze.—A wind of moderate strength.

Glacial-breeze.—A cold breeze blowing down the course of a GLACIER, and owing its origin to the cooling of the air in contact with the ice. The movement of the air is due to the gravitation of the air made denser by the cold surfaces on a slope, and a glacial breeze may be classed as a typical example of a katabatic wind.

Lake-breeze.—A breeze blowing off the coast of a lake in sunny weather during the middle of the day, part of the convectional circulation induced by the greater heating of the land than of the water.

Land-breeze.—An off-shore wind occurring at the margin of a sea or lake during a clear night, due to the more rapid cooling of the air over the land than over the water. During the day the conditions are reversed and the wind blows from the sea to the land, constituting a SEA-BREEZE. These phenomena are most marked in the tropics, where the wind arising from other causes is usually not strong enough to mask the convectional effect. See also p. 191.

Mountain breeze.—A night breeze blowing down the valleys due to the flowing downward of the air chilled by the cold ground.

These also, as being due to convections in which the colder air takes the leading part, would be classed as katabatic winds, whereas the one next following in which warmed air plays the leading part would be classed as an "anabatic" wind.

Valley breeze.—A day breeze that blows up valleys when the sun warms the ground.

Brontometer, from *bronte*, a thunderstorm, a combination of apparatus for following and noting all the

details of the phenomena of weather during a thunderstorm.

Buys Ballot's Law (see *Introduction*).—The law is that if you stand with your back to the wind the atmospheric pressure in the northern hemisphere decreases towards your left and increases towards your right. In the southern hemisphere the reverse is true. The law is a necessary consequence of the earth's rotation.

C.G.S.—Abbreviation for Centimetre Gramme Second, used to denote the organised system of units for the measurement of physical quantities by units which are based upon the centimetre, the gramme, and the second as fundamental units.

Calm.—Absence of appreciable wind; on the Beaufort Scale 0, *i.e.*, less than 1 mile an hour or one-third of a metre per second.

Celsius, Anders: an astronomer and physicist, the inventor of the Centigrade thermometer, born at Upsala in 1701. The name Centigrade arises from the division of the interval between the freezing point and boiling point of water into one hundred parts. In continental countries the scale is generally named after the inventor Celsius. It is also not infrequently referred to as the centesimal scale.

Centibar.—A hundredth part of a "bar" or C.G.S. "atmosphere." See BAR, also see Table of equivalents at the end of this volume.

Centigrade.—A thermometric scale introduced by ANDERS CELSIUS (*q.v.*), which has zero at the melting point of ice, while 100° represents the boiling point of

water at a pressure of 760 mm. of mercury. A centigrade degree is $\frac{9}{5}$ Fahrenheit degrees. On the centigrade "absolute" scale the freezing point is at 273° , the value of a degree being unaltered.

Centimetre—the hundredth part of a metre. The unit of length on the Centimetre-Gramme-Second system which is universally employed for electrical and magnetic measurements. A metre was originally defined as one ten-millionth part of the earth's quadrant, that is, the length from the equator to the pole. 1 centimetre is equal to .394 inches and 2.54 centimetres to 1 inch to a high degree of accuracy.

Cirro-cumulus.—A group of fleecy cloudlets or small "flocks" of cloud formed at great heights showing no shadows. They are called "moutons" in French. See CLOUD.

Cirro-stratus.—A layer of thin, transparent cloud at a high level. See CLOUD.

Cirrus.—Clouds at great height generally formed into wisps" of thread-like structure. See CLOUD.

Climate.—A general summary of the weather for any particular locality. When the weather has been observed for a sufficiently long time in any locality we are able to make a useful statement as to the weather which *may* be experienced at any particular time of the year in that locality. Technically, the climate of a place is represented by the average values of the different meteorological elements, which should include means for each month as well as means for the whole year. Average extreme values for different periods and ABSOLUTE EXTREMES are also

To face p. 82.



Cirrus clouds, Thread or Feather clouds at a height of from five to six miles, and generally of a white colour. They are composed of ice-crystals.

The picture gives an idea of rather more massive structure than is usual with cirrus clouds, but the sweeps and wisps are very characteristic.

of interest, and the number of rain-days, days of snowfall, frost, hail, thunderstorm, gale, &c., and the frequency of occurrence of winds from different directions. Included also under this heading would be the earliest and latest dates of frost and snow, the average depth of snow lying at different times, and particulars of the temperature of the soil at various depths. In places where the type of weather at a given time of year varies greatly, a long series of observations are needed in order to obtain a fair idea of the different climatic elements. Various kinds of climate are characterised, chiefly with regard to moisture and temperature, as *continental* which is dry with great extremes of temperature, *insular* or *oceanic* which is moist and very equable in temperature, *tropical* in which the seasons depend chiefly upon the time of occurrence of rainfall, *temperate* in which the seasons are chiefly dependent upon the variation of the daily course of the sun in the sky, *arctic* in which the year is made up of two long periods of sun and no sun. Local climates, such as those of the Mediterranean in general and of the Riviera in particular, are dependent upon the geographical conditions of land and water. Every climate is to some extent affected by the geographical nature of the surroundings of the locality.

Climatic Chart.—A map showing the geographical distribution of some element of climate; temperature, rainfall and sunshine are the most frequently charted. Charts of normal values of these elements for the British Isles for the 35 years 1881–1905 are issued by the Meteorological Office. The word also covers any diagram representing the periodic or secular variation of a climatic factor.

Climatology.—The study of CLIMATE (*q.v.*).

Clouds.—Clouds have been classified into certain typical forms, but there are so many intermediate types that it is sometimes difficult to decide to what class any cloud belongs.

Certain types of cloud and the direction from which they are moving indicate certain states of weather; certain types of cloud being usually within certain heights a knowledge of cloud forms enables the observer to make a rough estimate of the height of clouds.

For practical purposes clouds may be divided into cloud sheets and cloud heaps.

CLOUD SHEETS.

Many forms of cloud are obviously in more or less extended sheets, sometimes covering the whole sky, sometimes only covering a small patch. They vary much in thickness, sometimes no blue sky is visible through the sheet, sometimes small patches of blue are visible, sometimes half the sky is blue, at other times the sheet of cloud is represented by a few detached clouds in the blue.

The formation of a sheet of clouds is not well understood. But the following may be on some occasions the method of formation; it is known that the atmosphere is to a certain extent stratified, and that there may be damp and dry layers; if the pressure over any area is diminished the air in the region will be cooled by expansion; if sufficiently cooled the dew point will be reached, and any damp layer will become a cloudy layer.

Cloud sheets are often seen to be broken up into waves; the waves may not be formed in the cloud itself; if waves are set up in the atmosphere they will be propagated upwards and downwards; in a thin cloud layer the air that rises on the wave crest is cooled by expansion, more condensation occurs and the cloud is thicker; the air that descends in the hollow is warmed by compression and some of the cloud is evaporated, leaving a clear or nearly clear space.

Cloud sheets may sometimes be seen forming at several levels at the same time; over a cyclonic depression there are probably sheets of cloud at several levels.

Cloud sheets may be divided up into three classes which differ in appearance and height. The upper layer, the cirrus clouds, are at heights of from 25,000 to 30,000 feet; the middle layer, the alto clouds, are from 10,000 to 25,000 feet; the lower layer clouds are below 10,000 feet.

THE UPPER LAYER.

The clouds of the upper layer, the CIRRUS CLOUDS, are composed of ice particles, not of water drops as all other clouds. They are of a pure white colour with no shadows except when seen when the sun is low down. They are usually streaky and have a brushed out appearance (mares tails); they are frequently spoken of as windy looking clouds, but in spite of this appearance they do not necessarily indicate wind. They are often seen in long streaks stretching across the sky, sometimes in parallel bands; seeming by the effect of perspective to converge on the horizon-V-point. These clouds often move away from the centres of depressions; therefore when coming from

West or South-West they indicate a depression in this direction, which will probably spread in the observer's direction; when seen coming from the North they indicate a depression to the Northward which will probably move away to the North-East and so not influence the weather. To observe the motion of clouds, especially of the high clouds, get a patch of cloud "on" with the point of a branch or some point of a building; if one moves so as to keep the cloud on the point one's direction of motion will be towards the direction from which the cloud is coming. It is often difficult to determine the motion of the high clouds without a careful observation of this kind.

Bands of cloud do not necessarily move in the direction of their length, nor do parallel bands of clouds necessarily move from their V-point.

Halos, mock suns (sun dogs) are seen at times in cirrus clouds but in no other forms; a halo is a ring, sometimes coloured, seen at some distance (22° or more rarely 46°) from the sun or moon.

Besides the wisps and streaks of cloud of common cirrus there are other forms:—

CIRRO-CUMULUS: lines or groups of cloud, sometimes detached globules, sometimes waves; mackerel sky (French: *moutons*); these clouds are pure white with no shadows.

CIRRO-STRATUS: a bank of tangled web sometimes overspreading the whole sky; no shadows; sun pale and "watery."

CIRRO-NEBULA: similar to last but no visible structure; a veil of pale white cloud. Precedes depressions.

THE MIDDLE LAYER, ALTO CLOUDS.

The alto clouds are composed of water droplets, not ice particles, therefore halos are never seen; coronæ may be seen; these are coloured bands quite close round the sun or moon. They are not such a pure white as the cirrus clouds and shadows are visible on them. They may move away from centres of low pressure like the cirrus clouds. They are, on the average, only half the height of the cirrus clouds, being from 10,000 to 25,000 feet high. The following are the most important varieties:—

ALTO-CUMULUS.—Very like cirro-cumulus, but the cloud masses are larger and shadows are visible; sometimes arranged in globular masses (French: *Gros moutons*), sometimes in waves.

ALTO-CUMULUS CASTELLATUS, TURRET CLOUD.—The globular masses of Alto-cumulus are developed upwards into hard-edged clouds like miniature cumulus; sometimes a large number of clouds almost of exactly the same shape are seen. When coming from a southerly or westerly point after fine weather Turret cloud is a sign of approaching thundery conditions.

ALTO-STRATUS.—Very like cirro-stratus, but a thicker and greyer cloud; halos never seen; precedes depressions, and does not usually extend so far from the centre as cirro-cumulus.

THE LOWER LAYER.

The clouds of the lower layer are below 10,000 feet; thicker clouds with not such a fine structure as the higher clouds.

STRATO-CUMULUS.—Masses of cloud with some vertical structure appearing in rolls or waves, sometimes covering the whole sky; sometimes the whole sky is covered with

cloud, but the hollows of the waves are lighter and obviously thinner; sometimes blue sky is seen more or less plainly through the thinner parts. This cloud is common in quiet weather in winter, and sometimes persists for many days together. In summer it is more broken up and tends to turn into cumulus clouds.

STRATUS.—A uniform layer of cloud which resembles a fog but does not rest on the ground. Small masses of stratus, more or less in the shape of a lens (lenticular cloud), are often seen near thunder clouds; they appear dark when seen against the white sides of the thunder clouds.

NIMBUS.—A dark shapeless cloud without structure, from which continuous rain or snow falls; through openings in this cloud, should such occur, layers of cirro-stratus or alto-stratus may almost always be seen.

SCUD.—Small shapeless clouds with ragged edges; sometimes seen without other cloud, but usually associated with nimbus and cumulus.

HEAP CLOUDS.

Clouds with considerable vertical structure, not forming horizontal sheets of cloud. Their formation is due to rising currents of air; as the air rises it is cooled by expansion till it reaches the dew point when cloud begins to form; as soon as condensation takes place heat is liberated and though the air cools as it rises still further it does not cool so rapidly as it would were no heat liberated by the condensing water vapour. The rising current is due to air heated above its surroundings, and the condensation enables the current to rise considerably higher than it would have done had no extra heat been available.

CLOUDS SEEN FROM BELOW : FIGURE 1.



Strato-Cumulus from below.



Cumulo-Nimbus (Thunder-cloud) with "Anvil" extension of false cirrus, 30th October, 1915.

Between pp. 88 and 89.
CLOUDS SEEN FROM ABOVE : FIGURE 2.



Strato-cumulus from an aeroplane (4,000 feet).



Valley filled with fog, 300 feet deep, in early morning after still night.

SIMPLE CUMULUS.—This may consist of small clouds with flat base and rounded top to large cauliflower shaped clouds (Woolpack cloud). These clouds commonly form on a summer day, beginning as small clouds and growing larger by the early afternoon when the rising currents due to the sun's heat are at a maximum; they usually disappear before sunset.

CUMULO-NIMBUS ; SHOWER CLOUD ; THUNDER CLOUD.—Sometimes when cumulus grows to large proportions the upper edge is seen to become soft and brushed out into forms somewhat like cirrus (false cirrus); at the same time from the under edge of the cloud, which has been growing very dark, rain begins to fall. Sometimes only a slight shower may result; but if the cloud is large there may be heavy rains and violent thunderstorms. Sometimes the false cirrus is brushed out round the top of the cloud giving it the shape of an anvil; the anvil cloud is usually associated with very violent thunderstorms and falls of hail. Thunder clouds due to the rising currents of a hot day usually disappear about the time of sunset, but often leave the false cirrus.

Cumulus often forms in long lines of cloud presenting the appearance of a succession of clouds or of a wall of cloud extending along the horizon. Any cause that brings masses of air of different temperatures near together brings about the formation of cumulus cloud.

It should be noted that rain, hail, and snow only fall from nimbus or cumulo-nimbus clouds, except the slightest and most transient showers which may sometimes fall from alto-cumulus or strato-cumulus. Nimbus causes persistent rain or snow, cumulo-nimbus more or less severe showers of rain, hail or snow.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF THE SEVERAL TYPES OF CLOUDS.

I.—CLOUD SHEETS.

Upper cloud layer
about 30,000 feet.
Clouds composed of
ice crystals, with
these are sometimes
seen halos, or rings,
at some distance from
the sun and moon.

Middle cloud layer;
10,000 feet to 25,000
feet. Clouds com-
posed of minute drops
of water. Coloured
rings sometimes seen
quite close to sun and
moon, but never halos.

Lower cloud layer.
Below 7,000 feet.

CIRRUS. Mares tails; wisps or lines of pure white clouds with no shadows.

CIRRO-CUMULUS. Small speckles and flocks of white clouds; finer ripple clouds; mackerel sky.

CIRRO-STRATUS. A thin sheet of tangled web structure sometimes covering the whole sky; watery sun or moon.

CIRRO-NEBULA. Similar to last, but a veil of cloud with no visible structure.

ALTO-CUMULUS. Somewhat similar to cirro-cumulus, but the cloud masses are larger, and show some shadow.

ALTO-CUMULUS CASTELLATUS. Turret cloud; alto-cumulus with upper margins of the cloud masses developed upwards into miniature cumulus, with hard upper edges. (Sign of thunder.)

ALTO-STRATUS. Very like cirro-stratus and cirro-nebula, but a thicker and darker cloud.

STRATO-CUMULUS. Cloud masses with some vertical structure; rolls or waves sometimes covering the whole sky.

STRATUS. A uniform layer of cloud resembling a fog but not resting on the ground.

NIMBUS. Shapeless cloud without structure, from which falls continuous rain or snow.

SCUD. Small shapeless clouds with ragged edges; sometimes seen without other cloud, especially in hilly country; but more commonly seen below other clouds, such as cumulus and nimbus.

II.—HEAP CLOUDS.

CUMULUS. (Woolpack clouds); clouds with flat base and considerable vertical height. Cauliflower-shaped top.

FRACTO-CUMULUS. Small cumulus with ragged tops.

CUMULO-NIMBUS. (Anvil, thunder- or shower-cloud). Towering cumulus with the top brushed out in soft wisps or larger masses (false cirrus) and rain cloud at base.

The height of the heap clouds is very variable. Mean height of base, 4,500 feet; of top, 25,000 feet.

Reproductions of photographs of Strato-cumulus seen from below and from above, also of Cumulo-Nimbus and of a Valley filled with fog are inserted between pages 88 and 89. A photograph representing Cirrus faces page 82, and one representing Mammato-cumulus, page 195.

Col.—The neck of relatively low pressure separating two anticyclones (see ISOBARS). One of the most treacherous types of barometric distribution, as it sometimes marks a locality of brilliantly fine weather and sometimes is broken up by thunderstorms. See Plate XII.

Compass.—A circumference or dial graduated into thirty-two equal parts by the points N., N. by E., N.N.E., N.E. by E., N.E. and so on. The cardinal points of the compass are North, South, East and West. The points of the compass are often called ORIENTATION points. A MAGNETIC COMPASS or MARINER'S COMPASS is a compass or orientation card at the centre of which a magnetical steel needle is suspended so that it may turn freely in a horizontal plane. The needle sets itself parallel to what is termed the magnetic meridian, that is to say it points roughly north and south. But it is only in some few parts of the earth that the magnetic meridian is the same as the geographical meridian; they include Arabia, European Russia, Finland, and North Lapland. At places within temperate latitudes the angle between the two may amount to 50° or more. And in the Arctic or Antarctic regions the direction of the compass needle may be the opposite of the geographical north and south line. In the neighbourhood of London the needle points about 16° to the west of north and the amount is slowly decreasing.

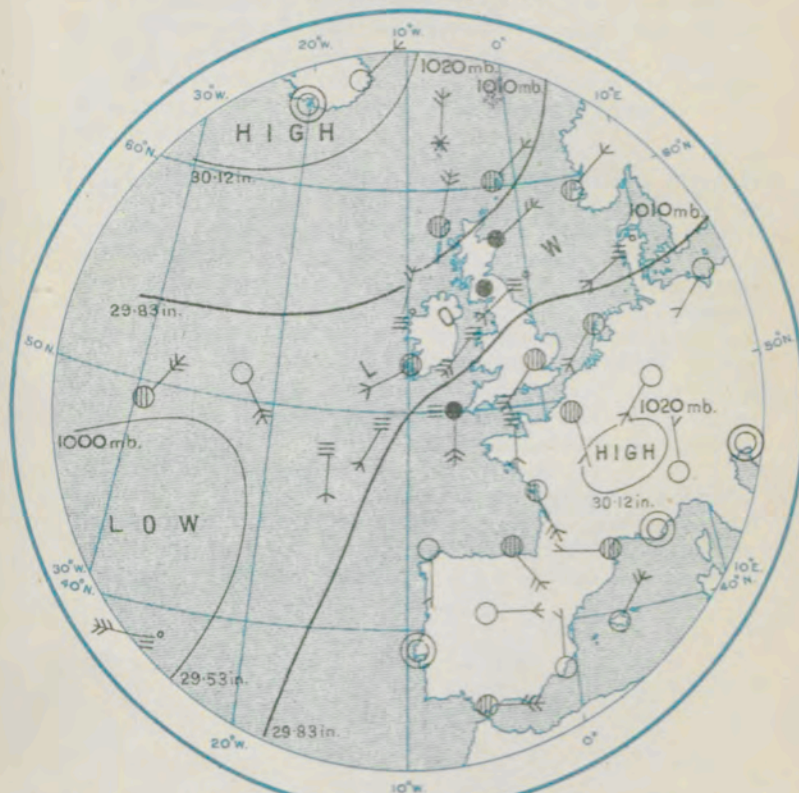
In the west of Ireland the declination or variation, as it is called, is more than 20° W.

Public wind-vanes are often incorrectly set according to magnetic north instead of true north; caution must be exercised accordingly.

All maps are set out according to true north; often an orientation mark is given to show the variation of the compass or magnetic declination.

COL.

DISTRIBUTION OF WEATHER, WIND, AND PRESSURE, 7 A.M. 1st MAY, 1915.



ISOBARS are drawn for intervals of ten millibars.

WIND.—Direction is shown by arrows flying with the wind.

Force, on the scale 0-12, is indicated by the number of feathers.

Calm

WEATHER.—Shown by the following symbols:—

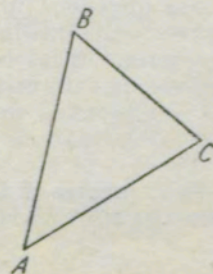
- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| ○ clear sky. | ☁ sky $\frac{1}{2}$ clouded. |
| ◐ sky $\frac{1}{4}$ clouded. | ◑ sky $\frac{3}{4}$ clouded. |
| ⬤ overcast sky. | ☔ rain falling |
| ✱ snow. | ⚡ hail. |
| ≡ mist. | ☁ fog. |
| | ⚡ thunder. |
| | ☁ thunderstorm. |

A compass needle is influenced by magnetic material in its neighbourhood, and therefore in practice should not be used near to articles made of iron or steel.

The variation and correction of the compass are matters of primary importance for aircraft pilots and are provided for by a special manual.

Component.—A word used to indicate the *steps*, in their various directions, which must be *compounded* or combined geometrically in order to produce a given *displacement*. For example a man going ten steps upstairs arrives in the same position as if he took ten treads forward on the level and then ten rises straight upwards, or equally if he first went up ten rises and then took ten treads forward. The actual distance travelled is the combination of the horizontal distance and the vertical rise. We call the horizontal distance and the vertical rise the *components* and the actual distance the *geometrical sum* or the *resultant* of the components.

It is evident that it is not necessary that the components should be at right angles to each other as the horizontal and vertical are. Any displacement AC is the geometrical sum of the two components AB and BC wherever B may be.



This analysis of displacement into components or combination of component displacements to form a resultant displacement finds its most effective illustration in the effect of leeway on the performance of aircraft. The aircraft must necessarily be carried along by the air in which it travels. If we suppose AB to be the travel of the aircraft through the air in an hour, say 50 miles, and BC represents the travel of the wind in the hour, AC the resultant will represent the travel of the aircraft with reference to the fixed earth, or its performance. BC is the leeway, AB is the headway that it has made through the air. Hence the *performance* is the *geometrical sum* of the *headway* and the *leeway*.

The law of composition of displacements which is thus set out is equally applicable to the composition of velocities, accelerations, and forces. The resultant is always the geometrical sum of the components, and to obtain the geometrical sum you set out a step or line representing the first component, then another step representing the second component: the resultant is the step from the beginning of the first component to the end of the second.

The simplest way of dealing with the magnitudes and angles which come into questions involving geometrical composition is to make a scale-drawing and measure them with a rule and protractor. That is generally accurate enough for most purposes, but the methods of the solution of triangles can be employed if numerical accuracy is wanted.

Condensation.—The process of formation of a liquid from its vapour. See AQUEOUS VAPOUR.

Conduction.—Conduction is the process by which heat passes through a solid body from places of higher to places of lower temperature. The process also goes on in liquids and gases but, as a rule, to a very small extent.

Convection.—Convection is the process by which heat is carried from one place to another in liquids and gases. In general, if a part of a fluid is warmed its volume is increased, and the same portion of it, measured by its volume, weighs less than before. The warmed part therefore rises and its place is taken by fresh fluid which is warmed in turn. Conversely, if it is cooled it sinks. Consequently, if heat is supplied to the lower part of a mass of fluid, the heat is disseminated throughout the whole mass by convection, or if the upper part is cooled the temperature of the whole mass is lowered by a similar process.

There are two apparent and important exceptions in meteorology. Fresh water, when under the temperature of 39.1° F. expands instead of contracting on being further cooled. Hence a pond or lake is cooled bodily down to 39.1° but no further, as winter chills the surface. Secondly, heat applied to the bottom of the atmosphere may stay there without being disseminated upwards when the atmosphere is exceptionally stable in the circumstances explained under ENTROPY.

Corona.—A circle of coloured light, usually of about ten degrees in diameter, surrounding the sun or moon. There is always a brownish-red ring concentric with the sun or moon, and the space between this ring and the luminary is bluish-white. These two constitute the "aureole." If more colours are visible outside the brownish ring they follow the colours of the rainbow

commencing with violet. In the HALO the colours are in the reverse order, and the halo is separated from the luminary which forms it by a circle of about 44 degrees in diameter.

Correlation.—Two varying quantities are said to be correlated when their variations from their respective mean values are in some way or other mutually connected with each other.

A kind of measure of this connection is given by the "correlation coefficient." This is a decimal lying between + 1 and - 1, which is easily calculated. Values of + 1 and of - 1 show that the two quantities are directly or inversely proportional; that is to say, for any departure from the normal of the one quantity there is a corresponding departure from the normal of the other, always in the same sense or always in the opposite sense, whereas values that are nearly nothing show that there is very little connexion.

It may be of interest to state that the coefficient of correlation between the phases of the moon and the barometric pressure at Greenwich is insignificant.

Cosecant.—In a right angled triangle the ratio of the hypotenuse to one side is the cosecant of the angle between the two. See SINE.

Cosine.—In a right angled triangle the ratio of one side to the hypotenuse is the cosine of the angle between them. See SINE.

Cotangent.—In a right angled triangle the ratio of the two sides that form the right-angle is the cotangent of the angle opposite the side taken as the divisor. See SINE.

Cumulo-stratus.—The name given to a certain combination of cloud forms which is no longer used in the international classification. See CLOUDS.

Cumulus.—The technical name of the woolpack cloud. See CLOUDS.

Damp Air.—As distinguished from dry air in meteorology, damp air implies a high degree of RELATIVE HUMIDITY (*q.v.*). When its relative humidity equals or exceeds 85 per cent. of saturation air may fairly be called damp. It will deposit some of its moisture in dry woollen fabrics, cordage or other fibrous material, though its water will not condense upon an exposed surface until 100 per cent. is reached. Even the driest air of the atmosphere contains some water vapour, and its relative dampness or dryness can be changed by altering the temperature. Thus the same air may be very dry at 2 o'clock in the afternoon, and very damp, even cloudy, at 8 o'clock in the evening, simply because its temperature has been lowered. At any time of the year, but especially in summer, the dampness of the air is subject to great changes.

Density.—The density of air is one of the things you have to know when you want to calculate the lifting power of a balloon of given size. As applied to air, density is a difficult word to explain because the numerical value depends partly upon the composition of the air, partly upon its pressure, and again partly upon its temperature. Thus it is often said that moist air or damp air is lighter than dry air, warm air is lighter than cold air, and rarefied air is lighter than compressed air, and all these statements are true provided that in each case

we remember to introduce the condition "other things being equal."

By the density of a sample of air is to be understood the weight, or better, the mass of a measured volume, a cubic foot, or a cubic metre; and moist air is lighter than dry air in this sense that a cubic metre of perfectly dry air weighs 1,206 grammes when its barometric pressure is 1,000 millibars, 29.53 inches, and its temperature is 289° A. (60.8° F.), whereas if it were saturated air instead of dry air the cubic metre would weigh 1,197 grammes. But if the barometric pressure rose while the change from dry air to saturation was being effected the density would rise in like proportion; and if the temperature changed the density would change in reversed proportion to the absolute temperature. The formula for the density of air is, therefore, a complicated one

$$\rho = \rho_0 \frac{p - 3/8 e}{p_0} \times \frac{T_0}{T}$$

when

ρ is the density to be computed.

ρ_0 is the density of perfectly dry air under the conditions,

$p_0 = 1,000$ mb., 29.53 in., and $T_0 = 290^\circ$ A when

$\rho_0 = 1,201$ g/m³.

p is the barometric pressure in mb. of the sample.

e is the pressure of aqueous vapour in the sample.

The following is a complete example of the determination of the density of a sample of air from a reading of the barometer and wet and dry bulb thermometers.

Barometer corrected for temperature	1,010.1 mb. (29.83 in.).
Dry bulb	285.8° A. (55.1° F.).
Wet bulb	281.3° A. (47.0° F.).

Vapour pressure from humidity tables = 8.2 mb. (0.239 in.).

$$\rho_0 = 1,201 \text{ grammes per cubic metre.}$$

$$\rho = 1,201 \times \frac{1,010.1 - 8.2 \times 3/8}{1,000} \times \frac{290}{285.8} \text{ grammes per cubic metre.}$$

$$= 1,227 \text{ grammes per cubic metre.}$$

$$\text{or } 0.0766 \text{ lbs. per cubic foot.}$$

Since the reading of a barometer gives the pressure at the level of the mercury in the barometer cistern it must be understood that the density refers to the sample of air at that level. For the value at any other level a correction for level must be made.

The variation of the density of air with pressure and temperature is of great importance in meteorology. Pressure is of course higher in an anticyclone than in a cyclonic depression, and it has recently been made certain that above one kilometre (3,281 feet) the air in the high pressure is warmer than in the low pressure, so the effect of difference of pressure may more than counter-balance the effect of temperature, and in consequence the density of a column of air in a cyclone may be very little different from that in an anticyclone.

The influence of moisture upon the density of air is not regarded as having the importance in meteorology which used to be attributed to it when it was held to explain the difference between high and low pressure with the accompanying weather.

The following are the average pressures, temperatures and densities of air at different levels above an area of high pressure and an area of low pressure in the British

Isles according to the results obtained with registering balloons by Mr. W. H. Dines, F.R.S.

Table of average values of the pressure, temperature and density of air in a region of high and of low pressure.

Height.		High Pressure.			Low Pressure.		
		Pres- sure.	Temp.	Density.	Density.	Temp.	Pres- sure.
1000-ft.	k.	mb.	A.	g/m ³	g/m ³	A.	mb.
32·809	10	273	226	421	382	225	247
29·528	9	317	233	474	444	226	288
26·247	8	366	240	531	514	227	335
22·966	7	422	247	595	583	232	388
19·685	6	483	254	662	652	240	449
16·406	5	552	261	736	724	248	516
13·124	4	628	267	818	807	255	591
9·843	3	713	272	911	893	263	675
6·562	2	807	277	1012	992	269	767
3·281	1	913	279	1137	1100	275	870
0	0	1031	282	1270	1226	279	984

The densities quoted above are calculated on the assumption that the saturation of the air is 75 per cent.

We may give the densities of a few other substances.

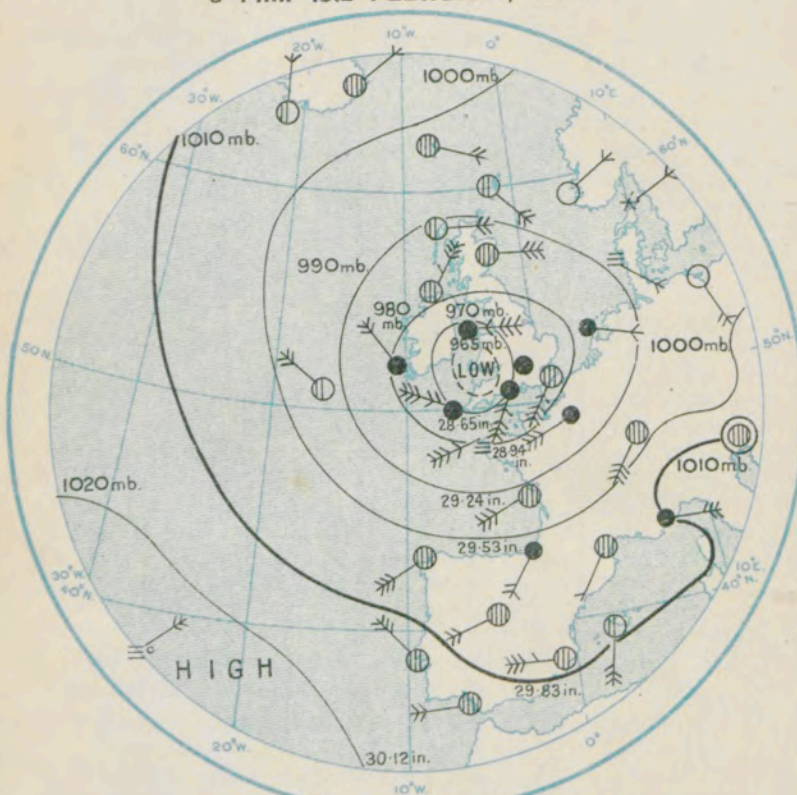
*Hydrogen (dry) ... 88·74 g/m³

*Carbonic acid gas (dry) ... 1,953 g/m³

* At a pressure of 1,000 mb. and temperature of 273°A.

DEPRESSION.

DISTRIBUTION OF WEATHER, WIND, AND PRESSURE,
6 P.M. 13th FEBRUARY, 1915.



ISOBARS are drawn for intervals of ten millibars.

WIND.—Direction is shown by arrows flying with the wind.

Force, on the scale 0-12, is indicated by the number of feathers.

Calm



WEATHER.—Shown by the following symbols—

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| ○ clear sky. | ☉ sky $\frac{1}{2}$ clouded. |
| ◐ sky $\frac{1}{2}$ clouded. | ☂ sky $\frac{3}{4}$ clouded. |
| ◑ overcast sky. | ⬆ rain falling |
| ❄ snow. | ⚡ hail. |
| ☁ mist. | ⚡ T thunder. |
| | ☁ thunderstorm. |

Density.

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Water	1.000 g/cc (at 277°A.)
Sea water	1.01 to 1.05 g/cc.
Mercury	13.596 g/cc (at 273°A.)
Petrol	0.68 to 0.72 g/cc.

Depression.—An aggregate of isobars or isobaric lines representing on a map a region of low barometric pressure. See ISOBARS, and Plate XIII.

Dew.—The name given to the deposit of drops of water which forms upon grass, leaves, &c., when they become cooled, by radiating heat to the sky on a clear night, to such an extent that their temperature is below the saturation or DEW POINT of the air which surrounds them.

The last part of the process of the formation of dew is in no way different from that which operates when a glass of ice-cooled water covers itself with water drops indoors, or when a deposit of moisture is formed by breathing on a window-pane.

Dew Point.—The temperature of saturation of air, that is to say, the temperature which marks the limit to which air can be cooled without causing condensation, either in the form of cloud if the cooling is taking place in the free air, or on the sides of the vessel if it is enclosed.

See AQUEOUS VAPOUR.

Diathermancy.—**Diathermanous.**—The power of allowing heat in the form of radiation to pass in the same way that light passes through glass. Rock salt is peculiarly diathermanous, water, on the contrary, and glass are not.

All forms of energy which are "radiated" and in connection with which the word "ray" is used, such as rays of light, heat rays, X-rays, radio-telegraphic rays, travel by wave motion and have some properties in common. One of the most characteristic is that described as transparency and opacity with regard to light. But the same substances are not similarly transparent for all kinds of rays. X-rays and electric rays make no difficulty about going through walls which stop light; and sound-waves often find a way where light cannot follow. The question of transparency and opacity for different kinds of rays is one of bewildering complexity. The study of DIATHERMANCY deals with that part of the subject which is concerned with the transmission of heat in the form of wave motion.

Diffusion.—The slow molecular process by which superjacent fluids mix in spite of the differences in their density. The molecular forces or motions which come into play in diffusion are perhaps most effectively illustrated by the tenacity with which the mixture maintains its composition when once the mixing has taken place. For example, whisky is lighter than water and a separate layer of the spirit can be floated on the top of water by judicious manipulation. The spirit and water will then slowly mix by diffusion, even if there be no stirring, due to thermal convection or mechanical operation. But when the spirit and water have become mixed no amount of allowing to stand will cause the water to settle to the bottom and leave the whisky in a separate layer at the top. Once mixed they are mixed for ever owing to the power of diffusion.

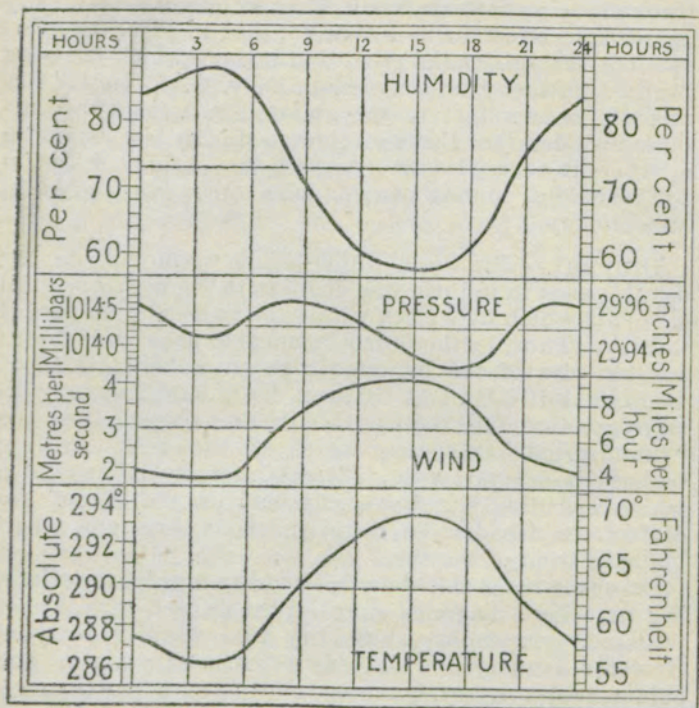
The process of diffusion follows certain definite rules,

which are similar in type to those for the diffusion of heat by thermal conduction, and the diffusion of velocity through a viscous mass, but it takes so long a time for any appreciable effect to be produced, that in practice diffusion only completes the process of mixing which has been begun by stirring or convection. Mr. G. I. Taylor has recently shown that in the atmosphere mixing by turbulent motion (see EDDY) follows a similar law, but with a different characteristic constant that brings diffusion by turbulent motion among the operative forces in Meteorology.

Diurnal.—The word, which means "recurring day by day," is used to indicate the changes in the meteorological elements which take place within the twenty-four hours of the day. Thus, by the diurnal change of pressure is meant a slight rise of the barometric pressure between about 4 a.m. and 10 a.m., and between 4 p.m. and 10 p.m. with corresponding falls between. In this change it is the "semidiurnal" variation which is the most striking because it occurs (with different intensity) all round a whole meridian simultaneously and sweeps round the globe from meridian to meridian about three and a half hours in front of the sun.

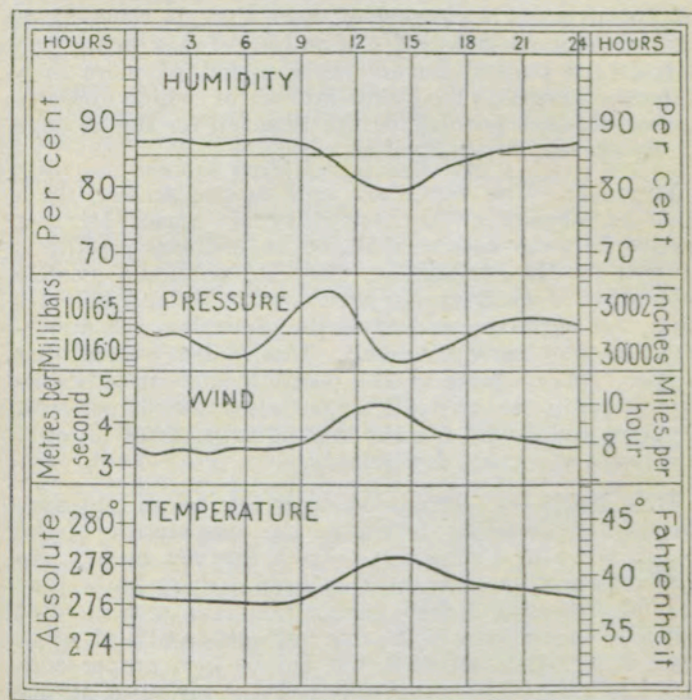
Other elements also show noteworthy diurnal variations. We give here diagrams showing the diurnal variation of pressure, temperature, humidity and wind velocity at Kew for January and July as representing winter and summer respectively.

DIURNAL VARIATION IN SUMMER.



From the Normals for July.
Averages of not less than twenty-five years of Hourly Readings at Kew Observatory.

DIURNAL VARIATION IN WINTER.



From the Normals for January.
Averages of not less than twenty-five years of Hourly Readings at Kew Observatory.

Drought.—Dryness due to lack of rain. According to the classification of the British Rainfall Organization an *absolute drought* is a period of more than 14 consecutive days without one-hundredth of an inch of rain on any one day, and a *partial drought* is a period of more than 28 consecutive days the mean rainfall of which does not exceed .01-inch per day or the total fall for the 28 days barely exceeds a quarter of an inch.

Dry Air.—The words are used in two senses. In a book on physics or chemistry dry air means air that carries no water-vapour at all, but in ordinary practice it is used for the atmosphere when it contains a smaller proportion of water-vapour than usual. Water evaporates from wet surfaces exposed to the air unless the atmosphere is completely saturated. If we call air containing 85 per cent. or more of the possible amount of water-vapour damp, we may call air with less than 60 per cent. dry, and understand thereby that EVAPORATION is rapid and roads, grass, &c., dry quickly.

Dry bulb.—A curious name given to an ordinary thermometer used to determine the temperature of the air, in order to distinguish it from the wet bulb. No special precautions are taken to keep a "dry bulb" dry beyond protecting it from falling rain in a screen. But it is true enough that if the dry bulb gets a film of water upon it by condensation it will not be in a proper condition to record the temperature of the air until it has got quite dry again.

Dynamics.—The study of the motion of bodies in relation to the forces which control the motion. The fundamental principle of dynamics is that if a moving

body is *let alone* it will go on moving. It is a vulgar error to suppose that it will stop.

Dynamic Cooling.—The fall of temperature which occurs automatically throughout a mass of air when it expands on the release of pressure. (See ADIABATIC.) Examples of the expansion under reduced pressure and consequent cooling are to be found in the flow of air up a mountain slope with the formation of cloud at the top.

Eddy.—"The water that by some interruption in its course runs contrary to the direction of the tide or current (Adm. Smyth); a circular motion in water, a small whirlpool,"—according to the New English Dictionary.

Eddies are formed in water whenever the water flows rapidly past an obstacle. Numbers of them can be seen as little whirling dimples or depressions on the surface close to the side of a ship which is moving through the water. In the atmosphere similar eddies on a larger scale are shown by the little whirls of dust and leaves sometimes formed at street corners and other places which present suitable obstacles. The peculiarity of these wind eddies is that they seem to last for a little while with an independent existence of their own. They sometimes attain considerable dimensions and, in fact, they seem to pass by insensible degrees from the corner eddy to the whirlwind, the dust-storm, the waterspout, the tornado, the hurricane and finally the cyclonic depression. It is not easy to draw the line and say where in the line the mechanical effect of an obstacle has been lost, and the creation of a set of parallel circular isobars has begun, but it serves no useful purpose to class as identical phenomena the street corner eddy twenty feet high and six feet wide

and the cyclonic depression a thousand miles across and three or four miles high.

The special characteristic of every eddy is that it must have an axis to which the circular motion can be referred. The axis need not be straight nor need it be fixed in shape or position. The best example of an eddy is the vortex-ring or smoke ring which can be produced by suddenly projecting a puff of air, laden with smoke to make the motion visible, through a circular opening. In that case the axis of the eddy is ring shaped; the circular motion is through the ring in the direction in which it is travelling and back again round the outside. The ring-eddy is very durable but the condition of its durability is that the axis should form a ring. If the continuity of the ring is broken by some obstacle the eddy rapidly disappears in irregular motion.

It is on that account that the eddy motion of the atmosphere is so difficult to deal with. When air flows past an obstacle a succession of incomplete eddies are periodically formed, detached, disintegrated and reformed. There is a pulsating formation of ill-defined eddies. The same kind of thing must occur when the wind blows on the face of a cliff, forming a cliff-eddy with an axis, roughly speaking, along the line of the cliff and the circular motion in a vertical plane.

Whenever wind passes over the ground, even smooth ground, the air near the ground is full of partially formed, rapidly disintegrating eddies, and the motion is known as turbulent, to distinguish it from what is known as streamline motion, in which there is no circular motion. The existence of these eddies is doubtless shown on an anemogram as gusts, but the axes of these eddies are so irregular that they have hitherto evaded classification.

Irregular eddy motion is of great importance in meteorology, because it represents the process by which the slow mixing of layers of air takes place, which is an essential part in the production of thick layers of fog. Moreover, all movements due to convection must give rise to current and return current which at least simulates eddy motion.

Electrometer.—An instrument for measuring electromotive force or potential difference. An ordinary battery has an electromotive force of about a volt and shows a potential-difference of about that amount on an electrometer when the poles of the battery are connected to the electrodes (connecting clamps) of the electrometer. A fully charged secondary battery shows a potential-difference of about two volts. In the atmosphere there is, on the average, a potential-difference of about 100 volts for a difference of level of one metre, due to the electrification of the air. It can be measured by an electrometer using a burning match or a water-dropper or a radio active substance as "collector." The potential-difference in the atmosphere measured in this way is very variable, especially during rain.

The potential-difference necessary to cause a spark between two metal balls through one centimetre of air at ordinary pressure is about 30,000 volts, therefore the potential-differences necessary to produce a discharge of lightning are enormous.

Energy.—Used frequently in meteorology in the general sense of vigour or activity. Thus, a cyclone is said to develop greater energy when its character, as exhibited by a low barometer, steep gradients and strong winds, becomes more pronounced. But there is a technical

dynamical sense of the word, the use of which is sometimes required in meteorology, and which must become more general when the physical explanation of the phenomena of weather is studied, because all the phenomena of weather are examples of the "transformations of energy" in the physical sense.

The most important conception with regard to energy is its division into two kinds, kinetic energy and potential energy, which are mutually convertible. A clock-weight gives a good idea of potential energy. When the clock is wound up the weight has potential energy in virtue of its position; it will utilise that energy in driving the clock until it is "run down" and can go no further. Potential energy must be restored to it by winding up before it can do any more driving. The potential energy in this case is measured by the amount of the weight and the vertical distance through which it is wound up. In dynamical measure the potential energy of the raised weight is mgh , where m is the mass of the clock-weight, h the vertical distance through which it is wound up, g the acceleration of gravity. It is to the mysterious action of gravity that the energy is due:—hence the necessity for taking gravity into account in measuring the energy.

Using the simple product mgh as a measure of the potential energy of gravitation, by a simple formula for bodies falling freely under the action of gravity, we have

$$mgh = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

where v is the velocity acquired by a body falling through a height h , or, speaking in terms of energy, by losing the potential energy of the height h . It thus obtains a

certain amount of motion which represents kinetic energy, in exchange for its potential energy. The kinetic energy is expressed by the apparently artificial formula $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$. In virtue of its motion it has the power of doing "work": if it were not for unavoidable friction the mass could get itself up-hill again through the height h by the use of its motion, and thus sacrifice its kinetic energy in favour of an equivalent amount of potential energy.

The exchange of potential and kinetic energy can be seen going on in a high degree of perfection in a swinging pendulum. At the top of the swing the energy is all potential, at the bottom all kinetic. The swings get gradually smaller because in every swing a little of the energy is wasted in bending the cord or in the friction of the air.

What we get in return for the loss of energy in friction is a little HEAT, and one of the great conclusions of physical science in the middle of the nineteenth century was to show that heat is also a form of energy but a very special form, that is to say, its transformation is subject to peculiar laws. Heat is often measured by rise of temperature of water (or its equivalent in some other substance). Calling this form of energy thermal energy and measuring it by the product of the "water equivalent," M , and the rise of temperature $A - A_0$ produced therein, we have three forms of energy all convertible under certain laws, viz. :—

Potential energy	...	mgh
Kinetic energy	...	$\frac{1}{2}mv^2$
Thermal energy	...	$M(A - A_0)$

We have mentioned only a lifted clock-weight as an example of potential energy, but there are many others, a

coiled spring that will fly back when it is let go, compressed gas in a cylinder that will drive an engine when it is turned on, every combination, in fact, that is dormant until it is set agoing and then becomes active.

From the dynamical point of view, the study of nature is simply the study of transformations of energy.

In meteorology kinetic energy is represented by the winds, potential energy by the distribution of pressure at any level, by the electrical potential of the air and by the varying distribution of density in the atmosphere, causing convection; thermal energy by the changes of temperature due to the effect of the sun or other causes. It is the study of the interchange of these forms of energy which constitute the science of dynamical meteorology.

Entropy.—A term introduced by R. Clausius to be used with temperature to identify the thermal condition of a substance with regard to a transformation of its heat into some other form of energy. It involves one of the most difficult conceptions in the theory of heat about which some confusion has arisen.

The transformation of heat into other forms of energy, in other words, the use of heat to do work, is necessarily connected with the expansion of the working substance under its own pressure, as in the cylinder of a gas engine, and the condition of a given quantity of the substance at any stage of its operations is completely specified by its volume and its pressure. Generally speaking (for example, in the atmosphere) changes of volume and pressure go on simultaneously, but for simplifying ideas and leading on to calculation it is useful to suppose the stages to be kept separate, so that when the substance is expanding the pressure is maintained constant by supplying, in fact, the

necessary quantity of heat to keep it so, and, on the other hand, when the pressure is being varied the volume is kept constant; this again by the addition or subtraction of a suitable quantity of heat. While the change of pressure is in progress, and generally, also, while the change of volume is going on, the temperature is changing, and heat is passing into or out of the substance. The question arises whether the condition of the substance cannot be specified by the amount of heat that it has in store and the temperature that has been acquired just as completely as by the pressure and volume.

To realise that idea it is necessary to regard the processes of supplying or removing heat and changing the temperature as separate and independent, and it is this step that makes the conception useful and at the same time difficult.

For we are accustomed to associate the warming of a substance, *i.e.*, the raising of its temperature, with supplying it with heat. If we wish to warm anything we put it near a fire and let it get warmer by taking in heat, but in thermodynamics we separate the change of temperature from the supply of heat altogether by supposing the substance is "working." Thus, when heat is supplied the temperature must not rise; the substance must do a suitable amount of work instead; and if heat is to be removed the temperature must be kept up by working upon the substance. The temperature can thus be kept constant while heat is supplied or removed. And, on the other hand, if the temperature is to be changed it must be changed dynamically not thermally, that is to say, by work done or received, not by heat communicated or removed.

So we get two aspects of the process of the transformation of heat into another form of energy by working,

first, alterations of pressure and volume, each independently, the adjustments being made by adding or removing heat as may be required, and secondly, alterations of heat and temperature independently, the adjustments being made by work done or received. Both represent the process of using heat to perform mechanical work or *vice versa*.

In the mechanical aspect of the process, when we are considering an alteration of volume at constant pressure, $p(v-v_0)$ is the work done and in the thermal aspect of the process $H-H_0$ is the amount of heat disposed of. There is equality between the two.

But if we consider more closely what happens in this case we shall see that quantities of heat ought also to be regarded as a product, so that $H-H_0$ should be expressed as $T(\phi-\phi_0)$ where T is the absolute temperature and ϕ the entropy.

The reason for this will be clear if we consider what happens if a substance works under adiabatic conditions, as we may suppose an isolated mass of air to do if it rises automatically in the atmosphere into regions of lower pressure, or conversely if it sinks. In that case it neither loses nor gains any heat by simple transference across its boundary; but as it is working it is drawing upon its store of heat, its temperature falls. If the process is arrested at any stage, part of the store of heat will have been lost through working, so in spite of the adiabatic isolation part of the heat has gone all the same. From the general thermodynamic properties of all substances, it is shown that it is not H the store of heat that remains the same in adiabatic changes, but H/T , the ratio of the store of heat to the temperature at which it entered. We

call this ratio the *entropy* and an adiabatic line which conditions thermal isolation and therefore equality of entropy is called an *isentropic*. If a new quantity of heat h is added at a temperature T the entropy is increased by h/T . If it is taken away again at a lower temperature T^1 the entropy is reduced by h/T^1 .

In the technical language of thermodynamics the mechanical work for an elementary cycle of changes is $\delta p. \delta v$ and the element of heat, $\delta T. \delta \phi$. The conversion of heat into some other form of energy by working is expressed by the equation

$$\delta T. \delta \phi = \delta p. \delta v$$

when heat is measured in dynamical units.

It is useful in meteorology to consider these aspects of the science of heat although they may seem to be far away from ordinary experience because, from certain aspects, the problem of dynamical meteorology seems to be more closely associated with these strange ideas than those which we regard as common. For example, it may seem natural to suppose that if we could succeed in completely churning the atmosphere up to, say, 10 kilometres (6 miles) we should have got it uniform in temperature or isothermal throughout. That seems reasonable, because if we want to get a bath of liquid uniform in temperature throughout we stir it up; but it is not true. In the case of the atmosphere there is the difference in pressure to deal with, and, in consequence of that, complete mixing up would result, not in equality, but in a difference of temperature of about 100°C . between top and bottom, supposing the whole atmosphere dry. The resulting state would not, in fact, be isothermal; the temperature at any point would depend upon its level

and there would be a temperature-difference of 1° C. for every hundred metres. But it would be perfectly isentropic. The entropy would be the same everywhere throughout the whole mass. And its state would be very peculiar, for if you increased the entropy of any part of it by warming it slightly the warmed portion would go right to the top of the isentropic mass. It would find itself a little warmer and therefore a little lighter specifically than its environment all the way up. In this respect we may contrast the properties of an isentropic and an isothermal atmosphere. In an isentropic atmosphere each unit mass has the same entropy at all levels, but the temperatures are lower in the upper levels. In an isothermal atmosphere the temperature is the same at all levels but the entropy is greater at the higher levels.

An isothermal atmosphere represents great stability as regards vertical movements, any portion which is carried upward mechanically becomes colder than its surroundings and must sink again to its own place, but an isentropic atmosphere is in the curious state of neutral equilibrium which is called "labile." So long as it is not warmed or cooled it is immaterial to a particular specimen where it finds itself, but if it is warmed, ever so little, it must go to the top, or cooled, ever so little, to the bottom.

In the actual atmosphere above the level of ten kilometres (more or less) the state is isothermal; below that level, in consequence of convection, it tends towards the isentropic state, but stops short of reaching it by a variable amount in different levels. The condition is completely defined at any level by the statement of its entropy and its temperature, together with its composition which depends on the amount of water-vapour contained in it.

Speaking in general terms the entropy increases, but only slightly, as we go upward from the surface through the troposphere until the stratosphere is reached and from the boundary upwards the entropy increases rapidly.

If the atmosphere were free from the complications arising from the condensation of water-vapour the definition of the state of a sample of air at any time by its temperature and entropy would be comparatively simple. High entropy and high level go together; stability depends upon the air with the largest stock of entropy having found its level. In so far as the atmosphere approaches the isentropic state results due to convection may be expected, but in so far as it approaches the isothermal state and stability supervenes convection becomes unlikely.

Equator.—"The line" of sailors. An imaginary line on the earth's surface separating the northern hemisphere from the southern hemisphere. The use of the word "hemisphere" suggests that the earth is regarded as a sphere, and on a spherical globe representing the earth the equator is the line formed by the intersection with the surface of a plane drawn at right angles to the polar axis and bisecting it.

The position of the equator is identified by the vertical or plumb line being at right angles to the polar axis, and any complications introduced by the irregularity of the figure of the earth have to work from that datum. Latitude is measured from the equator northward through 90° to the North pole, southward through 90° to the South pole.

By geodesic calculation it has been found that the diameter of the globe from a point of the equator to its

antipodes is 12,756,776 metres, whereas the polar axis is 12,713,818 metres.*

Equatorial.—Originally only an adjective derived from equator; thus, the equatorial regions are the regions in the neighbourhood of "the line," but a meteorologist thinks of them as regions of rather low atmospheric pressure lying between the two belts of high pressure which are found in either hemisphere just north or south of the tropics. In this region the rotation of the earth has little or no influence in adjusting the wind to balance the distribution of pressure. The adjustment necessary for persistence can only be reached by the curvature of the air's path. It is perhaps for that reason that the equatorial region is the region in which tropical revolving storms originate.

And the adjective has also come to be used with regard to wind to mean a wind that is composed of air which has come from lower latitudes, whatever may be its direction at the time, as distinguished from a polar wind which is composed of air that has travelled from higher latitudes. Typical equatorial winds are generally from South West or between South and West, and Polar winds from North East or between North and East. It is a question of considerable meteorological interest to consider in special cases whether a South East wind or a North West wind is actually equatorial or polar. Equatorial winds are generally warm, polar winds cold, but north-easterly winds are sometimes very warm and sometimes very cold; a north-wester almost always cold.

Equilibrium.—Properly speaking, the balancing of two or more forces in such a way that the combined effect is the same as if there were no forces acting at all, so that

the body upon which they act, if at rest, remains at rest and if in motion, it goes on moving without any alteration of its velocity. In the case of a hammock slung by a cord at each end, the forces acting along the cords and the weight balance each other and the hammock with its load is supported at rest. It is, therefore, not unusual to say that the load is in equilibrium, but it is an unfortunate use of the word because the state of rest is only a special case. In meteorology we are very frequently concerned with equilibrium of forces associated not with rest but with the uniform motion of the body upon which they act. For example, raindrops are all impelled downwards by their weight and their motion is resisted by the air through which they move, and after a very brief interval from the start the resistance of the air balances the weight and the drops fall with a uniform* speed (which depends upon their size) as if there were no longer any gravity or any air. The same is equally true of a falling bomb, but the time required to reach the limiting velocity is much greater. From the moment of its release it acquires velocity from its weight, but if the height is sufficiently great it reaches a limiting velocity when the weight is balanced by the friction of the air and no further increase of velocity occurs.

So, on the other hand, a pilot balloon rises with a uniform velocity as soon as the balloon is moving upwards fast enough for the buoyancy of the balloon, the weight of the balloon and the friction of the air to get into equilibrium.

So, also, in the case of a train running with uniform speed along a level; the rails push the train forward, the

* Mr. W. H. Dines points out that the speed is not strictly uniform but diminishes with the increasing density of the air in the lower layers.

resistance of the air holds it back ; there is equilibrium which we recognise by the fact that the speed is uniform.

There are some other cases in which the word equilibrium is used that are more difficult. It is sometimes said, for example, that there is equilibrium between the wind velocity and the barometric gradient, but it is a peculiar kind of equilibrium: the wind is kept moving without change of speed in a great circle of the earth but not in a straight line through space. The balance of forces in this case is the same as that which obtains when we consider the motion of the moon round the earth, the force of gravitation in the moon is "balanced" by the moon's motion, a convenient form of expression but one which requires some explanation before its meaning is quite clear.

Equinox.—The time of the year when the astronomical day and night are equal, each lasting twelve hours. At the equinox the sun is "on the Equator" or is "crossing the line." It rises exactly in the east and sets exactly in the west all over the world. Sunrise occurs at the same time all along a meridian. The sun is visible by refraction for a little longer than the duration of the astronomical day.

There are two equinoxes. The spring or vernal equinox about the 21st March, and the autumnal equinox about the 22nd September. The currently accepted phrase "equinoctial gales" indicates that the equinoxes are regarded in some quarters as the times of the year when gales are specially frequent ; but on our coasts the equinoxes rather mark the beginning and the end of the season of gales than its culmination. Winter is really the season for gales.

Error.—In all the sciences dependent upon observation of the size of things the word error has a numerical sense which must not be confused with the ordinary trivial sense of a mistake or fault. Errors in the latter sense have to be avoided by skill and care, so they never occur, or hardly ever ; but when everything possible in that respect has been done there are always *errors* in the technical sense due to imperfections of the instrument, or its adjustment, or to difficulty arising from changes in the element while it is being measured. In this sense the *error* is difference between the reading of the assumed measure and the true measure of the element. The size of the residual error is a good indication of the degree of nicety to which the measurement can be carried. Pressure is the only meteorological element which is read to a very high degree of accuracy, such as one hundredth per cent. ; the temperature of the air can be *read* to the tenth of a degree, or within less than one per cent., reckoning on the absolute scale, as one must do for all calculations of density, but the temperature of the air is not "known," because it is subject to such local and temporary fluctuations. An accuracy within one per cent. or even five per cent. is often acceptable. The measurements of wind obtained by the best anemometers and published by the Meteorological Office up to 1905, were affected by an error which for many years was known to be about 25 per cent., and was allowed to run on because there was some uncertainty as to what the precise extent of the error was.

What is aimed at is to improve the instruments and the methods of reading, so that there is no systematic error, that is to say, no error that is known always to be present and to affect the measurement in the same way.

When that stage has been reached, and we have no good reason for thinking that the figure given by the reading is in any way biassed, we have what is called the residual error which has been made the subject of prolonged study, which leads to the application of the laws of mathematical probability which are of real practical application in all cases where we deal with very large numbers of observations.

In that case the frequency of occurrence of errors of given magnitude follows a well-known law called the law of error, from which we are able to compute what is called the "probable error" of an observation, a term which frequently occurs. It only means that in any particular case the actual error is no more likely to be greater than the "probable error" than it is to be less.

The study of laws of error is of great practical importance in all actuarial questions and now forms part of the science of statistics. There are various forms of numerical error that call for notice. In dealing with accurate timing, for example, by means of a clock or chronometer, there is the *index* error, or clock error, and the *rate* error, the amount by which the clock is gaining or losing. Every instrument is liable to index error, on account of the index being inaccurately set, and every instrument is also liable to a scale error, on account of the scale being imperfectly graduated. Before trusting implicitly to the readings of any instrument it is desirable that the user of it should become acquainted with its ways and habits in respect of error. This is particularly the case with instruments used by aviators, namely, altimeters, anemometers, aneroids, compasses, and so on.

Evaporation.—The process of conversion of water

from the liquid to the gaseous form at the free surface of water in the presence of air or from the solid to the gaseous form from the surface of ice. It expresses itself by the gradual disappearance of drops of dew after sunrise, the drying of roofs and roads after rain, the loss of water from cisterns and reservoirs in drought. There is also copious evaporation from the stomata of the leaves of plants.

The atmosphere is very rarely completely saturated so that evaporation is always going on when water surfaces are freely exposed. The rate of evaporation depends upon a number of conditions. One of the chief is the "drying power" of the air and is represented by the difference between the amount of water-vapour which would saturate it and the amount which it holds at the time: that again depends on the relative humidity and the temperature. The drying power of air below the freezing point is very small but, in spite of that, the disappearance of snow by evaporation is surprisingly rapid.

The other important condition is the nature of the surface of the water from which the evaporation takes place. There are all stages of cleanliness of the surface from the chemically pure water surface which is very seldom realised in practice, to the complete superficial film of oil which arrests evaporation altogether. Besides these conditions, temperature and wind have to be considered so that the measure of evaporation is the end of a very intricate story. Still, in dry countries like Egypt, South Africa and Australia it is a matter of serious economic importance. It is generally given on the analogy of rainfall as the depth of water evaporated.

Some results are given on page 124 :—

Evaporation from the Surface of Water.

	30 years Average.		1914.		South Africa,		Egypt, Wadi Halfa,		Australia, Que., W.A.,		Tasmania, Hobart,	
	in.	mm.	in.	mm.	in.	mm.	in.	mm.	in.	mm.	in.	mm.
January	..	1.1	2.8	7.1	2.5	8.94	227	11.10	282	21.46	545	5.87
February	..	.26	6.6	11.4	7.40	188	12.64	321	17.13	435	4.21	107
March	..	.66	16.8	78	19.8	8.74	222	17.96	456	16.78	426	3.03
April...	..	1.55	39.4	2.13	54.1	8.90	226	21.85	555	11.22	285	1.97
May	2.38	60.5	2.54	64.5	9.02	229	25.52	648	7.48	190	1.22
June	2.90	73.7	3.23	82.0	7.99	203	25.28	642	4.84	123	0.67
July	3.07	78.0	3.07	78.0	8.07	205	23.82	605	5.35	136	0.83
August	..	2.36	59.9	2.38	60.5	12.84	326	22.84	580	6.26	159	1.30
September	..	1.37	34.8	2.03	51.6	14.73	374	22.92	582	9.13	232	1.77
October	..	.62	15.8	.87	22.1	14.96	380	20.08	510	13.39	340	3.07
November	..	.24	6.1	.41	10.4	10.79	274	15.12	384	18.00	457	4.02
December	..	.10	2.5	.26	6.6	9.84	250	10.75	273	22.37	568	4.88
Year	..	15.62	396.9	18.25	463.5	122.22	3104	229.88	5838	153.41	3896	32.84

The differences shown in this table illustrate quite forcibly the influence which evaporation may exercise upon climate, but the figures must not be taken as strictly comparable as the actual amount of evaporation depends upon so many conditions. The measurements given for Egypt are taken from a Wild's gauge which holds only a small body of water and gives a high figure for evaporation.

See Keeling: *Evaporation in Egypt and the Soudan* (1909).
 Craig: *Cairo Scientific Journal*, May (1912).

Extremes.—Generally used with reference to temperature or wind; in the first case to mean the highest and lowest temperatures recorded at an observing station in a day, a month or a year. The maximum and minimum temperatures are the extremes for the day; the extremes for Greenwich for January, 1914, were 55° F. and 20° F., and for July 92° F. and 45° F. When the observations for a series of years are available we may find the normal or average extremes and **ABSOLUTE EXTREMES**.

With regard to wind the highest wind recorded in a gust shown on a pressure tube anemogram is the extreme wind, and the highest wind-force on the Beaufort Scale noted by an observer in the course of a gale is logged as the extreme for that gale. The strongest gust for the British Isles is given on p. 153, the highest hourly wind velocity is 34.9 m/s (78 mi/hr) recorded at Fleetwood in 1894.

Fahrenheit, Gabriel Daniel.—The improver of the thermometer and barometer, born 1686 at Dantzic. He used mercury instead of spirit of wine for thermometers and avoided negative temperatures by marking the freezing point of water 32°; the boiling point of water was subsequently marked 212°.

The Fahrenheit scale is still in common use in English-speaking countries and it is convenient because the size of the degree is convenient and temperatures below 0° F. are of rare occurrence at the Earth's surface, except in the polar (Arctic and Antarctic) regions and the continental countries bordering thereupon. In fact, the range 0° F. to 100° F. is a very serviceable range for the climates of the temperate zone. But the investigation of the upper air has necessitated the frequent use of temperatures on the negative side of the Fahrenheit zero, temperatures as low as 100° below zero occur, and to have the zero in the middle of the working scale is very inconvenient. In the physical laboratory too, temperatures approaching 500° below the freezing point are realised in experiments on the condensation of hydrogen and helium.

Probably the best scale for all purposes would be in Fahrenheit degrees measured from 459° below the Fahrenheit zero which is computed to be within half a degree of the zero of absolute temperature. In that case 500° would correspond with 41° F. or 5° C. But the growing prevalence of the Centigrade or Celsius scale in countries which do not speak English has led to the use of temperatures measured in the centesimal degrees from the zero of absolute temperature computed as 273° below the freezing point of water.

For a table of conversion of the various scales in use see under TEMPERATURE.

Fall.—"The fall of the leaf" in common use with American writers for Autumn.

Fluid.—A substance which flows, to be distinguished from a solid which will not flow. Some fluids are very viscous like pitch or treacle and take a long time to flow,

others are mobile like water or petrol and take very little time to flow until the surface becomes level. Gases are included in the general term fluid, because they also will flow through a pipe. Their peculiarity is that they can be compressed by pressure and expanded indefinitely on the release of pressure. The density, *i.e.*, the amount that can be got into a limited space, is, in fact, almost exactly proportional to the pressure.

So when we find a large mass of gaseous fluid like the atmosphere lying upon the earth's surface, it is dense in the surface layer which has to carry the weight of all there is above it; and as the pressure gets less and less, upward, the density gets less and less until space is reached. We do not know what happens where the atmosphere merges into space, but we are sure that the earth, with the aid of gravity, carries its atmosphere along without losing any appreciable amount into the void.

Fog.—Obscurity of the atmosphere which impedes navigation or locomotion. It may be due to a cloud of water particles at the surface as sea-fogs and valley-fogs generally are, but an effective fog can be produced by clouds of dust; that is often the case off the West coast of Africa during the season of the Harmattan. In towns true water-fogs are generally rendered more opaque by loading with smoke and in some cases the obscurity of the atmosphere in towns that hardly amounts to fog may be due to the condensation produced by the gaseous products of combustion under the action of sunlight.

Sea-fog is apparently due most frequently to the passage of air over sea water colder than itself; there is first the cooling of the air by the contact with the cold water and

then the mixing up of the air near the surface by the eddy motion resulting in the cooling of a considerable thickness below the dewpoint. (See G. I. Taylor, *Scientific Results of the Voyage of the "Scotia,"* 1913.) Sea-fog is most prevalent in spring and summer when the air is warming rapidly. It does not often occur in the winter. See p. 134.

Land-fog, on the other hand, is an autumn or winter fog; it is generally due to cold air passing over relatively warm, moist ground. The process of cooling may be either by radiation or by a change of wind, but again the eddy motion is necessary to mix the warm, moist air close to the ground with the cold flood. Fogs of this kind are not infrequent in the early mornings of summer, but they persist sometimes through the day in autumn and winter. Autumn is its special season.

Anticyclonic weather with light airs is very favourable for land-fog and the ending of a period of anticyclonic weather is nearly always fog. Fog on our coasts is generally included in the forecasts for the British Isles when the wind changes from a Northerly or Easterly to a Southerly point.

The conditions for fog in London are set out in a Report of the Meteorological Office on fogs. M.O. publication No. 160.

Föhn.—The name given to certain dry, warm, relaxing winds of the valleys on the Northern side of the Alps. The general direction of the Föhn winds is from the South. The peculiar character of the air is accounted for by supposing that it comes from over the plains on the Southern side of the ridge. In its elevation it becomes dynamically cooled, and if condensation occurs and rain or snow is formed in it, the fall of temperature is so much restricted on account of the latent heat of the vapour which is condensed and left behind, that the air which forces its way down into the valleys on the north side, being dynamically warmed and dried, appears as a warm, dry wind. Some of the details of the process are still obscure because warm air does not naturally flow downhill, but the main outline of the process is certainly established and the subject has been studied in detail by Austrian meteorologists.

The Chinook wind of the Western prairies of America which comes down from the Rocky Mountains as a warm, dry wind evaporating a good deal of the prairie snow in winter is of similar character, and various other examples of what is known in meteorology as the Föhn effect occur from time to time on many hill sides. In regions like Norway, Greenland and the Antarctic Continent it complicates the temperature measurements very seriously.

Forecast.—The name given by Admiral R. FitzRoy to a statement of the weather to be anticipated in the near future from a study of a synoptic chart or "weather map." In the Meteorological Office the period of anticipation of a forecast does not exceed twenty-four hours, but when conditions shown on the map are favourable a more general statement of the probable weather for two

or three days is given in a form which is called "the further outlook."

In practice a forecast includes—

(1) A statement of the direction and force of the surface-wind and the changes therein which are expected within the period of the forecast.

(2) A statement of the state of the sky (as regards clouds), precipitation (rain, hail, snow or sleet) and temperature, whether it will be high or low for the time of year, or higher or lower than at the time of making the forecast.

(3) A note as to the probability of such occurrences as night-frost, fog, or thunder.

For these statements the forecaster depends upon the changes in the distribution of pressure which are indicated on the map, although these changes are not described in the forecast. They are, however, set out in a preliminary statement called the "general inference," and for the information of airmen the anticipated changes in the pressure gradient over the several districts are formulated and are expressed as an addition to the forecast giving the "wind at 1,500 feet." That height is chosen because the wind at that level is generally in close agreement with that computed from the distribution of pressure at the surface.

The direction and velocity quoted for 1,500 feet are sufficiently applicable for heights up to 3,000 or 4,000 feet as changes in the wind above the level of 1,500 feet are generally gradual. A Southerly, South-westerly, Westerly or North-westerly wind generally gets gradually stronger at higher levels and an Easterly wind often falls lighter and is replaced in the highest levels by a wind from a

Westerly quarter, but that is not always the case. The motion of clouds or the measurement of air-currents by observations of a pilot balloon are the only means available at present for guidance as to the changes in the higher level.

Freezing.—With reference to weather this word is used when the temperature of the air is below the freezing point of water 32° F., 273° A., 0° C.

American writers use the term of "a freeze" where we are accustomed to use "frost" to indicate freezing conditions persistent for a sufficient time to characterise the weather.

Frequency.—The number of times that a particular phenomenon of weather has happened in the course of a given period of time, generally a number of years. Here, for example, is a summary of the spells of wind from the Easterly quarter, according to the direction of the isobars, over S.E. England and Northern France in nine years.

Frequency Table.—Number of Spells of Wind of Specified Duration from N.E., E. or S.E., during the nine years 1904-1912 inclusive. England, South-East, and Northern France.

Duration of Spell.	January.		February.		March.		April.		May.		June.		July.		August.		September.		October.		November.		December.	
	No.	Days.	No.	Days.	No.	Days.	No.	Days.	No.	Days.	No.	Days.	No.	Days.	No.	Days.	No.	Days.	No.	Days.	No.	Days.	No.	Days.
1	12	1	7	1	13	1	15	1	15	1	19	1	13	1	13	1	11	1	12	1	13	1	11	1
2	7	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	10	2	7	2	6	2	5	2	8	2	4	2	4	2	2	2
3	2	3	5	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	—	—	3	3	7	3	1	3	—	—
4	3	4	—	4	—	—	1	4	1	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	1	1	1	1	—	—
5	—	5	—	—	—	—	2	—	4	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	—	6	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
7	—	7	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	—	8	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
10	—	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
11	—	11	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
12	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
13	—	13	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total No. of days of east wind.	58		44		63		71		74		65		53		55		76		75		53		42	
Total number of observations.	279		255		279		270		279		270		279		279		270		279		270		270	

In this case the number of years over which the observations extend is given, quite an arbitrary number, and thus the numbers for frequency of occurrence have to be considered with reference to the number of years selected. It is, however, usual to reduce frequency figures to a yearly average.

Here, for example, is the average frequency of gradient or geostrophic winds from different quarters over the South-East of England and Northern France obtained from observations for the nine years.

Frequency of winds (gradient) from different quarters. Average Number of Days in the several months of the year in which the Wind is from a specified quarter. South-East of England and Northern France.

—	N.E.	E.	S.E.	S.	S.W.	W.	N.W.	N.	Calms, &c.	Total.
January ...	3	2	2	2	9	6	2	1	4	31
February ..	3	1	1	4	7	6	3	2	1	28
March ...	4	2	1	3	7	5	2	2	5	31
April ...	5	2	1	2	6	5	2	4	3	30
May ...	4	2	2	2	5	4	2	2	6	31
June ...	5	1	1	3	6	4	3	4	3	30
July ...	4	1	1	1	6	5	3	4	6	31
August ...	2	1	1	2	10	6	3	2	4	31
September	4	3	2	2	5	4	3	4	3	30
October ...	3	3	2	5	7	3	3	2	4	31
November	3	2	1	3	7	7	2	1	4	30
December..	1	2	2	7	10	4	2	1	2	31

In view of the awkwardness of having to bear in mind the possible number of occurrences while considering the actual or average number, it is convenient to use the percentage frequency instead of the actual frequency. This plan is often adopted for giving the results of observations at sea, which are made six times a day, or every four hours.

For example, the percentage frequency of fog in the English Channel is given by the figures in the following table:—

Percentage Frequency of Fog and Mist in the English Channel.

[Based on four-hourly observations from ships during the 15 years 1893–1908.]

Month.	Number of observations.	Percentage of whole number of observations. Fog.	Percentage of whole number of observations. Mist.
January ...	1,187	2·5	15·8
February ...	1,185	2·8	22·9
March ...	1,241	3·8	24·5
April ...	1,424	4·8	24·4
May ...	1,501	4·4	26·9
June ...	1,363	5·6	30·2
July ...	1,260	3·8	26·3
August ...	1,206	3·2	17·3
September ...	1,264	1·3	17·0
October ...	1,454	1·6	16·5
November ...	1,284	1·1	15·0
December ...	1,294	1·5	18·2

Friction.—A word used somewhat vaguely in meteorological writings in dealing with the effect of the surface of the sea or of the land with its obstacles in the form of irregularity of surface, hills, buildings, or trees upon the flow of air in the lower layers of the atmosphere. The effect of the irregularities of surface is to produce turbulent motion in the lowest layer which gradually spreads upwards, if the wind goes on blowing, and consists of irregular eddies approaching to regularity in the case of a cliff eddy which can be noticed when a strong wind blows directly on to a cliff and produces an eddy with a horizontal axis. An account of the eddy caused by the Eastern face of the rock of Gibraltar is given in the *Journal of the Aeronautical Society*, Vol. 18, 1914, p. 184.

The general effect of this so-called friction is to reduce the flow of air past an anemometer so that the recorded wind velocity is below that which would be experienced if the anemometer were high enough to be out of the reach of the surface effect. Numerical values for this effect are of great practical importance because they are concerned with the change of velocity in the immediate neighbourhood of the ground. But it is not easy to obtain them because every exposure near land or sea is more or less affected, and, therefore, no proper standard of reference can be obtained by direct observation. Recourse is, therefore, had to the computation of the wind from the distribution of pressure, the so-called “geostrophic” or GRADIENT WIND.

From the comparison of a long series of geostrophic and observed winds we conclude that over the open sea or on an exposed spit of flat sand like Spurn Head the wind loses one-third of its velocity from “friction,” and at other well-exposed stations the loss is, on the average, as

much as 60 per cent., but for any particular anemometer it is different for winds from different quarters because the exposure seaward or landward is different. Information on this point for a number of Meteorological Office stations is given in a memoir by Mr. J. Fairgrieve (*Geophysical Memoirs*, Vol. 1, p. 189), and information for other stations is in process of compilation at the Meteorological Office.

The consequence of this effect can sometimes be seen in weather maps. On one occasion when the whole of the British Isles was covered with parallel isobars running nearly West and East, all the stations on the Western side gave the wind as force 8 (42 mi/hr) while those on the Eastern side gave force 5 (21 mi/hr), so that the velocity was reduced by one-half in consequence of the "friction" of the land. If the velocity at the exposed Western stations be taken at two-thirds the velocity of the wind free from friction, we get the following interesting result which is probably correct enough for practical use:—One-third of the velocity is lost by the sea friction on the Western side and one-third more by the land friction of the country between West and East.

Frost.—According to British meteorological practice frost occurs when the temperature of the air is below the freezing point of water (see FREEZING); it may be either local, as a ground-frost, a spring-frost or a night-frost often is, or general, such as a frost which gives bearing ice in the course of three or four days. But the word would hardly be used unless there were water or plants or something else to be frozen, so that its use is generally restricted to the lowest levels of the atmosphere.

We should hardly speak of a frost in relation to the cold of the upper air or even of a mountain top.

Meteorologically, the difference between the conditions for a general frost and those for a local frost is so great that different words are needed. The American meteorologists have some reason, therefore, in speaking of a general meteorological frost as "a freeze."

The British Isles are accessible for a freeze or general frost in two ways, first by Northerly winds bringing cold air from the Arctic regions over the North Atlantic, round a high pressure lying over the Greenland-Iceland region, secondly by Easterly or South-Easterly winds coming round a high pressure over Scandinavia and Northern Europe which in the winter is persistently cold. The Northerly wind has to cross a considerable stretch of the north-eastern extension of the Gulf-stream water, so that it has to travel quickly to avoid being warmed. Consequently, Northerly "freezes" are generally short and sharp. The more prolonged frosts are generally caused by the Easterly winds which have only a short stretch of sea to cross. A long freeze may begin with a Northerly wind and snow followed by a persistent Easterly wind.

The short frosts or night frosts may occur with very light winds from any quarter except between South and West; they are characteristic of clear nights with great loss of heat from the ground by radiation to the clear sky. The conditions are set out in detail in a pamphlet prepared in the Meteorological Office and reprinted in "*Forecasting Weather*," Chapter XII.

Low temperatures are often quoted as *degrees of frost*, meaning thereby the number of degrees below the freezing point of water.

The seasonal variation may be expressed as follows :—

The chances against there being a gale on any part of the coasts of the British Isles are on any day in—

July	39 to 1
August	18 to 1
September	10 to 1
October	5 to 1
November	5 to 1
December	4 to 1
January	4 to 1
February	5 to 1
March	5 to 1
April	11 to 1
May	20 to 1
June	43 to 1

For special localities tables of local statistics must be consulted. Some guidance may be obtained from the diagrams given under the heading *wind*.

Gas.—The name used for any kind of fluid which has unlimited capacity for expansion under diminishing pressure. It is to be distinguished from a liquid which has only a limited capacity for expansion under reduced pressure.

A liquid may occupy only the lower part of a vessel like a bottle; it will flow to the bottom of the vessel and leave a "free" surface. But a gas cannot be located in that way; its volume is determined not by the amount of material but by the size of the vessel which contains it and by the pressure upon its boundaries.

There are many different kinds of gas, such as nitrogen, hydrogen, carbonic acid, coal-gas, marsh-gas, and so on;

but the word is often used when coal-gas is meant, and recently it has been used for heavy poisonous gas of unspecified composition. In scientific practice gas means any substance which obeys approximately the gaseous laws; these laws are two, viz. :—

1. When the temperature is kept constant the pressure of a gas is inversely proportional to the volume which it occupies, or the density is directly proportional to the pressure.
2. When the volume is kept constant the pressure is proportional to the absolute temperature, or when the pressure is kept constant the volume is proportional to the absolute temperature.

Glacier.—A river of ice flowing slowly but irresistibly down the valleys of those regions which have a perpetual supply of snow to feed the head of the glacier. The explanation of the gradual flow of ice down valleys under the action of gravity, forms a special section of physics and is another illustration of the peculiarities of the material of which water is composed. Glaciers are not only of climatic importance but in dynamical meteorology, with rivers, they deserve consideration as showing the line along which air flows when the excess of density due to cooling is the primary reason for the movement. From the analogy we may conclude that a gully is no protection against *katabatic* winds but rather the reverse.

Glazed Frost.—When rain falls with the temperature below the freezing point a layer of smooth ice, which may attain considerable thickness, is formed upon all objects exposed to it. This is known as glazed frost. The accumulation of ice is frequently sufficient to bring down telegraph wires. In these islands the phenomenon is one of comparative rarity.

It must be distinguished from SILVER THAW, which occurs when a warm, damp wind supervenes upon severe cold, the moisture condensing on still-freezing surfaces and thus producing a coat of ice, similar in appearance to glazed frost. Super-cooled water-drops are said to be the cause of glazed frost.

Gradient.—A convenient word rather overworked in modern meteorology. We use it in pressure gradient, temperature gradient, potential gradient, to denote different ideas. In pressure gradient for any locality we imagine the distribution of sea-level pressure to be mapped out by isobars; take a line through the locality at right angles to the isobars nearest to it on either side and measure the step of barometric pressure which corresponds with a measured distance along the line from high pressure to low. This use of gradient was introduced by Thomas Stevenson, C.E., of the Board of Northern Lights. It corresponds with an engineer's use of the word gradient in specifying a slope from a map of contours, but to get the pressure-gradient we have first to determine the line along which the slope is steepest, so that pressure-gradient has a definite direction. There is a convention that the distance to be taken is 15 nautical miles and the step of pressure is to be given in hundredths of an inch. The gradient will work out at practically the same figure if the distance is a geographical degree and the step of pressure is given in millimetres. To get the same figure for the gradient with the step of pressure in millibars the distance would have to be taken as 45 nautical miles. But numerical values of the gradient are very seldom quoted.

Temperature gradient may be based on the same idea and give the rate of change of temperature, along the horizontal through a locality, at right angles to the isotherms, as obtained from a chart of isotherms properly corrected for height. But it is much more frequently used to indicate the step of temperature for a kilometre step of vertical height. Used in this sense temperature gradient may be positive or negative, and by international agreement the temperature gradient is positive when the step is towards lower temperature for increasing height, because temperature generally decreases aloft; but it does not always do so. The change from positive to negative temperature gradient is called an **INVERSION** of temperature gradient or simply an "inversion", and so an "inversion" comes to mean a region where temperature increases with height.

Potential gradient is used for the change of atmospheric electrical potential in the vertical, and for that alone. It is generally given in volts per metre. That also may be positive or negative and is taken to be positive when the potential difference from the ground increases with height.

It is unfortunate that a better name than gradient is not coined for these rates of change in the vertical.

The pressure gradient is the one which comes most frequently into practical consideration as it is closely related to the direction and force of the wind, so that the idea of pressure gradient should always be present in the mind of a student of weather maps though the gradient may seldom be evaluated in figures. On looking over a map the localities where the gradient is steep will always

be noticeable by the closeness of the isobars. The determination of the pressure gradient is comparatively easy when the isobars in the locality are free from local irregularity and nearly parallel. There is then no difficulty in identifying the direction of the gradient, because the line drawn at right angles to successive isobars is approximately straight for a sufficient distance on the map. Experience is required to make a workable estimate of the gradient when the isobars are irregular. In practice the gradient is not taken by setting out a length of 15 or 60 or 45 nautical miles, but by scaling the distance apart of consecutive isobars. It is most convenient to express this distance in nautical miles because 60 nautical miles make up a degree of latitude, and every map made for meteorological purposes is scaled according to latitude. If, for example, isobars are drawn for steps of 5 millibars, and the shortest line drawn to bridge two isobars across a station scales out at 75 nautical miles; the gradient is 1 millibar for 15 nautical miles, or 3 on the conventional scale of pressure gradients. For calculation in C.G.S. units it is convenient to have the gradient expressed in terms of millibars for 100 kilometres.

It is best to use a large scale map for obtaining pressure gradients so that intermediate isobars can be inserted by estimation when those drawn for the ordinary steps are not regular, but with the best maps the estimation of the gradient is sometimes uncertain on account of local irregularities of pressure which may be indicated on a barogram but cannot be allowed for in a map based on telegraphic reports from stations 100 miles (160 kilometres) apart.

Some of the steepest authentic gradients that have been noted on British weather maps are :—

Date and Place.	Gradient.	
	Inter-national measure.	Millibars per 100 kilometre.
1912, August 26, East Anglia (Norwich floods).	11·0	13·2
1907, February 20, between Iceland and Faroe.	10·0	12·0
1912, November 26, West of Scotland.	9·7	11·7

Gradient Wind.—The flow of air which is necessary to balance the pressure-gradient. The direction of the gradient wind is along the isobars and the velocity is so adjusted that there is equilibrium between the force pressing the air inwards, towards the low pressure, and the centrifugal action to which the moving air is subject in consequence of its motion.

In the case of the atmosphere the centrifugal action may be due to two separate causes; the first is the tendency of moving air to deviate from a GREAT CIRCLE in consequence of the rotation of the earth; the deviation is towards the right of the air as it moves in the Northern hemisphere and towards the left in the Southern. The second is the centrifugal force of rotation in a circle round a central point according to the well-known formula for any spinning body. In this case we regard

the air as spinning round an axis through the centre of its path. This part of the centrifugal action is due to the curvature of the path on the earth's surface. Both components of the centrifugal action are in the line of the pressure gradient: the part due to the rotation of the earth is always tending to the right in the Northern hemisphere, the part due to the curvature of the path goes against the gradient from low to high when the curvature is cyclonic, and with the gradient when it is anticyclonic, so that in the one case we have the gradient balancing the sum of the components due to the earth's rotation and the spin, and in the other case the gradient and the spin-component balance the action due to the earth's rotation.

The formal reasoning which leads up to this result is given at the end of this article. The method used therein for calculating the effect of the rotation of the earth was suggested to the writer in 1904 by Sir John Eliot, F.R.S., Director of the Indian Meteorological Service.

For the sake of brevity in reference to these two components it is very convenient to have separate names for them. Let us call the one due to the rotation of the earth the *geostrophic* component and the one due to the curvature of the path the *cyclostrophic* component.

Consider the relative magnitude of these components under different conditions. It will be noticed that the geostrophic component depends upon latitude, the cyclostrophic component does not, so, other things being equal, their relative importance will depend upon the latitude; so we will take three cases, one near the equator at latitude 10° within the equatorial belt of low pressure, one near the pole latitude 80° of undetermined meteorological character, and one, half-way, between, in

latitude 45° , a region of highs and lows travelling Eastward.

When the radius of the path is 120 nautical miles the geostrophic component is equal to the cyclostrophic—

in latitude 10° when V is 5.6 metres per second;

in latitude 45° when V is 22.9 metres per second;

in latitude 80° when V is 31.9 metres per second.

It will be seen that in the equatorial region the cyclostrophic component is dominant as soon as the wind reaches a very moderate velocity.

EQUATION FOR GEOSTROPHIC WIND.

The Relation between the Earth's Rotation and the Pressure Distribution for Great-Circle-Motion of Air.

The rotation ω of the earth about the polar axis can be resolved into $\omega \sin \phi$ about the vertical at the place where latitude is ϕ and $\omega \cos \phi$ about a line through the earth's centre parallel to the tangent line.

The latter produces no effect in deviating an air current any more than the polar rotation does on a current at the equator.

The former corresponds with the rotation of the earth's surface counterclockwise in the Northern Hemisphere and clockwise in the Southern Hemisphere under the moving air with an angular velocity $\omega \sin \phi$. We therefore regard the surface over which the wind is moving as a flat disc rotating with an angular velocity $\omega \sin \phi$.

By the end of an interval t the air will have travelled Vt , where V is the "wind-velocity," and the earth underneath its new position will be at a distance $Vt \times \omega t \sin \phi$, measured along a small circle,



from its position at the beginning of the time t .

Taking it to be at right angles to the path, in the limit when t is small, the distance the air will appear to have become displaced to the right over the earth is $V \omega t^2 \sin \phi$.

This displacement on the " $\frac{1}{2}gt^2$ " law (since initially there was no transverse velocity) is what would be produced by a transverse acceleration

$$2 \omega V \sin \phi.$$

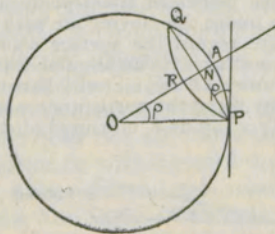
\therefore the effect of the earth's rotation is equivalent to an acceleration $2 \omega V \sin \phi$, at right angles to the path directed to the right in the Northern Hemisphere, and to the left in the Southern Hemisphere.

In order to keep the air on the great circle, a force corresponding with an equal but oppositely directed acceleration is necessary. This force is supplied by the pressure distribution.

EQUATION FOR CYCLOSTROPHIC WIND.

Force necessary to balance the acceleration of air moving uniformly in a small circle, assuming the earth is not rotating.

Let A be centre of circle PRQ . Join PQ , cutting the radius OA in N . Acceleration of particle moving uniformly along the small circle with velocity V is $\frac{V^2}{PN}$ along $PN = \frac{V^2}{R \sin \rho}$ where R = radius of earth;



where ρ is the angular radius of the small circle representing the path.

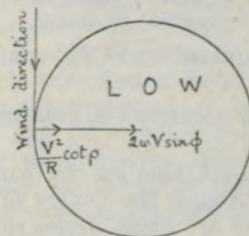
The horizontal component of this acceleration, that is, the component along the tangent at P , is $\frac{V^2 \cos \rho}{R \sin \rho} = \frac{V^2}{R} \cot \rho$.

GENERAL EQUATION CONNECTING PRESSURE GRADIENT, EARTH'S ROTATION, CURVATURE OF PATH OF AIR AND WIND VELOCITY.

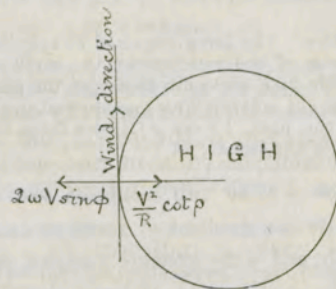
I. *Cyclonic motion.* The force required to keep the air moving on a great circle in spite of the rotation of the earth must be such as to give an acceleration $2 \omega V \sin \phi$ directed over the path to the left in the Northern Hemisphere. It must also compensate an acceleration due to the curvature of the path, $V^2 \cot \rho / R$ by a force directed towards the low pressure side of the isobar.

For steady motion these two combined are equivalent to the acceleration due to the gradient of pressure, i.e., $\frac{\gamma}{D}$ where D is the density of the air, and γ the pressure gradient, directed towards the low pressure side.

$$\therefore \frac{\gamma}{D} = 2 \omega V \sin \phi + \frac{V^2}{R} \cot \rho.$$



II. *Anticyclonic motion.* In this case $2\omega V \sin \phi$ and $\frac{\gamma}{D}$ are directed outwards from the region of high pressure, and the equation becomes

$$\frac{\gamma}{D} = 2\omega V \sin \phi - \frac{V^2}{R} \cot \rho.$$


Gramme.—The unit of mass on the C.G.S. system. It is one-thousandth part of the standard kilogramme, which was originally constructed to represent the weight of a litre (cubic decimetre) of water.

A gramme is equivalent to $15\frac{1}{2}$ grains, or rather more than one-thirtieth of an ounce.

A pound is equivalent to 454 grammes.

Great Circle.—A line on the earth's surface which lies in a plane through the centre of the earth's figure. All meridian lines are great circles so is also the equator, but all lines of latitude, with the exception of the equator, are small circles since their planes do not pass through the earth's centre. The visible horizon is a small circle.

The great circle which passes through two points on the earth's surface is made up of the shortest and the longest track between the two points. The shortest track is less than a semicircle, the longest greater than a semicircle.

Gust.—A “coup de vent.” The word was used originally for any transient blast of wind but is now limited to the comparatively rapid fluctuations in the strength of the wind which are specially characteristic of winds near the surface of the earth, and are probably due to the turbulent or eddy motion arising from the FRICTION offered by the ground to the flow of the current of air.

The subject of gusts, as indicated by a pressure-tube anemograph, has been investigated for the Advisory Committee for Aeronautics by the Meteorological Office, and the results are contained in four reports on Wind Structure published in the annual reports of the Committee. The number and extent of the fluctuations are very irregular; they have been counted as seventeen in the minute but another count would probably give a different figure. If the wind be regarded as fluctuating between a gust and a lull the range between gusts and lulls is dependent on the one hand on the mean velocity of the wind, and on the other hand upon the nature of the exposure of the anemometer. Expressing the fluctuations as a percentage of the mean velocity we get the following results for various anemometers. (*Report of the Advisory Committee, 1910.*)

Anemometer.	Range of Fluctuation as a Percentage of the Mean Velocity.
Southport (Marsh side)	30 per cent.
Scilly (St. Mary's)	50 "
Shoeburyness, E.N.E. wind	30 "
" W. wind	80 "
Holyhead (Salt Island)	50 "
Falmouth (Pendennis), S. wind	25 "
" " W. wind	50 "
Aberdeen	100 "
Alnwick	80 "
Kew	100 "

In this table a fluctuation of 100 per cent. means that a wind with a mean velocity of 30 miles per hour fluctuates over a range of 30 miles per hour between 15 miles an hour and 45 miles an hour in consequence of the gustiness.

The most gusty exposure within the experience of the Meteorological Office is at Dyce in Aberdeenshire, where, for the purpose of inquiry, an anemometer was installed by Dr. J. E. Crombie, with its head projecting 15 feet above the tree-tops of a small wood.

Gusts are to be distinguished from squalls. A squall is a blast of wind occurring suddenly, lasting for some minutes at least, and dying away as suddenly. A squall is attributable to meteorological causes, whereas gusts are the result of mechanical interference with the steady flow of air.

The strongest gusts recorded on anemometers of the Meteorological Office in recent years are :—

	m/s.	mi/hr.
1905. Pendennis,	46·0	103
1906. Scilly,	38·4	86
1907. Southport,	36·2	81
1908. Scilly,	37·6	84
1909. Scilly,	40·2	90
1910. Pendennis,	38·9	87
1911. Eskdalemuir,	40·2	90
1912. Pendennis,	43·8	98
1913. Southport,	38·4	86

Gustiness.—The name given to the factor which is used to define the range of the gusts shown on the record of an anemometer. The gustiness of an interval is the factor (maximum velocity — minimum velocity) ÷ mean velocity.

The figures given for the fluctuations of wind in the records of various anemometers given above may be called the "percentage gustiness" of the winds. To obtain an estimate of the relative gustiness of the winds in the upper air, Mr. J. S. Dines used the pull of a kite wire defining the gustiness as

(maximum pull—minimum pull) ÷ mean pull.

Using this method it appears that gustiness falls off rapidly in the first 500 feet of ascent and thereafter it is irregular. (*Second Report on Wind Structure*, p. 10.)

Hail.—Usually described as frozen raindrops, though hailstones are often very much larger than any raindrop can possibly be. Hail is formed in the columns of rapidly ascending air that are part of the mechanical process of a rain-storm or thunderstorm. They are associated with

the cumulo-nimbus type of cloud. The convection currents which begin with instability in the atmosphere result first in heavy cloud and then in raindrops still carried upward in air which is automatically becoming colder in consequence of the diminished pressure. So the drops may freeze and then any further upward journey may result in condensation in the form of ice on the already formed hailstone.

To maintain a mass of water or ice in the air a very vigorous ascending current is required. If a raindrop reaches a certain size it is broken up into smaller drops by the current which is necessary to keep it from falling, but when the hailstone is once formed there is no limitation of that kind upon its growth.

From their structure which is often very composite, it is clear that hailstones have a long history, and from their size, which may be large enough to give measurements, it is said, of three or four inches in diameter, a pound or more in weight, they must have required ascending currents of great velocity to support them.

There is, however, evidence to show that some of the strongest winds of the earth are katabatic winds, that is, they are due to falling air, so it requires only a special adjustment of the temperature of the environment to give rise to currents of rising air, anabatic winds, of the most violent character.

Halo.—A large luminous ring with the sun or the moon as centre and a radius of 22° . When of no great intensity the ring appears white, but when more strongly developed the edge nearest the sun is a pure red, with orange, yellow and green more faintly indicated. (See *Observer's Handbook*, p. 57.)

Halos are very varied in form, they are produced by the REFRACTION of the sun's rays, or the moon's rays, through a cloud of ice crystals forming what is called cirro-nebula or cirrus-haze, one of the highest forms of cloud. They are of great interest from the point of view of the physics of the atmosphere, but they have no meteorological significance. In weather lore they are often spoken of as presaging storms and it is possible that the ice cloud is one of the earliest results of the fall of pressure with which the storm is associated; but the formation of a halo is not by any means a necessary step in the preparation of a storm; many storms arrive without announcing their coming in that way. Moreover, the appearance of a halo at the end of a spell of dirty weather is said to be a sign of clearing. We may perhaps conclude that cirro-nebula, with no other clouds in the sky to interfere (the condition for seeing a halo), may be found at the beginning or the end of a depression.

Haze.—Obscurity of the atmosphere which may occur in dry weather and may be due to dust or smoke or merely to irregularities of density and consequent irregular refraction of the light by which distant objects are seen. During Harmattan winds off the West Coast of Africa, dust haze is thick enough to be classed as fog. At sea the weather is often classed as hazy when there is no distant horizon, and yet no visible mist or fog. The obscurity may, however, be due to water particles. It would therefore be desirable to limit the use of the word haze to occasions when the air is not very damp, that is, when there is a noticeable difference between the wet and the dry bulb.

Heat.—The name used for the immediate cause of the sensation of warmth, a primary sensation which is easily recognised and needs no explanation. As used in relation to the weather, heat and cold are familiar words for opposite extremes of temperature of the air. What the American writers call a heat-wave is a spell of hot weather in which the maximum temperatures reach 90° or 100° F. (above 305° A.), and a cold-wave is a spell of the opposite character during which temperatures in the neighbourhood of the Fahrenheit zero, or 32° of frost, may be experienced. In continental climates, during the passage of severe cycloic depressions, the transitions from heat to cold are sometimes extremely abrupt and far-reaching; a difference of temperature of 50° F. in a few hours is not unknown. We have visitations of similar character in this country, but they are less intense. A few days in succession with a temperature over 80° F. would suffice for a heat-wave, and a few days with 10° of frost would certainly be called a cold-wave. One of the most noticeable features of our climate is the succession of cold spells which interrupt the genial weather of late spring and early summer. They are not very intense, but a drop in the mean temperature of the day from 55° F. to 45° F., which roughly defines them, produces a very distinct impression.

As used in connexion with the study of the atmosphere heat has another sense which must not be overlooked. It denotes the physical quantity, the reception of which makes things warmer, its departure makes them colder. If you wish to make water hot, you supply heat to it from a fire or a gas-burner or, in modern days, by an electric heater, a very convenient contrivance for getting heat exactly where you want it. On the other hand, if you

want water to become cooler, you leave it where its heat can escape, by CONDUCTION, aided by CONVECTION or by RADIATION. You can also warm water by adding some hot water to it, or cool it by adding cold water to it. Either process suggests the idea of having the same quantity of heat to deal with altogether, but distributing it, or diluting it, by mixing.

The idea of having a definite quantity of heat to deal with, and passing it from one body to another is so easily appreciated and so generally applicable, that the older philosophers used to talk confidently of heat as a substance which they called Caloric, and which might be transferred from one body to another without losing its identity. They measured heat, as we do still, by noting by how much it would raise the temperature of a measured quantity of water. For students of physics the unit of heat is still a *gramme-calorie*, the heat which will raise a gramme of water through one degree centigrade. To raise m grammes from $t_1^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $t_2^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m(t_2 - t_1)$ gramme calories are required. The amount can be recovered, if none has been lost meanwhile, by cooling the water. If we wish to be very precise, a small correction is required on account of the variation in what is called the capacity for heat of water at different temperatures, but that need not detain us.

For students of engineering the unit, called the British Thermal Unit, is a pound-Fahrenheit unit instead of the gramme-centigrade unit and the heat required to raise m pounds of water from $t_1^{\circ}\text{F}$ to $t_2^{\circ}\text{F}$ is $m(t_2 - t_1)$ B.T.U.

It is in many ways a misfortune that both sets of students do not use the same unit. It is no doubt a good

mental exercise to learn to use either indiscriminately without confusion, but it takes time.

From measurements of heat we get the idea that with different substances the same change of temperature requires different quantities of heat; the substances have different capacities for heat. We define *capacity for heat* as the heat required to raise a unit of the substance (1 gramme or 1 lb.) through 1 degree.

It is a remarkable fact that of all common substances water has the greatest capacity for heat. It takes one unit to raise the temperature of a unit mass of water one degree, it takes less than a unit, sometimes only a small fraction of a unit, to raise the temperature of the same amount of another substance through one degree. We give the name *specific heat* to the ratio of the capacity for heat of any substance to the capacity for heat of water. Numerically specific heat is the same as the capacity for heat in thermal units.

The specific heat of water is 1, the specific heat of any other common substance is less than 1. The specific heat of copper is only $1/11$. So the heat which will raise the temperature of a pound of copper 1° will only raise the temperature of a pound of water $1/11^\circ$, or the heat which will raise the temperature of a mass of water 1° will raise the temperature of the same mass of copper 11° .

This peculiar property of water makes it very useful for storing heat and carrying it about. From that point of view it is the best of all substances for cooling the condenser of an engine, for distributing heat at a moderate temperature in a circulating system and for many other economic purposes.

In meteorology its influence is very wide. Large masses of water, of which the ocean is a magnificent example, are huge store houses which take up immense quantities of heat from the air when it is warm and give it out again when the air is cold, with very little change in its own temperature, so that a large lake, and still more the ocean, has a great influence in reducing the extremes of temperature of summer and winter, and of day and night, in the countries which border it.

There is another remarkable storage of heat in which water takes a predominant share, that is dealt with in physical science under the name of *latent heat*.

Water at 288° A. (59° F.) cannot be evaporated into water-vapour unless every gramme of it is supplied with 589 calories of heat which produce no effect at all upon the temperature. The water is at 288° A. to start with and the water-vapour is at exactly the same temperature and yet 589 calories of heat have gone. They are *latent* in the water-vapour but produce no effect on the thermometer. You can get them back again easily enough if you condense the vapour back again into water, but you must manage somehow to take away the heat while the condensation is taking place. The separation of "the waters that are above the firmament from the waters that are below the firmament," or in modern language, the evaporation of water from the sea or a lake or the wet earth and its condensation in the form of clouds and rain, implies the transference of enormous quantities of heat from the surface to the upper air, the dynamical effect of which belongs to another chapter of the romantic story of heat which deserves more than the few words which we can afford for it. Readers can find one interesting account in Tyndall's *Heat a Mode of Motion*.

The idea of heat as an indestructible substance, caloric, which could be transferred from one body to another without loss, became untenable when it was found that when air was allowed to expand in a cylinder it cooled spontaneously to an extent that corresponded exactly, so far as could be ascertained, with the means then available, with the amount of mechanical work that the cylinder was allowed to do. It was the last step in the process of reasoning by which men had come to the conclusion that, when *mechanical work* was devoted to churning water or some other frictional process heat was actually produced, not brought from some other substance but created by the frictional process.

It took many years for men to reconcile themselves to so novel an idea, and a good deal of ingenuity was devoted to trying to evade it, but it has now become the foundation stone of physical science. Heat is not an unalterable indestructible substance but a form of *energy*. It can do mechanical work in a steam-engine or a gas engine or an oil-engine, but for every foot-pound* of work that is done a corresponding amount of heat must disappear, and in place of it a corresponding amount of some other form of energy is produced. A good deal of heat, besides, may be wasted for practical purposes in the process. In a steam engine of the whole amount of heat used only one tenth may be transformed, the rest wasted as we have said; but it is still there raising the

* A *foot-pound* of work is the work done in lifting one pound through a distance of one foot.

A *gramme-centimetre* is the work done lifting one gramme through one centimetre.

An *erg* is the absolute unit of work on the C.G.S. system; 1 gramme centimetre = 981 ergs.

temperature of the water of the condenser or performing some other unproductive but necessary duty.

There is, therefore, a numerical equivalent between heat and other forms of energy.

We give the relation :—

1 B.T.U. is equivalent to 777 foot-pounds of energy.

1 gramme-calorie = 42,640 gramme-centimetres.

= 41,840,000 ergs.

We have led up to this statement in order to point out how extraordinarily powerful heat can be in producing mechanical energy.

If, in the operations of nature one single cubic metre of air gets its temperature reduced by 1° C. in such a way that the heat is converted into work by being made to move air the equivalent of energy would be a cubic metre of air moving with a velocity of nearly 45 m/s. (101 mi/hr.).

So familiar have we become with heat as a form of energy that we measure the heat of sunlight in joules* and the intensity of sunshine in watts per square centimetre, *i.e.*, the number of joules falling on one square centimetre per second.

THE SPECIFIC HEAT OF AIR.

The foregoing statement is necessary to lead up to a matter of fundamental importance in the physics of the atmosphere, namely the heat that is required or used to alter the temperature of air in the processes of weather;

* A *joule* is a more convenient unit than the small unit, the erg; one joule = ten million ergs (10^7 ergs) and one calorie = 4.18 joules.

The *watt* is a unit of power, that is, rate of doing work; a power of one watt does one joule of work per second.

in technical language this is the capacity for heat of air or the specific heat of air.

We have explained that when air is allowed to do work on its environment, in expanding, heat disappears, or more strictly is transformed. So the amount of heat required to warm air through a certain number of degrees depends upon how much expansion is allowed during the process. The most economical way of warming air from the thermal point of view is to prevent its expanding altogether; it then has "constant volume" and its specific heat is 0.1715 calories per gramme per degree A at 273° A. It is remarkable, but true, that if you have a bottle full of air, it will take more heat to raise the temperature of each gramme of it by a degree if you take the stopper out while the warming is going on, than if you keep it tight. The difference between warming a bottle of air with the stopper in and with it out, simple as it may seem, has got in it the whole principle of heat as a form of energy.

The effect of leaving the stopper out is that the pressure of the air inside the bottle is the atmospheric pressure for the time being and is therefore practically constant throughout the brief operation. So we get the specific heat of air at constant pressure 0.2417 gramme-calories per gramme per degree, or 1.010 joules. The specific heat of air at constant volume is 0.72 joules. The difference of the two represents the heat equivalent of the work used in expanding unit mass of the gas against atmospheric pressure.

High.—Sometimes used as a contraction for high barometric pressure. The technical term anticyclone was coined by Sir F. Galton for the purpose, but whether for the sake of brevity or for some other reason a "high" is often spoken of.

Hoar Frost.—A feathery deposit of ice formed upon leaves and twigs in the same way as DEW (*q.v.*) by the cooling of exposed objects through the radiation of their heat to the clear sky.

Horizontal—in the plane of the horizon. The surface of still water is horizontal. In dynamics and physics a horizontal line is a line at right-angles to the direction of the force of gravity which is vertical and identified by the plumb line.

The "sensible or visible horizon" which is visible from a ship at sea, the line where sea and sky apparently join, is a circle surrounding the observer a little below the plane of the horizon in consequence of the level of the earth's surface being curved and not flat. The depth of the "sensible horizon" below the "rational horizon" or horizontal plane is approximately the same as the elevation of the point from which the "sensible horizon" is viewed. Apart from any influence of the atmosphere the distance of the visible horizon for an elevation of 100 feet (30 metres) is about 12 miles. The actual distance is about 2 miles greater on account of refraction. It varies as the square root of the height so that it would require a height of 400 feet to give a horizon 24 miles off. A level canopy of clouds 10,000 feet high is visible from a point on the earth's surface for a distance of about 125 miles or the visible canopy has a width of 250 miles.

The Visible Horizon, or Distance of Visibility for objects of given height.

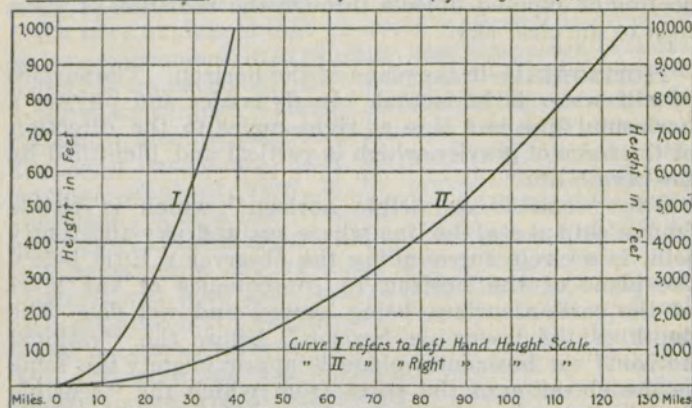


Diagram showing the relation between the height of an observation point in feet and the distance of the Visible Horizon in miles (neglecting refraction), or the height in feet of a cloud or other distant object and the distance in miles at which it is visible on the horizon.

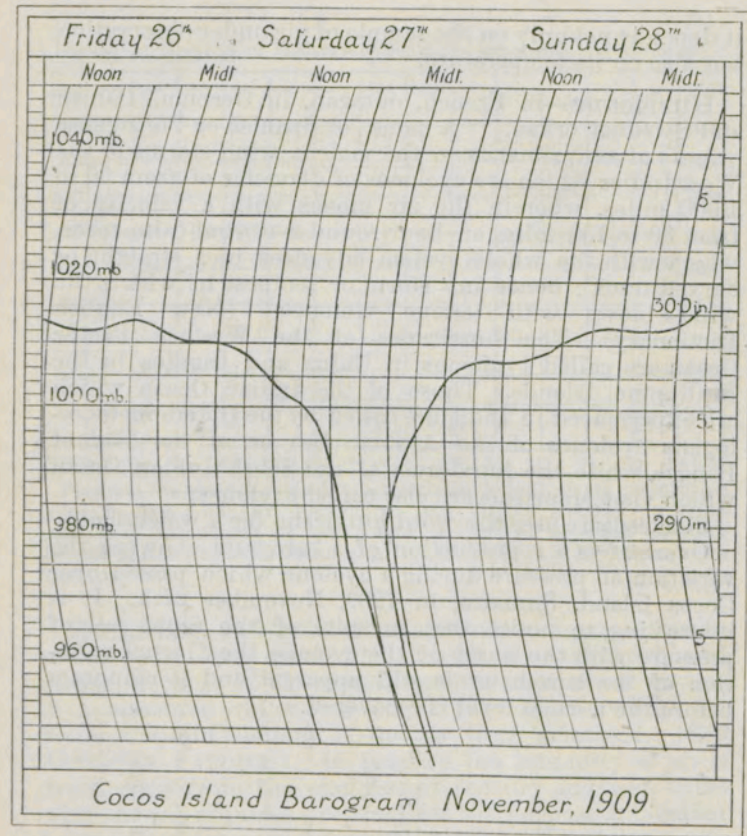
Humidity, in a general sense means dampness, but in meteorology it is used for **RELATIVE HUMIDITY** and means the ratio of the actual amount of aqueous vapour in a measured volume of air to the amount which the volume would contain if the air were saturated. (See **AQUEOUS VAPOUR**.) In practice the humidity of air is determined from the readings of the dry and wet bulbs with the aid of tables prepared for the purpose and called humidity tables or psychometric tables. Humidity is the most variable of the ordinary meteorological elements as

it depends not only on the sample of air under observation but also on its temperature.

Hurricane—in French, ouragan, in German, Danish and Swedish, orkan. "A name [of Spanish or Portuguese origin] given primarily to the violent wind storms of the West Indies which are cyclones of diameter of from 50 to 1,000 miles, wherein the air moves with a velocity of from 80 to 130 miles an hour round a central calm space, which with the whole system advances in a straight or curved track; hence any storm or tempest in which the wind blows with terrific violence" (New English Dictionary). The hurricanes of the Western Pacific Ocean are called typhoons in China and baguios in the Philippine Islands. Those of the Indian Ocean which are experienced in India are called by the Indian meteorologists cyclones of the Arabian Sea or of the Bay of Bengal, while the hurricanes of the South Indian Ocean which visit Mauritius are also called cyclones.

Shakespeare uses the word hurricano for a water-spout.

Overleaf is a reproduction of a barogram showing the variation of pressure during a cyclone which passed over Cocos Island, Sumatra, in 1909, November 27th. It is interesting to notice that in spite of the rapid fall of pressure with the onset of the cyclone the diurnal variation of the barometer is still apparent and it reappears before the normal level is recovered.



The occurrence of hurricanes shows a marked seasonal variation. The following table is taken from the *Barometer Manual for the Use of Seamen*.

Table of recorded Hurricanes, Cyclones, and Typhoons, in various parts of the World.

Region and Period.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
West Indies, 300 years ...	5	7	11	6	5	10	42	96	80	60	17	7	355
South Indian Ocean (38 years, 1848-1885).	71	61	59	50	19	3	2	—	—	5	25	33	328
Bombay, 25 years ...	1	1	1	5	9	2	4	5	8	12	9	5	62
Bay of Bengal, 139 years	2	—	2	9	21	10	3	4	6	31	18	9	115
China Sea, 85 years ...	5	1	5	5	11	10	22	40	58	35	16	6	214
Arabian Sea, 1877-1903...	—	—	—	1	5	6	—	—	—	2	7	—	21
Bay of Bengal, 1877-1903	—	—	—	1	8	4	4	2	6	8	17	6	56
South Pacific, 1789-1891	36	22	35	8	1	—	—	—	2	1	4	16	125

The force of the wind which is experienced in hurricanes is equalled if not surpassed in the tornadoes which occur on the American Continent, but the area affected by a tornado is generally a narrow strip a few miles at most in width.

In the Beaufort Scale of wind force the name hurricane is given to a wind of force 12, and its velocity equivalent is set at an hourly velocity exceeding 34 m/s or 75 mi/hr, but from what has been said under GUST it must be understood that at all ordinary exposures a wind with an hourly velocity of 75 miles an hour will include gusts of considerably higher velocity reaching a hundred miles an hour or more. The strongest recorded gust in the British Isles marked 103 mi/hr on the anemometer at Pendennis Castle on March 14, 1905.

Hydrometer.—An instrument for measuring the density or specific gravity of sea water. (See *Marine Observer's Handbook*.)

Hydrosphere.—The name given to the layer of water of irregular shape and depth lying on the earth's surface, between the geosphere, or the solid earth below, and the atmosphere, the gaseous envelope above.

Hyetograph.—A self-recording RAIN-GAUGE, an instrument for recording automatically the fall of rain. (See *Observer's Handbook*.)

Hygrograph.—A self-recording HYGROMETER, an instrument for recording automatically the humidity of the atmosphere. Some form of hair hygrometer is generally employed for the purpose.

Hygrometer.—An instrument for determining the humidity of the atmosphere. Almost all materials exposed to the weather are affected by the humidity of the air, so that it is easy to form a rough estimate of whether the air is damp or dry. Many different materials such as hair, catgut, the awn or beard of the wild oat, flannel, have been used in instruments to give an indication of the state of the atmosphere in this respect. But for the purposes of meteorology there are three well-known forms of hygrometer: the hair hygrometer, the indications of which depend upon the length of a hair or a bundle of hairs in air of different states of moisture; the dew-point hygrometer, in which a polished surface is artificially cooled until a deposit of dew is produced and the dew-point determined; and the PSYCHROMETER, or wet and dry bulb hygrometer, in which the temperatures of a bulb covered with moistened muslin and a dry bulb close to it are read and the humidity determined by tables.

The psychrometer is in almost universal use at meteorological stations, as it is the least dependent upon the skill of the observer; but a few hair hygrometers are also employed for eye observations, and for automatic records either at the surface or in soundings with kites or BALLONS-SONDES the hair hygrometer is generally used.

Hygroscope.—An instrument for showing whether the air is dry or damp. If its indications are sufficiently regular to permit of graduations, it can be made into a HYGROMETER. Any substance which is *hygroscopic*, that is to say, which is affected in shape, size, or appearance by the variations of moisture in the air can be used as a hygroscope. A bundle of seaweed is sometimes used, the hygroscopic substance in that case is the salt, the

ordinary "Jacky and Jenny" in a toy house with a catgut support is another example.

Hypsometer.—The word is derived from *hypsos*, and means an instrument for measuring height, but it is employed exclusively for apparatus for determining very precisely the temperature of the boiling point of water. That amounts to the same thing as measuring the pressure at which the water is boiled, because the boiling point depends upon the pressure of the atmosphere, and a table of the relation between the two makes the reading of the temperature equivalent to a reading of the barometer.

Table of the boiling point of water under pressures occurring in the atmosphere up to about 8000 feet.

Boiling Point °A.	Pressure.	
	mm. of mercury at 0°C. sea level, lat. 45°.	mb.
374	787·67	1050·12
373	760·00	1013·23
372	733·16	977·45
371	707·13	942·74
370	681·88	909·08
369	657·40	876·44
368	633·66	844·79
367	610·64	814·10
366	588·33	784·36
365	566·71	755·54
364	545·77	727·62

From the pressure with a *corresponding reading lower down, which may, should, or must be assumed*, the height can be computed.

The advantage of the hypsometer for measuring heights is as a substitute for a mercury barometer, which is a troublesome instrument to carry on a journey of exploration. With a pair of thermometers that have all modern improvements, and with careful manipulation, the temperature can be measured to one-thousandth of a degree, corresponding approximately with ·001 inch, or ·03 millibar, that is to say, the pressure can be determined to the equivalent of one foot of height. That, however, is not to be attained by the inexperienced traveller in a hurry.

Iceberg.—A large mass of ice that breaks away from the tongue of a glacier running into the sea and floats away. An account of the subject is given in the *Seaman's Handbook*. Icebergs drift with favourable winds and currents into latitudes of forty or fifty degrees. The final period of their life history is not very well understood; there seems to be a sudden ending that is not accounted for. Nobody has apparently "stood by" an iceberg on the track of Atlantic steamers until the end came. Nor do we know through how many seasons, for example, a North Atlantic iceberg floats or lies aground between its "calving" and its dissolution. It probably weathers one season but collapses in the second.

Index, the pointer which moves on the scale of an instrument and by which the reading is taken. Two indexes, the two hands or fingers, are required to tell the time by a watch, but only one index is required in reading the barometer. The index in this case is the top of

the mercury column, so also in the ordinary thermometer the end of the mercury is the index. In a maximum thermometer the outer end of the detached thread of mercury is the index. In a minimum thermometer a special index is introduced into the spirit which is transparent. In both these cases the index has to be set after one reading to make it ready for another.

In like manner every measuring instrument has its index.

Index-error. See ERROR.

Insolation.—Exposure to sunshine; solarisation is also used in the same sense.

Inversion.—An abbreviation for “inversion of temperature-gradient” (see GRADIENT). The temperature of the air generally gets colder with increasing height but occasionally the reverse is the case, and when the temperature increases with height there is said to be an “inversion”.

There is generally an inversion at the top of a fog-layer, or, indeed, at the top of any layer of cloud. Inversions are shown in the diagram of variation of temperature with height in the upper air, p. 72, by the slope of the lines upwards towards the right instead of towards the left, which is the usual slope. In the troposphere inversions do not generally extend over any great range of height; the fall of temperature recovers its march until the lower boundary of the stratosphere is reached. There there is generally a slight inversion beyond which the region is isothermal so far as height is concerned. For that reason the lower boundary of the stratosphere is often called the “upper inversion”. In some soundings with balloons-sondes from Batavia

the inversion has been found to extend upwards for several kilometres from the commencement of the stratosphere.

It is important also to note that frequently in anticyclonic weather and especially cold anticyclonic weather there is often an inversion at the surface; the temperature increases upwards instead of decreasing.

Ion.—The name selected by Faraday for the component parts into which a chemical molecule is resolved in a solution by the electrolytic action of an electric current. Of the two component ions one is always electro-positive and the other electro-negative. The electro-negative ions consist of atoms of oxygen, chlorine or some other corresponding element or radicle, and the electro-positive ions consist of atoms of hydrogen, potassium, or some other metallic element or radicle. Each electro-positive ion is called a cation. It is charged with a definite quantity of positive electricity and travels with the electric current to the cathode, the conductor by which the current *leaves* the solution while the electro-negative ion, called the anion, is charged with an equal quantity of negative electricity and travels against the electric current to the anode, the conductor by which the current *enters* the solution.

It is supposed that a solution which will conduct an electric current is ionised by the spontaneous dissociation of the components of its molecules and the consequent formation of free ions carrying their appropriate electric charges. In a solution, recombination and dissociation are constantly going on and the electric current causes the free ions charged with positive electricity to move slowly with the current and those charged with negative electricity to move against the current.

Similarly, a gas may conduct electricity to a less extent but in the same way as in a solution when it contains free ions, which may be produced by the action of radioactive agents, ultra-violet light, very hot bodies, the combustion of flame and in other ways. The conduction of electricity through the atmosphere is now, therefore, attributed to the free ions which exist in it and its capacity for conducting electricity is attributed to its ionisation.

The ions in the air may be atoms of hydrogen or oxygen or they may be aggregates of those atoms with some other material.

Ionisation is the name given to the formation of free ions in a gas in consequence of which it is enabled to conduct electricity under the influence of a difference of electrical potential. The state of the air as regards ionisation can be measured by ascertaining how much electricity passes through it between two conductors, called electrodes, when there is a known electric stress between them. Ebert's apparatus is the one most commonly used for measuring the ionisation of the air.

Iridescence, a word formed from *Iris*, the rainbow, to indicate the rainbow-like colours which are sometimes seen on the edges of clouds. They are probably not due to the refraction of light by water drops, which produces the colours of the rainbow, but to the diffraction of light scattered by the very small water drops, and are to be classed like the corona with the iridescence of the opal and the mother-of-pearl.

Diffraction-colours formed in artificial clouds in the same way as in the corona, become more brilliant as the

cloud gets older and the drops more uniform in size. Hence it seems probable that an iridescent cloud is an old cloud that has been drifting for some time.

Isabnormals, see ISANOMALIES.

Isanomalies.—This word is a combination of the prefix ISO- and the word ANOMALY, which, like the more common adjective *anomalous*, signifies departure or deviation from normal. The normals used for reference are obtained on various plans. Normals of temperature have been obtained by taking the general mean of the observed temperatures of successive parallels of latitude and thus assigning a normal temperature to each latitude; isanomalies of temperature are then the departures of mean temperature for any place from the normal for its latitude; places that are relatively warm for their latitude have a positive anomaly, and places that are relatively cold for their latitude a negative one. Isanomalies are then lines on a map showing equality of departure of the average temperature of any place from the normal for its latitude.

There are, however, not many meteorological elements which can be said to have a normal value for latitude, and it is usual to employ as normals for any place the average or mean value for a long period of years.

In that case departures, or differences from the normal for the corresponding period, of the value for any one period, say a month or a year, are called ABNORMALS or abnormalities, and a chart showing equality of departure from the normal a chart of ISABNORMALS. Isabnormal is an objectionable compound because it is made up of a Greek prefix and a Latin body; if the departures are to

be called abnormals the lines of equal departure ought to be called equi-abnormals, so that the tendency is to use ISANOMALIES for lines of equal departure of a value from its long period average.

ISO—The prefix ISO- is the Greek equivalent of the Latin EQUI- and implies the setting out of lines on a chart or diagram to show the distribution of set values of some meteorological element. The words with this prefix can generally be interpreted by the reader on this basis: some examples are set out under the separate headings below.

Thus:—

ISOBARS, from *baros*, are lines on a chart for equal barometric pressure.

ISOHELs, from *helios*, are lines showing equal duration of sunshine.

ISOHYETS, from *huetos*, are lines showing equal amounts of rainfall.

ISOPLETHS, from *plethos*, lines showing equal amounts of a meteorological element.

The word *isogram* was recommended for this purpose by Sir Francis Galton.

ISOTHERMS, from *therme*, are lines showing equal temperatures.

Isobars.—If some of the air were removed from a room the pressure inside would be reduced and the pressure outside would force air through the windows and doors till the room was again filled with the normal amount of air. If over any area some of the air were by

any means removed the pressure over that area would be reduced, and the pressure of the air in the surrounding districts would tend to force air into the region of deficient pressure. Such areas of deficient pressure are found to exist but for the following reason the air does not actually flow into them. Anything moving above the surface of the earth will continue to move in a straight line if no force acts on it; but the earth in its rotation turns under the moving body; the moving body is therefore apparently deflected to the right in the Northern Hemisphere. This is true of a cannon ball and it is true of a moving current of air. Hence the wind does not actually blow into the area of low pressure; air from the North is deflected to the West side of the area, air from the West to the South side and so on; the wind therefore instead of blowing straight in from all sides blows round an area of low pressure counterclockwise in the Northern Hemisphere. We thus have the apparent paradox of a force tending to push the air into the centre of the low pressure area while the air is actually moving round the centre at right-angles to the force that is acting on it. There are many examples of similar things in nature; the Earth's motion round the sun for instance; or the water in a basin when there is a hole in the centre from which the plug has been taken out; the slightest circular motion sets up a swirl and the water moves round the basin at right-angles to the force of gravity which is tending to force it towards the hole.

In the case of an area of high pressure the air blows out from the high pressure but it is deflected to the right as in the former case, with the result that the wind blows round the area of high pressure in a clockwise direction. In either case if you stand with your back to the wind the low pressure will be on your left hand, this is Buys

Ballot's law. In the Southern Hemisphere the reverse is the case.

If the observed heights of the barometer (reduced to sea level) from a number of places are put on to a map and arrows are put in to represent the direction of the wind, we have a weather map which at first sight looks like a disordered collection of figures; we may make it clearer, however, by drawing lines through places where the barometer stands at the same height; thus we may draw one line through all places where the barometer stands at 1,015 mb., another through all places where it stands at 1,010 and so on. Such lines are called isobars. It may happen that we cannot find any station where the barometer stands at say 1,015 mb., but if we find one where it stands at 1,016 and another where it stands at 1,014 we know that the 1,015 line passes midway between the two stations. When the isobars are drawn in we can readily see the shapes of the areas of low and high pressure, and we see also that the wind blows in accordance with Buys Ballot's law. The areas of low pressure are called cyclones, depressions, or simply lows; the areas of high pressure anticyclones or highs.

The isobars are analogous to contour lines on an ordinary map, the high pressures corresponding to the hills, the low pressures to the valleys. The moving air does not go straight from the highs to the lows, but it blows spirally outwards from the highs in a clockwise and spirally inwards round the lows in a counterclockwise direction. On the contours of the earth we may descend from a height of say 1000 feet to 500 feet by a gentle slope many miles in length, or in another place we may descend by a precipitous scarp; in the former case a stream will run down sluggishly, in the second it will be a swift torrent

full of rapids and waterfalls. So with the pressure; we may travel a long way between a place where the barometer reads, say, 1020 millibars to another where it reads 1015 millibars, or we may have to go only a comparatively short distance. The steepness of the gradient on a map is measured by the distance between the contour lines; the steepness of the barometric gradient is measured by the nearness of the isobars. The strength of the wind depends on the steepness of the barometric gradient, just as the velocity of the stream depends on the steepness of the slope, but the analogy is not quite perfect for the stream runs down the slope across the contour lines, whereas the wind blows nearly along the isobars with a slight inward curvature towards the low pressure. If the five millibar isobars are 400 miles apart the barometric gradient is slight and the wind will be about 10 miles per hour; if the distance apart is 60 miles the gradient is steep and the wind will be about 70 miles per hour. The wind calculated from the barometric gradient is called the gradient wind, and it is in most cases the wind met with at 1500 feet; nearer the surface owing to the friction the actual wind is less than the gradient wind. The gradient wind as stated depends principally on the distance apart of the isobars; it is modified, however, to a small extent by the absolute heights of the barometer and by the temperature; a table is given showing the geostrophic, or gradient wind (with no allowance for the curvature of the path of the air) for various pressures and temperatures.

TABLE showing the distances apart in nautical miles of consecutive 10 mb. isobars corresponding with stated geostrophic wind-velocities at various pressures and temperatures in latitudes 52° and 40°.

NOTE.—The calculation of the geostrophic wind from the pressure gradient depends upon the density of the air and therefore upon the ratio of the pressure to the temperature. The figure for density of air is not generally available without a lengthy calculation and in this table, which at best is only approximate, the distances apart in nautical miles are given for the pressures given in the left hand compartment of the heading and the temperatures corresponding thereto in the same horizontal line. The influence of humidity is disregarded.

θ/p .	·26	·27	·28	·29	·30	·26	·27	·28	·29	·30
Density g/m ³	1,340	1,290	1,243	1,201	1,160	1,340	1,290	1,243	1,201	1,160
Pressure p .	Temperature θ .									
1,050 mb.	273	284	294	305	315	273	284	294	305	315
1,000 mb.	260	270	280	290	300	260	270	280	290	300
950 mb.	247	256	266	275	285	247	256	266	275	285

Geostrophic Wind Velocity. Distances apart, in nautical miles, of consecutive 10 mb. isobars.

m/s.		mi/hr.	Latitude 52°.										Latitude 40°.											
			3,510	3,645	3,780	3,915	4,050	4,361	4,529	4,697	4,864	5,032												
1	2·2		702	729	756	783	810	872	906	939	973	1,006												
5	11·2		351	365	378	392	405	436	453	470	486	503												
10	22·4		234	243	252	261	270	291	302	313	324	335												
15	33·6		176	182	189	196	203	218	226	235	243	252												
20	44·7		140	146	151	157	162	174	181	188	195	201												
25	55·9		117	122	126	131	135	145	151	157	162	168												
30	67·1		100	104	108	112	116	125	129	134	139	144												
35	78·3		88	91	95	98	101	109	113	117	122	126												
40	89·5		78	81	84	87	90	97	101	104	108	112												
45	100·7		70	73	76	78	81	87	91	94	97	101												
50	111·8		62	66	69	72	75	81	84	87	91	94												

H 2 Corrections :—For an increase of 1 mb. pressure SUBTRACT $\frac{1}{10}$ per cent. from the velocity ; for 1°A ADD $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. ; for 1° in latitude SUBTRACT $1\frac{1}{3}$ per cent.

If we put down on the weather map besides the barometer readings and the wind arrows, the state of the weather we shall see that in anticyclones it is usually fine, while in the depressions it is rainy and cloudy on the East side, and finer on the West side of each depression. The weather in fact is intimately connected with the shape of the isobars. As this is a most important fact in meteorology it will be well to consider a little more closely the areas of high and low pressure.

A DEPRESSION is a part of the atmosphere where the barometer is lower than in the surrounding parts. (See Pl. XIII, p. 101). The isobars round such an area are more or less circular or oval, though there are often irregularities. The size of a depression may vary enormously; one may cover only a part of an English county, another may fill the whole space between our islands and the Arctic circle. Some are much deeper than others; a deep depression is one where the barometer is very low near the centre; a shallow depression is one where the barometer, though low near the centre, is not very much lower than in the surrounding districts. As has been stated above, the wind blows round the depression in a counter-clockwise direction, and the steeper the barometric gradient, that is the deeper the depression, the stronger is the wind. The sky is dull and overcast on the east side of the depression, with rain near the centre, especially heavy on the north-east side. Near the centre in the region where there is an abrupt change of wind direction from south on the east side, to north on the west side of the depression, there is heavy rain and often squalls. On the west side in the region of northerly or north-westerly winds the cloud sheet is broken up into detached clouds which get further apart, fewer, and less rainy the further one goes from the centre.

If we note a depression on a weather map for one day we shall usually find that on the map for the following day the depression has moved in an easterly direction; a depression seldom remains long in one place and its drift is usually towards some point between north-east and south-east, though there are exceptions.

Since the air in front of a depression is coming from the south, and in the rear from the north, there will often be a great difference of temperature between the two sides. This is particularly noticeable in winter when the approach of a depression is heralded by warm, and its passing away by cold weather.

As the depression moves it carries its weather and wind system with it so that an observer situated on its track would have the following sequence of weather:—The barometer begins to fall, the wind becomes southerly, the sky becomes overcast and the weather muggy, and in winter the temperature is well above the normal; the clouds get thicker, the wind stronger, rain begins to fall; as the centre approaches the barometer gets lower, the wind gets stronger and the rain heavier; as the centre passes over there are often gusts of wind or squalls with heavy rain, "clearing showers"; the barometer ceases to fall and commences to rise; the clouds show signs of breaking and the wind changes round to the north or north-west and often blows more strongly than it did before the centre passed; as the centre moves away the wind lessens, the rain ceases, or only occurs in showers, the sky clears. The rate at which these changes take place depends on the size of the depression and its rate of travel; 24 hours is an ordinary time for such changes to be gone through, but it may be longer and it may be shorter. The above sequence of weather is a typical one, but there are many

differences in individual depressions; some are rainy without much wind, others bring much wind but not much rain.

The above typical sequence of weather will only be experienced by an observer who is on the track of the centre of the depression. One further south will have south-westerly winds at first with dull weather becoming rainy; the wind will gradually veer to the west when the centre is passing north, the barometer will begin to rise and the wind will veer further to the north-west as the centre passes away. An observer a long way from the track of the centre will perhaps only experience a slight fall of the barometer with cloudy weather.

An observer north of the track will have south-easterly or easterly winds at first with probably much rain; the wind will back to the north-east or north as the centre passes to the south. The winds on the north side of a depression are usually less strong than those on the south side, the isobars on the polar side being less crowded together than those on the equatorial side. Thus a depression passing on the south gives less wind but probably more persistent rain than one passing on the north. The gloomy days with an east or north-east wind and rain all day are usually due to depressions passing on the south of the observer. The easterly current on the north side of a depression frequently brings snow in the winter.

If high clouds are visible they will frequently be seen to be moving away from the centre of low pressure; thus a south wind on the surface with high clouds moving from the west is a sure sign of the existence of a depression to the west.

At times, especially in summer, very small depressions are apt to form; several such depressions are sometimes seen on the weather map for the same day; they follow the same laws as large depressions, but being shallow they do not usually occasion much wind; they bring heavy rains and thunderstorms in the summer.

An ANTICYCLONE,* or high-pressure system, is the contrary to a depression; here the barometer is high in the centre, the isobars are usually more or less circular or oval, they are also usually further apart than is the case in a depression, therefore the winds in an anticyclone are usually lighter. An anticyclone is not so small as the smaller depressions though it may equal the large ones in size. It often covers a large area. An anticyclone moves but slowly and irregularly; it may remain in the same position for many days or even weeks at a time. The weather in an anticyclone is usually fine and bright, though extensive cloud sheets may form and fogs are prevalent in winter; rain seldom falls and persistent rain never.

The depression and the anticyclone are the main arrangements of isobars, but there are five other shapes each of which has its characteristic weather.

The SECONDARY DEPRESSION.—Sometimes in the neighbourhood of a depression, usually on its southern side, the isobars take a slight bend outwards, marking the position of a small centre of low pressure; such a depression usually travels forward in the same direction as the main depression, and may even outstrip it in rate of travel. It usually produces much rain and sometimes much wind. In the summer secondary depressions are

* Illustrations of the various types of isobars are given under the respective headings ANTICYCLONE, SECONDARY, &c.

often very shallow, and resemble the shallow depressions already noticed; like them they occasion heavy rain and thunderstorms. When they are secondary to deep depressions they often cause a crowding together of the isobars on their southern side and thus occasion strong winds.

THE V-SHAPED DEPRESSION.—This is a further extension of the Secondary; the isobars instead of bulging out slightly extend out a long way in the form of the letter V. The wind on the east side is from a southerly point, that on the west side from a northerly point in accordance with Buys Ballot's law; the east side is a region of cloud and rain, often heavy driving rain; over the central line there is an abrupt change, very fine weather being experienced on the west side. As the V-shaped depression moves over any place the observer experiences southerly winds and driving rain, both wind and rain becoming stronger as the central line approaches; as it passes over there is a sudden change of wind to a northerly point; the rain stops and the sky rapidly clears; the central line is often a region of heavy squalls; there is a marked fall of temperature with the passage of the central line. See Plate XV.

WEDGE OF HIGH PRESSURE.—Between two depressions there is often a region of high pressure where the isobars are shaped like an inverted V; the high-pressure wedge usually extends from an anticyclone poleward between two depressions that are skirting the northern edge of the high pressure. The wedge moves forward in an easterly direction between the two depressions; it is in fact merely the relatively high pressure between the depressions. The front of the wedge is often a region of extremely fine weather with northerly winds rapidly becoming light as

V-SHAPED DEPRESSION.
DISTRIBUTION OF WEATHER, WIND, AND PRESSURE,
7 A.M. 8th OCTOBER, 1915.



ISOBARS are drawn for intervals of ten millibars.
WIND.—Direction is shown by arrows flying with the wind.
 Force, on the scale 0-12, is indicated by the number of feathers.
 Calm

WEATHER.—Shown by the following symbols:—
 ○ clear sky. ○ sky $\frac{1}{4}$ clouded.
 ○ sky $\frac{1}{2}$ clouded. ○ sky $\frac{3}{4}$ clouded.
 ○ overcast sky. ● rain falling
 * snow. ▲ hail. ≡ fog.
 ≡ mist. T thunder. K thunderstorm.

the central line approaches; on the central line there is a calm; after its passage the wind backs to the south-west, clouds begin to come up and rain usually follows rapidly as the new depression approaches. After the passage of a depression, if the weather clears up very rapidly and the wind falls quickly, it is usually the sign of the approach of a wedge; in such a case very fine weather may be forecasted for a few hours, followed again by bad weather. "It has cleared up too quickly to last."

The COL.—A col is a region between two anticyclones, and may be likened to a mountain pass between two higher peaks. Since the wind is blowing round the two anticyclones in a clockwise direction the col is a region where light airs from very different directions are brought into close proximity. This gives conditions for fog in cold weather and for thunderstorms in hot weather.

STRAIGHT ISOBARS.—Occasionally the isobars run straight over a very considerable area. In these latitudes straight isobars usually have the lowest pressure to the North, and thus in accordance with Buys Ballot's law the winds are westerly. There may be a great diversity of weather in a region of straight isobars, for it must be remembered that the northern side extends to a low-pressure region and the southern side to an anticyclone; therefore in the Northern region we get much cloud and some rain, in the Southern clear skies and fine weather.

Major Gold, D.S.O., Commandant of the Meteorological Section, G.H.Q., makes the following comments, which fairly illustrate the difficulty of making positive statements about the relation of weather to isobars:

Straight Isobars.—If the anticyclone is a warm one, the Southern side, also, gets cloudy skies and rainy weather, see January 6th, 1916,

January 4th, 5th, 1914, January 2nd, 10th, 11th, 12th, 17th, 18th, 1910. Perhaps there is a seasonal variation in the weather in straight isobars. In January they nearly always seem to get rain right to the edge of the anticyclone. Straight W. to E. isobars usually mean cool or moderate temperature in Summer and rather mild in Winter. One gets also straight isobars running from S. to N. (See January, 1913 : not much rain but some cloud and mist.) Thunderstorm weather when it is very warm to the South.

Also N. to S. straight isobars (January 2nd, 12th, 1911 ; December, 1913 ; squally, snow, hail and sleet weather in winter. September 29th, 30th, October 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 1915 ; showery ; thunder in Flanders). Wedge : when the dominant anticyclone is to the North, it is more stable than the wedge proper (which is very unstable as a rule) and gives N. winds on the E. side and E. winds on the W. side.

It is the business of the forecaster who has a weather map before him to note the arrangements of the isobars, and the positions of high and low pressure ; he must note whether the low-pressure systems are main depressions, secondaries, or V-shaped depressions ; he has to judge from the map the directions in which the disturbances are likely to travel, and knowing the weather which each kind brings, to warn different districts what wind and what kind of weather they are to expect. In judging the direction of travel the meteorologist is guided by certain rules and by past experience ; a depression usually travels from some point between south-west and north-west to some point between north-east and south-east ; they frequently skirt the Western seaboard of Europe ; they do not pass through anticyclones ; when an anticyclone is situated to the West of these islands depressions do not come in from the Atlantic, but there is then a tendency for depressions to pass from North to South down our Eastern coasts. The meteorologist must also forecast what temperatures are likely ; in the region of Easterly winds on the North side of a depression cold weather is

likely with snow in winter ; the approach of a depression from the west during a frost in winter is sure to bring about a thaw on the southern side of its path. The endless varieties of weather must as far as possible be foreseen by the meteorologist with the map before him.

The solitary observer who has no means of making a map may however recognise some of the signs of the approach of certain types of weather. Remembering Buys Ballot's law and watching his barometer he may recognise the approach of a depression, and may even on many occasions roughly plot out its track ; he may easily tell whether the fine weather is of an anticyclonic type, or whether it is the result of a wedge and therefore only transitory. In short, if he has a knowledge of the principles disclosed by weather maps and has a barometer he will be in a much better position than his neighbours to forecast the weather from local manifestations.

Isothermal—of equal temperature. An isothermal line is a line of equal temperature and therefore is the same as isotherm.

Isothermal is frequently used in meteorological writings on the upper air for the so-called "isothermal layer" by which is meant the layer indicated in the records of all balloons-sondes, of sufficient altitude, by the sudden cessation of fall of temperature with height and generally by a slight INVERSION (see also GRADIENT) followed by practical uniformity of temperature. The layer is not really isothermal. Its temperature on the occasions when simultaneous soundings have been secured at different places shows a temperature-gradient in the stricter sense of difference of temperature at the same level and an inspection of the diagram reproduced under BALLON SONDE

representing the results of a large number of soundings in the British Isles, shows that the range of temperature at the highest layer is greater than the range at the surface. But it is also clear from the diagram that in each single sounding the balloon reaches a region where the thermometer ceases to fall. To avoid the misconception which the use of the word isothermal for this region would imply, M. Teisserenc de Bort, who was largely instrumental in its discovery, coined the word stratosphere, while he gave the name of troposphere to the region below. These names have now been generally adopted. The stratosphere has also been called the advective region in contradistinction with the convective region below it.

We are still without any effective explanation of the origin of differences of temperature which are found in the stratosphere; they must probably be classed among the most fundamental characteristics of the general circulation of the atmosphere and among the primary causes of the changes of weather, but hardly any light has been thrown on the mechanism of the process.

Khamsin.—A hot, dry wind which passes over the Egyptian plain from the southward forming the front of depressions passing eastward along the Eastern Mediterranean, while there is an area of high pressure to the East of the Nile in Middle Egypt.

Kilometre.—A length of one thousand metres, approximately five-eighths of a mile.

Land Breeze.—A light wind passing across a coast line from the land seaward. It generally begins with the setting in of coolness in the evening and disappears with the advance of temperature over the land in the day

time, or is replaced by a sea breeze, and it is therefore regarded as a katabatic wind due to convection between the colder layer over the earth and a warmer layer over the sea. In sunny weather there is a large diurnal change of temperature in the land and hardly any in the sea, and the direction of the wind is regarded as alternating with the direction of the temperature-gradient along the level.

Lenticular.—In shape like a lens or lentil. The word is used to identify a cloud of characteristic shape formed by a large mass of clustered cloudlets which is apparently disposed horizontally, has well-defined edges, a pointed end and broad middle or base. Sometimes the cloud becomes thin in the broad part and gives one the impression of a horizontal bow or horse-shoe of cloud foreshortened by being seen from a distant point underneath it.

Level.—A surface is level if it is everywhere at right-angles to the force of gravity which is indicated by the plumb-line. When a table is not level the force of gravity makes things roll towards the lower edge, but when we are considering areas so large that the curvature of the earth has to be allowed for, the words higher or lower have no meaning unless we can refer the heights to some "level" surface accepted as a datum. The accurate comparison of levels in different regions of the earth is a problem of the greatest refinement and delicacy. Part of the problem is to determine whether the level of the sea, the problem is to determine whether the level of the sea, apart from any disturbance due to waves, is the same all over the world or not. For example, it used to be a debatable question if a cut were made across the Isthmus of Panama from the Atlantic to the Pacific, whether the water would flow from the Atlantic to the Pacific or

vice versa. That question has doubtless been solved by the accurate levelling of the engineers of the Panama Canal.

On land, levels can be set out with great accuracy by means of a spirit level, but allowance has to be made for the curvature of the earth.

Land-levels in Great Britain are referred to the ordnance datum which is the assumed mean level of the sea at Liverpool, and is 0.650 ft. below the mean level of the sea of the British Isles, and in Ireland to low water of spring tides in Dublin Bay, which is 21 ft. below a mark on the base of Poolbeg lighthouse. The datum in mariners' charts is usually "low water ordinary spring tides."

Lightning.—The flash of a discharge of electricity between two clouds or between a cloud and the earth. A distinction is drawn between "forked" lightning in which the path of the actual discharge is visible and "sheet" lightning in which all that is seen is the flash of illuminated clouds and which is attributed to the light of a discharge of which the actual path is not visible.

Since the introduction of photography many photographs of lightning have been obtained, and in general character they cannot be distinguished from photographs of electric discharges of six inches or more in length which are obtained in a laboratory, but the varieties of form of lightning discharges are very numerous. Frequently a flash shows many branches, especially the upper part of a flash between the clouds and the earth. Among a collection of photographs thrown upon a lantern screen, Dr. W. J. S. Lockyer once interpolated a photograph of the River Amazon and its tributaries, taken from a map, and the photograph was accepted without comment as a picture of lightning.

No satisfactory evidence has yet been produced as to what limits or defines the portion of the atmosphere which is freed from electric stress by a discharge of lightning, nor how the path of the discharge is selected.

Lightning conductors, which are metal rods leading from the salient points of buildings to conductors buried in moist earth, have been used since the time of Benjamin Franklin to protect buildings from damage by lightning. A good deal of attention was devoted to the method of operation of lightning conductors especially by Sir Oliver Lodge, whose lectures before the Society of Arts are the best source of information on the subject.

The chief use of conductors is supposed to be the relief of stress in the immediate neighbourhood of a building by the so-called silent or brush discharges from its exposed points. These brush discharges are often visible in snow storms as discharges from the yards and points of ships or from an ice-axe and other projecting points in high mountains. The phenomenon is known as *Corposants* or *St. Elmo's fire*.

Line Squall.—A squall of wind accompanied by rain or hail, associated with a sudden drop of temperature and the passing of a long line or arch of dark cloud. The sequence of events as represented on recording meteorological instruments is one of the most clearly defined and easily recognised of all types of weather. There is a sudden rise of the mercury in the barometer by about 2 mb. (less than .1 in.), a veer of wind through about 8 points, a simultaneous fall of temperature as much as 5° to 10°C., or 10° to 20°F., a sudden squall of wind, sometimes of great violence, lasting for a few minutes.

The sequence of phenomena is represented by the sketches made by Mr. G. A. Clarke of Aberdeen.

Observatory with the accompanying records which are reproduced in figure 1. The four sketches of the line of dark cloud are made at intervals of 2 minutes and the set represent 6 minutes in the life-history of the cloud.

The line of the squall which is marked locally by the line or arch of the cloud often extends across the country for hundreds of miles and represents the sudden transition from a southerly wind to a westerly wind, or from a southerly type of weather to a westerly type. The cloud appears to be due to convection between the cold westerly current and the warmer southerly current; the squall is therefore probably katabatic in its origin and its violence on the actual passing of the cloud accounted for in that way; it represents the dash forward of a breaking wave, or more strictly speaking, of the water of a broken wave.

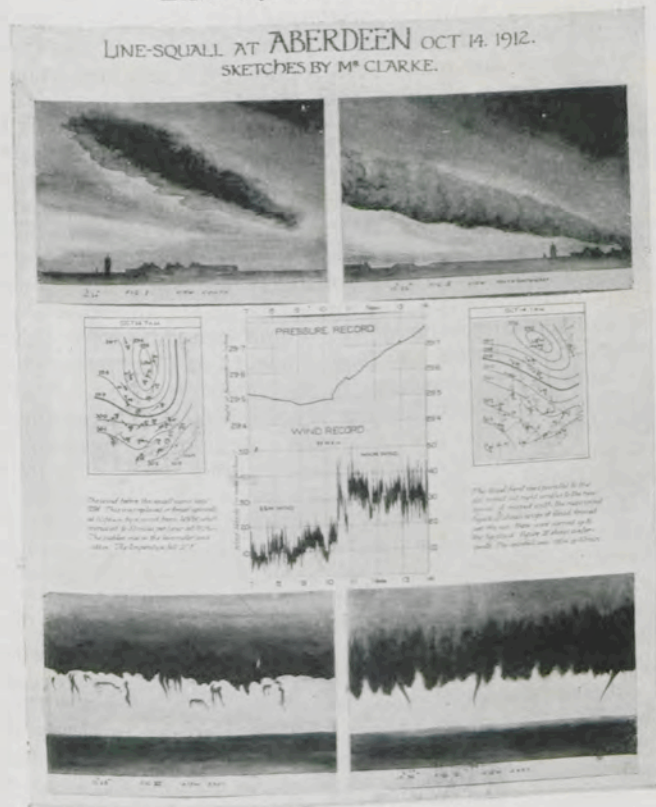
The phenomenon has been studied in the Meteorological Office during the past 10 years. A short account of the results of the investigations is given in Shaw's *Forecasting Weather*.

Line squalls frequently occur at the time of the passage of the TROUGH of a deep depression when the transition from southerly wind to westerly wind takes place suddenly. They also occur as a preliminary to a thunderstorm, and in such cases the wind of the squall is sometimes very destructive. They form the most serious danger to aircraft; at the same time, their characteristics lend themselves to forecasting with unusual precision provided their existence is once identified, because the line travels across the country with a very definite velocity.

Special arrangements are therefore made to obtain notifications of the passage of a line squall over the stations at the outside edge of our area.

To face p. 194.

LINE SQUALL : FIGURE 1.



Low, used to denote a region of low pressure in the same way as **HIGH** is used for the region of high pressure : a depression. See also **ISOBARS**.

Lunar, dependent upon *luna*, the moon : thus a lunar rainbow is a rainbow formed by the rays of the moon, a lunar cycle a cycle dependent upon the moon's motion. A month is really, from its name, a lunar cycle, but the introduction of a calendar month makes it necessary to draw a distinction between it and the lunar month, which is the period from new moon to new moon. In astronomy it is called the synodic month, and is equal to 29·5306 days. The endeavour to bring the month or the revolution of the moon round the earth into relation with the year or the revolution of the earth round the sun, has given rise to the differences of calendar which have been or are in use.

Mackerel Sky.—A sky covered with cirro-cumulus clouds arranged in a somewhat regular pattern, and showing blue sky in the gaps. See **CIRRO-CUMULUS** and **CLOUDS**.

Magnetic Needle.—A strip of steel permanently magnetised and provided with an agate cup for balancing on a steel point, like the needle of a compass. See **COMPASS**.

Mammato-cumulus.—When low clouds have rounded projections or pap-like protuberances from their under surface the term mammato-cumulus is applied to them. They are appropriate to the disturbed atmospheric conditions which accompany the close of a thunderstorm.

An example is given in the accompanying illustration, obtained by Captain Cave at Ditcham Park. They do not occur often in England and never persist for long. Their relation to cumulus clouds in the ordinary sense is not apparent. Both are bulging clouds, but in these the bulging is downward, while in ordinary cumulus it is upward.

Mares' tails.—A popular term used to describe cirrus cloud in which the thread-like filaments are arranged in the form of fans or plumes. See CIRRUS.

Maximum.—The highest reading of an instrument during a given period. The context generally shows the period to which reference is made. An instrument, like a maximum thermometer, is often designed for the purpose of giving the highest reading that has occurred since it was last read. The term "absolute maximum" is also used, the meaning of which is generally clear from the context, but see ABSOLUTE EXTREMES.

Mean.—The mean value of a set of values is the number formed by adding all the individual values together and dividing the sum by the number of values. In some cases there is an ambiguity unless the context makes it clear how the values are classified. For example, the mean temperature of the atmosphere lying over a certain place might indicate the arithmetical mean of the temperatures taken at equal intervals of height, or at equal intervals of pressure, going upwards. See also AVERAGE.

Meniscus.—The curved upper surface of liquid in a tube. If the tube is of narrow bore the curvature is



Mammato Cumulus (Festoon Cloud) after thunderstorm in August, 1915.

This photograph is reproduced in illustration of the commotion which occurs in the atmosphere in the various stages of a thunderstorm. It may be taken as the sequel to the illustration of the Cumulo-Nimbus cloud shown in figure 1 reproduced under CLOUD. The cumulo-nimbus is a thundercloud approaching, the mammato cumulus a thunderstorm receding.

pronounced, and in estimating the height of the liquid column, allowance must be made for it. In the case of water, the meniscus, when viewed horizontally against the light, appears as a dark belt. The upper edge represents the highest point to which the water is drawn up against the glass, and the lower edge the lower part of the surface out in the middle of the tube. When the tube is broad like the measuring glass of a rain-gauge, the bottom edge should be used in reading; but in narrow tubes the mid-point would be more suitable. Mercury has a convex upper surface and in the case of the barometer the graduation is adjusted to the top of the meniscus.

Mercury.—Mercury is a metallic element of great value in the construction of meteorological instruments. In the mercurial barometer its great density enables the length of the instrument to be made moderate, while the low pressure of its vapour at ordinary temperatures makes possible a nearly perfect vacuum in the space above the top of the barometric column. In the mercury thermometer there is no risk of condensation in the upper end of the stem as in the case of the spirit thermometer.

Specific gravity = 13.5955 at 273°A .

Specific heat = 0.0335 at 273°A .

Freezing point = 234.2 A .

Meteor.—A meteor or shooting star is a fragment of solid material entering the upper regions of the atmosphere from outer space and visible by its own luminosity. The luminosity is attributed to incandescence through friction with the atmosphere. A large meteor may leave

the density of the mercury, the temperature of the scale and the value of gravity at the place are allowed for. The "millibar" on the other hand can only be used for pressure. If a barometer graduated in the C.G.S. system is set up at any place, there is a definite temperature called the *fiducial temperature* at which the scale reading of the mercury column gives the pressure of the air in millibars; a correction must be applied to the reading when the temperature of the instrument is not the fiducial temperature. (See *Observer's Handbook*.)

1,000 millibars are equivalent to the pressure of a column of mercury 750.1 millimetres (29.531 inches) high at 0° C. (273 A.) in latitude 45°.

Millimetre.—The thousandth part of a metre. 25.4 mm. = 1 inch.

Minimum.—The opposite of maximum. See MAXIMUM.

Mirage.—The image of an object which is seen displaced, upwards or downwards, usually vertically, by the refraction of the rays of light in their passage through layers of air of different densities near the ground. Where the density of the layers of air decreases, from the ground upwards, more rapidly than the normal rate, as it does when the ground is covered with a layer of very cold air, the rays of light are bent towards the earth and the image is therefore seen raised above the object, which may even be below the horizon at the time.

If the density increases rapidly upwards at the ground, as it does over highly heated deserts, the rays are bent upwards and the image is formed below the object.

In its commonest form Mirage has the appearance of a sheet of water, often surrounded by banks, reeds and other objects. In this case what appears to be a sheet of water is the image of the sky behind the object at which the observer is looking, the rays of light being totally reflected from the layer of heated air which is in contact with the ground. The banks, reeds, &c., are the images of various objects, repeated with more or less distortion by being viewed through layers of air of different and varying density, so that a dark stone appears as though it were an upright stake, or plant, and so on. Hills situated at a short distance away may appear as detached masses floating on this lake-like surface, their lower portions being invisible under the conditions prevailing. In the same way dark stones or gravel capping a gentle roll of the ground in the desert may present the appearance of a distant vertical cliff of considerable height.

Mist.—Cloud at the level of the ground, consisting of minute drops of water suspended in the air. Mist occurs most frequently in the British Isles in the autumn or winter, especially in still weather. A calm autumn or winter night that commences by being clear will usually become misty towards morning if the air is damp, because the nocturnal cooling lowers the temperature of the air below its dew point. At such times hill tops may have clear weather while valleys only a few hundred feet below are covered with a dense blanket of mist.* In wet weather, on the other hand the clouds may be so low as to cover the hills and produce mist on them while the plains below experience clear weather.

* See reproduction of a photograph of Valley-fog under CLOUDS.

Mistral.—A strong dry, cold wind that is experienced on the Mediterranean coast of France. It blows from the north-west.

Mock Sun.—An image of the sun, sometimes very brilliant, that occurs most frequently at a distance from the sun equal to the radius of the ordinary HALO, *i.e.*, 22° .

Monsoon.—The term is applied to certain winds which blow with great persistence and regularity in opposite directions at different seasons of the year. The monsoon winds are confined to tropical regions, and are most marked on the shores of India and China when there is a south-west monsoon in the summer months and a north-east monsoon in the winter months. The term is also applied to the rainy season of India which sets in, and is connected with, the monsoon wind that blows from the south-west in the summer on the south and west coasts of India.

Moon.—The only satellite revolving round the earth. The possibility of its influencing the weather has often been advanced, but never demonstrated by means of statistical evidence to the satisfaction of meteorologists. The brilliance of the moon is due solely to the sunlight falling upon it. Telescopes show a rugged and clear cut landscape very different from what would be visible if the surface were hot enough to radiate a considerable quantity of heat across a quarter of a million miles to the earth. One of the many fallacies connected with the moon is that its rays are injurious to plants, but no doubt this arose simply because nights of ground frost, harmful to vegetation, are almost always clear; and so it happens that with the moon suitably placed, the damage is done on the occasions when it is visible and not when it is

hidden by cloud. An explanation of the moon's apparent influence in scattering clouds is given in the *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, vol. 28, under the title of "La lune mange les nuages," and in Shaw's *Forecasting Weather*, p. 175.

Nadir. See ZENITH.

Nephoscope.—An instrument for measuring the motion of clouds. A description of the different forms and methods in use is given in the *Observer's Handbook*.

Nimbus.—Ragged clouds of indefinite shape from which rain or snow is falling. See CLOUD.

Normal.—The name given to the averages of any meteorological element such as pressure, mean temperature, maximum temperature, minimum temperature, duration of sunshine, velocity of wind, taken for a sufficient number of cases to form a satisfactory basis of reference, and thus obtain the *difference from normal* which is the excess or defect of a particular example above or below the normal. As an example we give the hourly normals for wind velocity at Kew Observatory and the monthly normals for a number of stations in England and France.

Table of Normal Hourly Velocities of the Wind in month (averages for 30 years)

Hour.	Before noon.											12
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
	Metres per second.											
Jan. ...	3'3	3'3	3'3	3'3	3'4	3'4	3'3	3'4	3'5	3'8	4'2	4'3
Feb. ...	3'3	3'3	3'3	3'3	3'3	3'3	3'3	3'4	3'8	4'1	4'7	4'9
March..	3'1	3'1	3'0	3'1	3'1	3'1	3'3	3'6	4'3	4'7	5'1	5'2
April ...	2'7	2'7	2'6	2'6	2'6	2'8	3'3	3'8	4'3	4'7	5'0	5'2
May ...	2'3	2'3	2'2	2'2	2'2	2'6	3'2	3'6	4'0	4'3	4'7	4'7
June ...	2'1	2'0	2'0	1'9	2'1	2'5	3'0	3'3	3'6	3'8	4'2	4'2
July ...	1'9	1'8	1'8	1'8	1'8	2'2	2'6	3'0	3'4	3'7	3'9	4'0
August.	2'0	1'9	1'9	1'9	1'9	2'1	2'5	3'1	3'5	3'8	4'1	4'2
Sept. ...	1'8	1'8	1'9	1'9	1'8	1'9	2'1	2'6	3'1	3'5	3'9	3'9
Oct. ...	2'4	2'4	2'4	2'4	2'4	2'5	2'6	2'7	3'2	3'6	4'2	4'3
Nov. ...	3'0	3'0	3'0	3'0	3'0	2'9	2'9	3'0	3'3	3'4	4'0	4'2
Dec. ...	3'4	3'4	3'3	3'4	3'4	3'4	3'4	3'5	3'6	3'7	4'1	4'3

This table was prepared to furnish a reply to a question as to the best time of year for learning to fly on a machine of small power. The reply given by the figures is that on the average the wind is strongest from 11 a.m. to 4 p.m. in March and April, lightest from midnight to dawn in June, July, August and September. September,

metres per second for each hour of the day, for each 1881-1910) at Kew Observatory.

After noon.													24	Day
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23				
Metres per second.														
4'3	4'3	4'1	3'8	3'8	3'7	3'7	3'7	3'6	3'4	3'4	3'4	3'4	3'7	Jan.
5'0	4'9	4'7	4'4	4'0	3'8	3'8	3'6	3'6	3'4	3'4	3'4	3'3	3'8	Feb.
5'2	5'2	5'1	4'9	4'5	3'9	3'7	3'5	3'5	3'3	3'2	3'1	3'9	3'9	March.
5'2	5'2	5'2	5'1	4'8	4'3	3'8	3'4	3'3	3'0	2'9	2'7	3'8	3'8	April.
4'8	4'7	4'7	4'7	4'5	4'1	3'6	3'1	2'9	2'6	2'5	2'4	3'5	3'5	May.
4'2	4'3	4'3	4'3	4'2	3'9	3'4	2'9	2'7	2'5	2'3	2'1	3'1	3'1	June.
4'1	4'2	4'1	4'1	3'9	3'6	3'2	2'7	2'4	2'2	2'1	2'0	2'9	2'9	July.
4'3	4'3	4'3	4'2	4'0	3'6	3'0	2'6	2'5	2'3	2'2	2'1	3'0	3'0	August.
4'0	4'1	3'9	3'7	3'4	2'8	2'5	2'4	2'3	2'2	2'0	1'9	2'7	2'7	Sept.
4'3	4'2	3'9	3'5	3'1	2'9	2'7	2'6	2'6	2'6	2'5	2'4	3'0	3'0	Oct.
4'3	4'2	3'9	3'5	3'4	3'3	3'3	3'2	3'2	3'1	3'0	3'0	3'3	3'3	Nov.
4'3	4'2	3'9	3'7	3'6	3'6	3'6	3'5	3'6	3'5	3'4	3'5	3'6	3'6	Dec.

on the whole, is the best month, July the next best, March the worst. But in view of the seasonal frequency of strong winds shown in the diagrams on pp. 262 to 266, the answer does not seem complete. For such questions FREQUENCIES give better answers than NORMALS.

† TABLE OF WIND velocity in metres per sec. for each month of the year.

	Averages for	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Mean Velocity for the year.
Kew ...	1881-1900	3.5	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.4	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.7	2.9	3.4	3.5	3.29
Dunkirk ...	1882-1900	6.5	6.5	6.9	6.4	6.2	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.4	6.1	6.0	6.4	6.11
Falmouth ...	1881-1900	5.4	5.4	5.1	4.8	4.3	4.0	4.2	4.2	4.0	4.5	5.1	5.4	4.70
Jersey ...	1895-1907	7.7	7.5	7.4	6.9	6.5	6.1	5.6	6.3	6.5	7.0	7.7	7.9	6.93
Paris (Bureau Centrale Meteorologique).	1889-1908	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.17
Paris (Eiffel Tower).	1890-1909	10.2	9.8	9.4	8.7	8.3	7.6	7.4	8.0	8.2	9.3	9.2	9.9	8.83
Laigres ...	1891-1907	5.2	5.1	5.2	4.6	4.7	4.0	3.9	3.8	4.1	4.6	4.6	4.9	4.56
Angers ...	1893-1908	6.0	5.8	6.1	5.7	5.6	5.4	5.4	5.5	5.1	5.0	5.0	5.5	5.51
Lyons ...	1881-1900	3.2	3.5	4.1	4.0	3.6	3.2	3.1	2.9	2.9	3.2	2.9	3.0	3.30
St. Martin de Hinx.	1879-1889	2.7	3.4	3.5	3.9	3.3	3.3	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.05
Perpignan ...	1881-1900	4.9	4.6	4.6	4.7	3.8	3.6	3.3	2.9	2.7	2.9	3.0	4.3	3.77

† From "Études sur le Climat de la France," by A. Angot. The values for Kew and Falmouth have been corrected for the factor of the anemometer.

Observer, in meteorology, is a person who undertakes, in co-operation with others at a réseau of stations, to make regular simultaneous records of the weather upon an organised plan. Good observing requires punctuality and accuracy and therefore skill in reading and setting instruments, intelligence in noting occurrences which are worth recording, though they are not in the prescribed routine. The best observer is one who is personally interested in scientific work on a co-operative basis. The work of the observers for the Weather Map is partly represented by the four maps of the gale of December 27-28, 1915, which face p. 44, and which show also the work of the compiler and map-maker at the Central Office. The work of the telegraphist is also necessary, but if that is perfect it makes no show at all on the maps. If it is not perfect the map at once bears evidence of the imperfection.

Ombrometer.—Another name for RAINGAUGE.

Orientation from Oriens, the rising of the sun—the East. The direction of an object referred to the points of the compass. The meaning is much the same as the meaning of '*azimuth*' except that the azimuth is more particularly referred to the meridian line.

The exact orientation of a position is generally best made out by the aid of an ordnance-map, identifying the position and the bearings of some prominent landmarks visible from it. Churches in England are usually oriented East and West, but the orientation is not always very exact.

Ozone a modification of oxygen which is found in small quantities in the atmosphere. It is important inasmuch as its presence greatly increases the absorption of radiant heat. See RADIATION.

Paraselenae.—Mock moons, *i.e.*, images of the moon, occurring most often at certain points on the ordinary halo of 22° radius. Like parhelia or mock suns they are probably formed by the reflection of light from the surfaces of the snow-crystals in cirro-nebula.

Parhelia or mock suns. Images of the sun occurring in connexion with solar halos, see **MOCK SUN**.

Pentad a period of five days. Five-day means are used in meteorological work, as five days form an exact sub-division ($\frac{1}{73}$ rd) of the ordinary year, an advantage not possessed by the week.

Periodical.—Recurring at regular intervals. Periodical variations of meteorological elements generally have a period of one day or one year corresponding with the rotation of the Earth and its annual progress round the sun. Many attempts have been made to identify the variations of rainfall and other meteorological elements with a period of years. Thus the period of the frequency of sunspots, about 11 years, has been regarded with some favour, as a meteorological period. A period of 19 years has been suggested with regard to the climatic elements of Australia and the wandering of the anticyclones of the southern tropical belt. Thirty-five years make up the period which seems to fit in best with the variations of climate suggested by Brückner in his examination of the records of rainfall, lake levels, floods, droughts, and other experiences going back in time as far as possible.

A period of three or four years is indicated for a recognisable oscillation in barometric pressure.

The fluctuations of the yield of the wheat harvest between 1885 and 1905 were shown in the Meteorological

Office to be represented with curious fidelity by a combination of oscillations with a common point of mean value, so that the crops appeared to repeat themselves numerically after 11 years.

Dr. Schuster has suggested that these periods may possibly be fractional periods of the period of revolution of the swarm of leonid meteors which is about 100 years.

Up to now there has not been sufficient material for a proper critical examination of these various suggestions. Moreover it is probable that the question cannot be dealt with separately for a small part of the earth's surface when the primary causes are external to the earth's atmosphere. Some method must be found for determining the change in the atmosphere as a whole, and then perhaps some particular feature like the trade winds may be found to form a sort of "pulse" of the circulation and thus act as an indicator of the atmospheric changes. If so, the process of examining for periodic changes will be so much simplified as to offer a very promising field of meteorological inquiry.

Persistence, a term used by Hon. R. Abercromby, the repetition of meteorological conditions or what may be called moods of weather. For several months the distribution of pressure may be of the same general type with temporary interruptions. In N.W. Europe cyclones generally arrive from the Atlantic and pass eastwards alternating with relatively high pressure in connexion with a persistent anticyclone to the south. If the path along which the centres of the lows travel remains the same, the alternation of cyclonic and anticyclonic weather persists. If, on the other hand, the Scandinavian high pressure develops in area and intensity the path of

depressions may be to the southward of our islands, and easterly weather becomes persistent.

On the other hand, the development of high pressure over Greenland extending southward over the Atlantic gives a northerly type of weather which is sometimes persistent for a season.

Persistent rain.—For some reason which cannot be explicitly stated rain generally lasts for only a few hours; looking over the published results for the observatories of the Meteorological Office for the year 1912 we find the longest sequences of hours with rain are as follows:—

Longest Periods of Consecutive hours of rainfall 1912.

	Valencia.	Kew.	Eskdalemuir.
	Number of hours.	Number of hours.	Number of hours.
January	22	9	24
February	19	6	11
March	15	5	16
April	16	3	6
May	13	6	9
June	19	9	11
July	12	7	10
August	14	9	13
September	28	15	19
October	9	8	29
November	8	5	11
December	14	6	19

At Kew Observatory in the past ten years rain extending over 25 consecutive hours was recorded three times, viz., 1906, November 7th–8th; 1914, March 8th–9th, and 1915, May 13th–14th.

The table does not fully represent all that the inspection of the published figures suggests, for example, in August, at Valencia, only one fine hour intervened between two spells of eleven and twelve hours respectively, and at Valencia, too, though April had a longer spell of rain than March, there were 228 rain-hours in March as compared with April's 47. At Eskdalemuir, a moorland station of Dumfriesshire, in the last three days of March only 28 hours out of the 72 were free from rain.

A twelve-hour rain is exceptional at an inland station like Kew on the eastern side of Britain, but it does occur sometimes. In June, 1903, there was a run of thirty hours separated by only one rainless hour from a preceding run of twenty hours and that again by two rainless hours from another run of seven hours, so that there was nearly continuous rain for sixty hours at a stretch. In the same month Valencia had no spell of more than eleven consecutive hours of rainfall though two separate fair hours broke up a spell of twenty-five hours' rain. The persistence of rain in particular localities on special occasions is a subject of great interest which is not at all understood. In it lies the explanation of local floods which are sometimes of the most extensive character, such as those of East Anglia in August, 1912, and in Eastern Ireland in August, 1905. Snowstorms are often similarly localised. In a similar way there is considerable difference in the succession of days of rain. Sometimes it rains with very little meteorological provocation, and, on the other hand, the meteorological conditions which are recognised as

favourable for rain are sometimes productive of very little. The longest spell of consecutive days of rain at Kew in the 45 years 1871—1915 was one of 36 days which occurred in 1892 from September 16th to October 21st. Two spells in 1891 were nearly as long, viz., one of 31 days from September 26th to October 26th, and one of 34 days from November 7th to December 10th.

Phases of the Moon: The appearances of the moon, by custom restricted to the particular phases of *new moon*, when nothing is visible, *first quarter*, when a semicircle is visible, with the bow on the West, *full moon* when a full circle is visible and *last quarter* when a semicircle is visible with the bow on the East. These changes of phase are due to the fact that the moon in its monthly course round the earth, is at one time between us and the sun, while at another time we are between it and the sun. In the first case the half of the moon illuminated by the sun is turned directly away from us and it is the period of new moon, in the second it is directed towards us and the moon is full. At first quarter half the side of the moon facing us is lit up and the remaining part will gradually become so; at last quarter the appearance is similar, but the bright portion is diminishing.

It is a common practice of immemorial antiquity to associate changes in the weather with the phases of the moon; but it must be remembered that, before the days of the cheap press and the daily newspaper, the phases of the moon were the shepherd's calendar, and the only means of marking intervals of time greater than a day and less than a year. There are about twelve and a half months in a year and the adjustment of the time-keeping of the

moon to the daily and annual periods of the earth is a scientific question of great complexity and long history.

For conditions of weather that are of too long duration to be associated with a day and too short to fill a year, the phases of the moon afford the only natural method of time-keeping, so the primary classification of such events as spells of weather must necessarily count in phases, or weeks.

Although we have now progressed beyond that stage and can use decimals in our reckoning, we are not altogether free from ancestral habits. If the sun happens to be shining we are accustomed to refer to the occurrence as "a fine day." It would be regarded as pedantic to speak of a fine hour or a fine minute, but the fine day is sometimes over in an hour and is replaced by a wet day.

A well-known meteorological authority asserts, from his experience as a sailor, that weather changes set in with the "turn of the tide." It is possible that there may be also in this case some association with a single epoch of events which are really distributed over some hours, but no statistical inquiry has been made into the matter.

Phenology.—The study of the sequence of seasonal changes in nature. All natural phenomena are included, seed-times, harvests, flowering, ripening, migration, and so on, but often in practice the observations are limited to the times on which certain trees and flowering plants come into leaf and flower each year, and to the dates of the first and last appearance of birds and insects.

A phenological report is published each year by the Royal Meteorological Society.

Pilot balloon.—A small free balloon, the motion of which gives information concerning the wind currents aloft. Toy balloons, having a diameter of about 18 inches when inflated, are often used; they are filled with hydrogen and released, and their progress measured by means of a specially designed theodolite. An altitude of five miles is sometimes attained but not often exceeded.

Instructions for observations with pilot balloons and for calculating the results are given in the *Computer's Handbook*.

Pluviograph.—A self-recording rain-gauge; the rise of the water in the gauge is recorded by means of a pen attached to a float. Some form of device by which the gauge automatically empties itself when the water reaches a certain height is often employed.

Pluviometer.—A rain-gauge (*q.v.*).

Pocky Cloud.—Cumulus cloud, with a festooned appearance on the under side. See MAMMATO-CUMULUS.

Polar.—Occurring in the regions of the north and south pole. The meteorology of these regions is of a special type caused by the continuous presence of the sun above the horizon during one half of the year, and its absence during the remaining half. This makes the diurnal range of temperature small. The seasonal change on the other hand is large, extremely low temperatures during the long night being followed by less severe cold in the time of continuous daylight when the thermometer often rises above the freezing point. The snowfall has always been found to be moderate; the great quantity on the ground represents the accumulated fall of many years because there is no loss except by evaporation and

that is very slight at the very low temperature. Auroræ, as well as optical effects due to the presence of ice crystals in the air, are of common occurrence. In the south polar regions a spot has been found where the normal velocity of the wind is beyond the limit of gale. Both poles are separated from the equatorial regions by a great circum-polar whirl of prevailing westerly winds, and regions of relatively low pressure. These features are especially marked in the southern hemisphere.

Pole.—The geographical poles lie at the extremities of the axis of rotation of the earth. The magnetic poles are at some considerable distance from the geographical poles.

Potential as applied to energy indicates the energy which is due to the position of a body. In considering the total amount of energy available, in any case we must consider not only the position but the quantity of working substance that is collected there. If we wish to consider the influence of the position alone we must limit our ideas to a particular amount of the working substance. We naturally choose the unit measure as the amount for this purpose, and the potential energy of unit quantity is called the *potential at the point*. Thus, the electrical potential at any point in the atmosphere is the amount of energy which one unit of electricity possesses in virtue of its position at the point. Similarly, the gravitational potential or geo-potential at any point above the earth's surface is the potential energy of a unit quantity of material, a gramme or a pound, placed there.

Potential temperature.—The temperature which a specimen of air would acquire if it were brought down from the position to the earth's surface under adiabatic conditions.

Pressure.—Force per unit of area exerted against a surface by the liquid or gas in contact with it. The pressure of the atmosphere, which is measured by means of the barometer, is produced by the weight of the overlying air. The pressure exerted by the wind is generally very small in comparison. That due to a wind of force 6 is approximately one-thousandth part of the pressure of the atmosphere.

Prevailing winds.—When a station experiences wind more often from a certain direction than from others, that wind is termed the prevailing wind. The best example is the trade wind, which blows from the N.E. at many places between the equator and 30° N. Lat. with great regularity, and from the S.E. in the corresponding belt south of the equator. In latitudes 40° to 60° north or south of the equator westerly winds are very common and form circumpolar whirls. These are best developed in the southern hemisphere, where there is less land. For England and the neighbouring portion of Europe the best guide to the prevailing winds in different parts is the average distribution of pressure shown in the maps of Mean Pressure in the *Monthly Weather Report* and its *Annual Summary*. The prevailing direction is between S.W. and W.: there is more southing in the western districts than in the eastern. In monsoonal regions the prevailing winds are in opposite directions at different seasons, and in others there may not be a favoured direction. In all cases a long series of observations is required to make sure of the normal conditions.

Probability.—When the occurrence of an event is apparently doubtful, but under similar circumstances has happened before, more often than not, we speak of it as

“probable.” Mathematically, the probability is represented by the fraction obtained by dividing the number of times that the event has happened by the total number of times that the circumstances have arisen. It is a quantity that must lie between 0 and 1 and is usually denoted by the letter p . It should be clear from the definition that the probability of the event failing to happen when added to the probability that it will happen must make 1. For example, we may consider the probability that to-morrow will be fine if to-day is wet. Out of a number N of occasions of wet days we count the number n when the following day was fine, and the probability of a fine day to-morrow is n/N . It may be called the *random probability* because the occasions are simply chosen at random without any guiding principle. It is, of course, necessary to deal with a large number of observations before a reliable value for the probability is obtained.

It will be noticed that in this sense probability is directly determined by the *frequency* of occurrence, so that the facts represented in tables of frequency can be equally well represented by tables of probability.

When we have no guide as to the expectation of an event except the number of times that a similar event has occurred previously, and we express the probability as a fraction $1/n$ with 1 as numerator, we may say that the *random chance* of the occurrence is one in n or that the *odds against* the occurrence are n to one.

Prognostics.—Signs of coming weather. Some of them are dealt with under SHEPHERD OF BANBURY and WEATHER MAXIMS. There is a widespread belief that certain animals are in some way aware of the approach

of wet weather and behave in some special manner in consequence, but this seems unlikely. There is no reason for supposing that they can feel anything beyond the changes of temperature, moisture, wind, &c., in the air surrounding them, and changes in these are followed by a great variety of weather. Perhaps the most valuable instrument for prognostication is the barometer. Regions of high and low pressure have fairly definite weather associated with them and mostly move across our islands from the west or south-west. A southerly wind, therefore, with a pronounced fall of the barometer, as an example, is a fairly reliable indication of an advancing depression and therefore of rain. A gradual dimming of the clear blue of the sky and the formation of a thickening sheet of high cloud, which often forms halos round the sun and moon, shows that the stormy area is not far off. By the application of Buys Ballot's Law (*q.v.*), it can be seen that the wind will generally veer towards west if the low pressure is going to pass on the north side of the observer, but will back if it is going to cross on the south side. In fine weather the wind often drops at night on the ground while continuing to blow a few hundred feet up. It follows therefore that brisk motion of the lower clouds on a still sunny morning indicates a wind which may be expected down below during the middle of the day.

Psychrometer, the name given to the dry and wet bulbs as forming an instrument for *measuring coolness*; the combination of a thermometer having its bulb coated with wet muslin and an ordinary thermometer used for estimating the dampness of the air by observing the difference between the readings of the two thermometers,

In dry air evaporation takes place freely and cools the wet bulb. The cooling for a given temperature of the dry bulb depends principally upon the dryness of the air or its absorbing power for moisture. In the aspiration psychrometer a fan is used so as to produce a draught of definite speed past the instrument.

Pumping.—Unsteadiness of the mercury in the barometer caused by fluctuations of the air pressure produced by a gusty wind or due to the oscillation of a ship.

Pyrheliometer.—An instrument for measuring the radiant heat received from the sun. In the most recent form of instrument devised by Ångström there are two metal strips, one of which receives the solar heat while the other is warmed by means of an electric current. The current required to give equal heating of the two strips depends upon the intensity of the sun's rays, and when measured gives the amount of heat received.

Q.V.—*Quod vide*, translated as *which see*; a mediæval method of directing the reader's attention to the article which has for title the word which *q.v.* follows.

Radiation is the process by which heat is transferred from one body to another without altering the temperature of the intervening medium. All life upon the earth and all meteorological phenomena are dependent upon the radiant heat and light received from the sun.

Rain is produced by the condensation of the aqueous vapour in the atmosphere. Each cubic foot or cubic

metre is capable of holding a certain definite amount of water in the form of vapour; the amount depends greatly upon the temperature, being large when the temperature is high and small when it is low. The water vapour is mixed with the air in varying proportions, and when the temperature of the mixture falls sufficiently a point is reached where the vapour is condensed into fine particles of water and a cloud is formed. As the cooling continues more water is condensed to form larger drops which fall as rain. The cooling which produces rain is probably dynamical. See ADIABATIC.

Rainbow.—A rainbow is seen when the sun shines upon raindrops, or indeed upon spherical drops of water produced by a waterfall or by any other means. The bow may be at any distance from the observer but its centre will always be exactly opposite the sun, and the angular diameter of the circle for each colour is invariable. When sunlight falls upon a drop of water it is reflected and refracted in all directions, but there are certain directions in which the light is much more intense than in others. An observer therefore looking at the drops in general will see some of them much better than others, and those drops which show up will lie in that particular direction in which they reflect the greatest amount of light. But the particular direction is different for each colour and hence the rainbow consists of a series of rings of different colours. A similar explanation applies to the secondary bows. In the primary bow the red is outside.

Rainday.—A day on which more than a certain specified amount of rain has fallen. It has been usual in the past to measure rainfall in hundredths of an inch and

·01 inch has been the specified quantity, a day on which ·005 inch, or more, fell, counting as a rainfall day.

Rainfall—water which falls from the atmosphere. The term is very commonly taken to include snow and hail. Precipitation is the proper inclusive term.

The measurement of a definite amount of rain, say, fifteen millimetres, 15 mm., means that if all the water had remained where it fell and not soaked in or run off, the depth of water on the ground would be 15 mm. An inch of rain is equivalent to 101 tons per acre; a millimetre to a kilogramme per square metre or one thousand metric tons per square kilometre.

Raingauge.—An instrument for measuring the rainfall. All the rain which falls on a definite area, generally a circle of either five or eight inches in diameter, is collected into a glass vessel which is graduated to give the amount of rain.

Réaumur—Réne Antoine Ferchault de, d. 1757, whose name is given to a scale of temperature now almost obsolete. On it the freezing point of water is zero and the boiling point 80°.

Reduction, as applied to meteorological observations generally means the substitution for the values directly observed, others which are computed therefrom and which place the results upon a comparable basis. Thus reduction to sea-level in the case of barometer readings means estimation according to certain rules of the value of the pressure below the actual place of observation, and the reduction of a set of mean values extending over a regular series of years to a uniform or normal period, indicates a similar procedure based upon comparison with neighbouring stations.

Registering balloon.—A small free balloon carrying with it a light meteorograph and sent up to ascertain the temperature, humidity, &c., of the air. See "BALLON SONDE."

Relative Humidity.—All natural air, unless it is artificially dried, contains more or less water in the form of vapour. For each temperature there is a fixed and definite amount of water in a definite volume of air such as a cubic foot or a cubic metre. Air which contains this full amount is called saturated air. The actual amount that can be present in a given volume depends on the temperature and increases rapidly as the temperature rises. The relative humidity is the ratio of the amount that is present to the maximum amount that could possibly be present. This ratio is expressed as a percentage so that saturated air, at whatsoever temperature it may be, always has a relative humidity of 100. Thus a relative humidity of, say, 75 means that a certain volume of air is holding in the form of vapour 75 grammes or ounces of water whereas it is capable of holding 100 grammes or ounces. When saturated air is cooled by any means it ceases to be able to hold all the water in an invisible form and fine water drops appear forming a fog or cloud.

From an analysis of upwards of 100,000 hourly readings at the observatories of the Meteorological Office during the three years 1907, 1908, 1909, it appears that on the average out of one thousand observations at every hour of the day or night throughout the year the frequencies of specified values of relative humidity are as follows:—

TABLE OF FREQUENCIES OF OCCURRENCE OF SPECIFIED VALUES OF RELATIVE HUMIDITY REFERRED TO A TOTAL OF ONE THOUSAND HOURLY OBSERVATIONS.

Relative Humidity.	Frequency.			
	Aberdeen.	Valencia.	Falmouth.	Kew.
100	1	14	0·2	1
95 to 99	45	186	104	76
90 to 94	150	191	213	171
80 to 89	378	335	328	321
70 to 79	270	217	234	206
60 to 69	119	51	102	135
50 to 59	33	5	18	71
40 to 49	4	1	1	17
30 to 39	0·2	0	0	2
Total	1000	1000	1000	1000

Ridge.—An extension of a high area shown on a weather chart, corresponding to the ridge running outwards from a mountain system. It is the opposite of a trough of low pressure.

Rime.—Ice crystals like small needles which form on trees and buildings in foggy, frosty weather. The needles point to the direction of the wind, and, in favourable situations, the summit of Ben Nevis for example, may accumulate and form large and heavy masses of ice.

Saturation.—When applied to the air this term indicates that all the moisture possible as water vapour at that temperature is present. A reduction of temperature would lead to the condensation of some of it to liquid drops, while a rise of temperature would make the air “dry” and enable it to take up more.

Screen.—In order to allow thermometers to indicate as nearly as possible the temperature of the air, and therefore to avoid the disturbing effect of the sun's rays and of neighbouring objects, louvered screens are used which allow of a free circulation of the air. The pattern used at the Meteorological Office observatories is a modification of that designed by Thomas Stevenson, C.E., one of the founders of the Scottish Meteorological Society. It is known in this country as the Stevenson screen, on the continent as the English screen.

Scud.—A word used by sailors to describe small fragments of cloud that drift along underneath nimbus clouds. The meteorological term is *fracto-nimbus* (Fr. Nb.). See CLOUDS.

In mountainous districts, after the passage of a depression, nimbus often breaks up into scud, which may persist with sunny weather for many hours.

Sea-breeze.—A breeze that blows from the sea during the day in fine weather and drops at night (see BREEZE).

In bright weather the warmed air over the land-surface rises, and there is an inrush of the cooler air from the sea to take its place; at night, when the temperatures are more or less equalised, the wind dies away.

Sea-Level.—The level surface which the sea would have if the waves were smoothed out. Mean sea level (M.S.L.) is the mean position occupied by this surface during the whole year. In England M.S.L. is an arbitrary level at Liverpool. See LEVEL.

Seasons.—In meteorology the seasons are taken to be as follows :

- | | | |
|-----------|-----|-------------------------------|
| 1. Spring | ... | March, April, May. |
| 2. Summer | ... | June, July, August. |
| 3. Autumn | ... | September, October, November. |
| 4. Winter | ... | December, January, February. |

If an element is described as having simply a seasonal variation, it implies that it goes through its changes in a period of one year.

The selection of months to represent the seasons according to the farmer's year is guided by the consideration that each season shall comprise three months. The uniformity in length opens the way for some paradoxical cases. The warmest week of summer may be in the spring, late May, or in autumn, early September, and the coldest week of winter may be in the autumn, late November, or spring, early March. From the point of view of weather, we have in this country about five months of moderate winter weather between October and April and four months of summer weather from the middle of May to the middle of September, a short spring and a short autumn; but the seasonal variations are not nearly so large here as they are in continental countries, and the change from winter to summer and *vice versa* is much less abrupt.

NORMAL TEMPERATURES OF EACH WEEK OF THE
SEVERAL SEASONS FOR ENGLAND-SOUTH-EAST.

Week No.	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.
	°A	°A	°A	°A
1	278	278	287	288
2	78	79	87	87
3	78	79	88	87
4	77	80	89	86
5	77	80	89	85
6	77	81	89	84
7	77	81	89	83
8	77	82	89	82
9	78	83	89	82
10	78	83	89	81
11	77	84	89	80
12	77	85	89	79
13	77	86	88	79
Mean	277	282	289	283

RAINFALL IN MILLIMETRES.

	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.
England, S.E.	172	131	160	216
Scotland, N.	413	251	268	396

The seasonal changes for England-South-East, are set out in the accompanying table of *normal temperatures* for each week of the year to which the seasonal rainfall of Scotland-North, as well as of England-South-East, has been added. The temperatures are given only to the nearest whole degree of the absolute scale, so that minute differences are not apparent.

If we allow for winter the temperatures 277, 278, 279, *i.e.*, from 39° F. to 43° F., and for summer the temperatures 287, 288, 289, *i.e.*, from 57° F. to 61° F., we see from the table that winter temperatures last from the 12th week of autumn (middle of November) to the 3rd week of spring (middle of March); then come ten weeks of slow transition, a degree each fortnight, to summer temperature in the first week of summer (beginning of June); the summer temperatures last until the third week of autumn, about the 21st September, then there are eight weeks of rapid transition of a degree each week until winter temperature is reached in the middle of November.

For rainfall in the South-East of England autumn is the rainy season with 216 mm., compared with 131 mm. in the spring, while in the North of Scotland winter is the rainiest season though spring is again the driest.

In considering the seasonal variations of rainfall it is important to distinguish between the day rainfall and the night rainfall. We may contrast the two from the summary of forty years' observations at Kew Observatory.

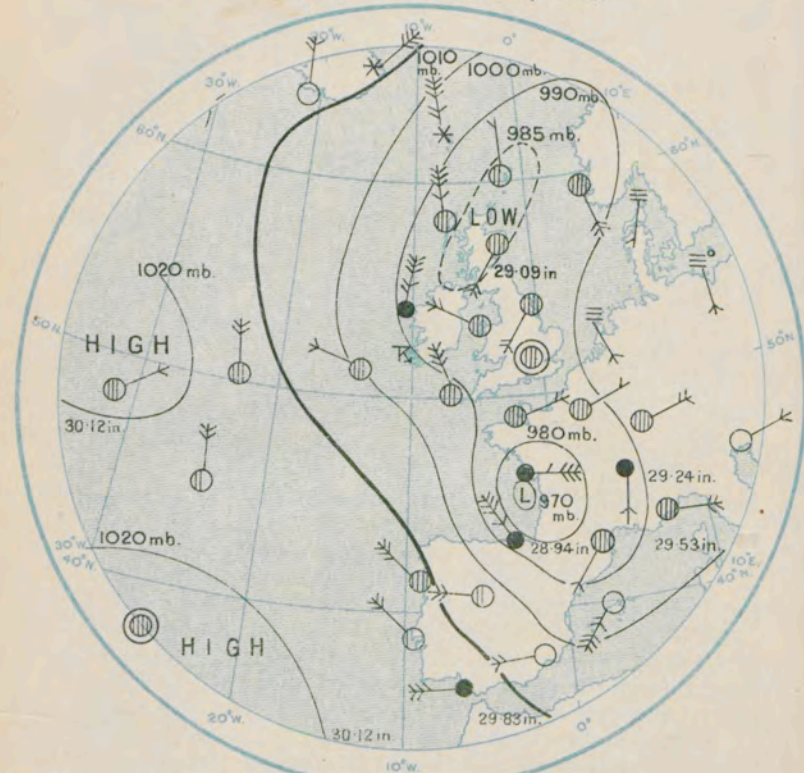
				Average Rainfall.			
				A.M.		P.M.	
				Midt. to 6 a.m.	6 a.m. to Noon.	Noon to 6 p.m.	6 p.m. to Midt.
				mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.
January	0'37	0'37	0'36	0'36
February	0'38	0'35	0'34	0'29
March	0'31	0'30	0'32	0'34
April	0'33	0'34	0'39	0'30
May	0'34	0'35	0'42	0'26
June	0'43	0'45	0'54	0'51
July	0'39	0'42	0'67	0'48
August	0'36	0'42	0'59	0'42
September	0'49	0'37	0'43	0'46
October	0'59	0'57	0'60	0'50
November	0'49	0'40	0'48	0'49
December	0'46	0'38	0'41	0'40

It will be seen that there is a maximum in October for each of the four quarters of the day, but the October maximum for the afternoon and for the evening is a subsidiary one. The maximum for the whole year belongs to the afternoon in July when the figure 0'67 is reached.

The reader is recommended to draw "isopleths" on this table, that is, lines of equal rainfall, .60 mm., .55 mm., .50 mm., .45 mm., .40 mm., .35 mm., and .30 mm. He will find the grouping of the rainy and of the dry parts of the day in different months of the year very suggestive.

The idea of four seasons in agriculture appropriate to these islands, the winter for tilling, the spring for sowing and early growth, the summer for maturing and harvesting and the autumn for clearing and preparing, depends

SECONDARY DEPRESSION.

DISTRIBUTION OF WEATHER, WIND, AND PRESSURE,
7 A.M. 22nd FEBRUARY, 1915.

ISOBARS are drawn for intervals of ten millibars.
WIND.—Direction is shown by arrows flying with the wind.
 Force, on the scale 0-12, is indicated by the number of feathers.
 Calm

WEATHER.—Shown by the following symbols—
 ○ clear sky. ○ sky ¼ clouded.
 ◐ sky ½ clouded. ◐ sky ¾ clouded.
 ◑ overcast sky. ● rain falling
 * snow. ▲ hail. ≡ fog.
 ≡ mist. T thunder. T thunderstorm.

upon the peculiarity of our climate. Where the land is ice-bound in winter or rainless in summer another distribution has to be made.

Between the tropics there is nothing that can properly be called summer and winter; the seasons depend upon the weather and rainfall and not upon the position of the sun, and the periods of growth are adjusted accordingly. In India, or the western part of it, the divisions of the year are the cold weather, the hot weather, and the rains.

It is curious, for example, that the period for growing wheat in Western Australia is locally the winter period and coincides in actual time with our own which is a summer period.

Secant.—The trigonometrical ratio hypotenuse to base. See **SINE**.

Secondary.—A small area of low pressure accompanying a larger "primary" depression. The secondary may develop into a large and deep cyclone, while the primary disappears. See **ISOBARS** and *Plate XIV*.

Seismograph.—An earthquake recorder or instrument for automatically recording the tremors of the earth.

Serein.—Fine rain falling from an apparently clear sky. It happens very rarely.

Shepherd of Banbury.—The nominal author of "rules to judge the changes of the weather." The following is taken from "The Complete Weather Guide," by Joseph Taylor, 1914:—

"Who the shepherd of Banbury was, we know not; nor indeed have we any proof that the rules called his, were penned by a real

shepherd: both these points are, however, immaterial: *their truth is their best voucher*. Mr. Claridge (who published them in the year 1744) states, that they are grounded on forty years' experience, and thus, very rightly, accounts for the presumption in their favour. 'The shepherd,' he remarks, 'whose sole business it is to observe what has a reference to the flock under his care, who spends all his days, and many of his nights in the open air, under the wide-spread canopy of Heaven, is obliged to take particular notice of the alterations of the weather; and when he comes to take a pleasure in making such observations, it is amazing how great a progress he makes in them, and to how great a certainty he arrives at last, by mere dint of comparing signs and events, and correcting one remark by another. Every thing, in time, becomes to him a sort of weather-gage. The sun, the moon, the stars, the clouds, the winds, the mists, the trees, the flowers, the herbs, and almost every animal with which he is acquainted, all these become, to such a person, instruments of real knowledge.'

The rules enumerated are typical of all rules based on experience of the weather; what of truth or error there is in them the reader may judge; they are as follows:—

- I. SUN.—*If the sun rise red and fiery*—Wind and rain.
- II. CLOUDS.—*If cloudy, and the clouds soon decrease*—Certain fair weather.
- III. *Clouds small and round, like a dapple-grey, with a north-wind*—Fair weather for two or three days.
- IV. *If small Clouds increase*—Much rain.
- V. *If large Clouds decrease*—Fair weather.
- VI. *In Summer or Harvest, when the wind has been South two or three days, and it grows very hot, and you see Clouds rise with great white Tops like Towers, as if one were upon the Top of another, and joined together with black on the nether side*—There will be thunder and rain suddenly.*
- VII. *If two such Clouds arise, one on either hand*—It is time to make haste to shelter.
- VIII. *If you see a Cloud rise against the Wind or side Wind, when that Cloud comes up to you*—The Wind will blow the same

* See photograph of Cumulo-Nimbus under CLOUDS,

way that the Cloud came. *And the same Rule holds of a clear Place, when all the Sky is equally thick, except one Edge.*

- IX. MIST.—*If Mists rise in low Grounds, and soon vanish*—Fair Weather.
- X. *If Mists rise to the Hill-tops*—Rain in a Day or two.
- XI. *A general Mist before the Sun rises, near the full Moon*—Fair Weather.
- XII. *If Mists in the New Moon*—Rain in the Old.
- XIII. *If Mists in the Old*—Rain in the New Moon.
- XIV. RAIN.—*Sudden Rains never last long: but when the Air grows thick by degrees and the Sun, Moon and Stars shine dimmer and dimmer, then it is like to rain six Hours usually.*
- XV. *If it begin to rain from the South, with a high Wind for two or three Hours, and the Wind falls, but the Rain continues, it is like to rain twelve Hours or more, and does usually rain till a strong North Wind clears the Air. These long Rains seldom hold above twelve Hours, or happen above once a year.*
- XVI. *If it begins to rain an Hour or two before Sunrising, it is likely to be fair before Noon, and to continue so that day; but if the Rain begins an Hour or two after Sunrising, it is likely to rain all that day, except the Rainbow be seen before it rains.*
- XVII. WINDS.—*Observe that in eight Years' Time there is as much South-West Wind as North-East, and consequently as many wet Years as dry.*
- XVIII. *When the Wind turns to North-East, and it continues two Days without Rain, and does not turn South the third Day, nor Rain the third Day, it is likely to continue North-East for eight or nine Days, all fair; and then to come to the South again.*
- XIX. *After a Northerly Wind for the most part of two Months or more, and then coming South, there are usually three or four fair Days at first, and then on the fourth or fifth*

Day comes Rain, or else the Wind turns North again, and continues dry.

XX. *If it turns again out of the South to the North-East with Rain, and continues in the North-East two Days without Rain, and neither turns South nor rains the third Day, it is likely to continue North-East two or three months.*

XXI. *If it returns to the South within a Day or two without Rain, and turns Northward with Rain, and returns to the South in one or two Days as before, two or three times together after this sort, then it is like to be in the South or South-West two or three Months together, as it was in the North before.*

The winds will finish these turns in a fortnight.

XXII. *Fair Weather for a Week with a Southern Wind is like to produce a great Drought, if there has been much Rain out of the South before. The Wind usually turns from the North to South with a quiet Wind without Rain; but returns to the North with a strong Wind and Rain. The strongest Winds are when it turns from South to North by West. When the North Wind first clears the Air, which is usually once a Week, be sure of a fair Day or two.*

XXIII. *SPRING AND SUMMER.—If the last eighteen Days of February and ten Days of March be for the most part rainy, then the Spring and Summer Quarters are like to be so too; and I never knew a great Drought but it entered in that Season.*

XXIV. *WINTER.—If the latter End of October and Beginning of November be for the most part warm and rainy, then January and February are like to be frosty and cold, except after a very dry Summer.*

XXV. *If October and November be Snow and Frost, January and February are likely to be open and mild.*

In modern meteorology some of the relationships which are laid down in the later of these rules might be given in the form of coefficients of CORRELATION.

Silver Thaw.—An expression of American origin. After a spell of severe frost the sudden setting in of a warm damp wind may lead to the formation of ice on exposed objects, which being still at a low temperature cause the moisture to freeze upon them and give rise to a "silver thaw."

Sine.—The ratio of the vertical height of a distant object to the distance of its top from the observer is the same for all objects which have their tops in the same line of sight. It is one method of specifying the angles which the objects "subtend" at the eye of the observer, which could also be specified by the ratio of the vertical height to the horizontal distance of its foot (tangent), or by the ratio of the horizontal distance of the foot to the distance from the observer (cosine). The values of these ratios are of great importance in surveying and are called the trigonometrical ratios of the angles. They are formally defined as follows:—

Let AB be a line drawn from the observer to the top of the distant object, BC the vertical, AC the horizontal. Then ABC is a right angled triangle with C as the right angle.

The sine of the angle A ($\sin A$) is the ratio BC to AB.

The cosine of the angle A ($\cos A$) is the ratio AC to AB.

The tangent ($\tan A$) is the ratio BC to AC.

The secant ($\sec A$) is the ratio of AB to AC.

The cosecant ($\csc A$) is the ratio AB to BC.

The cotangent ($\cot A$) is the ratio AC to BC.

If the angle is greater than a right angle some of these ratios are negative and the following convention is adopted. A positive angle is measured from AC in the direction opposite to the motion of a watch hand. The

line AB is always counted positive, AC is positive if C falls on the right of A, negative if C falls on the left, and BC is positive if B falls above AC, and negative if B is below AC. Thus if the angle is between 90° and 270° AC is negative, and if between 180° and 360° BC is negative.

Sleet.—Precipitation of rain and snow together.

Snow.—Precipitation in the form of feathery ice crystals.

Snow Crystals.—Thin flat ice-crystals of a hexagonal form. There are many patterns, and when snowflakes of various size are observed on any one occasion they differ only by containing a larger or smaller number of these crystals.

Solarisation.—Exposure to direct sunlight the same as Insolation.

Solstice.—The time of maximum or minimum declination of the sun, when the altitude of the sun at noon shows no appreciable change from day to day. The summer solstice for the northern hemisphere when the sun is farthest north of the equator is on June 21st, and the winter solstice when it is farthest south is on December 21st. After the summer solstice the days get shorter until the winter solstice and *vice versa*.

Sounding.—Generally means a trial of the depth of the sea but in meteorology it is used for a trial of heights in the atmosphere with measures of pressure, temperature, humidity or wind-velocity. "Soundings of the ocean of air" can be carried out by means of kites, PILOT BALLOONS or BALLONS-SONDES.

Spring.—Meteorologically in the northern hemisphere, the three months March, April and May. Astronomically, spring is defined as the period from the vernal EQUINOX March 21st to the summer solstice June 21st. See SEASONS.

Squall.—A strong wind that rises suddenly, lasts for some minutes and dies suddenly away. It is frequently associated with a temporary shift of the wind and heavy showers of rain or snow. The thundersquall is a cool outrushing wind, probably katabatic, that often precedes a thunderstorm.

Stability.—A state of steadiness not readily upset by small events. For stability of the atmosphere, see ENTROPY.

Standard Time.—Time referred to the mean time of a specified meridian. The meridian of Greenwich is the standard for Western Europe. The standard meridian of other countries is chosen by international agreement so that it differs from Greenwich by an exact number of hours or half hours.

State of the Sky.—The fraction of the sky obscured by cloud. It is usually measured on a scale, of 0 (quite clear) to 10 (overcast). A rougher classification suitable for synoptic charts divides the cloudiness into four classes represented by the symbols: b, bc, c, and o, which correspond to cloudiness of 0-3, 4-6, 7-8, and 9-10 respectively.

Statics.—A branch of mechanics, dealing with the forces which keep a body at rest.

Station.—A place where regular meteorological observations are made. The classification of British stations is:—

(1.) *First order stations of the International Classification.* Normal Meteorological Observatories: at which

continuous records or hourly readings of pressure, temperature, wind, sunshine, and rain, with eye observations at fixed hours of the amount, form, and motion of clouds and notes on the weather, are taken.

(2.) *Second order stations of the International Classification. Normal Climatological Stations:* at which are recorded daily, at two fixed hours at least, observations of pressure, temperature (dry and wet bulb), wind, cloud and weather, with the daily maxima and minima of temperature, the daily rainfall and remarks on the weather. At some stations the duration of bright sunshine is also registered.

(3) *Third order stations of the International Classification. Auxiliary Climatological Stations:* at which the observations are of the same kind as at the Normal Climatological Stations, but (a) less full, or (b) taken once a day only, or (c) taken at other than the recognised hours.

Statoscope.—A very sensitive form of aneroid barometer, used to show whether a balloon is rising or sinking. The range of its index is very small and it has to be set from time to time by opening a tap leading to the interior of the box.

Storm.—Is commonly used for any violent atmospheric commotion, a violent GALE or a THUNDERSTORM, a rainstorm, duststorm or snowstorm. A gale of wind is classed as a storm when the wind reaches force 10.

Strato-cumulus.—The most common form of cloud of moderate altitude, sometimes covering the whole sky. It consists of flattish masses, often arranged in waves or rolls. See CLOUDS.

Stratosphere.—The external layer of the atmosphere in which there is no convection. The temperature of the air generally diminishes with increasing height until a point is reached where the fall ceases abruptly. Above this point lies the stratosphere, which is a region where the temperature changes slowly in either direction, and over one place is practically uniform (see BALLON-SONDE). The height at which the stratosphere commences is often about seven miles, but varies. It is higher in regions nearer the equator.

Stratus.—A sheet of low cloud without definite form; virtually fog above the level of the ground. See CLOUDS.

Summer.—Meteorologically in the northern hemisphere the months of June, July, and August. Astronomically, the period from the summer solstice, June 21st, to the autumnal equinox, September 22nd. See SEASONS.

Sun.—The central body of the solar system, round which the various planets revolve. Almost all meteorological processes depend directly or indirectly upon the radiation received from the sun.

Sundogs.—Another word for mock suns or parhelia; i.e., images of the sun occurring most often on the halo of 22° radius. Sometimes also used for portions of a rainbow.

Sun Pillar.—A column of light extending for about twenty degrees above the sun, most often observed at sunrise or sunset. The colour is usually white but sometimes red. It is due to the reflection of light from snow crystals.

Sunshine.—An important climatological factor that is determined by a sunshine recorder, an instrument in

which the rays of the sun are focussed by means of a glass sphere upon a card graduated into hours. To obtain comparable results the instrument must satisfy a precise specification. The sun will also record its appearance on photographic paper and in many other ways, but in dealing with climatological records it is of the first importance that they should be made on a comparable basis.

For the British Isles a set of Monthly Maps of normals for the duration of sunshine, together with those for temperature and rainfall, is given in an *Appendix to the Weekly Weather Report* for 1913. The only point to which attention will be called here is that when one takes the values for the whole year, so that the possible amount is the same for all stations, there is a gradual falling off in the percentage of possible duration shown on the records, as one goes northward, from nearly 45 per cent. in the Channel Isles to 25 per cent. in the Shetland Isles. This difference raises the question whether there are any parts of the globe where the average percentage of the possible duration of sunshine is zero, where the screen of cloud is perpetual.

If there is a region of that character, judging from the meteorological conditions that are known to us, we should expect to find it somewhere near the Arctic Circle in the North Atlantic and the North Pacific, and anywhere along the Antarctic Circle in the Southern Ocean. And, on the other hand, we know that, except in those regions where the belts are interrupted by the trade winds and monsoons, there is hardly any interference with the sun's rays by cloud in the high pressure belts along the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn. We are not able at present to give the figures which represent these conclusions, but they lead on to speculation as to the causes which account

for the distribution of cloud and sunshine and as to why cloud and rain are not confined to special localities or regions.

PERCENTAGES OF POSSIBLE DURATION OF SUNSHINE
FOR THE WHOLE YEAR FOR DISTRICTS IN THE
BRITISH ISLES (AVERAGES FROM RECORDS EX-
TENDING OVER THE 30 YEARS, 1881—1910).

Western Side.	Per cent.	Middle Districts.	Per cent.	Eastern Side.	Per cent.
Scotland, W. ...	30	Scotland, N. ...	26	Scotland, E. ...	30
Ireland, N. ...	29	England, N.W. ...	32	England, N.E. ...	31
Ireland, S. ...	32	Midland Counties	31	England, E. ...	36
		England, S.W. ...	38	England, S.E. ...	38
		English Channel	43		

Synoptic.—Giving a general or “bird’s eye” view. Synoptic charts show the weather at one point of time, or its mean values for the same interval, over a large area upon a single map.

Tangent.—A straight line that touches a curve and does not cut it even when produced. Trigonometrically, the ratio perpendicular : base. See SINE.

Temperature is defined as the state of a body with regard to the communication of heat. It must be carefully distinguished from HEAT which is a form of energy. For meteorological purposes temperature is shown by the mercury thermometer, mercury being a substance the volume of which increases uniformly and steadily with increase of temperature.

°F.	°C.	°A.	°F.	°C.	°A.	°F.	°C.	°A.	°F.	°C.	°A.
20	-6.7	266.3	45	7.2	280.2	70	21.1	294.1	95	35.0	308.0
21	-6.1	266.9	46	7.8	280.8	71	21.7	294.7	96	35.6	308.6
22	-5.6	267.4	47	8.3	281.3	72	22.2	295.2	97	36.1	309.1
23	-5.0	268.0	48	8.9	281.9	73	22.8	295.8	98	36.7	309.7
24	-4.4	268.6	49	9.4	282.4	74	23.3	296.3	99	37.2	310.2
25	-3.9	269.1	50	10.0	283.0	75	23.9	296.9	100	37.8	310.8
26	-3.3	269.7	51	10.6	283.6	76	24.4	297.4	101	38.3	311.3
27	-2.8	270.2	52	11.1	284.1	77	25.0	298.0	102	38.9	311.9
28	-2.2	270.8	53	11.7	284.7	78	25.6	298.6	103	39.4	312.4
29	-1.7	271.3	54	12.2	285.2	79	26.1	299.1	104	40.0	313.0
30	-1.1	271.9	55	12.8	285.8	80	26.7	299.7	105	40.6	313.6
31	-0.6	272.4	56	13.3	286.3	81	27.2	300.2	106	41.1	314.1
32	+0.0	273.0	57	13.9	286.9	82	27.8	300.8	107	41.7	314.7
33	0.6	273.6	58	14.4	287.4	83	28.3	301.3	108	42.2	315.2
34	1.1	274.1	59	15.0	288.0	84	28.9	301.9	109	42.8	315.8
35	1.7	274.7	60	15.6	288.6	85	29.4	302.4	110	43.3	316.3
36	2.2	275.2	61	16.1	289.1	86	30.0	303.0	111	43.9	316.9
37	2.8	275.8	62	16.7	289.7	87	30.6	303.6	112	44.4	317.4
38	3.3	276.3	63	17.2	290.2	88	31.1	304.1	113	45.0	318.0
39	3.9	276.9	64	17.8	290.8	89	31.7	304.7	114	45.6	318.6
40	4.4	277.4	65	18.3	291.3	90	32.2	305.2	115	46.1	319.1
41	5.0	278.0	66	18.9	291.9	91	32.8	305.8	116	46.7	319.7
42	5.6	278.6	67	19.4	292.4	92	33.3	306.3	117	47.2	320.2
43	6.1	279.1	68	20.0	293.0	93	33.9	306.9	118	47.8	320.8
44	6.7	279.7	69	20.6	293.6	94	34.4	307.4	119	48.3	321.3

Temperature - Gradient.—A steady change of temperature from place to place (see GRADIENT); but the usual meaning of the term is the decrease of temperature that is found as greater altitudes are reached.

In most parts of the earth near the surface a fall of temperature of 1°F. for every 300 feet occurs so that a tableland on the summit of a mountain 3,000 feet high will have a mean temperature 10°F. lower than stations near sea level in the same neighbourhood.

In the free atmosphere the temperature gradient is usually measured in degrees Centigrade per kilometre of height. The decrease is a little slower than that found by mountain observations. It amounts to about 6°C. per kilometre in England in the lower strata, but increases to from 7° to 8° in the strata that lie between 5 and 9 kilometre height. Above 11 or 12 k. the fall ceases altogether. In the tropics the temperature gradient of 7° or 8° per kilometre is continued up to 15 k. height or more.

Tension of Vapour.—See VAPOUR.

Terrestrial.—Having reference to the earth. The term Terrestrial Radiation refers to the heat radiated from the earth.

Thermogram.—The continuous record of temperature yielded by a thermograph.

Thermograph.—A self-recording thermometer generally consisting of a "Bourdon" tube or a bimetallic spiral with a suitable index. A large spirit thermometer with a float is also used. A mercury thermometer can

also be arranged to give a photographic record, as at the observatories of the Kew type.

Thermometer.—An instrument for recording temperature, usually by means of the changes in volume of mercury or spirit contained in a glass tube with a bulb at one end. Generally the temperature of the air is required, and this is not easily obtained, particularly in sunny weather. Readings of thermometers exposed in a Stevenson screen, however, are sufficiently accurate for practical purposes.

Thunder.—The noise that follows a flash of lightning, attributed to the vibrations set up by the sudden heating and expansion of the air along the path of the lightning. The distance of a lightning flash may be roughly estimated by the interval that elapses between seeing the flash and hearing the thunder, counting a mile for every five seconds.

It is somewhat astonishing in common experience at what little distance thunder ceases to be audible: the interval between flash and sound seldom if ever reaches a full minute which sets a limit of twelve miles to the distance of audibility. Considering the violence of the commotion in the immediate neighbourhood of a flash it might be expected that the sound would be perceptible at far greater distances. Two considerations affect the question—first, it is a common experience with balloonists that sounds from the balloon are less easily audible on the ground than sounds from the ground to the balloon and this observation is confirmed by the experience on mountains that sounds from below are more easily audible upwards than sounds from above downwards; the second consideration is that in thunder-weather there are great

discontinuities in the atmosphere, so that the distortion of the rays of sound, which partly accounts for the smaller audibility of sounds from below, is much exaggerated on the occasion of a thunderstorm.

Thunderstorm.*—In the British Isles, except at the stations on the Atlantic Coasts, well developed thunderstorms occur most frequently in the summer and especially during the afternoon. The barometric disturbances with which they are associated are generally too limited in area to be called cyclones, but like cyclones they frequently move towards the East. They are nearly always accompanied by heavy rain, which is sometimes preceded by a squall that blows outward from the advancing storm, while the barometer rises suddenly and then remains comparatively steady. The squall brings with it cool air. See **LINE SQUALL**.

Lightning is seen and thunder heard before the arrival of the storm itself, but the flashes are generally most brilliant during the heavy rain. The thunder then follows the flashes after a very short interval, showing that the discharge has taken place at no great distance.

The thunder-cloud seems to be an extreme development of the cumulus cloud, in which the ascending currents have reached to a considerable height and spread outwards at the top. In consequence they often have the shape of an anvil. The thunder type of cumulus has a rounded summit with a clearly defined border. Observations of the time and place of occurrence of thunderstorms show that they are generally long and comparatively narrow, and move broadside across the country. The precise conditions that lead to their formation are not understood. In some parts of the tropics thunderstorms are frequent and very violent.

* See photographs under **CLOUDS** and **MAMMATO-CUMULUS**.

IMMUNITY FROM THUNDERSTORMS IN VARIOUS PARTS EXTENDING MAINLY OVER THE 25 YEARS

Table of "odds against one", expressing the random chance

STATION.		Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.
North.	Sumburgh Hd. (Island)	767	164	569	450
	Deerness (Island) ...	135	30	57	68
	Stornoway (Island) ...	192	77	134	102
	Wick (E. Coast) ...	110	30	103	225
	Fort Augustus (Inland)	108	56	606	225
East.	Nairn (N.E. Coast) ...	192	32	284	1,120
	Aberdeen (E. Coast) ...	135	20	142	1,120
	Braemar (Inland) ...	74	25	162	281
	Dundee (E. Coast) ...	55	15	84	750
	Leith (E. Coast) ...	115	23	228	375
West.	Laudale (W. Coast) ...	34	24	39	33
	Rothsay (Island) ...	44	33	71	80
	Glasgow (W. Coast) ...	68	26	162	204
	Pinmore ...	92	45	97	118
	Douglas (Isle of Man)	53	24	49	250
N.	Malin Hd. (N.W. Coast)	92	36	120	134
	Blacksod Pt. (W. Coast)	109	58	152	73
	Markree Castle (Inland)	72	32	175	78
	Armagh (Inland) ...	97	25	505	391
	Donaghadee (E. Coast)	115	46	175	1,120
S.	Dublin (E. Coast) ...	61	18	99	250
	Valencia (S.W. Coast) ...	92	60	78	750
	Roches Pt. (S. Coast) ...	82	43	108	150
SCILLY & CHANNEL ISLANDS.	Scilly (St. Mary's) ...	82	42	65	68
	Jersey (St. Aubin's)	36	16	28	58

OF THE UNITED KINGDOM AS SHOWN BY OBSERVATIONS 1881-1905 (COMPILED BY F. J. BRODIE).

of a thunderstorm on any day in the several seasons of the year.

STATION.		Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.
ENGLAND. N.E.	N. Shields (E. Coast) ...	74	20	95	375
	Durham (Inland) ...	27	10	79	562
	York (Inland) ...	27	13	81	2,250
	Spurn Hd. (E. Coast) ...	32	11	62	375
E.	Hillingdon (Inland) ...	21	8	37	205
	Yarmouth (E. Coast) ...	45	13	87	562
	Norwich (Inland) ...	19	9	40	209
	Cambridge (Inland) ...	27	10	47	750
MIDLAND COUNTIES.	Worksop ...	27	10	61	225
	Cheadle ...	17	8	25	125
	Churchstoke ...	36	15	76	220
	Loughborough ...	31	11	65	1,000
	Cheltenham ...	29	14	87	161
	Oxford ...	40	14	63	750
S.E.	London (Brixton) ...	25	11	53	225
	Margate (E. Coast) ...	55	20	103	1,120
	Dungeness (S. Coast) ...	53	17	51	562
	Southampton (Inland)	45	17	58	225
	Hurst Castle (S. Coast)	74	29	76	322
ENGLAND. N.W.	Aysgarth (Inland) ...	27	13	39	237
	Stonyhurst (Inland) ...	23	10	27	94
	Liverpool (W. Coast) ...	74	27	114	321
	Llandudno (W. Coast) ...	68	29	60	141
	Holyhead (W. Coast) ...	72	30	69	374
S.W.	Pembroke (W. Coast) ...	209	92	95	562
	Falmouth (S.W. Coast)	177	56	73	150
	Cullompton (Inland) ...	72	30	108	150

Time.—For all common purposes Greenwich mean civil time is now used in all places in Great Britain, except at Canterbury, and clocks are set by telegraphic signal from Greenwich. Previously, each town or village clock kept its own local mean time and had to be set by the local time keeper, usually the parson, with the aid of a sundial or some other means of ascertaining the time from the sun. In Ireland clocks are set according to Dublin time, which is 25 minutes after Greenwich time. In meteorology the hours of the civil day are numbered from 1 to 24, the counting beginning from midnight. Thus the hours of observation for telegraphic reporting are, 1h., 7h., 13h., 18h., with a subsidiary observation at 21h. Meteorologists are closely interested in good time-keeping because punctuality is of importance, both with climatological observations and with those that are made for the maps used in forecasting. For the former local time and for the latter Greenwich time is taken as the standard. The records of self-recording instruments, when the sheet is changed once a week, are for many purposes useless unless marks are made on the trace at definite times so as to allow for irregularities in the running from day to day. See STANDARD TIME.

Tornado.—A short lived but very violent wind. In West Africa the tornado is the squall which accompanies a thunderstorm; it blows outward from the front of the storm at about the time the rain commences, and in all parts of the world similar squalls occur associated with thunder. It is also the name applied to small but very violent whirlwinds of one or two hundred yards diameter. These whirlwinds often do immense damage in the United States, where they are known as cyclones, com-

pletely destroying every tree and building in their track. They are not unknown in England, but are less frequent and less violent than in North America.

Trajectory.—The path traced out by a definite particle of air in a travelling storm, or the horizontal projection of the course followed by a pilot balloon: the trajectory, as worked out from theodolite readings, may be plotted on squared paper, and the direction and velocity of the wind at any given height deduced therefrom.

Tramontana.—An Italian word for the northerly winds of Italy which blow from the mountains.

Transparency.—The capacity for allowing rays of light or some other form of radiation to pass. Thus glass is transparent for the visible radiation of light. Rock-salt is specially transparent for the rays of radiant heat. See VISIBILITY.

Tropic.—One or other of the circles of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of latitude north and south of the equator, which represent the furthest position reached by the sun in summer and winter in consequence of the tilting of the earth's axis with reference to the plane of the ecliptic. The term applies also to the zone of the earth lying between them. The northern circle is called the tropic of Cancer, the southern the tropic of Capricorn.

Tropical.—Belonging to the regions of the tropics, or similar to what is experienced there. The word tropical is often used for the region between the tropics, which is more strictly called intertropical.

Troposphere.—A term suggested by Teisserenc de Bort for the lower layers of the atmosphere. The temperature

falls with increasing altitude up to a certain height (see TEMPERATURE GRADIENT), and the part of the atmosphere in which this fall occurs is called the troposphere. In these latitudes (50°) it extends from the surface for a thickness of some 7 miles or 11 kilometres; in the tropics the thickness may reach 10 miles or 16 kilometres.

Trough.—The period of lowest barometer during the passage of a depression. Taking the fluctuations of the barometer to be analogous to the fluctuations of level caused by waves, which is, however, not a very good analogy, the trough of the wave suggests as its counterpart the lowest reading of the barometer. With the barometer the passage of the trough is generally marked by phenomena of the type of a LINE SQUALL, a sudden rise of pressure, veer of wind, drop of temperature, and one or more squalls; nothing of that kind takes place in the trough of a wave.

Type.—Different distributions of atmospheric pressure are characterised by more or less definite kinds of weather, and accordingly when a certain form of distribution is seen on a chart the weather is described as belonging to such and such a type. The types are defined as cyclonic, anti-cyclonic and indefinite, and by terms denoting the direction of the isobars. Thus, a "southerly type" denotes a weather chart on which the isobars are shown as more or less parallel lines running north and south. A northerly type will have isobars running north and south, but the distinction will be that in the southerly type the winds will be from south and south-east, whereas in the northerly type the winds are from the north. In each season each type has more or less definite kinds of weather. Thus, the anti-cyclonic type will have dry weather, the cyclonic

wet, the southerly type will in general be warm, the northerly cold.

Typhoon.—A word of Chinese origin applied to the tropical cyclones occurring in the western Pacific near Japan and the Philippine Islands. They are extremely violent circular storms of 50 to 100 miles diameter and travel slowly. Exactly similar storms are known as hurricanes in the West Indies, and as cyclones in the Bay of Bengal. The hurricanes of Mauritius are also similar to typhoons. See HURRICANE.

V-shaped depression.—Used to describe isobars having the shape of the letter V, which enclose an area of low pressure. The point of the V is always towards the south or east.

Vapour-pressure.—Otherwise called vapour tension.

Vapour-tension.—A now obsolete term for vapour-pressure. There seems now to be no reason why this should be called tension. Vapour is the same as a gas, but is called vapour when its liquid form is of common occurrence. In meteorology vapour tension refers exclusively to the pressure of water vapour. When several gases or vapours are mixed together in the same space each one exerts the same pressure as it would if the others were not present, and the vapour tension is that part of the whole atmospheric pressure which is due to water vapour. See AQUEOUS VAPOUR, RELATIVE HUMIDITY.

Vector.—A straight line drawn from a definite point in a definite direction. Thus a radius vector of the earth in its orbit is the line drawn from the sun to the earth. A

vector quantity is a quantity which has a direction as well as magnitude and of which the full details are not known unless the direction is known. In meteorology the wind and the motion of the clouds are examples of vector quantities; the direction as well as the magnitudes are required, whereas in the case of the barometer or the temperature the figures expressing magnitude tell us everything. They are called scalar quantities. All vectors obey the parallelogram law. That is to say, that any vector A may be exactly replaced by any two or three vectors B and C provided that B and C are adjacent sides of any parallelogram and A the diagonal through the point where B and C meet. Also the converse holds.

The position of an airship a given time after starting is an example. The two vector quantities that bring about the final result are the velocity and the direction of the airship through the air and the velocity and direction of the air, *i.e.*, the wind. Suppose an airship pointing S.W. and with speed of 40 miles an hour. After two hours its position on a calm day is 80 miles S.W. of the starting point. Now suppose the airship has to move in a S. wind of 30 miles an hour; after two hours this wind alone would place the airship 60 miles N. of the starting point. The real position will be given by drawing these two lines and finding the opposite corner of the parallelogram of which they form adjacent sides.

Veering.—The changing of the wind in the direction of the motion of the hands of a watch. The opposite to BACKING.

Velocity.—Velocity is the ratio of the space passed over by the moving body to the time that is taken. It is

expressed by the number of units of length passed over in unit time, but in no other sense is it equal to this space. It can be expressed in a variety of units. For winds metres per second, kilometres per hour and miles per hour are most common. When a velocity is variable a very short time is chosen in which to measure it. Thus the statement "at 11 a.m. the wind was blowing at the rate of 60 miles per hour" means that for one second or so at just 11 a.m. the wind had such a rate, that had that rate continued for an hour the air would have travelled 60 miles in that hour.

From the time of its establishment in 1854 until the final evaluation of the Beaufort Scale in 1905 it was the custom of the Meteorological Office to measure wind velocity by the cup anemograph which gave the "run" of an hour in miles. Miles per hour were accordingly the accepted unit of velocity, but when it became certain that for anemometers of the standard size (9-in. cups and 2-ft. arms) the "factor" was not 3 but 2.2 so that the miles were not really miles after all, some change of nomenclature was necessary to mark so great a change of habit. The pressure-tube anemograph gave the opportunity of measuring the velocity at any instant instead of the run during an hour: a gust that lasts only part of a minute is more appropriately measured by the distance which the wind travels in a second than by the distance which it might travel in an hour if it remained unchanged throughout the hour. Moreover in all questions of dynamical calculation the second is the unit of time. Gunners use the foot per second as their unit. The metre per second is more suitable for units on the C.G.S. system and is now used in all the publications of the Meteorological Office.

Vernier.—A contrivance for estimating fractions of a scale division when the reading to the nearest whole division is not sufficiently accurate. The vernier is a uniformly divided scale which is arranged to slide alongside the main scale of an instrument. Information as to the graduation of a vernier and the method of reading is given in *The Observer's Handbook*.

Vertical.—The direction of the force of gravity or of the plumb line, so called because it refers to the vertex, *i.e.*, to the zenith. A vertical line is perpendicular to the surface of still water, which is horizontal. When produced it passes through the zenith and very close to the centre of the earth. Two vertical lines can therefore never be parallel, although if they are near together they are very nearly so. A vertical plane at any point likewise passes through the zenith and close to the centre of the earth. A vertical circle is a GREAT CIRCLE passing through the zenith and the nadir; and the vertical circle also passing through the east and west points is called the prime vertical.

Viscosity.—The property of a liquid or gas whereby it resists the tangential motion of its parts. See DIFFUSION.

Visibility.—Great clearness of the air, enabling far distant objects to be seen distinctly. This state of affairs occurs very commonly during the fair intervals in wet and stormy weather. The symbol in the Beaufort notation is *v*.

Vortex.—The central part of a tornado or cyclone. A good illustration is when water is running out at the bottom of a circular basin, a sort of funnel is formed in

the water running down from the water to the plug hole, and this funnel is called the vortex. A very similar action certainly goes on in tornados and waterspouts and probably also, but on a much larger scale, in tropical hurricanes. The action in the cyclones of temperate latitudes is most likely different, but in each case the central part is called the vortex.

Water.—The name used for a large variety of substances such as sea-water, rain-water, spring-water, fresh-water, of which water, in the chemical sense, is the chief ingredient. Chemically pure water is a combination of Hydrogen and Oxygen in the proportion by weight of one part to eight, or by volume, at the same pressure and temperature, of two to one, but the capacity of water for dissolving or absorbing varying quantities of other substances, solid, liquid or gaseous, is so potent that the properties of chemically pure water are known more by inference than by practical experience. They are in many important respects different from those of the water of practical life.

The most characteristic property of ordinary water is that we find it in all three of the molecular states; we know it in the solid state as ice, as a liquid, over a considerable range of temperature so well recognised that it is used for graduating thermometers, and a gas. Thus, freezing and boiling are the common experience of many specimens of the water of ordinary life and yet it is difficult to say in what circumstances, if any, perfectly pure water can be made to freeze or to boil.

Ordinary water is a palatable beverage and is a medium in which a variety of forms of vegetable and animal life can thrive, but pure water freed from dissolved gases is perfectly sterile and quite unpalatable.

Ordinary water has a density of 1 gramme per cubic centimetre (62·3 lbs. per cubic foot) at 277°A. Sea-water contains dissolved salts to the extent of 35 parts per 1000 parts of water and its density varies from 1·01 to 1·05 g/cc.

Rain-water is the purest form of ordinary water, it contains only the slight amounts of impurity in the form of ammonium salts derived from the atmosphere. Spring-water contains varying amounts of salts dissolved from the strata of soil or rock through which it has percolated. The most common of these salts is carbonate of calcium, which is specially soluble in water that is already aerated with carbonic acid gas; sulphates of calcium and other earthy metals are also found and sometimes a considerable quantity of magnesia. These dissolved salts give the waters of certain springs a medicinal character. In some districts underground water is impregnated with common salt and its allied compounds to such an extent that it is no longer called water but brine.

When impure water evaporates, the gas that passes away consists of water alone, the salts, which are not volatile, are left behind; similarly when water freezes in ordinary circumstances the ice is formed of pure water, the salts remain behind in the solution; so that except for the slight amount due to mechanical processes, pure water can be got from sea-water or any impure water either by distilling it or by freezing it.

Besides the solid constituents which give it a certain degree of what is called "hardness," ordinary water contains also small quantities of gases in solution, presumably oxygen and carbonic acid. When the water freezes the ice consists of pure water and the dissolved gases collect themselves in crowds of small bubbles.

The thermal properties of water, in the state of purity

represented by rain-water, are very remarkable. Starting from ordinary temperatures, such as 290°A. (62·6°F.) and going upwards in the scale, the water increases in bulk and part evaporates from the surface until the boiling point is reached, a temperature which depends upon the pressure as indicated on p. 170. Then the water gradually boils away without any increase of temperature, but with the absorption of a great amount of heat. Going downwards, the bulk of the water contracts slightly until the temperature of 277°A. is reached (4°C., 39·1°F.): that is known as the temperature of maximum density of water. From that point to the freezing point of water, there is a slight expansion of one eight-thousandth part, and in the act of freezing there is a large expansion amounting to one-eleventh of the volume of water. It is in consequence of this change of density in freezing that ice floats in water with a one-eleventh of its volume projecting, if the ice is clean, solid ice and the water of the density of fresh water. Salt water would cause a still larger fraction to project, but floating ice carries with it a considerable amount of air cavities and sometimes a load of earth so that the relation of the whole volume of an iceberg to the projecting fraction is not at all definite.

Waterspout.—The term used for the funnel-shaped tornado cloud when it occurs at sea.

Waterspouts are seen more frequently in the tropics than in higher latitudes. Their formation appears to follow a certain course. From the lower side of heavy Nimbus clouds a point like an inverted cone appears to descend slowly. Beneath this point the surface of the sea appears agitated and a cloud of vapour or spray forms. The point of cloud descends until it dips into the centre

of the cloud of spray; at the same time the spout assumes the appearance of a column of water. It may attain a thickness (judged by eye) of 20 or 30 feet, and may be 200 to 350 feet in height. It lasts from 10 minutes to half an hour, and its upper part is often observed to be travelling at a different velocity from its base until it assumes an oblique or bent form. Its dissolution begins with attenuation, and it finally parts at about a third of its height from the base and quickly disappears. The wind in its neighbourhood follows a circular path round the vortex and, although very local, is often of considerable violence, causing a rough and confused, but not high, sea.

Waves.—Any regular periodic oscillations, the most noticeable case being that of waves on the sea. The three magnitudes that should be known about a wave are the amplitude, the wave length, and the period. The amplitude is half the distance between the extremes of the oscillations, in a sea wave it is half the vertical distance between the trough and crest, the wave length is the distance between two successive crests, and the period is the time-interval between two crests passing the same point. In meteorological matters the wave is generally an oscillation with regard to time like the seasonal variation of temperature, and in such cases the wave length and the period become identical.

If a quantity varies so as to form a regular series of waves it is usual to express it by a simple mathematical formula of the form $y = a \sin(nt - a)$. Full explanation cannot be given here, it must suffice to say that the method of expressing periodic oscillations by one or more terms of the form $a \sin(nt - a)$ is known as

"putting into a sine curve," "putting into a Fourier series," or as "harmonic analysis."

Any periodic oscillations either of the air, water, temperature, or any other variable, recurring more or less regularly, may be referred to as waves. During the passage of sound waves the pressure of the air at any point alternately rises above and falls below its mean value at the time. A pure note is the result of waves of this sort that are all similar, that is to say, that have the same amplitude and wave length. The amplitude is defined in this simple case as the extent of the variation from the mean, while the wave length is the distance between successive maximum values. The period is defined as the time taken for the pressure to pass through the whole cycle of its variations and return to its initial value. Another good example of wave motion is provided by the variations in the temperature of the air experienced in these latitudes on passing from winter to summer. This is not a perfectly simple wave because of the irregular fluctuations of temperature from day to day, and the amplitude of the annual wave cannot be determined until these have been smoothed out by a mathematical process. Fourier has shown that any irregular wave of this sort is equivalent to the sum of a number of regular waves of the same and shorter wave length. In America "heat waves" and "cold waves" are spoken of. These are spells of hot and cold weather without any definite duration, and do not recur regularly.

Waves of Explosions are among the causes which may produce a rapid variation of pressure which begins with an increase and is followed by a considerable decrease. The transmission is in the same mode as that of

a wave of sound. The damage done by a wave of explosion is often attributed to the low pressure which follows the initial rise. In the same way the destructive effect of wind is sometimes due to the reduction of pressure behind a structure resulting in the bulging outwards of the structure itself in its weaker parts.

Weather.—The technical classification of different kinds of weather as given by the letters of the Beaufort notation set out in detail in the *Introduction*, p. 10.

Weather Maxim.—A popular saying or proverb in connexion with the weather sometimes expressed in rhymes. The best are the sailors' maxims which, at the Meteorological Office, whether rightly or wrongly, are associated with Admiral FitzRoy. The relation with modern meteorology is often easily apparent.

First rise after low
Foretells a stronger blow

is quite characteristic of the passage of the TROUGH of a depression.

If the wind backs against the sun,
Trust it not for back it will run

is appropriate for the anticipation of a cyclonic depression in the Northern Hemisphere.

Long foretold, long last,
Short notice, soon past

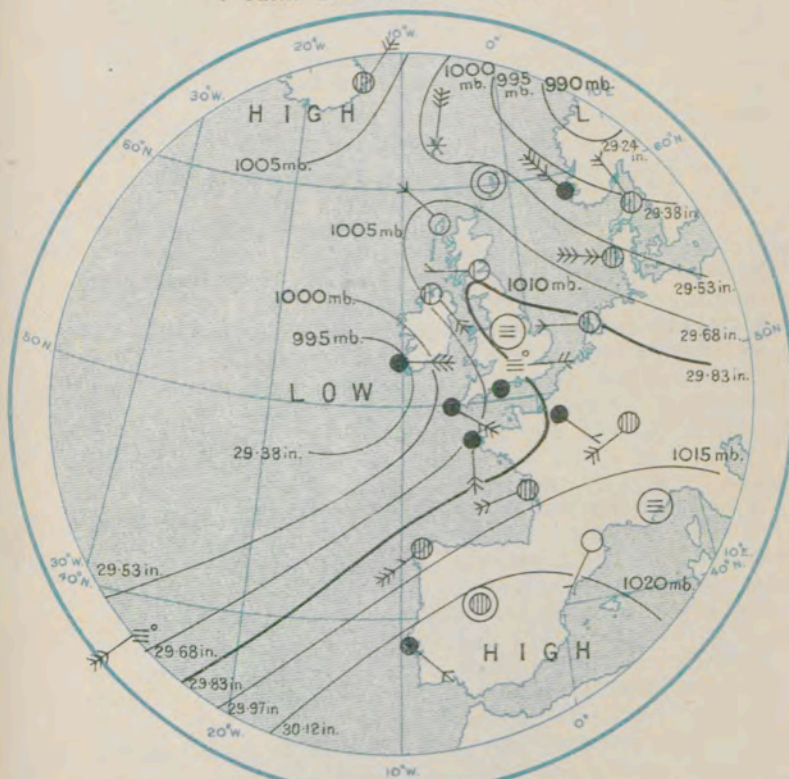
is also good meteorology in relation to travelling depressions.

A useful essay might be written on the sailor's maxim quoted by Sir G. Nares—

When the rain's before the wind
Your topsail haliards you must mind,
But when the wind's before the rain
You may hoist your topsails up again.

WEDGE.

DISTRIBUTION OF WEATHER, WIND, AND PRESSURE,
7 A.M. 9th DECEMBER, 1915.



ISOBARS are drawn for intervals of five millibars.

WIND.—Direction is shown by arrows flying with the wind.

Force, on the scale 0-12, is indicated by the number of feathers.

Calm

WEATHER.—Shown by the following symbols:—

	clear sky.		sky 1/4 clouded.
	sky 1/2 clouded.		sky 3/4 clouded.
	overcast sky.		rain falling
	snow.		hail.
	mist.		thunder.
	thunderstorm.		

Some of the land maxims also represent fair conclusions from experience.

If hoar frost come on mornings twain
The third day surely will have rain

provides a fair indication of the gradual transition from Easterly to Southerly weather.

A yellow sunset is regarded as a sign of stormy weather. Admiral FitzRoy's version of the maxim is "A bright yellow sunset presages wind ; a pale yellow wet."

A voluminous collection of maxims and legends has been compiled by Mr. Richard Inwards, a former President of the Royal Meteorological Society, under the title of "Weather Lore." Admiral FitzRoy was perhaps the last to attempt to draw up a scheme of weather prognostics according to the precepts of experience as he was the first to introduce forecasts based on weather maps. Professor W. J. Humphreys of the United States Weather Bureau has given a physical explanation of many of the best known weather signs in the atmosphere.

An examination of Mr. Inwards's collection makes it apparent that the weather wisdom of ancient saws does not lend itself to systematic presentation. Variants of the same maxim sometimes contradict one another. A large number have to do with the saints' days of the calendar, and so with seasonal variations. The St. Swithin's legend has obvious reference to the transition from spring drought to autumn rainfall (see SEASON), and the fact that the hour of heaviest rainfall in the year [in London] is the third hour of the afternoon in July.

Many maxims are based upon the prevalent notion that every unusual occurrence is a *sign* of something to come. In modern days we prefer to regard the state of the crops

and the behaviour of birds as the natural consequence of the *past* and *present*, not as the controlling cause of the future. No doubt, if the course of events in the physical universe is unique, that is to say, if the present is the only possible sequel to the past, then the relation of the future to the present is of the same order as the relation of the present to the past, and while we are looking for the one we may find the other. But what are offered as signs are obviously insufficient as causes. When we read

Hark ! I hear the asses bray,
We shall have some rain to-day,

we are supposed to regard the braying not as a *cause* of rain but as an evidence of superior intelligence in the quadruped stimulated by sensations which are too delicate for our senses ; but as a matter of practice it is doubtful if any serious action was ever based on that intelligent expression of the emotions.

Wedge.—Short for wedge of high pressure: an extension of a high pressure region, more or less in the shape of a wedge, that separates two neighbouring areas of lower pressure. See Plate XVI.

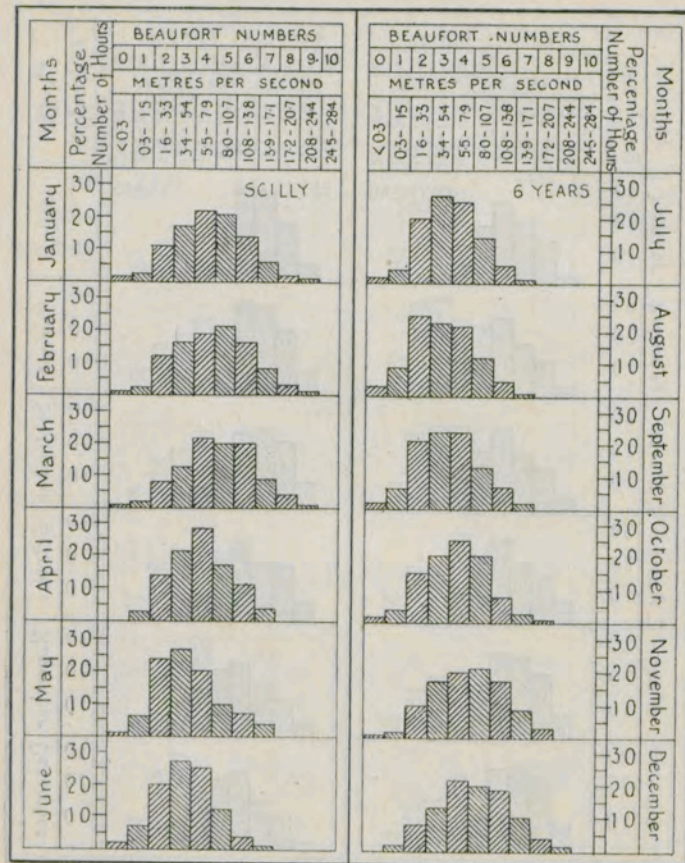
Weight.—The force with which the earth attracts bodies near its surface. In dynamics we distinguish between the amount of material substance which a body contains and the force with which gravity attracts it, but experiments made by Galileo long ago led ultimately to the conclusion that apart from the resistance of the air, all bodies large or small are similarly affected by gravity so that every part of a composite mass is now recognised as separately affected by gravity, the result for the whole being simply proportional to the amount of material

substance irrespective of its particular nature. Bodies immersed in a fluid, as a balloon in air, may float, that is, apparently have less than no weight because they displace fluid, air in this case, which weighs more than the bodies themselves. It should be noted that it is the weight of the heavier surrounding air that furnishes the driving force for the ascent of the balloon.

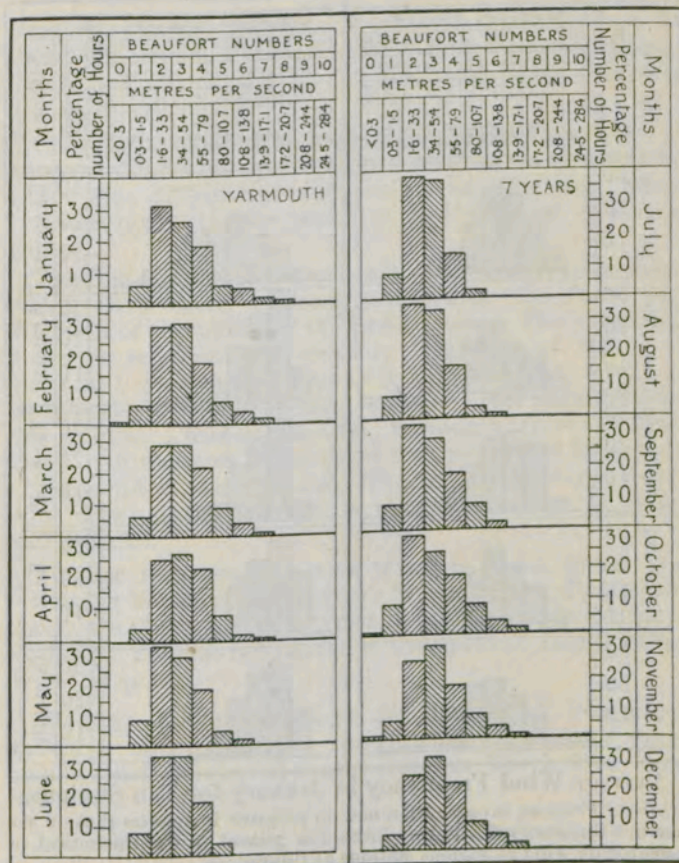
Wet Bulb.—An ordinary thermometer having the bulb coated with muslin that is kept moist. The evaporation cools the bulb and makes the reading lower than that of a similar plain thermometer. See PSYCHROMETER.

Whirlwind.—A quite small revolving storm of wind in which the air whirls round a core of low pressure. Whirlwinds sometimes extend upwards to a height of many hundred feet and cause dust storms when formed over a desert.

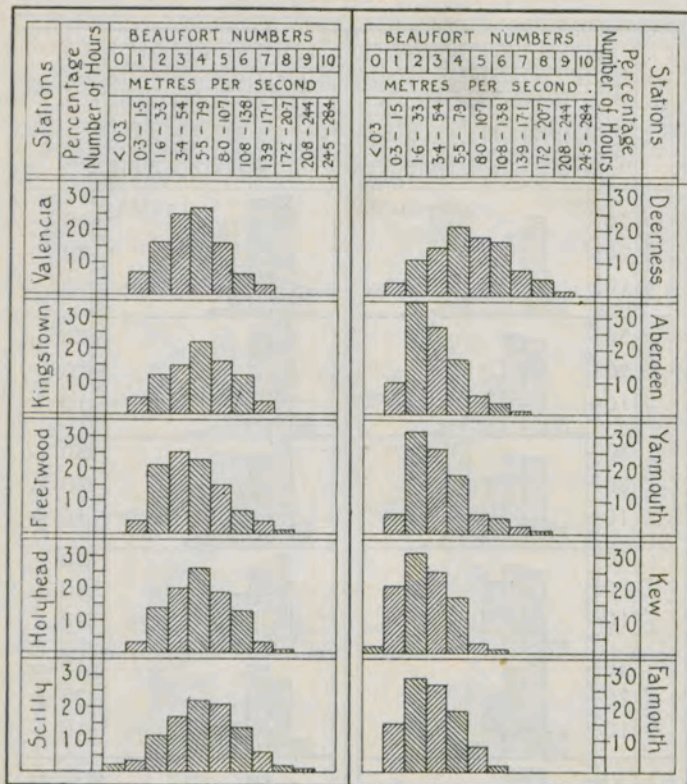
Wind.—The motion of the air. It appears certain that the general winds of the earth are maintained by the unequal warming of different parts of the earth by the sun, but the exact manner in which they arise and the reason of their distribution is not clearly understood. Some local winds may be explained, as, for instance, the wind accompanying the descent of an avalanche or the land and sea breezes, but the problem of the general circulation is very much more difficult. In the open sea, away from the disturbing influence of the great continents, the general trend of the winds is as follows:—Round the equator they are light variable winds, and on either side to 20°–30° north or south the trade winds, moderate in force from the N.E. in the northern and from the S.E. in the southern hemisphere.



Monthly Average Wind Frequency at Scilly.



Monthly Average Wind Frequency at Yarmouth.



Average Wind Frequency in January for Ten Stations.

Note: From an investigation now in progress it appears that on the average the observed wind of force 6 is related to the theoretical or geostrophic wind at various stations as follows:—

Valencia, 62 per cent. Aberdeen, 58 per cent. Scilly, 63 per cent.
Yarmouth, 63 per cent. Spurn Head, 71 per cent.

Further towards the poles in about latitude 40° and 50° there are winds blowing chiefly from westerly points, but by no means steady. They often reach the force of a gale.

Concerning the polar regions comparatively little is known. The calm equatorial belt and the trade winds on either side follow the movements of the sun, being furthest north in our summer and furthest south in winter.

There is at present no exhaustive analysis of the facts which have been collected concerning the force and direction of the winds of the British Isles. The preceding diagrams represent the *monthly* frequency of winds of different forces at Deerness (for the Northern Area), at Holyhead (for the Irish Sea), at Scilly (for the mouth of the English Channel), and at Yarmouth (for the East Coast). A diagram is also given for the *annual* frequency of the wind at ten stations. The monthly average duration of winds of gale force at these stations is given under GALE.

Further information about wind is given under the following headings: BEAUFORT SCALE, EDDY, FRICTION, GALE, GRADIENT WIND, GUST, ISOBARS, LINE SQUALL, SQUALL. See also references in the index to Tables under *Wind* on p. 276.

Winter.—In meteorology the months of December, January, and February. Astronomically, winter commences on December 21st and ends on March 21st. See SEASONS.

Zenith.—The point of the sky immediately “overhead,” or in the vertical produced upwards; the opposite

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