

The anatomy of the human body.

Contributors

Simmons, Samuel Foart, 1750-1813.
University of Leeds. Library

Publication/Creation

London : printed for J. Murray, and W. Creech, 1780.

Persistent URL

<https://wellcomecollection.org/works/yn9v9a9m>

Provider

Leeds University Archive

License and attribution

This material has been provided by This material has been provided by The University of Leeds Library. The original may be consulted at The University of Leeds Library. where the originals may be consulted.

This work has been identified as being free of known restrictions under copyright law, including all related and neighbouring rights and is being made available under the Creative Commons, Public Domain Mark.

You can copy, modify, distribute and perform the work, even for commercial purposes, without asking permission.



Wellcome Collection
183 Euston Road
London NW1 2BE UK
T +44 (0)20 7611 8722
E library@wellcomecollection.org
<https://wellcomecollection.org>



LEEDS INFIRMARY
MEDICAL-LIBRARY,

Entered *10 May* — 17*80*

Allowed for reading } Weeks Days
the first Year }

— After the first Year *3*

Forfeiture per Day for keeping it } d.
beyond the Time. }

S. C. - 2

LEEDS UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

Classmark:

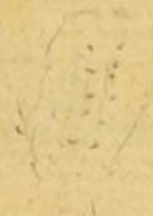
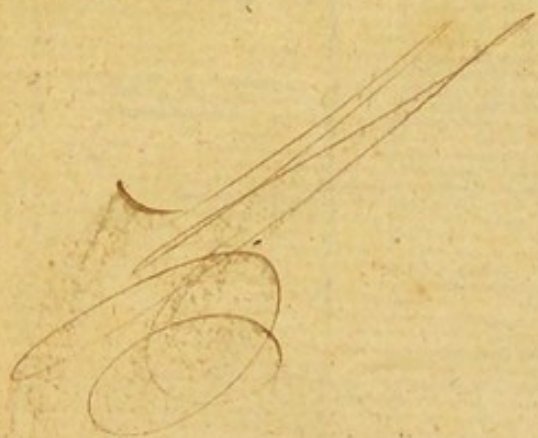
Special Collections

Health Sciences Historical Collection

SC2 *SIM*



30106016203076



THE
ANATOMY
OF THE
HUMAN BODY.

BY
SAMUEL FOART SIMMONS, M.D. F.R.S.
MEMBER of the COLLEGE of PHYSICIANS, LONDON;
and of the ROYAL MEDICAL SOCIETY at PARIS.

VOL. I.



LONDON,
PRINTED FOR J. MURRAY, No. 32, FLEET-STREET;
AND W. CREECH, EDINBURGH.

MDCCLXXX.

PREFACE

THE very favorable reception the
author's former attempt to pre-
sent the study of Anatomy and with them
the public has induced him to engage
in the present work. The book de-
scribes to be intended, as its title
implies, to convey only a general
idea of the structure and functions of
the human body. The present publica-
tion is formed on a different plan, and
is designed for those who wish to enter
more minutely into the study of a science
which is very properly considered as the
basis of the human body.

P R E F A C E,

TH E very favourable reception the Author's former attempt to facilitate the study of Anatomy met with from the public, has induced him to engage in the present work. The book he alludes to, was intended, as its title * gave to understand, to convey only a general idea of the structure and functions of the human body. The present publication is formed on a different plan, and is designed for those who wish to enter more minutely into the study of a science which is very properly considered as the

* Elements of Anatomy and the Animal Oeconomy.

basis of medical and surgical knowledge. That a work of this kind, on account of the many late improvements in anatomical science, has long been a desideratum in the English language, will, it is presumed, be generally acknowledged by all who have had occasion to apply themselves to this subject. How well the present performance is calculated to remedy this defect, the Author leaves to the candid and judicious reader to determine. If the work should be found to have merit, the public will no doubt be disposed to receive it favourably; if it should not, the pains and attention the Author has bestowed on the subject will perhaps not easily be admitted as an excuse for his having added to the number of indifferent books.

As

P R E F A C E. v

As the work is principally designed for students, the Author has endeavoured to be accurate, without being too prolix in his descriptions. He has confined himself chiefly to the structure of the body; to have introduced too much of physiology would have been inconsistent with the plan of his work, and have rendered it too voluminous.

CONTENTS OF THE FIRST VOLUME

At the Request of the Society of Surgeons
for London, the Author has endeavoured
to give a more complete and accurate
Description of the Bones of the
Human Body, than is to be found
in any of the former Editions of
this Work.

E R R A T A.

Page 13, line 2 from the top, for 'seem,' read 'seems,'
P. 66, between l. 2 and 3, add 'SECTION II.' P. 20, l. 10,
for 'enables to walk,' r. 'enables us to walk.' P. 227,
l. 1, for 'metarfus,' r. 'metatarfus.' P. 258, l. 8, for
'which is,' r. 'and is.' P. 280, l. 2, for 'first gave it,'
r. 'gave it.' P. 407, l. 5, for 'metacarpus,' r. 'meta-
carpeus.'

70	Of the Os Maxilla
71	Of the Os Maxilla
72	Of the Os Nas
73	Of the Os Uvula
74	Of the Os Palati
75	Of the Os Palati
76	Of the Os Palati
77	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
78	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
79	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
80	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
81	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
82	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
83	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
84	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
85	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
86	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
87	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
88	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
89	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
90	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
91	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
92	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
93	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
94	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
95	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
96	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
97	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
98	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
99	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
100	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
101	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
102	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
103	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
104	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
105	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
106	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
107	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
108	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
109	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
110	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
111	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
112	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
113	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
114	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
115	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
116	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
117	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
118	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
119	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
120	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
121	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
122	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
123	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
124	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
125	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
126	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
127	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
128	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
129	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
130	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
131	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
132	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
133	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
134	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
135	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
136	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
137	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
138	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
139	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
140	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
141	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
142	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
143	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
144	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
145	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
146	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
147	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
148	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
149	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
150	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
151	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
152	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
153	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
154	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
155	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
156	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
157	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
158	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
159	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
160	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
161	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
162	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
163	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
164	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
165	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
166	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
167	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
168	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
169	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
170	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
171	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
172	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
173	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
174	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
175	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
176	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
177	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
178	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
179	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
180	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
181	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
182	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
183	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
184	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
185	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
186	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
187	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
188	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
189	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
190	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
191	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
192	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
193	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
194	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
195	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
196	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
197	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
198	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
199	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora
200	Of the Os Sphenoida Inferiora

CONTENTS of the FIRST VOLUME.

B O O K I.

O S T E O L O G Y.

CHAP. I.	<i>Of the Bones in general</i>	—	Page 1
	<i>Of their Marrow</i>	—	14
	<i>Periosteum</i>	—	20
	<i>Cartilages</i>	—	21
	<i>Ligaments</i>	—	24
	<i>Synovia</i>	—	27
	<i>Of the Division of the Skeleton</i>		28
CHAP. II.	<i>Of the Bones of the Head</i>	—	31
	SECT. I. <i>Of the Bones of the Cranium</i>		ib.
	<i>Of the Os Frontis</i>	—	40
	<i>Ossa Parietalia</i>	—	46
	<i>Os Occipitis</i>	—	48
	<i>Ossa Temporalia</i>		53
	<i>Os Sphenoides</i>	—	59
	<i>Os Ethmoides</i>	—	63
	— II. <i>Of the Bones of the Face</i>	—	66
	<i>Of the Ossa Maxillaria Superiora</i>		ib.
	<i>Ossa Malarum</i>	—	70
	<i>Ossa Nasi</i>	—	71
	<i>Ossa Unguis</i>	—	72
	<i>Ossa Palati</i>	—	73
	<i>Vomer</i>	—	75
	<i>Ossa Spongiosa Inferiora</i>		77
	<i>Os Maxillare Inferius</i>		78
	<i>Teeth</i>	—	82
	<i>Of the Os Hyoides</i>	—	101
CHAP. III.	<i>Of the Bones of the Trunk</i>	—	105
	SECT. I. <i>Of the Bones of the Spine</i>	—	ib.
	<i>Of the Cervical Vertebrae</i>		112
	<i>Dorsal Vertebrae</i>	—	117
	<i>Lumbar Vertebrae</i>		119
	<i>False Vertebrae</i>	—	121
	<i>Os Sacrum</i>	—	ib.
	<i>Os Coccygis</i>		124
	— II. <i>Of the Bones of the Thorax</i>		128
	<i>Of the Sternum</i>	—	129
	<i>Ribs</i>	—	14
			SECT,

	Page
SECT. III. <i>Of the Bones of the Pelvis</i>	140
<i>Of the Os Ilium</i>	141
— <i>Os Ischium</i>	144
— <i>Os Pubis</i>	145
— <i>Ligaments of the Pelvis</i>	150
CHAP. IV. <i>Of the Bones of the Extremities</i>	153
SECT. I. <i>Of the Bones of the Upper Extre-</i>	
<i>mity</i>	ib.
<i>Of the Clavicula</i>	ib.
— <i>Scapula</i>	157
— <i>Arm</i>	162
— <i>Fore-arm</i>	169
<i>Of the Ulna</i>	ib.
— <i>Radius</i>	173
<i>Of the Hand</i>	179
<i>Of the Carpus</i>	180
— <i>Metacarpus</i>	190
— <i>Fingers</i>	193
— II. <i>Of the Bones of the Lower Ex-</i>	
<i>tremity</i>	197
<i>Of the Thigh</i>	198
— <i>Leg</i>	205
<i>Of the Tibia</i>	206
— <i>Fibula</i>	206
— <i>Rotula</i>	213
— <i>Joint of the Knee</i>	215
<i>Of the Foot</i>	222
<i>Of the Tarsus</i>	ib.
— <i>Metatarsus</i>	233
— <i>Toes</i>	235
<i>Of the Ossa Sefamoidea</i>	237

B O O K II.

M Y O L O G Y.

CHAP. I. <i>Of the Muscles in general</i>	240
<i>Of the structure of their Fibres</i>	243
— <i>their Cellular Membrane</i>	245
— <i>their Blood Vessels, Lymphatics,</i>	
<i>and Nerves</i>	245
— <i>the Irritability of the muscul. Fibre</i>	247
<i>Of the Tendons</i>	254
— <i>Tendinous Fasciæ</i>	256
	Of

CONTENTS.

ix
Page

	Of the Motions performed by the Muscles, and of the Phænomena of Muscular Motion —	258
	— the Names of the Muscles —	262
	— the Arrangement of the Muscles	265
CHAP. II.	Of the particular Muscles —	267
	SECT. I. Of the Muscles situated on the anterior part of the Abdomen	ib.
	Obliquus Externus —	268
	Obliquus Internus —	272
	Transversalis —	275
	Rectus —	277
	Pyramidalis —	280
	— II. Of the Muscles situated at the anterior part of the Thorax	281
	Pectoralis —	ib.
	Subclavius —	284
	Serratus Anticus —	285
	Serratus Magnus —	286
	— III. Of the Muscles that assist in forming the Cavity of the Thorax	288
	Diaphragma —	ib.
	Levatores Costarum	296
	Intercostales —	208
	Sterno-Costales —	302
	— IV. Of the Muscles that surround the Articulation of the Lower Jaw	305
	Temporalis —	ib.
	Masseter —	307
	Pterygoideus Internus	308
	— Externus	309
	— V. Of the Muscles that are situated at the fore part of the Neck	311
	Latissimus Colli. —	ib.
	Mastoideus —	312
	Costo-Hyoideus —	314
	Sterno-Hyoideus —	315
	Hyo-Thyroideus —	316
	Sterno-Thyroideus —	317
	Digastricus —	318
	Stylo-Hyoideus —	321
	a 3	Myle

CONTENTS.

	Page
<i>Mylo-Hyoideus</i> ———	322
<i>Genio-Hyoideus</i> —	323
<i>Rectus Capitis Internus Major</i> ———	324
————— <i>Minor</i>	325
————— <i>Lateralis</i>	326
<i>Longus Colli</i> ———	327
SECT. VI. Of the Muscles that are situated at the	
<i>back part of the Trunk and Neck</i>	328
<i>Trapezius or Cucullaris</i>	<i>ib.</i>
<i>Rhomboideus</i> ———	330
<i>Latissimus Dorsi</i> ———	331
<i>Serratus Inferior Posticus</i>	333
<i>Elevator Scapulae</i> ———	334
<i>Serratus Superior Posticus</i>	335
<i>Splenius</i> ———	<i>ib.</i>
<i>Complexus</i> ———	337
<i>Trachelo-Mastoideus</i> —	339
<i>Rectus Capitis Posticus Major</i>	341
————— <i>Minor</i>	342
<i>Obliquus Superior Capitis</i>	<i>ib.</i>
————— <i>Inferior Capitis</i>	344
<i>Sacro Lumbalis</i> —	<i>ib.</i>
<i>Longissimus Dorsi</i> —	347
<i>Spinalis Dorsi</i> ———	349
<i>Semi-spinalis Dorsi</i> —	<i>ib.</i>
<i>Multifidus Spinae</i> —	350
<i>Spinalis Cervicis</i> —	351
<i>Scalenus</i> ———	352
<i>Inter-Spinales</i> —	354
<i>Inter-Transversales</i> —	355
— VII. Of the Muscles situated on the anterior	
<i>and lateral parts of the Spine, with-</i>	
<i>in the Cavity of the Abdomen</i>	356
<i>Psoas Parvus</i> ———	<i>ib.</i>
————— <i>Magnus</i> ———	357
<i>Iliacus Internus</i> ———	359
<i>Quadratus Lumborum</i> —	360
<i>Coccygeus</i> ———	361
— VIII. Of the Muscles situated on the Sca-	
<i>pula, and at the upper part of the</i>	
<i>Os Humeri</i>	362
<i>Deltoides</i> ———	<i>ib.</i>
<i>Supra Spinatus</i> ———	364
<i>Infra Spinatus</i> ———	365
<i>Teres Minor</i> —	366
<i>Teres</i>	<i>Teres</i>

CONTENTS. xi

	Page
<i>Teres Major</i> —	368
<i>Subscapularis</i> —	369
<i>Coraco-brachialis</i> —	370
SECT. IX. Of the Muscles situated on the Os Humeri	371
<i>Biceps Brachii</i> —	372
<i>Brachialis Internus</i> —	374
<i>Triceps Brachii</i> —	376
X. Of the Muscles situated on the Fore-arm	377
<i>Supinator Longus</i> —	378
<i>Extensor Carpi Radialis Longus</i>	379
————— <i>Brevis</i>	380
<i>Extensor Digitorum Communis</i>	381
<i>Extensor Minimi Digiti</i>	382
<i>Extensor Carpi Ulnaris</i>	383
<i>Anconeus</i> —	384
<i>Flexor Carpi Ulnaris</i> —	385
<i>Palmaris Longus</i> —	383
<i>Flexor Carpi Radialis</i>	388
<i>Pronator Teres</i> —	389
<i>Perforatus</i> —	390
<i>Supinator Brevis</i> —	391
<i>Abductor Pollicis Longus</i>	392
<i>Extensor Minor Pollicis</i>	393
<i>Extensor Major Pollicis</i>	394
<i>Indicator</i> —	395
<i>Perforans</i> —	396
<i>Flexor Longus Pollicis</i>	397
<i>Pronator Quadratus</i> —	399
XI. Of the Muscles situated on the Hand	
<i>Lumbricales</i> —	400
<i>Abductor Brevis Pollicis</i>	401
<i>Opponens Pollicis</i> —	401
<i>Flexor Brevis Pollicis</i>	402
<i>Adductor Pollicis</i> —	ib.
<i>Abductor Indicis</i> —	404
<i>Palmaris Brevis</i> —	405
<i>Abductor Minimi Digiti</i>	ib.
<i>Flexor Parvus Minimi Digiti</i>	406
<i>Adductor Metacarpi Minimi</i>	
<i>Digiti</i> —	407
<i>Interossei</i> —	408
XII. Of the Muscles situated on the posterior part of the Pelvis, and upper part of the Thigh	412
<i>Glutæus Maximus</i> —	ib.
————— <i>Medius</i> —	413
————— <i>Minimus</i> —	414

This work is the Foundation
of Anatomical Studies
read with Diligence

	Page
<i>Pyramiformis</i> ———	415
<i>Gemini</i> ———	416
<i>Obturator Internus</i> —	418
<i>Quadratus Femoris</i> —	419
SECT. XIII. <i>Of the Muscles situated on the Thigh</i> <i>ib.</i>	
<i>Biceps Cruris</i> —	421
<i>Semi-tendinosus</i> —	422
<i>Semi-membranosus</i> —	423
<i>Tensor Vaginae Femoris</i>	424
<i>Sartorius</i> ———	425
<i>Rectus</i> ———	426
<i>Gracilis</i> ———	427
<i>Vastus Externus</i> —	428
—— <i>Internus</i> —	429
<i>Cruræus</i> ———	430
<i>Pectinalis</i> ———	432
<i>Adductor Longus Femoris</i>	<i>ib.</i>
—— <i>Brevis Femoris</i>	434
—— <i>Magnus Femoris</i>	435
<i>Obturator Externus</i> —	436
—— XIV. <i>Of the Muscles situated on the Leg</i>	437
<i>Gastrocnemius Externus</i>	438
—— <i>Internus</i>	439
<i>Plantaris</i> ———	441
<i>Popliteus</i> ———	442
<i>Flexor Longus Digitorum Pedis</i>	443
<i>Flexor Longus Pollicis Pedis</i>	444
<i>Tibialis Posticus</i> —	445
<i>Peroneus Longus</i> —	446
—— <i>Brevis</i> —	447
<i>Extensor Longus Digitorum Pedis</i>	448
<i>Peroneus Tertius</i> —	449
<i>Tibialis Anticus</i> —	450
<i>Extensor Proprius Pollicis Pedis</i>	451
—— XV. <i>Of the Muscles situated on the Foot</i>	452
<i>Extensor Brevis Digitorum Pedis</i> <i>ib.</i>	
<i>Flexor Brevis Digitorum Pedis</i>	453
<i>Abductor Pollicis Pedis</i> —	454
<i>Abductor Minimi Digiti</i> —	455
<i>Lumbricales Pedis</i>	456
<i>Flexor Brevis Pollicis Pedis</i>	457
<i>Adductor Pollicis Pedis</i> —	458
<i>Transversalis Pedis</i> —	<i>ib.</i>
<i>Flexor Brevis Minimi Digiti</i>	
<i>Pedis</i> ———	4
<i>Interossei Pedis</i> ———	4

INTRODUCTION.

THE study of ANATOMY, according to the usual acceptation of the term, includes the structure, arrangement, and uses of all the solid parts of the body, and is commonly divided by systematic writers into the following parts; viz. OSTEOLOGY, MYOLOGY, NEUROLOGY, ANGIOLOGY, SPLANCHNOLOGY, and ADENOLOGY; which, as may be judged from their etymology, are descriptive of the bones, muscles, nerves, vessels, viscera, and glands. To these we must add a description of the common integuments and their appendages, and then the system will be complete.—I shall describe each of these branches in the order in which I have placed them.

WE may observe that all the solid parts of the body, as the bones, cartilages, ligaments, membranes, muscles, tendons, vessels, nerves, viscera, common integuments, and nails, are

com-

composed of fibres, the ultimate divisions of which are too minute to be traced. All these fibres, however, seem to vary in length and breadth, as well as in their strength, consistence, and elasticity, according to the nature of the parts they are intended to compose. I shall say nothing here of their elementary principles and properties, because they are more immediately the objects of physiology.

THE several parts that are the result of the various combination and arrangement of these fibres, are so intimately connected with each other, that it is impossible to give a full description of any one of them, without being obliged to say something of the rest. It may therefore, perhaps, not be unacceptable to the reader to have some little explanation of these component parts, as they are called, before he proceeds farther in the work.

THUS we may observe that BONES are the firm compact parts, that serve as a support to all the other parts, and to give shape and firmness to the whole machine.

CAR-

CARTILAGES are of a less compact texture than bones, but of a firmer consistence than any of the other parts of the body. They are smooth and elastic, and are either placed at the extremities of bones, in order to facilitate the motions of the joints, or to remedy the inconvenience of friction; or they serve to support and connect particular parts of the body, as in the larynx for example.

LIGAMENTS are of a looser texture, and more flexible than cartilages. They are in general formed for connecting the bones, and securing the articulations.

MUSCLES are the fleshy parts of the body, and may be considered as the means by which all its movements are performed. Anatomists, in the generality of muscles, distinguish a body or belly part, and two extremities. The belly of the muscle is composed of an infinite number of fleshy fibres, of a red colour, which every body will understand under the name of *flesh*. The extremities include the same number of fibres as the

the belly part, but they are more firmly united together, and degenerate into a firm, glistening, and insensible substance, of a white colour, called *tendon*, if it be round and slender; or *aponeurosis*, if expanded into a broad flat surface.

NERVES, which we may consider as the medium of life and sensation, are whitish chords, formed of a pulpy, medullary, though seemingly fibrous substance, originating from the brain and medulla spinalis, and divided into minute branches, which are distributed throughout the body.

THE VESSELS of the body are of different kinds. Those which originate from the heart, and distribute the blood to the several parts of the system, are called *arteries*. Those which convey it back again to the heart are called *veins*, and sometimes *red veins*, to distinguish them from another system of minute vessels, called *lymphatic veins*, which absorb the chyle from the intestines, (where they have gotten the name of *lacteals*,) and likewise the moisture that is exhaled into
the

the cavities and cellular interstices of the body, or that is applied to its external surface, all of which they convey into the circulation.

MEMBRANES are the broad, thin expansions, which we find lining the different cavities, or covering the viscera, the surface of the bones, &c. Some of them have particular names, as the *dura mater*, the *pia mater*, the *periosteum*, the *peritoneum*, the *pleura*, the *pericardium*, &c.

UNDER the name of VISCERA are included certain parts contained within the cavities of the head, thorax, and abdomen, as the brain—the heart and lungs—the stomach and intestines, &c.

GLANDS are usually divided into *conglomerate* and *conglobate*. The former, as the liver, pancreas, parotids, and kidneys, for instance, are intended for the secretion of particular humours from the mass of blood. They appear to be of a compound structure, and to be formed, as it were, of many lesser glands.

glands. The juices they secrete being received by a number of minute tubes, these at length unite and form one common duct, called the *excretory duct*, which conveys the secreted fluid to its proper receptacle. Thus we find the *ductus choledochus*, or excretory duct of the liver, and the excretory duct of the pancreas, opening into the intestines; the *ureters*, or excretory ducts of the kidneys, opening into the bladder, &c.

THE lymphatic glands (and under this name are included those of the mesentery) are now considered as the only *conglobate glands*. They are to be met with in different parts of the body, and are either solitary, or in distinct clusters. What change the chyle and lymph undergo in their passage through these glands, has not yet been ascertained.

BESIDES these, there are other parts that are considered as glandular, but with the structure and uses of which we are as yet unacquainted; of these we have instances in the thymus, glandulæ renales, &c.

THE vessels that pour out mucus in different parts are called *follicles*, and are considered as small cylindrical tubes continued from the ends of arteries. In some parts, as in the tonsils for instance, we find many such simple follicles folded together in one common covering, and opening into one common sinus.

ALL these several component parts seem to have one universal connecting medium in what is called the *cellular membrane*, or *tela cellulosa*, which is found to invest the most minute fibres we are able to trace. Under the skin its cells are usually filled with fat, on which account it has there gotten the name of *membrana adiposa*; in other parts it is sometimes called the *reticular membrane*, where it appears like very minute net-work.

THE COMMON INTEGUMENTS consist of the *epidermis* or scarf skin, the *rete mucosum*, the *cutis* or skin, and the *membrana adiposa* just now mentioned. The hair and nails may be considered as appendages to the skin.

The vessels that pour out mucus in the
 lower part are called salivary and are con-
 sidered as small vessels which are contained
 from the rest of arteries. In some parts
 as in the tongue for instance we find many
 such small vessels joined together in one
 common covering and opening into one
 common sinus.

All these several component parts seem
 to have one universal connecting medium in
 what is called the common sinus, or the
 sinus, which is found to invest the most
 inferior fibres we are able to trace. Under
 this thin film, and usually filled with fat,
 to which account it has been given the
 name of adipose sinus; in other parts it
 is sometimes called the cellular sinus,
 or sinus, it is like the very minute net-work

of vessels of blood and the
 and called the sinus, it is the
 tissue of the sinus, the sinus, the
 of any of the vessels, the sinus, the
 which is composed of the hair and nails may
 be distinguished in regard to the skin.

O S T E O L O G Y.
B O O K I.
O S T E O L O G Y.

C H A P. I.

Of the Bones in general; their structure, articulation, and uses:—Of the Marrow—Periosteum—Cartilages—Ligaments—Synovia—Division of the skeleton.

THE bones, which are the most compact and solid parts of the body, serve for the attachment or support of all the other parts. From their difference of shape, they are commonly divided into two classes, of broad and flat bones, and long and round, or cylindrical bones. This may serve as a general distinction; but the figure of many of the bones is so irregular, that it would be impossible to attempt an accurate division of this kind.

IN the cylindrical bones we may distinguish three different substances: 1. Their exterior or bony part, properly so called. 2. Their spongy cells; and, 3. Their reticular substance. The first of these is formed of many laminæ or plates, composing a firm, hard substance. These laminæ are easily distinguishable in bones that have been partly exposed to calcination, or boiled for any length of time in any strong alkaline ley. In man, and other living animals, they likewise separate on exposure to the air; and hence what is termed *exfoliation* in surgery.

IN different bones, the arrangement of the bony fibres varies considerably. In the flat bones, as in those of the head, for instance, they are disposed in the form of rays, and are seen ~~converging from~~ the circumference ~~to the centre~~. In the cylindrical bones, they seem to be placed in parallel directions. This structure is easily observable in the bones of the fœtus; the ossification being then, as it were, only beginning to take place: but even in the adult state, we may demonstrate it, by macerating a bone in any mineral acid sufficiently

shooting from the
Centre to

ufficiently diluted with water. In this case, the earthy substance, which gives firmness to the bones, is destroyed by the acid, the bone becomes soft and pliable, and, on dividing it, we discover its laminated structure.

IN regard to the means by which the cohesion of these laminæ is effected, anatomists have greatly differed. Havers, Boerhaave, and others, have attributed it to the glutinous matter contained in the bones. On the other hand, Gagliardi, who made many ingenious inquiries on this subject, fancied he had discovered an infinite number of clavicali, or bony processes, which he describes as traversing the laminæ, to unite them together*. There does not seem, however, to be any real foundation for this opinion. We know, that the bones consist of an earthy basis, combined with a glutinous substance; and that to a due proportion of these principles, the bones in a great measure owe their

* *Inveni eas (laminas) quibusdam ossiculis transfixas, qui, clavicularum more, diètas laminas neclebant.* These are his words. He then proceeds to describe four kinds of these clavicali, or nails, viz. the perpendicular, oblique, headed, and crooked. *Anatome Ossium.* 4to. Romæ, 1689.

solidity: we likewise know, from the calcination of bones, or the maceration of them in mineral acids, that they are composed of fibres differently arranged, the parallel fibres being intersected by others in a lateral direction. But to say that these lateral fibres have the appearance or the uses given them by Gagliardi, is altogether repugnant to probability.—The *spongy* or *cellular* part of the bones, is so called on account of its resemblance to a sponge, from the little cells which compose it. This substance forms almost the whole of the extremities of cylindrical bones.—The *reticular* part is composed of fibres, which cross each other in different directions. This net-work forms the internal surface of those bones which have cavities. The flat bones, as those of the head, are composed of only laminæ and the cellular substance. This last is usually found in the middle of the bone, dividing it into two plates, and is there called *diploe*.

IN what manner the bones are first formed, whether they are originally cartilaginous or membranous, has long been a matter

matter of dispute. M. Du Hamel, an ingenious French philosopher, who made many experiments on this subject, is of opinion, that the bones are formed from layers of the periosteum, which gradually ossify*. It seems he was led to these inquiries, by observing what takes place in trees; the timber in these being formed by the hardening of the alburnum, or white substance, that is found between the inner bark and the wood †. He contends, that in cases of fracture, the callus is not formed, as has been generally supposed, by a secretion of osseous juices, but by the periosteum; which after thickening and hardening about the ends of the fractured bone, gradually acquires the consistence of cartilage, and afterwards of bone. M. Du Hamel has endeavoured to support his system of ossification, by feeding different animals with madder and their ordinary food, alternately, during a certain time; and

* Memoires de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1741, 1742, 1743.

† Dr. Grew, who was likewise of opinion that the bones are formed from the periosteum, has made a similar observation, and applied it in the same manner as M. Du Hamel has done. See his *Mus. Reg. Soc.* p. 6.

we are told, that he constantly found, on dissection, not only in the bones, but likewise in the periosteum, distinct layers of red and white, which corresponded with the length of time they had lived on madder, or their usual aliment*. This doctrine has been supported by M. Foucheroux, and as ingeniously opposed by Detleff†, who proves, in the most satisfactory manner, that the bones only, and not the periosteum, or even the cartilages, are tinged by a madder diet. Detleff's experiments were made under the direction of Baron Haller, who has taken much pains to refute Du Hamel's opinions on this subject. He observes ‡, that the

* The discovery of this singular property in madder, of tinging the bones of animals of a red colour, has been usually, and with great justice, ascribed to Mr. Belchier, whose experiments on this subject were published in the *Phil. Trans.* for 1736: but Bazanus, who repeated M. Du Hamel's experiments at Bologna in 1742, refuses Mr. Belchier the honour of this discovery, and attributes it to Misfauld, a French physician of the 16th century; in whose writings, however, the learned M. Portal has not been able to find any traces of this invention.

† *Dissert. Ossium Calli Generationem et Calli Naturam exhibens*, 1753.

‡ *Memoire sur la Formation des Os*, 1758, and *Element. Phys.* vol. viii.

structure

structure of the periosteum is totally different from that of the bones; the latter being of a fibrous, and the former of a cellular texture; and he is convinced, from repeated observations, that the first rudiments of bone are a glutinous substance, which quickly assumes the consistence of cartilage, and then proceeds more slowly to the firmness of bone. This process seems to be effected by the gradual ossification of the arteries.

ALTHOUGH the periosteum, as we have seen, does not form the rudiments of the bones, yet I have no doubt but it has a greater effect in promoting ossification than Baron Haller suspected. It is certain, that a multitude of vessels from the periosteum enter the substance of the bones; and it is well known, that in fractures that membrane swells and inflames, so as sometimes to be considerably thickened. The periosteum, when thus thickened, is not indeed, as M. Du Hamel supposes, converted into bone; but it never fails to favour the generation of callus*.

This

* In cases in which there has been a deficiency of callus,

§ O S T E O L O G Y.

This property in the periosteum, of promoting ossification, when accidentally irritated and inflamed, depends upon a certain disposition of vessels, which it is not easy to define with any accuracy, any more than we are able to explain glandular secretion, and many other processes of the animal œconomy.

HAVING premised these few observations on the general structure of the bones, let us now proceed to consider their external appearance. We shall find, that in describing the long bones, writers generally speak of their body and extremities. The ancients distinguished the body, or middle part, by the name of diaphysis, and divided the extremities into apophysis and epiphysis. An apophysis, or, as it is more usually termed, process, is an eminence or continuation of the body of the bone; whereas an epiphysis is a part attached to the bone, by means of

lus, irritating the periosteum has excited a growth of new bone: and Signor Troja, an ingenious surgeon at Naples, has lately published some experiments, which prove, that by lacerating the periosteum, we may at pleasure fill the cavity of a bone with callus. See his *De Novorum Ossium Regeneratione Experimenta*. 1775.

an intervening cartilage. A great number of epiphyses, which in young subjects appear as separate bones, become, in the progress of time, so perfectly united to the body of the bone, by the ossification of the cartilage, as not to be distinguished from it in the adult state. The ossification is generally complete about the fifteenth year; sometimes, however, we find the extremities of bones still in the state of epiphysis at the age of eighteen, and even twenty years.

DIFFERENT names are given to the processes of bones, varying according to their figure and size. If a process is large, and of a spherical shape, it is called spheroid, and sometimes caput, or head. If the head is flattened, it takes the name of condyle. Other processes are called mastoid, styloid, coracoid, from their resemblance to a breast, a filetto, or the beak of a crow. Some are styled ridges, or spines; others derive their names from their situation, as is the case with the longitudinal, perpendicular, oblique, and transverse processes. Those which we shall speak of in describing the os femoris,

and

and which are called trochanters, are the only processes whose names correspond with their uses.

THERE are in bones, cavities, as well as processes. These cavities either extend quite through the bones, or appear only as depressions. The first of these receive the name of foramina, or holes; and these foramina are sometimes called canals, or conduits, according to their form and extent. Of the cavities which do not penetrate through the bones, some are called cotyloid, when they are deep, as the great articulating cavity of the thigh with the os innominatum. Glenæ, or glenoid, when they are superficial, as the cavity of the scapula, which receives the head of the os humeri.

OF the depressions which are not useful in articulation, the largest, and those which are not equally furrounded by high brims, are called fossæ. On the contrary, cavities within the substance of the bones, with small apertures, are termed sinuses; broad, but superficial depressions without brims, sinuosities;

ties; and long narrow canals formed in the surface of the bone, furrows.

Of the Articulation of the Bones.

THE skeleton * is composed of a great number of bones, which are all so admirably constructed, and with so much affinity to each other, that the extremity of every bone is perfectly adjusted to the end of the bone with which it is connected; and this connection is termed their *articulation*. Anatomists distinguish three kinds of articulation: The first they name *Diarthrosis*, the second *Synarthrosis*, and the third *Amphiarthrosis*.

THE *Diarthrosis*, or moveable articulation, is subdivided into four kinds: 1. *Enarthrosis*, when a large head is received into a deep

* The word skeleton, which by its etymology implies simply a dry preparation, is usually understood to be an assemblage of all the bones of an animal, united together in their natural order. There are two kinds of skeletons, the natural, and the artificial. In the former, the bones are connected together by their own proper cartilages and ligaments; whereas in the latter, they are joined together by artificial means,

cavity,

cavity, as is the case with the head of the os femoris. 2. Arthrodia, when a round head is admitted into a superficial cavity, as in the articulation of the arm-bone with the scapula: both these allow motion to all sides. 3. Ginglymus (which properly signifies the hinge of a door or window), when the articulation allows only of flexion and extension, as in that of the tibia with the os femoris. In this the parts of the bones mutually receive, and are received. 4. The Planiform, when the articulation is by means of surfaces that are flat, or nearly so, and which, of course, allow only of very obscure motion. Of this we have an instance in the articulation of the bones of the metacarpus with each other, and with the bones of the carpus.

THE Synarthrosis, or immoveable articulation of bones, is divided into the suture and gomphosis. In the suture, the two bones are mutually indented into each other; and of this we have an example in the junction of the parietal bones. When the marks of this articulation were more minute, the

the ancients gave it the name of *harmonia*; but this variety of names seem to be uselefs. Gomphosis is the fixing one bone into another, as a nail is fixed into a board; thus the teeth are secured in their sockets.

THE Amphiarthrosis, or mixed articulation, is so called from its partaking both of the diarthrosis and synarthrosis. We have an instance of this kind of articulation in the bodies of the vertebræ, which, though seemingly firmly connected with each other by the intervening cartilages, are, however, capable of a variety of motion.

THE perfect union, or concretion of two bones, is called symphyfis, as in the lower jaw, which in infancy is composed of two distinct bones, but becomes one in a more advanced age, by the ossification of the uniting cartilage.

WHEN bones are thus joined by the means of cartilage, the union is styled Synchronosis. It is in this manner that the ossa pubis are united, that the ribs are joined to the
sternum,

sternum, and the vertebræ to each other. When ligaments are the connecting bodies, as they are in all the moveable articulations, the articulation takes the name of Syneurosis.

Of the Marrow.

THE generality of writers distinguish two substances in the cavities of bones: to one of these they give the name of marrow, and to the other that of medullary juice. These two substances, however, are precisely of the same nature, differing only in colour and consistence from accidental causes. The former, or marrow, properly so called, which is found only in the great cavities of long bones, is a soft substance, resembling fat, and inclining to a yellowish tinge; whereas the medullary juice is more fluid, of a red colour, and confined to the cells in the spongy part of the bones.

BOTH these substances, which we shall describe under the common name of marrow, are included in a very fine and transparent membrane,

membrane, which may easily be demonstrated in the great cavities of the round bones, to the inner surface of which it is attached by filaments and blood vessels. This *membrana medullaris* *, as it may be called, forms an infinite number of vesicles † for containing the marrow, which is likewise supported in the cavities of the bones, by the bony filaments of their reticular substance, or, as it is more usually called, their *cancelli*.

THIS membrane is supplied with a great number of minute arteries, which ramify along its surface, and pass into its cells, where they seem to deposit the medullary substance. These arteries, as well as its veins, are derived chiefly from the periosteum, and pass through the bones by proper canals.

* Almost all the old anatomists, and even many of the latest writers, particularly M. Petit, in his edition of Palfyn, have described a periosteum internum as lining the internal cavities of bones. It is certain, however, that no other membrane exists within the bones than this which is destined for the marrow, and which has probably given rise to the mistake.

† By stirring a portion of marrow in warm water, we easily separate the oily substance from its membrane, and may then inflate the cells of the latter, by means of a common blow-pipe.

BUT

BUT besides these vessels from the periosteum, there are others which pass in chiefly near the extremities of the long bones, and not only enter the cells of the marrow, and ramify upon its membrane, but likewise send off branches, which turn back again into the bone, and thus pass from within outwards. This mechanism may serve to explain why, when, by a fracture, or any other accident, part of a bone is deprived of the supply of blood from its surface, the deficiency may be made up by these branches from the medullary arteries.

THERE are no nerves to be demonstrated in the marrow; and on this account many writers, and particularly Haller, have denied it sensibility, especially as it seems to be analogous to fat*. But it is hardly allowable to draw such a conclusion from analogy, as nerves may exist in this, as well as in other parts, and yet be so minutely divided as to escape the eye of the anatomist. Duverney †, who repeatedly plunged a

* Mem. sur les Parties sensibles, &c. tom. i p. 26.

† Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1700.

probe into the thigh bone of a living animal, assures us that the animal constantly afforded signs of great pain*. I am of opinion, however, from some experiments I have been able to make in this way, that the marrow, or rather the membrane in which it is included, possesses but an obscure degree of feeling in a sound state, although it be not perfectly insensible. Galen, and all the writers after him till the time of Fallopius, were of opinion, that the marrow serves for the nourishment and renewal of the bones; and this doctrine has lately been revived by M. Lieutaud †, M. Petit ‡, and others.

It is certain, however, that the marrow receives no tinge from the use of madder, any more than the cartilages and periosteum; and its use seems to be, not to nou-

* Deventer, who repeated the same experiment, asserts the same thing in his work entitled *Van de Ziektens der beenderen*, &c.

† *Essais Anatomiques*.

‡ See his edition of Palfyn's *Anatom. Chir.* vol. i. p. 11.

rish the bones, but to diminish their brittleness. It is insinuated between the plates even of the hardest parts of the bones, and this probably by means of certain canals, the existence of which Havers seems rather to have conjectured than demonstrated*. The transudation of the oil through the bones of a skeleton, seems to prove that some such passages do actually exist; and after burning a portion of a round bone in order to deprive it of its oil, we may, by breaking it, observe minute channels which are probably destined for this purpose; but they are neither so regular in their appearance, nor so satisfactorily demonstrated as Havers has pretended.

SEVERAL anatomists have likewise had a notion that the marrow transudes through the cartilages, which cover the extremities

* In his *Novæ quædam Observationes de Ossibus*, he describes these canals by which the marrow is conveyed through every part of the substance of the bones, and divides them into longitudinal and transverse ones. He speaks of the first as extending through the whole length of the bone, and of the latter, as the passages by which the longitudinal ones communicate with each other.

of bones, and thus is mixed with the synovia. In proof of this it is observed* that butchers, upon seeing the greater or lesser quantity of marrow in the bones of cows, can tell whether they have travelled far or little before they were slaughtered. It has likewise been observed, that but little marrow is found in the bones of people who die of lingering diseases. But this latter observation may be explained in a different manner: we know that the marrow has all the properties of fat, and like that may be taken up by the absorbents in a greater quantity than it is secreted. We are indeed not able to demonstrate lymphatics in the bones, but the swellings of lymphatic glands, which have been observed to take place in certain affections of the bones, is a sufficient proof of their existence.

* Monro on the Bones, p. 20.

Of the Periosteum.

THE periosteum is the name given to the membrane that covers the bones. It is deficient only where ligaments or tendons are attached to bones, and in the parts of the teeth that are above the sockets.

THE ancients erroneously considered it as a production of the dura mater; and some late writers, as we have seen, have with as little reason supposed the bones to be originally formed by the ossification of this membrane.

It is of a compact, cellular texture, and adheres very closely to the surface of the bones, by means of blood-vessels, and of a great number of minute threads, which appear to be of a ligamentous nature. It is evidently reflected from one joint to another, and may be considered as a common covering of the bones; so that were it possible to destroy them without injuring their
peri-

periofteum, we fhould have a ferief of membranous bags correfponding with the fhape of the fkeleton.

THE chief ufes of this membrane feem to be, to give a fmoothernefs to the bones, fo that the mufcles may flide eafily upon their furface; to connect the numerous pieces of which the bones in young animals confift; to unite the epiphyfes more firmly to the bodies of the bones; to ftrengthen the articulations by extending over the ligaments of the joints; to fupport the veffels in their paffage to the bones; and perhaps, laftly, to ferve for the fecretion of the offeous juices.

Of the Cartilages.

CARTILAGES are white, gliftening, fmooth, and elastic fubftances, not fo hard as the bones, but of a firmer confiftence than any of the other parts of the body.

THE greater part of them, and thofe we mean to fpeak of at prefent, are intimately

connected with the bones; but there are others, as those of the larynx, which are intended for other purposes, and which will be described in their proper places.

THE Cartilages subservient to bones may be distinguished, 1. into those which incrust the ends and cavities of such bones as are designed for motion; 2. those which increase the extent of particular bones, as is the case with the cartilages of the ribs; 3. those which serve to unite bones together, as is the case with the cartilages uniting the vertebræ and the ossa pubis.

MANY of the cartilages ossifying in process of time, a greater number are observed in the foetus than in the adult. From the same cause the number of bones too is greater in young than in old people; because it happens that a cartilage, placed between two bones, ossifies, and the three parts, which were before distinct, unite together.

CARTILAGES receive no tinge from the use of madder, nor can we demonstrate their vessels by injection.—When we perceive the least mark of redness in a cartilage, we may be assured that an ossification has taken place. This ossification begins in the centre of the cartilage, and at first exhibits the appearance of an osseous artery, which is white and opaque*, and regularly ramified. What induces this change in the structure of the cartilage, and this secretion of osseous juices, we are not yet able to determine. In this, as in many other parts of anatomy, we must long content ourselves with observing appearances before we can undertake to explain them.

THE elasticity of the cartilages renders it probable that they are of a fibrous structure, but it is very difficult to demonstrate this satisfactorily. Dr. Hunter, who has made

* A late writer in the Edin. Med. Comm. speaks of this ossification of arteries, in cartilages, as a new discovery; but the whole process is very accurately described by Nesbit, in his *Osteogeny*, which was published in 1736.

many ingenious inquiries on this subject *, has described two sorts of fibres in the cartilages of the joints; the first of these he tells us are very short parallel fibres, which arise from the bone, and terminate on the surface of the cartilage; and the others are placed in a transverse direction. He has likewise described a very fine membrane which is spread over the surface of the cartilages, and is a continuation of the internal lamina of the capsula of the joints †. Externally, the cartilages, at the extremities of bone, are in many instances covered by the periosteum, which was here by the ancients, and is still by many writers, called *perichondrium*.

Of the Ligaments.

LIGAMENTS are white, glistening substances, of a compact fibrous texture, difficultly stretched or torn, and possessing but little elasticity. The greater number of them serve to connect the bones and

* Phil. Transf. for 1743.

† Ibid.

strengthen

strengthen the articulations, but there are others which belong more immediately to the soft parts, and which of course will be described hereafter.

THE Ligaments of the joints are of different kinds.--Those which surround the whole joint like a purse are called *bursal* or *capsular* ligaments. These, which are to be met with in all the moveable joints, serve to strengthen the articulation, but their chief use seems to be to confine the synovia within the cavity of the joints.—In some joints we find bands of ligamentous fibres covering only certain parts, chiefly the sides, of the joint, and in this case they are called *lateral* ligaments. These lateral ligaments serve to regulate the motions of the joint, and, as well as the capsular ligaments, are covered externally by the periosteum.—We meet with ligaments in the cavities of joints, only in the articulation of the os femoris with the os innominatum, and in the joint of the knee. In the former we observe a strong ligament passing from the round head of the os femoris to the lower internal part
of

PP

of the receiving cavity. This ligament is commonly, though very improperly, called the *round* one, it being in fact flat and of a triangular shape.—In the knee joint we find two ligaments which, from their situation with respect to each other, are called *cross* ligaments.

ALL the ligaments of the bones, however, are not confined to the articulations. Thus we find a ligamentous substance running along between the radius and the ulna in the fore arm, and between the tibia and fibula in the leg. In these places it takes the name of *interosseous ligament*. As we proceed in our inquiries we shall have occasion to describe other ligaments, which serve for the attachment of muscles and other purposes.

THE ligaments are furnished with a considerable number of blood vessels, so that our injections readily pass through every part of their substance, but we are not able to demonstrate their nerves.

of

Of the Synovia.

WITHIN the cavities of the joints we find an unctuous, mucilaginous liquor, which in an healthy state coagulates neither with heat nor with acids. This mucilage, which is called *synovia*, serves to lubricate the cartilages and ligaments, and thus facilitates the motion of the joints. The organs which secrete this fluid are of a glandular structure*, and are placed in small cavities in the articulations, so as to be capable of being gently compressed by the motion of the joint, which expresses their juice in proportion to the degree of friction. By macerating them in water we may observe their minute excretory ducts inclosed in one common membrane and hanging loose like so many fringes within the joint.

* I am aware that some anatomists are of opinion that these appearances in the joints are nothing more than assemblages of fat. This notion, which is erroneous, has been adopted by M. Lieutaud.—Havers, though not the discoverer as he supposed, was the first accurate describer of these glands, and therefore they are sometimes called *Glandulae Haversianae*.

This

This structure prevents a regurgitation of the fluid *. But besides these glands, which are situated in depressions of the articulation, we meet with simple follicles, in different parts of the capsular ligament, which likewise pour out a mucilaginous fluid for the same purpose. In the joints, as in all the other cavities of the body, the redundant moisture is taken up and carried back into the system by lymphatics; so that from a defect in these absorbent vessels, or other causes, there may be a morbid collection of fluid within the cavity, and hence a dropfy of the joint.

Division of the Skeleton.

THE human skeleton is generally divided into the head, the trunk, the superior and the inferior extremities.

THE first division includes the bones of the cranium and face.—The bones of the trunk are the spine, ribs, sternum, and bones

* Morgagni Adversar. 11. p. 52.

of the pelvis. The upper extremities on each side contain the two bones of the shoulder, viz. the scapula and clavicle; the bones of the arm, fore-arm, and hand. The lower extremities on each side of the trunk, consist of the thigh bone, and the bones of the leg and foot.

CHAP.

C H A P. II.

Of the Bones of the Head.

THE bones of the head may be divided into those of the cranium and face. Each of these divisions shall be the subject of a section.

S E C T I O N I.

Of the Bones of the Cranium.

THE CRANIUM is of a spherical shape, flattened, however, at the sides, and somewhat wider behind than before. Its greatest diameter is from the forehead to the occiput. Its upper part is called *vertex*, or crown of the head; its anterior or fore part, *frontis*, or forehead; its posterior or hind part, the *occiput*; its sides the *temples*; and its inferior part the *basis*.

It is composed of eight bones, viz. the coronal bone or os frontis; the two parietal bones or ossa bregmatis; the os occipitis; the two temporal bones; the sphenoid bone; and the os ethmoides or cribiforme.—Of these, only the parietal and occipital bones are to be considered as proper to the cranium;

nium; the five others not only serving to inclose and protect the brain, but likewise to form the face.

SOME anatomists, in order to account for the spherical shape of the cranium, have supposed that the bones are disposed to ossify in a particular manner; but as the brain and cerebellum are to be seen in the foetus before any ossification has taken place, we may rather suppose that these serve as a model on which the bones are formed. This appears the more probable when we consider the various depressions within the cranium which correspond with the lobulated appearance of the brain, and the ramifications of the vessels on its surface.—Externally we observe that the sides of the cranium are flattened at the temples; and this seems to be chiefly owing to the action of the temporal muscles, the spherical shape of the head being more perfect in children than in adults. When I visited the learned Professor Camper in West Friesland, he did me the favour to shew me the scull of a Calmuck Tartar, in which I observed the surface

face for the temporal muscle to be much broader than in Europeans, and the sides of the head were so flattened that the sagittal suture was formed into a ridge.

THE shape of the skull is found to vary in people of different nations. Thus, in the generality of Europeans it is oblong; in the Turk and Algerine it is round; and in the Chinese and Tartar it is broad. Vesalius* and others have attributed this variety to the management of children when very young, supposing that the head of a Turk is rounded by an early use of the turban, while that of an Englishman is flattened by the chin stay. But Professor Camper, who has been at immense pains to collect skulls from many different parts of the world, supposes, with good reason, that this difference in their shape is occasioned, not by any such accidental means as Vesalius and others since his time have imagined, but by natural causes with which we are as yet unacquainted.

* Lib. i. cap. v.

IN the fœtus all the bones of the cranium are perfectly distinct from each other; and each bone is composed of a single lamella, the fibres of which are disposed like rays diverging from a centre. The ossification begins in the middle of every bone, and proceeds gradually to the circumference; so that this process, and of course the increase of the head, is carried on from an infinite number of points at the same time, and the bones consequently approach each other in the same proportion. Soon after birth the bones acquire greater thickness, and begin to be composed of two tables and of an intermediate cellular substance called *Diploe*. The circumference of each gradually acquires the same consistence as the rest of the bone, and their fibrous texture entirely disappears. As the bones join each other, their edges usually become mutually indented, like the teeth of a saw, so as to form the different futures. These are five in number, and are distinguished by the following names, viz. the coronal, sagittal, lambdoidal, and two squamous futures.

THE *Coronal* future, which joins the os frontis to the anterior edge of the ossa parietalia, has gotten its name from its being near the place where the ancients wore their *Vitta Coronæ* or garlands.—It is indented in its upper part, but towards each end we usually find it smooth.

THE *Sagittal* future extends in a longitudinal direction along the middle and upper part of the skull, and generally terminates at the middle of the coronal and lambdoidal futures. When compared with the coronal future it is supposed to resemble an arrow placed upon a bow, and hence it has gotten its name. This future is in many subjects continued through the middle of the os frontis down to the root of the nose. Vesalius *, and some others, relate instances of its being continued as far back as the foramen magnum of the occipital bone. Fallopius † however contends that this never happens, and it does indeed appear to be very improbable, when we consider that the os occipitis is formed only of one piece, and

* Lib. i. cap. v.

† Expof. de Offibus.

not of two pieces like the os frontis. Riolanus * tells us that Sylvius was in possession of a scull in which there were two sagittal futures at about the distance of a finger's breadth from each other.

THE *Lambdoidal* future, so called from its supposed resemblance to the Greek letter Λ , connects the posterior edges of the parietal bones with the upper edges of the os occipitis. It is sometimes very irregular, being made up of a great many small futures, which surround so many little bones called *ossa triquetra*, though improperly, as they are not always of a triangular figure. They have likewise been called *ossa Wormiana* by some writers, though they were known and described by several anatomists long before the time of Olaus Wormius. The number, shape, and situation of these bones are very irregular. They are generally larger and more conspicuous on the external, than on the internal surface of the scull. Perhaps their size and extent in some particular subjects may, through mistake, have given rise

* Comment. de Ossibus.

to the observation we just now mentioned, of the sagittal future's being continued through the os occipitis. These little bones are not always confined to the lamboidal future, but are sometimes found in the sagittal and coronal futures. Their formation seems to be merely accidental, from the ossification beginning from different points of the ordinary bones of the cranium at the same time.

THE *Squamous*, or as they are sometimes called, the *false futures*, are one on each side where the temporal bone is joined to the parietal. They are called *squamous*, from their being placed like one scale upon another. In general, we do not observe the inequalities of this future till the bones are separated, except at its posterior part, which, on account of its being constantly serrated like the other futures, has been described by Albinus * as a distinct future, under the name of *additamentum posterius futuræ squamosæ*. Monro † once saw two squamous futures on

* De Ossibus.

† On the Bones.

the same temple, with a semicircular piece of bone between them.

BESIDES these there are five other futures which are common both to the cranium and face, viz. the *ethmoidal* and *sphenoidal* futures, which surround the bones of those names; the two *zygomatic* futures, one on each side, which unite the *ossa malarum* to the temporal bones; and lastly, the *transverse* future, which extends from one temple to the other, and is common to the *os frontis*, the *ossa malarum*, the *ossa unguis*, the *ossa maxillaria superiora*, and the *ossa nasi*.

ALL these futures are evidently an effect of the particular manner in which the bones of the cranium ossify. Like the *ossa triquetra*, they are more strongly marked on the outside than on the inside of the skull. As the ossification becomes complete they gradually disappear, so that in old people there are sometimes no traces of them remaining. This rule however is not without exception; for there have been instances of the coronal and sagittal futures being entirely obliterated

in children of only eight years of age *, while they are sometimes, though very rarely, found perfect even in very old subjects.

THE chief uses arising from this partition of the cranium into so many pieces, seem to be to facilitate the ossification in the manner we have already observed; and likewise to favour the exclusion of the fœtus, by accommodating the shape of the head to the passage of the pelvis.

BESIDES these, the futures seem to have other, secondary uses; thus they perhaps serve in some measure to prevent the spreading of fractures from one bone to another. I am aware that Ruysch †, and others since his time, have denied the possibility of any such effect. But the truth in this case seems to be, that although, when the bones are completely ossified, and firmly united, the fracture is not absolutely interrupted by the futures, yet in many cases they may prevent its spreading so far as it would otherwise do.

* Mem. de L'Acad. des Sciences, 1730.

† Adversar. Anatom.

I have seen more than one instance in which this effect seemed to have taken place, and it is certain that in young subjects the futures may be of still greater utility in this respect.

THE dura mater seems likewise to be better supported in children by means of these openings; for although that membrane adheres every where to the inner surface of the cranium by means of vessels and fibres, in the same manner as the pericranium does to the outer surface of the scull, yet these vessels are constantly larger and more numerous at the futures than elsewhere. There is no foundation however for supposing, as many of the older writers, and even some of the moderns*, have done, that there is a transpiration of steams from the brain through the futures, although this was for a long time a favourite doctrine. But the reader will no longer wonder at this, when he is told that the ossa triquetra were long held in high estimation as a specific for the epilepsy.

* Keill's Anatomy.

Of the Os Frontis.

THE Os Frontis is of a semicircular shape, and, when detached from the other bones of the cranium, has some resemblance to the shell of the cockle. Externally, where it forms the forehead, it is smooth and convex; but below, where it helps to form the orbits of the eyes, it affords several processes and cavities. Its inner and concave side is turned towards the brain, from the impressions of which, and of the arteries of the dura mater, its surface is rendered unequal, especially at the lower part of the bone, over the orbit, where the weight of the brain, from our erect posture, has the greatest effect. This bone, in the generality of subjects, is of considerable thickness and great strength, except at that part of the orbit of the eye which is nearest to the nose; and where, by the action of the eye on one side, and the pressure of the brain on the other, it is rendered so exceedingly thin, especially in old people, that a wound in the eye, by a sword or any other pointed instrument,

strument, is sometimes productive of immediate death, by penetrating the brain.

IN considering the exterior surface of the bone, it will be right to distinguish its processes. Of these, the most remarkable are those portions of the bone on each side that form the orbits, or cavities in which the eyes are placed. These are called *orbital processes*; and they differ from the other parts of the bone, not only in being composed of a very thin bony lamella, but likewise in being concave externally. The superior border of each orbit is formed into a ridge, which we see extended in form of an arch. On this the eye-brows are placed. It is called the *superciliary ridge*, and in some measure covers and defends the globe of the eye. At each end of this superciliary ridge the bone juts out to form two processes, which, from their situation, are called the *external* and *internal angular processes*. Of these, the internal angular process, or that which is nearest the nose, is the least considerable. In each orbit, behind the middle of the superciliary ridge, a considerable depression is
seen,

seen, in which the lachrymal gland is lodged; and behind each internal angular process, near the nose, we may observe a small pit where the cartilaginous pulley of the musculus obliquus superior is fixed.—At the bottom of the os frontis, between the internal angular processes, arises a small protuberance, called the *nasal* process, from its supporting the bones of the nose; but, in order to demonstrate it, it is necessary that these should first be removed.—Behind each external angular process we find the surface of the bone considerably depressed, where some part of the temporal muscle takes its origin; and in the anterior part of the os frontis, there is a considerable discontinuation of it, which is filled up by the cribiform part of the os ethmoides. The principal foramina or holes to be observed on the external surface of the os frontis are, 1. The superciliary or orbital foramen, which in many subjects is only a notch instead of a hole. We find it in each superciliary ridge, a little removed from its middle towards the nose. Through it passes a small artery from the internal carotid, together with a minute branch of the
fifth

fifth pair of nerves, to be distributed to the muscles and teguments of the forehead.

2. The internal and anterior orbital foramen, which affords a passage to a branch of the ophthalmic artery, and a small twig of the fifth pair of nerves. This hole is to be seen near the middle of the inside of each orbit, and is sometimes common to the os ethmoides.

3. The internal and posterior orbital foramen, which is smaller than the former, and about an inch deeper in the orbit. Through it a small branch of the internal carotid passes to the nose.—Besides these there are other smaller holes, more in some subjects than others, which serve for the transmission of small arteries or nerves.

THE internal view of this bone affords us an elevation in form of a ridge, which has been called the *spinous* process; it passes from the anterior to the posterior part of the bone, dividing it into two considerable fossæ, in which the anterior lobes of the brain are placed. In this ridge we commonly find a narrow furrow, to which is attached the extremity of the falx, as the membrane is called,

called, which divides the brain into two hemispheres. At the bottom of the ridge we observe a small hole, which in some subjects is proper to the os frontis, and in others is formed by the junction of this bone with the os ethmoides. It usually opens into the cavities of the nose, and transmits a small artery and sometimes a vein.

BESIDES these two fossæ, there are many depressions, which appear like digital impressions, and owe their formation to the prominent circumvolutions of the brain.

IN young subjects, the forehead is formed of two distinct bones; so that in them the sagittal suture extends from the os occipitis to the nose. This separation sometimes, though rarely, continues through life.

THE two tables, of which this bone is almost every where composed, separating from each other between the orbits, form two cavities, one on each side of the face, called the frontal sinuses. These cavities do not exist in young subjects, but are gradually

dually formed as the os frontis acquires a greater thickness and consistence. They are separated by a thin bony partition, and open by two small holes into the nostrils, of which in fact they form a part, being lined with the same pituitary membrane that lines the other cavities of the nose, and serving to secrete a mucous fluid which is constantly distilling into the nostrils. It is from the deficiency of these cavities that the foreheads of children are so much flatter than those of adults, and the same rule may enable us to judge of the difference of their size in different subjects.—Sometimes one of these sinuses is more capacious than the other, and now and then, though very rarely, the two cavities communicate. It is still more unusual for them to be entirely wanting.—Of their uses we shall have occasion to speak more particularly when we come to describe the other parts of the nose.

THE os frontis is connected above with the two parietal bones; and below, or at its sides, with the os sphenoides, the os ethmoides, the os unguis, the ossa maxillaria,

ria, the *ossa nasi*, and the *ossa malarum*.— Its uses are to form a part of the cranium and face, to defend and support the anterior lobes of the brain, to form a great part of the orbits, and to enlarge the organ of smelling.

Of the Ossa Parietalia.

THESE bones, which are two in number, compose the superior arch and lateral parts of the cranium, so as to form a kind of vault. Each of these bones forms an irregular square. They are thicker above than below; but are somewhat thinner, and at the same more equal and smooth than the other bones of the cranium. The only foramen we observe in them, is a small one towards the upper and posterior part of each. It has been named the parietal foramen, and serves for the transmission of a small vein to the longitudinal sinus. In many subjects this foramen is wanting.—On the inner surface of these bones we observe the marks of the vessels of the *dura mater*, and of the convoluted surface

surface of the brain. On the inside of their upper edge we may likewise observe a considerable furrow, which corresponds with the longitudinal sinus of the dura mater; and lower down, towards their posterior and inferior angle, is a smaller one for part of the lateral sinuses.

THESE bones are joined to each other by the sagittal future; to the os sphenoides and ossa temporum by the squamous future; to the os occipitis by the lamboidal future; and to the os frontis by the coronal future.—Their connection with this latter bone is well worthy our attention. We shall find that in the middle of the future, where the os frontis, from its size and flatness, is the most in danger of being injured, it rests upon the arch formed by the parietal bones; whereas at the sides, the parietal bones are found resting upon the os frontis, because this same arch is there in the greatest danger from pressure.

IN new-born infants the ossa parietalia are separated from the middle of the divided os
frontis

frontis by a portion of the cranium, then unossified. When the finger is applied to this part*, the motion of the brain, and the pulsation of the arteries of the dura mater may be easily distinguished. In general the whole of this part is completely ossified before we are seven years of age.

Of the Occipital Bone.

THIS bone, which forms the posterior and inferior part of the skull, is of an irregular figure, convex on the outside, and concave internally.

ITS external surface, which is very irregular, serves for the attachment of several muscles. It affords several inequalities, which sometimes form two semi-circular hollows separated by a scabrous ridge. The inferior portion of the bone is stretched for-

* The ancients, who supposed it to serve for the evacuation of superfluous moisture from the brain, named it *bregma*, or the fountain: hence the parietal bones are sometimes called *ossa bregmatis*; and hence the term *fontanelle*, which the French apply to this part.

wards in form of a wedge, and hence is called the *cuneiform* process. At the base of this process, situated obliquely on each side of the foramen magnum, are two flat, oblong protuberances, named *condyles*. They are covered with cartilage, and serve for the articulation of the head with the first vertebra of the neck.

IN the inferior portion of this bone, at the basis of the cranium, and immediately behind the cuneiform process, we observe a considerable hole through which the medulla oblongata passes into the spine. The *nervi accessorii*, the vertebral arteries, and sometimes the vertebral veins likewise, pass through it. Man being designed for an erect posture, we find this foramen magnum nearly in the middle of the basis of the human cranium, and at a pretty equal distance from the posterior part of the occiput, and the anterior part of the lower jaw: whereas in quadrupeds it is nearer the back part of the occiput*. Besides this hole,

* See a paper by M. Daubenton, "Sur la situation du trou occipital dans l'homme et dans les animaux."—*Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences* 1764.

we observe four other smaller foramina; viz. two before, and two behind the condyles. The former serve for the transmission of the ninth pair of nerves, and the two latter for the veins which pass from the external parts of the head to the lateral sinuses.

ON looking over the internal surface of the os occipitis, we perceive the appearance of a cross, formed by a very prominent ridge, which rises upwards from near the foramen magnum, and by two transverse sinuosities, one on each side of the ridge. This cross occasions the formation of four fossæ, two above and two below the sinuosities. In the latter are placed the lobes of the cerebellum, and in the former the posterior lobes of the brain.—The two sinuosities serve to receive the lateral sinuses.

IN the upper part of this bone is seen a continuation of the sinuosity of the longitudinal sinus; and at the basis of the cranium we observe the inner surface of the cuneiform process made concave for the reception of the medulla oblongata.

THE occipital bone is thicker and stronger than any of the other bones of the head, if we except the petrous part of the ossa temporum; but it is of unequal thickness.—At its lateral and inferior parts, where it is thinnest, we find it covered by a great number of muscles.

THE reason for so much thickness and strength in this bone seems to be, that it covers the cerebellum, in which the least wound is of the utmost consequence; and that it is, by its situation, more liable to be fractured by falls than any other bone of the cranium. For, if we fall forwards, the hands are naturally put out to prevent the forehead's touching the ground; and if on one side, the shoulders in a great measure protect the sides of the head; but if a person falls backwards, the hind part of the head consequently strikes against the earth, and that too with considerable violence. Nature therefore has wisely constructed this bone so as to be capable of the greatest resistance, by giving it the greatest strength

at its upper part, where it is the most exposed to injury.

THE *os occipitis* is joined, by means of the cuneiform process, to the sphenoid bone, with which it often ossifies, and makes but one bone in those who are advanced in life. It is connected to the parietal bones by the lambdoidal suture, and to the temporal bones by the additamentum of the temporal suture. The head is likewise united to the trunk by means of this bone. The two condyles of the occipital bone are received into the superior oblique processes of the atlas, or first vertebra of the neck, and it is by means of this articulation that a certain degree of motion of the head, backwards and forwards, is performed. But it allows only very little motion to either side; and still less of a circular motion, which the head obtains principally by the circumvolution of the atlas on the second vertebra, as we shall describe more particularly in treating of the vertebræ.

IN the fœtus, the os occipitis is divided by an unossified cartilaginous substance into four parts. One of these, which is the largest, constitutes all that portion of the bone that is above the foramen magnum; two others, which are much smaller, compose the sides of the foramen magnum, and include the condyloid processes; and the fourth is the cuneiform process. This last is sometimes not completely united with the rest, so as to form one bone, before the sixth or seventh year.

Of the Temporal Bones.

THESE two bones, which are situated one on each side of the head, are of a very irregular figure. They are usually divided into two parts, one of which, from the manner of its connexion with the neighbouring bones, is called *os squamosum*, and the other *os petrosum*, from its irregularity and hardness.

IN both these parts there are processes and cavities to be described. Externally there are three processes; one anterior, called the

zygomatic process, which is stretched forwards to join with the *os malæ*, and thus forms the bony *jugum* under which the temporal muscle passes; one posterior, called the *mastoid* or *mamillary* process, from its resemblance to a nipple; and one inferior, called the *styloid* process, from its shape, which is said to resemble that of the ancient *stylus scriptorius* *. In young subjects this process is united with the bone by an intermediate cartilage, which sometimes, even in adults, is not completely ossified. Three muscles have their origin from this process, and borrow half of their names from it, viz. *stylo-glossus*, *stylo-hyoideus*, and *stylo-pharyngeus*.—Round the root of this process there is a particular rising of the *os petrosum*, which some writers describe as a process, and, from its appearance with the *styloid*, have named it *vaginalis*—others describe the semi-circular ridge of the *meatus auditorius externus* as a fifth process, to which they give the name of *auditory*.

THE depressions and cavities are, 1. a large fossa which serves for the articulation

* *Monro on the Bones,*

of the lower jaw; it is situated between the zygomatic, auditory, and vaginal processes, and is separated in its middle by a fissure into which the ligament that secures the articulation of the lower jaw with this bone is fixed. The fore part of this cavity, which receives the condyle of the jaw, is covered with cartilage; the back part only with the periosteum. 2. A long fossa behind the mastoid process, where the digastric muscle has its origin. 3. The *meatus auditorius externus*, the name given to a large funnel-like canal that leads to the organ of hearing. 4. The *stylo-mastoid hole*, so called from its situation between the styloid and mastoid processes. It is likewise called the aqueduct of Fallopius, and affords a passage to the portio dura of the auditory or seventh pair of nerves. 5. Below and on the fore part of the last foramen we observe part of the jugular fossa, a thimble-like cavity, in which the beginning of the internal jugular vein is lodged. 6. Before, and a little above this fossa, is the orifice of a foramen, through which pass the internal carotid artery, and two filaments of the intercostal nerve. This

conduit runs first upward and then forward, forming a kind of elbow, and terminates at the end of the os petrosum. 7. At this part of the ossa temporum we observe the orifice of a canal which runs outwards and backwards in an horizontal direction, till it terminates in the cavity of the ear called tympanum. This canal, which in the recent subject is continued from the ear to the mouth, is called the *Eustachian tube*. —We shall speak of it more particularly hereafter. 8. A small hole behind the mastoid process, which serves for the transmission of a vein to the lateral sinus. But this, like other foramina in the skull that serve only for the transmission of vessels, is neither uniform in its situation, nor to be met with in every subject.

THE internal surface of these bones may easily be divided into three parts. The first, uppermost and largest, is the squamous part, which is slightly concave from the impression of the brain. Its semi circular edge is sloping, so that the external lamella of the bone advances farther than the internal, and thus rests

rests more securely on the parietal bones. The second and middlemost, which is the petrous part of the bone, forms a hard, craggy protuberance, nearly of a triangular shape. On its posterior side we observe a large foramen, which is the meatus auditorius internus; it receives the double nerve of the seventh pair, viz. the portio dura and portio mollis of that pair. About the middle of its anterior surface is a small foramen, which opens into the aqueduct of Fallopius, and receives a twig of the portio dura of the seventh pair of nerves. This foramen having been first described by Fallopius*, and by him named *hiatus*, is sometimes called *hiatus Fallopii*. Besides these, we observe other smaller holes for the transmission of blood vessels and nerves. Below this craggy protuberance is the third part, which, from its shape and connexion with the os occipitis by means of the lambdoidal suture, may be called the lambdoidal angle of the temporal bone. It is concave, from the impression of the brain; it helps to form the posterior and inferior fossæ of the skull,

* Observ. Anatom.

and

and has a considerable furrow, in which is lodged part of the lateral sinus.

THE temporal bones differ a little in their structure from the other bones of the cranium. At their upper parts they are very thin, and almost without diploë, but below they have great strength and thickness. In the fœtus, the thin upper part, and the lower craggy part, are separated by a cartilaginous substance—there is no appearance either of the mastoid or styloid processes, and, instead of a long funnel-like meatus auditorius externus, there is only a smooth bony ring, within which the membrana tympani is fastened*.

WITHIN the petrous part of these bones there are several cavities, processes, and bones, which, as they belong altogether to the ear, and do not enter into the formation of the cranium, will be described when we are treating of the organs of hearing.

THE ossa temporum are connected by suture with the ossa parietalia, the os occipitis,

* *Monro on the Bones*, p. 101.

the ossa malarum, and the os sphenoides; and are articulated, as we have seen, with the lower jaw.

Of the Os Sphenoides.

THE os sphenoides, or cuneiforme as it is called from its wedge-like situation amidst the other bones of the head, is of a more irregular figure than any other bone. It has been compared to a bat with its wings extended. This resemblance is but faint, but it would be difficult perhaps to find any thing it resembles more.

We distinguish in this bone its body or middle part, and its wings or sides, which are much more extensive than its body.

EACH of its wings or lateral processes is divided into two parts. Of these, the uppermost and most considerable portion, helping to form the deepest part of the temporal fossa on each side, is called the *temporal process*. The other portion makes a part of the orbit,

orbit, and is therefore named the *orbital process*. The back part of each wing, from its running out sharp to meet the os petrosum, has been called the *spinous process*; and the two processes, which stand out almost perpendicular to the basis of the scull, have been named *pterygoid* or *aliform* processes, though they may be said rather to resemble the legs than the wings of the bat. Each of these processes has two plates and a middle fossa facing backwards; of these plates the external one is the broadest, and the internal one the longest. The lower end of the internal plate forms a kind of hook, over which passes the round tendon of the *musculus circumflexus palati*. Besides these, we observe a sharp middle ridge, which stands out from the middle of the bone. The fore part of it, where it joins the nasal lamella of the ethmoidal bone, is thin and straight; the lower part of it is thicker, and is received into the vomer.

THE cavities observable on the external surface of the bone, are where it helps to form the temporal, nasal, and orbital fossæ.

It

It has likewise two fossæ in its pterygoid processes. Behind the edge, which separates these two fossæ, we observe a small groove, made by a branch of the superior maxillary nerve in its passage to the temporal muscle. Besides these, it has other depressions, which serve chiefly for the origin of muscles.

Its foramina are four on each side. The three first serve for the passage of the optic, superior maxillary, and inferior maxillary nerves; the fourth transmits the largest artery of the dura mater.—On each side we observe a considerable fissure, which, from its situation, may be called the superior orbital fissure. Through it pass the third and fourth pair of nerves, a branch of the fifth, and likewise the sixth pair. Lastly, at the basis of each pterygoid process, we observe a foramen which is named *pterygoidean*, and sometimes *Vidian*, from Vidianus who first described it*. Through it passes a branch of the external carotid, to be distributed to the nose.

THE os sphenoides on its internal surface affords three fossæ.—Two of these are con-

* De Anatom. lib. 2.

siderable

siderable ones; they are formed by the lateral processes, and make part of the lesser fossæ of the basis of the scull. The third, which is smaller, is on the top of the body of the bone, and is called *fella Turcica*, from its resemblance to a Turkish saddle.—In this fossa the pituitary gland is placed. At each of its four angles is a process. They are called the *clinoid* processes, and are distinguished by their situation into anterior and posterior processes. The two latter are frequently united into one.

WITHIN the substance of the os sphenoides, immediately under the *fella Turcica*, we find two cavities, separated by a thin bony lamella. These are the sphenoidal sinuses. They are lined with the pituitary membrane, and, like the frontal sinuses, separate a mucus which passes into the nostrils. In some subjects there is only one cavity; in others, though more rarely, we find three.

IN infants the os sphenoides is composed of three pieces, one of which forms the body of the bone and its pterygoid processes,
and

and the other two its lateral processes. The clinoid processes may even then be perceived in a cartilaginous state, though some writers have asserted the contrary; but we observe no appearance of any sinus.

THIS bone is connected with all the bones of the cranium, and likewise with the ossa maxillaria, ossa malarum, ossa palati, and vomer. Its uses may be collected from the description we have given of it.

Of the Os Ethmoides.

THE os ethmoides, or sieve-like bone *, as it is called, from the great number of small holes with which it is pierced, is placed in the anterior part of the basis of the skull, inclosed in some measure by the inferior and middle part of the os frontis, and is the last bone that enters into the composition of the cranium.—It is of a very irregular figure, not easily described.

* Os cribiforme.

THERE are three parts to be described in this bone, viz. its middle part and its sides. The middle part, from which the bone derives its name, is a thin horizontal lamella, or bony plate, pierced obliquely with a great number of small holes, through which pass as many filaments of the olfactory nerve.— From the middle of the inner side of this cribiform lamella rises up a thick process, which, from its supposed resemblance to a cock's comb, has been named *crista galli*. To the ridge of this process, and the imperforated part of the cribiform lamella, the falx is attached, which divides the brain into two hemispheres.—On the outer surface of the cribiform lamella we observe a thin perpendicular plate, which has the same common basis as the *crista galli*, and divides the cavity of the nostrils, though unequally, it being usually inclined more to one side than the other.

THE sides of the os ethmoides may be divided into two portions contiguous to each other. The uppermost of these is composed of a great number of cells, which communicate
with

with each other, and open into the cavity of the nose. The outer surface of these cells consists of a bony lamella, thin like the cells themselves, but smooth and plain. This part of the bone, which forms a part of the orbit, was formerly considered as a separate bone, and called *os planum*; a name which it still retains. The other of the two portions, into which we divided the sides of the bone, consists of a thin bony lamella, placed below the cells on each side. These two processes, from their situation, substance, and figure, have sometimes been called *ossa spongiosa*, or *turbinata superiora*.

IN children the *os ethmoides* consists of three pieces, its lateral portions being ossified, while its middle part is in a cartilaginous state. It is connected with the *os frontis*, *os sphenoides*, *ossa maxillaria*, *ossa unguis*, *ossa nasi*, and *vomer*. All its different cells are, in the recent subject, lined with the pituitary membrane; and, from its situation and structure, we may perceive that it serves to enlarge the cavity of the nose, in which the organ of smelling resides; to assist in

the formation of the cranium, and orbits; and to afford a passage to the olfactory nerves.

Of the Bones of the Face.

THE face is usually divided into the upper and lower jaws.—Of these, the latter is capable of motion, but the former is immoveable. The bones of the upper jaw are thirteen in number, exclusive of the teeth, which we shall describe separately, after having finished the other bones of the head. Of these thirteen bones, there are six on each side of the maxilla superior, or upper jaw, and one in the middle.

THE bones, which are in pairs, are the ossa maxillaria, ossa malarum, ossa palati, ossa unguis, ossa nasi, and ossa spongiosa inferiora—the single bone is the vomer.

Of the Ossa Maxillaria Superiora:

THESE bones, which constitute the most considerable portion of the upper jaw, are

two

two in number, and generally remain distinct through life. Their figure is exceedingly irregular, and not easily to be described. On each of these bones we observe several eminences. One of these is at the upper and fore part of the bone, and, from its making part of the nose, is called the *nasal* process.—Internally, in the inferior portion of this process, we observe a fossa, which, with the *os unguis*, forms a passage for the lachrymal duct. Into this nasal process likewise is inserted the short round tendon of the *musculus orbicularis palpebrarum*.—Backwards and outwards, from the root of the nasal process, the bone helps to form the lower side of the orbit, and this part is therefore called the *orbital* process. Behind this orbital process we observe the bone forming a considerable tuberosity, and at the upper part of this tuberosity is a channel, which is almost a complete hole. In this channel passes a branch of the fifth pair of nerves, which, together with a small artery, is transmitted to the face through the external orbital foramen, which opens immediately under the orbit.—Where the bone

F 2 on

on each side is joined to the os malæ, and helps to form the cheeks, we observe what is called the *malar* process.—The lower and anterior parts of the bone make a kind of circular sweep, in which are the the *alveoli* or sockets for the teeth—this is called the *alveolar* process. This alveolar process has posteriorly a considerable tuberosity on its internal surface. Above this alveolar process, and just behind the fore teeth, we observe an irregular hole, called the *foramen incisivum*, which separating into two, and sometimes more holes, serves to transmit small arteries and veins, and a minute branch of the fifth pair of nerves, to the nostrils.

THERE are two horizontal lamellæ behind the alveolar process, which, uniting together, form part of the roof of the mouth, and divide it from the nose. This partition being seated somewhat higher than the lower edge of the alveolar process, gives the roof of the mouth a considerable hollowness.

WHERE the ossa maxillaria are united to each other, they project somewhat forwards, leaving

leaving between them a furrow, which receives the inferior portion of the septum nasi.

EACH of these bones is hollow, and forms a considerable sinus under its orbital part. This sinus, which is usually, though improperly, called *antrum Highmoreianum**, is lined with the pituitary membrane. It answers the same purposes as the other sinuses of the nose, and communicates with the nostrils by an opening, which appears to be a large one in the skeleton, but which in the recent subject is much smaller.

IN the foetus, instead of these sinuses, we observe only an oblong depression at each side of the nostrils, nor is the tuberosity of the alveolar process then formed.—On the side of the palate in young subjects we may remark a kind of fissure, which seems to separate the portion of the bone which con-

* Highmore, in his *Corporis Humani Disquis. Anat.* has given an accurate description of these sinuses; and therefore many anatomists have named them after him: but they were known long before his time, and are described by Fallopius in his *Observ. Anatom.*

tains the dentes incisores from that which contains the dentes canini. This fissure is sometimes apparent till the sixth year, but after that period it in general wholly disappears.

THE ossa maxillaria not only serve to form the cheeks, but likewise the palate, nose, and orbits; and, besides their union with each other, they are connected with the greatest part of the bones of the face and cranium, viz. with the ossa nasi, ossa malarum, ossa unguis, ossa palati, os frontis, os sphenoides, and os ethmoides.

Of the Ossa Malarum.

THE ossa malarum are the prominent square bones which form the upper part of the cheeks. They are situated close under the eyes, and make part of the orbits. Each of these bones has three surfaces to be considered. One of these is exterior and somewhat convex. The second is superior and concave, serving to form the lower and lateral

lateral parts of the orbit. The third, which is posterior, is very unequal, and concave, for the lodgment of the lower part of the temporal muscle.

EACH of these bones may be described as having four processes, formed by their four angles. Two of these may be called *orbital* processes. The superior one is connected with the orbital process of the os frontis; and the inferior one with the malar process of the maxillary bone. The third is connected with the temporal process of the sphenoid bone; and the fourth forms a bony arch, by its connection with the zygomatic process of the temporal bone.

IN infants these bones are entire and completely ossified.

Of the Offa Nasi.

THE ossa nasi, which are so called from their constituting the upper part of the nose, resemble two irregular squares. They are

F 4 nar-

narrower and thicker above than below. Externally they are somewhat convex, and internally a little concave. This shape is calculated to resist external violence, and to enlarge the cavity of the nose.—On the external surface of these bones we commonly observe a small hole, which serves for the transmission of an artery to the pituitary membrane. At their fore part they are united to each other; above, to the os frontis; laterally, to the ossa maxillaria superiora; posteriorly and interiorly, to the septum narium; and below, to the cartilages of the nose.—These bones are complete in the fœtus.

Of the Ossa Unguis.

THESE bones derive their name from their figure, which resembles that of a finger nail. They are likewise styled *ossa lacrymalia*, because they help to form, with the nasal process of the os maxillare superius on each side, an excavation for the lodgment

of

of the lachrymal sac, and to compose part of the fossa for the lachrymal duct, through which the tears pass into the nostrils.

THESE bones, which are the smallest of the face, are of an irregular shape, and may be described as having two smooth parts, divided by a middle ridge on their external surface. One of these parts, which is flat, forms a small part of the orbit. The other, which is next to the nose, is concave, and serves for the lodgment of the lachrymal sac, and part of the lachrymal duct, as we have before observed.—The ossa unguis are fully formed in the fœtus. Each of these bones is joined to the os maxillare superius, os frontis, and os ethmoides.

Of the Ossa Palati;

THESE bones are of a very irregular figure. They are placed between the ossa maxillaria superiora and the os sphenoides, at the back part of the roof of the mouth, and extend from thence to the bottom of
the

the orbit.—Each of these bones may be divided into four parts; viz. the inferior or square portion, the pterygoid process, the nasal lamella, and orbital process.—The first of these, or the square part of the bone, helps to form the palate of the mouth. The upper part of its internal edge rises into a spine, which makes part of the septum narium.—The *pterygoid* process, which is smaller above than below, is so named from its being united with the pterygoid processes of the sphenoid bone, with which it helps to form the pterygoid fossæ. It is separated from the square part of the bone, and from the nasal lamella, by an oblique fossa, which, applied to such another in the os maxillare, forms a passage for a branch of the fifth pair of nerves.—The *nasal* lamella is nothing more than a very thin bony plate, which arises from the upper side of the external edge of the square part of the bone. Its inner surface is concave, and furnished with a ridge which supports the back part of the os spongiosum inferius. Externally, it is convex, and firmly united with the maxillary bone.—The *orbital* process is
more

more irregular than any other part of the bone. It has a smooth surface where it helps to form the orbit; and, when viewed in its place, we see it contiguous to that part of the orbit which is formed by the os maxillare, and appearing as a small triangle at the inner extremity of the orbital process of this last mentioned bone.—This fourth part of the os palati likewise helps to form the zygomatic fossa on each side, and there its surface is concave.—Between this orbital process and the sphenoid bone, a hole is formed, through which an artery, vein, and nerve, are transmitted to the nostrils.—The ossa palati are complete in the foetus.—They are joined to the ossa maxillaria superiora, os sphenoides, os ethmoides, ossa spongiosa inferiora, and vomer.

Of the Vomer.

THIS bone, which derives its name from its supposed resemblance to a ploughshare, forms the lower and back parts of the septum narium. Santorini*, and some

* Observationes Anatom.

other

other writers * since him, have, without sufficient reason, considered it as a part of the ethmoid bone.—It is a flat bone, forming an irregular square, and is thicker at its edges than its middle, where it is so extremely thin, that in the adult it can seldom be separated entire.—Its upper edge is firmly united to the nasal lamella of the os ethmoides, and to the basis of the os sphenoides; its lower edge is as closely connected with the nasal spines of the maxillary and palate bones.—At its upper part we observe a furrow extending through its whole length. The back part of this furrow, which is the largest, receives a process of the sphenoid bone. From this the furrow advances forwards, and, becoming narrower and shallower, receives some part of the nasal lamella ethmoidea.—The rest serves to support the middle cartilage of the nose.

In forming the septum narium, this bone, as well as the nasal lamella of the os ethmoides, is usually inclined more to one side than the other.—Its connections, as we have

* Lieutaud, *Essais Anat.*—Petit, *Anat. Chir. de Palfyn.*
seen,

seen, are with the os sphenoides, os ethmoides, ossa maxillaria superiora, and ossa palati.—In young subjects the vomer is composed of two distinct plates.

Of the Ossa Spongiosa Inferiora.

THESE bones, which, from their shape, are sometimes called *ossa turbinata*, have, by some anatomists, been described as belonging to the ethmoid bone; and, by others, as portions of the ossa palati. In young subjects, however, they are evidently distinct bones. They consist of a spongy lamella in each nostril. The convex surface of this lamella is turned towards the septum narium, and its concave part towards the maxillary bone, covering the opening of the lachrymal duct into the nose.—From their upper edge arise two processes: the posterior of these, which is the broadest, hangs as it were upon the edge of the antrum Highmorianum; the anterior one joins the os unguis, and forms a part of the lachrymal duct.

THESE

THESE bones are complete in the foetus. They are lined with the pituitary membrane; and, besides their connection with the ethmoid bone, are joined to the ossa maxillaria superiora, ossa palati, and ossa unguis.—Besides these ossa spongiosa inferiora, there are sometimes two others, situated lower down, one in each nostril. These are very properly considered as a production of the sides of the maxillary sinus turned downwards*. In many subjects likewise we find other smaller bones, standing out into the nostrils, which, from their shape, might also deserve the name of *turbinata*, but they are uncertain in their size, situation, and number.

Of the Os Maxillare Inferius.

THE maxilla inferior, or lower jaw, which, in its figure, may be compared to a horse-shoe, is at first composed of two distinct bones; but these, soon after birth, unite together at the middle of the chin, so as to form only one bone. The superior edge of

* Monro on the Bones.

this bone has, like the maxilla superior, a process, called the *alveolar* process. This, as well as that of the upper jaw, to which it is in other respects a good deal similar, is likewise furnished with cavities for the reception of the teeth.

THE posterior part of the bone, on each side, rises perpendicularly into two processes, one of which is called the *coronoid*, and the other the *condyloid* process. The first of these is the highest: it is thin and pointed; and the temporal muscle, which is attached to it, serves to elevate the jaw. The condyloid process is narrower, thicker, and shorter than the other, terminating in an oblong, rounded head, which is formed for a moveable articulation with the cranium, and is received into the fore part of the fossa we described in speaking of the temporal bone — In this joint there is a moveable cartilage, which being more closely connected to the condyle than to the cavity, may be considered as belonging to the former. — This moveable cartilage is connected with both the articulating surface of the
temporal

temporal bone and the condyle of the jaw, by distinct ligaments arising from its edges all round. These attachments of the cartilage are strengthened, and the whole articulation secured, by an external ligament, which is common to both, and which is fixed to the temporal bone, and to the neck of the condyle. On the inner surface of the ligament, which attaches the cartilage to the temporal bone, and backwards in the cavity, is placed what is commonly called the gland of the joint; at least the ligament is there found to be much more vascular than at any other part*.

At the bottom of each coronoid process, on its inner part, is a foramen or canal, which extends under the roots of all the teeth, and terminates at the outer surface of the bone near the chin. Each of these foramina affords a passage to an artery, vein, and nerve, which send off branches to the several teeth.

This bone is capable of a great many motions. The condyles, by sliding from

* Hunter on the Teeth,

the cavity towards the eminences on each side, bring the jaw horizontally forwards, as in the action of biting; or the condyles only may be brought forwards, while the rest of the jaw is tilted backwards, as is the case when the mouth is open. The condyles may also slide alternately backwards and forwards from the cavity to the eminence, and *vice versa*; so that while one condyle advances, the other moves backwards, turning the body of the jaw from side to side, as in grinding the teeth. The great use of the cartilages seems to be that of securing the articulation, by adapting themselves to the different inequalities in these several motions of the jaw, and to prevent any injuries from friction. This last circumstance is of great importance where there is so much motion, and accordingly this cartilage is found * in the different tribes of carnivorous animals, where there is no eminence and cavity, nor other apparatus for grinding.

THE alveolar processes are formed of an external and internal plate, united toge-

* Hunter on the Teeth.

ther by thin bony partitions, which divide the processes at the fore part of the jaw into as many sockets as there are teeth. But, at the posterior part, where the teeth have more than one root, each root has a distinct cell. These processes in both jaws, begin to be formed with the teeth, accompany them in their growth, and disappear when the teeth fall. So that the loss of the one seems constantly to be attended with the loss of the other.

Of the Teeth.

IN early infancy nature designs us for the softest aliment, so that the gums alone are then sufficient for the purpose of mastication; but as we advance in life, and require a different food, she wisely provides us with teeth. These are the hardest and whitest of our bones, and, at full maturity, we usually find thirty-two in both jaws; viz. sixteen above, and as many below. Their number varies indeed in different subjects; but I have never seen it exceed thirty-two, and it will very rarely be found to be less than twenty-eight.

EACH

EACH tooth may be divided into two parts; viz. its body, or that part which appears above the gums; and its fangs or root, which is fixed into the socket. The boundary between these two, close to the edge of the gum, where there is usually a small circular depression, is called the neck of the tooth.—The teeth of each jaw are commonly divided into three classes; but before we speak of each of these in particular, it will be right to say something of their general structure.

WE may begin therefore with observing, that every tooth is composed of its cortex or enamel, and its internal bony substance. The enamel, or, as it is sometimes called, the vitreous part of the tooth, is a very hard and compact substance, of a white colour, and peculiar to the teeth. It is found only upon the body of the tooth, covering the outside of the bony or internal substance. When broken it appears fibrous or striated; and all the striæ are directed from the circumference* to the center of the tooth.

* Hunter on the Teeth,

This enamel is thickest on the grinding surface, and on the cutting edges or points of the teeth, becoming gradually thinner as it approaches the neck, where it terminates insensibly. It would seem to be an earth, united with a portion of animal substance, as it is not reducible to quick lime by fire, till it has first been dissolved in an acid *. But, as yet, we are by no means able to ascertain its real nature. Some writers have described it as being vascular, but it is certain that no injection will ever reach this substance; that it receives no tinge from madder; and that it affords no appearance of a circulation of fluids.

THE bony part of a tooth resembles other bones in its structure, but is much harder than the most compact part of bones in general. It composes the inner part of the body and neck, and the whole of the root of the tooth.

THIS part of a tooth, when completely formed, does not, like the other bones, re-

* Nat. Hist. of the Human Teeth.

ceive a tinge from madder, nor do the minutest injections penetrate into its substance, although many writers have asserted the contrary. Mr. Hunter has been therefore induced* to deny its being vascular, although he is aware that the teeth, like other bones, are liable to swellings, and that they are found anchylosed with their sockets. He supposes, however, that both these may be original formations; and, as the most convincing proof of their not being vascular, he reasons from the analogy between them and other bones. He observes, for instance, that in a young animal that has been fed with madder, the parts of the teeth which were formed before it was put on the madder diet will appear of their natural colour, but that such parts as were formed while the animal was taking the madder, will be of a red colour; whereas, in other bones, the hardest parts are susceptible of the dye, though more slowly than the parts which are growing. Again, he tells us, that if you leave off feeding the animal with madder a considerable time before you kill it,

* Natural History of the Teeth.

you will find the above appearances still subsisting, with this addition, that all the parts of the teeth which were formed after leaving off the madder will be white. This experiment proves that a tooth once tinged does not lose its colour; whereas other bones do (though very slowly) return again to their natural appearance: and, as the dye in this case must be taken into the habit by absorbents, he is led to suspect that the teeth are without absorbents as well as other vessels.

THESE arguments are very ingenious, but to me they are far from being satisfactory. I even think the facts adduced by Mr. Hunter capable of a different explanation from that which he has given them; and when to these I add certain other facts relative to the same subject, I own that I do not hesitate to believe that this bony part of a tooth has a circulation through its substance, and even lymphatics, although, from the hardness of its structure, we are unable to demonstrate its vessels. My reasons for differing from Mr. Hunter on this occasion are as follows: 1st. We find that a tooth recently drawn, and

and transplanted into another socket, becomes as firmly fixed after a certain time, and preserves the same colour as the rest of the set; whereas a tooth that has been long drawn before it is transplanted, will never become fixed. Mr. Hunter indeed is aware of this objection, and refers the success of the transplantation, in the first instance, to the living principle possessed by the tooth, and which he thinks may exist independent of a circulation. But however applicable such a doctrine may be to zoophytes, I suspect that it will not hold good in man, and others of the more perfect animals; and I have no doubt but that, in the case of a transplanted tooth, there is a real union by vessels. 2dly. The swellings of the fangs of a tooth, which in many instances are known to be the effects of disease, and which are analogous to the swellings of other bones, are a clear proof of a similarity of structure, especially as we find them invested with a periosteum. 3dly. It is a curious fact, though as yet perhaps not generally known, that, in cases of phthisis pulmonalis, the teeth become of a milky whiteness, and,

in some degree, transparent; and this, I think, sufficiently proves them to have absorbents,

EACH tooth has an inner cavity, which, beginning by a small opening at the point of the fang, becomes larger, and terminates in the body of the tooth,

THIS cavity is supplied with blood-vessels and nerves, which pass through the small hole in the root. In old people this hole sometimes closes, and the tooth becomes then insensible.

THE teeth are invested with a periosteum, from their fangs to a little beyond their bony sockets, where it is attached to the gums. This membrane seems to be common to the tooth which it incloses, and to the sockets which it lines,

THE teeth are likewise secured in their sockets by a red substance, called the *gums*, which every where covers the alveolar processes, and has as many perforations as there
are

are teeth. The gums are exceedingly vascular, and have something like a cartilaginous hardness and elasticity, but do not seem to have much sensibility. The gums of infants, which perform the offices of teeth, have a hard ridge extending through their whole length; but in old people, who have lost their teeth, this ridge is wanting.

THE three classes into which the teeth are commonly divided, are *incisores*, *canini*, and *molares* or *grinders*. The *incisores* are the four teeth in the fore part of the jaws; they derive their name from their use in dividing and cutting the food in the manner of a wedge, and have each of them two surfaces, which meet in a sharp edge. Of these surfaces, the anterior one is convex, and the posterior one somewhat concave. In the upper jaw they are usually broader and thicker, especially the two first, than those of the under jaw, over which they generally fall by being placed a little obliquely.

THE *canini** are the longest of all the teeth, deriving their name from their resem-

* Mr. Hunter gives them the name of *cuspidati*.

blance

blance to a dog's tusks. There is one of these teeth on each side of the incisors, so that there are two in each jaw. They are the longest of all the teeth. Their fangs differ from that of the incisors only in being much larger, and their shape may be easily described to be that of an incisor with its edge worn off, so as to end in a narrow point instead of a thin edge.

THE canini not being calculated for dividing like the incisors, or for grinding, seem to be intended for laying hold of substances. Mr. Hunter remarks of these teeth*, that we may trace in them a similarity in shape, situation, and use, from the most imperfect carnivorous animal, which we believe to be the human species, to the lion, which is the most perfectly carnivorous.

THE grinders, or molares, of which there are ten in each jaw, are so called, because from their size and figure they are calculated for grinding the food. The canini and incisors have only one fang, but the three last

* Nat. Hist. of the Human Teeth.

grinders

grinders in the under jaw have constantly two fangs, and the same teeth in the upper jaw three fangs. Sometimes these fangs are divided into two points near their base, and each of these points has, perhaps, been sometimes considered as a distinct fang. The grinders likewise differ from each other in their appearance. The two first on each side, which Mr. Hunter appears to have distinguished very properly by the name of *bicuspides* *, seem to be of a middle nature between the incisores and grinders; they have in general only one root, and the body of the tooth terminates in two points, of which the anterior one is the highest, so that the tooth has in some measure the appearance of one of the canini. The two grinders beyond these, on each side, are much larger. Their body forms almost a square with rounded angles; and their grinding surface has commonly five points or protuberances, two of which are on the inner, and three on the outer part of the tooth.

THE last grinder is shorter and smaller than the rest, and; from its coming through

* Nat. Hist. of the Human Teeth.

the gums later than the rest, and sometimes not appearing till late in life, is called *dentes sapientiæ*. The variation in the number of teeth usually depends on these *dentes sapientiæ*.

HAVING thus described the appearance of the teeth in the adult, let us next consider the manner of their formation and growth in the *fœtus*. We shall find that the alveolar process, which begins to be formed at a very early period, appears, about the fourth month, only as a shallow longitudinal groove, divided by slight ridges into a number of intermediate depressions, which are to be the future alveoli or sockets. These depressions are at first filled with small pulpy substances, included in a vascular membrane; and these pulpy substances are the rudiments of the teeth. As these advance in their growth, the alveolar processes become gradually more completely formed. The surface of the pulp first begins to harden; the ossification proceeding from one or more points, according to the kind of tooth that is to be formed. Thus, in the incisores and
canini,

canini, it begins from one point; in the bicuspides, from two points, corresponding with the future shape of those teeth; and in the molares, from four or five points.—

As the ossification advances, the whole of the pulp is gradually covered with bone, excepting its under surface, and then the fang begins to be formed. Soon after the formation of this bony part, the tooth begins to be incrusted with its enamel; but in what manner this is deposited we are as yet unable to explain. Perhaps the vascular membrane, which incloses the pulp, may serve to secrete it. It gradually crystallizes upon the surface of the bony part, and continues to increase in thickness, especially at the points and basis of the tooth, till some time before the tooth begins to pass through the gum; and when this happens, the enamel seems to be as hard as it is afterwards*, so that the air does not appear to have the least effect in hardening it, as has been sometimes supposed.

WHILE the enamel is thus forming, the lower part of the pulp is gradually length-

* Hunter on the Teeth,

ened

ened out and ossified, so as to form the fang. In those teeth which are to have more than one fang, the ossification begins from different parts of the pulp at one and the same time.—In this manner are formed the incisores, the canini, and two molares on each side, making, in the whole, twenty teeth, in both jaws, which are sufficient for the purposes of manducation in early life. As the fangs of the teeth are formed, their upper part is gradually pushed upwards, till at length, about the seventh, eighth, or ninth month * after birth, the incisores, which are the first formed, begin to pass through the gum. The first that appears is generally in the lower jaw. The canini and molares not being formed so soon as the incisores, do not appear till about the twentieth or twenty-fourth month. Sometimes one of the canini, but more frequently one of the molares, appears first.

* There are some few instances upon record, of children who have come into the world with several teeth. Pliny relates, that M. Curius was surnamed *Dentatus* from this circumstance. Rzaciński, in his Nat. Hist. of Poland, speaks of a boy who was born with molares. Baron Haller, in his Physiology, has taken the pains to quote some other cases of the same kind.

THE danger to which children are exposed, during the time of dentition, arises from the pressure of the teeth in the gum, so as to irritate it, and excite pain and inflammation. The effect of this irritation is, that the gum wastes, and becomes gradually thinner at this part, till at length the tooth protrudes. In such cases therefore we may, with great propriety, assist nature by cutting the gum.

THESE twenty teeth are called the *temporary*, or *milk* teeth, because they are all shed between the age of seven and fourteen, and are supplied by others of a firmer texture, with larger fangs, which remain till they become affected by disease, or fall out in old age, and are therefore called the *permanent*, or *adult* teeth. The rudiments of these adult teeth begin to be formed at different periods. The pulp of the first adult incisor, and of the first adult grinder, may be perceived in a foetus of seven or eight months, and the ossification begins in them about six months after birth. Soon after birth the second incisor, and the canine tooth on each side,

side, begin to be formed. About the fifth or sixth year the first bicuspis, and about the seventh the second bicuspis, begin to ossify. These bicuspides are destined to replace the temporary grinders. All these permanent teeth are formed in a distinct set of alveoli; so that it is not by the growing of one tooth under another, in the same socket, that the uppermost tooth is gradually pushed out, as is commonly imagined; but the temporary teeth, and those which are to succeed them, being placed in separate alveoli, the upper sockets gradually disappear, as the under ones increase in size, till at length the teeth they contain, having no longer any support, consequently fall out.

BUT, besides these twenty teeth which succeed the temporary ones, there are twelve others to be added, to make up the number thirty-two. These twelve are three grinders on each side in both jaws; and, in order to make room for this addition, we find the jaws grow as the teeth grow, so that they appear as completely filled with twenty teeth, as they are afterwards with thirty-two.

two. Hence, in children the face is flatter and rounder than in adults.

THE first adult grinder usually passes through the gum about the twelfth year; the second, which begins to be formed in the sixth or seventh year, cuts the gum about the seventeenth or eighteenth; and the third, or dens sapientiæ, which begins to be formed about the twelfth year, passes through the gum between the age of twenty and thirty. The dentes sapientiæ have, in some instances, been cut at the age of forty, fifty, sixty, and even eighty years; and it sometimes happens that they do not appear at all.

SOMETIMES likewise it happens, that a third set of teeth appear about the age of sixty or seventy. I have never seen any instance of this kind myself, but there is no doubt that such cases do now and then occur. Diemerbroeck* tells us, that he himself, at the age of fifty-six, had a fresh canine tooth in the place of one he had lost several years

* Anat. Corp. Human.

before; M. du Fay * saw two incisores and two canini cut the gum in a man aged eighty-four; Mr. Hunter † has seen two fore-teeth shoot up in the lower jaw of a very old person; and an account was lately published, of a man who had a complete set at the age of sixty ‡. Other instances of the same kind are to be met with in authors. The circumstance is curious, and, from the time of life at which it takes place, and the return of the catamenia, which sometimes happens in women at the same age, it has been very ingeniously supposed ||, that there is some effort in nature to renew the body at that period.

THE teeth are subject to a variety of accidents. Sometimes the gums become so affected as to occasion them to fall out, and the teeth themselves are frequently rendered carious by causes which have not hitherto been satisfactorily explained. The disease usually begins on that side of the tooth

* Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1730. † Nat. Hist. of the Teeth. ‡ Med. Comm. of Edin. vol. iii. || Hunter's Nat. Hist. of the Teeth.

which

which is not exposed to pressure, and gradually advances, till an opening is made into the cavity : as soon as the cavity is exposed, the tooth becomes liable to considerable pain, from the air coming into contact with the nerve.

BESIDES these accidental means by which the teeth are occasionally affected, old age seldom fails to bring with it sure and natural causes for their removal. The alveoli fill up, and the teeth consequently fall out. The gums then no longer meet in the fore part of the mouth, the chin projects forwards, and the face being rendered much shorter, the whole physiognomy appears considerably altered.

HAVING thus described the formation, structure, growth, and decay of the teeth, it remains for us to speak of their uses ; the chief of which we know to be in mastication. And here we cannot help observing the great variety in the structure of the human teeth, which fits us for such a variety of food, and which, when compared with the

teeth given to other animals, may, in some measure, enable us to explain the nature of the aliment for which man is intended by nature. Thus, in ruminant animals we find incisores only in the lower jaw, for cutting the grass, and molares for grinding it; in graminivorous animals, we see molares alone; and in carnivorous animals, canine teeth, for catching at their prey, and incisores and molares, for cutting and dividing it. But, as man is not designed to catch and kill his prey with his teeth, we observe that our canini are shaped differently from the fangs of beasts of prey, in whom we find them either longer than the rest of the teeth, or curved. The incisores likewise are sharper in those animals than in man. Nor are the molares in the human subject similar to the molares of carnivorous animals; they are flatter in man than in these animals; and, in the latter, we likewise find them sharper at the edges, more calculated to cut and tear the food, and, by their greater strength, capable of breaking the bones of animals. From these circumstances, therefore, we may consider man as partaking of the nature

ture of these different classes; as approaching more to the carnivorous than to the herbivorous tribe of animals; but, upon the whole, formed for a mixed aliment, and fitted equally to live upon flesh and upon vegetables. Those philosophers, therefore, who would confine man wholly to a vegetable food, do not seem to have studied nature. As the molares are the last teeth that are formed, so they are usually the first that fall out; this would seem to prove, that we require the same kind of aliment in old age as in infancy.

BESIDES the use of the teeth in mastication, they likewise serve a secondary purpose, by assisting in the articulation of the voice.

Of the Os Hyoides.

THIS bone, which is situated between the root of the tongue and the larynx, derives its name from its supposed resemblance to the Greek letter υ, and is by some writers described along with the parts con-

tained in the mouth. It is indeed feldom preserved with the skeleton*, but as we find it, in many subjects, attached to the styloid process of the temporal bone, on each side, by means of a ligament, we may, perhaps, with the generality of authors, place it with more propriety after the bones of the face. Ruyfch † has seen these ligaments so completely ossified, that the os hyoides was joined to the temporal bones by anchylosis.

IN describing this bone, we may distinguish in it, its body, horns, and appendices.

THE body is the middle and broadest part of the bone, so placed, that it may be easily felt with the finger in the fore part of the throat. Its fore part, which is placed towards the tongue, is irregularly convex, and its inner surface, which is turned towards the larynx, is unequally concave. The *cornua*, or horns, which are flat and a little

* Mr. Cheselden, in his *Osteographia*, has wholly omitted this bone.

† Advers. Anat. dec. 3.

bent, are considerably longer than the body of the bone, and may be said to form the sides of the *v.* These horns are thickest near the body of the bone. At the extremity of each we observe a round tubercle, from which a ligament passes to the thyroid cartilage. The appendices, or lesser horns, (*cornua minora*,) as they are called by some writers, are two small processes, which, in their size and shape, are somewhat like a grain of wheat. They rise up, from the articulations of the *cornua* with the body of the bone, and are sometimes connected with the styloid process, on each side, by means of a ligament. It is not unusual to find small portions of bone in these ligaments; and Ruysch, as we have already observed, has seen them completely ossified.

IN the fœtus almost the whole of the bone is in a cartilaginous state; excepting a small point of bone in the middle of its body, and in each of its horns. The appendices do not begin to appear till after birth, and usually remain cartilaginous many years.

THE os hyoides serves to support the tongue, and affords attachment to a variety of muscles, some of which perform the motions of the tongue, while others act on the larynx and fauces.

CHAP.

C H A P. III.

Of the Bones of the Trunk.

THE trunk of the skeleton is composed of the spine, the pelvis, and the thorax.

S E C T I O N I.

Of the Spine.

THE spine is a long bony column, which extends from the head to the lower part of the trunk, and is the great support of the whole body.

It is made up of a great number of bones, called vertebræ.

It may be considered as being composed of two irregular pyramids, which are united to each other in that part of the loins where the last of the lumbar vertebræ is united to the os sacrum.

THE

THE vertebræ, which form the upper and longest pyramid, are called true vertebræ; and those which compose the lower pyramid, or the os sacrum and the coccyx, are termed false vertebræ, because they do not in every thing resemble the others; and particularly because, in the adult state, they become perfectly immoveable, whilst the upper ones continue to be capable of motion.—For it is upon the bones of the spine that the body turns, and their name has its derivation from the Latin verb *vertere*, which signifies *to turn*.

THE true vertebræ, from their situation with respect to the neck, back, and loins, are divided into three classes, of *cervical*, *dorsal*, and *lumbar* vertebræ. We will first consider the general structure of all these, and then separately describe their different classes.

IN each of the vertebræ, as in other bones, we may remark the body of the bone, its processes and cavities.—The body may be compared to part of a cylinder cut off transversely;

versely : convex before, and concave behind, where it makes part of the cavity of the spine.

EACH vertebra has commonly seven processes. The first of these is the *spinous* process, which is placed at the back part of the vertebra, and gives the name of spine to the whole of this bony canal. Two others are called *transverse* processes, from their situation with respect to the spine, and are placed on each side of the spinous process. The four others, which are called *oblique* processes, are much smaller than the other three. There are two of these on the upper, and two on the lower part of each vertebra, rising from near the basis of the transverse processes. They are sometimes called *articular* processes, because they are articulated with each other ; that is, the two superior processes of one vertebra are articulated with the two inferior processes of the vertebra above it : and they are called oblique processes, from their situation with respect to the processes with which they are articulated. These oblique processes are articulated to
each

each other by a species of ginglymus, and each process is covered at its articulation with cartilage.

THERE is in every vertebra, between its body and apophyses, a foramen, large enough to admit a finger. These foramina correspond with each other through all the vertebræ, and form a long bony conduit, for the lodgment of the spinal marrow.

BESIDES this great hole, there are four notches on each side of every vertebra, between the oblique processes and the body of the vertebra. Two of these notches are at the upper, and two at the lower part of the bone. Each of the inferior notches, meeting with one of the superior notches of the vertebra below it, forms a foramen; whilst the superior notches do the same with the inferior notches of the vertebra above it. These four foramina form passages for blood-vessels, and for the nerves that pass out of the spine.

THE vertebræ are united together by means of a substance, compressible like cork, which

which forms a kind of partition between the feveral vertebræ. This intervertebral fubftance feems, in the fœtus, to approach nearly to the nature of ligaments; in the adult, it has a greater refemblance to cartilage. When cut horizontally, it appears to confift of concentrical curved fibres*; externally, it is firmeft and hardeft; internally, it becomes thinner and fofter, till at length, in the center, we find it in the form of a mucous fubftance, which facilitates the motions of the fpine.

GENGA, an Italian anatomift, long ago obferved †, that the change which takes place in thefe intervertebral cartilages, (as they are ufually called,) in advanced life, occasions the decrease in ftature, and the ftoothing forwards, which are ufually to be obferved in old people. The cartilages then become shrivelled, and confequently lofe, in a great meafure, their elasticity. But, befides this gradual effect of old age, thefe cartilages are fubject to a temporary dimi-

* Morgagni Adverfar. iii.

† Iftoria Anat. dell' Offa e Mufcoli del Corpo Umano.

nution,

nution, from the weight of the body in an erect posture, so that people who have been long standing, or have carried a considerable weight, are found to be shorter than when they have been long in bed. Hence we are taller in the morning than at night. This fact, though seemingly obvious, was not ascertained till of late years*. The difference in such cases depends on the age, and size of the subject; in tall, young people, it will be nearly an inch; but in older, or shorter persons, it will be less considerable.

BESIDES the connection of the several vertebræ, by means of these cartilages, there are likewise many strong ligaments, which unite the bones of the spine to each other. Some of these ligaments are external, and others internal. Among the external ligaments, we observe one which is common to all the vertebræ, extending, in a longitudinal direction, from the fore part of the body of the second vertebra of the neck, over all the other vertebræ, and becoming broader as it descends towards the os sacrum, where it

* Phil. Transact. 1724.—Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1725.

becomes

becomes thinner, and gradually disappears. This external longitudinal ligament, if we may so call it, is strengthened by other shorter ligamentous fibres, which pass from one vertebra to another, throughout the whole spine. The internal ligament, the fibres of which, like the external one, are spread in a longitudinal direction, is extended over the back part of the bodies of the vertebræ, where they help to form the cavity of the spine, and reaches from the foramen magnum of the occipital bone to the os sacrum.

WE may venture to remark, that all the vertebræ diminish in density and firmness of texture, in proportion as they increase in size; so that the lower vertebræ, though larger, are not so heavy in proportion as those above them. In consequence of this mode of structure, the size of the vertebræ is increased without adding to their weight; and this is an object of no little importance, in a part of the body, which, besides flexibility and suppleness, seems to require lightness as one of its essential properties.

IN the foetus, at the ordinary time of birth, each vertebra is found to be composed of three bony pieces, connected by cartilages which afterwards ossify. One of these pieces is the body of the bone; the other two are the posterior and lateral portions, which form the foramen for the medulla spinalis. The oblique processes are at that time complete, and the transverse processes beginning to be formed; but the spinous processes are totally wanting.

Of the Cervical Vertebrae.

THESE are seven in number—their bodies are smaller and of a firmer texture than the other bones of the spine. The transverse processes of these vertebræ are short, and forked for the lodgment of muscles; and, at the bottom of each of these processes, there is a foramen, for the passage of the cervical artery and vein. The spinous process of each of these vertebræ is likewise shorter than in the other vertebræ, and forked at its extremity; by which means it allows a more convenient insertion to the
 muscles

than the anterior one. Instead of a spinous process, we observe a rising or tubercle, larger than that which we have just now described, on the fore part of the bone.—The lateral portions of the vertebra project, so as to form what are called the transverse processes, one on each side, which are longer and larger than the transverse processes of the other vertebræ. They terminate in a roundish tubercle, the end of which has a slight bend downwards. Like the other transverse processes, they are perforated at their basis, for the passage of the cervical artery.—But, besides these transverse processes, we observe, both on the superior and inferior surface of these lateral portions of the first vertebra, an articulating surface, covered with cartilage, answering to the oblique processes in the other vertebræ. The uppermost of these are oblong, and slightly concave, and their external edges rise somewhat higher than their internal brims. They receive the condyloid processes of the os occipitis, with which they are articulated by a species of ginglymus. The lowermost articulating surfaces, or the inferior oblique
pro-

processes, as they are called, are large, concave, and circular, and are formed for receiving the superior oblique processes of the second vertebra; so that the Atlas differs from the rest of the cervical vertebræ in receiving the bones, with which it is articulated both above and below.

IN the fœtus we find this vertebra composed of five, instead of three pieces, as in the other vertebræ. One of these is the anterior arch; the other four are the posterior arch and the sides, each of the latter being composed of two pieces. The transverse process, on each side, remains long in a state of epiphysis with respect to the rest of the bone.

THE second vertebra is called *dentata*, from the process on the upper part of its body, which has been, though perhaps improperly, compared to a tooth. This process, which is the most remarkable part of the vertebra, is of a cylindrical shape, slightly flattened, however, behind and before. Anteriorly it has a convex, smooth, articulating

surface, where it is received by the Atlas, as we observed in our description of that vertebra. It is by means of this articulation that the rotatory motion of the head is performed; the articulation of the os occipitis with the superior oblique processes of the first vertebra, allowing only a certain degree of motion backwards and forwards, so that, when we turn the face either to the right or left, the Atlas moves upon this odontoid process of the second vertebra. But, as the face cannot turn a quarter of a circle, that is, to the shoulder, upon this vertebra alone, without being liable to injure the medulla spinalis, we find that all the cervical vertebræ concur in this rotatory motion, when it is in any considerable degree; and indeed we see many strong ligamentous fibres arising from the sides of the odontoid process, and passing over the first vertebra, to the os occipitis, which not only strengthen the articulation of these bones with each other, but serve to regulate and limit their motion. It is on this account that the name of *moderators* has sometimes been given to these ligaments.

THE transverse processes of the vertebra dentata are short, inclined downwards, and forked at their extremities. Its spinous process is short and thick. Its superior oblique processes are slightly convex, and somewhat larger than the articulating surfaces of the first vertebra, by which mechanism, the motion of that bone upon this second vertebra is performed with greater safety. Its inferior oblique processes have nothing singular in their structure.

THE seventh vertebra of the neck differs from the rest chiefly in having its spinous process of a greater length, so that, upon this account, it has been sometimes called *vertebra prominens*.

Of the Dorsal Vertebrae.

THESE vertebrae, which are twelve in number, are of a middle size, between the cervical and lumbar vertebrae; the upper ones gradually losing their resemblance to those of the neck, and the lower ones

coming nearer to those of the loins.—The bodies of these vertebræ are more flattened at their sides, more convex before, and more concave behind, than the other bones of the spine.—Their upper and lower surfaces are horizontal.—At their sides we observe two depressions, one at their upper, and the other at their lower edge, which, united with similar depressions in the vertebræ above and below, form articulating surfaces, covered with cartilage, in which the heads of the ribs are received. These depressions, however, are not exactly alike in all the dorsal vertebræ; for we find the head of the first rib articulated solely with the first of these vertebræ, which has therefore the whole of the superior articulating surface within itself, independent of the vertebra above it. We may likewise observe a similarity in this respect in the eleventh and twelfth of the dorsal vertebræ, with which the eleventh and twelfth ribs are articulated separately.—Their spinous processes are long, flattened at the sides, divided at their upper and back part into two surfaces by a middle ridge, which is received by a small groove

in

in the inner part of the spinous process immediately above it, and connected to it by a ligament. These spinous processes are terminated by a kind of round tubercle, which slopes considerably downwards, except in the three lowermost vertebræ, where they are shorter and more erect.—Their transverse processes are of considerable length and thickness, and are turned obliquely backwards. Anteriorly they have an articulating surface, for receiving the tuberosity of the ribs, except in the eleventh and twelfth of the dorsal vertebræ, to which the ribs are articulated by their heads only. In the last of these vertebræ the transverse processes are very short and thick, because otherwise they would be apt to strike against the lowermost ribs, when we bend the body to either side.

Of the Lumbar Vertebræ.

THESE, which are the lowest of the true vertebræ, are five in number. They are larger than the dorsal vertebræ. Their bodies are extremely prominent, and nearly

of a circular form at their fore part; posteriorly they are concave. Their intermediate cartilages are of considerable thickness, especially anteriorly, by which means the curvature of the spine forwards, towards the abdomen, in this part, is greatly assisted. Their spinous processes are short and thick, of considerable breadth, erect, and terminated by a kind of tuberosity. Their oblique processes are of considerable thickness; the superior ones are concave, and turned inwards; the inferior ones convex, and turned outwards.—Their transverse processes are thin, and long, except in the first and last vertebra, where they are much shorter, that the lateral motions of the trunk might not be impeded. The inferior surface of all these vertebræ is slightly oblique, so that the fore part of the body of each is somewhat thicker than its hind part; but this is more particularly observable in the lowermost vertebra, which is connected with the os sacrum,

of

Of the False Vertebrae.

WE have already observed that these are composed of two bones, viz. the os sacrum and os coccygis.

Of the Os Sacrum.

THE os sacrum derives its name from its being offered in sacrifice by the ancients, or rather from its supporting the organs of generation, which they considered as sacred.

IN young subjects it is composed of five or six pieces, united by cartilage; but in more advanced age it becomes one bone, in which, however, we may still easily distinguish the marks of the former separation. Its shape has sometimes been compared to an irregular triangle; and sometimes, and perhaps more properly, to a pyramid, flattened before and behind, with its basis placed towards the lumbar vertebrae, and its point terminating in the coccyx. We find it con-

vex

vex behind, and slightly concave before, with its inferior portion bent a little forwards. Its anterior surface is smooth, and affords four, and sometimes five, transverse lines, of a colour different from the rest of the bone. These are the remains of the intermediate cartilages, by which its several pieces were united in infancy.—Its posterior convex surface has several prominences, the most remarkable of which are its spinous processes; these are usually three in number, and gradually become shorter, so that the third is not so long as the second, nor the second as the first. This arrangement enables us to sit with ease.—Its transverse processes are formed into one oblong process, which becomes gradually smaller as it descends.—At the superior part of the bone we observe two oblique processes, of a cylindrical shape, and somewhat concave, which are articulated with the last of the lumbar vertebræ. At the base of each of these oblique processes is a notch, which, with such another in the vertebra above it, forms a passage for the twenty-fourth spinal nerve. In viewing this bone, either before

or behind, we observe four, and sometimes five, holes on each side, situate at each extremity of the transverse lines we described as marking the divisions of the bone. Of these holes, the anterior ones, and of these again, the uppermost, are the largest, and afford a passage to the nerves. The posterior holes are smaller, covered with membranes, and destined for the same purpose as the former. Sometimes at the bottom of the bone there is only a notch, and sometimes there is a hole common to it and the os coccygis.

THE cavity, between the body of this bone and its processes, for the lodgment of the spinal marrow, is triangular, and becomes smaller as it descends, till at length it terminates obliquely on each side at the lower part of the bone. Below the third division of the bone, however, the canal is no longer completely bony, as in the rest of the spine, but is defended posteriorly only by a very strong membrane; hence a wound in this part may be attended with the most dangerous consequences.

THIS

THIS bone is articulated above, as we have seen, with the last lumbar vertebra; laterally, it is firmly united, by a broad irregular surface, to the ossa innominata, or hip bones; and below, it is joined to the os coccygis. In women the os sacrum is usually shorter, broader, and more curved, than in men, by which means the cavity of the pelvis is more enlarged.

Of the Os Coccygis.

THIS bone, which has got its name from its supposed resemblance to a cuckow's beak, is placed at the extremity of the os sacrum, and in its figure may be said to resemble that bone in miniature. It is nearly of a triangular shape, convex behind, and concave before, and is originally composed of three, and sometimes of four pieces, which become one bone in the adult state, and, in the old subject, are sometimes found completely ossified with the os sacrum.—By some writers it has been called *os caudæ*, because the tails of animals are formed by a prolongation of this bone,

IT

It is broadest at its upper part, where it is united by a slight concave surface, lined with cartilage, to the os sacrum, and from thence it grows narrower to its apex.—It differs very much from the vertebræ, being usually without processes, and having no cavity for the medulla spinalis, or foramina for the passage of nerves.—Its chief use seems to be to support the intestinum rectum; and, by its being capable of some degree of motion at its articulation with the os sacrum, and being like that bone bent forwards, we are enabled to sit with ease.—Its motion backwards may likewise be useful in parturition, by enlarging the inferior opening of the pelvis.

Now that we have finished the anatomical description of the spine, it will be right to say something of its properties and uses.—We find the spinal marrow lodged in its bony canal, secure from external injury.—It defends the thoracic and abdominal viscera, and forms a pillar which supports the head, and gives a general firmness to the whole trunk.

To

To give it a firm basis, we find the bodies of the vertebræ gradually increasing in breadth as they descend; and to fit it for a variety of motion, it is composed of a great number of joints, with an intermediate elastic substance, so that to great firmness there is added a perfect flexibility.

WE have already observed, that the lowermost and largest vertebræ are not so heavy in proportion as those above them; their bodies being more spongy, excepting at their circumference, where they are more immediately exposed to pressure; so that nature seems every where endeavouring to relieve us of an unnecessary weight of bone. But behind, where the spinal marrow is more exposed to injury, we find the processes composed of very hard bone; and the spinous processes are in general placed over each other in a slanting direction, so that a pointed instrument cannot easily get between them, excepting in the neck, where they are almost perpendicular, and leave a
greater

greater space between them. Hence, in some countries, it is usual to kill cattle by thrusting a pointed instrument between the occiput and the Atlas, or between the Atlas and the second vertebra.—Besides these uses of the vertebræ in defending the spinal marrow, and in articulating the several vertebræ, as is the case with the oblique processes, we shall find that they all serve to form a greater surface for the lodgment of muscles, and to enable the latter to act more powerfully on the trunk, by affording them a lever of considerable length.

In the neck, we see the spine projecting somewhat forwards, to support the head, which, without this assistance, would require a greater number of muscles. Through the whole length of the thorax it is carried in a curved direction backwards, and thus adds considerably to the cavity of the chest, and consequently affords more room to the lungs, heart, and large blood-vessels. In the loins the spine again projects forwards, in a direction with the

the centre of gravity, by which means the body is easily kept in an erect posture, for otherwise we should be liable to fall forwards. But, at its inferior part, it again recedes backwards, and helps to form a cavity called the pelvis, in which the urinary bladder, intestinum rectum, and other viscera, are placed.

In a part of the body that is composed of so great a number of bones, and constructed for such a variety of motion, as the spine is, luxation is more to be expected than fracture; and this is very wisely guarded against, in every direction, by the many processes that are to be found in each vertebra, and by the cartilages, ligaments, and other means of connection, which we have described as uniting them together.

S E C T I O N II.

Of the Bones of the Thorax.

THE ancients gave the name of *thorax* to all that part of the body which is included

cluded between the clavicles and pubis, but by this name we now understand only that cavity of the trunk which is formed by the sternum, ribs, and dorsal vertebræ.—The last of these were included in our description of the spine.

Of the Sternum.

THE sternum, os pectoris, or breast-bone, is the oblong, flat bone, placed at the fore part of the thorax.—The ossification of this bone in the foetus beginning from many different points at the same time, we find it, in young subjects, composed of several bones, united by cartilages; but, as we advance in life, most of these cartilages ossify, and the sternum, in the adult state, is found to consist of three, and sometimes only of two pieces, the two lower portions being united into one; and very often, in old subjects, the whole is formed into one bone. But, even in the latter case, we may still observe the marks of its former divisions; so that, in describing this bone, we

K

may

may very properly divide it into its upper, middle, and inferior portions.

THE upper portion forms an irregular square, which, without much reason, has, by many writers, been compared to the figure of a heart as it is painted on cards. It is of considerable thickness, especially at its upper part. Its anterior surface is irregular, and slightly convex; posteriorly, it is somewhat concave. Its upper middle part is hollowed, to make way for the trachea arteria. On each side, superiorly, we observe an oblong articulating surface, covered with cartilage in the recent subject, for receiving the ends of the clavicles.—Immediately below this, on each side, the bone becomes thinner, and we observe a rough surface for receiving the cartilage of the first rib, and, almost close to the inferior edge of this, we find the half of such another surface, which, combined with a similar surface in the middle portion of the sternum, serves for the articulation of the cartilage of the second rib.

THE

THE middle portion is much longer, narrower, and thinner than the former; but is somewhat broader and thinner below than above, where it is connected with the upper portion. The whole of its anterior surface is slightly convex, and within it is slightly concave. Its edge, on each side, affords four articulating surfaces, for the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth ribs; and parts of articulating surfaces at its upper and lower parts, for the second and seventh ribs.—About the middle of this portion of the sternum we sometimes find a considerable hole, large enough in some subjects to admit the end of the little finger. Sylvius* seems to have been the first who described it. Riolanus, and some others after him, have, without reason, supposed it to be more frequent in women than in men. In the recent subject it is closed by a cartilaginous substance; and, as it does not seem destined for the transmission of vessels, as some writers have asserted, we may, perhaps very properly, with M. Hunauld †, consider it as

* De Ossibus. † Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1740.

an accidental circumstance, occasioned by an interruption of the ossification, before the whole of this part of the bone is completely ossified.

THE third and inferior portion of the sternum is separated from the former by a line, which is seldom altogether obliterated, even in the oldest subjects. It is smaller than the other parts of the bone, and descends between the ribs, so as to have been considered as an appendix to the rest of the sternum. From its shape, and its being constantly in a state of cartilage in young subjects, it has been commonly named *cartilago xiphoides, ensiformis*, or sword-like cartilage; though many of the ancients gave the name of *xiphoides* to the whole sternum; comparing the two first bones to the handle, and this appendix to the blade of the sword.—The shape of this appendix varies in different subjects; in some it is longer and more pointed, in others shorter and more obtuse. Veslingius* has seen it reaching as low as the navel, and incommoding the motion of

* Syntagma Anat.

the trunk forwards. In general it terminates obtusely, or in a single point; sometimes, however, it is bifurcated, and Eustachius and Haller * have seen it trifid. Very often we find it perforated, for the transmission of branches of the mammary artery.—In the adult it is usually ossified and tipped with cartilage, but it very often continues cartilaginous through life, and Haller † once found it in this state in a woman who died in her hundredth year.

THE substance of the sternum, internally, is of a light, spongy texture, covered externally with a thin bony plate; hence it happens that this bone is easily fractured.—From the description we have given of it, its uses may be easily understood. We have seen it serving for the articulation of seven true ribs on each side, and hence we shall find it of considerable use in respiration. We likewise observed, that it is articulated with each of the clavicles. It serves for the origin and insertion of several muscles; it supports the mediastinum; and, lastly, de-

* *Physiol.* tom. vi. 8vo.† *Ibid.*

fends the heart and lungs: and it is observable, that we find a similar bone in almost all animals that have lungs, and even in such as have no ribs, of which latter we have an instance in the frog*.

Of the Ribs.

THE ribs are the long curved bones, which are placed in an oblique direction at the sides of the chest. Their number is generally twelve on each side; but, in some subjects, it has been found to be thirteen, and in others, though more rarely, only eleven. They are distinguished into true and false ribs.—The seven upper ribs, which are articulated to the sternum, are called *true ribs*; and the five lower ones, which are not immediately attached to that bone, are called *false ribs*. At the posterior extremity of each rib we observe a small head, divided by a middle ridge into two articulating surfaces, covered with cartilage, which are received into two cavities contiguous to each other, and formed in the upper and lower

* Haller. Phys. tom. vi. 8vo.

part of each dorsal vertebra, as we have already observed in our description of the spine. This articulation, which is secured by a capsular ligament, is a species of ginglymus, and allows only of motion upwards and downwards. The head of each rib is supported by a short neck, and immediately beyond this we find a flattened tubercle, affording an oblong and slightly convex surface, which is articulated with the transverse process of the lowest of the two dorsal vertebræ, with which its head is articulated. At some little distance from this tuberosity, the rib makes a considerable curve, which is usually called its angle. From the tubercle to the angle the ribs are of considerable thickness, and approaching to a cylindrical shape; but, from the angle to their anterior extremity, they become thinner and flatter. To this anterior extremity is fixed a long, broad, and strong cartilage, which, in each of the true ribs, reaches to the sternum, where its articulation is secured by a capsular ligament, and by other ligamentous fibres. The cartilages of the sixth and seventh ribs being longer than the rest, are

extended upwards, in order to reach the sternum, the inferior portion of which is about on a level with the fifth rib. The cartilages of these two ribs are usually united into one, so as to leave no space between them—The false ribs are supported in a different manner. Their cartilages terminate in an acute point before they reach the sternum, the eighth rib being attached by its cartilage to the lower edge of the cartilage of the seventh, or last of the true ribs; the ninth in the same manner to the eighth, and the tenth to the ninth; the cartilages of each rib being shorter than that of the rib above it. The eleventh and twelfth, which are the two lowermost ribs, are not fixed at their anterior extremities like the other ribs, but hang loose, and are supported only by their ligamentous fibres, and by muscles and other soft parts.

THE external surface of each rib is somewhat convex, and its internal surface slightly concave. On the inferior and interior surface of these bones we observe a long fossa, for the lodgment of the intercostal vessels
and

and nerves. This channel, however, does not extend through the whole length of the rib, being observable neither at the posterior extremity, where the vessels have not yet reached the bone, nor at the fore end, where they are distributed to the parts between the ribs. We seldom see any marks of it in the short ribs, as in the first, second, eleventh, and twelfth.

THUS far we have given a description, which is applicable to the ribs in general; but, as we find them differing from each other in shape, length, situation, and other respects, it will be right to speak of each rib in particular.

THE *first* rib, which is the shortest of any, is likewise the most curved. It is broader than the other ribs, and, instead of being placed, as they are, obliquely, and with its edges upwards and downwards, it is situated nearly in a transverse direction, one of its edges being placed inwards, or nearly so. Of these edges, the inner one is sharp, and the outer one somewhat rounded. Its inner
surface

surface is smooth, and its superior surface is sometimes slightly depressed anteriorly by the clavicle. The head of this rib, instead of being angular, is flattened, and slightly convex, being received into a cavity, which is formed wholly in the first vertebra, and not by two vertebræ, as is the case with the other ribs.

THE *second* rib is longer than the first, but shorter than the ribs below it. Its angle is placed at a small distance from its tuberosity, and its head is articulated with two vertebræ, like the other ribs.—The other ten ribs, the two last only excepted, differ from the general description we have given, chiefly in the difference of their length, which goes on gradually increasing, from the first or uppermost, to the seventh or last of the true ribs, and as gradually diminishing from that to the twelfth. Their obliquity, in respect to the spine, likewise increases as they descend, as does the distance between the head and angle of each rib, from the first rib to the ninth.—The two lowest ribs differ from all the rest in the following particulars. Their heads,

heads, like that of the first rib, are rounded, and received into a cavity formed entirely in the body of one vertebra; they have no tubercle for their articulation with the transverse processes, to which they are only loosely fixed by ligaments, and in this respect the tenth rib is sometimes found to agree with them; they are much shorter than the rest of the false ribs, and the twelfth is still shorter than the eleventh. The length of the latter, however, is different in different subjects, and is not always found to be the same on both sides in the same skeleton*. Anteriorly, as we have already observed, their cartilages are short and loose, not being attached to the cartilages of the other ribs; and this seems to be, because the most considerable motions of the trunk are not performed on the lumbar vertebræ alone, but likewise on the lower vertebræ of the back; so that if these two ribs had been confined anteriorly, like the rest, and likewise united to the bodies of two vertebræ, and to the transverse process, this disposition would have impeded the motion of the two

* Haller. *Physiol.* tom. vi. 8vo.

last vertebræ of the back, and consequently would have affected the motion of the trunk in general.

OF the motion and uses of the ribs we shall have occasion to speak hereafter.

S E C T I O N III.

Of the Pelvis.

THE pelvis, or basin, is that considerable cavity, which forms, as it were, the basis of the trunk of the skeleton. It is composed of the os sacrum, os coccygis, and two ossa innominata. The two first of these bones were included in our account of the spine, to which they more properly belong.

THE ossa innominata seem to have been so called from the irregularity of their figure, anatomists not having been able to find out any particular form to which they could compare them. This name, however, is now so universally established, that it would be
need-

needless to change it. Each os innominatum, in children, is composed of three distinct bones, but, as they advance in life, the marks of this separation gradually disappear, by the ossification of the cartilages by which they were united to each other; so that, about the fourteenth or fifteenth year, sometimes much sooner, and sometimes not till much later, they become one bone, still, however, continuing to retain the names of *ilium*, *ischium*, and *pubis*, by which their divisions were originally distinguished, and to be described as three distinct bones by all anatomical writers. The os ilium forms the upper and largest part of the bone, the os ischium its posterior and inferior portion, and the os pubis its anterior part.

Of the Os Ilium.

THE os ilium, or haunch bone, is of a very irregular shape. The lower part of it is thick and narrow; its superior portion is broad and thin, terminating in a ridge, called the *spine* of the ilium, and
more

more commonly known by the name of *the haunch*. This spine rises up like an arch, being turned somewhat outwards, and, from this appearance, the upper part of the pelvis, when viewed together, has not been improperly compared to the wings of a phaeton. This spine, in the recent subject, appears as if tipped with cartilage; but this appearance is nothing more than the tendinous fibres of the muscles that are inserted into it. Externally, this bone is unequally prominent, and hollowed for the attachment of muscles; and internally, at its broadest fore part, it is smooth and concave.—At its lower part there is a considerable ridge on its inner surface. This ridge, which extends from the os sacrum, and corresponds with a similar prominence, both on that bone and the ischium, forms, with the inner part of the ossa pubis, what is called the brim of the pelvis. The whole of the internal surface, behind this ridge, is very unequal.

THE os ilium has likewise a smaller surface posteriorly, by which it is articulated to the sides of the os sacrum. This surface has
by

by some been compared to a human ear, and by others to the head of a bird; but neither of these comparisons seem to convey any just idea of its form or appearance. Its upper part is rough and porous; lower down it is more solid. It is firmly united to the os sacrum by a cartilaginous substance, and likewise by very strong ligamentous fibres, which are extended to that bone from the whole circumference of this irregular surface.

THE spine of this bone, which is originally an epiphysis, has two considerable tuberosities, one anteriorly, and the other posteriorly, which is the largest of the two. The ends of this spine too, from their projecting more than the parts of the bone below them, are called spinal processes. Before the anterior spinal process the spine is hollowed, where part of the Sartorius muscle is placed, and below the posterior spinal process there is a very large niche in the bone, which, in the recent subject, has a strong ligament stretched over its lower part, from the os sacrum to the sharp-pointed process of the ischium; so that a great hole is formed, through

C. Harvey

through which pass the great sciatic nerve and the posterior crural vessels under the pyriform muscle, part of which is likewise lodged in this hole.—The lowest, thickest, and narrowest part of the ilium, in conjunction with the other two portions of each os innominatum, helps to form the acetabulum for the os femoris.

Of the Os Ischium.

THE os ischium, or hip-bone, which is the lowest of the three portions of each os innominatum, is of a very irregular figure, and usually divided into its body, tuberosity, and ramus.

THE body, externally, forms the inferior portion of the acetabulum, and sends a sharp-pointed process backwards, called the spine of the ischium. This is the process to which the ligament is attached, which we just now described as forming a great foramen for the passage of the sciatic nerve.—The tuberosity is large and irregular, and is placed at the
infe-

inferior part of the bone, giving origin to several muscles. In the recent subject it seems covered with a cartilaginous crust; but this appearance, as in the spine of the ilium, is nothing more than the tendinous fibres of the muscles that are inserted into it. This tuberosity, which is the lowest portion of the trunk, supports us when we sit. Between the spine and the tuberosity we observe a sinuosity, covered with a cartilaginous crust, which serves as a pulley, on which the obturator muscle plays.—From the tuberosity, the bone becoming narrower and thinner, forms the ramus or branch, which passing forwards and upwards, makes, with the ramus of the os pubis, a large hole of an oval shape, called the *foramen magnum ischii*, which affords, through its whole circumference, attachment to muscles. We shall have occasion to mention this foramen more particularly in describing the os pubis.

Of the Os Pubis.

THE os pubis, or share bone, which is the smallest of the three portions of the os

L

inno-

innominatum, is placed at the upper and fore part of the pelvis, where the two ossa pubis meet, and are united to each other by means of a very strong cartilage which constitutes what is called the *symphysis pubis*.

EACH os pubis may be divided into its body, angle, and ramus. The body, which is the outer part, is joined to the os ilium. The angle comes forwards to form the symphysis, and the ramus is a thin apophysis, which, uniting with the ramus of the ischium, forms the *foramen magnum ischii*, or *thyroideum*, as it has been sometimes called, from its resemblance to a door or shield. This foramen is somewhat wider above than below, and its greatest diameter is, from above downwards, and obliquely from within outwards. In the recent subject it is almost completely closed by a strong fibrous membrane, called the *obturator ligament*.—Upwards and outwards, where we observe a notch in the bone, the fibres of this ligament are separated, to allow a passage to the posterior crural nerve, an artery, and vein. The great uses of this foramen seem to be
to

to lighten the bones of the pelvis, and to afford a convenient lodgment to the obturator muscles.

THE three bones we have described as constituting the os innominatum on each side, all concur to form the great acetabulum, or cotyloid cavity, which receives the head of the thigh bone; the os ilium and os ischium making each about two fifths, and the os pubis one fifth, of the cavity. This acetabulum, which is of considerable depth, is of a spherical shape. Its brims are high, and, in the recent subject, are tipped with cartilage. These brims, however, are higher above and externally, than they are internally and below, where we observe a notch in the bone, (which is the ischium,) across which is stretched a ligament, forming a hole for the transmission of blood-vessels and nerves to the cavity of the joint. The cartilage, which lines the acetabulum, is thickest at its circumference, and thinner within, where a little hole is to be observed in which are placed the mucilaginous glands that serve to lubricate the joint, and facilitate

cilitate its motions. We are likewise able to discover the impression made by the internal ligament of the os femoris, which, by being attached both to this cavity and to the head of the os femoris, helps to secure the latter in the acetabulum.

THE bones of the pelvis serve to support the spine and upper parts of the body, to lodge the intestines, urinary bladder, and other viscera; and likewise to unite the trunk to the lower extremities. But, besides these uses, they are destined, in the female subject, for other important purposes; and the accoucheur finds, in the study of these bones, the foundation of all midwifery knowledge.

SEVERAL eminent writers are of opinion, that, in difficult parturition, all the bones of the pelvis undergo a certain degree of separation. It has been observed * likewise, that the cartilage uniting the ossa pubis, is thicker, and of a more spongy texture, in women than in men, and therefore more

* Camper. Demonstrat. Anat. Pathol. lib. 11.

likely to swell and enlarge during pregnancy. That many instances of a partial separation of these bones during labour have happened there can be no doubt; such a separation, however, ought by no means to be considered as an uniform and salutary work of nature, as some writers seem to think, but as the effect of disease.

BUT there is another circumstance, in regard to this part of the Osteology, which is well worthy our attention; and this is, the different capacities of the pelvis in the male and female subject. We have already observed, that the os sacrum is shorter and broader in women than in men; we likewise find the ossa ilia more expanded; whence it happens, that in women the center of gravity does not fall so directly on the upper part of the thigh as in men, and this seems to be the reason why, in general, they step with less firmness, and move their hips forwards in walking. — From these circumstances also, the brim of the female pelvis is nearly of an oval shape, being considerably wider from side to side, than from the sym-

physis pubis to the os sacrum; whereas, in man it is rounder, and every where of less diameter. Again, we find the inferior opening of the pelvis proportionably larger in the female subject, the ossa ischia being more separated from each other, and the foramen ischii larger, so that, where the os ischium and os pubis are united together, they form a greater circle; the os sacrum also is more hollowed, though shorter, and the os coccygis more loosely connected, and therefore capable of a greater degree of motion than in men.

Of the Ligaments of the Pelvis.

BESIDES describing the cartilages by which the bones of the pelvis are united with each other, we spoke in general terms of their ligaments. But some of these deserve to be more particularly noticed.—The articulation of the os sacrum with the last lumbar vertebra, and with the ossa innominata, is strengthened by means of a strong transverse ligament, which passes from the extremity and lower edge of the last lumbar

vertebra, to the posterior and internal surface of the spine of the ilium. Other ligaments are extended posteriorly from the os sacrum to the ossa ilia on each side, and, from the direction of their fibres, may be called the lateral ligaments. Besides these, there are, as we have already observed, many shorter ligamentous fibres, which are seen stretching from the whole circumference of the articulating surfaces of these two bones.—But the most remarkable ligaments of the pelvis are the two *sacro-ischiatic* ligaments, which are placed towards the posterior and inferior part of the pelvis. One of these may be called the greater, and the other the lesser sacro-ischiatic ligament. The first of these is attached to the posterior edge of the os sacrum, to the tuberosity of the ilium, and to the first of the three divisions of the os coccygis. Its other extremity is inserted into the inner surface of the tuberosity of the ischium. At its upper part it is of considerable breadth, after which it becomes narrower, but expands again before its insertion into the ischium, and, extending along the tuberosity of that bone to the

lower branch of the os pubis, where it terminates in a point, forms a kind of falx, one end of which is loose, while the other is fixed to the bone.

THE lesser sacro-ischiatic ligament is somewhat thicker than the former, and is placed obliquely before it. It extends from the transverse processes of the os sacrum, and the tuberosity of the spine of the ilium on each side, to the spine of the ischium. These two ligaments not only serve to strengthen the articulation of the ossa innominata with the os sacrum, but to support the weight of the viscera contained in the pelvis, the back and lower part of which is closed by these ligaments. The posterior and external surface of the greater ligament likewise serves for the attachment of some portions of the gluteus maximus and gemini muscles.

THE symphysis pubis is strengthened internally by a transverse ligament, some of the fibres of which are extended to the obturator ligament, of which a description was given in our account of the ossa pubis.

C H A P,

C H A P. IV.

Of the Extremities.

THIS part of Osteology is divided into the upper and lower extremities.—The upper extremity consists of the bones of the shoulder, arm, fore-arm, and hand; the lower extremity includes the thigh, the leg, and the foot.—We shall make each of these two divisions the subject of a section.

S E C T I O N I.

Of the Upper Extremity.

THE shoulder is composed of two bones; viz. the clavicle and scapula.

Of the Clavicle.

THE clavicle, or collar bone, is a long and nearly cylindrical bone, a little curved

at

at both its extremities like an Italic *f*. It has gotten the name of *clavicula* from its supposed resemblance to the key in use among the ancients; but it is better named in English from its situation, and we find Celsus * giving it the name of *jugulum*. This bone is situated almost transversely at the upper, anterior, and lateral part of the thorax, between the sternum and scapula.—Like other long bones, it may be divided into its body or middle part, and its extremities. The body is rather flattened than rounded; its anterior edge is rough and convex; its posterior edge, smooth and concave. Towards its lower and anterior extremity it becomes gradually thicker, and the bone terminates in a head, which is slightly convex, and nearly of a triangular shape. The inferior surface of this extremity is received into a superficial cavity in the first bone of the sternum. In this joint, as in the articulation of the lower jaw with the temporal bone, there is a moveable cartilage, interposed between the end of the clavicle and the sternum, which serves to prevent any injury

* Lib. viii.

from

from friction. The capsular ligament is of considerable thickness and strength. The articulation is likewise strengthened by two other ligaments. One of these extends from a rough oblique eminence on the inferior surface of the clavicle, near the head of the bone, to the upper and internal edge of the cartilage of the first rib. Weitbrecht* calls this the *costo clavicular* ligament; it is nearly of a finger's breadth, and is of great strength. The other, which is common to both clavicles, and has therefore been named the *inter-clavicular* † ligament, is stretched transversely over the upper edge of the sternum, from the head of one clavicle to that of the other. This ligament is sometimes found double.

THE upper and posterior extremity of the clavicle, is broader, thinner, and more flattened than the other, and its curvature is in a contrary direction, so that its concave edge is forwards, and its convexity backwards.—Its upper surface is flattened and smooth, but at its under surface we find a

* Syndesmolog. sect. 11.

† Ibid.

tubercle,

tubercle, which extends obliquely across the bone. From this tubercle, and a roughness near it on the internal edge of the bone, a strong ligament extends to the coracoid process of the scapula.—The anterior edge of this extremity of the bone is rough and irregular, but posteriorly we find a smooth, convex, articulating surface, tipped with cartilage, which is received into the oblong surface we described in the processus acromion of the scapula. This articulation is secured by a capsular ligament, and farther strengthened by the ligament we have just mentioned as extending to the coracoid process.

THE interior structure of the clavicle is similar to that of other long, round bones.—It is completely ossified in infants, having no cartilaginous extremities like other bones; but it is less curved, and its tubercles and rough portions are less remarkable in young subjects than in adults.

THIS bone serves to regulate the motions of the scapula, by preventing it from being brought

brought too much forwards, or carried too far backwards; and we may consider it as an axis on which the whole upper extremity rolls, the scapula serving rather as a socket for the os humeri. Accordingly we find, that such animals as make much use of their fore-legs or arms, are furnished with clavicles. Of this we have instances in the ape, bear, bat, mouse, opossum, mole, squirrel, and hedge-hog*.—The clavicle likewise affords origin to several muscles, and serves as a defence to the great vessels and nerves, which, in their way to the upper extremity, pass between this bone and the first rib.

Of the Scapula.

THE scapula, or shoulder-blade, which approaches nearly to a triangular figure, is fixed, not unlike a buckler, to the upper, posterior, and lateral part of the thorax, extending from the first to about the seventh rib.—The anterior and internal surface of this bone is irregularly concave, from the

* Haller. Physiolog. tom. vi. 8vo.

impreflion, not of the ribs, as the generality of anatomifts have fuppofed, but of the fubfcapularis mufcle. Its posterior and external furface is convex, and divided into two unequal foſſæ by a confiderable spine, which, riſing ſmall from the posterior edge of the ſcapula, becomes gradually higher and broader as it approaches the anterior and fuperior angle of the bone, till at length it terminates in a broad and flat proceſs, at the top of the ſhoulder, called the *proceſſus acromion*. On the anterior edge of this proceſſus acromion we obſerve an oblong, concave, articulating ſurface, covered with cartilage, for the articulation of the ſcapula with the clavicle. At its lower part the acromion is hollowed, to allow a paſſage to the ſupra and infra ſpinati mufcles. The ridge of the spine affords two rough, flat ſurfaces, for the infertion of the trapezius and deltoid mufcles.

OF the two foſſæ, into which the external ſurface of the bone is divided by the spine, the fuperior one, which is the ſmalleſt, ſerves to lodge the ſupra ſpinatus mufcle; and the inferior

ferior fossa, which is much larger than the other, gives origin to the *infra spinatus*.

THE triangular shape of the scapula leads us to consider its angles and its sides.—The upper, posterior angle, is neither so thick, nor has so rough a surface, as the inferior one; but the most remarkable of the three angles of this bone is the anterior one, which is of great thickness, and formed into a glenoid cavity of an oval shape, the greatest diameter of which is from below upwards. This cavity, in the recent subject, is furnished with cartilage, and receives the head of the os humeri. The cartilaginous crust, which surrounds its brims, makes it appear deeper in the fresh subject than in the skeleton. A little beyond this glenoid cavity the bone becomes narrower, so as to give the appearance of a neck; and above this rises a considerable process, which, from being thick at its origin, become thinner, and, in some degree, flattened at its extremity. This process projects considerably, and is curved downwards. From its supposed resemblance to the beak of a bird, it is called the *coracoid* process.

process. From the whole external side of this process, a strong and broad ligament is stretched to the processus acromion, becoming narrower as it approaches the latter process, so as to be of a somewhat triangular shape. This ligament, and the two processes with which it is connected, are evidently intended for the protection of the joint, and to prevent a luxation of the os humeri upwards.

OF the three sides of the scapula, the posterior one, which is the longest, is called the *basis*. This side is turned towards the vertebræ.—Its other two sides are called *costæ*. The superior costa, which is the upper and shortest side, is likewise thinner than the other two, having a sharp edge. It is nearly horizontal, and parallel with the second rib; and is interrupted, near the basis of the coracoid process, by a semi-circular notch, which is closed by a ligament that extends from one end of it to the other, and affords a passage to vessels and nerves. Besides this passage, there are other notches in the scapula, for the transmission of vessels; viz.

viz. one between the coracoid process and the head of the bone, and another between its neck and the process acromion.—The third side of the scapula, or the inferior costa, as it is called, is of considerable thickness, and extends obliquely from the neck of the bone to its inferior angle, reaching from about the third to the eighth rib.

THE scapula has but very little cellular substance, and is of unequal thickness, being very thin at its middle part, where it is covered by a great number of muscles, and having its neck, the acromion, and coracoid process, of considerable strength. In the foetus, the basis and the neck of the scapula, together with its glenoid cavity, acromion, coracoid process, and the ridge of the spine, are so many epiphyses with respect to the rest of the bone, to which they are not completely united till a considerable time after birth.

THE scapula is articulated to the clavicle and os humeri, to which last it serves as a fulcrum; and, by altering its position, it

M affords

affords a greater scope to the bones of the arm in their different motions. It likewise affords attachment to a great number of muscles, and posteriorly serves as a defence to the thorax.

Of the Arm.

THE arm, properly so called, is formed of a single bone, called *os humeri*. This bone, which is nearly of a cylindrical shape, may be divided into its body and its extremities.

Its upper extremity is formed somewhat laterally and internally, into a large, round, and smooth head, which is admitted into the glenoid cavity of the scapula. Around the basis of this head we observe a circular fossa, deepest anteriorly and externally, which forms what is called the neck of the bone, and from the edge of which arises the capsular ligament, which is farther strengthened by a strong membranous expansion, extending to the upper edge of the glenoid cavity and to the coracoid process of the scapula ;
and

and likewise by the tendinous expansions of the muscles, inserted into the head of the humerus.—This capsular ligament is sometimes torn in luxation, and becomes an obstacle to the easy reduction of the bone*. The articulating surface of the head is covered by a cartilage, which is thick in its middle part, and thin towards its edges, by which means it is more convex in the recent subject than in the skeleton.—This upper extremity, besides the round, smooth head we have described, affords two other smaller protuberances. One of these, which is the largest of the two, is of an irregular oblong shape, and is placed at the back of the head of the bone, from which it is separated by a kind of groove that makes a part of the neck. This tuberosity is divided, at its upper part, into three surfaces; the first of these, which is the smallest and uppermost, serves for the insertion of the supraspinatus muscle; the second, or middlemost, for the insertion of the infraspinatus; and the third, which is the lowest and hindmost, for the insertion of the teres minor. The other,

* Petit des Malad. des Os.—Med. Obs. et Inq. vol. ii.

smaller tuberosity, is situated anteriorly between the larger one and the head of the humerus, and serves for the insertion of the subscapularis muscle. Between these two tuberosities we observe a deep groove, for lodging the tendinous head of the biceps brachii; the capsular ligament of the joint affording here a prolongation, thinner than the rest of the capsula, which covers and accompanies this muscle to its fleshy portion, where it gradually disappears in the adjacent cellular membrane.

IMMEDIATELY below its neck, the os humeri begins to assume a cylindrical shape; so that here the body of the bone may be said to commence.—At its upper part we observe a continuation of the groove for the biceps, which extends downwards, about a fourth part of the length of the bone, in an oblique direction. The edges of this groove are continuations of the greater and lesser tuberosities, and serve for the attachment of the pectoralis, latissimus dorsi, and teres major muscles. The groove itself is lined with a glistening substance like cartilage, but which
seems

seems to be nothing more than the remains of tendinous fibres.—A little lower down, towards the external and anterior side of the middle of the bone, we see it rising into a rough ridge, for the insertion of the deltoid muscle. On each side of this ridge the bone is smooth and flat, for the lodgment of the brachialis internus muscle; and behind the middle part of the outermost side of the ridge is a channel, for the transmission of vessels into the substance of the bone. A little lower down, and near the inner side of the ridge, we sometimes observe such another channel, which is intended for the same purpose.

THE os humeri, at its lower extremity, becomes gradually broader and flatter, so as to have this end nearly of a triangular shape. The bone, thus expanded, affords two surfaces, of which the anterior one is the broadest, and somewhat convex; and the posterior one narrower and smoother. The bone terminates in four large processes, the two outermost of which are called *condyles*, though not designed for the articulation of

M 3 the

the bone.—These condyles, which are placed at some distance from each other, on each side of the bone, are rough and irregular protuberances, formed for the insertion of muscles and ligaments, and differ from each other in size and shape.—The external condyle, when the arm is in the most natural position, is found to be placed somewhat forwarder than the other. The internal condyle is longer, and more protuberant than the external. From each of these processes a ridge is continued upwards at the sides of the bone. A fold of the tendinous fascia, that covers the bones of the arm, adheres to each of these ridges. These tendinous productions, from being broad near the condyles, become narrower as they ascend, and terminate about the middle of the bone.—Winslow and others who have mistaken them for ligaments, call them the *lateral* or *intermuscular ligaments* of the os humeri. From each of the condyles a strong ligament goes out to the bones of the fore-arm.

IN the interval between the two condyles, are placed the two articulating processes,

con-

contiguous to each other, and covered with cartilage. One of these, which is the smallest, is formed into a small, obtuse, smooth head, on which the radius plays. This little head is placed near the external condyle, as a part of which it has been sometimes described*. The other, and larger process, is composed of two lateral protuberances and a middle cavity, all of which are smooth, and covered with cartilage. From the manner in which the ulna moves upon this process, it has gotten the name of *trochlea*, or pulley. The sides of this pulley are unequal; that which is towards the little head is the highest of the two; the other, which is contiguous to the external condyle, is more flanting, being situated obliquely from within outwards, so that when the fore-arm is fully extended, it does not form a straight line with the os humeri, and, for the same reason, when we bend the elbow, the hand comes not to the shoulder, as it might be expected to do, but to the fore part of the breast.

* *Monro on the Bones.*

THERE is a cavity at the root of these processes, on each of the two surfaces of the bone. The cavity on the anterior surface, is divided, by a ridge, into two, the external of which receives the end of the radius, and the internal one lodges the coronoid process of the ulna in the flexions of the fore-arm. The cavity on the posterior surface, at the basis of the pulley, is much larger, and lodges the olecranon when the arm is extended.

THE internal structure of the os humeri is similar to that of other long bones. In newborn infants, both the ends of the bone are cartilaginous, and the large head, with the two tubercles above, and the condyles, with the two articulating processes below, become epiphyses before they are entirely united to the rest of the bone.

WE have seen how the os humeri is articulated at its upper part to the scapula. This articulation is a perfect arthrodiar, and, on comparing the size of the head of the bone with

with the small socket that receives it, it evidently appears designed for a free and extensive motion to every side: we can bring it forwards, raise it, or carry it backwards, and, by a succession of these motions, describe a circle; but in this the scapula and clavicle will be found greatly to assist.—Of its articulation below with the bones of the fore-arm, we shall have occasion to speak hereafter.

Of the Fore-Arm.

THE fore-arm is composed of two long bones, the ulna and radius; the first of these forms the internal and posterior part; and the second, the external and anterior part.

Of the Ulna.

THE ulna is smaller and shorter than the os humeri, and becomes gradually smaller as it descends to the wrist.—We may divide it into its upper and lower extremities, and its body or middle part. At
its

its upper extremity are two considerable processes, of which the posterior one and largest is named *olecranon*, and the smaller and anterior one, the *coronoid* process. Between these two processes, the extremity of the bone is formed into a deep articulating cavity, which, from its semi-circular shape, is called the *greater sygmoid cavity*, to distinguish it from another, which has been named the *lesser sygmoid cavity*.

THE olecranon begins by a considerable tuberosity, which is rough, and serves for the insertion of muscles, and terminates in a kind of hook, the concave surface of which moves upon the pulley of the os humeri.— This process forms the point of the elbow.— The coronoid process is sharper at its extremity than the olecranon, but is much smaller, and does not reach so high. In bending the arm it is received into the fossa at the fore part of the pulley.— At the external side of the coronoid process is the lesser sygmoid cavity, which is a small, semi-lunar, articulating surface, lined with cartilage, on which the round head of the radius plays.

plays.—At the fore part of the coronoid process we observe a small tuberosity, into which the tendon of the brachialis internus is inserted.

THE greater sylvoid cavity, the situation of which we just now mentioned, is divided into four surfaces by a prominent line which is intersected by a small sinuosity that serves for the lodgment of mucilaginous glands.—The whole of this cavity is covered with cartilage.

THE body, or middle part of the ulna, is of a prismatic or triangular shape, so as to afford three surfaces and as many angles. The external and internal surfaces are flat and broad, especially the external one, and are separated by a sharp angle, which, from its situation, may be termed the internal angle. This internal angle, which is turned towards the radius, serves for the attachment of the ligament that connects the two bones, and which is therefore called the *interosseous* ligament.—The posterior surface is convex, and corresponds with the olecranon.

its upper extremity are two considerable processes, of which the posterior one and largest is named *olecranon*, and the smaller and anterior one, the *coronoid* process. Between these two processes, the extremity of the bone is formed into a deep articulating cavity, which, from its semi-circular shape, is called the *greater sygmoid cavity*, to distinguish it from another, which has been named the *lesser sygmoid cavity*.

THE olecranon begins by a considerable tuberosity, which is rough, and serves for the insertion of muscles, and terminates in a kind of hook, the concave surface of which moves upon the pulley of the os humeri.— This process forms the point of the elbow.— The coronoid process is sharper at its extremity than the olecranon, but is much smaller, and does not reach so high. In bending the arm it is received into the fossa at the fore part of the pulley.— At the external side of the coronoid process is the lesser sygmoid cavity, which is a small, semi-lunar, articulating surface, lined with cartilage, on which the round head of the radius plays.

plays.—At the fore part of the coronoid process we observe a small tuberosity, into which the tendon of the brachialis internus is inserted.

THE greater sylvoid cavity, the situation of which we just now mentioned, is divided into four surfaces by a prominent line which is intersected by a small sinuosity that serves for the lodgment of mucilaginous glands.—The whole of this cavity is covered with cartilage.

THE body, or middle part of the ulna, is of a prismatic or triangular shape, so as to afford three surfaces and as many angles. The external and internal surfaces are flat and broad, especially the external one, and are separated by a sharp angle, which, from its situation, may be termed the internal angle. This internal angle, which is turned towards the radius, serves for the attachment of the ligament that connects the two bones, and which is therefore called the *interosseous* ligament.—The posterior surface is convex, and corresponds with the olecranon.

non. The borders, or angles, which separate it from the other two surfaces, are somewhat rounded. At about a third of the length of this bone from the top, in its fore part, we observe a channel for the passage of vessels.

THE lower extremity is smaller as it descends, nearly cylindrical, and slightly curved forwards and outwards. Just before it terminates it contracts, so as to form a neck to the small head with which it ends. On the outside of this little head, answering to the olecranon, a small process, called the *styloid* process, stands out, from which a strong ligament is stretched to the wrist. The head has a rounded articulating surface, on its internal side, which is covered with cartilage, and received into a small semilunar cavity, formed at the lower end of the radius.—Between this convex surface and the styloid process, the head is flattened at its summit, and covered with cartilage. Between it and the os cuneiforme, a moveable cartilage is interposed, which is continued from the cartilage that covers the
lower

lower end of the radius, and is connected by ligamentous fibres to the styloid process of the ulna.

WE have seen how the ulna is articulated above with the lower end of the os humeri. This articulation is of the species called ginglymus.—We have likewise seen that it is articulated both above and below to the radius, and to the carpus at its lowest extremity. Its chief use seems to be to support and regulate the motions of the radius.

IN children, both extremities of this bone are first cartilaginous, and afterwards epiphyses, before they are completely united to the rest of the bone.

Of the Radius.

THIS bone has gotten its name from its supposed resemblance to the spoke of a wheel, or to a weaver's beam*; and sometimes, from its supporting the hand, it has

* *Monro on the Bones.*

been

been called *manubrium manus*.—Like the ulna, it is of a triangular figure, but it differs from that bone, in growing larger as it descends, so that its smaller part answers to the larger part of the ulna, and *vice versa*.

OF its two extremities, the uppermost and smallest is formed into a small rounded head, furnished with cartilage; and hollowed at its summit, for an articulation with the little head at the side of the pulley of the os humeri. The round border of this head, next the ulna, is formed for an articulation with the lesser sygmoid cavity of that bone. This little head of the radius is supported by a neck, at the bottom of which, laterally, is a considerable tuberosity, into the posterior half of which is inserted the tendon of the biceps, while the anterior half is covered with cartilage, and surrounded with a capsular ligament, so as to allow this tendon to slide upon it as upon a pulley.—Immediately below this tuberosity, the body of the bone may be said to begin. We find it slightly curved throughout its whole length, by which means a greater space is formed for
the

the lodgment of muscles, and it is enabled to cross the ulna without compressing them. Of the three surfaces, to be distinguished on the body of the bone, the external and internal ones are the broadest and flattest. The anterior surface is narrower and more convex. Of its angles, the external and internal ones are rounded; but the posterior angle, which is turned towards the ulna, is formed into a sharp spine, which serves for the attachment of the interosseous ligament, of which mention was made in our description of the ulna. This strong ligament, which is a little interrupted above and below, serves not only to connect the bones of the fore-arm to each other, but likewise to afford a greater surface for the lodgment of muscles. On the fore part of the bone, and at about one third of its length, from its upper end, we observe a channel for vessels, slanting obliquely upwards. Towards its lower extremity, the radius becomes broader, of an irregular shape, and somewhat flattened, affording three surfaces, of which the posterior one is the smallest; the second, which is a continuation of the internal surface

face

THE lateral ligaments may be distinguished into external and internal, or, according to Winflow, into *brachio radialis*, and *brachio cubitalis*. They both descend laterally from the lowest part of each condyle of the os humeri, and, from their fibres spreading wide as they descend, have been compared to a goose's foot. The internal ligament, or *brachio cubitalis*, which is the longest and thickest of the two, is attached to the coronoid process of the ulna.—The external ligament, or *brachio radialis*, terminates in the circular ligament of the radius. Both these ligaments adhere firmly to the capsular ligament, and to the tendons of some of the adjacent muscles.

IN considering the articulation of the forearm with the os humeri, we find, that, when both the bones are moved together upon the os humeri, the motion of the ulna upon the pulley allows only of flexion and extension; whereas, when the palm of the hand is turned downwards or upwards, or, in other words, in pronation and supination, we see the radius moving upon its axis, and, in these motions,

motions, its head turns upon the little head of the os humeri at the side of the pulley, while its circular edge rolls in the lesser sygmoid cavity of the ulna.

AT the lower end of the fore-arm we have seen that the edge of the ulna is received into a superficial cavity at the side of the radius.—This articulation, which is surrounded by a loose capsular ligament, concurs with the articulation above, in enabling the radius to turn with great facility upon its axis; and it is chiefly with the assistance of this bone, that we are enabled to turn the palm of the hand upwards or downwards, the ulna having but a very inconsiderable share in these motions.

OF the articulation of the bones of the fore arm with the carpus, we shall have occasion to speak more particularly in our description of the latter.

Of the Hand.

THE hand, which is the only part of the upper extremity that remains to be described,

is composed of many bones, very different from each other in their shape and situation, and which are therefore very properly divided into three classes of carpus, metacarpus, and fingers.

Of the Carpus.

THE *carpus*, or wrist, is composed of eight bones, disposed in two irregular rows, four in each row. Those of the upper row are placed next to the bones of the fore-arm; while those of the under row support the thumb, and the bones of the metacarpus.—These bones are so irregular, and so different from each other in their shape, that it is a task of no little difficulty to describe them clearly.—In general they may be said to have six unequal surfaces. Supposing, therefore, the hand to be laid flat on a table, with the palm downwards, the upper surface of each carpal bone will be that which is towards the back of the hand; and the under surface that which is towards the palm of the hand; the posterior surface will be that

that which is nearest to the bones of the fore-arm, and the anterior surface that which is placed towards the fingers: of the two lateral surfaces, the external one will be that which is nearest to the thumb, and the internal one that which is towards the little finger, or the inner side of the hand.—It will be necessary to have all these distinctions in remembrance, when we are considering each of these bones separately.

THE ancients ranged the bones of the carpus by numbers, but this sometimes proved a source of mistake; because, what one writer called the first bone, was perhaps by another considered as the fourth. It was better, therefore, to give to each bone a particular name; and this seems to have been first done by Lyferus*. The names he gave them are some of them not very expressive of their figure; but, as they are now pretty generally received, we think it right to retain them, except that of *κοτυλοειδές*, which was given to one of these bones by Lyferus, on account of its sinus that receives a part

* Cultor. Anatom. lib. v.

of the os magnum, but which, by later writers, has been more usually named *scaphoides*, though seemingly with very little reason, as it does not appear to have any striking resemblance to a boat.—It will be necessary to say something of each of these bones.

THE *os scaphoides*, or *naviculare*, is situated the most externally of the uppermost row, (considering the thumb as the outer side of the hand,) and is received into the articulating surface at the end of the radius. Its upper surface, which helps to form the back of the hand, is convex; below, it is oblong and concave. On its smooth convex surface we observe a fossa, running in an oblique direction, and serving for the attachment of the common ligament of the joint of the wrist.—The lower division of the bone is divided into two portions, one of which is joined to the trapezium, and the other to the trapezoides.—Its concavity receives a great part of the head of the os magnum.

THE *os lunare*, or *lunatum*, which is less than the *scaphoides*, has a smooth convex surface,

surface, which is received into the articulating cavity of the radius.—Its outer side, which is joined to the scaphoides, is shaped like a crescent, and hence the bone has its name.—Its internal lateral surface is flat, and broader than the external one, for its articulation with the os cuneiforme. Its anterior surface is concave, and divided into two portions, one of which receives part of the head of the os magnum, while the other is articulated with part of the os unciforme.

THE *os cuneiforme*, which is placed internally with respect to the last described bone, is broader above and towards the back of the hand, than it is below and forwards, and hence is compared to a wedge.—It is less than either of the preceding bones.—Its posterior and convex surface is opposed to the lower end of the ulna, between which and this bone, as we have before observed, there is a moveable cartilage.—Its external lateral surface is smooth, oblique, and slightly concave, for its articulation with the os lunare.—Its anterior surface is likewise oblique,

N 4

and

and somewhat concave, and is joined to part of the os unciforme.

THESE three bones, viz. the os scaphoides, os lunare, and os cuneiforme, make an oblong articulating surface, by which they are articulated to the fore-arm. This surface is covered by a cartilage, which extends from the os scaphoides to the os lunare, and from the latter to the os cuneiforme. This articulation is surrounded by a strong capsular ligament, which is farther strengthened by two lateral ligaments, one of which, or the external ligament, extends from the styloid process of the radius to the os scaphoides, while the other, or internal ligament, is attached to the styloid process of the ulna, and to the os cuneiforme.

THE *os pisiforme*, or pea-like bone, though usually classed among the bones of the upper row, is neither placed in the same line with them, nor does it help to form the oblong head which is articulated with the fore-arm. This bone, which is smaller than either of the three we have described, is fixed to the
under

under surface of the os cuneiforme, so as to be prominent forwards into the palm of the hand. That part of the bone, which is placed towards the os cuneiforme, is slightly concave; the rest of it is irregularly rounded.

THE four bones of the second row answer to the bones of the thumb and fingers. The *trapezium*, which supports the thumb, is broadest above, where it helps to form the back of the hand, and where it has four unequal sides and angles, from which it has gotten its name. Towards the palm of the hand it is formed into an oblique protuberance. It is slightly concave where it receives a part of the os scaphoides, and convex where it is connected with the first bone of the thumb, to which it serves as a pulley. one of its lateral surfaces helps to form the border of the hand, on the side next the thumb; the other is slightly concave, for its articulation with the os trapezoides.

THE *os trapezoides*, like the last described bone, takes its name from the shape of its superior surface, which is that of an irregular

lar

lar quadrangle. It is somewhat larger than the *os pisiforme*, but smaller than any of the other bones of the carpus. It is placed between the trapezium and the *os magnum*. At its inferior surface it is narrower than above, and is rough and convex. It has a small concave surface towards the *os scaphoides*, by which it is articulated to that bone, and is somewhat convex where it joins the metacarpal bone of the index, or fore finger. Of its lateral surfaces, the external one, which is contiguous to the trapezium, is slightly convex; the internal one is narrower and flatter, for its articulation with the *os magnum*.

THE *os magnum*, which is so named from its being the largest bone of the carpus, is of an irregular, oblong shape, and formed into a round head posteriorly towards the *os scaphoides* and *os lunare*, where it is articulated with those bones. Its anterior end is oblique and slightly concave, for its articulation with the metacarpal bone of the middle finger. Its upper surface, where it helps to form the back of the hand, is convex,

vex, and somewhat broader than its under surface, which is likewise convex. Of its lateral surfaces, the external one is short and smooth, for its articulation with the os trapezoides, and the internal one longer, and somewhat concave, for its articulation with the os unciforme.

THE *os unciforme* is not much smaller than the last described bone. Its upper surface is convex, and nearly of a triangular shape. Its lower surface is narrower, slightly concave, and has standing out from it, into the palm of the hand, a broad process, which, from its hook-like appearance, has occasioned the bone to be named unciforme. Its posterior surface is oblique, and slightly concave, for its articulation with the os cuneiforme, and a small portion of the os lunare. Anteriorly it is somewhat convex, and divided into two surfaces, one of which is joined to the metacarpal bone of the little finger, and the other to the metacarpal bone of the ring finger. Its external lateral surface, which is broad and flat, is contiguous to the os magnum, while its internal lateral surface

surface helps to form the inner border of the hand.

ALL these bones are in a cartilaginous state in the fœtus. The ossification begins in the center of each, and is not entirely completed till the age of eight or ten years. In the adult, they are composed of a strong bony lamella, and of an internal cellular substance.

THEIR posterior and anterior surfaces, and likewise the lateral surfaces by which they are articulated to each other, are covered with cartilage.

THE articulation of the three first bones with the fore-arm, has already been spoken of. This articulation, which seems to partake both of ginglymus and arthrodia, allows of motion to all sides; but the carpus has no motion round its axis independent of the radius.

THE articulation of the bones of the second row, posteriorly with those of the first, and

and anteriorly with those of the metacarpus, is such as to allow a slight degree of motion backwards and forwards. The connection of the bones laterally with each other, can admit only of a very obscure motion.

ALL these bones are firmly connected to each other by a great number of short and very strong ligaments, which extend from one bone to another, and are farther strengthened by two considerable ligamentous expansions, which may be called the external and internal *annular* ligaments of the wrist. The first of these is stretched obliquely over the convex surface of the carpus, from the os pisiforme to the styloid process of the radius. This ligament is an inch and a half in breadth, and serves to bind down the extensor tendons of the wrist and fingers, by attaching itself to the little protuberances that separate them.—The internal annular ligament is spread transversely at the inside of the carpus, and is attached on one side to part of the os scaphoides and trapezium, and on the other, to the os pisiforme and os unciforme; serving to bind down the flexor
ten-

tendons of the wrist and fingers, and, by this mechanism, facilitating the action of their muscles.

Of the Metacarpus.

THE metacarpus consists of those four bones which are placed between the carpus and fingers. Each of these, like other long bones, may be divided into its body or middle part, and its extremities.

THE body is irregularly cylindrical, and somewhat flattened on the back part of the bone towards the fingers, by the tendons of the extensors of the fingers. It is likewise flattened at the sides; and, on its internal surface, we observe a sharp ridge, which separates the muscles that are placed on each side of the bone.—The upper extremity, or that end which is joined to the carpus, is usually called the *basis* of the bone. It is of an irregular shape, flattened, and somewhat oblong, with a small cavity for its articulation with the carpus, and a smooth and flat

flat surface at the sides, where these bones are contiguous to each other.—The lower extremity, or head of the bone, as it is called, which is joined to the fingers, is formed into an oblong, smooth head, the convexity of which is inclined somewhat inwards. It has a slight concavity at its back part, for the passage of tendons, and is flattened at its sides by the pressure of the next metacarpal bone. Around this head a rough ring is observable, to which the capsular ligament is attached; and at the root of it, on each side, we find a small tubercle, to which the ligaments are fixed that go from one of these bones to the other.

THESE bones resemble other long bones in their structure, and in being cartilaginous at both ends at the time of birth. Their articulation with the carpus, and with each other, is by the planiform or fourth species of diarthrosis; and their motion is the more confined by the very strong ligaments which are spread from one to the other.—Thus far the description we have given is applicable to these bones in general; but, as they differ

fer from each other in certain particulars, it will be right to say something of each.

THE first, or metacarpal bone of the fore finger, is the longest of the four. At its basis we may observe three articulating surfaces. The largest is slightly hollowed, for its articulation with the os trapezoides; and on the outside of this is a very small flat surface, which is joined to the trapezium. The third surface, which is on its inner side, is for its articulation with the metacarpal bone of the middle finger.—The fore part of this basis is prominent, where the flat tendon of the *flexor carpi radialis* is inserted; and its back part is flattened, for the insertion of the long tendon of the *extensor carpi radialis*.

THE second bone, or that which supports the middle finger, in the generality of subjects is not quite so long as the first. Its basis slants obliquely outwards, and affords a broad superficial cavity, which is articulated with the os magnum.

THE

THE third, or metacarpal bone of the ring finger, is neither so long nor so large as either of the two former. At its basis, which is semi-circular and convex, it is connected with the os magnum and the os unciforme.

THE fifth, or metacarpal bone of the little finger, is the smallest and shortest of all. Its basis flants irregularly inwards, and is articulated with the os unciforme.—It has only one lateral articulating surface, and this is on its external side, where it is contiguous to the last described bone.—At the posterior and upper part of this bone we observe a prominence, where the *extensor carpi ulnaris* is inserted.—This metacarpal bone enjoys a much greater motion than any of the rest.

Of the Fingers.

EVERY body knows the number and names of the fingers.—Each of them is composed of three bones, which, from their disposition in three rows, have been usually called *phalanges*.

O

THE

THE bones of the first phalanx have a thick basis, formed into a superficial cavity, furnished with cartilage, and rough round its edges, for the infertion of ligaments. Their articulation with the bones of the metacarpus is by arthrodia, so that they can be moved laterally or circularly, but have no rotation round their axis.—Their body, or middle part, is convex externally, and slightly concave before. Their lower extremity terminates in a pulley, the convexity of which is inclined towards the inside of the hand. At its sides we observe small tubercles, for the infertion of ligaments.

THE bones of the second phalanx differ from those of the first, chiefly in being smaller, and in having their bases formed for an articulation with the pulley just now mentioned. This articulation is by ginglymus.—The extremities of this, as well as of the first phalanx, are cartilaginous in the foetus, and become epiphyses before they are completely united to the rest of the bone.

THE bones of the third phalanx are still less than those of the second. Their articulation

lation with the second phalanx is by ginglymus, in the same manner as this latter is joined to the first phalanx. Both these articulations are secured by capsular and lateral ligaments, and their motion is confined to flexion and extension.—This third phalanx, in young subjects, is cartilaginous, except at its basis.

THE phalanges of the several fingers differ from each other only in their size, the thumb alone excepted, of which, on this account, it will be right to give a separate description. Its situation, when compared with that of the fingers, is somewhat oblique. The first bone resembles the bones of the metacarpus, but is somewhat shorter and thicker. Its basis is adapted to the pulley of the trapezium. Its head is usually hollowed laterally in the adult skeleton, for the reception of two ossa sesamoidea, of which we shall speak more particularly at the end of the Osteology.

THE second bone answers to the description we gave of the first phalanx of the

other fingers, only that the cavity in its basis is more oblong.—The third bone differs from the third phalanx only in being broader and thicker.—The first bone of the thumb being less confined than the metacarpal bones of the fingers, is capable of a greater variety of motion.

THE uses of the hand are so obvious in all the common actions of life, that it may be thought superfluous to enumerate them here; and yet I cannot help observing, how admirably the whole is constructed to answer the purposes for which it is intended. We see that one half of it has only an obscure motion, in comparison to what the other has; so that we may consider the former as serving as a basis to the latter. But yet, obscure as the motion of the bones of the carpus is upon each other, we find that, by being composed of many bones, and by each bone's yielding a little, the carpus is enabled to accommodate itself to the different motions of the hand. We see likewise how the metacarpus, by being composed of several bones, enables us to form a hollow in
the

the palm of the hand, especially by these bones being placed on the arched carpus, while the spaces between them serve for the lodgment of muscles. And how greatly the multiplicity of bones in the hand (for there are twenty-seven in each) is essential to the different motions we wish to perform, may be still farther exemplified in the structure of the fingers; it being obvious, that if each finger was composed of one bone, instead of three, it would be impossible for us to grasp any thing. Lastly, we may observe, that the convexity of the back part of the hand renders the whole fabric stronger, while the hollow on the inside not only enables us to perform many offices of the hand with greater facility, but affords a safe passage to the numerous vessels, nerves, and tendons of the fingers.

S E C T I O N II.

Of the Lower Extremities.

EACH lower extremity consists of the thigh, the leg, and the foot.

Of the Thigh.

THE thigh is composed only of one bone, called *os femoris*, which is larger and stronger than any other bone of the body.—Its upper extremity, like the *os humeri*, affords three considerable processes; these are the head, the trochanter major, and trochanter minor.—The head, which forms about two thirds of a sphere, is turned inwards, and is received into the great cotyloid cavity of the *os innominatum*, with which it is articulated by enarthrosis. We find it covered by a cartilage, which is thick in its middle part, and thin at its edges, but which is wanting in its lower internal part, where a round, spongy fossa is observable, to which the strong ligament, usually, though improperly, called the *round* one, is attached. This ligament, which, from its situation, may be named the internal ligament of the *os femoris*, is about an inch in length, flattish, and of a triangular shape, having its narrow extremity attached to the fossa we have just now described, while its broader end is fixed obliquely

obliquely to the rough surface near the inner and anterior edge of the cotyloid cavity of the os innominatum, so that it appears shorter internally and anteriorly than it does externally and posteriorly. In some subjects, though rarely, this ligament is separated into two portions, one of which, and the most considerable, adheres to the tuberosity of the ischium, and passing in at the notch we observed in the inner edge of the cotyloid cavity, is fixed to the head of the os femoris, while the other smaller portion is attached, as usual, to the cotyloid cavity, and to the head of the femur*. Genga† tells us, that he once found this ligament totally wanting in each thigh bone, but that the capsular ligament was thicker and stronger than usual.

THE head of the os femoris is supported obliquely, with respect to the rest of the bone, by a smaller part, called the *cervix*, or *neck*, which, in the generality of subjects,

* Schwenke. *Hæmatologia, &c. cui accedit Observ. Anatom. de acetabuli Ligamento externo, Caput Femoris firmante.* Hagæ, 1743. 8vo.

† *Anatomia Chirurgica.*

is about an inch in length. At its basis we observe two oblique ridges, which extend from the trochanter major to the trochanter minor. Of these ridges, the posterior one is the most prominent. Around this neck is attached the capsular ligament of the joint, which likewise adheres to the edge of the cotyloid cavity, and is strengthened anteriorly by many strong ligamentous fibres, which begin from the lower and anterior part of the ilium, and spreading broader as they descend, adhere to the capsular ligament, and are attached to the anterior oblique ridge at the bottom of the neck of the femur. Posteriorly we find other strong ligamentous fibres, which are fixed by one end to the lower and posterior edge of the cotyloid cavity, and by the other to the back part of the great trochanter. Other ligamentous fibres again, are stretched from the edges of the foramen magnum ischii to the lesser trochanter.—Thus we find this articulation very strongly secured.

POSTERIORLY and externally, from the basis of the neck of the bone, a large, unequal

equal protuberance stands out, which is the *trochanter major*. The upper edge of this process is sharp and pointed posteriorly, but is more obtuse anteriorly. A part of it is rough and unequal, for the insertion of muscles; the rest is smooth, and covered with a thin cartilaginous crust, between which, and the tendon of the glutæus maximus that slides over it, a large bursa mucofa is interposed. Anteriorly, at the root of this process, and immediately below the bottom of the neck, is a small process, called *trochanter minor*. Its basis is nearly triangular, having its two upper angles turned towards the head of the femur and the great trochanter, while its lower angle is placed towards the body of the bone. Its summit is rough and rounded.—These two processes have gotten the name of *trochanters*, from the muscles that are inserted into them being the principal instruments of the rotatory motion of the thigh.

IMMEDIATELY below these two processes the body of the bone may be said to begin. It is smooth and convex before, but is
made

made hollow behind by the action of the muscles. In the middle of this posterior concave surface we observe a rough ridge, called *linea aspera*, which seems to originate from the trochanters, and extending downwards, divides at length into two branches, which terminate in the tuberosities near the condyles.—At the upper part of it, blood-vessels pass to the internal substance of the bone, by a hole that runs obliquely upwards.

THE lower extremity of the os femoris is larger than the upper one, and somewhat flattened, so as to form two surfaces, of which the anterior one is broad and convex, and the posterior one narrower and slightly concave.—This end of the bone terminates in two large protuberances, called *condyles*, which are united before so as to form a pulley, but are separated behind by a considerable cavity, in which the crural vessels and nerves are placed secure from the compression to which they would otherwise be exposed in the action of bending the leg. Of these two condyles, the external one is the largest; and when the bone is separated from

from the rest of the skeleton, and placed perpendicularly, the internal condyle projects less forwards, and descends nearly three tenths of an inch lower than the external one; but, in its natural situation, the bone is placed obliquely, so that both condyles are then nearly on a level with each other. At the side of each condyle, externally, there is a tuberosity, the situation of which is similar to that of the condyles of the os humeri. We have already observed, that the two branches of the linea aspera terminate in these tuberosities, which are rough, and serve for the attachment of ligaments and muscles.

WE have seen how the os femoris is articulated above to the os innominatum. From the oblique situation of the head, with respect to the body of the bone, it is evident that the latter can enjoy little or no rotatory motion, although the former commonly moves round its axis; but this rolling of the head of the bone serves for the flexion and extension of the thigh, so that, without its being turned much out of its socket,

we

we are able to perform the most necessary motions.—Of the articulation of this bone below, with the patella and tibia, we shall have occasion to speak hereafter.

THE internal structure of the os femoris is similar to that of other long bones. In new-born children all its processes are cartilaginous, and the two extremities become epiphyses before they are completely united to the rest of the bone. The body of the bone is then much straighter than it is in adults, in whom we find it slightly curved forwards. This curvature, which is useful, by affording a greater space for the lodgment of muscles at the back of the thigh, and by enabling us to cross the thighs upon each other with greater ease, seems to be gradually effected, in some degree, by the weight of the body, but chiefly, perhaps, by the action of the flexor muscles of the leg, which arise from the lower and posterior part of the pelvis, and are inserted into the upper and posterior parts of the tibia and fibula. The condyles, likewise, may contribute somewhat to this effect, by having their convexity almost

almost entirely behind*. The position of the two thighs, with respect to each other, is such, that they are widely separated above, but are brought nearer together at the knees. This position, which seems to depend on the obliquity of the neck of the os femoris, is the means of affording a more considerable space above, for the lodgment of muscles and other soft parts. It likewise enables to walk with greater facility and firmness; for, unless the two feet were brought together, we should be under the necessity of performing, at every step, a very considerable motion; nor should we be able to lift one leg till we had thrown the weight of the body upon the other; whereas, at present, the slightest agitation is sufficient. —Women, as I have already observed†, from the greater width of the female pelvis, usually step with less firmness, and perform a greater motion in walking than men.

Of the Leg.

THE leg is composed of three bones, two of which, viz. the tibia and fibula, are

* Sabatier. *Traité d'Anatomie*, tome i. † See p. 149.
long

long bones, placed at the side of each other; the third is a small flat bone, situated at the fore part of the joint of the knee, and called *rotula*.

Of the Tibia.

THE tibia, which derives its name from its resemblance to the musical pipe of the ancients, is the long, thick, triangular bone, which is placed at the inner part of the leg.

THE upper extremity of this bone is large, and flattened at its summit, where we observe two articulating surfaces, a little concave, and separated from each other by an intermediate irregular protuberance. Of these two cavities, the internal one is deepest, and of an oblong shape, while the external one is rounded, and more superficial. Each of these, in the recent subject, is covered by a cartilage, which extends to the intermediate protuberance, where it terminates. These two little cavities receive the condyles of the os femoris, and the eminence between them

them is admitted into the cavity which we spoke of as being between the two condyles; so that this articulation affords a specimen of the complete ginglymus.—Behind the intermediate protuberance, or tubercle, is a pretty deep depression, which serves for the attachment of a ligament, and likewise to separate the two cavities from each other.—Under the edge of the external cavity is a circular, flat surface, covered with cartilage, which serves for the articulation of the fibula; and at the fore part of the bone is a considerable tuberosity, of an inch and a half in length, to which the strong ligament of the rotula is fixed.

THE body of the tibia is smaller than its extremities, and, being of a triangular shape, affords three surfaces. Of these, the external one is broad, and slightly hollowed by muscles above and below; the internal surface is broad and flat, and the posterior surface is narrower than the other two, and nearly cylindrical. This last has a slight ridge running obliquely across it, from the outer side of the upper end of the bone to
about

about one third of its length downwards. A little below this we observe a passage for the medullary vessels, which is pretty considerable, and flants obliquely downwards. —Of the three angles which separate these surfaces, the anterior one, from its sharpness, is called the *spine*, or *shin*. This ridge is not strait, but describes a figure like an Italic *f*, turning first inwards, then outwards, and lastly inwards again. —The external angle is more rounded, and serves for the attachment of the interosseous ligament; and the internal one is more rounded still by the pressure of muscles.

THE tibia enlarges again a little at its lower extremity, and terminates in a pretty deep cavity, by which it is articulated with the uppermost bone of the foot. This cavity, in the recent subject, is lined with cartilage. Its internal side is formed into a considerable process, called *malleolus internus*, which, in its situation, resembles the styloid process of the radius. This process is broad, and of considerable thickness, and from it ligaments are extended to the foot. At its
back

back part we find a groove, lined with a thin layer of cartilage, in which slide the tendons of the flexor digitorum longus, and of the tibialis posticus; and a little behind this is a smaller groove, for the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis. On the side opposite to the malleolus internus, the cavity is interrupted, and immediately above it is a rough triangular depression, which is furnished with cartilage, and receives the lower end of the fibula.

THE whole of this lower extremity of the bone seems to be turned somewhat outwards, so that the malleolus internus is situated more forwards than the inner border of the upper extremity of the bone.

IN the fœtus both ends of the tibia are cartilaginous, and become afterwards epiphyses.—We shall defer speaking of its connections and uses, till we have described the fibula and rotula.

Of the Fibula.

THE fibula is a small long bone, placed on the outside of the tibia. Its upper ex-
 P tremity

tremity does not reach quite so high as that part of the tibia, but its inferior end descends somewhat lower.—Like other long bones, we may divide it into its body or middle part, and its extremities.

Its upper extremity is formed into an irregular head, on the inside of which is a slightly concave articulating surface, which, in the recent subject, is covered with cartilage, and receives the circular flat surface we described under the edge of the external cavity of the tibia. This articulation is surrounded by a capsular ligament, which is farther strengthened by other strong ligamentous fibres, so as to allow only a small motion backwards and forwards.—We may refer this articulation to the planiform, or fourth species of diarthrosis.—Externally, this head of the fibula is rough and protuberant, serving for the attachment of ligaments, and for the insertion of the biceps cruris muscle.—Immediately below it, on its inner side, is a tubercle, from which a part of the gastrocnemius internus has its origin.

IMME-

IMMEDIATELY below this head the body of the bone begins. It is of a triangular shape, and appears as if it were slightly twisted at each end in a different direction. It is likewise a little curved inwards and forwards. This curvature is in part owing to the action of muscles; and in part, perhaps, to the carelessness of nurses*.—Of the three angles of the bone, that which is turned towards the tibia is the most prominent, and serves for the attachment of the interosseous ligament, which, in its structure and uses, resembles that of the fore-arm, and, like that, is a little interrupted above and below.—The three surfaces of the bone are variously impressed by different muscles. About the middle of the posterior surface, we observe a passage for the medullary vessels, slanting downwards.

THE lower end of the fibula is formed into a spongy, oblong head, externally rough and convex, internally smooth, and covered with a thin cartilage, where it is received by the external triangular depression at the

* *Monro on the Bones.*

lower end of the tibia. This articulation, which resembles that of its upper extremity, is furnished with a capsular ligament, and farther strengthened by ligamentous fibres, which are stronger and more considerable than those we described above. They extend from the tibia to the fibula, in an oblique direction, and are more easily discernible before than behind. Below this the fibula is lengthened out, so as to form a considerable process, called *malleolus externus*, or the outer angle. It is smooth, and covered with cartilage on the inside, where it is contiguous to the astragalus, or first bone of the foot. At the lower and inner part of this process we find a spongy cavity, filled with fat; and a little beyond this, posteriorly, is a cartilaginous groove, for the tendons of the peroneus longus and peroneus brevis, which are here bound down by the ligamentous fibres that are extended over them.

THE principal uses of this bone seem to be, to afford origin and insertion to muscles, and to contribute to the articulation of the leg with the foot. Of this articulation we shall

shall have occasion to speak hereafter. Its situation with respect to the tibia is such, that as that bone forms the internal and anterior, so this forms the external, and, in some measure, the posterior part of the leg; infomuch, that if a sword, or any other sharp instrument, were to be plunged between the two bones of each leg, it would pass behind the two tibias, and before the two fibulas*.—In new-born children both ends of the fibula are cartilaginous, and become epiphyses before they are completely united to the body of the bone.

Of the Rotula.

THE rotula, patella, or knee-pan, as it is differently called, is a small flat bone, which, in some measure, resembles the common figure of the heart with its point downwards, and is placed at the fore part of the joint of the knee.

It is thicker in its middle part than at its edge.—Anteriorly, it is a little convex,

* Sabatier, *Traité d'Anatomic*, tome i.

and rough for the infertion of muscles and ligaments; posteriorly, it is smooth, covered with cartilage, and divided by a middle longitudinal ridge, into two slightly concave surfaces, of which the external one is the largest and deepest. They are both exactly adapted to the pulley of the os femoris. The edges of this posterior surface are rough and prominent, where the capsular ligament is attached, and below, we find a roughness at the point of the bone, where the upper extremity of a strong tendinous ligament is fixed, which joins this bone to the tuberosity at the upper end of the tibia. This ligament is of considerable thickness, about an inch in breadth, and upwards of two inches in length.

THE rotula is composed internally of a cellular substance, covered by a thin bony plate; but its cells are so extremely minute, that the strength of the bone is, upon the whole, very considerable.—In new-born children it is entirely cartilaginous.

THE use of this bone seems to be, to defend the articulation of the joint of the
knee

knee from external injury.—It likewise tends to increase the power of the muscles which act in the extension of the leg, by removing their direction farther from the center of motion, in the manner of a pulley.—When we consider the manner in which it is connected with the tibia, we find that it may very properly be considered as an appendix to the latter, which it follows in all its motions, so as to be to the tibia what the olecranon is to the ulna; with this difference, however, that the rotula is moveable, whereas the olecranon is a fixed process. Without this mobility, the rotatory motion of the leg would have been prevented.

Of the Joint of the Knee.

THIS complicated articulation could not well be understood, till all the bones of the leg had been described.—On viewing it in the recent subject, we see all the fore part of the joint covered by an expansion of the *fascia lata*, under which we find the rotula connected to the tibia below, as we have already observed, by a strong ligament, and

retained in its situation above by the tendons of the extensor muscles of the leg, which are inserted into it.

THE whole joint is surrounded by a capsular ligament, which is fixed to the lower extremity of the femur, adhering laterally to the edges of the condyles, and extending higher up posteriorly and anteriorly, so as to include the whole of the pulley.—We then find it adhering all round the head of the tibia, and likewise to the prominent edge we described on the posterior surface of the rotula.—This capsula is covered externally by other ligaments, which, from their situation, are called the *lateral* and *posterior* ligaments.

THE lateral ligaments, which are two in number, are distinguished into external and internal.—The external lateral ligament is fixed to the tuberosity we described above the outer condyle of the thigh. It extends downwards about two inches in length, its fibres spreading somewhat wider as it descends, and it terminates on the anterior part

of

of the head of the fibula. The internal lateral ligament is broader and longer than the other. It is attached to the tuberosity above the inner condyle of the os femoris, and its fibres spreading wider as they descend, are fixed to the upper and inner side of the tibia, extending downwards more than two inches upon that bone.—The situation of these two ligaments is not immediately at the middle of the joint on each side, but a little backwards. This position is a greater security to the articulation, and while it facilitates the natural flexion and extension of the leg, helps to prevent its being bent backwards. In this latter respect, the joint is farther secured by the third external ligament, which, from its situation, is called the *posterior* ligament, being fixed to the lower and back part of the external condyle of the os femoris, from whence it is spread somewhat obliquely to the upper, and posterior part of the tibia, where it terminates.

On opening the capsular ligament, we find other ligaments within the cavity of the joint.

joint. These are three in number. The two most considerable ones intersect each other, and are therefore called the *cross* ligaments. They are placed at the back part of the joint, and, from their situation with respect to each other, may be distinguished into the anterior and posterior ligaments. They are both fixed by one of their extremities, to the cavity we observed between the two condyles at the back of the os femoris, the anterior ligament adhering to the outer, and the posterior ligament to the inner side of that cavity. The former is fastened by its other extremity to the inner part of the tubercle, which separates the two articulating cavities of the tibia, while the other, or posterior ligament, is fixed in the depression which is immediately behind that tubercle. The anterior ligament is the most oblique of the two, the other being almost perpendicular. They are both connected at their back part with the inner surface of the capsular ligament, and anteriorly we find them covered with fat. These two ligaments cross each other when we turn the point of the foot inwards, but separate from each

each

each other when the foot is turned outwards. Their chief use seems to be to prevent the leg's being brought farther than to a straight line with the thigh, that the body may be supported by a firm perpendicular column*. They likewise prevent the leg's being turned inwards, while they favour its rotation outwards.—The third ligament within the joint is a very thin one, which is fixed to the rotula, and to the fore part of the cavity which separates the two condyles of the os femoris. Its chief use seems to be to prevent the mucilaginous glands from being injured by the motions of the joint.

BESIDES the cartilages, which we have already had occasion to describe in speaking of the os femoris, tibia, and rotula, we find two intermediate or moveable cartilages within the cavity of the joint, which, from their shape, are called *femilunar* cartilages. They are placed one on each side of the intermediate protuberance of the tibia, so as to cover about two-thirds of each of its two articulating surfaces on which they are

* Monro on the Bones.

placed.

placed. Their inferior surface, which is placed upon the tibia, is flat, while their superior surface is slightly concave, and adapted to the convexity of the condyles of the os femoris. Their convex edge, which is of considerable thickness, is turned towards the outer border of each cavity, and is connected with the capsular ligament, while their inner and concave edge, which is much thinner, is placed towards the intermediate protuberance, so that their horns or extremities, which are thin, pointed, and nearly ligamentous, are turned towards each other; the anterior extremity of each being connected by a narrow ligament, of about an inch in length, which is stretched from one to the other before the intermediate protuberance of the tibia, while their posterior extremities are fixed to this same protuberance by particular ligaments.—The external cartilage seems to be more loosely connected, and of course to be more moveable than the internal.

THESE cartilages, like those we described in speaking of the lower jaw and the ulna, serve

serve to prevent any injury from friction, and to adapt themselves to the different inequalities in the several motions of the joint, at the same time that the thickness of their edges increases the depth of the articulating cavities;

HAVING thus described the different parts of the articulation, the nature of it will be easily understood.—We have already had occasion to observe, that the articulation of the tibia with the os femoris affords a specimen of the complete ginglymus, which of course allows of flexion and extension. But, besides this, we find that the leg has a slight degree of rotatory motion upon its axis, which seems to be effected chiefly by means of the moveable cartilages, and supposes the concurrence of other species of diarthrosis. Thus, in turning the foot inwards or outwards, the inner cavity of the tibia, together with its intermediate cartilage, moves upon the outer condyle of the femur, as upon a pivot, so as to afford an instance of arthrodia; while the outer articulating cavity of the tibia, sliding upon the
under

under flat surface of its moveable cartilage, resembles the planiform, or fourth species of diarthrosis.

Of the Foot.

THE bones of the foot, like those of the hand, are usually described in three divisions, but with different names.—In the hand, we spoke of the carpus, metacarpus, and fingers; but the divisions of the foot are called, the *tarsus*, *metatarsus*, and *toes*.

Of the Tarsus.

THE tarsus is composed of seven bones, viz. the astragalus, os calcis, os naviculare, os cuboides, and three ossa cuneiformia.

THE *astragalus* is the uppermost bone of the foot, and the most considerable in bulk, if we except the os calcis. Its upper part is formed into a large smooth head, round the basis of which is a rough fossa, that
serves

serves for the attachment of ligaments. The upper convex surface of the head, which resembles a pulley, is admitted into the cavity of the tibia; the inner side of this head is flat and smooth, for its articulation with the malleolus internus, while its outer side affords another flat but broader surface, for its articulation with the malleolus externus. Both these lateral surfaces are covered with a cartilage, which is continued from the upper convex part of the head, and descends lower down on the outer than on the inner side. Anteriorly, the astragalus is convex, and covered with cartilage, for its articulation with the os naviculare. The under surface of the bone affords two articulating surfaces, separated by a deep irregular fossa. The anterior of these two surfaces is very small, and slightly convex; the posterior one oblong and concave. They both serve for the articulation of this bone with the os calcis.

THE *os calcis*, or *calcaneum*, which is the largest bone of the foot, is of a very irregular figure. It is long, and somewhat flattened

tened at its sides. Behind, it is formed into a considerable tuberosity, called the *heel*, which is slightly hollow above, and rough behind, where the tendo Achillis is inserted into it. Without this tuberosity, which supports us in an erect posture, and when we walk, we should be liable to fall backwards.—The upper surface of the bone rises so as to form an irregular, oblong, smooth prominence, which is adapted to the posterior concave surface of the astragalus. The fore part of this prominence is separated by a narrow fossa, from a small, smooth, and slightly concave surface, situated obliquely, and which receives the small convex surface we described at the fore part of the under surface of the astragalus.—Anteriorly, this bone is formed into an oblong, smooth, convex surface, which is circular above, and somewhat pointed below. This surface is adapted to the os cuboides.—The lower surface of the bone is flat, and immediately beyond this fore part we observe two tubercles, one internal, and the other external, which give origin to muscles. The rest of this surface is concave, for lodging the flexor muscles,

muscles, and rough, for the attachment of ligaments.—The external side of the bone is flat, and affords a superficial groove for the tendon of the peroneus longus; the internal side is hollowed, for the lodgment of muscles, and for the safe passage of tendons, nerves, and vessels.

THE *os naviculare*, or *scaphoides*, is situated between the astragalus and the ossa cuneiformia, at the inner side of the foot. Its posterior surface is concave, and adapted to the anterior head of the astragalus, and its anterior surface convex, affording three articulating surfaces, which answer to the three cuneiform bones. Of these three surfaces, the internal one is the largest.—Its upper surface is convex, and affords a rough fossa. Its under surface is hollow, for the lodgment of muscles, and rough and unequal, for the attachment of ligaments.—The outer side of this bone is rounded, except where it is joined, by a semi-circular smooth surface, to the os cuboides.—On its inner side we observe a tuberosity, into which the tendon of the tibialis posticus is inserted.

Q

THE

THE *os cuboides* is of a very irregular shape, and is placed at the outer side and at the anterior part of the tarsus. Posteriorly, it is formed into an oblong, articulating surface, which receives the fore part of the os calcis. Anteriorly, it is flat, and slightly divided into two articulating surfaces, which are connected with the two last bones of the metatarsus.—Its upper surface is rough and convex; its under surface is broader, and affords a considerable protuberance, on the fore part of which is a groove, for the tendon of the peronæus longus.—On the inner side of the bone are two articulating surfaces, covered with cartilage; the foremost of these is flat and oblong, for its articulation with the os cuneiforme externum; the hindmost is small and semi-circular, for its articulation with the os naviculare.—The external side of the bone, which helps to form the outside of the foot, is shorter and more irregular than the inner side.

THE *ossa cuneiformia* are the three wedge-like bones; which are placed by the sides of each other between the os naviculare and the

the metatarsus, and which, from their situation, are usually distinguished into *os cuneiforme externum, medium, and internum*. They are of unequal bulk, the middle one being the smallest, and the internal one the largest. —We shall give a separate description of each.

THE *os cuneiforme externum* is of a middle size, when compared with the two others. Its upper surface forms an oblong square, and, as its sides extend obliquely downwards, a sharp edge is formed at the inside of the foot: hence the bone has the appearance of a wedge. Posteriorly, it is a little concave, and nearly triangular, where it joins the *os naviculare*; anteriorly, it is nearly of the same shape, and slightly convex, for sustaining the metatarsal bone of the middle toe.—Its external surface is divided into two articulating surfaces; the foremost and smallest of the two is joined to the inner side of the basis of the fourth metatarsal bone, while the other and longer surface is articulated with the *os cuboides*. Its inner side affords, in the same manner,

two surfaces, for its articulation with the os cuneiforme medium, and the outer side of the basis of the second metatarsal bone.

THE *os cuneiforme medium*, or *minimum* as it is sometimes called on account of its size when compared with the other two, is wedged in between four bones.—Its upper surface forms a more regular square than the last described bone.—Anteriorly, it is triangular, and slightly concave, for its articulation with the second metatarsal bone; posteriorly, it has a similar surface, by which it is joined to the os naviculare. Its external side is contiguous to the last described bone, and its internal side is joined to the following one.

THE *os cuneiforme internum*, or *maximum*, differs from the other two, in having its broad square surface placed towards the sole of the foot, where it is slightly concave, for allowing a passage to the flexors of the great toe, while its small thin edge, which appears twisted, is turned upwards. Posteriorly, it is concave, and somewhat triangular,

gular, where it is joined to the os naviculare; anteriorly, it is convex, and of a femilunar shape, for supporting the metatarsal bone of the great toe.—Of its two sides, the inner one is rough and convex, affording two tubercles below; the external side is flat, and consists of two smooth surfaces, covered with cartilage: the direction of these two surfaces is nearly at right angles with each other; the posterior one, which is the largest, is joined to the os cuneiforme medium, while the anterior one is connected with the basis of the second metatarsal bone.

WHEN these seven bones, which compose the tarsus, are joined together, they are convex above, where they help to form the back of the foot, and afford a concavity below, in which the tendons, vessels, and nerves of the foot are placed secure from compression.—Their connections, as we have seen, are with one another, and with the bones of the metatarsus, by the planiform or fourth species of diarthrosis, except the articulation of the astragalus with the os naviculare, which is by arthrodia. The

Q 3

astra-

astragalus is joined to the tibia and fibula by ginglymus, but the articulation being loose, it allows motion in every direction. All these articulations are secured by very strong ligaments.

THE ligaments which connect the leg and foot, are a capsular, and two lateral ligaments. The capsular ligament is attached to the lower extremities of the tibia and fibula, and adheres all round the upper surface and the two lateral surfaces of the astragalus.—Of the two lateral ligaments, the internal one is short and thick. It begins from the lower, and chiefly from the anterior part of the malleolus internus, and, descending somewhat obliquely backwards, spreading broader as it descends, is fixed to the upper part of the inner side of the astragalus. Some of the fibres of this ligament are spread almost transversely to the back part of the malleolus internus.—The whole of it is covered by a broad and thick annular ligament, which begins from the lower extremity of the malleolus internus, and, spreading wider as it descends, is fixed to
the

the inner sides of the astragalus and os calcis. This ligament serves to strengthen the articulation of the leg with the foot; but its principal use seems to be, to bind down the tendons of the flexor longus pollicis, the flexor longus digitorum, and the tibialis posticus muscles, and likewise to secure the vessels and nerves in their way to the foot.—The external lateral ligament is of greater length and thickness, though looser than the internal one. It begins from the anterior part of the malleolus externus, and, descending obliquely backwards, is fixed to the upper and outer part of the os calcis. Besides this, many other strong fibres, which have been sometimes described as a separate ligament, are seen extending, almost in a transverse direction, from the inner part of the malleolus externus to the back part of the astragalus. This external lateral ligament is likewise covered by an annular ligament, which, like the one just now described, serves rather to bind down the tendons of the foot, than to strengthen the articulation, though it is certainly useful in this latter respect.—This annular ligament

Q 4

adheres

adheres below to the outer side of the os calcis, after which it separates into two portions; one of these extends to the lower part of the tibia, while the other is fixed to the inner side of the astragalus and os naviculare.

THE bones of the tarsus are likewise firmly connected by a great number of strong ligaments, which cover their upper and under surfaces in the same manner as we observed of the bones of the carpus; and when we join the astragalus to the os calcis and os naviculare, we find an opening, which, in the recent subject, is filled up by ligaments, so that the body rests upon a yielding basis, by which means we sustain a less shock in walking or jumping.

ALL these bones are of a very spongy texture covered with a compact bony lamella. Like the bones of the carpus, they are all in a cartilaginous state in the foetus, except the astragalus and os calcis, both of which are in a great measure ossified at the ordinary time of birth; and the great tuberosity

robustness of the latter, into which the tendo Achillis is inserted, becomes an epiphysis before it is completely united to the rest of the bone.

Of the Metatarsus.

THE metatarsus is made up of five bones, which, in their general characters, agree with those of the metacarpus, but are longer and thicker. The basis, or posterior extremity of each, is thicker and more irregular than their anterior extremity, or head, which is rounded. Their body, or middle part is somewhat triangular.

THE first of these bones, or the os metatarsi pollicis, is the shortest and thickest of the five. Its basis affords an oblong articulating surface, of a semilunar shape, which is adapted to the os cuneiforme internum. —Towards the lower edge of this basis we observe a rough tuberosity, into which the tendon of the peroneus longus is inserted. —On the outer side of the basis is a small de-

depression, covered with cartilage, for its articulation with the basis of the second metatarsal bone.—Its body is angular below, and rounded above.—Its head is rounded, and proportioned to the size of the bone, affording two oblong cavities on its fore part, separated by a middle ridge, for receiving the ossa sesamoidea.—On the outer side of this head is a small depression, made by the second metatarsal bone.

THE second metatarsal bone is longer than any of the others. Its basis affords an oblique surface, which is supported by the os cuneiforme medium.—At the outer and inner sides of this basis, the bone is joined to the os cuneiforme internum and os cuneiforme externum, and immediately above this, on each side, we observe an articulating surface, for its connection with the first and third metatarsal bones.

THE third metatarsal bone, which supports the middle toe, is the second in length. Its basis, which is triangular and slanting outwards, rests upon the os cuneiforme externum.

THE

THE fourth metatarsal is nearly as long as the third, and has a triangular and slightly flanting basis, which rests upon the os cuboides. Besides its lateral surfaces, for its connection with the third and fifth metatarsal bones, the inner side of its basis is impressed by the os cuneiforme externum.

THE fifth metatarsal bone, or that which supports the little toe, is shorter than either of the three last. Its basis, which rests on the os cuboides, is very oblique, large, and tuberosus. On its inside it affords a flat articulating surface, where it joins the fourth metatarsal bone. Its external side flants downwards and backwards, so as to form a tuberosity, into which the tendon of the peroneus brevis, and part of the abductor minimi digiti is inserted.

Of the Toes.

ALL the toes, like the fingers, are made up of three bones, except the great toe, which is composed only of two bones; and they

they are likewise distinguished into phalanges.—The two phalanges of the great toe differ from the two last phalanges of the thumb, chiefly in their being proportionally much stronger, and in their not being placed obliquely in respect of the other toes, as the thumb is to the fingers.—The three phalanges of the other four toes differ from those of the fingers, only in being smaller in proportion to their lengths. They are all of them smaller at their head than at their basis, and gradually become smaller and shorter from the great to the little toe.—This latter, and sometimes the toe next to it, has the second and third bones intimately united into one. This seems to be partly the effect of pressure, and partly, perhaps, of the little motion for which they are intended.

THE internal structure, both of these bones and of those of the metatarsus, the state of them in the fœtus, together with their ligaments and articulations, are, in every respect, similar to what we formerly observed of the metacarpus and fingers.

FROM

FROM the description I have given of the different parts of the foot, their uses will be easily understood. We have seen how the concavity of the sole of the foot is useful, by affording a safe lodgment for muscles and vessels. In standing, the os calcis and the fore ends of the metatarsal bones are our only supporters, and therefore the former is thick and projects backwards, while the latter are strong, and have only a confined motion; but, in walking, the toes are necessary to bring our body, with its centre of gravity, perpendicular to the advanced foot, which they do when the sole is raised*: and although these bones do not move upon each other with so much ease as the bones of the fingers do, yet their number and arrangement seem to be perfectly adapted to the functions they are intended to perform.

Of the Ossa Sefamoidea.

BESIDES the bones we have already described, as belonging to the extremities,

* Monro on the Bones.

there

there are others of different figures and sizes, which, from their supposed general resemblance to the seeds of the sesamum, are called *ossa sesamoidea*. They are found at the articulations of the great toes, and sometimes at the joints of the thumbs; now and then we meet with them upon the condyles of the os femoris, at the lower extremity of the fibula, under the os cuboides of the tarsus, &c.—They do not exist in the foetus, but, as we advance in life, begin first to appear in a cartilaginous state, and, at length, in adult subjects, are completely ossified. Age and hard labour seem to add to the number and size of these bones, and, being most commonly found wherever the tendons and ligaments are most exposed to pressure from the action of the muscles, they are now generally considered by anatomists as the ossified parts of tendons and ligaments.

THESE BONES are usually smooth and flat on the side of the bone on which they are placed; their upper surface is convex, and, in general, adheres to the tendon that covers it,

it, and of which it may, in some measure, be considered as a part.

ALTHOUGH their formation seems to be owing to accidental circumstances, yet as the two at the first joint of the great toe are much larger than the rest, and are seldom wanting in an adult, it would seem as if these bones were of some utility; perhaps by removing the tendons farther from the centre of motion, and thus increasing the power of the muscles. The ossa sesamoidea of the great toe and thumb seem likewise to be of use, by forming a groove for lodging the flexor tendons secure from compression.

B O O K II.

M Y O L O G Y.

C H A P. I.

Of the Muscles in general—the structure of their fibres—their cellular membrane, blood vessels, lymphatics, and nerves—irritability of the muscular fibre.—Of the tendons—tendinous fasciæ—motions performed by the muscles—their names and arrangement.

ALL that soft part of the body, which is commonly called *flesh*, is by anatomists, found to consist of various distinct masses, of a soft fibrous texture, and of a red colour, to which they give the name of *muscles*. These are the organs of motion; for it is by their means that the bones, which may be considered as so many levers, are moved in different directions,
and

and that all the different motions of the body are performed.

ANATOMISTS usually distinguish, in the generality of muscles, a body, or belly part, and two extremities. The extremities include the same number of fibres as the belly of the muscle, but they are more firmly united together, and degenerate into a firm, glistening, and insensible substance, of a white colour, which, as we observed in our Introduction, is called *tendon*, if it be round and slender; or *aponeurosis*, if expanded into a broad flat surface.—These extremities are usually distinguished into head or origin, and tail or insertion. Thus the end that adheres to the most fixed part is named the head, or origin, and that which is inserted into the moveable part, is called the tail, or insertion of the muscle. These expressions are indeed altogether arbitrary, it being well known that the extremities of a muscle vary with the different situations of the body; so that parts, which in some motions are fixed, become moveable in others. But as some terms or other are ne-

R

cessary

cessary to express our ideas, I shall adopt those of *origin* and *insertion*. They are the most generally used in this country, and prevent much circumlocution.

IN the generality of muscles, the fibres are placed parallel to each other, in a strait direction, and form what is called a *rectilinear* muscle; in others, the fibres are placed obliquely with respect to the tendons, like the plume of a pen; these are stiled *penniform* muscles: some consist of two fleshy portions, with a middle tendon; these are called *digastric* muscles: in others, the fibres are radiated, and form what is called a *radiated* muscle: and there are muscles whose fibres cross and intersect each other; these last are, by some writers, called *compound* muscles.

WHEN two or more muscles concur in the same action, they are called *congeneres*; and those which are the instruments of opposite actions, *antagonistæ*: thus, for instance, every flexor, or bending muscle, has a tensor, or extending muscle, for its antagonist, and *vice versa*.

Of the Structure of their Fibres.

THE fibres that compose the body of a muscle, are disposed in fasciculi, or bundles, which are easily distinguishable by the naked eye; but these fasciculi are divisible into still smaller ones; and these again are probably subdivisible *ad infinitum*.

THE most minute fibre we are able to trace, seems to be somewhat plaited; these plaits, disappearing when the fibre is put upon the stretch, seem evidently to be the effect of contraction, and have probably induced some writers to assert, that the muscular fibre is twisted or spiral.

VARIOUS have been the opinions concerning the structure of these fibres. They are all of them founded only on conjecture, and therefore we shall mention only the principal ones, and this with a view rather to gratify the curiosity of the reader, than to afford him information.

BORELLI * supposed them to be so many hollow cylinders, filled with a spongy medullary substance, which he compares to the pith of elder, *spongiosa ad instar sambuci*. These cylinders, he contends, are intersected by circular fibres, which form a chain of very minute bladders. This hypothesis has since been adopted by a great number of writers, with certain variations. Thus, for instance, Borelli supposes the vesicles to be of a rhomboidal shape; whereas Bernouilli contends that they are oval. Cowper went so far as to persuade himself that he had filled these cells with mercury; a mistake, no doubt, which arose from its insinuating itself into some of the lymphatics.—It is observable, however, that Leeuwenhoeck says nothing of any such vesicles. Here, as well as in many other of her works, Nature seems to have drawn a boundary to our inquiries, beyond which no human penetration will probably ever extend. It is, surely more commendable, however, to acknowledge our ignorance, than to indulge ourselves in chimæra.

* De Motu Animalium.

Of their cellular Membrane.

EACH muscle is surrounded by a very thin and delicate covering of cellular membrane, which incloses it, as it were, like a sheath, and, dipping down into its substance, surrounds the most minute fibres we are able to trace, connecting them to each other, lubricating them by means of the fat which its cells contain in more or less quantity in different subjects, and serving as a support to the blood-vessels, lymphatics, and nerves, which are so plentifully distributed through the muscles.—This cellular membrane, which in no respect differs from that we find investing and connecting the other parts of the body, has been sometimes mistaken for a membrane peculiar to the muscles; and hence we often find writers giving it the name of *propria membrana musculosa*.

Of their Blood Vessels, Lymphatics, and Nerves.

THE muscles owe the red colour, which so particularly distinguishes their belly part,

to an infinite number of arteries, which are every where dispersed through the whole of their reticular substance; for their fibres, after having been macerated in water, are, (like all other parts of the body divested of their blood,) found to be of a white colour.

THESE arteries usually enter the muscles by several considerable branches, and ramify so minutely through their substance, that we are unable, even with the best microscopes, to trace their ultimate branches. Ruysch fancied that the muscular fibre was hollow, and a production of a capillary artery; but this was merely conjectural.

THE veins, for the most part, accompany the arteries, but are found to be larger and more numerous.—The lymphatics, likewise, are numerous, as might be expected from the great proportion of reticular substance, which is every where found investing the muscular fibres.

THE nerves are distributed in such abundance to every muscle, that the muscles of
the

the thumb alone*, are supplied with a greater proportion of nervous influence than the largest viscera, as the liver for instance. They enter the generality of muscles by several trunks, the branches of which, like those of the blood-vessels, are so minutely dispersed through the cellular substance, that their number and minuteness soon elude the eye and the knife of the anatomist. This has given rise to a conjecture, as groundless as all the other conjectures on this subject, that the muscular fibre is ultimately nervous.

Of the irritability of the Muscular Fibre.

ALL the parts of the human body, some few only excepted, are found to possess more or less of an elastic property, or disposition to shorten themselves. This property we observe in the dead as well as in the living fibre, in vegetable as well as animal bodies, in the musical strings prepared from animals, and even in the gluten yielded

* Haller. Element. Physiolog. tom. iv. 4to.

by animal or vegetable substances. In the human body we find this property most apparent in the muscles; next to these, in the membranes, as the pleura, periofteum, and mediaftinum; and leaft of all, in the tendons, ligaments, and cellular membrane. In the very foft parts, as in the pulpy fubftance of the brain, and likewise in the harder parts, as in the bones and teeth, it is perhaps altogether wanting.

BUT we are not, as fome writers have done, to confound this elastic property with another very different one, which is observable in animal bodies, and now generally called *irritability*; a term by which we understand the contraction that takes place in the muscular fibre when pricked or irritated. It is to the late learned and illuftrious M. DE HALLER that the world is indebted for the investigation of this fingular property, which had been occasionally glanced at by different writers*, from the time of the ancients down-

* The immortal Harvey, in his *Exercitationes de Generatione Animalium*, obferves, that, in his experiments on living animals, he had found that, when the heart
had

downwards, although it does not appear that any idea was before suggested of its true nature; it was confounded with sensibility, or with the elastic property we have just now mentioned.

OUR countryman Gliffon* seems to be the first who uses the word *irritability*, but he employs it in a more vague sense than what we do at present; for, although he offers some facts to prove that animal flesh contracts even after death, when irritated by acrid and stimulating liquors, and that this contraction is independent of feeling, yet he does not confine this property merely to the muscular fibre, but allows it to other parts, as to the bones, for instance, and even to the juices of the body. Bellini † speaks of a natural contractibility, and explains, on mechanical principles, how any acrid substance, by irritating the fibres, is expelled by means of this principle. Hence he at-

had ceased to beat, its motion could be restored again by any stimulating application, or even by impelling the blood towards it.

* De Ventriculo et Intestinis.

† De Stimulis.

attempts

attempts to prove, how irritating substances may excite the muscles into action, accelerate the motion of the blood, occasion inflammation, and produce revulsion or evacuation. Baglivi * gives us some observations, which are much nearer the mark. He had seen fragments of a heart contract, when touched or irritated, independent of sensation. — The Stahlans have written a great deal concerning the tone and the natural contraction of the fibres, but they attributed these properties entirely to the soul. Boerhaave † acknowledged an active power in the heart, and a hidden principle of motion in its pieces when divided; but his system of muscular motion, which he attributes to the nerves, proves that he did not suspect the cause of this motion to be in the muscles themselves, nor was he aware, that although the nerves may increase or diminish this property, yet that they are not the immediate cause of it. Other writers have made observations similar to those of Boerhaave, but it was in the year 1739 that

* De Fibra Motrice et Morbosa.

† Institut. Rei Medic. § 187.

Haller, in his Commentaries on Boerhaave's Institutions, first observed, that " the heart
" owes its motion to some unknown cause,
" which depends neither on the brain nor on
" the arteries, and which lies concealed in the
" structure of the heart itself." Three years after this he remarked, in the fourth volume of those Commentaries, that every animal fibre contracts when irritated; that this distinguishes it from the vegetable fibre; and that the perpetuity of this irritation is the only cause of the continuance of motion in the vital organs, as in the heart for instance, while the voluntary muscles cease to act when this irritation is discontinued. In the first edition of his *First Lines of Physiology*, he attributes the motion of the heart to the power of the stimulus; and, in the second edition of that work, we find him ascertaining more fully this irritability of the muscular fibre, and considering it as independent of the nerves, and of every known property. In a word, he supposes a *vis insita*, or power inherent in the muscles, which disposes them to contract, when stimulated, independent of the will. As this matter, however, is
purely

purely physiological, we shall content ourselves, in this place, with relating some of the phenomena of irritability, without attempting to investigate its causes.

WE may observe, therefore, 1. That muscular fibres, when pricked or irritated, immediately contract, after which they return to a state of relaxation. 2. That, in the generality of muscles, this irritability is so great, that, after a single irritation, their fibres contract and relax alternately several times, the strength of their contractions gradually diminishing, till at length the muscle is at rest again. 3. That if a nerve, leading to a muscle, be irritated, the muscle contracts, but the nerve itself is not affected. 4. That irritability does not seem to be in proportion to sensibility; for the intestines, though seemingly less sensible, are more irritable than the stomach, and the heart, though excessively irritable, seems to be endowed with little sensibility*. 5. That this principle continues in different muscular parts of the same animal, a longer or shorter

* Haller. Dissertat. sur l'Irritabilité.

time after death: thus the heart, the diaphragm, and the intestines, usually preserve this power the longest, and are capable of having it excited in them by irritation, when all the other parts of the body are no longer susceptible of it. Lord Bacon * tells us, that “ having been present at the embowelling of a criminal, he saw the heart, after it was thrown into the fire, leap up for several times together, at first to the height of a foot and a half, and then gradually lower, to the best of his memory, for the space of seven or eight minutes.” In a dog, I have seen the stomach contract upon being irritated, upwards of forty minutes after the action of the heart had ceased. In some animals † the heart continues to contract several hours after it is separated from the body. 6. That irritability is found to be greater in young than in old, and in small than in large animals.

FROM what we have said of this property of the muscular fibre, the reader will per-

* Hist. de Vitâ et Morte.

† Haller. Element. Physiolog. tom. ii. 8vo.

ceive, that, besides the muscles, properly so called, and which are more particularly the object of the present part of the work, there are other parts of the body, as the stomach, intestines, urinary bladder, &c. which owe their power of contracting to what is called their *muscular tunic*, or *coat*. Irritability is therefore to be considered as the characteristic of muscular fibres, and it is by means of this property that we are enabled to ascertain their existence, even when they are too minute to be observed by the naked eye.

Of the Tendons.

THE fibres of the tendons, like those of the belly of a muscle, are long, straight, and cylindrical; disposed in parallel bundles; surrounded by cellular membrane; and, when viewed through a microscope, appear to be in plaits or folds. But they differ from the fleshy fibres, in being of a firmer texture, and of a white glistening colour; and still more essentially, in their being insensible and without irritability.

THE

THE ancients had a very erroneous idea of their structure. Thus it was the opinion of Galen, that the head of a muscle was of a ligamentous nature; and the tail, analogous to the substance of the nerves. The whiteness of the tendons led them to conclude, that they had no blood-vessels; but we now know, that they have both arteries and veins, though in much less proportion than the fleshy fibres. The number of vessels, however, that penetrate into their substance, seems to be very small, when compared with those which ramify on their surface.—Their lymphatics are doubtless proportioned to their cellular texture. Anatomists, as yet, have not been able to trace the nerves into the substance of the tendons.

It has long been a matter of dispute, whether the tendinous fibres are to be considered as continuations of the fleshy fibres, or as distinct substances, cemented to these by a glutinous substance, or by cellular membrane. That they are essentially different in their properties from the fleshy fibres, is evident from the circumstances I just now
men-

mentioned; such as their whiteness, firmness, and want of sensibility and irritability; and likewise from their having so little of an elastic property, that they stretch but very little before they break, whereas just the contrary of this happens to the fleshy fibres. It is observable also, that the tendons sometimes degenerate into a cartilaginous, and even bony substance, which does not happen to the fleshy fibres. We may therefore, perhaps, very properly consider them as cords, interposed between the fleshy fibres and the bone.

Of the Tendinous Fasciæ.

IN our description of the bones, we had frequent occasion to speak of the grooves which serve for the lodgment of tendons; and in some of them, we saw the tendons sliding upon a thin layer of cartilage. We find them secured in these grooves by a strong tendinous *theca*, (sheath,) or *fascia*, as it is differently called. We likewise observe such a fascia wherever a tendon is inserted

serted in a different direction from the body of the muscle. This theca, or sheath, is smooth and moist; and where a tendon is exposed to considerable pressure or friction, we usually find a small mucous sac, or *bursa mucosa*, contained within the sheath, which, by being thus interposed between the tendon and the bone, prevents the inconveniences of friction. These *bursæ mucosæ* sometimes inflame, or become otherwise diseased, and occasion a variety of distressing symptoms; so that a knowledge of their situation is of great use in surgery: we shall, therefore, be careful to point out the principal ones, in our description of particular muscles.

MANY of the long muscles are likewise surrounded by a fascia, or sheath, of the same kind. The chief use of these sheaths to the muscles seems to be, to strengthen their action, by keeping them firm in their proper places. But, besides those which belong to particular muscles, we find other more general expansions of the same kind, spread over a great number of muscles, affording origin to many of their fibres, dip-

ping down between them, separating them from each other, and, by adhering to the adjacent bone, preventing their swelling too much outwardly when in action. Of this kind is the membrane that is spread over the muscles of the arm, and likewise that other which covers the muscles of the thigh, which is commonly called the *fascia lata*. We shall have occasion to speak more particularly of these hereafter.

Of the motions performed by the Muscles, and of the phænomena of Muscular Motion.

THE motions performed by the muscles are of three kinds, viz. *voluntary*, *involuntary*, and *mixed*. The *voluntary* motions are those which are dependent on the will, and the parts by which they are executed are therefore called voluntary muscles. The *involuntary* motions are those which are not dependent on the will. Of these we have instances in the heart and arteries, and in the stomach and intestines. Lastly, the muscles of respiration are said to have a *mixed* motion, being,

being, in some measure, influenced by the will.

It is the action of the voluntary muscles which is called muscular motion. We shall content ourselves with enumerating some of its phenomena, without attempting to investigate its causes.

We have already had occasion to speak of the irritability of the muscular fibre, which enables it to contract and shorten itself when pricked or irritated. The same effect takes place in obedience to the will; but how the will operates in this case we cannot pretend to say. In order to illustrate this action the more clearly, it will be necessary to take a muscle or two as examples.

In the osteological part of this work, the generality of the bones were described as being articulated to each other with so much art, as to be capable of motion every way. But their motions cannot be performed by themselves, as they are perfectly passive in all the movements of the body. The muscles

are therefore a kind of cords, attached to the bones, which they move in different directions by shortening their fibres. Every one is acquainted with the motion of the lower jaw. We are able first to lower it, and then to raise and apply it strongly against the upper jaw. The action of the masseter muscle, in this case, is very sensible.—Above, it is fixed to the os malæ, and part of the upper jaw; and below, it is attached to the lower and outer ridge of the under jaw. When we are willing, therefore, to raise the jaw, its muscles are put into action. The masseter, on each side, contracts; and its fleshy part swells and enlarges, and becomes harder and shorter; and, as the upper end of this muscle is attached to a fixed and immovable part, which is the case with the maxilla superior, the lower extremity is necessarily drawn towards the upper one, bringing with it the lower jaw. This muscle, when in action, may be easily felt, by applying the hand to the cheek, between the cheek bone and the lower jaw.

AGAIN,

AGAIN, when we desire to bend the fingers, the flexor muscles, which are attached to the os humeri and the bones of the forearm, and have their tendons fixed to the inner surface of the extremities of the fingers, contract and shorten themselves; and thus the ends of the fingers are drawn towards the palm of the hand.

THE reader will here naturally enquire, by what mechanism this power to contract is occasioned.

MANY opinions have been formed, and much has been written on this subject. They who suppose the muscular fibres to consist of minute vesicles, are of opinion that the nerves, which are distributed through the muscle, bring with them a supply of animal spirits, which, at our will, fill these bladders, and, by increasing their diameter in width, shorten them, and, of course, the whole fibre. We will dwell no longer, however, on this hypothesis, nor will we say any thing of other systems, which, like that we have

mentioned, are founded only on conjecture, and therefore are far from being satisfactory.

SOME few things we know with certainty on this subject, and these are, 1. That the nerves are essentially necessary to muscular motion; for, if we tie up or divide the nerves leading to any muscle, that muscle becomes paralytic and incapable of action. 2. That the cause of palsy is usually not seated in the part affected, but commonly in the nerve leading to that part, or perhaps in the brain, or spinal marrow, from whence the nerves originate. 3. That a ligature, made on the artery leading to a muscle, produces the same effects as a ligature on the nerve, by rendering it inactive, and even insensible. This last observation proves, that a regular supply of blood, though not the cause of muscular motion, is, at least, essentially necessary to it.

Of the names of the Muscles.

THE word *muscle* is, by some writers, derived from $\mu\upsilon\sigma$, a name said to have been

first

first adopted by Pollux, on account of the supposed resemblance of a muscle to a mouse when stript of its skin; but others, with more reason, derive it from *μυεῖν*, *contrahere*, which is the proper action of a muscle.

GALEN, and others of the ancients, were acquainted with the greater part of the muscles; but, as they distinguished only a few of them by particular appellations, their descriptions are often times obscure and difficult to be understood. Vesalius has, in general, contented himself with describing them numerically. Bauhin, Riolanus, and Spigelius, seem to have been some of the first anatomists who gave to each muscle a particular name. Several other later writers have employed themselves in this way.

THE Nomenclature of Douglas having been of late years most commonly adopted in this country, I shall make him my principal guide in this respect; and where I deviate from him, it will generally be to follow Albinus. I shall be careful, however, to point out these variations to the reader,

and at the same time to give the fynonyma of Winflow, and sometimes of other writers.

THE names by which the muscles are distinguished, are founded on their situation or structure, on the direction of their fibres, on their origin and insertion, or on their shape, size, uses, &c. Thus the *pectoralis*, the *intercostales*, &c. have gotten their names from their situation; and the *semitendinosus*, the *semimembranosus*, &c. from their structure; the *recti*, the *obliqui*, the *transversales*, &c. from the direction of their fibres; the *stylohyoideus*, the *coraco-hyoideus*, &c. from their origin and insertion; the *zygomaticus*, the *pterygoideus*, &c. from their origin, and the *spinalis* and *semi-spinalis* from their insertion alone; the *deltoides*, the *trapezius*, the *rhomboides*, &c. from their shape; and the *flexors*, *extensors*, *adductors*, *abductors*, &c. from their uses.—These, and other distinctions, will be more fully explained in our description of particular muscles.

Of the Arrangement of the Muscles.

THE generality of anatomical writers have arranged the muscles according to their several uses. But this method is evidently defective, as the same muscles may very often have different uses; and it cannot fail to embarrass the student, who, instead of seeing them follow each other in a natural series, and thus acquiring a clear idea of their situation, often finds muscles classed together that are placed at a distance from each other. I have therefore thought it better to pursue the method adopted by the celebrated Albinus, in his excellent History of the Muscles, by describing them in the order in which they are situated, beginning with those that are placed nearest the integuments, and proceeding from these to the muscles that are more deeply seated.

IN the following chapter, however, the reader must not expect to find an account of all the muscles. There are some, the description

scription of which I shall defer till we come to treat of the parts to which they belong; of this number are the muscles of the eyes and eye lids, the ears, the nose, the lips, the tongue, the velum palati, the larynx, the pharynx, the intestinum rectum, and the male and female organs of generation. By this means we shall avoid repetition, and be enabled to convey a more accurate idea of the structure of all these several parts.

THE reader will be pleased to observe likewise, that, in general, mention is made only of the muscles of one side, because all the muscles of the body, a very few only excepted, have correspondent ones on the opposite side.

C H A P. II.

Of the particular Muscles.

S E C T I O N I.

Of the Muscles situated on the anterior part of the Abdomen.

IN dissecting a subject for the muscles, it is usual to begin with those of the lower belly. These are ten in number, five on each side; viz. the *obliquus externus*, *obliquus internus*, *transversalis*, *rectus*, and *pyramidalis*. The three first form so many broad layers on each side of the belly, filling up the space between the cartilaginous edges of the false ribs, and the bones of the pelvis. They are fleshy posteriorly, and tendinous at their fore part, where they unite with those of the opposite side; and the interlacement of their tendinous fibres forms what is called the *linea alba*, which extends from the cartilago xiphoides to the os pubis, and is perforated in the middle by the umbilicus. This *linea alba* has induced Columbus*, and

* De Re Anatomica, lib. v.

some

some other anatomists, to consider them as three digastric muscles, composed of a broad middle tendon and two fleshy bellies.—The two last, viz. the rectus and pyramidalis, are situated at the side of the linea alba; the former is a long, and the latter a short muscle.

Obliquus Externus.

THIS muscle, which is so named by Morgagni, Albinus, and Winflow, is the *obliquus descendens* of Vesalius and Douglas, and the *obliquus major* of Haller and some others. It is a broad, thin muscle, fleshy posteriorly, and tendinous in its middle and lower part, and is situated immediately under the integuments, covering all the other muscles of the lower belly.

It arises from the lower edges of the eight, and sometimes, though rarely, of the nine inferior ribs, not far from their cartilages, by as many distinct fleshy portions, which indigitate with corresponding parts of the serratus major anticus, and the latissimus dorsi.

dorsi. From these several origins, the fibres of the muscle descend obliquely forwards, and soon degenerate into a broad and thin aponeurosis, which terminates in the linea alba.

ABOUT an inch and a half above the pubis the fibres of this aponeurosis separate from each other, so as to form an aperture, which extends obliquely inwards and forwards, more than an inch in length, and is wider above than below, being nearly of an oval figure. This is what is sometimes, though erroneously, called the *ring* of the abdominal muscles, for it belongs only to the external oblique, there being no such opening either in the obliquus internus or in the transversalis, as some writers, and particularly Douglas and Cheselden, would give us to understand. This opening, or ring, serves for the passage of the spermatic vessels in men, and of the round ligament of the uterus in women, and is of a larger size in the former than in the latter.

THE two tendinous portions, which, by their separation, form this aperture, are called

called the *columns* of the ring. The anterior, superior, and inner column, which is the broadest and thickest of the two, passes over the symphysis pubis, and is fixed to the opposite os pubis; so that the anterior column of the right obliquus externus intersects that of the left, and is, as it were, interwoven with it, by which means their insertion is strengthened, and their attachment made firmer.— The posterior, inferior, and exterior column, approaches the anterior one as it descends, and is fixed behind and below it to the os pubis of the same side.

THE fibres of that part of the obliquus externus, which arises from the two inferior ribs, descend almost perpendicularly, and are inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the outer edge of the anterior half of the spine of the ilium. From the anterior superior spinous process of that bone, the external oblique is stretched tendinous to the os pubis, forming what is called *Poupart's* *, and sometimes *Fallopian's* ligament, Fallopius †

* Histoire de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1705.

† Observ. Anatom.

having

having first described it. Winslow, and many others, name it the *inguinal* ligament. But, after all, it has no claim to this name, it being nothing more than the tendon of the muscle, which is turned or folded inwards at its interior edge. It passes over the blood-vessels of the lower extremity, and is thickest near the pelvis; and in women, from the greater size of the pelvis, it is longer and looser than in men. Hence we find, that women are most liable to crural herniæ; whereas men, from the greater size of the ring of the external oblique, are most subject to the inguinal. From this ligament, and from that part of the tendon which forms the ring, we observe a detachment of tendinous fibres, which are lost in the *fascia lata* of the thigh. This may, in some measure, account for the pain which, in cases of strangulated herniæ, is felt when the patient stands upright, and which is constantly relieved upon bending the thigh upwards.

THIS muscle serves to draw down the ribs in expiration; to bend the trunk forwards when both muscles act, or to bend it obliquely

obliquely to one side, and, perhaps, to turn it slightly upon its axis, when it acts singly; it also raises the pelvis obliquely when the ribs are fixed; it supports and compresses the abdominal viscera, assists in the evacuation of the urine and fæces, and is likewise useful in parturition.

Obliquus Internus.

THIS muscle, which is the *obliquus ascendens* of Vefalius and Douglas, and the *obliquus minor* of Haller, is situated immediately under the external oblique, and is broad and thin like that muscle, but somewhat less considerable in its extent.

It arises from the spinous processes of the three inferior lumbar vertebræ, and from the posterior and middle part of the os sacrum, by a thin tendinous expansion, which is common to it and to the ferratus posticus inferior; by short tendinous fibres, from the whole spine of the ilium, between its posterior tuberosity, and its anterior and superior spinous process; and from two-thirds
of

of the posterior surface of what is called Fallopius's ligament, at the middle of which we find the round ligament of the uterus in women, and the spermatic vessels in men, passing under the thin edge of this muscle; and in the latter, it likewise sends off some fibres, which descend upon the spermatic chord, as far as the tunica vaginalis of the testis, and constitute what is called the *cremaster* muscle. We shall have occasion to speak more particularly of this muscle in our description of the testicle.

FROM these origins, the fibres of the internal oblique run in different directions; those of the posterior portion ascend obliquely forwards, the middle ones become less and less oblique, and, at length, run in an horizontal direction, and those of the anterior portion extend obliquely downwards. The first of these are inserted, by very short tendinous fibres, into the cartilages of the fifth, fourth, and third of the false ribs; the fibres of the second, or middle portion, form a broad tendon, which, after being inserted into the lower edge of the

T

car-

cartilage of the second false rib, extends towards the linea alba, and separates into two layers; the anterior layer, which is the thickest of the two, joins the tendon of the obliquus externus, and runs over the two upper thirds of the rectus muscle, to be inserted into the linea alba; the posterior layer runs under the rectus, adheres to the anterior surface of the tendon of the transversalis, and is inserted into the cartilages of the first of the false, and the last of the true ribs, and likewise into the linea alba. By this structure we may perceive that the greater part of the rectus is inclosed, as it were, in a sheath.

THE fibres of the anterior portion of the internal oblique, or those which arise from the spine of the ilium and the ligamentum Fallopii, likewise form a broad tendon, which, instead of separating into two layers like that of the other part of the muscle, runs over the lower part of the rectus, and, adhering to the under surface of the tendon of the external oblique, is inserted into the fore part of the pubis.

THIS

THIS muscle serves to assist the obliquus externus; but it seems to be more evidently calculated than that muscle is, to draw the ribs downwards and backwards. It likewise serves to separate the false ribs from the true ribs, and from each other.

Transversalis.

THE name of this muscle has never varied since the time of Vesalius, who first called it *transversalis*, on account of the direction of its fibres. It is nearly of the same shape and extent as the obliquus internus, and is situated between that muscle and the peritonæum.

It arises fleshy from the two anterior thirds of the spine of the ilium, and from the inner surface of the upper half of the ligamentum Fallopii; by a broad thin tendon, from the transverse processes of the three or four superior lumbar vertebræ, and of the last dorsal vertebra; and from the inner or back part of the cartilages of the six or seven

inferior ribs, by as many tendinous portions, which soon become fleshy, if we except the last, which forms a thin broad tendon of an inch in length. At these origins from the ribs, we find some of the fibres of the transversalis intermixed with those of the diaphragm, and sometimes with those of the intercostals.

As the fibres of this muscle approach the rectus, they become tendinous; but the middle fibres do this sooner than the upper or lower ones, so as to form a kind of crescent. The three upper quarters of this aponeurosis pass under the posterior layer of the obliquus internus, to which it adheres, and is inserted wholly into the linea alba, except a very small portion of it, which we find terminating on the anterior surface of the cartilago ensiformis. The lower quarter of the tendon passes over the rectus muscle, and, adhering to the anterior layer of the obliquus internus, is inserted into the upper and anterior part of the pubis. From this structure we may perceive, that the lower part of the rectus is immediately contiguous to

to the peritonæum. This circumstance has been considered as a late discovery, but it was evidently known to Galen.

ALTHOUGH the greater part of the fibres of this muscle run in a transverse direction, yet some few of its upper fibres extend somewhat obliquely upwards, as some of its lower ones do a little obliquely downwards.

THE use of this muscle is to support and compress the abdominal viscera.

Rectus Abdominis.

THIS long and strait muscle is situated near its fellow, at the middle and fore part of the abdomen, parallel to the linea alba, and between the aponeuroses of the three last described muscles, in the manner we have already related.

IT arises sometimes by a single broad tendon from the upper and inner part of the os pubis, but more commonly by two heads,

one of which is fleshy, and originates from the upper edge of the pubis, and the other tendinous, from the inside of the symphysis pubis, behind the pyramidalis muscle. From these beginnings, the muscle runs upwards the whole length of the linea alba, and, becoming broader and thinner as it ascends, is inserted by a thin aponeurosis into the edge of the cartilago ensiformis, and into the cartilages of the fifth, sixth, and seventh ribs.—This aponeurosis is placed under the pectoral muscle, and sometimes adheres to the fourth rib.

THE fibres of this muscle are commonly divided by three tendinous interfections, which were first noticed by Berenger, or, as he is commonly called, Carpi, an Italian anatomist, who flourished in the sixteenth century. One of these interfections is usually where the muscle runs over the cartilage of the seventh rib; another is at the umbilicus; and the third is between these two. Sometimes there is one, and even two, between the umbilicus and the pubis. When one, or both of these occur, however, they
feldom

feldom extend more than half way across the muscle. As these interfections seldom penetrate through the whole substance of the muscle, they are all of them most apparent on its anterior surface, where they firmly adhere to the sheath; the adhesions of the rectus to the posterior layer of the internal oblique, are only by means of cellular membrane, and of a few vessels which pass from one to the other.

ALBINUS and some others have seen this muscle extending as far as the upper part of the sternum.

THE use of the rectus is to compress the fore part of the abdomen, but more particularly the lower part; and, according to the different positions of the body, it may likewise serve to bend the trunk forwards, or to raise the pelvis. Its situation between the two layers of the internal oblique, and its adhesions to this sheath, secure it in its place, and prevent it from rising into a prominent form when in action; and lastly, its tendinous interfections enable it to contract at any of the intermediate spaces.

Pyramidalis.

FALLOPIUS, who is considered as the first accurate describer of this muscle, first gave it the name of *pyramidalis*, from its shape. But Vesalius seems to have been acquainted with it, and to have described it as a part of the rectus. It is a very small muscle, situated at the bottom of the fore part of the rectus, and is covered by the same aponeurosis that forms the anterior part of the sheath of that muscle.

It arises, by short tendinous fibres, from the upper and fore part of the pubis. From this origin, which is seldom more than an inch in breadth, its fibres ascend somewhat obliquely, to be inserted into the linea alba and inner edge of the rectus, commonly at about the distance of two inches from the pubis, and frequently at a greater or less distance, but always below the umbilicus.

IN some subjects the pyramidalis is wanting on one or both sides, and when this hap-

happens, the internal oblique is usually found to be of greater thickness at its lower part. Now and then, though rarely, there are two at one side, and only one at the other, and M. Sabatier* has even seen two on each side.

FALLOPIUS and many others after him have considered it as the congener of the internal oblique; but its use seems to be to assist the lower part of the rectus.

S E C T I O N II.

*Of the Muscles situated on the anterior part
of the Thorax.*

Pectoralis.

THIS is a broad, thick, fleshy, and radiated muscle, situated immediately under the integuments, and covering almost the whole anterior part of the breast. Winslow calls it *pectoralis major*, to distinguish it from the serratus anticus, which he has named *pectoralis minor*.

* *Traité d'Anatomie*, tom. i.

IT arises from the cartilaginous extremities of the fifth and sixth ribs, from the last of which its tendinous fibres descend over the upper part of the obliquus externus and rectus abdominis, helping to form a part of the sheath in which the latter is included. It likewise springs from almost the whole length of the sternum by short tendinous fibres, which evidently decussate those on the other side; and tendinous and fleshy from more than a third of the anterior part of the clavicle.

FROM these origins the fibres run in a folding manner towards the axilla, and are inserted by a broad tendon into the os humeri, above the insertion of the deltoid muscle, and at the outer side of the groove which lodges the tendon of the long head of the biceps: some of its fibres likewise extend into that groove; and, from the lower part of this tendon, which is spread near two inches along the os humeri, we find it sending off other fibres, which help to form the fascia that covers the muscles of the arm.

IT

It often happens, that that part of the pectoralis which arises from the clavicle, is separated from the inferior portion, so as to appear like a distinct muscle. This has induced Winslow to divide it into parts, one of which he calls the *clavicular*, and the other the *thoracic* portion. Sometimes these two portions are inserted by separate tendons, which cross one another at the upper and inner part of the os humeri, the tendon of the thoracic portion being inserted at the outer edge of the bicipital groove, immediately behind the other.

THIS muscle, and the latissimus dorsi, form the cavity of the axilla, or arm-pit.

THE use of the pectoralis is to move the arm forwards, or to raise it obliquely towards the sternum. It likewise occasionally assists in moving the trunk upon the arm; thus, when we exert any efforts with the hand, as in raising ourselves from off an arm-chair, or in sealing a letter, the contraction of this muscle is particularly observable.

To

To these uses, Haller* adds that of its assisting in respiration, by raising the sternum and ribs. He tells us he well remembers, that when this muscle was affected by rheumatism, his breathing was incommoded; and that, when troubled with difficulty of respiration, he has often found himself greatly relieved by raising and drawing back his shoulders, keeping his arms at the same time firmly fixed. Winslow †, however, has denied this use, and Albinus has omitted it, probably because it does not take place in a natural state.

Subclavius.

THIS small muscle is situated between the clavicle and the first rib, immediately under the upper part of the pectoralis.

It arises by a tendon, near an inch long, from the upper surface of the cartilage of the first rib, and then becoming fleshy, is inserted into the under surface of the clavicle, from within about an inch of the sternum to

* Element. Physiol. tom. iii.

† Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1738.

the ligament that connects the clavicle with the coracoid process of the scapula.

THE principal use of this muscle seems to be to draw the clavicle downwards and forwards.—It may likewise, in a slight degree, serve to elevate the first rib: this was the opinion of the ancients, and has been adopted by Douglas, Albinus, and Haller; but Spigelius, Winflow, and others, contend that it can be of no use in respiration.

Serratus Anticus.

DOUGLAS calls this muscle *serratus minor anticus*, and Winflow gives it the name of *pectoralis minor*. It is a fleshy and pretty considerable muscle, situated at the anterior and lateral part of the thorax, immediately under the pectoralis.

It arises from the upper edges of the third, fourth, and fifth ribs, near where they join with their cartilages, by an equal number of tendinous and fleshy digitations, which

which have been compared to the teeth of a saw (*ferra*,) whence this, and some other muscles, from their having a similar origin or insertion, have gotten the name of *ferrati*. From these origins it becomes thicker and narrower as it ascends, and is inserted by a flat tendon into the upper part of the coracoid process of the scapula.

THE principal use of this muscle is to draw the scapula forwards and downwards; and when that is fixed, it may likewise serve to elevate the ribs.

Serratus Magnus.

THIS muscle is so named by Winslow and Albinus. Douglas calls it *serratus major anticus*, but improperly, as it is seated at the side, and not at the anterior part, of the thorax. It is a broad, fleshy muscle, of a very irregular shape, and is in part covered by the subscapularis, pectoralis, and latissimus dorsi.

It arises, by fleshy digitations, from the eight superior ribs, and is inserted fleshy
into

into the whole basis of the scapula internally, between the insertion of the rhomboides, and the origin of the subscapularis, being folded, as it were, about the two angles of the scapula.

THIS muscle may easily be divided into two and even three portions. The latter division has been adopted by Winflow. The first of these portions is the thick and short part of the muscle that arises from the first and second ribs, and is inserted into the upper angle of the scapula, its fibres ascending obliquely backwards. The second portion arises from the second rib, behind the origin of the first portion, and likewise from the third and fourth ribs: this portion is thin and short, and its fibres run nearly in a horizontal direction, to be inserted into the basis of the scapula. The third and most considerable portion is that which arises from the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth ribs, and is inserted into the lower angle of the scapula.

THE serratus magnus serves to move the scapula forwards, and it is chiefly by the
con-

contraction of this muscle that the shoulder is supported, when loaded with any heavy weight.—The ancients, and even many of the moderns, particularly Douglas and Cowper, supposed its chief use to be to dilate the thorax, by elevating the ribs; but it can only do this when the scapula is forcibly raised.

S E C T I O N III.

Of the Muscles that assist in forming the cavity of the Thorax.

Diaphragma.

THE diaphragm*, or *midriff*, is a broad and very considerable muscle, which is situated obliquely between the upper part of the abdomen and the lower part of the thorax, so as to form a complete septum between these two cavities. It seems to have been improperly named *septum transversum*, as it does not make a plane, transverse division of the two cavities, but forms a kind of vault, the fore part of which is attached to the sternum.

* Διαφράγμα, interseptum.

FROM its being tendinous in its centre, the generality of modern anatomists have been led to describe it as two muscles, but this division is altogether arbitrary.

ITS upper, anterior, and most considerable portion, which has been called the *greater muscle of the diaphragm*, arises fleshy from the cartilago ensiformis, and by fleshy digitations, which intermix with the fibres of the transversalis abdominis, from the lower edges of the cartilages of the seventh, eighth, and ninth ribs, from the bony part of the tenth and eleventh, and from the extremity of the twelfth.

FROM these several origins, the fibres of the muscle converge towards a broad tendon, which is situated in the middle of the diaphragm; the fibres from the cartilago ensiformis running straight backwards, those from the seventh and eighth ribs obliquely backward, from the ninth and tenth transversely inwards, and those from the two last ribs obliquely upwards. This middle tendon is of an irregular shape. It has been

compared to a heart, as it is pictured upon cards, with its apex turned upwards, and likewise to a trefoil leaf, with its pedicle widely expanded. Neither of these comparisons, however, can convey any clear idea of its real structure and appearance. The reader will find it accurately delineated in the first fasciculus of Haller's *Icones Anatomicæ*. In this tendinous expansion the fibres are variously interlaced; the greater part of them run in the same course as the fleshy fibres; but many of the fasciculi cross the others in various directions. These different fasciculi are best seen in old subjects.

THE two sides or alæ of this tendon meet so as to form an obtuse point near the sternum; and of its two alæ, the left descends the lowest. Towards the right side the tendon is perforated, for the passage of the vena cava. The shape of this opening varies in different subjects; hence we find some authors describing it as oval, and others as triangular, and even quadrangular. The truth is, that, in general, the side next the ribs forms the half of a regular oval; that
end

end of it which is farthest from the sternum is pointed, and the other side of, it juts out into a point, so as to give it the appearance of an irregular triangle.

As the circumference of this opening is every where tendinous, Winslow and others have supposed that the vein passes through it secure from pressure. But the experiments made by Haller* on living animals, clearly prove that when the diaphragm descends, the vein is drawn with it, and is compressed, so as to occasion, at each inspiration, a regurgitation of the blood in that part of it which is below the muscle.

THE diameter of this foramen being larger than that of the vena cava, the pleura and peritonæum are found in contact with each other between the vein and the sides of the foramen. This observation was first made by the celebrated Morgagni †. At the side of this hole, it is not unusual to find one or two little foramina, which transmit the phrenic, and sometimes the hepatic veins.

* *De Respiratione*, Exp. 49. 53. 57. 59. 61, 62. Opera Minor. tom. i.

† *Epistol. Anatom.* i.

THE inferior and posterior portion or appendix of the diaphragm, which has been called the *lesser muscle*, is situated upon the bodies of the vertebræ; and its fibres being more collected, give it greater thickness than the upper portion. It arises from the sides and fore part of the second, third, and fourth of the lumbar vertebræ, by eight heads. The two in the middle, which begin tendinous, and are the longest, are usually called the *crura* of the diaphragm. The right crus is larger, and situated somewhat more anteriorly than the left. Between these crura we find an opening, which is narrower above than below, and surrounded by tendinous fibres. This serves for the passage of the aorta and thoracic duct; and on the outside of these, the shorter heads are perforated by two branches of the intercostal nerve, and by the vena azygos. Higher up, and more anteriorly, the fibres of the muscle decussate, and leave a large oval space, the circumference of which is almost entirely fleshy, and of course contracts at each inspiration. Through this hole pass the œsophagus, and the eighth pair of nerves.—The whole

whole of this inferior portion is inserted by strong fleshy fibres into the posterior part of the middle tendon, towards which the greater part of them run with greater or less obliquity upwards.

THE diaphragm is covered by the pleura above, and by the peritonæum below; except where the pericardium and mediastinum, on the side of the thorax, and part of the convex surface of the liver, on the side next the abdomen, adhere to its middle tendon.

THE principal arteries of the diaphragm are the phrenic, which are sometimes derived, in a single branch, from the aorta, and sometimes, in several branches, from the aorta, the cœliac, and now and then from the emulgent; besides these, it receives other smaller branches from the inferior intercostals, the internal mammary, and superior lumbar arteries, as well as from those of the mediastinum. Its veins, for the most part, pass into the vena cava. Its nerves are numerous. The most considerable of these,

which are called the *phrenic*, are derived from the cervical pairs. It likewise receives other branches from the intercostal, from the eighth pair, and from the inferior dorsal and superior lumbar pairs.

THE diaphragm not only serves to divide the thorax from the abdomen, but, by its muscular structure, is rendered one of the chief agents in respiration.

WHEN its fibres contract, as in *inspiration*, they endeavour to bring themselves on a plane towards the middle tendon, and thus, by enlarging the cavity of the thorax, afford room for a complete dilatation of the lungs. The middle tendon itself likewise descends in the act of inspiration, though in a much less degree than the fleshy parts of the muscle, on account of its attachment to the pericardium. Verheyen was therefore greatly mistaken, when he asserted * that the tendinous part of the diaphragm ascends, while its fleshy fibres are descending. But some of the old writers had still more

* Corpor. Human. Anatom. lib. i.

erroneous notions on this subject. They were of opinion that the whole muscle is immoveable in respiration, and that its sole use is to separate the thorax from the abdomen. This doctrine, which seems to have been first started by Aristotle, is zealously asserted by Sir George Ent*, in his Animadversions on Dr. Thruston, and still more lately by Deidier †.—In *expiration*, the diaphragm is relaxed, and, as it resumes its former state, the cavity of the thorax becomes gradually diminished, and the air is driven out again from the lungs by a motion contrary to the former one.

THE ascent of this muscle in expiration is favoured by the contraction of the abdominal muscles, which is alternate with that of the diaphragm. The gentle pressure, which all the abdominal viscera receive from this constant and regular motion, cannot fail to assist in the performance of their several functions. But there are certain cir-

* ANTIDIATRIBH, five Animadversiones in M. Thrustoni M. D. Diatribam, &c. p. 74.

† Anatomie raisonnée.

cumstances, in which the abdominal muscles and the diaphragm all act at the same time, and by this means the cavity of the abdomen is diminished, and its contents more forcibly compressed. This is what happens in parturition, in the expulsion of the fæces, and in vomiting. Besides these uses, we may observe, that the acts of coughing, sneezing, speaking, laughing, gaping, and sighing, could not take place without the assistance of the diaphragm; so that the variety of its offices, and its structure, make it well deserving of the epithet the celebrated Haller has bestowed on it, of *nobilissimus, post cor, musculus*.

Levatores Costarum.

THESE muscles were first described, and so named, by Steno *. Verheyen, and after him Winslow, calls them *supra costales*. Lieutaud includes them in his description of the *intercostales externi*; they have, indeed, nearly the same uses, but it is easy to demonstrate them as distinct muscles. They

* De Musculis et Gland. Observ. Specimen.

are very small, and nearly of a triangular shape, and are twelve in number on each side of the thorax. Their back parts are covered by the sacro lumbalis and the longissimus dorsi.

THEY arise tendinous from the lower part of the transverse processes of the last vertebra of the neck, and of the eleven superior vertebræ of the back, and, descending obliquely forwards and outwards, are inserted tendinous into the upper side of all the ribs*, near their tuberosities. The superior muscles are smaller, thinner, and shorter than the lower ones, and have therefore been called *levatores costarum breviores*, to distinguish them from the three or four inferior ones, which usually run down to the second rib below the transverse process, before they are inserted, and, on this account, are called *levatores costarum longiores*.

MOST of these muscles send off fibres, which intermix with those of the longissimus dorsi; and Morgagni† has seen them

* Douglas excepts the first rib.

† Advers. Anat. 2. Animad. 15.

all so intimately united with each other, as to appear like one large serrated muscle. Senac has attempted to prove, that they are calculated rather to support and move the vertebræ laterally, than to act upon the ribs; but it seems evident that their principal use is to pull the ribs upwards and outwards.

Intercostales.

BETWEEN the ribs, on each side, we find eleven double rows of muscles. These are the *intercostales externi*, and *interni*. Galen has very properly observed, that they decussate each other like the strokes of the letter X.

THE *intercostales externi* arise from the lower edge of each superior rib, and, running obliquely downwards and forwards, are inserted into the upper edge of each inferior rib, so as to occupy the intervals of the ribs, from as far back as the spine to their cartilages; but from their cartilages to the sternum, we find only a thin aponeurosis covering the internal intercostals.

THE

THE *intercostales interni* arise and are inserted in the same manner as the external. They begin at the sternum, and extend as far as the angles of the ribs, their fibres running obliquely backwards. These fibres are spread over a considerable part of the inner surface of the ribs, so as to be longer than those of the external intercostals.

SOME of the posterior portions of the internal intercostals pass over one rib, and are inserted into the rib below. Verheyen first described these portions as separate muscles, under the name of *infra costales*. Winflow has adopted the same name. Cowper, and after him Douglas, calls them *costarum depressores proprii*. These distinctions, however, are altogether superfluous, as they are evidently nothing more than appendages of the intercostals. The number of these portions varies in different subjects. Most commonly we find only four, the first of which runs from the second rib to the fourth, the second from the third rib to the fifth, the third from the fourth rib to the sixth, and the fourth from the fifth rib to the seventh.

THE

THE internal intercostals of the two inferior false ribs are frequently so thin, as to be with difficulty separated from the external; and, in some subjects, one or both of them seem to be altogether wanting.

It was the opinion of the ancients, that the external intercostals serve to elevate, and the internal to depress the ribs. They were probably led to this opinion, by observing the different direction of their fibres; but it is now well known, that both have the same use, which is that of raising the ribs equally during inspiration. Fallopius* was one of the first who ventured to call in question the opinion of Galen on this subject, by contending that both layers of the intercostals serve to elevate the ribs. In this opinion he was followed by Hieronymus Fabricius †, our countryman Mayow ‡, and Borelli §. But, towards the close of the last century, Bayle ¶, a writer of some eminence, and professor at Toulouse, revived the opi-

* Observ. Anatom. p. 387. † De Respiratione,
p. 71. ‡ Tractat. de Respirat. p. 281. § Differt. Physic.
Motu Anim. lib. xi.

nion of the ancients by the following arguments. He observed, that the oblique direction of the fibres of the internal intercostals is such, that, in each inferior rib, these fibres are nearer to the vertebræ than they are at their superior extremities, or in the rib immediately above; and that, of course, they must serve to draw the rib downwards, as towards the most fixed point. This plausible doctrine was adopted by several eminent writers, and, amongst others, by Nicholls*, Hoadley †, and Schreiber ‡; but, above all, by Hamberger ||, who went so far as to assert, that not only the ribs, but even the sternum, are pulled downwards by these muscles, and constructed a particular instrument to illustrate this doctrine. He pretended, likewise, that the intervals of the ribs are increased by their elevation, and diminished by their depression; but he allowed, that, while those parts of the internal intercostals, that are placed between the bony part of the ribs, pull them downwards,

* Compend. Anat. Oecon. † On the Organs of Respiration. ‡ In his edition of Douglas's Myograph. Spec. || De Respirat. Mechanismo.

the anterior portions of the muscle, which are situated between the cartilages, concur with the external intercostals in raising them upwards. These opinions gave rise to a warm and interesting controversy, in which Hamberger and Haller were the principal disputants. The former argued chiefly from theory, and the latter* from experiments on living animals, which demonstrate the fallacy of Hamberger's arguments, and prove, beyond a doubt, that the internal intercostals perform the same functions as the external.

Sterno Costales.

VESALIUS † considered these as forming a single muscle on each side, of a triangular shape; hence we find the name of *triangularis* adopted by Douglas and Albinus; but Verheyen, who first taught that they ought to be described as four or five distinct muscles, gave them the name of *sterno costales*; and in this he is very properly followed by Winflow, Haller, and Lieutaud.

* De Respir. Exper.

† Lib. xi.

THESE muscles are situated at each side of the under surface of the sternum, upon the cartilages of the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth ribs. Their number varies in different subjects; very often there are only three, sometimes five, and even six, but most usually we find only four.

THE lowermost of the sterno costales, or what would be called the inferior portion of the triangularis, arises tendinous and fleshy from the edge and inner surface of the lower part of the cartilago ensiformis, where its fibres intermix with those of the diaphragm and transversalis abdominis. Its fibres run nearly in a transverse direction, and are inserted, by a broad thin tendon, into the inner surface of the cartilage of the sixth rib, and lower edge of that of the fifth.

THE second and largest of the sterno costales, arises tendinous from the cartilago ensiformis and lower part of the sternum, laterally, and, running a little obliquely outwards, is inserted into the lower edge of the cartilage of the fifth, and sometimes of the fourth rib.

THE

THE third arises tendinous from the sides of the middle part of the sternum, near the cartilages of the fourth and fifth ribs, and, ascending obliquely outwards, is inserted into the cartilage of the third rib.

THE fourth and uppermost, which is the most frequently wanting, arises tendinous from the beginning of the cartilage of the third rib and the adjacent part of the sternum, and running almost perpendicularly upwards, is inserted by a thin tendon (which covers a part of the second internal intercostal) into the cartilage and beginning of the bony part of the second rib.

ALL these muscles are more or less intermixed with one another at their origin, and this probably occasioned them to be considered as one muscle. Fallopius* informs us, that the plate Vesalius has given of them was taken from a dog, in which animal they are much larger than in man. Douglas † has endeavoured to account for this difference, but his explanation is far from being satisfactory.

* Instit. p. 31.

† Myograph. Comp. Spec.

S E C T I O N IV.

Of the Muscles that surround the articulation of the lower Jaw.

THE articulation of the lower jaw is surrounded by four muscles; viz. the temporalis, masseter, pterygoideus internus, and pterygoideus externus. The two first are situated on the side of the face, and the two last under the angle of the jaw.

Temporalis.

THIS muscle, which Winslow has named the *crotaphyte*, arises fleshy from the lower, lateral, and anterior part of the parietal bone; from all the squamous portion of the temporal bone; from the lower and lateral part of the os frontis; from the posterior surface of the os malæ; from all the temporal process of the sphenoid bone; and sometimes from a ridge at the lower part of this process. This latter portion, however, is often common to this muscle and the pterygoideus externus. It is of a semi-circular

X

shape,

shape, and its radiated fibres converge, so as to form a strong middle tendon, which passes under the jugum, and is inserted into the coronoid process of the lower jaw, to which it adheres on every side, but more particularly at its fore part, where the insertion is continued down to the body of the bone.

THIS muscle is covered by a pretty strong fascia, which some writers have erroneously described as a part of the aponeurosis of the occipito-frontalis. This fascia adheres to the bones, round the whole circumference of the origin of the muscle, and, descending over it, is fixed below to the ridge where the zygomatic process begins, just above the meatus auditorius; to the upper edge of the zygomatic process itself, and anteriorly to the os malæ. This fascia serves as a defence to the muscle, and likewise gives origin to some of its fleshy fibres.

THE principal use of the temporal muscle is to draw the lower jaw upwards, as in the action of biting; and as it passes a little
for-

forwards to its insertion, it may at the same time pull the condyle a little backwards, though not so much as it would have done if its fibres had passed in a direct line from their origin to their insertion, because the posterior and lower part of the muscle passes over the root of the zygomatic process, as over a pulley.

Masseter.

THIS is a short thick muscle, which arises, by fleshy and tendinous fibres, from the lower edge of the malar process of the maxillary bone, the lower horizontal edge of the os malæ, and the lower edge of the zygomatic process of the temporal bone, as far backwards as the eminence belonging to the articulation of the lower jaw. From some little interruption in the fibres of this muscle, at their origin, some writers describe it as arising by two, and others by three distinct portions, or heads. The two layers of fibres, of which it seems to be composed, cross each other as they descend, the external layer extending backwards, and the internal one slanting forwards.

It is inserted into the basis of the coronoid process, and into all that part of the lower jaw which supports the coronoid and condyloid processes.

Its use is to raise the lower jaw, and, by means of the above-mentioned decussation, to move it a little forwards and backwards in the act of chewing; whence it has gotten its name, which is derived from *μασισάομαι*, *manduco*, to eat.

Pterygoideus Internus.

THIS strong, short muscle, which derives its name from its origin, is called *pterygoideus major* by Winflow. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the whole inner surface of the external ala of the pterygoid process, filling all the space between the two wings; and from that process of the os palati that makes part of the pterygoid fossa. From thence the muscle growing larger, descends obliquely downwards, forwards, and outwards, and is inserted, by tendinous and fleshy fibres, into the inside of the lower jaw, near its angle.

THIS

THIS muscle covers a great part of the *pterygoideus externus*; and along its posterior edge we observe a ligamentous band, which extends from the back part of the styloid process to the bottom of the angle of the lower jaw.

THE use of this muscle is to raise the lower jaw, and to pull it a little to one side.

Pterygoideus Externus.

THIS, which was first discovered by Fallopius*, is smaller than the last described muscle, and is therefore named *pterygoideus minor* by Winslow. It is placed, as it were, horizontally along the basis of the scull, between the pterygoid process and the condyle of the lower jaw.

It usually arises by two distinct heads; one of which is thick, tendinous, and fleshy, from the outer wing of the pterygoid process of the os sphenoides, and from a small

* Observ. Anatom.

part of the os maxillare adjoining to it; the other is thin and fleshy, from a ridge in the temporal process of the sphenoid bone, just behind the slit that transmits the vessels to the eye. Sometimes this latter origin is wanting, and, in that case, part of the temporal muscle arises from this ridge. Now and then it affords a common origin to both these muscles.

FROM these origins the muscle forms a strong, fleshy belly, which descends almost transversely outwards and backwards, and is inserted tendinous and fleshy into a depression in the fore part of the condyloid process of the lower jaw, and into the anterior surface of the capsular ligament that surrounds the articulation of that bone.

ALL that part of this muscle, which is not hid by the pterygoideus internus, is covered by a ligamentous expansion, which is broader than that we spoke of in describing the last muscle, and originates from the inner edge of the glenoid cavity of the lower jaw, immediately before the styloid process

of

of the temporal bone, and extends obliquely downwards, forwards, and outwards, to the inner surface of the angle of the jaw.

WHEN these muscles act together, they bring the jaw horizontally forwards. When they act singly, the jaw is moved forwards and to the opposite side. The fibres that are inserted into the capsular ligament serve likewise to bring the moveable cartilage forwards.

S E C T I O N V.

Of the Muscles that are situated at the fore part of the Neck.

Latissimus Colli.

THIS broad and thin muscle is the *πλάτυσμα μῦωδες* of Galen, the *quadratus genæ*, or *latissimus colli*, of Douglas, and the *musculus cutaneus* of Winslow. It is situated at the fore part of the neck, immediately under the common integuments, and extends from the clavicle to the angle of the mouth.

It arises from the cellular substance that covers the upper parts of the pectoral, deltoid, and trapezius muscles, by fleshy fibres, which extending obliquely upwards form a thin muscle, some of the fibres of which pass under the outer edge of the depressor anguli oris, and are inserted into the side of the chin, while its external fibres are spread over the anterior edge and lower extremity of the masseter, and, extending obliquely upwards and inwards, are insensibly lost in the integuments of the cheek, and in the neighbouring muscles,

Its use seems to be, to assist in drawing the cheeks and skin of the face downwards; and, in the action of shutting the mouth, we shall find that it draws the skin, under the lower jaw, upwards.

Mastoides.

ALBINUS describes this as two distinct muscles, which, from their origin and insertion, he names *sterno-mastoides* and *cleido-*

mastoides

mastoideus. Winflow, who considers it as one, calls it *sterno-cleido-mastoideus*. I have adopted the name given to it by Douglas, as being the most simple.

It is a long and pretty thick muscle, situated obliquely on each side of the neck, and extending from behind the ear to the bottom of the throat, so that the two mastoid muscles, from their meeting in a point, have not been improperly compared to the letter V.

It arises by two distinct origins. One of these is tendinous and fleshy, from the upper part of the sternum; and the other fleshy, from the upper and anterior part of the clavicle. Both these portions soon unite to form one muscle, which is inserted into the mastoid process, by a very broad and flat tendon which surrounds that process, and extends backwards as far as the lambdoidal suture.

THE use of this muscle, when it acts singly, is to turn the head to one side, and when
both

both act together, they bend the head forwards.

Costo-Hyoideus.

I HAVE adopted this name from Santorini. Douglas and Albinus give it the name of *coraco-hyoideus*, but improperly, as it does not always arise from the coracoid process. Winflow, considering its general origin from the scapula, calls it the *omohyoideus*. It is a very long digastric muscle, situated very obliquely at the side of the neck, between the scapula and os hyoides, and is in part covered by the mastoideus.

It arises broad, thin, and fleshy, from the superior costa of the scapula, near its femilunar niche; from some part of the ligament that extends from the edge of this niche to the root of the coracoid process, and sometimes by a few tendinous fibres from the process itself; and thence, ascending obliquely forwards and inwards, it becomes tendinous as it passes under the mastoideus, but soon growing fleshy again, is inserted,
by

by a short thin tendon, into the basis of the os hyoides, between its horn and the termination of the sterno-hyoideus.

ITS use is to pull the os hyoides obliquely downwards.

Sterno-Hyoideus.

AS this muscle arises from the clavicle, as well as from the sternum, Winflow calls it *sterno-cleido-hyoideus*. It is a long, flat, and thin muscle, situated obliquely between the sternum and os hyoides, behind the lower part of the mastoideus, and covering the *sterno-thyroideus* and the *hyo-thyroideus*.

IT arises, by very short tendinous fibres, from the cartilaginous part of the first rib, from the upper and inner part of the sternum, from the capsular ligament that connects that bone with the clavicle, and commonly from a small part of the clavicle itself; from thence, ascending along the anterior and lateral part of the neck, we see it united to its fellow, opposite to the inferior

ferior part of the larynx, by means of a thin membrane, which forms a kind of *linea alba*. After this the two muscles separate again, and each passing over the side of the thyroid cartilage, is inserted into the basis of the os hyoides, immediately behind the insertion of the last described muscle.

Its use is to draw the os hyoides downwards.

Hyo-Thyroideus.

THIS is a short, thin, flat, and fleshy muscle, situated under the upper part of the costo-hyoideus and sterno-hyoideus, between the lower edge of the os hyoides, and the side of the thyroid cartilage.

It arises fleshy from part of the basis, and almost all the cornu of the os hyoides, and is inserted into the upper and anterior edge of a rough line, that runs obliquely at the side of the thyroid cartilage.

Its use is to pull the thyroid cartilage upwards, or the os hyoides downwards.

Sterno-

Sterno-Thyroideus.

THIS is flat and thin, like the preceding muscle, but longer and broader. It is situated at the fore part of the neck, between the sternum and thyroid cartilage, and behind the sterno-hyoideus.

It arises broad and fleshy from the upper and inner part of the sternum, between the cartilages of the first and second ribs, from each of which it receives some few fibres, as well as from the clavicle, where it joins with the sternum. From thence, growing somewhat narrower, it ascends, and, passing over the thyroid gland and the cricoid cartilage, is inserted tendinous into the lower and posterior edge of the rough line of the thyroid cartilage, immediately under the insertion of the last described muscle. Now and then a few of its fibres pass on to the os hyoides.

Its use is to draw the thyroid cartilage, and consequently the larynx, downwards.

Di-

Digastricus.

RIOLANUS* seems to have been the first who gave it this name, the etymology of which is from *δῖς* and *γαστήρ*, because it has two fleshy fibres, with a middle tendon. Albinus, who has thought fit to give it a Latin name of the same signification, calls it *Biventer maxillæ*.

It is situated at the upper and anterior part of the neck, behind the latissimus colli and the mastoideus, immediately under, and a little upon the inside of the lower jaw, and outside of the fauces, extending from the mastoid process to the chin.

It arises from the fossa at the root of the mastoid process, and from a ridge upon the temporal bone, where it joins the os occipitis. The outside of this origin, which is from the fossa, is fleshy, and the inside, from the ridge, tendinous. From thence it passes obliquely forwards, downwards, and

* Anthropog. lib. v.

inwards,

inwards, for the space of about two inches, and then forms a round tendon, which generally passes through the anterior end of the stylo-hyoideus; from the lower end of this tendon some fibres go off, which degenerate into a kind of fascia, that binds it to the os hyoides, to which it is likewise secured by a ligamentous binding, that serves in some measure as a pulley. After this the tendon becomes somewhat broader, and, turning upwards, inwards, and forwards, gives origin to the anterior belly, which is only about half as long as the first, and is inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into a rough sinuosity on the under and anterior edge of the chin, almost contiguous to its fellow.

SOMETIMES each muscle is found to have two anterior bellies. When this happens, the supernumerary one, which is usually the smallest, does not go on to the chin, but, uniting with a similar portion of the other muscle, forms a middle tendon, which is generally fixed to the os hyoides. In some subjects, this irregularity occurs only on one side, and then we find it uniting with the
middle

middle tendon of the mylo-hyoideus, which is, in a great measure, covered by the anterior belly of the digastricus.

THE principal use of this muscle is to depress the lower jaw; and, when the mouth is shut, it helps to raise the os hyoides upwards, as happens in deglutition.

M. FERREIN* and others have contended, that the two bellies of this muscle have different uses; that only the anterior one serves to depress the jaw, while the posterior portion assists in raising the upper jaw, and carrying the head backwards. But whoever will place his finger on the upper part of the mastoid muscle, just at the posterior edge of the mastoid process, and then open his mouth, will easily feel the posterior head of the digastricus swell considerably, so as to point out the direction of the muscle. Nor can there be any deception in this; for there is no other muscle, near it, that has the same direction.

* Sur le Mouvement des deux Machoires.—Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1744.

Stylo-Hyoideus.

THIS is a small, thin, fleshy muscle, situated between the styloid process and os hyoides, under the posterior belly and middle tendon of the digastricus, near the upper edge of that muscle.

It arises by a long thin tendon, from the basis and posterior edge of the styloid process, and, descending in an oblique direction, is inserted into the lateral and anterior part of the os hyoides, near its horn.

THE fleshy belly of this muscle is usually perforated, on one or both sides, for the passage of the middle tendon of the digastricus.

SOMETIMES, though not always, we find another smaller muscle placed before the stylo-hyoideus, which, from its having nearly the same origin and insertion, and the same use, is called *stylo-hyoideus-alter*. It seems to have been first known to Eustachius*; so

* Tab. 41. fig. 5, 8, and 11.

that Douglas was not aware of this circumstance, when he placed it amongst the muscles discovered by himself. It arises from the apex of the styloid process, and sometimes, by a broad and thin aponeurosis, from the inner and posterior part of the angle of the lower jaw, and is inserted into the appendix or little horn of the os hyoides.

THE use of these muscles is to pull the os hyoides to one side, and a little upwards.

Mylo-Hyoideus.

THIS muscle, which was first described by Fallopius*, is so called, from its origin near the *dentes molares* (μύλοι,) and its insertion into the os hyoides.

It is a thin, flat muscle, situated between the lower jaw and the os hyoides, and is covered by the anterior portion of the digastricus.

IT arises fleshy, and a little tendinous, from all the inner surface of the lower jaw,

* Observ. Anatom.

as far back as the infertion of the pterygoideus internus, or, in other words, from between the laſt dens molaris and the middle of the chin, where it joins its fellow, to form one belly, with an intermediate tendinous ſtreak, or *linea alba*, which extends from the chin to the os hyoides, where both muſcles are inferted into the lower edge of the baſis of that bone. This has induced Riolanus, Winflow, Albinus, and others, to conſider it as a ſingle penniform muſcle.

Its uſe is to pull the os hyoides upwards, forwards, and to either ſide.

Genio-Hyoideus.

THIS muſcle is ſo called, on account of its origin from the chin (*γενειου*), and its infertion into the os hyoides. It is a long, thin, and fleſhy muſcle, and is ſituated behind the mylo-hyoideus, cloſe to its fellow, with which, in ſome ſubjects, it forms one muſcle.

It arises tendinous from a rough protuberance at the inside of the chin, and, growing somewhat broader and thicker as it descends backwards, is inserted, by very short tendinous fibres, into both the edges of the basis of the os hyoides.

Its use is to draw the os hyoides upwards and forwards.

Rectus Capitis Internus Major.

THIS, and the three following muscles, form a layer, which is situated at the anterior part of the neck, close to the vertebræ. It was known to the most ancient anatomists, but was not distinguished by any particular name till the time of Cowper, who gave it its present appellation, which has been adopted by the generality of writers, except Winslow, who calls it *rectus anterior longus*. It is a long muscle, thicker and broader above than below, where it is thin, and terminates in a point.

It arises, by distinct flat tendons, from the anterior points of the transverse processes of the five inferior vertebræ of the neck, and, ascending obliquely upwards, is inserted into the anterior part of the cuneiform process of the occipital bone.

THE use of this muscle is to bend the head forwards.

Rectus Capitis Internus Minor.

COWPER*, who was the first accurate describer of this little muscle, gave it the name of *rectus internus minor*, which has been adopted by Douglas and Albinus.—Winflow calls it *rectus anterior brevis*. It is in part covered by the *rectus major*.

It arises fleshy from the upper and fore part of the body of the first vertebra of the neck, near the origin of its transverse process, and, ascending obliquely inwards, is inserted near the root of the condyloid pro-

* Myotomia reformata.

cess of the occipital bone, under the last-described muscle. It assists in bending the head forwards.

Rectus Capitis Lateralis.

THIS muscle seems to have been first described by Fallopius*. Winflow calls it *transversalis anticus primus*. It is somewhat larger than the rectus minor, but resembles it in shape, and is situated immediately behind the internal jugular vein, at its coming out of the cranium.

IT arises fleshy from the upper and fore part of the transverse process of the first vertebra of the neck, and, ascending a little obliquely upwards and outwards, is inserted into the occipital bone, opposite to the stylo-mastoid hole of the os temporis.

THIS muscle serves to pull the head a little to one side.

* Observ. Anatom.

Longus Colli.

THIS is a pretty considerable muscle, situated close to the anterior and lateral part of the vertebræ of the neck. Its outer edge is in part covered by the rectus internus major.

It arises tendinous and fleshy within the thorax, from the bodies of the three superior vertebræ of the back, laterally; from the bottom and fore part of the transverse processes of the first and second vertebræ of the back, and of the last vertebra of the neck; and likewise from the upper and anterior points of the transverse processes of the sixth, fifth, fourth, and third vertebræ of the neck, by as many small distinct tendons; and is inserted tendinous into the fore part of the second vertebra of the neck, near its fellow.

THIS muscle, when it acts singly, moves the neck to one side; but, when both act, the neck is brought directly forwards.

S E C T I O N VI.

*Of the Muscles that are situated at the back part
of the Trunk and Neck.*

I INCLUDE all these muscles in the same section, because almost the whole posterior part of the trunk is covered by the trapezius, and the latissimus dorsi; and those of the posterior part of the neck cannot be seen, till the trapezius, the rhomboideus, and the serratus superior posticus, are removed.

Trapezius, or Cucullaris.

RIOLANUS first gave this muscle the name of trapezius, from *τράπεζα*, a word which signifies a quadrilateral figure; but Columbus, comparing it to a monk's hood as it lies between the shoulders, calls it *cucullaris*. I have followed Douglas, in retaining both these names. Albinus has adopted only the last, and Winslow and the generality of the French writers only make use of the first.

THIS

THIS muscle is situated immediately under the integuments of the posterior part of the neck and back.

It arises, by a thick, round, and short tendon, from the lower part of a protuberance in the middle of the occipital bone backwards, and from the rough line that is extended from thence towards the mastoid process of the os temporis, and by a thin membranous tendon, which covers part of the complexus and splenius. It then runs downwards along the nape of the neck, and rises tendinous from the spinous processes of the two lowermost vertebræ of the neck, and from the spinous processes of all the vertebræ of the back, being inseparably united to its fellow, the whole length of its origin, by tendinous fibres, which, in the nape of the neck, form what is called *ligamentum colli*, or the *cervical ligament*.

It is inserted fleshy into the broad and posterior half of the clavicle, tendinous and fleshy into one half of the acromion, and into almost all the spine of the scapula.

THIS

W. Linnæus
Linnæus

THIS muscle serves to move the scapula in different directions. Its upper descending fibres pull it obliquely upwards; its middle transverse ones pull it directly backwards; its inferior fibres, which ascend obliquely upwards, draw it obliquely downwards and backwards.

THE upper part of the muscle acts upon the neck and head, the latter of which it draws backwards, and turns upon its axis. It likewise concurs with other muscles in counteracting the flexion of the head forwards.

Rhomboideus.

THIS muscle, which is so named from its shape, is situated immediately under the trapezius.—We find it usually, though not always, divided into two portions, which Albinus describes as two distinct muscles. The uppermost of these, or *rhomboideus minor*, arises tendinous from the spinous processes of the three inferior vertebræ of the neck, and from the ligamentum colli; the
lower-

lowermost, or *rhomboideus major*, arises tendinous from the spinous processes of the back: the former is inserted into the basis of the scapula, opposite to its spine; the latter into all the basis of the scapula, below its spine.

Its use is to draw the scapula obliquely upwards, and directly backwards.

Latissimus Dorsi.

THIS is a very broad, thin, and, for the most part, fleshy muscle, which is placed immediately under the skin, except where it is covered by the lower extremity of the trapezius.

It arises tendinous from the posterior half of the upper edge of the spine of the os ilium, from the spinous processes of the os sacrum and lumbar vertebræ, and from five or six, and sometimes from seven, and even eight, of the lowermost ones of the back; also tendinous and fleshy from the upper edges

edges and external surface of the four inferior false ribs, near their cartilages, by as many distinct slips.

FROM these different origins the fibres of the muscle run in different directions; those from the ilium and false ribs run almost perpendicularly upwards; those from the sacrum and lumbar vertebræ, obliquely upwards and forwards; and those from the vertebræ of the back, transversely outwards and forwards, over the inferior angle of the scapula, where they receive a small thin bundle of fleshy fibres, which arise tendinous from that angle, and are inserted with the rest of the muscle, by a strong, flat, and thin tendon, of about two inches in length, into the fore part of the posterior edge of the groove we observed between the two tuberosities of the os humeri, for lodging the tendon of the long head of the biceps. In dissection, therefore, we ought not to follow this muscle to its insertion, till some of the other muscles of the os humeri have been first raised.

ITS

ITS use is to pull the os humeri downwards and backwards, and to turn it upon its axis. Riolanus*, from its use on certain occasions, gave it the name of *ani terfor*. —When we raise ourselves upon our hands, as in rising from off an arm chair, we may easily perceive the contraction of this muscle.

WE find a *bursa mucosa* between the tendon of this muscle and the os humeri, into which it is inserted.

Serratus Inferior Posticus.

THIS is a thin muscle, of considerable breadth, situated at the bottom of the back, under the middle part of the latissimus dorsi.

IT arises by a broad thin tendon, in common with that of the last described muscle, from the spinous processes of the two, and sometimes of the three inferior dorsal vertebræ, and from three, and sometimes four of those of the lumbar vertebræ. It then becomes fleshy, and, ascending a little ob-

* Lib. v. cap. 24.

liquely

liquely outwards and forwards, divides into three, and sometimes four fleshy slips, which are inserted into the lower edges of the three or four inferior ribs, at a little distance from their cartilages.

Its use seems to be to pull the ribs downwards, backwards, and outwards.

Levator Scapulæ.

THIS name, which was first given to it by Riolanus, has been adopted by Albinus. Douglas calls it *elevator seu musculus patientiæ*; and Winflow, *angularis vulgo levator proprius*.

It is a long muscle, nearly two inches in breadth, and is situated obliquely under the anterior edge of the trapezius.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from the transverse processes of the four, and sometimes five superior vertebræ colli, by so many distinct slips, which soon unite to form a muscle that runs obliquely downwards and outwards, and is inserted by a flat tendon into the upper angle of the scapula.

ITS

Its use is to raise the scapula upwards, and a little forwards.

Serratus Superior Posticus.

THIS is a small, flat, and thin muscle, situated at the upper part of the back, immediately under the rhomboideus.

It arises, by a broad, thin tendon, from the lower part of the ligamentum colli, from the spinous process of the last vertebra of the neck, and the two or three uppermost of the back, and is inserted into the second, third, fourth, and sometimes fifth ribs, by as many distinct slips.

Its use is to expand the thorax, by pulling the ribs upwards and outwards.

Splenius.

THIS muscle, according to some writers*, has gotten its name from its supposed re-

* Sabatier. *Traité d'Anatomie.*

resemblance to the spleen, while others* derive it from *splenium*, a *ferula*, or splint, which surgeons apply to the sides of a fractured bone. It is a flat, broad, and oblong muscle, in part covered by the upper part of the trapezius, and obliquely situated between the back of the ear, and the lower and posterior part of the neck.

It arises tendinous from the four or five superior spinous processes of the dorsal vertebræ; tendinous and fleshy from the last of the neck, and tendinous from the ligamentum colli, or rather the tendons of the two splenii unite here inseparably; but about the second or third vertebra of the neck they recede from each other, so that part of the complexus may be seen.

It is inserted, by two distinct tendons, into the transverse processes of the two first vertebræ of the neck, sending off some few fibres to the complexus and levator scapulæ; tendinous and fleshy into the upper and posterior part of the mastoid process, and

* Douglas.

into

into a ridge on the occipital bone, where it joins with the root of that process.

THIS muscle may easily be separated into two parts. Eustachius and Fallopius were aware of this; Winslow has distinguished them into the *superior* and *inferior* portions; and Albinus has described them as two distinct muscles, calling that part which is inserted into the mastoid process and os occipitis, *splenius capitis*, and that which is inserted into the vertebræ of the neck, *splenius colli*. As we wish to facilitate the study of myology, we have followed Douglas, and the generality of writers, in describing these two portions as one muscle, especially as they are intimately united near their origin.

WHEN this muscle acts singly, it draws the head and upper vertebræ of the neck obliquely backwards; when both act, they pull the head directly backwards.

Complexus.

THIS muscle, which is so called on account of its complicated structure, is named

Z

com.

complexus major by Winflow, in order to distinguish it from the *trachelo-mastoideus*, which he calls *complexus minor*. It is a pretty long and broad muscle, and is placed near its fellow, at the posterior lateral part of the neck, being in part covered by the splenius.

It arises from the transverse processes of the four or five first vertebræ of the back, and from those of the six inferior vertebræ of the neck, by as many distinct tendons, which are shorter below than above. It then runs upwards, and, in its ascent, usually receives a fleshy slip, which arises tendinous from the spinous process of the first, and sometimes of the first and second vertebræ of the neck; and the whole muscle being intermixed with tendinous and fleshy fibres, is inserted, by a flat tendon, into the lateral and middle part of the protuberance in the middle of the occipital bone, and into a part of the ridge that runs forwards from that protuberance.

THIS muscle is sometimes divided into two portions. The inferior one, which is narrowest,

narrowest, is composed of two fleshy bellies, separated by a roundish middle tendon, on which account Albinus, who describes it as a distinct muscle, calls it *biventer cervicis*, giving the name of *complexus* only to the other portion. This distinction, however, which had before been noticed by Vesalius, Cowper, and others, is not observable in every subject, so that we very often find the two portions inseparably united to each other.

WHEN this muscle acts singly, the head is drawn backwards and a little to one side; when both act, the head is drawn directly backwards.

Trachelo-Mastoideus.

DOUGLAS and Albinus give it this name from its origin and insertion; its origin being chiefly from the neck, (*τραιχηλός*, *collum*,) and its insertion into the mastoid process. Fallopius*, who first described this muscle and its fellow, gave them the name of *capitis par tertium*. Winslow calls it *com-*

* Observ. Anatom.

plexus minor seu mastoideus lateralis. Vesalius considered it as a portion of the complexus.

IT is a small, long, thin, narrow, and serrated muscle, situated at the posterior and lateral part of the neck, under the cervical portion of the splenius, by which it is in part covered.

IT arises from the transverse processes of the first, and sometimes of the first and second vertebræ of the back, and from three of the four, and sometimes five inferior vertebræ of the neck, by as many distinct tendons, which unite to form a fleshy belly, that runs directly upwards, and is inserted, by a thin flat tendon, into the lower and posterior part of the mastoid process.

THE fleshy belly of this muscle is intermixed with a few tendinous fibres, and it sometimes receives a small fasciculus of fleshy fibres from the longissimus dorsi.

ITS use is to keep the head and neck erect, or to draw the head backwards, when
both

both muscles act. When it acts singly, the head is drawn obliquely backwards.

100

Rectus Capitis Posticus Major.

THIS, which is the *rectus major* of Douglas and Winflow, is a small, short, and flat muscle, broader above than below, and is situated, not in a straight direction, as its name would insinuate, but obliquely between the occiput and the second vertebra of the neck, immediately under the complexus.

It arises, by a short thick tendon, from the upper and posterior part of the spinous process of the second vertebra of the neck; it soon becomes broader, and, ascending obliquely outwards, is inserted, by a flat tendon, into the external lateral part of the lower semi circular ridge of the os occipitis.

THE use of this muscle is to extend the head, and to pull it backwards.

Rectus Capitis Posticus Minor.

THIS is the *rectus minor* of Douglas and Winslow. It is smaller than the last described muscle, but resembles it in shape, and is placed close by its fellow, in the space between the *recti majores*.

It arises, by a short thick tendon, from the upper and lateral part of a little protuberance in the middle of the back part of the first vertebra of the neck, and, becoming broader and thinner as it ascends, is inserted, by a broad flat tendon, into the occipital bone, immediately under the insertion of the last described muscle.

Its use is to assist the *rectus major* in drawing the head backwards.

Obliquus Superior Capitis.

RIOLANUS, who was the first that gave particular names to the oblique muscles of
the

the head, called this muscle *obliquus minor*, to distinguish it from the following, which, on account of its being much larger, he named *obliquus major*. Spigelius afterwards distinguished the two, from their situation with respect to each other, into *superior* and *inferior*; and in this he is followed by Cowper and Douglas. Winslow retains both names. I have adopted that used by Albinus.

THIS little muscle, which is nearly of the same shape as the *recti capitis*, is situated laterally between the occiput and the first vertebra of the neck, and is covered by the complexus and the upper part of the splenius.

It arises, by a short thick tendon, from the upper and posterior part of the transverse process of the first vertebra of the neck, and, ascending obliquely inwards and backwards, becomes broader, and is inserted, by a broad flat tendon and some few fleshy fibres, into the os occipitis, behind the back part of the mastoid process, under the insertion of the complexus and splenius, and a little above that of the *rectus major*.

THE use of this muscle is to draw the head backwards, and perhaps to assist in its rotatory motion.

Obliquus Inferior Capitis.

I HAVE already observed that this is larger than the last described muscle. It is very obliquely situated between the two first vertebræ of the neck.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from the middle and outer side of the spinous process of the second vertebra of the neck, and is inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the lower and posterior part of the transverse process of the first vertebra.

Its use is to turn the first vertebra upon the second, as upon a pivot, and to draw the face towards the shoulder.

Sacro Lumbalis.

THIS and the following muscles are situated under the serrati postici, rhomboideus, trape-

trapezius, and latissimus dorsi. It is a long muscle, thicker and broader below than above, and extends from the os sacrum to the lower part of the neck.

It arises in common with the longissimus dorsi, tendinous without, and fleshy within, from the posterior part of the os sacrum; from the posterior edge of the spine of the ilium; from all the spinous processes, and from near the roots of the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebræ. At the bottom of the back it separates from the longissimus dorsi, with which it had before formed, as it were, only one muscle, and ascending obliquely outwards, gradually diminishes in thickness, and terminates above in a very narrow point. From the place where it quits the longissimus dorsi, to that of its termination, we find it fleshy at its posterior, and tendinous at its anterior edge. This tendinous side sends off as many long and thin tendons as there are ribs. The lowermost of these tendons are broader, thicker, and shorter than those above; they are inserted into the inferior edge of each
rib,

rib, where it begins to be curved forwards towards the sternum, excepting only the uppermost and last tendon, which ends in the posterior and inferior part of the transverse process of the last vertebra of the neck.

FROM the upper part of the five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, or eleven lower ribs, (for the number, though most commonly seven or eight, varies in different subjects,) arise as many thin bundles of fleshy fibres, which, after a very short progress, terminate in the inner side of this muscle, and have been named by Steno *, *musculi ad sacro lumbalem accessorii*. Besides these, we find the muscle sending off a fleshy slip from its upper part, which is inserted into the posterior and inferior part of the transverse processes of the five inferior vertebræ of the neck, by as many distinct tendons. This is generally described as a distinct muscle. Diemerbroeck, and Douglas and Albinus after him, call it *cervicalis descendens*. Winflow names it *transversalis collateralis colli*. I have followed

* De Musculis, &c. Observ. Specimen.

Morgagni*, in considering it as an appendage to the sacro lumbalis.

THE uses of this muscle are to assist in erecting the trunk of the body, in turning it upon its axis or to one side, and in drawing the ribs downwards. By means of its upper slip, it serves to turn the neck obliquely backwards, or to one side.

Longissimus Dorsi.

THIS muscle, which is somewhat thicker than the sacro-lumbalis, greatly resembles it, however, in its shape and extent, and arises in common with that muscle, between it and the spine. It ascends upwards along the spine, and is inserted, by small double tendons, into the posterior and inferior part of all the transverse processes of the vertebræ of the back, and sometimes of the last vertebra of the neck. From its outside it sends off several bundles of fleshy fibres, interspersed with a few tendinous filaments, which are usually inserted into the lower edge of the

* Advers. Anat. 2, xv,

ten uppermost ribs, not far from their tubercles. In some subjects, however, they are found inserted into a less number, and in others, though more rarely, into every one of the ribs.

TOWARDS the upper part of this muscle, we observe a broad and thin portion of fleshy fibres, which cross, and intimately adhere to the fibres of the longissimus dorsi. This portion arises from the upper and posterior part of the transverse processes of the five or six uppermost vertebræ of the back, by as many tendinous origins, and is usually inserted, by six tendinous and fleshy slips, into the transverse processes of the six inferior vertebræ of the neck. This portion is described by Winslow and Albinus as a distinct muscle; by the former under the name of *transversalis major colli*, and by the latter under that of *transversalis cervicis*. But its fibres are so intimately connected with those of the longissimus dorsi, that we may very properly consider it as an appendage to the latter.

THE use of this muscle is to extend the vertebræ of the back, and to keep the trunk of the body erect; by means of its appendage, it likewise serves to turn the neck obliquely backwards, and a little to one side.

Spinalis Dorfi.

THIS is the name given by Albinus to a tendinous and fleshy mass, which is situated along the spinous processes of the back and the inner side of the longissimus dorfi.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from the spinous processes of the uppermost vertebræ of the loins, and the lowermost ones of the back, and is inserted into the spinous processes of the nine uppermost vertebræ of the back.

Its use is to extend the vertebræ, and to assist in raising the spine.

Semi-spinalis Dorfi.

THIS muscle arises from the transverse processes of the seventh, eighth, ninth, and
tenth

tenth dorsal vertebræ, by so many distinct tendons, which soon grow fleshy, and then becoming tendinous again, are inserted tendinous into the spinous processes of all the dorsal vertebræ, above the eighth, and into the lowermost of the back.

THIS muscle assists in extending the spine obliquely backwards.

Multifidus Spinæ.

THE generality of anatomical writers have unnecessarily multiplied the muscles of the spine, and hence their descriptions of these parts are confused, and difficult to be understood. Under this name of *multifidus spinæ*, Albinus has therefore very properly included those portions of muscular flesh, intermixed with tendinous fibres, which lie close to the posterior part of the spine, and which Douglas and Winflow have described as three distinct muscles, under the names of *transversales*, or *transverso-spinales*, of the loins, back, and neck.

THE

THE multifidus spinæ arises tendinous and fleshy from the upper convex surface of the os sacrum, from the posterior adjoining part of the ilium, from the oblique and transverse processes of all the lumbar vertebræ, from the transverse processes of all the dorsal vertebræ, and from those of the cervical vertebræ, excepting the three first. From all these origins the fibres of the muscle run in an oblique direction, and are inserted, by distinct tendons, into the spinous processes of all the vertebræ of the loins and back, and likewise into those of the six inferior vertebræ of the neck.

WHEN this muscle acts singly, it extends the back obliquely, or moves it to one side; when both muscles act, they extend the vertebræ backwards.

Spinalis Cervicis.

THIS muscle, which is situated close to the vertebræ at the posterior part of the neck and upper part of the back, arises, by distinct tendons, from the transverse processes of the five or six uppermost vertebræ of the
back,

back, and, ascending obliquely under the complexus, is inserted, by small tendons, into the spinous processes of the sixth, fifth, fourth, third, and second vertebræ of the neck.

Its use is to extend the neck obliquely backwards.

Scalenus.

ANATOMICAL writers have differed greatly in their descriptions of this muscle, which is situated at the side of the neck, between the transverse processes of the cervical vertebræ and the upper part of the thorax. The ancients, who gave it its name from its resemblance to an irregular triangle (*σκαληνός*), considered it as one muscle. Vesalius and Winslow * divide it into two; Fallopius and Cowper into three; Douglas into four †, and Albinus ‡ into five portions, which they describe as distinct muscles.

* *Scalenus primus, scalenus secundus.*

† First, second, third, and fourth scalenus.

‡ *Scalenus prior, scalenus minimus, scalenus lateralis, scalenus medius, scalenus posticus.*

WITHOUT deviating in the least from anatomical accuracy, we may consider it as one muscle; divided into three portions.

THE *anterior* portion arises commonly from the transverse processes of the six inferior vertebræ of the neck, by as many short tendons, and, descending obliquely outwards, is inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the upper side of the first rib, near its cartilage. The axillary artery passes through this portion, and sometimes divides it into two slips, about an inch and a half above its insertion.

THE *middle* portion arises, by distinct tendons, from the transverse processes of the four last vertebræ of the neck, and, descending obliquely outwards and a little backwards, is inserted tendinous into the outer and upper part of the first rib, from its root to within the distance of an inch from its cartilage. The space between this and the anterior portion, affords a passage to the nerves going to the upper extremities. It is in part covered by the third or *posterior*

A a

por-

portion, which is the thinnest and longest of the three. This arises from the transverse processes of the second, third, fourth, and fifth vertebræ of the neck, by distinct tendons, and is inserted into the upper edge of the second rib, at the distance of about an inch and a half from its articulation, by a broad flat tendon.

THE use of the scalenus is to move the neck to one side, when it acts singly, or to bend it forwards, when both muscles act; and when the neck is fixed, it serves to elevate the ribs and dilate the chest.

Inter-spinales.

THE space between the spinous processes of the six inferior cervical vertebræ, is filled up with small portions of muscular flesh, which arise from the spinous processes of the inferior vertebræ of the neck, and are inserted into the spinous processes of the superior vertebræ.

THEIR use is to draw these processes nearer to each other.

ANATOMICAL writers, following the usual division of the spine into neck, back, and loins, commonly divide these muscles into *inter-spinales cervicis*, *inter-spinales dorfi*, and *inter-spinales lumborum*; but there does not seem to be any good foundation for this, as we do not find any such muscles either on the back or loins.

Inter-transversales.

THESE differ from the last described muscles only in their situation, which is between the transverse processes of the vertebræ. We meet with them between the transverse processes of the six inferior vertebræ of the neck, and likewise between those of the lumbar vertebræ, so that we may not improperly distinguish them into *inter-transversales cervicis*, and *inter-transversales lumborum*; for what have been usually described as the *inter-transversales dorfi*, are (like the *inter-spinales dorfi* and *lumborum*) rather small tendons than muscles, serving to connect the processes to each other.

S E C T I O N VII.

Of the Muscles situated on the anterior and lateral parts of the Spine, within the cavity of the Abdomen.

Psoas Parvus.

THIS muscle, which was first described by Riolanus, is situated upon the psoas magnus, at the anterior part of the loins. From this situation the two muscles have gotten their name, which is derived from $\psi\acute{o}\alpha$, *lumbus*.

THE psoas parvus arises thin and fleshy from the side of the uppermost vertebra of the loins, and sometimes also from the lower edge of the last vertebra of the back, and from the transverse processes of each of these vertebræ; it then extends over part of the psoas magnus, and terminates in a thin flat tendon, which is inserted into that part of the brim of the pelvis, where the os pubis joins the ilium.—From this tendon a great number of fibres are sent off, which form a thin

thin fascia, that covers part of the psoas magnus and iliacus internus, and gradually loses itself on the fore part of the thigh.

IN the human body this muscle is very often wanting; but in a dog, according to Douglas *, it is never deficient.—Riolanus was of opinion, that it occurs oftner in men than in women; Winslow asserts just the contrary; but the truth seems to be, that it is as often wanting in one sex as in the other.

Its use seems to be to assist the psoas magnus in bending the loins forwards; and when we are lying upon our back, it may help to raise the pelvis.

Psoas Magnus.

THIS is a long, thick, and very considerable muscle, situated close to the fore part and sides of the lumbar vertebræ.

It arises from the bodies of the last vertebra of the back, and of all the lumbar vertebræ laterally, as well as from the an-

* Myograph. Comp. Spec.

terior surfaces of their transverse processes, by distinct tendinous and fleshy slips, that are gradually collected into one mass, which becomes thicker as it descends, till it reaches the last of the lumbar vertebræ, where it grows narrower again, and, uniting at its outer and posterior edge (where it begins to become tendinous) with the iliacus internus, descends along with that muscle under the ligamentum Fallopii, and goes to be inserted tendinous at the bottom of the trochanter minor of the os femoris, and fleshy into the bone a little below that process — Between the tendon of this muscle and the ischium, we find a considerable bursa mucosa.

THIS muscle, at its origin, has some connection with the diaphragm, and likewise with the quadratus lumborum. It is one of the most powerful flexors of the thigh forwards, and may likewise assist in turning it outwards. When the inferior extremity is fixed, it may help to bend the body forwards, and in an erect posture, it greatly assists in preserving the equilibrium of the trunk upon the upper part of the thigh.

Iliacus

Iliacus Internus.

THIS is a thick, broad, and radiated muscle, which is placed upon the inner surface of the ilium.

IT arises fleshy from all the inner lip of the ilium, from most of the hollow part, and likewise from the edge of that bone, between its anterior superior spinous process and the acetabulum. It joins with the psoas magnus, where it begins to become tendinous, and, passing under the ligamentum Fallopii, is inserted in common with that muscle.

M. PORTAL* has seen the tendon of this muscle distinct from that of the psoas, and, in some subjects, has found it divided into two portions.

THE iliacus internus serves to assist the psoas magnus in bending the thigh, and in bringing it directly forwards.

* Anat. Histor. et Pratique de Lieutaud, tome i.

Quadratus Lumborum.

THIS is a small, flat, and oblong muscle, that has gotten the name of *quadratus* from its shape, which is that of an irregular square. It is situated laterally, at the lower part of the spine.

It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from about two inches of the posterior part of the spine of the ilium. From this broad origin it ascends obliquely inwards, and is inserted into the transverse processes of the four superior lumbar vertebræ, into the lower edge of the last rib, and, by a small tendon, that passes up under the diaphragm, into the side of the last vertebra of the back.

WHEN this muscle acts singly, it draws the loins to one side; when both muscles act, they serve to support the spine, and perhaps to bend it forwards. In laborious respiration, the *quadratus lumborum* may assist in pulling down the ribs.

Coccygæus.

THIS muscle, which was first described by Douglas *, is nearly of a triangular shape. It is situated at the lower and inner part of the pelvis, between the spine of the ischium and the lower and lateral parts of the coccyx and sacrum.

It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the inner and posterior edge of the spine of the ischium, near its extremity. From this narrow origin it gradually spreads into a thin fleshy belly, interspersed with tendinous fibres, and is inserted into almost the whole length of the os coccygis laterally, and likewise into the inferior part of the os sacrum.

THE anterior edge of this muscle is united with the levator ani, and, with that muscle, serves to close the lower part of the pelvis, and to support the viscera contained in it. It likewise serves to draw the os coccygis inwards and forwards.

* Myograph. Comp. Spec.

S E C T I O N VIII.

Of the Muscles situated on the Scapula, and at the upper part of the Os Humeri.

Deltoides.

THIS, which is so called, on account of its supposed resemblance to the Greek letter Δ reversed, is a strong, thick, and fleshy muscle, covering the anterior part of the joint of the os humeri, and situated immediately under the integuments, except a small part of it, which is hid by the inferior extremity of the latissimus colli.

It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from all the outer and posterior part of the clavicle that the pectoralis does not possess, from the convex part of the acromion, and likewise from the lower edge of the spine of the scapula, as far as the triangular surface, which terminates it posteriorly. From these several origins the fibres of the muscle run in different directions; those from the spine of the scapula running downwards and obliquely,

liquely outwards, those from the acromion immediately downwards, and those from the clavicle downwards and outwards. They are all collected into a point at the inferior extremity of the muscle, and inserted, by a strong tendon, into a rough protuberance at the anterior part of the os humeri, near its middle, close to the origin of the brachialis internus. This tendon, which adheres to the os humeri in an extent of near an inch and a half, is much more considerable at the posterior surface of the muscle next to the bone, than it is anteriorly, where it is almost entirely covered with fleshy fibres.

THIS muscle is composed of a great number of fasciculi, which are easily separable from one another. Hence we find Albinus dividing it into seven portions, the three foremost of which are separated from the rest by a considerable cellular interstice. All these fasciculi are inclosed in a tendinous fascia, which descends to the lower part of the muscle, and then loses itself in the aponeurosis that is spread over the muscles of the arm.

THE

THE principal use of the deltoides is to draw the arm directly upwards; and when the arm is raised, it will be moved a little forwards or backwards, according to the different directions of the anterior and posterior portions of the muscle.

Supra-Spinatus.

THIS muscle, which was first so named by Riolanus, from its situation, is of considerable thickness, wider behind than before, and fills the whole of the cavity or fossa that is above the spine of the scapula.

IT arises fleshy from the whole of the base of the scapula that is above its spine, and likewise from the spine itself, and from the superior costa. Opposite to the basis of the coracoid process, we find it beginning to degenerate into a tendon, which is at first covered by fleshy fibres, and then passing under the acromion, adheres to the capsular ligament of the os humeri, and is inserted into the upper part of the large tuberosity at the head of the os humeri.

THIS

THIS muscle is covered by a thin fascia, which adheres to the upper edge and superior part of the basis, as well as to the upper edge of the spine of the scapula.

THE principal use of the supra-spinatus seems to be to assist in raising the arm upwards; at the same time, by drawing the capsular ligament upwards, it prevents it from being pinched between the head of the os humeri and that of the scapula. It may likewise serve to move the scapula upon the humerus.

Infra-Spinatus.

THIS muscle, which fills the fossa below the spine of the scapula, is nearly of a triangular shape; a considerable part of it is covered by the deltoides.

It arises fleshy from all that part of the basis of the scapula that is between its spine and its lower angle, and likewise from the spine itself, as far as the neck of the scapula. Its fibres run towards a middle tendon, some
in

in an oblique, and others in a transverse direction. This tendon adheres to the upper and inner part of the capsular ligament of the joint, and is inserted into the upper and middle part of the great tuberosity of the os humeri.

THIS muscle is covered by a tendinous membrane, which likewise envelops the teres minor.

THE infra-spinatus serves to turn the os humeri upon its axis outwards; to assist in raising the arm, and in moving it outwards when raised; and likewise to prevent the capsular ligament from being pinched in the motions of the joint.

Teres Minor.

THIS muscle seems to have been first described by Fallopius. Riolanus, who was the first that distinguished this and the other muscles of the scapula by particular appellations, gave the name of *teres* to this and the

the following muscle, on account of their long and round shape. The teres minor is a thin fleshy muscle, situated along the inferior edge of the infra-spinatus, and is in part covered by the posterior part of the deltoides.

It arises fleshy from all the convex edge of the inferior costa of the scapula; from thence it ascends obliquely upwards and forwards, and terminates in a flat tendon, which adheres to the lower and posterior part of the capsular ligament of the joint, and is inserted into the lower part of the great tuberosity of the os humeri, a little below the termination of the infra-spinatus.

THE tendinous membrane, which, as we just now observed, is continued from the infra-spinatus, and spread over the teres minor, likewise forms a thin septum between the two muscles. In some subjects, however, they are so closely united, as to be with difficulty separated from each other. Some of the fibres of the teres minor are intermixed with those of the teres major and subscapularis.

THE

THE uses of this muscle are similar to those of the infra-spinatus.

Teres Major.

THIS muscle, which is longer and thicker than the teres minor, is situated along the inferior costa of the scapula, and is in part covered by the deltoides.

IT arises fleshy from the outer surface of the inferior angle of the scapula, (where it covers some part of the infra-spinatus and teres minor, with both which its fibres intermix,) and likewise from the lower and posterior half of the inferior costa of the scapula. Ascending obliquely towards the os humeri, it passes under the long head of the triceps brachii, and then becomes thinner and flatter, to form a thin tendon of about an inch in breadth, and somewhat more in length, which runs immediately behind that of the latissimus dorsi, and is inserted along with it into the ridge at the inner side of the groove that lodges the
long

long head of the biceps. These two tendons are included in a common capsula, besides which the tendon of this muscle adheres to the os humeri, by two other capsulæ, which we find placed one above the other.

THIS muscle assists in the rotatory motion of the arm, and likewise in drawing it downwards and backwards; so that we may consider it as the congener of the latissimus dorsi.

Subscapularis.

THE name of this muscle sufficiently indicates its situation. It is composed of many fasciculi of tendinous and fleshy fibres, the marks of which we see imprinted on the under surface of the scapula. These fasciculi, which arise from all the basis of that bone internally, and likewise from its superior, as well as from one half of its inferior costa, unite to form a considerable flat tendon which adheres to the capsular ligament, and is inserted into the upper part of the lesser tuberosity at the head of the os humeri.

THE principal use of this muscle is to roll the arm inwards. It likewise serves to bring it close to the ribs; and, from its adhesion to the capsular ligament, it prevents that membrane from being pinched.

Coraco-brachialis.

THIS, which derives its name from its origin and insertion, is a long muscle, placed between the coracoid process of the scapula, and the upper, inner, and middle part of the os humeri, and is covered by the deltoides and pectoralis.

IT arises, by tendinous and fleshy fibres, from the inferior surface and inner part of the coracoid process of the scapula, and, in its descent, adheres to the posterior surface and inner edge of the short head of the biceps. It becomes somewhat thicker as it descends, and runs obliquely forwards and outwards, to be inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into about the middle of the inner side of the os humeri, between the brachialis internus and the third head of the triceps brachii.

THE

THE musculo-cutaneous nerve passes through the lower part of this muscle. This circumstance having been first noticed by Casserius, an ingenious Italian anatomist, many writers have given the name of *perforatus Casserii* to this muscle, but improperly, as the muscle itself had before been described by Vesalius and others.

THE principal use of this muscle is to move the arm upwards and forwards. It may likewise assist the *infra-spinatus* and *teres minor*, in rolling the *os humeri* outwards.

S E C T I O N IX.

Of the Muscles situated on the Os Humeri.

THESE are three in number, viz. the *biceps brachii*, *brachialis internus*, and *triceps brachii*. The two first are placed at the anterior, and the last at the posterior part of the arm.

Biceps Brachii.

THIS is the *biceps internus* of Douglas, and the *biceps* or *coraco-brachialis*, of Winflow. The upper part of it is covered by the *deltoides*, and by the tendon of the *pectoralis*; its inferior tendon dips down between the muscles of the upper part of the fore-arm; every other part of it is placed immediately under the integuments.

It arises, as its name indicates, by two heads. The first and innermost, which is the shortest and thickest of the two, springs, by a broad tendon, from the lower and outer part of the coracoid process of the scapula, in common with the *coraco-brachialis*. The second and outermost, or *long head* of the *biceps*, originates by a long, thin, and broad tendon, from the upper and outer part of the edge of the glenoid cavity of the scapula. This tendon becomes thinner and flatter as it passes over the head of the os humeri, within the joint, and running between the two tuberosities of that bone, begins

begins to assume a roundish shape, and is lodged in a groove described in the osteological part of this work, and inclosed within a membrane, which is a prolongation of the capsular ligament of the joint. These two heads unite a little below the middle of the os humeri, anteriorly, and form one muscle, which is inserted by a strong, thick, and roundish tendon, into the posterior half of the tuberosity which is observed at the upper end of the radius. Immediately under this tendon we find a small bursa mucofa investing the tubercle of the radius, and adhering loosely to part of the supinator brevis.

THE biceps brachii is covered by the fascia that is derived from the tendons of the pectoralis, deltoides, and other muscles, and is spread over the muscles of the arm. This fascia, from which many of the fleshy fibres of the muscles take their origin, is found adhering to the two sides of the lower part of the os humeri (as we observed in our description of that bone) by two folds, which many anatomical writers have improperly described as ligaments, under the names of

B b 3 the

the *external* and *internal inter-muscular ligaments*. The first of these is situated at the outer part of the arm, and the latter at the inner part between the brachialis internus and the outer portion of the triceps brachii.

FROM its inferior extremity, where it begins to grow tendinous, we find the biceps sending off a broad tendinous expansion, which unites with that sent off from the triceps brachii, and is spread over all the muscles on the outside of the fore-arm.

THE principal use of this muscle is to bend the fore-arm. It likewise assists in rolling the radius upon the ulna from within outwards, as in the motion of supination.

Brachialis Internus.

THIS muscle, which is situated immediately under the biceps, is of an oblong shape, and of considerable thickness and breadth, intimately adhering to the two inferior thirds of the anterior surface of the os humeri.

It arises fleshy from the os humeri, immediately below and at each side of the tendon of the deltoides, so as to appear forked at its origin. It grows thicker and broader as it descends, and narrower again at its inferior extremity, where it terminates in a strong tendon, which, at the anterior surface of the muscle, is nearly two inches in length, and, passing obliquely inwards over the capsular ligament of the joint, is inserted into a small tuberosity, which we observed at the fore part of the coronoid process of the ulna. This tendon sends off some few fibres, which unite with the tendinous fascia of the biceps.

THE use of this muscle is to assist in bending the fore-arm. Some writers have supposed that it likewise serves to draw the capsular ligament of the joint upwards, and thus to prevent it from being pinched; but there does not seem to be any good reason for this opinion, as its connection with that ligament is only by means of cellular membrane.

Triceps Brachii.

THIS muscle, which occupies all the posterior part of the os humeri, is described as two distinct muscles by Douglas, and as three by Winslow. The upper part of its long head is covered by the deltoides; the rest of the muscle is situated immediately under the integuments.

It arises, as its name indicates, by three heads. The first, or *long head**, as it is called, springs, by a flat tendon of an inch in breadth, from the anterior extremity of the inferior costa of the scapula, near its neck, and below the origin of the teres minor. The second head † arises, by an acute tendinous and fleshy beginning, from the upper and outer part of the os humeri, at the bottom of its great tuberosity. The third head ‡, which is the shortest of the

* The long head of the biceps externus. *Douglas.*
Anconeus major. *Winslow.*

† The short head of the biceps externus. *Douglas.*
Anconeus externus. *Winslow.*

‡ Brachialis externus. *Douglas.*
Anconeus internus. *Winslow.*

three, originates, by an acute fleshy beginning, from the back part of the os humeri, behind the flat tendon of the latissimus dorsi. These three portions unite about the middle of the arm, so as to form one thick and powerful muscle, which adheres to the os humeri to within an inch of the elbow, where it begins to form a broad tendon which, after adhering to the capsular ligament of the elbow, is inserted into the upper and outer part of the olecranon, and sends off a great number of fibres, which help to form the fascia on the outer part of the fore-arm.

THE use of this muscle is to extend the fore-arm.

S E C T I O N X.

Of the Muscles situated on the Fore-arm.

THESE muscles, which are very numerous, are disposed in two layers, one of which is situated immediately under the integuments; and when this is removed, we
disco-

discover the second layer. The external one, which is invested by the tendinous fascia already mentioned, consists of the supinator longus, extensor carpi radialis longus, extensor carpi radialis brevis, extensor digitorum communis, extensor minimi digiti, extensor carpi ulnaris, anconeus, flexor carpi ulnaris, palmaris longus, flexor carpi radialis, pronator teres, and perforatus. Of these, the seven first are situated at the outer, and the five last at the inner surface of the arm. The second layer consists of the supinator brevis, abductor pollicis longus, extensor minor pollicis, extensor major pollicis, indicator, perforans, flexor longus pollicis, and pronator quadratus. The five first are situated at the outer, and the three last at the inner surface of the arm.

Supinator Longus.

THIS is a long and flat muscle, covered by a very thin tendinous fascia, and situated immediately under the integuments, along the outer convex surface of the radius.

IT

It arises, by very short tendinous fibres, from the anterior surface and outer ridge of the os humeri, about two or three inches above its external condyle, between the brachialis internus and the triceps brachii; and likewise from the anterior surface of the external intermuscular membrane, or ligament, as it is called. About the middle of the radius, its fleshy fibres terminate in a flat tendon, which is inserted into the inner side of the inferior extremity of the radius, near the root of its styloid process.

THIS muscle not only assists in rolling the radius outwards, and turning the palm of the hand upwards, on which account Riolanus first gave it the name of *supinator*, but it likewise assists in pronation, and in bending the fore-arm.

Extensor Carpi Radialis Longus.

THIS muscle, which is so called by Douglas, is the *radialis externus longior* of Albinus, and the *radialis externus primus* of Winslow. It is almost entirely covered by the
last

last described muscle, which it resembles in its shape and direction.

It arises, by a broad, thin, and fleshy origin, from the inferior part of the outer ridge of the os humeri, above its external condyle, and immediately below the origin of the supinator longus. About the middle of the radius, it degenerates into a flat, thin tendon, which becomes somewhat thicker and narrower as it descends, and, after passing under the external annular ligament, spreads a little wider again, and is inserted into the upper part of the metacarpal bone that supports the fore-finger.

THIS muscle serves to extend the wrist, and to bring the hand backwards.

Extensor Carpi Radialis Brevis.

THIS muscle, which is the *radialis externus brevior* of Albinus, and the *radialis externus secundus* of Winslow, is situated immediately under the last described muscle, with which, in some subjects, it is intimately connected.

It

It arises tendinous from the lower and outer part of the external condyle of the os humeri, and from the upper part of the radius. It continues longer fleshy, and forms a thicker and a broader tendon than the last described muscle, with which it passes under the ligament of the wrist, and then separating a little from it, goes to be inserted into the upper part of the metacarpal bone that supports the middle finger.

Its use is to assist the extensor radialis longus.

Extensor Digitorum Communis.

THIS is a long muscle, situated immediately under the integuments, along the outer surface of the fore-arm, between the extensor radialis brevis and the extensor minimi digiti.

It arises tendinous, in common with the last described muscle, from the outer condyle of the os humeri, and, by some few fleshy fibres, from the adjacent tendinous membrane.

brane. It increases in size as it descends, and, about four fingers breadth above the external annular ligament, divides into four fleshy portions, which form as many roundish tendons, that are included in a thin membrane, and pass altogether under the ligament, to the convex surface of the carpus, after which they separate from each other, and become flatter and more expanded. About the extremity of the metacarpal bones, we find them sending off tendinous filaments to each other, and they are at length inserted, by a tendinous expansion, into the back part of all the bones of the fore fingers.

THE use of this muscle is to extend the joints of the fingers.

Extensor Minimi Digiti.

THIS long and thin muscle is situated immediately under the common integuments, between the extensor digitorum communis and the extensor carpi ulnaris. Many writers have considered it as a portion of
the

the former, but in general it is sufficiently distinct to deserve to be described as a separate muscle.

It arises tendinous, in common with the two last described muscles, from the outer condyle of the os humeri, and, by some few fleshy fibres, from the tendinous fascia that covers it. In its descent it becomes tendinous somewhat sooner than the extensor digitorum communis, but its fleshy fibres do not entirely disappear till it has reached the external annular ligament, under which its tendon passes in an oblique direction, and distinct from those of the last described muscle. When this tendon reaches the metacarpal bone of the little finger, we find it sending off filaments, which unite with the tendon of the extensor communis, and the rest of it is inserted into the phalanges of the little finger, which this muscle (as its name indicates) serves to extend.

Extensor Carpi Ulnaris.

THIS, which is the *ulnaris externus* of Winflow and Albinus, is a long muscle,
like

like those we have already described in the present section, but more considerable in bulk.

It arises tendinous, in common with the three last described muscles, from the outer condyle of the os humeri, and fleshy, as it descends, from the outer edge and middle of the ulna. About the middle of the arm its outer edge begins to grow tendinous, but its fleshy fibres do not entirely disappear till it has nearly reached the external annular ligament, where it forms a roundish tendon, which is inclosed by a membranous sheath, and passes under the ligament, in a groove formed under the extremity of the ulna, and from thence goes to be inserted into the upper part of the metacarpal bone that supports the little finger.

THIS muscle assists the extensores carpi radiales in extending the wrist, and bringing the hand backwards.

Anconeus.

THIS muscle, which is the *anconeus minor* of Winslow, is small, and of a triangular shape.

shape. It is situated at the outer side of the olecranon, immediately under the integuments, along the outer edge and upper part of the last described muscle.

IT arises, by a thick short tendon, from the lower and posterior part of the external condyle of the os humeri. It soon becomes fleshy, and runs downwards, to be inserted thin and fleshy into the outer and posterior edge of the ulna, about two or three inches below the olecranon.

THE tendon of this muscle adheres strongly to the triceps, and, in some subjects, we find its fibres intermixed, more or less, with those of the extensor carpi ulnaris.

ITS use is to assist in extending the forearm.

Flexor Carpi Ulnaris.

THIS, which is the *ulnaris internus* of Winslow and Albinus, is a long muscle, situated at the inner side of the forearm, immediately under the integuments.

IT arises tendinous from the inner condyle of the os humeri, and, by a small fleshy origin, from the anterior edge of the olecranon. Between these two portions, we find the ulnar nerve passing to the forearm. Some of its fibres arise likewise from the tendinous fascia that covers the muscles of the fore-arm. In its descent it soon becomes tendinous, but its fleshy fibres do not entirely disappear till it has reached the lower extremity of the ulna, where its tendon spreads a little, and, after sending off a few fibres to the external and internal annular ligaments, is inserted into the os pisiforme.

THIS muscle assists in bending the hand.

Palmaris Longus.

THIS is a long thin muscle, situated immediately under the integuments.

IT arises tendinous from the inner condyle of the os humeri, but soon becomes fleshy, and, after continuing so about three inches,

inches, terminates in a long slender tendon, which, near the wrist, separates into two portions, one of which is inserted into the internal annular ligament, and the other loses itself in a tendinous membrane, that is nearly of a triangular shape, and extends over the palm of the hand, from the carpal ligament to the roots of the fingers, and is called *aponeurosis palmaris*. Some of the fibres of this expansion adhere strongly to the metacarpal bones, and separate the muscles and tendons of each finger. Several anatomical writers have considered this aponeurosis as a production of the tendon of this muscle, but seemingly without reason, because we now and then find the latter wholly inserted into the carpal ligament, in which case it is perfectly distinct from the aponeurosis in question; and, in some subjects, the palmaris longus is wanting, but the aponeurosis is always to be found. Rhodius* indeed says that the latter is likewise now and then deficient, but there is good reason to think that he was mistaken.

* Mantissa Anat. apud T. Bartholin. Hist. Anatom. Cent. v. & vi.

THIS muscle bends the hand, and may assist in its pronation; it likewise serves to stretch the aponeurosis palmaris.

Flexor Carpi Radialis.

THIS, which is the *radialis internus* of Albinus and Winflow, is a long thin muscle, situated obliquely at the inner and anterior part of the fore-arm, between the palmaris longus and the pronator teres.

It arises tendinous from the inner condyle of the os humeri, and, by many fleshy fibres, from the adjacent tendinous fascia. It descends along the inferior edge of the pronator teres, and terminates in a long, flat, and thin tendon, which afterwards becomes narrower and thicker, and, after passing under the internal annular ligament, in a groove distinct from the other tendons of the wrist, it spreads wider again, and is inserted into the fore and upper part of the metacarpal bone that sustains the fore-finger.

THIS

THIS muscle serves to bend the hand, and its oblique direction may likewise enable to assist in its pronation.

Pronator Teres.

THIS is a small muscle, situated at the upper and anterior part of the fore-arm. It is called *teres*, to distinguish it from the pronator quadratus.

It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the anterior and inferior part of the outer condyle of the os humeri; and tendinous from the coronoid process of the ulna, near the insertion of the brachialis internus. The median nerve passes between these two portions. From these origins the muscle runs obliquely downwards and outwards, and is inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the anterior and convex edge of the radius, about the middle of that bone.

THIS muscle, as its name indicates, serves to turn the hand inwards.

Perforatus.

THIS muscle, which is so called by Cowper, Douglas, and Winflow, is by Albinus, and others, named *sublimis*. It has gotten the name we have adopted, from its tendons being perforated by those of another flexor muscle of the fingers, called the *perforans*. They who give it the appellation of *sublimis*, consider its situation with respect to the latter, and which, instead of *perforans*, they name *profundus*. It is a long muscle, situated most commonly at the anterior and inner part of the fore-arm, between the palmaris longus and the flexor carpi ulnaris; but, in some subjects, we find it placed under the former of these muscles, between the flexor carpi ulnaris and the flexor carpi radialis.

It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the inner condyle of the os humeri, from the inner edge of the coronoid process of the ulna, and from the upper and fore part of the radius, down to near the insertion of
the

the pronator teres. A little below the middle of the fore-arm we find its fleshy belly dividing into four portions, which degenerate into as many round tendons, that pass all together under the internal annular ligament of the wrist, after which they separate from each other, become thinner and flatter, and running along the palm of the hand, under the aponeurosis palmaris, are inserted into the upper part of the second bone of each finger. Previous to this insertion, however, we find the fibres of each tendon decussating near the extremity of the first bone, so as to afford a passage to a tendon of the perforans. Of these four tendons, that of the middle-finger is the largest, that of the fore-finger the next in size, and that of the little-finger the smallest.

THE use of this muscle is to bend the second joint of the fingers.

Supinator Brevis.

THIS small muscle, which is tendinous externally, is situated at the upper part of
C c 4 the

the fore-arm under the supinator longus, the extensor carpi radialis brevis, the extensor carpi ulnaris, the extensor digitorum communis, and the extensor minimi digiti.

It arises tendinous from the lower and anterior part of the outer condyle of the os humeri, and tendinous and fleshy from the outer edge and posterior surface of the ulna, adhering firmly to the ligament that joins the radius to that bone. From these origins its fibres descend forwards and inwards, and are inserted into the upper, inner, and anterior part of the radius around the cartilaginous surface upon which slides the tendon of the biceps, and likewise into a ridge that runs downwards and outwards below this surface.

THIS muscle assists in the supination of the hand by rolling the radius outwards.

Abductor Pollicis Longus.

THIS muscle, which is the *extensor primi internodii* of Douglas, is deeply seated on the
outer

outer surface of the fore-arm, in an oblique direction, and is in part covered by the extensor carpi radialis brevis, the extensor digitorum communis, the extensor minimi digiti, and the extensor carpi ulnaris.]

IT arises tendinous and fleshy from the middle and posterior part of the ulna, immediately below the termination of the anconeus muscle, from the posterior surface of the interosseous ligament, and from the back part of the middle of the radius, towards the lower part of the fore-arm it divides into two, and sometimes three distinct portions, that terminate in as many tendons, which pass under the external annular ligament of the wrist, and are inserted into the os trapezium, and upper back part of the first bone of the thumb.

THE use of this muscle is to extend the first bone of the thumb outwardly.

Extensor Minor Pollicis.

THIS is the *extensor secundi internodii* of Douglas. Winslow considers it and the pre-

preceding muscle as one, to which he gives the name of *extensor pollicis primus*. It is situated along the inferior edge of the last described muscle, and resembles it in its shape and extent.

It arises tendinous and fleshy, from the posterior part of the ulna, immediately below the origin of the abductor pollicis longus; and likewise from the interosseous ligament and the adjacent part of the radius. It terminates in a tendon, which passes under the external annular ligament of the wrist, usually in the same groove with the tendons of the last described muscle, and is inserted into the convex and upper part of the second bone of the thumb.

Its use is to extend the second bone of the thumb obliquely outwards.

Extensor Major Pollicis.

DOUGLAS calls this the *extensor tertii inter-nodii*, and Winslow the *extensor pollicis secundus*. Its shape and situation are similar to those

those of the last described muscle, but it is longer and somewhat thicker.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from the back of the ulna, and from the interosseous ligament, a little below the origin of the abductor pollicis longus. Its tendon passes under the external annular ligament, through a small groove at the inner and posterior part of the lower end of the radius, and is inserted into the third and last bone of the thumb.

THIS muscle serves to extend the last joint of the thumb obliquely backwards.

Indicator.

THIS muscle is the *extensor secundi inter-nodii indicis proprius*, vulgo *indicator*, of Douglas, and the *extensor indicis proprius* of Winslow. It resembles the two last described muscles in its shape, and is in part covered by the *extensor digitorum communis*, and the *extensor minimi digiti*.

It

It arises fleshy from the middle of the ulna, immediately below the origin of the extensores pollicis. Its tendon passes under the external annular ligament of the wrist, along with those of the extensor digitorum communis, and from thence running along the convex surface of the hand, we find it uniting at the lower end of the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, with the tendon of the extensor communis that goes to that finger, into the posterior part of which they are inserted together.

THE use of this muscle is to assist in extending the fore-finger.

Perforans.

IN speaking of the perforatus, I explained why this muscle is by some writers called *perforans*, and by others *profundus*. It is situated immediately under the perforatus, which it greatly resembles in its shape.

It arises fleshy from the upper part and inner surface of the ulna, and likewise from
the

the interosseous ligament, as far down as the upper edge of the pronator quadratus. A little before it passes under the internal annular ligament of the wrist, it divides into four tendons, which run through the flits we described in the perforatus, and are inserted into the anterior and upper part of the last bone of each finger.

THE use of this muscle is to bend the last joint of the finger.

Flexor Longus Pollicis.

This muscle, which is so named by Winslow and Albinus, is the *flexor tertii internodii* of Douglas. It is placed at the side of the last described muscle, and is covered by the *extensores carpi radiales*.

It arises fleshy from the anterior surface of the radius immediately below the insertion of the biceps, and is continued down along the oblique ridge, which serves for the insertion of the *supinator brevis*, as far

as the pronator quadratus. Some of its fibres spring likewise from the neighbouring edge of the interosseous ligament. Its tendon passes under the internal annular ligament of the wrist, and after running along the inner surface of the first bone of the thumb, between the two portions of the flexor brevis pollicis, goes to be inserted into the last joint of the thumb, being bound down in its way by the ligamentous expansion that is spread over the second bone.

IN some subjects we find a tendinous portion arising from the inner condyle of the os humeri, and forming a fleshy slip that commonly terminates near the upper part of the origin of this muscle from the radius; Lieutaud * has seen it forming a distinct muscle, which was inserted by a considerable tendon into the bones of the carpus.

THE use of this muscle is to bend the last joint of the thumb.

* Anatom. Hist. & Pratique, tome i.

Pronator Quadratus.

THIS, which has gotten its name from its use and its shape, is a small fleshy muscle, situated at the lower and inner part of the fore-arm, and covered by the tendons of the flexor muscles of the hand.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from the lower and inner part of the ulna, and runs nearly in a transverse direction, to be inserted into that part of the radius which is opposite to its origin, its inner fibres adhering to the interosseous ligament.

THIS muscle assists in the pronation of the hand, by turning the radius inwards.

S E C T I O N XI.

Of the Muscles situated on the Hand.

THESE small muscles are in no inconsiderable number. The *interossei externi*, which I shall describe the last, are situated on the
out-

outside of the hand. All the others are placed on the inside.

Lumbricales.

THESE little muscles which are four in number, are placed in the hollow of the hand, under the aponeurosis palmaris, and the tendons of the perforatus. They have gotten their name from their supposed resemblance to the common earth-worm, (*lumbricus.*)

THEY arise thin and fleshy from the tendons of the perforans, a little below the internal annular ligament, and terminate each in a long slender tendon. These tendons run over the articulation of the first bone of the fingers with those of the metacarpus, and spreading over the convex surface of this phalanx, lose themselves in the tendons of the extensor digitorum communis.

THE first of these muscles, or that which is inserted into the fore finger, is commonly the thickest of the four. It arises from the anterior and lateral part of that tendon of
the

the perforans which is next to the thumb. The other three arise each from two tendons. In their way to the back part of the fingers, they commonly run over that side of the articulation which is towards the thumb, but in some subjects we find their tendons passing over the side next to the little finger. These muscles seem to have two very opposite uses, for by being inserted into the first joint of each finger, they serve to bend that joint, and from their connection with the extensor communis, they may assist in extending the two last joints of the fingers. This remark was first made by Fallopius*.

Abductor Brevis Pollicis.

THIS, which Douglas calls simply *abductor*, is a small muscle situated immediately under the integuments, and forms the fleshy prominence in the palm of the hand, and on the thumb.

It arises by a broad, tendinous and fleshy origin, from the anterior surface of part of

* Observ. Anatomic.

the internal annular ligament, from the os scaphoides, and likewise from one of the tendons of the abductor longus pollicis. It is inserted by a strong flat tendon into the outer side of the root of the second bone of the thumb.

THIS muscle serves to draw the thumb from the fingers.

Opponens Pollicis.

THIS muscle, which is the *flexor primi internodii* of Douglas, is situated under the last described muscle, which it resembles in its shape.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from the os scaphoides, and from the anterior and inner surface of the internal annular ligament. It is inserted tendinous and fleshy into the under and anterior part of the first bone of the thumb.

THIS muscle serves to turn the first bone of the thumb upon its axis, and at the same time

time to bring it inwards opposite to the other fingers.

Flexor Brevis Pollicis.

THIS muscle, which is the *flexor secundi internodii* of Douglas, and the *thenar* of Winflow, is divided into two portions by the tendon of the flexor pollicis longus. The outermost portion arises tendinous from the anterior part of the os trapezoides, and internal annular ligament, adhering strongly to the edge of the last described muscle. The second, or innermost and thickest portion arises from the same bone, and likewise from the os magnum and os unciforme. Both these portions are inserted tendinous into the ossa sesamoidea and second bone of the thumb.

THE use of this muscle is to bend the second joint of the thumb.

Adductor Pollicis.

THIS muscle, which is the *adductor ad minimum digitum* of Douglas, and the *mesothenar*

of Winflow, is small and flat, and nearly of a triangular shape.

It arises tendinous and fleshy, from almost the whole length of the metacarpal bone of the middle finger, and its fibres, being collected together, terminate in a flat tendon which is inserted into the inner part of the basis of the second bone of the thumb.

THE use of this muscle is to draw the thumb towards the finger.

Abductor Indicis.

THIS little muscle is the *adductor ad indicem* of Douglas, and the *antithenar*, or *semi-interosseus pollicis* of Winflow.

It arises from the os trapezium, and from the upper part and inner side of the first bone of the thumb, and is inserted by a short tendon into the back part of the first bone of the fore-finger on the side next to the thumb.

THIS

THIS muscle serves to draw the fore-finger towards the thumb.

Palmaris Brevis.

THIS is a small thin cutaneous muscle, situated between the wrist and the little-finger. Fallopius tells us, that it was discovered by Cananus. Winflow names it *palmaris cutaneus*.

IT arises from a small part of the internal annular ligament, and inner edge of the aponeurosis palmaris, and is inserted by small bundles of fleshy fibres into the os pisiforme, and into the skin and fat that cover the abductor minimi digiti.

THIS muscle seems to assist in contracting the palm of the hand.

Abductor Minimi Digiti.

THIS, which is the *extensor tertii internodii minimi digiti* of Douglas, and the *hypothenar minor* of Winflow, is a thin fleshy muscle,

D d 3 which

which helps to form the prominence at the inner edge of the palm of the hand.

It arises fleshy from the inner surface and inferior edge of the os pisiforme, and from the adjacent part of the internal annular ligament; and is inserted by a flat tendon into the first bone of the little-finger laterally.

Flexor Parvus Minimi Digiti.

THIS muscle, which is the *abductor minimi digiti* of Douglas, is situated along the inner surface of the metacarpal bone of the little finger.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from all that process of the os unciforme, from which that bone has gotten its name; and likewise from the anterior surface of the adjacent part of the internal annular ligament. It terminates in a flat tendon, which is connected with that of the last described muscle, and inserted into the inner and anterior part of the upper end of the first bone of the little finger.

THIS

THIS muscle serves to bend the little finger, and likewise to assist the abductor.

Adductor Metacarpi Minimi Digiti.

THIS, which is the *flexor primi internodii minimi digiti* of Douglas, and the *metacarpus* of Winslow, is a small fleshy muscle nearly of a triangular shape, and situated under the abductor and flexor brevis.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from the same process as the last described muscle, and likewise from the anterior surface, and inferior edge of the adjacent part of the internal annular ligament. It is inserted tendinous into the anterior part and inner side of the metacarpal bone of the little-finger.

THIS muscle serves to draw the metacarpal bone of this finger towards the rest; it likewise assists in making the palm of the hand hollow, so as to form what is called *Diogenes's cup*.

Interossei.

THESE are small muscles situated between the metacarpal bones, and extending from the bones of the carpus to the fingers. They are divided into *internal* and *external*; the former are to be seen only on the palm of the hand, but the latter are conspicuous both on the palm and back of the hand.

THE *interossei interni* are three in number. The first, which Albinus names *posterior indicis*, arises tendinous and fleshy from the basis and inner part of the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, and likewise from the upper part of that which supports the middle-finger. Its tendon passes over the articulation of this part of these bones with the fore-finger, and uniting with the tendinous expansion that is sent off from the extensor digitorum communis, is inserted into the posterior convex surface of the first phalanx of that finger.

THE second and third, to which Albinus gives the names of *prior annularis*, and *interosseus*

osseus auricularis, arise, in the same manner, from the bases of the outsides of the metacarpal bones that sustain the ring-finger and the little finger, and are inserted into the outside of the tendinous expansion of the extensor digitorum communis that covers each of those fingers.

THESE three muscles draw the fingers, into which they are inserted, towards the thumb.

THE *interossei externi* are four in number, for among these I include the small muscle that is situated on the outside of the metacarpal bone that supports the fore-finger. Douglas calls it *extensor tertii internodii indicis*, and Winslow *semi-interosseus indicis*. Albinus, who describes it among the interossei, gives it the name of *prior indicis*. This first interosseus externus arises by two tendinous and fleshy portions. One of these springs from the upper half of the inner side of the first bone of the thumb, and the other from the ligaments that unite the os trapezoides to the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, and likewise from all the outside of this latter bone.

bone. These two portions unite as they descend, and terminate in a tendon, which is inserted into the outside of that part of the tendinous expansion from the extensor digitorum communis that is spread over the posterior convex surface of the fore-finger.

THE second, to which Albinus gives the name of *prior medii*, is not quite so thick as the last described muscle. It arises by two heads, one of which springs from the inner side of the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, chiefly towards its convex surface, and the other arises from the adjacent ligaments, and from the whole outer side of the metacarpal bone that sustains the middle-finger. These two portions unite as they descend, and terminate in a tendon, which is inserted, in the same manner as the preceding muscle, into the outside of the tendinous expansion that covers the posterior part of the middle-finger.

THE third belongs likewise to the middle-finger, and is therefore named *posterior medii* by Albinus. It arises, like the last described muscle,

muscle, by two origins, which spring from the roots of the metacarpal bones of the ring and middle-fingers, and from the adjacent ligaments, and is inserted into the inside of the same tendinous expansion as the preceding muscle.

THE fourth, to which Albinus gives the name of *posterior annularis*, differs from the two last only in its situation, which is between the metacarpal bones of the ring and little fingers. It is inserted into the inside of the tendinous expansion of the extensor digitorum communis that covers the posterior part of the ring-finger.

ALL these four muscles serve to extend the fingers into which they are inserted, and likewise to draw them inwards, towards the thumb, except the third, or *posterior medii*, which, from its situation and insertion, is calculated to pull the middle-finger outwards.

SEC.

S E C T I O N XII.

Of the Muscles situated on the posterior part of the Pelvis and upper part of the Thigh.

THESE muscles, which help to form the buttock on each side, are disposed in three layers. The first layer consists of the glutæus maximus, the second of the glutæus medius, and the third of the glutæus minimus, the pyriformis, the gemini, part of the obturator internus, and the quadratus femoris.

*Glutæus * Maximus.*

THIS broad radiated muscle, which is divided into a number of strong fasciculi, is covered by a pretty thick aponeurosis derived from the *fascia lata*, and is situated immediately under the integuments.

It arises fleshy from the outer lip of somewhat more than the posterior half of the spine of the ilium, from the ligaments that

* From γλετός, nates.

cover the two posterior spinous processes; from the posterior sacro-ischiatic ligament; and from the outer sides of the os sacrum and os coccygis. From these origins the fibres of the muscle run towards the great trochanter of the os femoris, where they form a broad and thick tendon, between which and the trochanter we find a considerable *bursa mucosa*. This tendon is inserted into the upper part of the *linea aspera*, for the space of two or three inches downwards; and sends off fibres to the fascia lata, and to the upper extremity of the vastus externus.

THIS muscle serves to extend the thigh, by pulling it directly backwards; at the same time it draws it a little outwards, and thus assists in its rotatory motion. Its origin from the coccyx seems to prevent that bone from being forced too far backwards.

Glutæus Medius.

THE posterior half of this muscle is covered by the glutæus maximus, which it greatly resembles in its shape; but the anterior

terior and upper part of it is covered only by the integuments, and by a tendinous membrane which belongs to the fascia lata.

It arises fleshy from the outer lip of the anterior part of the spine of the ilium, from part of the posterior surface of that bone, and likewise from the fascia that covers it. From these origins its fibres run towards the great trochanter, into the outer and posterior part of which it is inserted by a broad tendon. Between this tendon and the trochanter we find a small thin *bursa mucosa*.

The uses of this muscle are nearly the same as those of the glutæus maximus; but it is not confined, like that muscle, to rolling the os femoris outwards, its anterior portion being capable of turning that bone a little inwards. As it has no origin from the coccyx, it can have no effect on that bone.

Glutæus Minimus.

THIS, which is likewise a radiated muscle, is situated under the glutæus medius.

In

In adults, and especially in old subjects, its outer surface is usually tendinous.

It arises fleshy between the two semicircular ridges we observe on the outer surface of the ilium, and likewise from the edge of its great niche. Its fibres run in different directions towards a thick flat tendon, which adheres to the capsular ligament of the joint, and is inserted into the fore and upper part of the great trochanter. A small *bursa mucosa* may be observed between the tendon of this muscle and the trochanter.

THIS muscle assists the two former in drawing the thigh backwards and outwards, and in rolling it. It may likewise serve to prevent the capsular ligament from being pinched in the motions of the joint.

Pyramidalis.

SPIGELIUS was the first who gave a name to this muscle, which he called *pyramidalis*, from its supposed resemblance to a pear. It is a small radiated muscle, situated under the glutæus maximus, along the inferior edge of the glutæus minimus,

IT

IT arises by three, and sometimes four tendinous and fleshy origins, from the anterior surface of the second, third, and fourth pieces of the os sacrum, so that this part of it is within the pelvis. From these origins the muscle grows narrower, and passing out of the pelvis, below the niche in the posterior part of the ilium, from which it receives a few fleshy fibres, is inserted, by a roundish tendon of an inch in length, into the upper part of the cavity at the root of the trochanter major.

THE use of this muscle is to assist in rolling the thigh outwards, and in moving it a little upwards.

Gemini.

THIS muscle has been a subject of dispute among anatomists since the days of Vesalius. Some describe it as two distinct muscles, and hence the name it has gotten of *gemini*. Others contend that it ought to be considered as a single muscle. The truth is, that it consists of two portions, which are united
to-

together by a tendinous and fleshy membrane, and afford a passage between them to the tendon of the obturator internus, which they inclose as it were in a purse. These two portions are placed under the glutæus maximus, between the ischium and the great trochanter.

THE superior portion, which is the shortest and thickest of the two, arises fleshy from the external surface of the spine of the ischium; and the inferior, from the tuberosity of that bone, and likewise from the posterior sacro-ischiatic ligament. They are inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the cavity at the root of the great trochanter. Between the two portions of this muscle, and the termination of the obturator internus, we find a small *bursa mucosa*, connected to both, and to that part of the capsula of the joint which lies under the gemini.

THIS muscle assists in rolling the os femoris outwards, and prevents the tendon of the obturator internus from slipping out of its place while that muscle is in action.

Obturator Internus.

THIS is a considerable muscle, a great part of which is situated within the pelvis.

It arises, by very short tendinous fibres, from somewhat more than the upper half of the internal circumference of the foramen thyroideum of the os innominatum. It is composed of several distinct fasciculi, which terminate in a roundish tendon that passes out of the pelvis, through the niche that is between the spine and the tuberosity of the ischium, and, after running between the two portions of the gemini in the manner just now described, is inserted into the cavity at the root of the great trochanter, after adhering to the adjacent part of the capsular ligament of the joint.

THIS muscle rolls the os femoris obliquely outwards, by pulling it towards the ischiatic niche, upon the cartilaginous surface of which its tendon, which is surrounded by a membranous sheath, moves as upon a pulley.

Quad-

Quadratus Femoris.

THIS is a flat, thin, and fleshy muscle, but not of the shape its name would seem to indicate. It is situated immediately below the gemini.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from the external surface and lower edge of the tuberosity of the ischium, and is inserted by short tendinous fibres into a ridge which we see extending from the basis of the trochanter major to that of the trochanter minor.

Its use is to bring the os femoris outwards.

S E C T I O N XIII.

Of the Muscles situated on the Thigh.

THESE are the biceps cruris, femi-tendinosus, femi-membranosus, tensor vaginae femoris, sartorius, rectus, gracilis, vastus externus, vastus internus, cruralis, pectinalis,

adductor longus, adductor brevis, adductor magnus, and obturator externus. Of these, the three first are situated at the back part; the fourth, or tensor vaginæ femoris, on the outside; and the rest on the anterior and inner parts of the thigh.

IMMEDIATELY under the integuments we find a broad tendinous membrane, called the *fascia lata*, which is sent off from the back, and from the tendons of the glutæi and other muscles, and is spread over all the muscles of the thigh and leg in the manner of a sheath. It adheres above to the outer lip of the os innominatum, and communicates, as we have seen, with the tendon of the obliquus externus abdominis. We likewise see it dipping down between the muscles, and adhering to the linea aspera; lower down it spreads itself over the joint of the knee, and from thence passes on to the leg.

ON the outside of the thigh this fascia is of great strength and thickness, but at the posterior and anterior parts it becomes thinner, and at the inside of the thigh has rather
the

the appearance of cellular substance than of a tendinous fascia.

Biceps Cruris.

THIS muscle is situated immediately under the integuments at the back part of the thigh.

It arises, as its name indicates, by two heads, which afterwards unite to form one muscle. The first and longest of these heads begins tendinous, in common with the femitendinosus, from the outer, inferior, and posterior part of the tuberosity of the ischium, and descends obliquely outwards, degenerating into a strong and broad tendon a little below the middle of the thigh. The second head arises, by an acute tendinous and fleshy origin, from the linea aspera, a little below the termination of the glutæus maximus. It becomes broader as it descends, and receives some of its fibres from the adjacent fascia lata. It unites with the other portion a little above the external condyle of the os femoris, to form a thick tendon,

which makes what is called the *outer hamstring*, and is inserted into the upper and back part of the fibula. We find a *bursa mucosa* between this tendon and the capsular ligament of the knee.

THE principal use of this muscle is to bend the leg.

Semi-tendinosus.

THIS muscle, which is the *semi-nervosus* of Douglas and Winslow, is situated obliquely along the back part of the thigh.

It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the inferior, posterior, and outer part of the tuberosity of the ischium, in common with the long head of the last described muscle, to the posterior edge of which it continues to adhere, by a great number of oblique fibres, for the space of two or three inches. Towards the lower part of the os femoris it terminates in a round tendon, which passes behind the inner condyle of the thigh bone, and becoming flat, is inserted into the upper
and

and inner part of the ridge of the tibia, a little below its tuberosity.

THIS tendon sends off an aponeurosis, which helps to form the tendinous fascia that covers the muscles of the leg.

THIS muscle assists in bending the leg, and at the same time draws it a little inwards.

Semi-membranosus.

THIS, which is placed next to the last described muscle, arises from the outer surface of the tuberosity of the ischium, by a broad flat tendon which is three inches in length. From this tendon it has gotten the name of semi-membranosus. It then begins to grow fleshy, and runs at first under the long head of the biceps, and afterwards between that muscle and the semi-tendinosus. At the lower part of the thigh it becomes narrower again, and terminates in a short tendon, which is inserted chiefly into the upper and back part of the head of the tibia, but some of its fibres are spread over the

posterior surface of the capsular ligament of the knee. Between this capsular ligament and the tendon of the muscle, we find a small *bursa mucosa*.

THE tendons of this and the last described muscle form the *inner ham-string*.

THIS muscle bends the leg, and seems likewise to prevent the capsular ligament from being pinched.

Tensor Vaginæ Femoris.

THIS muscle, which is so named by Albinus from its stretching the tendinous sheath that furrounds the muscles of the thigh, is the *membranofus* of Douglas, and the *musculus fasciæ latæ* of Winflow. It is situated at the upper and outer part of the thigh.

IT arises, by a narrow tendinous beginning, from the inferior and outer part of the anterior and superior spinous process of the ilium. It soon becomes fleshy, and of greater
breadth

breadth and thickness, descending obliquely outwards and backwards towards the great trochanter, a little below which we find it terminating in the inner side of the *fascia lata*.

Its chief use seems to be to stretch this fascia. It may likewise assist in rolling the thigh inwards.

Sartorius.

THIS flat and slender muscle, which is the longest of the human body, and from an inch and a half to two inches in breadth, is situated immediately under the integuments, and extends obliquely from the upper and anterior part of the thigh to the upper, anterior, and inner part of the tibia, being inclosed by a thin membranous sheath, which is derived from the adjacent *fascia lata*.

It arises, by a tendon of about half an inch in breadth, from the outer surface and inferior edge of the anterior superior spinous process of the ilium, but soon becomes fleshy,
and

and runs down a little way obliquely inwards, and then for some space upon the rectus, nearly in a strait direction; after which it passes obliquely over the vastus internus, and the lower part of the adductor longus, and then running down between the tendons of the adductor magnus and the gracilis, is inserted, by a thin tendon, into the inner part of the tibia, near the inferior part of its tuberosity, and for the space of an inch or two below it. This tendon sends off a thin aponeurosis, which is spread over the upper and posterior part of the leg.

THIS muscle serves to bend the leg obliquely inwards, or to roll the thigh outwards, and at the same time to bring one leg across the other, on which account Spiegelius first gave it the name of *sartorius*, or the taylor's muscle.

Rectus.

THIS muscle is situated immediately at the fore part of the thigh. It arises from the os ilium by two tendons. The foremost
and

and shortest of these springs from the outer surface of the inferior and anterior spinous process of the ilium; the posterior tendon, which is thicker and longer than the other, arises from the posterior and outer part of the edge of the cotyloid cavity, and from the adjacent capsular ligament. These two tendons soon unite, and form an aponeurosis, which spreads over the anterior surface of the upper part of the muscle; and through its whole length we observe a middle tendon, towards which its fleshy fibres run on each side in an oblique direction, so that it may be styled a penniform muscle. It is inserted tendinous into the upper edge and anterior surface of the patella, and from thence sends off a thin aponeurosis, which adheres to the superior and lateral part of the tibia.

Its use is to extend the leg.

Gracilis.

THIS long, straight, and slender muscle, which Winslow names *gracilis* five *rectus internus*,

ternus, is situated immediately under the integuments at the inner part of the thigh.

It arises, by a broad and thin tendon, from the anterior part of the ischium and pubis, and soon becoming fleshy, descends nearly in a strait direction along the inside of the thigh. A little above the knee it terminates in a slender and roundish tendon, which afterwards becomes flatter, and is inserted into the inside of the tibia behind and under the *Sartorius*.

UNDER the tendons of this and the *rectus* we find a considerable *bursa mucosa*, which, on one side, adheres to them and to the tendon of the *femio tendinosus*, and on the other, to the capsular ligament of the knee.

THIS muscle assists in bending the thigh and leg inwards.

Vastus Externus.

THIS large, thick, and fleshy muscle is situated at the outer side of the thigh. It
arises,

arises, by a broad thick tendon, from the lower and anterior part of the great trochanter, and upper part of the linea aspera; it likewise adheres, by fleshy fibres, to the whole outer edge of that rough line. Its fibres descend obliquely forwards, and after it has run four or five inches downwards, we find it adhering to the anterior surface and outer side of the cruræus, with which it continues to be connected to the lower part of the thigh, where we see it terminating in a broad tendon, which is inserted into the upper part of the patella laterally, and sends off an aponeurosis that adheres to the head of the tibia, and is continued down the leg.

Vastus internus.

This muscle, which is less considerable than the vastus externus, is situated at the inner side of the thigh, being separated from the last described muscle by the rectus.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from between the fore-part of the os femoris, and the root of the lesser trochanter, below the
infer-

infertion of the psoas magnus, and the iliacus internus; and from all the inner side of the linea aspera. Like the vastus externus it is connected with the cruræus, but it continues longer fleshy than that muscle. A little above the knee we see its outer edge uniting with the inner edge of the rectus, after which it is inferted tendinous into the upper part and inner side of the patella, sending off an aponeurosis which adheres to the upper part of the tibia.

Cruræus.

THIS muscle is situated under the rectus, between the two vasti.

It arises fleshy from the fore and outer part of the trochanter minor of the os femoris, and adheres to the whole anterior surface of that bone to within two inches of its inferior extremity. It is connected with both vasti, unites with the tendon of the rectus, and is inferted behind it into the upper part of the patella, between which and the tendons of this and the two last described

scribed muscles, there is a thin but large *bursa mucosa*.

IMMEDIATELY under the *cruræus*, in some subjects, we find two little muscles which arise from the anterior surface of the *os femoris*, two or three inches above the capsular ligament of the knee-joint, into which they are inserted on each side of the *patella*. When these *sub cruræi* muscles are wanting, some of the fibres of the *cruræus* are spread over the capsula. *Albinus* has described them, but *M. Portal* * observes that they were first noticed by *Dupré*, a surgeon at *Paris*, in 1699. Their use is to prevent the ligament from being pinched in the extension of the joint.

THE *cruræus*, and the two *vasti*, have all of them the same use; viz. that of extending the leg. From the manner in which they are connected to each other, some anatomists, and particularly *Albinus*, have been induced to consider them as a *triceps*, or single muscle with three origins.

* *Hist. d' Anatomie*, tome iv.

Pectinalis.

THIS is a small flat muscle, situated obliquely between the pubis and the little trochanter, at the upper and anterior part of the thigh.

It arises broad and fleshy from all the anterior edge of the os pectinis, or pubis, as it is more commonly called, as far as its spine, and descending obliquely backwards and outwards, is inserted by a short and broad tendon, into the upper and anterior part of the linea aspera of the os femoris a little below the lesser trochanter.

THIS muscle serves to bend the thigh, by drawing it upwards and inwards, and likewise assists in rolling it outwards.

Adductor Longus Femoris.

THIS and the two following muscles were long considered as forming a single muscle, which was therefore called *triceps femoris*. The impropriety of this arrangement has
long

long been acknowledged, but neither Winflow, Albinus, or Douglas have ventured to deviate so far from custom as to drop this appellation, although they were convinced that it consists of distinct muscles. Accordingly, we find them retaining the general name of *triceps*, and giving separate names to the portions into which they divide it. I have thought it right to lay aside the former, and in regard to the latter I shall adopt those used by Albinus, because Douglas has unnecessarily considered the last of the three as two muscles.

THE adductor longus, which is the *adductor primus* of Douglas, and the *triceps primus* of Winflow, is a fleshy muscle, situated obliquely at the upper and inner part of the thigh, on the inner side of the pectinalis.

It arises by a thick roundish tendon from the upper and anterior part of the os pubis, and becoming broad and fleshy, descends obliquely outwards and backwards, and is inserted by a broad and short tendon near the middle of the posterior part of the linea

F f

aspera,

aspera, being continued two or three inches downwards. From the lower part of this tendon some fibres are detached, which join that of the adductor magnus.

The uses of this muscle are similar to those of the pectinalis.

Adductor Brevis Femoris.

THIS, which is the *adductor secundus* of Douglas, and the *triceps secundus* of Winflow, is, in a great measure, covered by the pectinalis, and the last described muscle, the latter of which it greatly resembles in its position and shape.

It arises by short tendinous fibres from the anterior surface of the ramus of the os pubis, below and behind the origin of the adductor longus, and is inserted into the upper and inner part of the linea aspera, from a little below the lesser trochanter to the beginning of the insertion of the last described muscle.

THE

THE uses of this muscle are nearly the same as those of the adductor longus; but it seems to be less powerful as a flexor of the thigh, and more calculated to draw it inwards.

Adductor Magnus Femoris.

THIS is the *triceps tertius* of Winflow, and includes the *adductor tertius* and *adductor quartus* of Douglas. It is much larger than either of the two last described muscles, behind which it is situated, but has nearly the same shape and direction.

It arises, by a short thick tendon, from the anterior surface of the lower part of the branch of the os pubis, a little below the origin of the adductor brevis; and tendinous and fleshy from the ramus ischii, including the tuberosity of that bone, where some of its fibres intermix with the upper extremity of the femi membranofus. Its fibres run downwards and outwards, and are inserted tendinous into the whole length of the linea aspera, and into the ridge that extends

to the inner condyle of the os femoris; it there forms a roundish tendon, which adheres to the upper and posterior part of that condyle. A little above this we find the femoral artery passing between this muscle and the bone, taking a spiral turn to the ham.

THIS muscle serves to draw the thigh inwards, and likewise assists in its flexion.

Obturator Externus.

THIS is a small flat muscle, situated obliquely at the upper and anterior part of the thigh, between the pectinalis and the fore part of the foramen thyroideum, and covered by the adductor brevis femoris.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from all the inner half of the circumference of the foramen thyroideum, and likewise from part of the obturator ligament. Its radiated fibres collect and form a strong roundish tendon, which runs outwards, and after adhering to the capsular ligament of the joint is inserted

serted into a cavity at the inner and back part of the root of the great trochanter.

THE chief uses of this muscle are to turn the thigh obliquely outwards, to assist in bending the thigh, and in drawing it inwards. It likewise prevents the capsular ligament from being pinched in the motions of the joint.

S E C T I O N XIV.

Of the Muscles situated on the Leg.

THESE are the two gastrocnemii, the plantaris, popliteus, flexor longus digitorum pedis, flexor longus pollicis pedis, tibialis posticus, peroneus longus, peroneus brevis, extensor longus digitorum pedis, peroneus tertius, tibialis anticus, and extensor proprius pollicis pedis. The seven first are situated at the posterior, and the six last at the anterior part of the leg. The latter are covered by a strong tendinous membrane, which in part is derived from the fascia lata, and in part from the tendons of the muscles

F f 3 that

that are inserted into the patella and upper part of the tibia. Towards the lower part of the leg it grows thinner, and at length loses itself in the cellular membrane on the upper surface of the foot. At the back part of the leg this fascia is extremely thin.

Gastrocnemius Externus.*

THIS muscle, which is situated immediately under the integuments at the back part of the leg, is sometimes called *gemellus*: this latter name is adopted by Albinus. Winflow describes it as two muscles, which he calls *gastrocnemii*; and Douglas considers this and the following as a *quadriceps*, or muscle with four heads, to which he gives the name of *extensor tarsi suralis*.

THE gastrocnemius externus arises by two distinct heads. The first, which is the thickest and longest of the two, springs by a strong thick tendon from the upper and back part of the inner condyle of the os

* *Tασχομήλια*, *sura*, the calf of the leg, from *ταρξ*, *venter*, and *τιμῆν*, *tibia*.

femoris, adhering strongly to the capsular ligament of the joint, between which and the tendon we find a considerable *bursa mucosa*. The second head arises by a thinner and shorter tendon from the back part of the outer condyle of the os femoris. A little below the joint their fleshy bellies unite in a middle tendon, and below the middle of the tibia they cease to be fleshy, and terminate in a broad tendon, which, a little above the lower extremity of the tibia, unites with that of the gastrocnemius internus, to form one great round tendon, sometimes called *chorda magna*, but more commonly *tendo Achillis*.

Gastrocnemius Internus.

THIS, which is situated immediately under the last described muscle, is sometimes named *soleus*, on account of its shape, which resembles that of the sole fish.

It arises by two heads. The first springs by tendinous and fleshy fibres from the posterior part of the head of the fibula,

and for some way below it. The second arises from an oblique ridge at the upper and posterior part of the tibia, which affords origin to the inferior edge of the popliteus, continuing to receive fleshy fibres from the inner edge of the tibia for some way down. This muscle, which is narrow at its origin, spreads wider as it descends, as far as its middle; after which it becomes narrower again, and begins to grow tendinous, but its fleshy fibres do not entirely disappear till it has almost reached the extremity of the tibia, a little above which it unites with the last described muscle, to form the *tendo Achillis*. This thick round chord is inserted into the lower and posterior part of the os calcis, after sliding over a cartilaginous surface on that bone, to which it is connected by a tendinous sheath that is furnished with a large *bursa mucosa*.

BOTH the gastrocnemii have the same use, viz. that of extending the foot, by drawing it backwards and downwards.

Plan:

Plantaris.

THIS long and slender muscle, which is situated under the gastrocnemius externus, arises, by a thin fleshy origin, from the upper and back part of the outer condyle of the os femoris. It adheres to the capsular ligament of the joint, and, after running obliquely downwards and outwards, for the space of three or four inches, along the second origin of the gastrocnemius internus, and under the gastrocnemius externus, terminates in a long, thin, and slender tendon, which adheres to the inside of the tendo Achillis, and is inserted into the inside of the posterior part of the os calcis.

THIS tendon sometimes sends off an aponeurosis that loses itself in the capsular ligament, but it does not at all contribute to form the aponeurosis that is spread over the sole of the foot, as was formerly supposed, and as its name would seem to imply.

Its use is to assist the gastrocnemii in extending the foot. It likewise serves to prevent the capsular ligament of the knee from being pinched.

Popliteus.

THIS little muscle, which is covered by the plantaris and gastrocnemius externus, derives its name from its situation at the ham (*poples*).

It arises by a broad and thick tendon from the lower part of the outer condyle of the thigh, and adheres firmly to the posterior surface of the capsular ligament of the joint. In its passage over the joint it becomes fleshy, and running obliquely inwards, is inserted fleshy into a ridge at the upper and inner edge of the tibia, about two inches below the head of that bone.

THE lower half of this muscle is covered by a thin tendinous membrane.

THIS

THIS muscle seems to have but little power in bending the leg; but when this is done, it serves to roll it inwards. It likewise pulls the capsular ligament of the knee from between the bones.

Flexor Longus Digitorum Pedis.

THIS long muscle, which is the *perforans* or *flexor profundus* of Douglas, is situated along the posterior part and inner side of the leg.

It arises fleshy from the back part of the tibia, immediately below the insertion of the popliteus, some of its fibres being confounded with those of the tibialis posticus. After running down to the malleolus internus, its tendon passes under a kind of annular ligament, and then through a sinuosity at the inside of the os calcis; soon after which we find it receiving a small tendon from the flexor pollicis longus, and about the middle of the foot it divides into four tendons, which pass through the flits of the flexor digitorum brevis, and are inserted
into

into the upper part of the last bone of all the lesser toes.

ABOUT the middle of the foot this muscle unites with a fleshy portion, which, from the name of its first describer, has been usually called *massa carnea* JACOBI SYLVII. It may be considered as a portion or appendage of the flexor longus. This *massa carnea* arises by a thin fleshy origin from most part of the sinuosity of the os calcis, and likewise by a thin tendinous beginning from the anterior part of the external tubercle of that bone, and soon becoming all fleshy, unites with the flexor longus, just before its division into four tendons.

THE flexor longus and its appendage have both the same use, viz. that of bending the last joint of the toes.

Flexor Longus Pollicis Pedis.

THIS muscle is situated along the posterior part of the leg, between the last described muscle and the two peronei.

IT

IT arises tendinous and fleshy a little below the head of the fibula, from the back part of that bone, to which its fleshy fibres continue to adhere almost to its extremity. A little above the heel it terminates in a round tendon, which after passing in a groove formed at the posterior edge of the astragalus and the internal lateral part of the os calcis, in which it is secured by an annular ligament, goes to be inserted into the last bone of the great toe, which it serves to bend.

Tibialis Posticus.

THIS, which is a penniform muscle, is situated behind the tibia and fibula, between the two last described muscles.

IT arises from the posterior surface and outer edge of the tibia, immediately below the insertion of the popliteus, and likewise from the adjacent part of the fibula, and from the interosseous ligament for some considerable way downwards, its fibres running towards a middle tendon. A little above the

the malleolus internus it sends off a round tendon, which passes under an annular ligament in a groove behind that process, and growing broader goes to be inserted into the upper and inner part of the os naviculare, and farther on into the side of the os cuneiforme medium.

THE use of this muscle is to bring the foot inwards; it may likewise assist in extending it.

Peroneus Longus.

THIS muscle, which is the *peroneus primus* of Douglas, is situated somewhat anteriorly along the outer side of the leg.

IT arises tendinous and fleshy from the external lateral part of the head of the tibia, and likewise from the upper anterior surface and outer side of the *perone* or fibula, its fibres continuing to adhere to the outer surface of the latter to within three or four inches of the malleolus externus. It terminates

minates in a long round tendon, which runs obliquely behind the malleolus ~~int~~ernus, ^{ex} where it passes through a cartilaginous groove in common with the peroneus brevis, being bound down by an annular ligament. When it has reached the os calcis, it quits the tendon of the peroneus brevis, and runs obliquely inwards along a groove in the os cuboides, under the muscles on the sole of the foot, to be inserted into the outside of the posterior extremity of the metatarsal bone that supports the great toe.—Near the insertion of this muscle we find a small *bursa mucosa*.

THIS muscle draws the foot outwards, and likewise assists in extending it.

Peroneus Brevis.

THIS, which is in a great measure covered by the last described muscle, is the *peroneus secundus* of Douglas.

It arises by an acute, thin, and fleshy origin from the anterior and outer part of
the

the fibula, its fibres continuing to adhere to the lower half of that bone. Its round tendon passes through the groove in the malleolus externus, along with that of the peroneus longus; after which we see it running in a separate groove to be inserted into the upper and posterior part of the tubercle at the basis of the metatarsal bone that supports the little toe.

ITS use is to assist the peroneus longus.

Extensor Longus Digitorum Pedis.

THIS muscle, which is situated along the anterior and outer part of the tibia, arises by a thin, narrow, tendinous and fleshy beginning, from the upper, anterior, and outer part of the tibia, close to the origin of the peroneus longus; from the interosseous ligament; and from the inner edge of the fibula, to which it continues to adhere almost its whole length. Many of its fibres are derived likewise from the adjacent tendinous fascia. It terminates in a long tendon, which passes under the annular

wards, is inserted into the root of the metatarsal bone that supports the little toe.

THIS muscle assists in bending the foot.

Tibialis Anticus.

THIS muscle, which is situated obliquely immediately under the integuments at the fore part of the leg, arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the upper and anterior part of the tibia, close to the origin of the extensor longus digitorum pedis. It runs down fleshy on the outside of that bone, receiving many of its fibres from the interosseous ligament and adjacent tendinous fascia, and terminates in a round tendon, which passes obliquely under the annular ligament near the malleolus internus, and is inserted into the inner edge of the os cuneiforme internum, from whence it sends off a small portion, which extends as far as the posterior end of the metatarsal bone of the great toe. Between the tendon of this muscle and the os cuneiforme, we find a small *bursa mucosa*.

THIS

THIS muscle bends the foot, by drawing it upwards and inwards.

Extensor Proprius Pollicis Pedis.

THIS muscle, which is the *extensor longus* of Douglas, is almost entirely covered by the tibialis anticus and extensor longus digitorum pedis, between which it is situated.

It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the anterior and upper part of the fibula, a little below the head of that bone, to the anterior surface of which, and to the adjacent interosseous ligament, it continues to adhere for the space of five or six inches. Its fibres run obliquely downwards, towards a tendon which passes under the annular ligament, from whence it runs in an oblique direction, to be inserted into the convex surface of the bones of the great toe, which it serves to extend.

S E C T I O N XV.

Of the Muscles situated on the Foot.

THESE are the extensor brevis digitorum, flexor brevis digitorum, abductor pollicis, abductor minimi digiti, lumbricales, flexor brevis pollicis, adductor pollicis, transversalis, flexor brevis minimi digiti, and interossei externi & interni. Of this number, the extensor brevis digitorum and interossei externi are situated on the upper surface of the foot; all the rest are placed on its under surface. The latter are covered by a strong tendinous fascia, called *aponeurosis plantaris*, which is extended over the sole of the foot, from the inferior and posterior part of the os calcis, where it is thickest, to the first joints of all the toes.

Extensor Brevis Digitorum Pedis.

THIS is a short fleshy muscle, situated on the upper surface of the foot, and extending obliquely under the tendons of the extensor

tenfor longus, from the upper, anterior, and outer part of the os calcis, to the toes.

It arises, by short tendinous fibres, from the fore and upper part of the os calcis externally, near where it joins the os cuboides, and likewise from part of the adjacent annular ligament. It soon forms a fleshy belly, easily divisible into four portions, of which the two innermost are the thickest and shortest, and the two outermost the thinnest and longest. These portions terminate in four slender tendons, one of which unites, at the first joint of the great toe, with the tendon of the extensor longus pollicis; the other three unite, in the same manner, with three tendons of the extensor digitorum longus.

THE use of this muscle is to assist in extending the four toes into which it is inserted.

Flexor Brevis Digitorum Pedis.

THIS muscle, which is the *perforatus*, or *flexor sublimis* of Douglas, arises, by a nar-

row tendinous and fleshy beginning, from the inferior protuberating part of the os calcis. It likewise derives many of its fleshy fibres from the adjacent tendinous membrane, and soon forms a thick belly, which divides into four portions. Each of these portions terminates in a flat tendon, the fibres of which decussate, to afford a passage to a tendon of the flexor longus, and afterwards reuniting, are inserted into the second phalanx of each of the four lesser toes.

This muscle serves to bend the second joint of the toes.

Abductor Pollicis Pedis.

THIS muscle, which is the *thenar* of Winflow, is situated along the inner edge of the foot. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the inside of that large tuberosity of the os calcis which forms the heel, and likewise from the same bone, where it unites with the os naviculare. About the middle
of

of the metatarsal bone it terminates in a tendon, which, after passing over the internal sesamoid bone, is inserted into the root of the first joint of the great toe.

THIS muscle draws the great toe from the rest, and at the same time bends it a little.

Abductor Minimi Digiti.

THIS, which is described as two muscles by Winflow, under the names of *parathenar major* and *metatarsæus*, is situated along the outer edge of the foot.

It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the anterior surface of the external tubercle of the os calcis, from the root of the metatarsal bone of the little toe, and likewise from the aponeurosis plantaris. It runs along the metatarsal bone, and terminates in a tendon, which is inserted into the root of the first joint of the little toe externally.

Its use is to draw the little toe outwards from the rest, and likewise to bend it a little.

Lumbricales Pedis.

THESE muscles, in their shape, situation, and number, resemble the lumbricales of the hand. They arise, tendinous and fleshy, from the tendons of the flexor longus digitorum pedis, and terminate in four long, slender tendons, which, after running over the inside of the first joint of the four lesser toes, are inserted into the expansion that is formed by the extensor tendons and covers the upper part of the toes.

THE first lumbricalis, or that which is next to the great toe, is somewhat thinner and longer than the other three, and arises from the inner side and upper surface of the first tendon of the flexor longus. The other three, as in the hand, arise each from between two tendons.

THESE muscles draw the toes inwards, towards the great toe; they likewise assist in bending the first joint, or in extending the

two last joints of the toes into which they are inserted.

Flexor Brevis Pollicis Pedis.

THIS muscle, which is situated upon the metatarsal bone of the great toe, arises tendinous from the under and anterior part of the os calcis, and from the under part of the os cuneiforme externum. It soon becomes fleshy and divisible into two portions, which do not separate from each other till they have reached the anterior extremity of the metatarsal bone of the great toe, where they become tendinous, and then the innermost portion unites with the tendon of the abductor, and the outermost with that of the adductor pollicis. They adhere to the external os sesamoideum, and are finally inserted into the root of the first joint of the great toe,

THESE two portions, by their separation, form a groove, in which passes the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis.

THE

THE use of this muscle is to bend the first joint of the great toe.

Adductor Pollicis Pedis.

THIS muscle, which is the *antithenar* of Winflow, is obliquely situated at the bottom of the foot. It arises tendinous from near the roots of the metatarsal bones of the second, third, and fourth toes, and from the adjacent ligaments, and, after forming a broad fleshy belly, runs obliquely forwards and inwards, and growing narrower, terminates in a tendon, which, after adhering to a portion of the last described muscle, is inserted into the external os sesamoideum, and sometimes into the first joint of the great toe.

Its use is to draw this toe nearer the rest; and likewise to assist in bending it.

Transversalis Pedis.

THIS little muscle, which seems to have been first described by Placentinus*, derives

* Tabul. Anatomic.

its name from the transverse direction of its fibres.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from the under and outer part of the anterior extremity of the metatarsal bone of the little toe, and from the ligaments of the two next toes; and, uniting with the tendon of the adductor pollicis, is inserted into the internal sesamoid bone, and the under part of the anterior extremity of the metatarsal bone of the great toe.

Its use is to contract the foot, by bringing the heads of the metatarsal bones nearer to each other.

Flexor Brevis Minimi Digiti Pedis.

THIS little muscle, which is the *parathenar minor* of Winslow, is situated along the inferior surface and outer edge of the metatarsal bone of the little toe. It arises tendinous from the basis of that bone, and from the ligaments that connect it to the os cuboides.

boides. It soon becomes fleshy, and adheres almost to the whole length of the metatarsal bone, at the anterior extremity of which it forms a small tendon, which is inserted into the root of the first joint of the little toe.

Its use is to bend this toe.

Interossei Pedis.

THESE small muscles in their situation between the metatarsal bones resemble the interossei of the hand, and like them are divided into *internal* and *external*.

THE *interossei pedis interni* are three in number. They arise tendinous and fleshy from the basis and inside of the metatarsal bones of the middle, the third, and the little toes, in the same manner as those of the hand, and they each terminate in a tendon that runs to the inside of the first joint of these toes, and from thence to their upper surface, where it loses itself in the tendinous expansion that is sent off from the extensors.

EACH

EACH of these three muscles serves to draw the toe, into which it is inserted, towards the great-toe.

THE *interossei externi* are four in number. The first arises tendinous and fleshy from the outside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the great-toe, from the os cuneiforme internum, and from the root of the inside of the metatarsal bone of the fore-toe. Its tendon is inserted into the inside of the tendinous expansion that covers the back part of the toes.

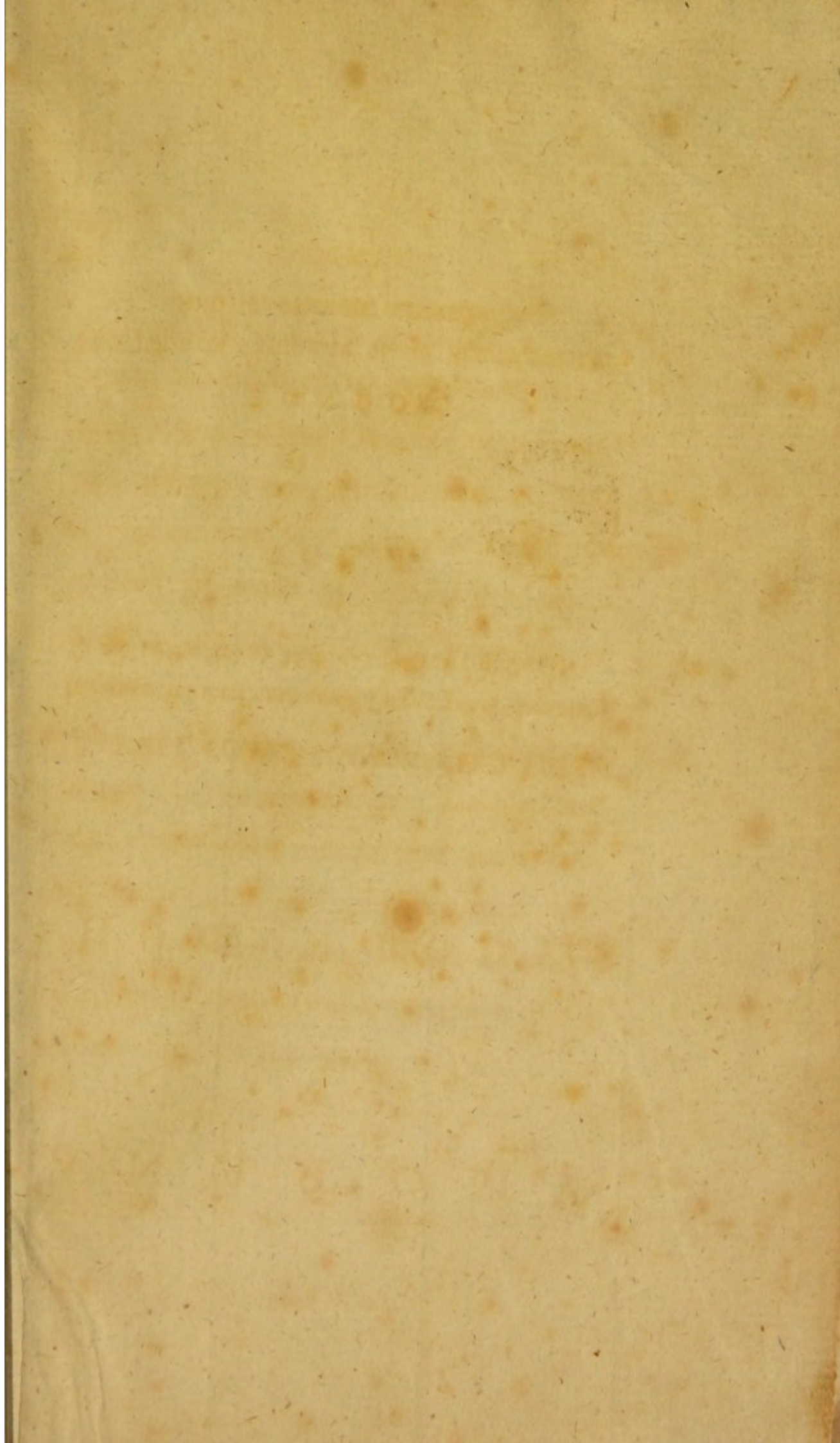
THE second is placed in a similar manner between the metatarsal bones of the fore and middle-toes, and is inserted into the outside of the tendinous expansion on the back part of the fore-toe.

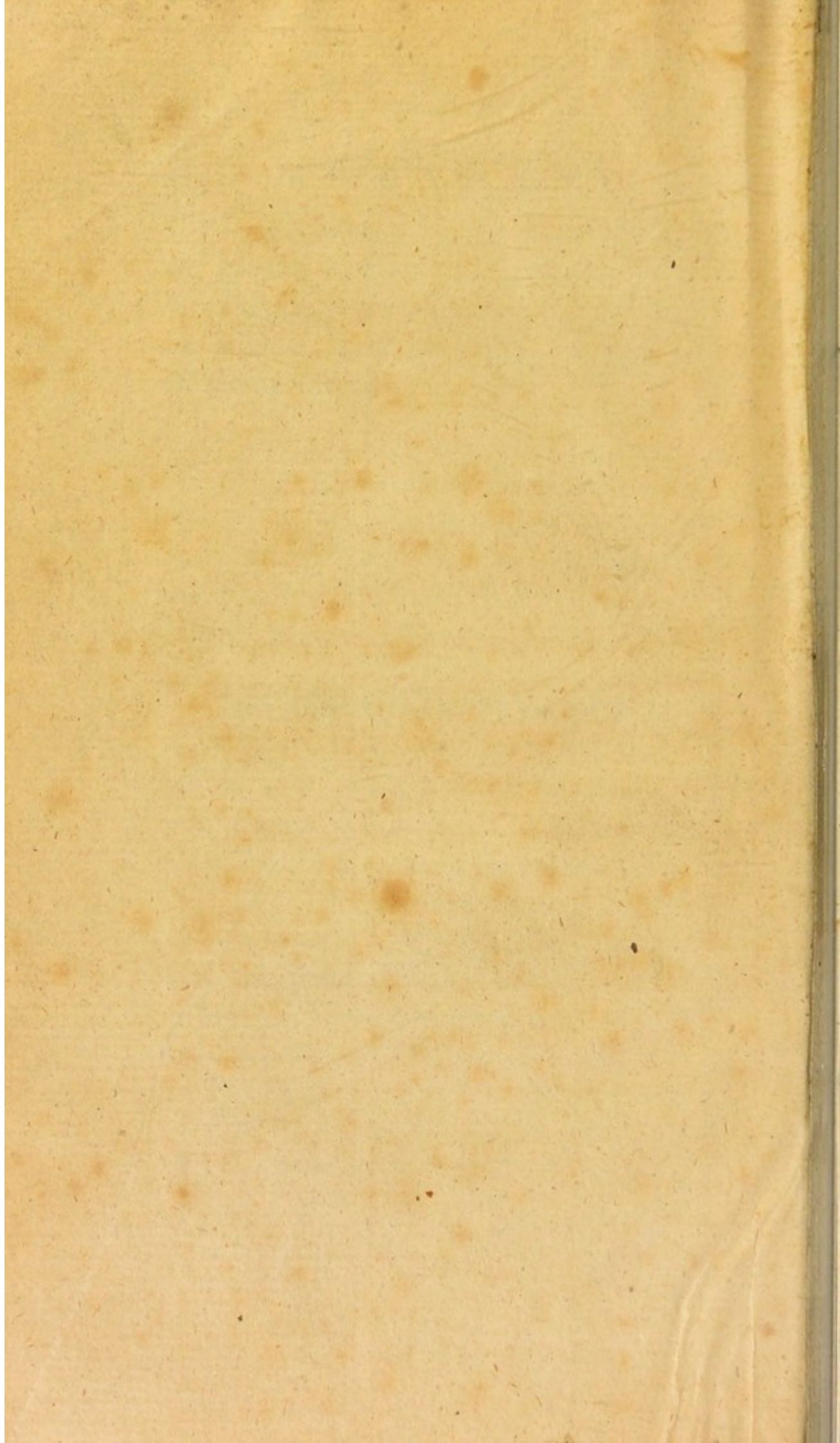
THE third and fourth are placed between the two next metatarsal bones, and are inserted into the outside of the middle and third-toes,

THE

THE first of these muscles draws the fore-toe inwards towards the great-toe. The three others pull the toes, into which they are inserted, outwards. They all assist in extending the toes.

THE END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.





Faint, illegible handwritten text or signature.

