In Capt. Salvin's letter to the 'Field' on this subject (vol. lix. p. 693, May 2, 1882) it was stated that the young were only fed in this manner by the male bird; but Mr. Bartlett had assured himself that both male and female parent had been seen to feed the young in the same way.

Mr. H. J. Elwes, F.Z.S., made some remarks on his recent expedition to the Aures Mountains of Algeria, and exhibited a specimen of a Stonechat (Saxicola) obtained there, which he believed to be new to science.

The Secretary placed upon the table a series of the Diurnal and Nocturnal Lepidoptera bred in the Insect-House during the past month, and called special attention to specimens of Attacus roylei and Cricula trifenestrata, both from India, as not having been reared in 1881.

The following papers were read :-

1. Notes on some Points in the Anatomy of the Eluroidea. By St.-George Mivart.
[Received May 9, 1882.]
In studying the Æluroidea for the purpose of trying to ascertain the number and nature of the groups into which that suborder might be best divided, I noted, as carefully as I could, such points in the anatomy of a number of species as I had an opportunity of examining. I now venture to lay before the Society some selections from these notes as a supplement to, and further justification of, the conclusions I lately had the honour of submitting to the judgment of the same Society ${ }^{1}$.

It is only the osteology which I have had the opportunity of studying with any approach to completeness; but I have made such notes on the other systems of organs as I have been able to collect.

## OSTEOLOGY.

## The Axial Skeleton. <br> The Vertebral Column.

The greatest number of vertebræ of which I have found the spinal column to be composed is 60 (Arctictis) and 59 (Cryptoprocta and Paradoxurus). The smallest number is 33 (in a Manx Cat).

The general range is from 50 (Suricata) and 51 (Cynogale) to 56 and 57.

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{ }^{1} \text { P. Z. S. } 1882 \text {, p. } 135 .
$$

In absolute size the longest I have met with is that of a Lion, $174^{\prime \prime} \cdot 5$. The smallest is that of Helogale, the skeleton of which I have not met with.

## The Cervical Vertebra.

The greatest absolute length of the cervical vertebræ which I met with was in the skeleton of a Tiger, where they measured $26^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$; but in Crocuta they attained $24 \cdot 1$.

The greatest proportion borne by the cervical region to the axial column from the atlas to the postaxial end of the sacrum-the latter being taken as 100 -was $32 \cdot 9$ (Proteles). The next longest were 28.3 (Hemigalea), 27.9 (Hyana), $27 \cdot 4$ (Viverricula), and 26.5 (Genetta and Cynogale). The smallest proportions were 19 (Hemigalidia) and 18.8 (Arctictis). In the Felide I found it to vary from $19 \cdot 3$ to $22 \cdot 6$.

The atlas in the Felide is provided with large transverse processes, each of which projects outwards almost, if not quite, as much towards its preaxial as towards its postaxial end; and the transverse processes project postaxiad but little beyond the postaxial margin of the central part of the atlas. In the Hyanida, on the other hand, the two transverse processes project considerably more backwards, while the postaxial end of each projects outwards equally beyond its preaxial end; so that the atlas has the appearance of being furnished with two obtusely pointed wings extending much outwards and considerably backwards.

In the Viverrida various intermediate conditions occur, Genetta approaching the Cats most nearly, and Suricata having the transverse processes the most diverging, and Viverra the most postaxially projecting. Sometimes a small pointed spine projects postaxiad from the middle of the postaxial margin of the body, as in the Galidictince and Herpestes.

In a young Hyana, in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons (no. 4474 c ), the body of the atlas remains distinct.

The axis varies as to the shape of its spinous process, the degree of development of its ventral ridges, and the development of its hyperapophyses. The spinous process may have its dorsal margin nearly straight, as in the Cat, or strongly convex, as in Viverra. Its anterior margin may be strongly pointed, as in the Civets, or its hinder end, as in the Cat. The hiuder part of the spinous process may be much produced upwards, as in Suricata, or may bifurcate, as in the Hycenida. The ventral, antero-posterior ridges of the axis are greatly developed in the Galidictina, Herpestes, and Viverra. They are but little marked in the Hycenida and Suricata, and still less in the Cat. The hyperapophyses ${ }^{1}$ are very marked in Suricata and the Hyarida, where we have the pointed ends of the postaxial bifurcation of the spinous process, beneath these the hyperapophyses, ard beneath these again the postzygapophyses.

The remaining cervical vertebra attain an exceptional size and strength, as well as length, in the Hyærida, and are generally more

[^0]developed in the Fiverride than in the Felides. Comparing the cervical vertebræ of the Civet with that of Felis catus, it may be remarked that while the plate-like transverse processes of the third vertebra are no larger (if not somewhat smaller) relatively in the Civet, those of the 4 th , 5 th, and 6 th vertebræ are relatively larger; the neural laminæ are more concave dorsally, and the hypapophyses are much stronger, and the hyperapophyses more marked. The Genet is more cat-like ; but, in the specimens examined, the distal ends of the plate-like transverse processes of the 4 th, 5 th, and 6 th vertebræ project more preaxiad than in the Cat or Civet. Paradoxurus presents characters intermediate between those of the Cat and the Civet.

Arctictis is very exceptional as to its cervical vertebræ, their transverse processes being so little extended antero-posteriorly, the plate-like parapophysial parts of each transverse process of even the 5 th and 6 th cervical vertebræ being very little broader than the diapophysial part. The distal ends of the transverse process of the vertebræ posterior to the third are not all produced preaxiad distally ; nevertheless the hypapophyses are more marked than in Felis catus. There is a distinct rib, with both capitulum and tuberculum, on the left side, and a less perfect rib on the other side, of the 7 th cervical vertebra of the specimen of Arctictis, No. 1200 в, in the collection of the British Museum.

Fig. 1.


Seventh cervical vertebra of an Arctictis binturong, showing the perfect rib on the one side.

Cryptoprocta differs remarkably from Arctictis in the greater antero-posterior extent of its plate-like transverse processes and in the preaxiad extension of the distal ends of those of the 3rd, 4th, 5th, and 6 th vertebre. There are marked hyperapophyses to the first two or three vertebræ. These processes, as also the cervical metapophyses, are very distinct on the 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, and 6th vertebræ of some Herpestes ${ }^{1}$. In Felis catus hyperapophyses are not only developed above each postzygapephysis of the axis, but these become more marked on the 3rd cervical vertebra, less on the 4th,

[^1]vanishing at the 5 th. Metapophyses are also developed beneath the præzygapophyses of the 3 rd, 4 th and 5 th vertebræ, and may be traced in some of the larger Cats on the hinder part of the neural arch of the last four cervical vertebre. The transverse processes form large osseous plates in Proteles, much as in Viverra; nevertheless in Hyana they are relatively very small, smaller and less plate-like than even in the Cats.

## The Dorsal Vertebra.

The greatest length of the dorsal region which I have met with is $39^{\prime \prime} \cdot 4$ (Crocuta) and $38^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$ (Felis tigris).

Its greatest relative lengths (the spine, from the preaxial margin of the atlas to the postaxial margin of the sacrum, being taken as 100) are 45.6 (Hyana) and 45.4 (Suricata) ; the smallest are 34.4 (Genetta) and 34.8 (Cynictis). The Felide I find to vary from $36 \cdot 1$ to $39 \cdot 2$, the Viverrida from $34 \cdot 4$ to $45 \cdot 4$, and the Hyanida from $40 \cdot 4$ (Proteles) to $45 \cdot 6$, as above given.

Compared with the cervical region, its greatest lengths are in Arctictis and in Suricata, viz. as $238 \cdot 2$ and $231 \cdot 6$ to 100 respectively. It is often nearly twice as long as the cervical region. It exceeds the cervical region least in Proteles, where it is but $122 \cdot 7$ to 100.

The greatest number of dorsal vertebræ is found in all Hyœenida, viz. 15. I have found 14 in Paradoxurus, Arctictis, Cynogale, some Herpestes, Bdeogale, Crossarchus, and Galidictis, 13 in the other genera.

The dorsal spinous processes are generally more relatively extended antero-posteriorly-more plate-like-in the Viverrida than in the Felida, especially in at least some Herpestes and in Eupleres and Suricata. In Arctictis these spines are exceptionally low and inclined postaxiad ; that of the first dorsal nearly equals in length that of the seventh cervical. On the other hand, in Hyana the difference in length between these two spinous processes is at its maximum.

Generally, as in the Cat, the 11th dorsal vertebra is the first the spinous process of which begins to incline preaxiad.

In Galidictis the spine of the 12th dorsal is vertical, while those of the 11th and 13 th incline towards it.

In Hemigalea the spine of the 11th dorsal inclines forwards, meeting that of the 10 th.

In Cynictis it is the 13th vertebra which first inclines preaxiad.
In Eupleres and Suricata it is the 12th which so inclines, and this is the first to have the anapophyses and metapophyses distinctly differentiated.

In Felis catus these latter processes are quite distinct on the 11th dorsal vertebra.

In Hyana the change which takes place in the direction of the dorsal spinous processes is a gradual one between the 12th and 14th vertebræ, the 13 th being nearly upright.

Proteles exhibits a very exceptional character: the spinous pro-
cess of the first dorsal vertebra bifurcates more or less ${ }^{1}$ laterally ; and the spines of the next six show a tendency similarly to bifurcate; the spine of the 12th dorsal begins to curve over preaxially towards its tip; that of the 13th does so more decidedly, or may quite incline preaxiad, as the 14th always does.

## The Lumbar Vertebrce.

The greatest absolute lengths of the lumbar region which I have met with are $40^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$ (Tiger) and $32^{\prime \prime} \cdot 5$ (Lion). The longest in the Viverrida is $17^{\prime \prime} \cdot 1$ (Cryptoprocta); in Crocuta it is $15^{\prime \prime} \cdot 2$.

Its greatest relative length, measured as before, is 37.4 (Wild Cat), 32.5 being the smallest I find amongst the Felida. In the Viverrida $34 \cdot 4$ (Nandinia) is the highest, and 20.2 (Proteles) in the Hyarida. The smallest of the Viverrida is $25 \cdot 0$ (Cynogale) aud $25 \cdot 8$ (Suricata). The smallest of all the Eluroids is $17 \cdot 6$ (Crocuta).

Compared with the dorsal region it may be as $103 \cdot 6$ to 100 (Wild Cat) or $93 \cdot 1$ (Nandinia), or only 38.5 (Crocuta). It never equals the dorsal region in length in the Viverrida or Hyarida.

The number of lumbar vertebræ is constantly 7 in the Felida; 6 or 7 in the Viverrida, except in Arctictis, where it is only 5 as in the Hyanida.

The transverse processes are exceptionally short in Arctictis. In Proteles the neural spines are more quadrate and upright than in the Felide or Viverrida; and they are still more vertical and quadrate in Hyœana and Crocuta.

## The Sacrum.

The greatest absolute length of the sacrum I have met with is $9^{\prime \prime} \cdot 5$ (Tiger). The longest in the Viverrida is $5^{\prime \prime} \cdot 1$ (Viverra civetta). In Crocuta it is $7^{\prime \prime} \cdot 6$.

Its greatest relative length, estimated as before, is 10.9 (Crossarchus obscurus), while $7 \cdot 8$ is its greatest in the Felida. The smallest of all I have measured ${ }^{2}$ is 5.5 (Manx Cat), 6.3 (Proteles), and 6.9 (Hemigalea).

The number of sacral vertebræ is almost always 3 ; but there may be 4 in Hyana and Crocuta.

The neural spines are more developed in the Viver rida than in the Felide, and notably so in Arctictis.

## The Caudal Vertebra.

The absolutely greatest lengths I find to be $88^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$ (Tiger) and $81^{\prime \prime} \cdot 7$ (Arctictis).

The greatest relative lengths are 153.9 (Nandinia), 151.0 (Genetta), 146.4 (Arctictis), and 122.5 (Paradoxurus). Its least dimensions are 8.5 (Manx Cat) and 8.7 (Suricata).

[^2]The number of caudal vertebre varies from 29 (Cryptoprocta and Paradoxurus) to 3 (Manx Cat), 19 (Crocuta), and 20 (Crossarchus and Suricata). The neural arch ceases to be completely developed at from the 6th (Hyena) to the 12th (Arctictis) vertebra.

The longest caudal vertebræ may be the 9 th, 10 th , and 11 th (Cat), the 10th, 11 th, and 12th (Civet), the 12th, 13th, and 14th (Arctictis), or the 13th, 14th, and 15th (Proteles).

Chevron bones may be developed beneath adjacent pairs of caudal vertebre from the interval between the 1st and 2nd to between the 16th and 17th (Arctictis).
Transverse processes may cease to be distinct at the 6th caudal (sometimes in Hyena), or may continue on to the 10th caudal (Arctictis).

## The Sternum.

The sternum consists generally of seven sternebræ (including the manubrium) and a xiphoid cartilage. Sometimes in Herpestes and Crossarchus there are 8 sternebre; and there are 8 in Eupleres. There may be but 6 sternebræ, as in Proteles and Hemigalea.

The manubrium is sometimes separate ${ }^{1}$ from that sternebra which is placed between the attachments of the 1st and 2nd costal cartilages.

The manubrium is very pointed in Hemigalea. In Arctictis it is very exceptionally expanded transversely towards its middle, so that it has somewhat the appearance of the head of a lance. It has also a median ventral crest or keel-a condition I have found in no other Eluroid.

The last sternebra is broad and the xiphoid very broad in Proteles.

## The Ribs.

The number of pairs of ribs has been alrearly indicated in the notes given respecting the dorsal vertebræ. The number of true ribs may be 8,9 , or 10 . 9 is the general number of true ribs, there being 5, 4, or 3 false ribs. In the Hyarida, however, there are 8 true ribs and 7 false ones.

The ribs are generally broader in proportion to their length in the Viverrida than in the Felida. This is especially the case in Eupleres and the Hyanida.

## The Skull.

The absolutely longest Æluroid skulls I have met with are $26^{\prime \prime} \cdot 8$ and $26^{\prime \prime} \cdot 6$ (Tiger and Lion). The longest non-feline skull (measured from the roots of the upper incisors in front to the "basion" or mid anterior margin of the foramen magnum) is $22^{\prime \prime} .5$ (Crocuta); and the longest Viverrine skulls are $13^{\prime \prime} \cdot 9$ (Arctictis) and $13^{\prime \prime} \cdot 4$ (Viverra civetta).

[^3]The length from the atlas to the end of the sacrum being taken as 100 , the relatively longest skulls thus measured have the proportions of 29.5 (Cynogale) and 28.9 (Genetta). The shortest has $19 \cdot 8$ (Leopard). The shortest Viverrine are 21.4 (Viverra civetta) and 21.9 (Cryptoprocta).

The greatest width between the outsides of the zygomata is $22^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$ (Tiger). The broadest non-feline skull at the zygomata is $18^{\prime \prime} \cdot 3$ (Crocuta); and the broadest Viverrine skulls are $7^{\prime \prime \cdot} 3$ (Viverra civetta) and $7^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$ (Cryptoprocta).

The greatest widths of the zygomata in proportion to the spine at 100 are $24 \cdot 4$ (Suricala), $21^{\circ} 5$ (Lion), and $21 \cdot 2$ (Crocuta). The shortest is 10.5 (Eupleres).

The length of the skull from basion to premaxilla being taken as 100 , the (relatively) broadest zygomatic arches measured across are $89 \cdot 4$ (Suricata) and $89 \cdot 3$ (Felis), the Hyana brunnea being $83 \cdot 4$. The narrowest Felis is $80 \cdot 4$, the narrowest Viverrine (Herpestes) $44 \cdot 4$.

I have much desired to find a line to be measured externally as a basicranial axis. The received basicranial axis can only be measured in a vertical longitudinal section, and so can rarely be got at. I should have been well satisfied with a line from the basion to the front end of the presphenoid or of the basisphenoid, if either of these two latter points were generally determinable externally; but, unfortunately, such is not the case. I have therefore been compelled to take as a base a line drawn from the basion to a point which may, for convenience, be distinguished as the "ovalion," and which is the middle point of a transverse line joining the hindmost point on the margin of one foramen ovale with that of the other.

This base, compared with that of the spine (from the atlas to the end of the sacrum) taken as 100 , I never find to be more than $9 \cdot 0$ (Hemigalidia) or less than 4.5 (Felis).

Its greatest proportion in Felis is $6 \cdot 2$, its least proportion in the Viverrida is $5 \cdot 1$ (Viverra civetta). In Crocuta it is 6.0 , in Proteles $7 \cdot 3$.

The base, compared with the total cranial length at 100 , has for its highest proportions $31 \cdot 1$ (Galidia), 28.7 (Hemigalidia), and 28.2 (Felis). Its smallest proportion in Felis is 20.5 ; and the smallest of all are Hyana brumnea (21•1) and Suricata (19:3).

If this base be taken as 100 , then the greatest relative expansions of the zygomata are 463.6 (Suricata), 400.0 (Felis), and 395.6 (Hyana brunnea). The smallest are $194 \cdot 4$ (Eupleres) and $195 \cdot 2$ (Genetta).

The greatest relative breadths of the brain-case, compared with the spine at 100, are $13 \cdot 8$ (Suricata) and $13 \cdot 3$ (Felis), its least breadth 5.9 (Viverra civetta). Its greatest breadths compared with the length of the skull at 100 are 54.5 (Felis) and 50.8 (Suricata); its least proportion is 27.0 ( Нуœпа brunnea). Its greatest breadths compared with the base taken as 100 are $211 \cdot 7$ (Felis), 263 (Suricata), and $180 \cdot 0$ (Crossarchus); its least proportions thus estimated are 102.7 (Pioteles) and 115.6 (Viverra civetta); the smallest I have found in Felis is $145 \%$.

The greatest total lengths of the palate bear proportions to the spine (atlas to sacrum as 100 ) of 17.9 (Herpestes) and 17.5 (Crossarchus). Its least proportion is $9 \cdot 6$ (Felis), the largest proportion I have found in Felis being 14.7. The shortest Viverrine palates, thus estimated, are 10.9 (Viverricula) and 11.5 (Viverra, Galidia, and Cryptoprocta).

Compared with the cranial length at 100, the greatest proportions the palate attains are $62 \cdot 8$ (Bdeogale) and $61 \cdot 6$ (Herpestes); its least is 43.4 (Felis). Compared with the base at 100, its greatest relative lengths are 290.9 (Suricata), $272 \cdot 7$ (Felis), and $268 \cdot 2$ (Arctogale) ; its smallest proportions in length are 153.8 (Felis) and $150 \cdot 0$ (Galidia).

The greatest breadths of the palate, compared with the spine at 100, are 12.8 (Crocuta), 11.4 (Felis), and 10.0 (Suricata). Its least relative dimensions are $3 \cdot 9$ (Eupleres), $5 \cdot 4$ (Cynogale), and $5 \cdot 9$ (Viverra civetta). Its smallest proportion in Felis is 7.8 .

The greatest proportional breadths of the palate, compared with the total cranial length at 100, are $49 \cdot 3$ (Crocuta), $46 \cdot 9$ (Felis), and 36.8 (Suricata) ; its least proportions are 22.7 (Arctogale) and 16.8 (Eupleres). The greatest proportions of its breadth compared with the base at 100 are 213.4 (Crocuta) and $200 \cdot 0$ (Felis); its smallest is $100 \cdot 0$ (Hemigalidia, Aretictis, and Poiana).

The projection of the palate backwards behind the upper molars compared with the total cranial length at 100 is greatest in Proteles (20.8), Arctictis ( $18 \cdot 7$ ), and Suricata (16.9). I have found its maximum in the Cats to be $11 \cdot 9$, and its minimum $4 \cdot 6$. In Genetta it is $5 \%$. It is least in Hyana brunnea (4.5) and Nandinia (2.6).

The interorbital breadth may be in a proportion as large as $7 \cdot 3$ (Hemigalidia), and as small as 2.5 (Genetta), compared with the spine at 100 . Compared with the total cranial length at 100, it ranges from $27 \cdot 5$ (Galidia) down to 8.7 (Genetta).

The postorbital breadth similarly ranges from 10.0 (Felis) to 3.0 (Viverra), and from $45 \cdot 0$ (Felis) to $12 \cdot 2$ (Cynogale) respectively.
The orbits are rarely enclosed by bone, as sometimes in Felis, Herpestes, Cynictis, Suricata, and almost in Rhinogale. The postorbital processes, on the other hand, may be almost or quite obsolete, as in Cynogale and Arctictis.

Except in Proteles and the above mentioned Viverrine genera, in which the orbits may be enclosed by bone, the postorbital processes of the frontal are never so long in the Viverrida as they generally are in the Felida.

The face is generally shorter as compared with the cranium in the Felide than in the Viverrida.

The auditory bulla is always an ossified convex prominence except in Nandinia, where it is cartilaginous. It may be quite smooth and unconstricted, showing no external sign of internal division, as in the Felida. There may be no internal septum, as in Crocuta. There may nevertheless be an almost complete internal septum dividing each bulla into two chambers, with only a minute opening on the septum, as also in the Felida and Viverrina. The septum
may have a somewhat larger aperture, as in the Herpestince and Proteles; or the septum may be represented only by two osseous ridges tending to divide off a small anterior chamber in each bulla, as in Hyœna.

The two chambers of the bulla may be placed, one rather internally and the other externally, as in the Felide and Herpestince; or one behind the other, as in the Viverrince. If placed one internally and one externally, the more posterior (which does not contain the auditory ossicles) may be placed the more internally, as in the Felida, or the more externally, as in the Herpestina. The exterual chamber may be not merely placed the more externally, but may be posteriorly and strikingly everted outwards, as in the Herpestince.

The bulla may narrow much anteriorly, as in Paradoxurus. Its anterior chamber may be hardly bullate, as in Cynogale, or very decidedly so, as in Genetta and Herpestes.

The external auditory meatus is generally very short, but may be prolonged, as in Suricata and Hyana. Its posterior margin may project the more, as in most Viverrince, or its anterior margin, as in most Herpestina, or its inferior part, as in Hemigalea.

The floor of the meatus may be imperfectly ossified, as in Suricata (where there is a longitudinal fissure) and in Herpestes (where there is a foramen). Instead of a fissure or foramen there may be a deep groove, as in the Galidictince.

The external aperture of the auditory meatus may be large and rounded, as in Felis; or oval, as in many Viverrince; or small and triangular, as in Herpestes and Suricata.

There may be a very deep pit (to receive the hyoidean cornu) on the outer side of the bulla, just below the external auditory opening, as in Arctictis.

The mastoid may be prominent, as in Felis, Hyena, and Suricata; or not at all so, as in most Viverrince.

The paroccipital process may not depend below the bullæ or may be very slightly prominent, as in Felis. It may depend below the adjacent part of the bulla as a distinct process, as in Viverra civetta and most Viverrina; or it may not do so at all, as in the Herpestinc.

Sagittal and lambdoidal ridges may be greatly developed, as in the large Cats, and especially in the Hyænas ; or they may be almost evanescent, as in Eupleres, where also the zygomata are very slender. The occipital region may be very exceptionally prominent in the middle, as in Eupleres.

The mesopterygoid fossa may be to the cranial length at 100 as 23.9 (as sometimes in Felis), or only as 11.1 (as sometimes in Herpestes).

The average breadth of the palate compared with its length in the Felides is as 80.2 to 100. It may be only 32.5 , as in Eupleres, or $33 \cdot 8$, as in Cynogale. It is 62.5 in Genetta, and $51 \cdot 3$ in Viverra civetta. It is $87 \cdot 4$ in Crocuta. In Suricata it is $65 \cdot 6$.

An alisphenoid canal may be present, as always in the Viverrince (except generally in Viverricula) and in the Herpestince (save in

Crossarchus, where it may be only imperfectly enclosed by bony processes). It may be entirely absent, as in the Felide, Galidictince, Euplerina, and Hyanida.

It may occasionally be present where it is normally absent, as in Viverricula.

There may be no carotid canal (for the internal carotid artery), as in the Felide; or there may be a distinct canal, as in all other Eluroids. The hinder aperture of this canal may be placed at about the middle of the internal margin of the auditory bulla, as in the Viverrine, or rather more forwards, as in the Hyenida. The artery may enter the cranial cavity through an aperture concealed, or almost concealed, beneath the anterior end of the auditory bulla, as generally in the Viverrina; or it may enter through a very conspicuous foramen anterior to and within the bulla, as in the Herpestince and Galidictince. This foramen notches the sphenoid very deeply, so much as to seem sometimes even to perforate it.

The condyloid foramen may be exposed or concealed; and there may be considerable variation in this respect in different individuals of the same species.

The palatine foramina may be in the posterior third, or well within the posterior half, of the palate, as always in the Felide; or they may be well within the anterior half of the palate, and often within its anterior third, as in all non-feline Æluroids. In Cryptoprocta they are very near the hinder end of the anterior half. In Cynogale they are very far forwards, only a little behind the incisive foramina.

The upper alveolar border may be notched to receive the apex of a lower premolar, as in Hemigalea.

The mandible may have its angle extending backwards almost or quite on a line with the inferior margin of the horizontal ramus, as in most Felida. It may, on the other hand, be very much bent up towards the condyle, as in Hyana. It may be singularly flattened beneath, as in Proteles. It may be very small, as in Arctictis, or everted (or bent in the opposite way to that in which it is bent in Marsupials), as in Suricata.

The hinder portion of the inferior margin of the horizontal ramus may be very concave, as in many Viverrinc.

The coronoid process may be greatly elevated, yet inclining backwards towards its apex, as in the Felida. It may be elevated vertically, and more or less truncated at its summit, as in Prionodon. It may be raised but little, relatively, above the condyle, as in many Viverrina.

The symphysis is generally moderate, but may be greatly prolonged, as in Galidictis, where its proportional length to that of the mandible, from the front of the canine to the hinder end of the last molar, is as 62.9 to 100 .

The alveolar border may be singularly everted towards its hinder end, as in Arctogale.

## The Appendicular Skeleton.

## The Pectoral Limb.

The proportion borne by the entire pectoral limb (humerus, radius, and manus) to the spine-the length from the front of the atlas to the hinder end of the sacrum being taken as 100 -is never more than 77.9 (as sometimes in Fe lis), or less than 42.3 ( Vi verricula).

The greatest proportion amongst the Viverrida is 66.4 (Suricata) ; the shortest found by me in the Felida was $52 \cdot 9$ (F. eyra).

## The Scapula.

The extreme length of the scapula compared with of the spine (estimated as before) is as 21.0 to 100, as sometimes in Felis. In that genus I have found 18.6 to be the minimum proportion. In the Viverride it varies from 11.9 (Nandinia) to 18.9 (Cynictis). In Proteles it is $19 \cdot 7$, and in Crocuta $20 \cdot 6$.

The Civets have the scapula much more in the shape of a parallelogram than have the Cats, the preaxial border not being so convex. The metacromion is not so much developed; and the proportion borne by the infraspinatus fossa to the supraspinatus fossa is greater, as also in the Genets, in which the scapula is otherwise more feline. Fussa and Puradoxurus are intermediate between Genetta and Viverra in the form of the scapula; but the convexity of the preaxial border is generally situate nearer to the glenoid surface than it is in the Genet.

In Cynogale the scapula is much like that of the Civet, but the prominence of its preaxial margin is more rectangular in outline and less rounded.

Arctictis resembles Paradoxurus; but its infraspinatus fossa is still larger relatively; the spine is but little prominent, and the metacromion quite rudimentary. In Herpestes the metacromion is well developed. There is sometimes a prominence for the teres major; and the proportional size of the infraspinatus fossa may not be greater than in the Cat. In Crossarchus there is sometimes so sharp a prominence from the glenoid end of the convexity of the preaxial border as to form a deep suprascapular notch. The metacromion is well developed, as also in Suricata (where its apex issharply bent backwards); the outer surface of the scapula is in this genus singularly concave. In Galidia, the convexity of part of the preaxial margin may be very great; but here, as seems to be generally the case, there is much individual variation in the form of the scapula. In Eupleres the metacromion is well developed, but the acromion may be very short. In Cryptoprocta the scapula is very like that of some Cats; the infraspinatus fossa is not so large relatively as in Genetta; the metacromion is well developed. In Hycena the preaxial margin is rounded; the metacromion is very minute and placed quite at the end of the spine; the supraspinatus fossa is smaller relatively than in the Cats, or than in the Viverride generally; both it and the infraspinatus fossa are very concave. In

Proteles the scapula is not unlike that of Viverra; the metacromion is rather larger and more pointed than in Hyana. In Proteles, Hyena, and Crocuta the acromion is shorter than in the Felidee or Viverridce, except sometimes in Eupleres.

The angle formed by the axillary margin with the spine of the scapula varies from about $20^{\circ}$ (Suricata, Galidictis, Proteles) to $35^{\circ}$ (Lion and Tiger). The average angle is a little above $25^{\circ}$.

## The Clavicle.

The clavicle is always very rudimentary or absent ; nevertheless in Genetta I found to be about $1^{\prime \prime} \cdot 6$.

## The Humerus.

The absolutely longest humerus is $31^{\prime \prime} \cdot 5$ (Tiger), the largest Viverrine humerus is $14^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$ (Arctictis). The greatest proportion of the humerus to the spine at 100 is 28.5 (sometimes in Felis), the shortest is 18.1 (Eupleres). The shortest feline proportion is 23.4 ; the greatest Viverrine proportion is 25.0 (Arctictis). Crocuta is $22 \cdot 0$, and Proteles $24 \cdot 8$. The Civet's humerus, compared with that of the Cat, is stouter, with the great tuberosity relatively more prominent, and the fossa outside it much deeper and larger. The supinator ridge is also stronger, while the bony bridge enclosing the foramen for the median nerve is more slender. There is sometimes an olecranal foramen. The humerus of the Genet is more like that of the Cat. There is always a condyloid foramen, except in Cynogale, the Galidictina, and the Hyanida. In Paradoxurus the internal condyle may be much prolonged. In Arctictis the humerus is much broadened out distally, with a rather small condyloid caral and a strong supinator prominence; there is no marked pit outside the great tuberosity. In Cryptoprocta exactly reversed conditions obtain, as the condyloid canal is very large in that genus (at its maximum), and there is a very marked pit outside the great tuberosity, as also in Herpestes, Crossarchus, and Hycena. In Herpestes the humerus is much curved. In Crossarchus the deltoid surface is very prominent, and the development of the supinator ridge and the projection of the internal condyle are at their maximum. The deltoid surface is even more prominent in Suricata. In Hemigalea the humerus is a good deal bowed, the great tuberosity and the supinator ridge are little developed, but the internal condyle is very prominent. In Viverricula, on the contrary, the internal condyle projects so slightly that it is almost effaced. In the Hyanida the internal condyle is also relatively little developed, the deltoid surface is prominent, there is an olecranal perforation, and the pit outside the great trochanter may be wide and shallow as in Hyarna, or wide and deep as in Proteles.

## The Radius and Ulna.

The absolutely longest radius is $26^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$ (Tiger); its greatest proportional lengths to the spine at 100 are $27 \cdot 4$ (sometimes in Felis) and
$25 \cdot 3$ (Proteles). Its least proportion in Felis is 20.8. Its least proportion in the Viverridac is 13.8 (Viverricula), and its greatest is 22.0 (Suricata and Galidictis). I have found it equal to the humerus in length in the Wild Cat and Fossa, and almost equal in Hemigalidia. I have only found it absolutely longer than the humerus in Eupleres and Crocuta.

The radius and ulna are long and slender in Fossa, Galidictis, and Eupleres. In Hemigalea the radius (which is a good deal bowed) is furnished with a singular plate-like expansion towards and at the ventral end of its outer or radial border. A more or less rudimentary development of the process may occur also in Paradoxurus, and a trace of it in Cryptoprocta.

The olecranon may, as in Viverra civetta, be more bent postaxiad than in most forms, and than even, relatively, in the Great Cats. A remarkable process may be also developed from the olecranon, extending mesiad. This is seen in Civetta, but attains its maximum in Cryptoprocta, where it reminds one of the inflected mandibular angle of a marsupial. This is little developed in Hemigalea,

Fig. 2.

A. Distal end of dorsal surface of right radius and ulna of Hemigalea : $p$, platelike process. B. Distal end of tibia and fibula.
which, however, has a plate-like process, or ridge, developed from the middle of the distal fourth of the ventral surface of the ulna, extending down to the root of the styloid process; into this platelike ridge the supinator longus, pronator teres, and the (large) pronator quadratus muscles are inserted. This ridge also exists in Viverricula.

## The Manus.

The greatest length of the manus (measured from the junction of the radius and carpus to the end of the third digit), compared with that of the spine, is 23.9 (Proteles), the least is 11.5 (Viverricula). In Felis I have found it range from $17 \cdot 0$ to $22 \cdot 0$. The greatest relative length of the third metacarpal is 12.5 (Proteles), and the shortest is 4.2 (Cynogale). The greatest relative length of the third digit is 10.0 (Felis), and 9.5 (Suricata) ; the shortest is 5.2 (Viverra). The relatively longest third ungual phalans is 4.5 (Suricata); the shortest is $1 \cdot 3$ (Viverra).

The metacarpus is thus proportionally most elongated in Proteles Proc. Zool. Soc.-1882, No. XXXII.
and Felis. It is shorter and stouter in the Tiverrila, especially in Hemigalea and Cynogale; and the length of $\mathbf{M}^{3}$ and $\mathbf{M}^{4}$ is less in excess of that of $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}^{5}$ than in the Cats.

There is no pollex, save a rudimentary metacarpal, in Hyena, Crocuta, Suricata, and Bdeogale. Though present in all the other genera, its length, compared with that of the index, may vary considerably. Thus the whole pollex may not extend down the metacarpal of the index so far as one quarter of the length of the latter, as in Felis.

It may extend half down the metacarpal of the index or more, as in Proteles, Cynictis, Viverricula.

It may extend down to the distal end of the metacarpal of the index, as in Viverra civetta, Genetta, Fossa, Galidictis, Galidia, Herpestes (often), Crossarchus.

It may reach to the middle of the proximal phalanx of the index, or sometimes even to its distal end, as in Paradoxurus, Arctictis, Eupleres, Hemigalea.

The metacarpal of the pollex may not extend even one quarter down that of the index, as in Felis.

It may reach nearly half down, as in Viverricula, Herpestes, and Proteles.

It may extend half down it, or a little more, as in Viverra, Genetta, Fossu, Galidictis, Galidia, and Arctictis.

It may nearly extend downwards as far as does the metacarpal of the index, as in Paradoxurus, Cynogale, Hemigalea, Eupleres.

The middle phalanges of the digits may be greatly excavated on one side to give place to the ultimate phalanges in their rolled-back or contracted position. This is the case in the Cats; they are almost as much so in Hemigalea, much less so in the Viverrine, and not at all in the Galidictina, Herpestince, and Hyarida.

The ultimate phalanges may be very greatly arched and pointed, and with a deep lamina of bone round the proximal part, to shelter the root of the claw externally, as in the Cats generally; sometimes less so, as in Cyncelurus; still less so, as in the Viverrince; or long, hardly arched, and with but a very small external lamina, as in the Hycenidee and Herpestince, especially in Suricata.

## The Pelvic Limb.

The proportion borne by the entire pelvic limb (femur, tibia, and pes) to the spine is never more than 93.8 (some Felis), or less than $55 \cdot 6$ (Viverra). The longest proportion amongst the Viverrida is $79 \cdot 9$ (Suricata) ; the shortest found by me in the Felidee was $75 \cdot 6$.

The greatest proportion borne by the entire pelvic limb to the entire pectoral limb at 100 is $139 \cdot 8$ (Felis eyra), the smallest is 94.4 (Crocuta). In none but Crocuta is the pelvic limb shorter than the pectoral one. The shortest proportion in the Cats is $113 \cdot 1$ (Felis tigris). In the Viverrida the longest is 136.6 (Nandinia), and the shortest is 112.0 (Arctictis). In Proteles it is $104 \cdot 8$.

## The Pelvis.

The absolutely longest pelvis (measured from the most preaxial part of the ilium to the tuberosity of the ischium) I found was $30^{\prime \prime} \cdot 4$ (Lion). In Crocuta it was $12^{\prime \prime} \cdot 45$. The greatest lengths I found in the Viverrida were $12^{\prime \prime} \cdot 7\left(\right.$ Arctictis) and $11^{\prime \prime} \cdot 7$ (Viverra civetta).

Compared with the length of the spinal column (atlas to sacrum), taken at 100, the greatest proportional length of the pelvis was $27 \cdot 1$ (Hemigalidia), and the smallest $14 \cdot 4$ (Crocuta). The smallest in the Felidee was $20 \cdot 9$, and the smallest in the Viverrida 17.4 (Genetta).

The greatest breadth of the ilium I found to be in Viverra civetta $3^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$, in Genetta $1^{\prime \prime} \cdot 3$, Paradoxurus $1^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$, in Galidictis $0^{\prime \prime} \cdot 9$, in Galidia $0^{\prime \prime} \cdot 9$, in Arctictis $2 \cdot 4$, in Cryptoprocta $2^{\prime \prime} \cdot 0$, in Herpestes $0^{\prime \prime} \cdot 8$, in Eupleres $1^{\prime \prime} \cdot 7$, in Crossarchus $1^{\prime \prime} \cdot 3$, in Suricata $1^{\prime \prime} \cdot 3$, in Proteles $4^{\prime \prime} \cdot 2$, in Hycena striata $7^{\prime \prime} \cdot 9$, in Crocuta $10^{\prime \prime} \cdot 4$, and in Felis catus 1 " $\cdot 8$.

The ilium has its ventral preaxial angle enormously produced in the Hyœnina, its preaxial margin nearly straight, and its tuberosities greatly everted. In Crocuta these conditions especially obtain: the ilium is more concave externally; and the process for the rectus (preaxial to the acetabulum) is very strongly developed. In Proteles these characters exist in a less pronounced degree.

There may be tso prominences (each like an ilio-pectineal promi-nence)-one just preaxiad to the acetabulum, and the other placed a little more ventrally on the pelvic brim. These may both be found (at least sometimes) in Cryptoprocta, Viverra, Crossarchus, and especially in Suricata.

## The Femur.

The absolutely longest femora I found were $35^{\prime \prime} \cdot 5$ (Tiger) and $31^{\prime \prime} \cdot 3$ (Lion). The largest Viverrine femur was $14^{\prime \prime} \cdot 7$ (Arctictis). It is $22^{\prime \prime} \cdot 8$ in Crocuta.

Compared with the spine at 100, the longest femur is $31 \cdot 3$ (Felis), 27.9 being the minimum feline proportion. The longest Viverrine proportions are 28.2 (Cryptoprocta), 27.5 (Genetta), and 26.7 (Suricata). The shortest are 19.3 (Viverra civetta) and $20 \cdot 1$ (Viverricula). In Proteles and Crocuta it is 26.5 and 26.4.

The femur is always a little longer than the humerus.
In the Civet and Genet the bone is relatively shorter than in the Cat, and the lesser trochanter is relatively somewhat smaller.

In Paradoxurus, Nandinia, Cynogale, and Hemigalea it is much flattened behind between the trochanters; and thus the lesser trochanter is thrown almost under the head of the femur instead of being behind (postaxial to) it. In Aretictis this flattening is at its maximum, the lesser trochanter is very small, the trochanteric fossa is shallow, and the great trochanter is relatively smaller than in other species. In Crossarchus and Suricata the femur becomes thicker in proportion to its length than in most species. In Hyana the small
trochanter is largely developed, and there is a large process above the outer condyle. In Crocuta there is no marked process of the kind, and the lesser trochanter is but of moderate size. In Proteles, which has a long and slender femur, the small trochanter is little developed, but there is a process above the outer condyle.

## The Tibia and Fibula.

The absolutely longest tibia is $30^{\prime \prime} \cdot 2$ (Tiger). The greatest proportional lengths to the spine at 100 are $31 \cdot 8$ (Felis) and $29 \cdot 1$ (Galidictis). The least proportion in Felis is $24 \cdot 7$. Its least proportion in the Viverrida is 19.3 (Viverricula); and its greatest after Galidictis is 28.6 and 28.4 (Genetta and Hemigalidia). I have found it equal to the femur in length in Nandinia, Herpestes, Crossarchus, and almost so in Proteles. I have found it longer than the femur in the Wild Cat and Domestic Cats (but not the large Cats), the Civet, Genet, Bdeogale, Cynictis, Suricata, Galidictis, Galidia, and Eupleres. I have found it shorter than the femur in the larger Cats and in Viverricula, Paradoxurus, Hemigalea, Arctictis Cynogale, Cryptopacta, and the Hyanina. The tibia is always longer than the radius, except in the Hyarina, where it is shorter.

The tibia of Hemigalea is remarkable for the very great projection mesiad of the internal malleolus, which allows the pes to be more obliquely articulated, so that the plantar surface may be directed more inwards than in most Eluroids. In Paradoxurus the same condition exists, though in a less marked degree.

In Eupleres the fibula is exceptionally strong amongst the Viverrida, and the process at its distal end is very strongly developed outwards and postaxially.

## The Pes.

The greatest length of the pes (measured from the front of the distal end of the tibia to the end of the fourth digit) is $30^{\prime \prime} \cdot 7$ (Felis); the least is $16^{\prime \prime} \cdot 2$ (Crocuta), In the Viverridee I have found it range from $25^{\prime \prime} \cdot 3$ (Galidictis and Suricata) to $16^{\prime \prime} \cdot 3$ (Viverra civetta). The length of the pes is always greater than that of the manus, except in Crocuta. They are exceptionally equal in Arctictis, where, the manus being as 100 , the pes is 119.7 .

The greatest relative length of the fourth metatarsal is $15 \cdot 1$ (Felis), and the least is 8.0 (Cynogale). The length of the fourth metatarsal corresponds with the third metacarpal.

The metatarsus is proportionally most elongate in the Felida. It is shortest and stoutest in the Viverrida, especially in such forms as Arctictis, Cynogale, and Hemigalea.

There is no hallux, save a rudimentary metatarsal, in the Felida, Hyanidae, Cynictis, Bdeogale, and Suricata. Though present in all the other genera, its length, compared with that of the index of the pes, may vary considerably.

The hallux (when developed) always extends half down the metatarsal of the index. It may only extend about half down the meta-
tarsal, as in Viverricula and sometimes in Herpestes, or two thirds down, as in Fossa. It may extend down to the distal end of the metatarsal of the pedal index, as in the Civet and Genet. It may reach further than to the middle of the proximal phalanx of the index (as in Paradoxurus, Nandinia, Galidictis, and Galidia), or to its distal end, as in Arctictis, Cryptoprocta, Eupleres, Crossarchus, and Hemigalea.

The metatarsal of the hallux (when not rudimentary) always extends more than half way down that of the index, but may hardly reach further, as sometimes in Herpestes and Viverricula. It may extend much more than half way down it, as in Fossa and Viverra civetta. It may extend two thirds down, as in Crossarchus. It may extend four fifths down it, as in Galidia, Galidictis, Cryptoprocta, Hemigalea, and Eupleres. It may extend downwards nearly to the end of the metatarsal of the index, as in Arctictis and Paradoxurus.

The middle phalanges of the digits of the pes vary in form harmoniously with those of the digits of the manus; and similarly the form of the ultimate phalanges of both limbs vary similarly in the various different groups of species.

Dimensions of the Skeleton in six specimens of the genus Felis. (In each there are 13 dorsal, 7 lumbar, and 3 sacral vertebræ.)

|  | Length of cervical vertebræ. | Length of dorsal vertebræ. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Length of lumbar } \\ & \text { vertebræ. } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Wild Cat | " 8.9 | 1165 | $17 \cdot 1$ |  | $45 \cdot 7$ | $3{ }^{\prime \prime} \cdot 4$ | 20 |
| Common Domestic Cat | 8.0 | 12.0 | 13.0 | $2 \cdot 4$ | $35 \cdot 4$ | $26 \cdot 1$ | 20 |
| Manx Cat | 54 | 10.6 | $9 \cdot 5$ | 1.5 | $27 \cdot 0$ | $2 \cdot 3$ | 3 |
| Leopard. | 16.0 | 31.0 | 29.0 | 6.5 | $82 \cdot 5$ | $78 \cdot 0$ | 23 |
| Tiger | 26.0 | 46.0 | $40 \cdot 0$ | $9 \cdot 5$ | 121.5 | $88 \cdot 0$ | 22 |
| Lion .......... | 22.0 | 38.0 | $32 \cdot 5$ | $7 \cdot 5$ | $100 \cdot 0$ | 74.5 | 21 |
| $\left.\begin{array}{c} \text { Average, excluding the } \\ \text { caudal vertebræ of } \\ \text { the Manx Cat ...... } \end{array}\right\}$ | 14.4 | 25.7 | $23 \cdot 5$ | $5 \cdot 1$ | 68.7 | $59 \cdot 8$ |  |
| Chetah | 18.0 | $31 \cdot 5$ | 29.5 | 6.5 | 85.5 |  |  |
| Eyra | $10 \cdot 8$ | $20 \cdot 3$ | $20 \cdot 3$ | $4 \cdot 4$ | 55.8 |  |  |


| Length of pelvic limb（femur，tibia， and pes）． |  | $\begin{array}{lll} 0 & \text { H } \\ i 0 & \text { it } \\ \text { it } \end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Length of 4th digit． |  | ¢ |
| Length of 4th metatarsal． |  | 10， 10 |
| Length of pes in front of tibia and fibula． | $=\stackrel{\infty}{=} \dot{\sim} \dot{\infty} \dot{\infty} \text { ลे }$ |  |
| Length of os calcis． |  | 10 |
| Tibia to root of malleolus． |  |  |
| Femur from summit of head to con－ dyloid surface． |  | $\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\circ} \stackrel{1}{\dot{\circ}} \underset{\sim}{4}$ |
| Length from summit of ilium to tuberosity of ischium． |  | $\stackrel{0}{\bullet} \quad \vdots \stackrel{\Gamma}{=}$ |
| Length of pectoral limb（humerus， radius，and manus）． |  |  |
| Length of ungual phalanx． |  | $\stackrel{9}{-1}$ فे |
| Length of 3rd digit． |  | \％ 10 |
| Length of 3rd metacarpal． | 三i¢ | $\stackrel{10}{19}$ |
| Length of manus． |  | $\begin{array}{lll} 0 & 10 \\ 0 & 10 \\ 9 & 10 & 0 \end{array}$ |
| Radius from margin of its head to root of styloid process． |  |  |
| Length from summit of head of hu－ merus to surface of capitellum． | 获 | 莣 |
| Angle formed by scapular spine with axillary margin． |  | － |
| Greatest breadth of scapula． |  | 呙 |
| Length of scapula from margin of glenoid surface to vertebral end of scapular spine． | ＝ | $\stackrel{0}{9} \quad \vdots$ |
|  |  |  |


| Breadth of narrowest part of skull behind postor－ bital processes． |  | － | ！$\vdots$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Interorbital breadth of skull－roof． | $=\underset{-1}{\infty} \underset{-1}{\infty}$ ¢ | $\bigcirc$ | ！ |
| Greatest breadth of brain－ case． | 吹 | ¢0 |  |
| Length between roots of zygomatic arch inside the arch． | ＝¢ ¢ ¢ ¢ | $\stackrel{\circ}{+}$ |  |
| Breadth of mesopterygoid fossa． |  | $\stackrel{\sim}{\text { ¢ }}$ |  |
| Length of mesopterygoid fossa to end of hamular processes． | ＝ヘั1 | $\stackrel{\square}{0}$ |  |
| Basion to ovalion． | 号 | $\dot{8}$ | ¢ ¢ ค ค |
| From front of præmaxilla to between palatine fo－ ramina． |  | $\stackrel{\infty}{10}$ |  |
| Greatest length of palate ${ }^{1}$ ． |  | $\cdots$ | $\vdots$ |
| Length of palate behind last molars． | 10．00 | $\stackrel{0}{4}$ |  |
| Greatest breadth of palate． | － | 10 |  |
| Greatest width of zygomata． |  | $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ | $\vdots$ |
| Basion to front of præ－ maxillæ． | $=\dot{\circ} \mathrm{O} \text { ¢ }$ | 108 | 逿 |
|  |  | 告 |  |


| Length of median upper incisor $\mathrm{I}^{1}$. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 10 } \\ & =0 \\ & =0 \\ & 0 \end{aligned}$ | ¢080 | $\stackrel{\ominus}{-}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Length of outermost upper incisor $I^{3}$. |  | $\stackrel{\text { ¢ }}{\text { - }}$ | $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\text { ar }}$ |
| Vertical extent of P. 2. |  | - | $10 \vdots$ |
| Transverse extent of P. 2. | = | $\stackrel{\sim}{0}$ | ¢ฺ่ |
| Antero-posterior extent of P. 2. | = | $\stackrel{9}{0}$ | - |
| Vertical extent of P. 3. |  | ت | $\vdots \vdots$ |
| Transverse extent of $\text { P. } 3 .$ |  | - | : |
| Antero posterior extent of P. 3. |  | - | $\vdots \vdots$ |
| Vertical extent of crown of P. 4. |  | $\stackrel{\text { ® }}{\sim}$ | $\vdots \vdots$ |
| Transverse extent of P. 4. | =00400-10-909 | 9 | $\vdots \vdots$ |
| Antero-posterior extent of P. 4. | - | $\stackrel{9}{-}$ | คํㅜㄷ |
| Transverse diameter of M.1. |  | ¢ | $\vdots \vdots$ |
| Antero-posterior dimension of M. 2 . | " | $\stackrel{10}{0}$ | $\vdots \vdots$ |
| Length of upper canine. |  | $\stackrel{\sim}{\text { ciol }}$ | +9909 |
|  |  |  |  |


| Length of lower <br> molar series. | $=$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| Length from front <br> of frst lower <br> molarto end of <br> condyle. | $=$ |
| Length from front <br> of upper canine <br> to back of last <br> upper molar. | $=$ |
| Length from the <br> same point to <br> hinder side of <br> mandibular <br> condyle. | $=$ |
| Length from front <br> of lower canine <br> to <br> back of last | $=0$ |
| lower molar. |  |


Proportions of Parts of Skeleton of Felide（continued）．

|  | Length of upper canine． | H M O ¢ ¢ ¢ | Basion to ovalion． | ¢ ¢ ¢ ¢ ¢ ¢ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Narrowest post－ orbital breadth． | ¢ | Transverse extent of $\stackrel{\text { P．} 3 .}{ }$ | ¢ ¢ |
|  | Interorbital breadth． | ค ค ¢ |  |  |
|  |  |  | Antero－posterior extent of P．3． | ¢ |
|  | Breadth of brain－ case． |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { E. } \\ & \text { : } \\ & \text { N } \end{aligned}$ | Breadth of meso－ pterygoid fossa． | 号 10 ¢ | Transverse extent of P． 4. |  |
|  | Length of meso－ pterygoid fossa． |  | Antero－posterior extent of $\xrightarrow{\text { P．4．}}$ | ヘิ． |
|  | Length of palate． |  | Transverse extent of M． 1 ． | － |
|  | Length of palate be－ hind last molars． | $\dot{\text { ¢i }}$ | Antero－posterior extent of M． 1 ． | ค ¢ ¢ ¢ |
|  | Breadth of palate． |  | Length of inner－ most incisor． | 枵 |
|  | Breadth of zygo－ mata． |  | Length of outer－ most inisor． | $\underset{\sim}{9}$ ¢ |
|  |  |  |  |  |


Proportions of Parts of Skeleton of Felide (continued).

| Length of palate being taken as 100 , length from front of præmaxillæ to palatine foramina. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Average................. | 71.5 |
| Maximum .............. | 74.2 |
| Minimum .............. | 66.2 |




| Length of tail. |  <br> $\bigcirc \bigcirc$ <br> - 010000 <br>  <br>  <br>  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Length from front of atlas to hinder end of sacrum. |  <br>  |
| Length of sacrum. |  <br>  |
| Length of lumbar vertebræ. |  <br>  |
| Length of dorsal vertebræ. |  <br>  |
| Length of cervical vertebræ. |  |
| Number of pairs of true ribs. |  |
| Number of sternebræ. |  |
| Number of caudal vertebre. |  |
| Number of sacral vertebræ. |  |
| Number of lumbar vertebræ. |  |
| Number of dorsal vertebræ. |  |
|  |  |


| Length of entire pelvic limbs. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Length of entire pectoral limb. |  <br>  |
| Length of 4th digit. |  |
| Length of 4th metatarsal. |  <br>  |
| Length of pes (in front of tibia). |  <br>  |
| Length of os calcis. |  <br>  |
| Length of tibia. | в <br>  |
| Length of femur. |  |
| Length of pelvis. | $\uparrow$ - <br>  |
| Length of ungual phalanx. |  <br>  |
| Length of 3rd digit. |  <br>  |
| Length of 3rd metacarpal. |  <br>  |
| Length of manus. |  <br>  |
| Length of radius. |  |
| Length of humerus. | هน <br>  |
| Angle of spine and axillary margin. |  |
| Breadth of scapula. | ¢ <br>  |
| Length of scapula. |  <br>  |
|  |  |


| Length from front of lower canine to back of mandibular condyle. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Length from front of lower canine to back of last lower molar. |  |
| Interorbital breadth at narrowest part. |  |
| Interorbital breadth. |  <br>  |
| Breadth of braincase. |  <br>  |
| Length of each zygomatic arch in straight line. |  <br>  |
| Its breadth. | 10 ب = |
| Length of mesopterygoid fossa. |  <br>  |
| Basion to ovalion. |  <br>  |
| From præmaxillæ to palatine foramina. | かم |
| Greatest length of palate. |  <br>  |
| Its length behind last molars. |  <br>  |
| Breadth of palate. |  <br>  |
| Width of zygomata. |  <br>  |
| Basion to præmaxillæ. |  <br>  |
|  |  |


| Length of upper molar series. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Length of innermost incisors. |  |
| Length of outermost incisors. |  |
| Vertical extent of P. 1. |  = $\dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0}^{n} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0}$ |
| Breadth of P.1. | $=\text { = }$ |
| Length of P.1. |  |
| Vertical extent of P. 2. |  $=\dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} 0000000009+9$ |
| Breadth of P.2. |  |
| Length of P.2. |  <br>  |
| Vertical extent of P. 3. |  = $\dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{\operatorname{O}} \dot{\operatorname{O}} \dot{\mathrm{O}}$ |
| Breadth of P.3. |  = $0 \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{1}$ |
| Length of P.3. |  = $\dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} 0 \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{1}$ ज |
| Vertical extent of P. 4. |  = $\dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{1} \dot{1}$ |
| Breadth of P.4. |  <br>  |
| Length of P.4. |  <br>  |
| Breadth of M. 1. |  |
| Length of M.1. |  = $\dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0} \dot{0}$ |
| Breadth of M. 2. |  <br>  |
| Length of M.2. | म@ H- |
| Length of upper canine. | MQ QOQ o O HQ |
|  |  |


|  | $\underset{\text { pes. }}{\text { Femur }}+\text { tibia }+$ |  <br>  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Humerus + radius + manus. |  <br>  |
|  | Ungual phalanx. | $\underset{\sim}{\infty}$ |
|  | 3rd digit. | ¢ |
|  | 3rd metacarpal. |  <br>  |
| 馬 | Manus. |  <br>  |
|  | Radius. |  <br>  |
|  | Humerus. |  <br>  |
|  | Scapula. |  <br>  |
|  | Tail. |  <br>  |
|  | Sacrum. |  <br>  |
|  | Lumbar region. |  <br>  |
|  | Dorsal region. |  <br>  |
|  | Cervical region. |  <br>  |
|  |  |  |



| Basion to ovalion. |  <br>  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Breadth of P. 3. |  |
| Length of P.3. | ด <br>  |
| Breadth of P. 4. |  |
| Length of P. 4. |  |
| Breadth of M. 1. |  <br>  <br>  |
| Length of M.1. |  |
| Breadth of M. 2. |  |
| Length (anteroposterior) of M. 2. |  |
| Length of innermost incisor. |  |
| Length of outermost incisor. |  <br>  |
| Length of upper canine. |  <br>  |
| Narrowest postorbital breadth. |  <br>  |
| Interorbital breadth. |  <br>  |
| Breadth of braincase. |  <br>  |
| Breadth of mesopterygoid fossa. |  <br>  |
| Length of mesopterygoid fossa. |  <br>  |
| Length of palate. |  <br>  |
| Length of palate behind molars. |  <br>  |
| Breadth of palate. | ب ¢ ¢ণ <br>  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Breadth of zygo- } \\ & \text { mata. } \end{aligned}$ |  <br>  |
|  |  |




## Myology.

The muscles of the Felidee have, as every one knows, been most perfectly illustrated and described, with his peculiar nomenclature, by Straus-Dürckheim in his splendid work 'Le Chat.' The muscles of the Cat have also been shortly described under their commonly known names, and partly illustrated from fresh dissections, by $\mathrm{me}^{1}$. The muscles of various Felida, of the Genet, and of the Hyæna have been figured in Cuvier's magnificent 'Recueil des Planches.' The muscles of the Civet have been described by Prof. Macalister ${ }^{2}$ and by Messrs. Young ${ }^{3}$ and Davis ${ }^{4}$, and those of Crocuta by Dr. Watson ${ }^{5}$.

With these references, I shall content myself with shortly noticing the myological conditions which I have observed in the specimen of Genetta tigrina dissected by me, pointing out their resemblances and differences from those found by me in the Cat, by Prof. Macalister in the Civet, and by Dr. Watson in Crocuta.

## Muscles of the Pectoral Limb.

Pectoralis.-I found this in the Genet to be as in the Cat, save that one muscular mass corresponds with what I have described ${ }^{6}$ as the 1st, 2nd, and 5th parts of the Cat's pectoralis, while the part which seems to represent the Cat's 2nd portion extends three fourths down the humerus. What corresponds to the 4th part of the Cat's pectoral is here inserted into the head of the humerus around the tendon of the biceps, and (mainly) on the greater tuberosity.

In Crocuta the pectoral is inserted into the whole length of the humerus from the bicipital groove to the elbow, and is divisible into a superficial and a deep stratum.

The rectus abdominis extends the whole length of the sternum ; and there are (as in the Civet) seven tendinous inscriptions.

The scaleni are as in the Cat, except that the longer one reaches from the 5 th to the 8 th rib: from the 3 rd to the 6 th in the Civet. There are but two scaleni in Crocuta, but there are three in Hyana brunnea and the Civet.

The subclavius is represented by a small muscle which goes from the first rib to the rudimentary clavicle, as also in the Civet.

The trapezius has the same general conditions as it has in the Cat ${ }^{7}$. Its anterior part is very small in the Hyænas ${ }^{8}$.

The cephalo-humeral is as in the Cat, as it is also probably in the Civets and Hyænas. In the latter it is of enormous strength ${ }^{9}$.

[^4]The rhomboideus arises (as in the Civet) from the 3rd cervical to the 4th dorsal vertebra; in Crocuta from the 5th cervical to the 4th dorsal. There is no rhomboideus capitis, thus differing from the Cat and agreeing with Crocuta, though, according to Meckel, there is one in Hyana striata.

The serratus magnus arises in the Cat from the first ten ribs, in the Genet from the first nine, in Crocuta from the first eight, and in the Civet from the first seven or eight.

The levator anguli scapule arises in the Cat from the last five cervical vertebræ, in the Genet and Civet from the last four ${ }^{1}$, in Crocuta from the last five cervical and first dorsal vertebre. It is enormously thick in the Hyænas.
The levator clavicule is as in the Cat; also in Crocuta ${ }^{2}$.
The latissimus dorsi I found to arise as in the Cat; while in the Civet it extends from the 5th dorsal to the 3rd lumbar vertebra. In the Hyænas it arises from the posterior eleven dorsal spines and the lumbar aponeurosis.

There is but one dorso-epitrochlear, which corresponds to my internal dorso-epitrochlear of the Cat. There is but one in the Civet and Hyænas.

The deltoid, infraspinatus, and teres minor are as in the Cat.
The subscapularis and infraspinatus are as in the Cat. The supraspinatus only differs from that of the Cat in that, as in the Civet, it is obscurely separable into two portions, and in that it projects less beyond the margin of the bone of the scapula.

The teres major in the Genet, Civet, and Hyænas is inserted into the tendon of the latissimus dorsi, rather than into the humerus in common with it as in the Cat.

The triceps of the Genet is substantially like that of the Cat, except that its fifth head of origin extends higher up the humerus. In Crocuta and Viverra civetta there are but four heads.

The anconeus is like that of the Cat, except that it is not larger than is the fifth head of the triceps. There is a short flat anconeus in Crocuta.

The biceps in the Genet (as in the Civet, the Cat, and the Hyænas) arises by a single head from the margin of the glenoid surface, and is inserted into the tubercle of the radius.

The coracobrachialis is as in the Cat, save that it (as also in the Civet) partly unites with the tendon of the latissimus dorsi and adjacent part of the triceps. It is also single in the Hyænas.

The brachialis anticus is as in the Cat, Civet, and Hyænas.
The supinator longus arises much lower down the humerus than in the Cat. It is inserted into the radius, but sends (as also in the Civet) a slip to the dorsal carpal ligament. It is absent in the Hyænas, or only represented by a tendinous vestige ${ }^{3}$. In Hemi-
${ }^{1} \mathrm{Mr}$. Young says from the last six (Journ. of Anat. \& Phys. vol. xiv. p. 169).

2 Also in the Ichneumon, where it is said by Meckel (Anat. Comp, vol. vi. p. 238) to perforate the trapezius.
${ }^{3}$ P. Z. S. 1879, p. 98.
galea it is inserted into the large plate-like process of the radius, before described (fig. 2).

The extensores carpi radiales longior et brevior and the supinator brevis are as in the Cat and Civet.

The extensor communis digitorum supplies the four outer digits in the Hyænas and Civet, as in the Genet and Cat.

The extensor minimi digiti is substantially as in the Cat, and supplies the 3rd, 4th, and 5th digits in the Civet, but in the Hyænas it only goes to the 4th and 5 th ${ }^{1}$.

The extensor longus ulnaris is as in the Cat.
The extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis is as in the Cat, save that its origin extends up inside the olecranon. It is recorded as arising from the olecranon in the Civet (but not in the Hyænas), and as inserted into a sesamoid at the base of the first metacarpal according to Macalister ${ }^{2}$, and exclusively into the metacarpal of the pollex according to Mr. Young.

The extensores indicis et secundii internodii pollicis are as in the Cat, save that their origin does not extend up to the olecranon. The extensor s. i. pollicis is wanting in the Hyænas, but present in the Civet, where it goes to the pollex and index.

The pronator teres is as in the Cat. In the Civet its insertion extends down to the lower end of the radius. It is shorter and more slender, relatively, in the Hyænas. In Hemigalea it is inserted into the singular plate-like process of the radius.

The palmaris longus is inserted into the palmar fascia, as in the Cat and Hyænas. In the Civet it is said to be large (more or less double) and inserted into the pisiforme. It is much united with the muscle next to be noticed in Hyænas and in the Cat.

The flexor sublimis digitorum is not blended with the palmaris longus, but is very small, and takes origin from part of the tendon of the flexor profundus, as also in the Civet. It goes to the four outer digits; and in Crocuta (where it seems yet more completely blended with the fexor profundus) it goes to the three middle digits ${ }^{3}$, the fifth being supplied by a minute separate muscle ${ }^{4}$; as also in the Civet, which Mr. Young (l.c. p. 172) compares with my and Murie's "flexor brevis manus" of Hyrax ${ }^{5}$.

The flexor profundus digitorum arises by five bellies, three from the condyle, one from the radius (as in the Cat), and one from the ulna. It has four origins in the Civet-1. condylo-ulnar, 2. condyloradial, 3. radial, and 4. ulnar.

The flexor carpi ulnaris is as in the Cat, except that the two heads soon unite to form one belly. In the Civet the muscle is double, one part arising from the condyle and one from the olecra-

[^5]non; both are inserted into the pisiforme. In Hyœna striata and Crocuta it only arises from the inner condyle of the humerus.

The flexor carpi radialis is as in the Cat.
The pronator quadratus extends for about the lowest third of the length of the bones of the forearm (instead of half their length, as in the Cat). It extends for about the lowest quarter in the Civet, or a little more ${ }^{1}$. In Hyana striata it is large; and in Crocuta it extends up the whole length of the bones of the forearm. It is very large in Hemigalea, and is inserted into the plate-like process of the radius.

The lumbricales in the Genet are as in the Cat. In the Civet there are sometimes but three ${ }^{2}$, though there are four in Hyana and Crocuta.

The flexor brevis pollicis arises by two heads in the Civet, and there is an opponens. There are no muscles furnished to the rudimentary pollex of the Hyønina.

The abductor pollicis arises in the Civet from the ulnar ossicle, and has a long tendon.

The abductor minimi digiti arises from the annular ligament and pisiform bone in the Civet, and it exists also in Crocuta. A second abductor arises in the Civet from inside the fifth metacarpal, and is inserted into the ulnar sesamoid of the fifth digit. There is also a second flexor brevis minimi digiti arising from the unciforme, and inserted beside the muscle previously mentioned.

The interossei in the Civet are said to be ${ }^{3}$ as follows :-First, a (carpally arising) adductor indicis; secondly, a metacarpal adductor indicis ; then an adductor annularis ; fourthly, an adductor minimi digiti : the foregoing are palmar interossei. The dorsal interossei are:-First, an abductor indicis ; secondly, an abductor medii digiti; thirdly, an adductor medii digiti; fourthly an adductor annularis : these are all bicipital except the third.

In Crocuta Dr. Watson says ${ }^{4}$ :-"A deep set of interossei comprises eight fleshy bundles arranged in pairs, two to each metacarpal." "In addition to these paired muscles are two single ones (palmar interossei). These arise together from the bases of the third and fourth metacarpals. They are distributed to the middle and outermost digits respectively."

## Muscles of the Pelvic Limb.

The gluteus maximus, gluteus medius, gluteus minimus, tensor vagince femoris, and biceps femoris are as in the Cat.

The accessory biceps or tenuissimus is in the Genet as in the Cat ${ }^{5}$, except that it is slightly connected with the semitendinosus. In the Civet also it receives a slip, at its insertion, from the semi-

[^6]tendinosus. In the Hyena it descends at least to the middle of the leg $^{1}$; Dr. Watson says to the os calcis in Crocuta.

The semitendinosus of the Genet (as also the Civet) has a delicate head, which arises from the third caudal vertebra at the hinder end of the caudal origin of the gluteus maximus, with which it is conterminous. This head joins the other part of the semitendinosus about one third down the femur, and becomes slightly connected with the tenuissimus. It is inserted as in the Cat, but the upper tendon of its insertion is not so distinct. This muscle has no caudal origin in Crocuta.

The semimembranosus is in the Genet quite as in the Cat, save that its two parts are more separate-separate for nearly the whole length of the muscle. The part from the ramus of the ischium goes to the femur ; that from its tuberosity to the tibia. In Crocuta it is quite inseparable from the adductor magnus.

Agitator cauda.-This muscle, which I did not observe in the Cat, arises in the Civet from the first and second caudal vertebro, and is inserted into the back of the femur. In the Genet its origin blends with the hinder end of the caudal origin of the gluteus maximus. It is crossed by the sciatic nerve and goes to the lower third of the femur (rather behind its outer margin), and extends down almost to the external condyle.

In the Genet and Civet there is a special sphincter of the scentglands.

The sartorius is double in the Genet and, sometimes at least, in the Civet ${ }^{2}$. One part arises from above and behind the anterior superior spine of the ilium and goes to the patella; the other part springs from below the first part, and is lost in the fascia on the inner side of the knee. It is also double in Crocuta.

The pectineus in the Genet is as in the Cat. It is large and double at its insertion in the Civet ${ }^{3}$. In Crocuta it goes from the ilio-pectineal line to the middle of the linea aspera.

The adductor mass of the Genet is substantially similar to that of the Cat, though, as in the Civet, it may be divided into three parts. One of these, the adductor primus, is attached to the semimembranosus ${ }^{4}$. Another, the adductor secundus, is very wide and short and is separable into two layers. The third part, or adductor longus, is attached halfway down the femur. In Crocuta there are two adductor muscles, which both arise from the pubic arch, and which are inserted, respectively, one into the internal condyle and internal tuberosity of femur, and the other into the whole length of the linea aspera and into the internal branch of its lower bifurcation.

The quadriceps extensor of the Genet is as in the Cat, save that the crureus takes origin along the whole length of the femur, up to the neck of that bone. The crureus is not differentiated in Crocuta, and the vasti are hardly separable.

[^7]The psoas magnus and iliacus are as in the Cat.
The psoas parvus arises from the third, fourth, and fifth lumbar vertebræ, and (as in the Civet.) is inserted into the pelvis by a very strong tendon.

The pyriformis, gemelli, quadratus lumborum, quadratus femoris, and the obturators are as in the Cat.

A muscle which I did not notice in the Cat exists in the Civet : it arises in front of and below a very distinct antero-posterior ridge on the dorsum of the ilium. It is called gluteus quartus by Professor Macalister.

Another muscle, which answers to my gluteus quartus in the Cat, is similarly conditioned to that of the Cat, both in Genetta and Viverra. It also exists in Crocuta. This muscle is called gluteus quintus by Professor Macalister.

The plantaris arises, in the Genet, only from the external condyle of the femur and the adjacent sesamoid bone, and is (as also in the Civet) only slightly united with the external head of the gastrocnemius. It is inserted as usual.

The gastrocnemius of the Genet has only three heads of originone from each femoral condyle and adjacent sesamoid, and one (mainly aponeurotic at its origin) from the fibula. There is no origin from the ligamentum patellæ. The insertion is as usual.

The soleus of the Civet is like that of the Cat. In the Genet it takes origin from the upper half of the fibula. Its insertion is as usual. It is wanting in Hycna striata and in Crocuta.

The popliteus and tibialis anticus are both as in the Cat, and the same is the case with the Civet. In Crocuta it is double halfway down, the tendon of one part being inserted into the entocuneiforme, and that of the other into the rudimentary metatarsal of the hallux.

The extensor longus digitorum of the Genet is like that of the Cat. In the Civet it gives origin to two main tendons, which subdivide to supply the four outer digits, the details of the subdivision varying in different individuals. In Hyana striata the muscle divides into two bellies and gives off five tendons. In Crocuta it seems to be single, and is said to give off no tendon to the digitus minimus.

The extensor longus hallucis is absent in Crocuta and in the Cat. In the Civet it is slender, arises from the upper half of the margin of the fibula, and goes to the hallux only. In the Genet it is also slender and has a similar origin, but appears to end distally in an aponeurotic expansion extending dorsally on the hallux and index.

The peroneus longus in the Civet and Genet is inserted into the fifth metatarsal as well as into the first metatarsal. In Crocuta and Hyana striata it is inserted into the fifth metatarsal only.

The peroneus brevis and peroneus quiniti digiti are as in the Cat. The latter is wanting in Crocuta, but the former has two tendons.

The extensor brevis digitorum of the Genet and Civet is much as in the Cat, but ends distally in an aponeurotic expansion rather than in quite distinct tendons. It goes to the four outer or to the four
inner digits. In Hyœna and Crocuta it only goes to the second, third, and fourth digits.

The tibialis posticus is as in the Cat.
The flexor longus digitorum and flexor hallucis of the Genet are like those of the Cat, save that a small tendon is sent to the


The flexor brevis digitorum is in the Genet as in the Cat, save that it is not divided into four bellies side by side, but is in one mass ${ }^{1}$. In Crocuta ${ }^{2}$ it is confined to the sole of the foot, and is represented solely by a tendon, there being no muscular belly. In H. striata (according to Meckel) it is a prolongation of the tendon of the plantaris with additional muscular fibres from the fourth metatarsal. In the Civet it seems to be similar, except that the additional muscular fibres are derived from the os calcis.

The accessorius of the Genet (and apparently of the Civet) is very unlike the muscle described by me under this name in the Cat ${ }^{3}$. It arises from the outer side of the os calcis, and ends in a strong tendon which joins obliquely the tendon of the deep flexors previously noticed. In Crocuta it is very small and slender, with a similar origin and insertion.

In the Genet, Civet, and Crocuta there are but three lumbricales, which take origin from the surface of the conjoined deep flexor tendons.

Dr. Watson and Mr. Young remark ${ }^{4}$ of the Hyanince:-"The enormous development of the muscles of the neck and fore quarters, together with minor points already referred to, serve at once to associate" Crocuta with the other Hyænas, and to separate them "from the remaining groups of the Eluroidea." Doubtless also, as these authors remark, the external form and skeleton of Proteles indicate that its muscular system does not differ materially from that common to Hyana and Crocuta.

## Splanchnology.

## Tongue.

The tongue in the Felida is provided with circumvallate papilla disposed in two rows converging posteriorly, there being sometimes as many as six in each row. Behind these is a group of very large, soft, and pointed fattened papilla. Fungiform papilla are little conspicuous, but are seattered over the organ, especially at the sides of the anterior part. The conical papilla have, at the anterior fourth of the dorsal surface, that well-known hard and horny character which gives a rasp-like character to the tongue of even small Cats, while in the large species these papillæ are like claws and are veritable spines.

Comparing the tongue of the Civet ${ }^{5}$ with that of a feline animal ${ }^{6}$,

[^8]we find the tongue of the former to be relatively longer, more slender, and more pointed anteriorly. The frænum is attached for nearly two thirds the tongue's length instead of only for about half. The lytta is about as much developed, relatively, as in the Cat. The fungiform papille are scattered pretty equally over the greater part of the dorsum of the tongue, but are absent from a narrow elongated tract in the middle of its dorsum. There are only three circumvallate papilla, one in the middle, and one on each side of it, a very little in advance, so that they form together an extremely obtuse angle open forwards.

Fig. 3.

A. Tongue of the Civet: $c$, conical papillæ; $f$, fungiform papillæ; $c . v$, circumvallate papillæ.
B. Tongue of the Genet: $f$, free fold of mucous membrane.

Each circumvallate papilla is large, with from 9 to 12 small papillæ on its surface. The conical papille are not horny ${ }^{1}$, but are simply short conical processes scattered over the dorsum of the tongue, being longest on its middle towards the apex and also at its sides. There is no conspicuous patch of specially modified papillæ towards the anterior part of the dorsum. The flattened papilla are very small, close-set, and inconspicuous compared with those of Felis; they are scarcely larger than the conical papillæ.

[^9]In the Genet the flattened papillæ are larger, relatively, than in the Civet. There is no median circumvallate papilla, but either one elongate one, or two small ones on either side. There is no patch of enlarged papillæ on the dorsum, but those on the anterior half of the part in front of the circumvallate papillæ are generally larger. A large free fold of mucous membrane projects horizontally from the anterior part of the frænum on either side of it.

In Hemigalea there is a marked free fold of membrane, similar to that of Genetta. There are three circumvallate papillæ, one of which is median in position, and they form together an angle open forwards, not quite so obtuse as in the Civet. The flattened papillæ are small and inconspicuous, and there are no conspicuous fungiform papillæ. On the other hand, the conical papillæ are specially modified on the anterior half of the tongue so as to form an oblong patch of enlarged, but smooth papillæ at that part. This patch, however, is by no means so well defined a patch as that which exists in certain other genera, e. g. Galidia, Herpestes, and Crossarchus.

The tongue of Nandinia is like that of Viverra civetta, except it is more pointed and has a relatively stouter lytta. The fungiform papilla, though scattered generally over its dorsum, are smaller and less conspicuous. There are only two circumvallate papillce, there being no median one. The flattened papille are larger and more conspicuous, but not so large as (though more close set than) in Felis.

Arctictis has a tongue like that of the Civet, except that there is a greater difference of aspect between the anterior and the posterior halves of its dorsum. On its anterior half the conical papillæ are more conspicuous ; and on its posterior half the fungiform papillæ are less so. Speaking generally, the fungiform papillæ are conspicuous and the conical papillæ are small. There are seven or eight circumvallate papilla, which together form an angle of about $75^{\circ}$. The fattened papilla are hardly so conspicuous as in Nandinia.

In the specimen of Herpestes I examined there were only three circumvallate papilla, and they were placed almost in a straight transverse line. The flattened papille were small and inconspicuous. There was a very distinct patch of much enlarged so-called conical papilla on the dorsum of the tongue, each of these papillæ being really flattened and having the appearance of having had its apex cut off. Fungiform papillæ were conspicuous, and scattered over the dorsum between the patch of enlarged papillæ and the circumvallate ones.

In Cynictis I found three very conspicuous circumvallate papilla, which together form a right angle. Behind these are elongated flattened papilla, but hardly so conspicuous as in Nandinia. There is, on the anterior half of the dorsum, a wide, rounded patch of much enlarged conical papilla, which are really flattened in form, and so disposed as to cause the patch to have the appearance of being marked with a series of lines of the shape called "embattled" in heraldry. Around this patch, and on the middle of the tongue behind it, the papillæ are very small, and amongst them certain
fungiform papilla are moderately conspicuous. Conical papillæ of intermediate size are placed at the sides of the hinder half of the tongue.

In Crossarchus ${ }^{1}$ we have similar characters carried to a more exaggerated degree, the conical papillae of the dorsal patch being larger and the fungiform papille being more conspicuous. The

Fig. 4.


Tongue of Proteles.
$c$, conical papillæ; $f$, fungiform papillæ; $f^{\prime}$, points towards the much enlarged papillæ; c.v, one of the two depressions in which lie the two circumvallate papillæ.
three circumvallate papilla form an angle of about $105^{\circ}$. The flattened papillæ are very little conspicuous. Galidia has a tongue like that of Crossarchus, except that the papillæ of the dorsal patch are still more enlarged.

Hyana has for the most part a tongue like that of Cynictis and Galidia magnified; but the fattened papilla are much larger relatively as well as absolutely, and are much more conspicuous.
${ }^{1}$ Cuvier says (Leçons d'Anat. Comp. 2nd edit. vol. iv. $1^{\text {e }}$ partie, p. 553) that he did not find a lytta in the Mangoustes.

The papillæ generally, other than those of the dorsal patch, are relatively small, and the fungiform papille are but little conspicuous. Even those of the patch are relatively smaller than in the previously noticed genera. The lytta is small. There are only two circumvallate papilla, and they are very small.

In Proteles the tongue is very exceptional indeed. It is spatulate in form, and the dorsal patch attains here its maximum of distinctness. The patch extends quite to the apex and side of the anterior third of the dorsum of the tongue. Each papilla of the patch is an enlarged hemispherical prominence. The fungiform papilla are only conspicuous at the sides of the tongue and in front of the circumvallate papilla, of which there are but two, each of which is situated in a very deep depression. The flattened papillæ are very inconspicuous.

## The Palate, Nose, and Lips.

 a greater or less number of transverse curved ridges, the number of which may vary somewhat with the length of the muzzle, though there are eight of them in both the Cat and the Genet. But while in the Cat the ridges form a series of very open curves (convex forwards), in the Genet the curves are much sharper. Moreover, while in the Cat each ridge is entire, in the Genet the four hinder ridges are more and more interrupted medianly, and each of these ridges, as it proceeds towards the middle line of the palate, bifurcates nearer and nearer to its origin, i. e. to the outer margin of the palate. By this system of bifurcations there tend to be produced eight incomplete and four complete transverse ridges, instead of, as in the Cat, eight complete ones.

The nose in the Æluroids is almost always medianly and vertically grooved ; but this groove may be absent, as in Rhinogale, Crossarchus, and Suricata.

Similarly the upper lip is more or less vertically cleft or deeply grooved medianly. This groove, however, is absent in Cynogale, Rhinogale, Crossarchus, and Suricata.

## Teeth.

The Felida have the smallest number of teeth except the dentally degraded form Proteles, which has but three molars above and two below on either side.

All Eluroids have I. $\frac{3}{3}$, C. $\frac{1}{1}$.
The premolars and molars may be

$$
\left.\left.\begin{array}{l}
\text { Pm. } \frac{1+2+3+4}{1+2+3+4}, \text { M. } \frac{1+2}{1+2}
\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{l}
\text { Viverra, Genetta, Arctogale, } \\
\text { Cynogale, \&c. }
\end{array}\right\} \text { Prionodon. }
$$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\operatorname{Pm} \cdot \frac{1+2+3+4}{2+3+4}, & \text { M. } \frac{1+2}{2} & \} \text { Hemigalidia. } \\
\operatorname{Pm} \cdot \frac{2+3+4}{2+3+4}, & \text { M. } \frac{1+2}{1+2} & \} \begin{array}{l}
\text { Herpestes, Crossarchus, Suri- } \\
\text { cata, Galidictis, Galidia. }
\end{array} \\
\operatorname{Pm} \cdot \frac{1+2+3+4}{2+3+4}, & \text { M. } \frac{1}{1} & \} \text { Hyana. } \\
\operatorname{Pm} \cdot \frac{2+3+4}{2+3+4}, & \text { M. } \frac{1}{1} & \} \text { Cryptoprocta. } \\
\operatorname{Pm} \cdot \frac{2+3+4}{3+4}, & \text { M. } \frac{1}{1} & \text { \}Some kinds of Felis. } \\
\text { Pm. } \frac{3+4}{3+4}, & \text { M. } \frac{1}{1} & \text { \}Other kinds of Felis. }
\end{array}
$$

The outer canine may be greatly in excess of the median ones, as in the Hyanina, or but very little so, as in the Felida. It may be of uearly the same size as a small adjacent canine, as in Eupleres. The canines may be greatly prolonged, as in the Felide, especially Felis macroscelis.

The lower canines may be excessively developed relatively, as in Galidictis.

The premolars may have greatly and nearly equally elongated and sharp curves, as in Cynogale.

The premolars and molars may be much developed antero-posteriorly into long diastemata, as in Eupleres; or they may be narrow antero-posteriorly, and much drawn out from within outwards, as in Suricata.

The teeth $\stackrel{\stackrel{\text { P. } 4}{\text { P. }} 4}{ }$ may be extremely sectorial, as in the Felida, Cryptoprocta, and Hyanina, or considerably so, as in most Viverrida, or very slightly so, as in Arctictis. $\frac{\mathrm{M}_{1} .2}{\mathrm{M} .2}$ may be present and very small, as in Nandinia, or may be largely developed, as in Cynoyale. The deciduous molars may be very exceptionally developed, as in Cynogale, where $\frac{\text { D. } 4}{\text { D. } 4}$ are relatively enormous.

## The Salivary Glands.

These, in such forms as I have examined, seem to be formed on one type. In Genetta and Herpestes (and probably in all the genera) there is a distinct zygomatic gland. There is a well-developed parotid gland with its Steno's duct, and a small submaxillary gland (over which the jugular vein passes), to which small accessory submaxillary glands may be annexed.

Cuvier says ${ }^{1}$ :-" Les Mangoustes ont des parotides minces ; des maxillaires plus épaisses, nudes ; de petites sublinguales allongées, en avant des maxillaires; des buccales à l'angle des lèvres; et des

[^10]labiales à la lèvre inférieure." Meckel says ${ }^{1}$ that in the Ichneumon the parotid and submaxillary glands are about equal in volume.

Fig. 5.

A. Salivary glands of Genet. $p$, parotid gland; $d$, Steno's duct; $s m$, submaxillary gland, traversed by $j v$, jugular vein ; $o$, opening of Steno's duct.
B. Part of the skull of the Genet, showing the zygomatic gland, the lip being drawn up to show:-st. $d$, orifice of Steno's duct; z.gl, zygomatic gland; $o$, orifice of zygomatic gland; $z$, zygoma.

## The Stomach.

In Genetta tigrina the stomach is much longer in proportion to its breadth than in the Cat ${ }^{2}$. Its length, measured along its middle, is

[^11]about $8^{\prime \prime} \cdot 8$. Its breadth at its broadest part, i. e. at the entrance of the œsophagus, is $2^{\prime \prime} \cdot 75$. About $1^{\prime \prime}$ of œesophagus extends behind the diaphragm. Inside the stomach were elongated and very prominent ineffaceable folds, placed towards the pyloric end and along the greater curvature; and there were three shorter and less strongly

Fig. 6.

A. Stomach and pancreas of Genetta tigrina. $\propto$, œesophagus; $s$, pancreas; $b d$, duct from the liver ; $p d$, pancreatic duct.
B. Stomach of Genet, eut open, showing internal folds. $x$, point where the folds are interrupted and the stomach makes a sudden bend; $p v$, pyloric valve.
marked folds along the lesser curvature. All these folds come to an end simultaneously at a point where the stomach, contracting its diameter, makes a sudden bend. Beyond this point three fresh lon-
gitudinal folds appear, which extend along the rest of the greater curvature. The pyloric valve was very little marked.

In Hemigalea I found the stomach to be very like that of the Genet, with quite similar internal folds. That of Viverra civetta is relatively shorter and more uniformly capacious than that of the Genet; and the pylorus exhibits a small prolongation, extending as a cul-de-sac beside the duodenum.

The stomach of Arctictis exaggerates the characters of the stomach of Genetta, its lesser curvature being extremely curved. Ineffaceable folds extend along the inside of the lesser curvature, from the pyloric side of the œsophagal opening on towards the pylorus. There are none such in Genetta. There are also strong ineffaceable folds in the pyloric portion of the stomach. The pylorus

Fig. 7.


Stomach of Prionodon, cut open.
continues on into a sort of cul-de-sac, which extends for a little beside the beginning of the duodenum. The bile-ducts enter full $4^{\prime \prime}$ from the pylorus.

In Prionodon I found the stomach to be shorter and more globular than that of the Genet, and of remarkably large size in proportion to the size of the body.

In Herpestes I found the stomach long, and very much constricted towards its middle. This constriction does not appear in two dried specimens of stomach of Herpestes in the Museum of the College of Surgeons. Herpestes, however, is a very large and varied genus ${ }^{1}$.

In Crossarchus the stomach is short and globular, but the cardia is considerably prolonged.

[^12]In Suricata the stomach is very short and round, while the cardia is extremely short ${ }^{1}$.

Cynictis has a stomach more like that of the Genet, but not quite so elongated. There are folds inside the middle part of the greater curvature, but not towards the pylorus, which has a cul-desac extending beside the beginning of the duodenum. The cardia is very elongated.

The stomach of Galidia is very like that of Crossarchus. Its cardia is of considerable size, and elongated. In Proteles it is short and much bent, and shows a tendency to the formation of a pyloric cul-de-sac. There is a large cardia; but it is not prolonged as in Cynictis, Crossarchus, and Galidia. There are considerable internal folds, as described by Professor Flower ${ }^{2}$, who remarks :- " The whole organ closely resembles that of the Armadillos, which the Proteles resembles in the nature of its food, though so widely removed in zoological position." The Hyæna has a rather rounded stomach, more or less resembling that of Proteles. Professor Flower says ${ }^{3}$ :-" The stomach is less elongated than in Felis, its fundus being very little developed."

## The Intestine and Cacum.

In Genetta tigrina I found the length of the small and large intestines to be respectively about $120^{\prime \prime}$ and $14^{\prime \prime} \cdot 25$, the cæcum being $2^{\prime \prime} \cdot 75$. The cæcum was obtusely pointed, with thin walls and without glands, save a minute Peyer's patch, situated on the inner side of its very apex.

As to Felis, Hunter found the small intestine in the Lion to be four times as long as the body, and the large intestine to be two thirds that length. In the Hyrena the small intestine is about eight times the length of the larger. In Proteles the intestinal canal is not five times the length of the body ${ }^{4}$. In Hyona the large intestine is from one eighth to one sixth the length of the small intestine. In Crocuta ${ }^{5}$ it is less than one twelfth.

Amongst the dried preparations in the Museum of the College of Surgeons I find parts of the intestine of a Lion and a Tiger, in both of which there is a rather long, simple cæcum, which is in both (but especially so in the Lion) relatively longer than in the cæcum of Felis catus. Hunter found the cæcum to be from 2 to 3 inches long in the Lion.

In Viverra civetta the eæcum is relatively a little longer than in Genetta; but a dried specimen of Viverra tangalunga exhibits a short and rounded cæcum, while one of Viverricula is also rounded, but longer.

[^13]In Prionodon I found the cæcum to be very small and short, but strongly curved and acutely pointed.

Hunter says ('Essays and Observations,' vol. ii. p. 66) that in the Ichneumon there is no cæcum. It is therefore perhaps occasionally

Fig. 8.

A. Cæcum of Genetta.
B. Cæcum of Prionodon.
C. Cæcum of Galidia.
D. Cæcum of Cynictis.
absent in that large genus. In a spirit-specimen of Herpestes, however, I found a long, slender and pointed cæcum; while in the series of dried cæca of Herpestes in the College of Surgeons some cæа are rather long, while others are short. Specimens of Paradoxurus exhibit a similar range of variation from moderately long to short and rounded.

In Suricata the ceecum is short, and shaped much as in the Cat.

A large Peyer's patch extends down to the ilio-cæcal valve; and there are glands at the cæcum's apex. In a dried specimen I find the cæcum with a rounded dilatation at its end; but this is probably an artificial distortion.

In Hemigalea I found the cæcum to be of about the same size as in the Genet, but with strong ineffaceable internal folds, which meet at the apex around a small glandular rosette of about six glands, each gland being about the size of a pin's head.

In Galidia the cæcum is long, rather slender, and exceedingly pointed towards its apex. In Cynictis it is very long (compared with the other Æluroids), rather slender, and a little curved.

In Arctictis the cæcum all but or quite aborts ${ }^{1}$. The large and small intestines run on as one longitudinal tube, of equal calibre, independently of it, with long and strong internal longitudinal folds, which are not interrupted at the place where the minute, quite rudimentary cæcum is given off. There is no trace of a transverse constriction or valvular structure between the small and the large intestine. In Nandinia, on the contrary, though there is no external indication of a cæcum, or change in the gut's diameter, there is a distinct interruption in the internal structure of the alimentary tube at the junction of the small and large intestines. There is, in the first place, a transverse valvular fold. On the smallintestine side of this fold there is a large continuous Peyer's patch, while on the other side of it longitudinal ridges begin to appear. These ridges, however, are not nearly so strongly marked as they are in Avetictis.

In Proteles the cæcum is short, thick, and rounded ${ }^{2}$.
In Hyana the cæcum is long, simple, and rather pointed. It is about 8 inches long. In Crocuta ${ }^{3}$ it is 6 inches long.

Cuvier ${ }^{4}$ gives the proportion in the Hyænas of the circumference of the small intestine to its length as 1 to 110 , and of the large as 1 to 6 . He also says ${ }^{5}$ that the small intestine increases in diameter from the pylorus to the cecum, and that its walls are so thin as to be almost transparent, though those of the Carnivora are generally more or less thick.

Meckel ${ }^{6}$ says that the proportions borne by the small intestine to the large intestine, are in the Cat from 5 to 1 to 6 to 1 , in the Genet as 8 to 1, in the Civet as 10 to 1, in the Zibeth as 15 to 1, and in the Hyæna as 5 (or 7 ) to 1.

According to Hunter ('Essays and Observations,' vol. ii. p. 56), the small intestine in the Suricate is "something more than the whole length of the body of the animal," while the large intestine "is more than half that length."
${ }^{1}$ P. Z. S. 1878 , p. 142 . On the other hand, the cæcum may be half an inch long: see Journal of Asiatic Soc. of Bengal, vol. xv. p. 193.
${ }^{2}$ P. Z. S. 1869, p. 474.
${ }^{3}$ P. Z. S. 1879, p. 84, fig. 2.
${ }^{4}$ Leçons d'Anat. Comp. vol. iv. ${ }^{\mathrm{e}}$ partie, p. 211.
${ }^{5}$ L.c. p. $236 . \quad{ }^{6}$ Anat. Comp. vol. viii. p. 703.

## The Liver.

The liver in Felis has the left lateral and right central lobes very large, the latter being divided by a deep cystic fissure, in which lies the gall-bladder, and the former being also somewhat divided by a fissure. The right lateral and left central lobes are each undivided and very small. The caudate lobe is of moderate size, about as large as the left central lobe. The Spigelian lobe is small (the smallest lobe), and is not divided by any fissure.

The liver of Genetta tigrina is very like that of the Cat; but the left lateral lobe is quite undivided, save by a small shallow groove on its posterior (gastric) surface. The cystic fissure is less deep

Fig. 9.


Liver of Genetta tigrina, its posterior (gastric) surface.
$c$, caudal lobe; $g b$, gall-bladder; $h a$, hepatic artery; $h d$, hepatic duct; $L C$, left central lobe ; $L L$, left lateral lobe; $p v$, portal vein; $R C$, right central lobe; $R L$, right lateral lobe; $S p$, Spigelian lobe; $v c$, vena cava.
than in the Cat, and is situated more to the right, so that the portion of the right central lobe which is to the right of the gall-bladder is much less in excess of that part of the right central lobe which is to the left of the gall-bladder. The caudate lobe has a very deep concavity, and is larger in proportion to its breadth. It runs uninterruptedly into the Spigelian lobe, which latter is a little larger relatively than in the Cat, and has a very deep groove (or fissure) running dorsad from its ventral margin, and dividing its proximal third from its distal two thirds. The diaphragmatic surface of the liver exhibits but a short cystic fissure.

In Viverra civetta the right lateral and right central lobes appear nearly of equal size, as seen on the diaphragmatic aspect of the liver.

The right central lobe has a short and wide cystic fissure, through which the gall-bladder appears. That portion of the right central lobe which is on the right of the gall-bladder also appears to be more in excess of the portion which is on the left of the gall-bladder than it is in Genetta tigrina, and thus more to resemble its condition in the Cat. This appearance is caused by the circumstance that, in the Civet, the large right lateral lobe comes down and excludes from view (on the abdominal surface) all that part of the right central lobe which lies to the right of the gall-bladder. The left central lobe is quite hidden from view when the abdominal aspect of the liver is seen. The Spigelian lobe is much stouter than in the Genet, and is not grooved.

In Paradoxurus larvatus the liver is like that of the Genet, except that the caudate lobe has become very large at the expense of the right lateral; so that, on the diaphragmatic surface, the right lateral lobe appears as a triangle between the caudate and the large right central lobes. There is no gall-bladder ; nevertheless the right central lobe is notched as in the Genet. The left. lateral and left central lobes present, on their diaphragmatic surface, an appearance similar to that which they present in Genetta. The posterior (gastric) aspect of the liver is also much as in the Genet, save that the caudate lobe is very large and the Spigelian lobe smaller, not grooved and slightly bifurcated at its apex.

In Nandinia the diaphragmatic aspect of the liver is much as in Viverra, but the right lateral lobe is smaller in proportion to the right central, though not so much smaller in relation to it as in Genetta. The right central is deeply notched at its ventral margin, but does not show any gall-bladder. The left central lobe is rather smaller in proportion to the left lateral than in Viverra, and is larger in proportion to its breadth. The left lateral lobe is nearly bisected by a transverse fissure which runs inwards from its lateral margin. The abdominal (gastric) aspect of the liver shows a caudate and a Spigelian lobe nearly as in Genetta. The left central is quite excluded from view. That part of the right central lobe which is on the right of the gall-bladder is more in excess of the part on the left, and is much as it is in the Cat.

In Arctictis, on the diaphragmatic aspect of the liver, the right and left segments appear nearly equal ; the right lateral and right central lobes are also nearly equal. The latter has two ventral notches, the one more to the right being the cystic notch. No gallbladder, however, appears. The proportions of the left lateral and left central lobes are much as in Nandinia; but the apex of the left central is separated off by an oblique transverse groove.

The posterior aspect of the liver is very like that of the liver of Nandinia ; but there is no transverse groove on the left lateral lobe. That portion of the right central lobe which is on the right of the cystic notch is smaller than the portion which is on the left of that notch. The latter portion has four or five superficial fissures. In this condition of excess in the left portion of the right central lobe Arctictis differs from Felis, Genetta, Viverra, Paradoxurus, and Nandinia.

The liver of Prionodon differs remarkably from that of every other form I have examined in the much smaller relative size of the left central lobe compared with that of the left lateral ; so that the latter rises (the apex of the gall-bladder being downwards) above the former, and forms nearly half of the posterior surface of the liver's left segment. These two lobes (the left lateral and the left central) are not separated, but are continuous towards their inferior margins. It is as if the left segment of the liver consisted only of one great lobe, the right portion of which was bent over so as to end in a free margin, to the right (on the abdominal surface) of the great bulk of such one lobe.

The gall-bladder lies in a fossa, placed very much towards the left margin of the right central lobe. The proportion borne by the right lateral lobe to the right central seems to be much as in the Genet ${ }^{1}$. The Spigelian lobe is sniall and simple ; the caudate lobe is moderate. On the diaphragmatic aspect of the liver, the small left central lobe only shows a little towards the ventral margin. There is a deep cystic notch.

The liver of Hemigalea is almost like that of Genetta; but its Spigelian lobe has no notch, its caudate lobe is smaller, and its right lateral lobe is rather large compared with its right central. There is a gall-bladder, which is placed in nearly the same position in the right central lobe as it is in Genetta. This liver also resembles that of Genetta as to its diaphragmatic aspect, save that its right lateral lobe is rather larger and more pointed.

In Herpestes the liver is very much like that of Genetta, save that in it the right lateral lobe is smaller compared with its right central lobe, and that its gall-bladder lies much more close to the left margin of the right central lobe.

In Crossarchus the preponderance of the right segment of the liver over its left segment is greater than in any other form yet described; it is nearly as two to one. The diaphragmatic aspect of the liver presents the following characters:-The right lateral lobe is very small compared with the right central ; this proportion is much as in Paradoxurus; but the shape is very different, broadening instead of narrowing to its outer margin. The right lateral lobe is not broad enough to hide the very large caudate lobe. The right central lobe has a notch, not at its ventral margin, but at its left end : it is a short side notch, wherein the gall-bladder appears. The proportion of the left lateral lobe to the left central is much as in Nandinia; but they are not quite so unequal.

On the abdominal aspect, the very large caudate lobe (larger relatively than in any form yet here noticed) is seen with a small, simple Spigelian lobe. The left central lobe does not appear. The left lateral lobe is entire, but hidden by the caudate lobe. The right central lobe is very large ; but the excess of that part of it which is on the right of the gall-bladder over the minute portion on the left of the gall-bladder is greater than in any other form yet here described. Thus the bladder makes its appearance between the right

[^14]part of the right central lobe and the left lateral lobe, both the right lateral and the left face of the right central lobe being hidden.

Fig. 10.


Liver of Herpestes (letters as in fig. 9).
A, anterior (diaphragmatic) aspect; B, posterior (gastric) aspect.
The liver of Galidia is formed on the same type as that of Crossarchus as regards the small size of the right lateral lobe compared
with the right central, and in the proportion of the left lateral to the left central lobe, in the cystic notch and gall-bladder being quite close to the left margin of the right central lobe, in the proportion borne to the left lateral iobe by the left central, and in the great size and in the close approximation (on the abdominal surface of the liver) of the left lateral and right central lobes. On the diaphragmatic aspect of the liver the caudate lobe hardly appears, though the right lateral lobe is very small compared with the right central. The last-mentioned lobe has a notch at the bottom of the umbilical fissure; and therein lies the gall-bladder.

Seen on its posterior, or abdominal, aspect, the liver shows a small Spigelian lobe, which is slightly bifid at its apex. The caudate lobe is small. The left central lobe does not appear. The proportion borne by the right lateral lobe to the right central is much as in Nandinia. The right central lobe lies almost entirely to the right of the gall-bladder, only a minute portion of that lobe being to the left of it.

The liver of Proteles also belongs to the Crossarchus type of liver, in that the gall-bladder lies close to the left margin of the right central lobe-the cystic and umbilical fissures coinciding. On its diaphragmatic aspect the right lateral lobe is larger than the right central, and the former has a small notch at its margin. The proportion borne by the left lateral lobe to the left central is as in Nandinia. The small caudate lobe does not appear. On the abdominal aspect of the liver we see a small and simple Spigelian and a similar caudate lobe. The right lateral lobe is notehed at its border, and bears a lobelet near its margin. No part of the right central lobe lies on the left side of the gall-bladder. The left lateral lobe has a puckered surface.

In Crocuta ${ }^{1}$ the gall-bladder also lies much nearer to the left than to the right margin of the right central lobe ; but the umbilical and cystic fissures do not coincide. The caudate lobe is large.

## The Kidney.

In the Æluroids there is a single papilla. This is at least certainly the case in Felis, Genetta, and Prionodon. In Genetta tigrina the kidney is large, and more oval than in the Cat. Its long diameter is $3^{\prime \prime} 4^{\prime \prime \prime}$; its transverse diameter is $2^{\prime \prime}$.

## The Trachea and Lungs.

There are 45 cartilages to the trachea in the Cat ; 40 in the Lion; 47 in the Puma; 70 in the Genet ; 50 almost complete rings in Suricata, and rather more in the Ichneumons; and 45 in the Hyæna (Meckel, Anat. Comp. vol. ix. pp. 484-487). Cuvier (l. c. vol. vii. pp. $52 \&$ 102) remarks that in the Ichneumon the rings of the trachea extend four fifths round it, and that those of the bronchi disappear soon after they have entered the lungs. Meckel (l. c. p. 490) says that in Viverra the bronchi are large and with complete rings, and that these are very hard and complete and the

[^15]bronchi long and narrow in Hy®ena; while in Suricata the bronchi are very large, and almost without rings.

In Felis, Viverra, Genetta, Hemigalea, Herpestes, Suricata, Proteles, and Hyana the lungs are divided into four lobes on the right side, and into three on the left side.

In Crocuta ${ }^{1}$ the right lung has six lobes and the left lung three. Meckel (l.c. p. 492) says that the two lower left lobes in the Genet form but one, and that in the Tiger, Leopard, and Puma there are also but two on the left.

## Great Blood-vessels.

In Felis, Viverra, Genetta, Hemigalea, Proteles, and Crocuta the aortic arch gives off one great trunk, whence arise first the right subclavian and then the carotids. The left subclavian is given off separately ${ }^{2}$.

In Felis, Genetta, Prionodon, Hemigalea, Herpestes, and Crocuta $^{3}$ the abdominal aorta does not give off common iliac arteries, but first gives off two large arteries which spring opposite each other from the aorta and are the external iliac arteries, and then continues on for a short space before giving off another pair of vessels (also arising opposite each other), which are the internal iliac arteries.

## The Brain.

In the brain of the Cat, and in the brains of such Felide as I have had the opportunity of seeing, there is a well-marked crucial sulcus, the hinder inner end of which is separated (on the inner surface of each cerebral hemisphere) from the anterior end of the calloso-marginal sulcus by the continuation forwards of the hippocampal gyrus iuto the superior external gyrus. This condition does not seem to obtain in any non-feline Eluroid.

In Genetta the superior lateral gyrus (s) runs simply forwards beside its fellow of the opposite side without being divided by any transversely extending crucial sulcus, the place of which is only indicated by a minute notch on its inner border ( $c n$ ). Nevertheless the superior lateral gyrus bears a small depression ( $d$ ) placed a little behind and external to the notch just mentioned ; and this depression may represent the outer end of the crucial sulcus of Felis.

At its anterior end the superior lateral gyrus dips down, and then becomes in part continuous with the middle lateral gyrus ( $m$ ) above the upper end of the supraorbital sulcus ( $0 s$ ).

The Sylvian fissure ( $S f$ ), which is rather long and strongly concave forwards, is bounded on each side by the inferior lateral gyrus, which gyrus is much broader behind than in front of the Sylvian fissure. The inner side of the anterior end of the superior lateral gyrus (beyond the notch $c n$ ) runs backwards, beneath the callosomarginal sulcus, and becomes continuous with the hippocampal gyrus.

From the minute indication of the crucial suleus (en) a sulcus runs
${ }^{1}$ P. Z. S. 1879, p. 88, fig. 4.
${ }^{2}$ Meckel (Anat. Comp. vol. ix. p. 396) appears to have found all four vessels spring from a common trunk in the Genet.
${ }^{3}$ P. Z. S. 1878 , p. 89.
backwards, which may be considered as representing the crucial sulcus and the calloso-marginal sulcus united.

Fig. 11.


Brain of Genetta tigrina, natural size.
A, dorsal surface. B, lateral external surface. C, median or inner surface of right hemisphere.
$c c$, corpus callosum ; cm $s$, calloso-marginal sulcus ; $c$, notch representing crucial sulcus ; $d$, depression on superior lateral gyrus; $h g$, hippocampal gyrus; $i$, inferior lateral gyrus; $m$, middle lateral gyrus; ol, olfactory lobe; $o s$, supraorbital sulcus; $s$, superior lateral gyrus; $S f$, Sylvian fissure.
In Viverra civetta the crucial sulcus is slightly more marked, and the supraorbital sulcus rises higher, than in the Genet. The calloso-marginal sulcus runs forward and joins the rudimentary crucial sulcus. That part of the inferior lateral gyrus which lies in front of the Sylvian fissure is as large as, or larger than, the part behind the Sylvian fissure, and may be subdivided by a sulcus.

In Paradoxurus that part of the inferior lateral gyrus which is behind the Sylvian fissure is wide, and bears a $V$-shaped sulcus. There is hardly even a rudiment of the crucial sulcus.

In Nandinia the brain is as in Genetta, save as regards that part of the inferior lateral gyrus in front of the Sylvian fissure, which part is as in Civetta.

In Arctictis that part of the inferior lateral gyrus which is behind the Sylvian fissure is wide, and bears a V-shaped sulcus; and the superior lateral gyrus has additional depressions. The crucial suleus is distinct, but small ; and the calloso-marginal sulcus joins it and
goes on forwards beyond it. The sulcus between the superior lateral gyrus and the middle lateral gyrus extends so as almost to join the supraorbital sulcus.

In Proteles the crucial sulcus is well developed, much as in the Cats; and the same is the case in Hyana and Crocuta ${ }^{1}$, which have additional sulci on the inside of the superior lateral gyrus, and generally on that part of the inferior lateral gyrus which is posterior to the Sylvian fissure. The large forms of Herpestes show a tendency to the same development ; and in Herpestes andCrossarchus there is a small crucial sulcus.

## The Eye.

The tapetum in Genetta tigrina and in Hemigalea closely resembles that of Felis catus.

The pupil may contract so as to leave a vertical slit, as in most Cats and in Paradoxurus; or an oblong erect aperture, as in Felis chaus; or a horizontally extended aperture, as in, at least some, Herpestes and Bdeogale; or in a circular aperture, as in the Lion and larger Cats.

## The Ear.

The external ear in Genetta tigrina has a reduplication, forming


External ear of Genetta tigrina, cut open below and ${ }_{\mathrm{w}}^{\mathrm{Z}}$ reflected.
$t$, tragus ; at, antitragus ; $e$, supratragus ; $p$, pouch ; $h$, helix; $a h$, antihelix;
$f$, fossa of helix.
$a^{a}$ pouch at the lower part of the hind margin of the concha, much as in the Cat ; but the pouch is not so deep.

There is a tragus which fits into a concavity of the double antitragus; and there is a supratragus; but the latter is not so elongate and pedunculate as in the Cat.

$$
{ }^{1} \text { P. Z. S. } 1879, \text { p. } 90, \text { figs. } 5 \& 6 .
$$

## The Auditory Ossicles.

The malleus is the only ossicle which presents readily available classificatory characters. These have been examined and described by Mr. Alban Doran ${ }^{1}$. From an examination of the collection of ossicles in the Royal College of Surgeons, with the use of Mr. Doran's paper, I have noted the following characters in the following groups:-

|  | Felida. | Viverrinc. | Herpestinc. | Cryptoproctinc. | Hy@nide. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\left\|\begin{array}{ll} (1) & \ldots \\ (2) & \ldots \end{array}\right\|$ | Head moderate. Lamina large. | Head moderate. Lamina large. | Head very large. Lamina rudimentary. | Head moderate. Lamina large. | Head large. |
| (3) | Neck long. | Neck long. | Neck short and stout. | Neck long. | Neck long and stout. |
| (4) $\ldots$ | Manubrium slender and straight. | Manubrium slender and straight. | Manubrium broad and curved. | Manubrium very slender. | Manubrium thick and curved. |
| (5) $\ldots$ | Processus brevis rather well marked and straight. | Processus brevis blunt. | Processus brevis well marked. | Processus brevis blunt. | Processus brevis well marked. |
| (6) $\ldots$ | Processus muscularis from neck, long and sickle-shaped. | Processus muscularis small, from neck. | Processus muscularis short, stout; springs not from neck, but from manubrium. | Processus muscularis rudimentary. | Processus muscularis very short, rather lower down. |
| (7) $\ldots$ | Articular surfaces deeply cut; ${ }^{\circ}$ the upper one flat, the lower one convex ; the groove fades outwards. | Articular surfaces deeply cut; both are convex; and the groove runs into an internal concavity. | Articular processes deeply cut ; both are convex; and the groove runs into an internal concavity. | Articular surfaces deeply cut; both are convex; and the groove runs into an internal concavity. | Articular surfaces may or may not have a groove running into a concavity. |

${ }^{1}$ Trans. Linn. Soc. new series, (Zoology) vol. i. p. 371.

## Sexual Organs.

The penis presents every variety as to its internal osseous support. It is entirely boneless in the Hyarida; and the bone is rudimentary or absent in the Viverrina. It is tolerably developed in the Herpestince, and very large indeed in Cryptoprocta.

Cuvier says ${ }^{1}$ of the Ichneumon :- "Le gland est comprimé sur les côtés, arqué en dessus à son extrémité, et composé, en très grande partie, de l'os qu'il contient. Son bord inférieur présent une fente qui ne s'étend pas jusqu'à l'extrémité. Elle aboutit à une sorte de cul-de-sac très profond, qui remplit l'échancrure de l'os, et au fond duquel viennent s'ouvrir, par deux orifices séparés, l'urètre et le canal excréteur commun des glandes de Cowper."

Crocuta differs from all other Eluroids in that the clitoris is enormous and traversed by the urogenital canal ${ }^{2}$.

In Arctictis the Cowper's. glands are each less than half the size of the bilobed prostate. In Prionodon, on the contrary, each Cowper's gland is about as large as is the whole of the bilobed prostate.

According to Professor Owen (Anat. of Vertebrates, vol. iii. p. 780), Felines have usually six nipples, four ventral and two peetoral; but there are eight in the Domestic Cat. There are four ventral teats in Paradoxurus, Herpestes, and Hyana; but in Viverra there may be two pectoral teats also.

## Scent-Glands.

Of these glands there are two very distinct categories. One category comprises the prescrotal scent-glands, and the other the anal glands.

## The Prescrotal Glands ${ }^{3}$.

These are met with in their most complete form in Viverra civetta, where there is a pair of medianly adjoined glands placed between the penis and the scrotum in the male, and in an analogous position in the female. Their secretion escapes into a large seent-pouch, the external aperture of which appears as an antero-posteriorly extended slit simulating a large vaginal aperture. This aperture is larger than either the vulva or the anus. Each scent-gland is about twice the size of one of the animal's anal glands; and in each scent-gland is a central cavity which communicates with the median scent-pouch, into which the glands also open by a number of minute orifices.

In Viverra zibetha ${ }^{4}$ the scrotum is similar. In Arctictis the secretion of the prescrotal gland exudes into a naked cutaneous invagination placed, like a vulva, in front of the anus. A similar invagination exists in Paradoxurus, and a naked space in Nandinia.

In Genetta and Hemigalea the conditions are those already described and figured by me ${ }^{5}$. The scent-glands contain numerous
${ }^{1}$ Leçons d'Anat. Oomp. vol. viii. p. 222.
${ }^{2}$ P. Z. S. 1877, p. 369, fig. 41.
${ }^{3}$ Chatin, Ann. des Sci. Nat. (5th series) vol. xix. (1874).
${ }^{4}$ There is an old but an excellent preparation of these glands in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons, Physiological Series, No. 2514.
${ }^{5}$ P.Z.S. 1882, p. 156.
Proc. Zool. Soc.-1882, No. XXXV.
small cavities which rather increase in size towards the surface of each gland.

## Anal Glands.

There are constantly two anal glands, one on each side of the anus, in all Eluroids. The glandular structure may be a transverse band of follicles extending between the two anal glands, as in (at least some) Herpestes, Crocuta, and Proteles. The anal glands may be augmented to three pairs, as in Hyana brunnea ${ }^{1}$, or even to five pairs, as in Crossarchus. These glands, together with the anus, may open into a deep anal pouch, as in the Hyenida, Crossarchus, Suricata, and Cryptoprocta; or the anus may open on the surface of the body, as in the Felide and almost all, if not all, the Viverrina.
2. On some Larida from the Coasts of Peru and Chili, collected by Capt. Albert H. Markham, R.N., with Remarks on the Geographical Distribution of the Group in the Pacific. By Howard Saunders, F.L.S., F.Z.S.
[Received May 16, 1882.]
(Plate XXXIV.)
Capt. A. H. Markham, already well known for his circumpolar explorations, has availed himself of the opportunities afforded by his appointment to the command of H.M.S. 'Triumph,' on the SouthPacific station, and has sent home from there an interesting collection of birds. The specimens belonging to the Procellariida have been placed in the hands of Mr. Osbert Salvin, who has made that family his special study; and the present paper is limited to the Larida, of which the collection contains examples referable to 15 species. Amongst these is a specimen of that rarest of Gulls, and one of the rarest of all birds, Xema furcatum (the large forked-tailed congener of the circumpolar Xema sabinii), a species of which only two examples were previously known, and the rediscovery of which, after forty years' fruitless search, is due to the energy of Captain Markham.

The following Larida were obtained between Payta, in $5^{\circ} 11^{\prime}$, and Coquimbo, in $30^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. lat. In addition to the original name of each genus and species, only those references are given which bear upon geographical distribution in the Neotropical Region.
Nenia inca (Lesson).
Sterna inca, Lesson, Voy. 'Coquille,' ii. p. 731, Atlas, pl. 47 (1826).

Nenia inca, Boie, Isis, 1849, p. 189; Scl. \& Salv. P. Z. S. 1871, p. 567 ; Saunders, op. cit. 1876, p. 667.
[No. 28 ( $\delta^{*}$ adult), no. 29 ( $\sigma^{\circ}$ immature), Callao Bay, August 1881.]

In the latter the general hue of the upper parts is of a smoke-
${ }^{1}$ Trans. Zool. Soc. vol. vii. p. 506.


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Mivart, St. George Jackson. 1882. "Notes on some Points in the Anatomy of the aeluroidea." Proceedings of the Zoological Society of London 1882, 459-520. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1096-3642.1882.tb02755.x.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ For these processes see P. Z. S. 1865, p. 576.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ E.g. in no. 1178 a in the British Museum.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ It bifurcates very decidedly in the skeleton in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons. In that in the British Museum there is only a slight bifurcation towards its apex.
    ${ }_{2}$ Cynogale, according to De Blainville's figure, would give 5•1.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sometimes, as in Arctictis, and as in the Paradoxure No. 4285 a in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons, two minute rounded ossicles are placed between the manubrium and the first sternebra behind it. I have found an indication of such distinctness in an adult Eupleres.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Journ. of Anat. and Phys. vol. xiv. (1879) p. 166.
    ${ }^{2}$ Ibid. vol. ii. p. 205.
    ${ }^{3}$ See 'The Cat' (John Murray, 1881), chap. v.
    ${ }^{4}$ Proc. Roy. Irish Acad. n. s. vol. i. 1869-74, p. 506.
    ${ }^{5}$ P. Z. S. 1879 , p. 79, pls. v. \& vi. Some myological notes as to Hyena brunnea have also been published by Dr. Murie in Trans. Zool. Soc. vii. p. 509.
    6 'The Cat,' p. 145.
    ${ }_{7}$ Prof. Macalister reckons as part of the trapezius what I and Dr. Watson consider to be the cephalo-humeral (or levator humeri).
    8 "Opposite the last two cervical spines."
    ${ }^{9}$ Trans. Zool. Soc. vol. vii. p. 510.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also in the Genet in Cuvier's Planches, pl. 126. fig. 16'; and in the Hyæna, see pl . 129. fig. $1 \epsilon^{\prime}$.
    ${ }_{2}$ Proc. Roy. Irish Acad. vol. i. 1869-74, p. 509.
    ${ }^{3}$ P. Z. S. 1879, p. 99.
    ${ }^{4}$ In Hyana striata the accessory slips are altogether tendinous.
    ${ }^{5}$ It arises in the Civet from the annular ligament, pisiforme, and tendon of palmaris longus. See also Cuvier's 'Planches,' pl. 126. fig. 2, $\kappa, \sigma$.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{Mr}$. Young says "lower third" (l. c. p. 171).
    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{Mr}$. Young (l. c. p. 172) found four.
    ${ }_{4}^{3}$ Macalister, Proc. Roy. Irish Acad. vol. i. (1869-74) p. 510.
    ${ }^{4}$ P.Z. S. 1879, p. 100.
    ${ }^{5}$ Cuvier says it only goes to the femur (Leçons d'Anat. Comp. i. p. 520).

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cuvier's 'Planches,' pl. 131.
    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{Mr}$. Young, l. c. p. 174, describes it as single.
    ${ }^{3}$ P. Z. S. 1879, p. 102.
    ${ }^{4}$ Not so in the Civet (Young, l. c. p. 174).

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Cuvier's ' Planches,' pl. 128. fig. $4 \gamma$.
    ${ }^{3}$ 'The Cat,' p. 161.
    ${ }^{2}$ P. Z. S. 1879, p. 104.
    ${ }^{5}$ E. $g$., the specimen No. 1513 d, Coll. of Surgeons.
    ${ }^{6}$ E. g., that of the Caracal, No. 1513 c, Coll. of Surgeons.

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ They are said by Daubenton (Buffon, Hist. Nat. tome ix. pp. 322 \& 337) to be much more conspicuous in the Zibet than in the Oivet.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ Leçons d'Anat. Comp. 2nd edit. vol. iv. 1re partie, p. 425.
    Proc. Zool. Soc.-1882, No. XXXIV.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ Anat. Comp. vol. viii. p. 681.
    ${ }^{2}$ The dimensions of the stomach have been taken in as natural a condition as possible, the stomach not being inflated or greatly distended. Cuvier says (Leçons d'Anat. Comp. vol. iv. $1^{\text {re }}$ partie, p. 38) the cardia is more approximated to the pylorus than in the Cat. Meckel says (Anat. Comp. vol. viii, $\mathrm{pp} .694,695$ ) that in the Puma the stomach is much more elongated and less spheroidal than in the Cat, the Leopard being intermediate in these respects.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ Hunter says (' Essays and Observations,' vol. ii. p. 66) of the Ichneumon :"The stomach is almost a round cavity, the small end as thick and short as the large."

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ For figures of the Suricate's stomach and cæcum see Owen's 'Anatomy of Vertebrates,' vol. iii. pp. 444, 445.
    ${ }^{2}$ P. Z.S. 1869, p. 474.
    ${ }^{3}$ ' Medical Times and Gazette,' Jan. 15, 1872, p. 679.
    ${ }^{4}$ Ibid.
    ${ }^{5}$ P. Z.S. 1879 , p. 84.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ The liver of the specimen examined was injured in this region.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ P. Z. S. 1879, p. 85, fig. 3.

