for the snow goose, from wee wheeoo, a rendering of its call. "Moose" must have come into usage by Europeans unaware of the fact that the north European representative of the animal they so designated had long been called "elk" in English. When they or their descendants travelled further west and met the North American representative of the Old World red deer, they added to the confusion by calling this animal the elk.

Some of the Cree bird names are quite systematic, i.e., a syllable common to a number of species names indicates that all are representatives of a related group. Thus all but two of the duck names end in seep, duck; only the name for the old squaw, which is an imitation of its call, and that of the rather atypical ruddy duck, are exceptions to this. Grouse and ptarmigan species all have names ending with peheoo, grouse, while the introduced partridge has been aptly named small grouse. This trend is again shown in the Cree names of the large owls, all ending in the name, itself based on the bird's call, given to the great horned owl. It is of interest that onomatopoeic naming has led to exactly the same name being used in Cree for the owl just named, to the German name (written Uhu) for its closest Old World relative, the eagle owl. Oohoo as an imitation of the latter bird's call, is evidently also the basis of the French word, hibou, for owl in general.

The Cree name for the cormorant, meaning raven duck, is also of linguistic interest for it recalls an archaic English name for this bird, sea crow. In its Latin form, *Corvus marinus*, this name gave rise to the French *cormoran*, and this in turn to the English *cormorant*.

As the Cree and Chipewyan names collected for this list are folk names, whereas many "official" English bird names are scientific replacements of a variety of local folk names, it is not surprising that the proportion of native bird names which simply use an imitation of the bird's most typical call as its name is greater than in English.

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University of Colorado 1972 Field Season on East Baffin Island

SEA ICE

Studies of surface energy budgets on the fast ice at Broughton Island 67°35′N., 63°50′W.) were undertaken from late May to August 1972. The program included micrometeorological measurements on the fast ice and ice thickness surveys. Climatological observations including radiation studies begun in June 1971 by The Institute of Arctic and Alpine Research at a site in Broughton village were continued. The summer of 1972 was one of unusually severe ice conditions for this section of Davis Strait, and the results of our winter 1971-72 and summer 1972 fieldwork are being examined together with synoptic data in an attempt to understand this situation. Meteorological satellite data are being analyzed to obtain regional extrapolations of synoptic surface energy budgets.

BOAS GLACIER

The Boas Glacier was visited in early June, at which time snow pits and probing were used to estimate the winter balance. The mean snow depth based on 190 probes was 0.948 m. with a standard error of ±0.06 m. Average snow density was 0.326 g./cm.^{3} giving a specific winter balance of 0.31 m. H_2O. The glacier could not be visited in August due to extremely bad ice conditions, but on the basis of the weather in previous years we predict that the

net specific balance will be positive and greater than 0.3 m. H_2O. The strain diamond was remeasured and analysis indicates that the principal strain axis is directed down-glacier and shows a compressive strain of 10^{-6} yr. (based on 2 years of measurements). Using the Boas Glacier mass balance data, a discriminant equation has been developed based on September to May accumulation at Broughton Island, and accumulated summer degree days (June, July, August). Investigations of other mass balance data suggest that the Broughton Island data constitute a sensitive predictor of mass balances as far north as Devon Island. This finding is in agreement with the submitted paper by Bradley[1] that indicates a broad similarity of climatic events throughout major sections of the Arctic.

QUATERNARY GEOLOGY

Investigations on Neoglacial, Wisconsin and pre-Wisconsin local ice advances were carried out in the area between Cape Dyer and Padloping Island. Echo soundings indicated the presence of glacio-marine deltas at depths of 30 m. below sea level. Dr. G. Boulton, University of East Anglia, Norwich, visited the area and collected a peat monolith in front of the Maktak Glacier, and Dr. M. Church, University of British Columbia, carried out investigations on the Maktak sandur.

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Reviews

ALASKA TREES AND SHRUBS. By LESLIE A. VIERECK and ELBERT L. LITTLE. *Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Agriculture Handbook 410, 1972. 6 x 9 inches, 265 pages, 128 illustrations, 2 maps. $3.25.*

This well produced and carefully written book is a fine addition to the library of any biologist working in Alaska, Yukon or Northwestern British Columbia. Like most U.S.D.A. handbooks it is also a very good bargain at its modest price. The authors treat fully 128 species of trees, shrubs and subshrubs that occur regularly in the State, including line illustrations and a distribution map. In addition 8 species of marginal or doubtful occurrence, or that are almost wholly herbaceous, are treated briefly and without illustrations. Woodiness is hard to delimit precisely, and some may be surprised to find woody-based *Cornus canadensis* and *C. suecica* (more readily separated by drawings than by descriptions) in the secondary group, although *Vaccinium oxycoccus* and *Arceuthobium tsugense* are treated fully.

The treatment for each species includes full description, habitat, Alaska range, total range, often notes on economic status or use as food and often etymology of generic name or specific epithet. The Scots, of course, are well-represented here as discoverers, and I hope they will not be too pained at being called Scotch, which, I have always been assured, should be applied only to edible and, naturally, potable products. The treatment is really very thorough, only chromosome numbers being omitted; and probably relatively few species have yet been counted from Alaskan material. There is a good selective bibliography of over 200 items, about 30 of them 5 years old or less.

A map showing the national parks, monuments, forests and wildlife refuges forms the front end-papers; and a pocket in the back cover holds a coloured map at 1: 5,000,000 of the vegetation types. The latter should be used in conjunction with habitat data to determine the exact probable range of a species; for, as the authors warn in the introduction, the small-scale range maps can show little more than the overall limits. Despite these limita-