

Observations on the claims of the moderns, to some discoveries in chemistry and physiology / By G.D. Yeats.

Contributors

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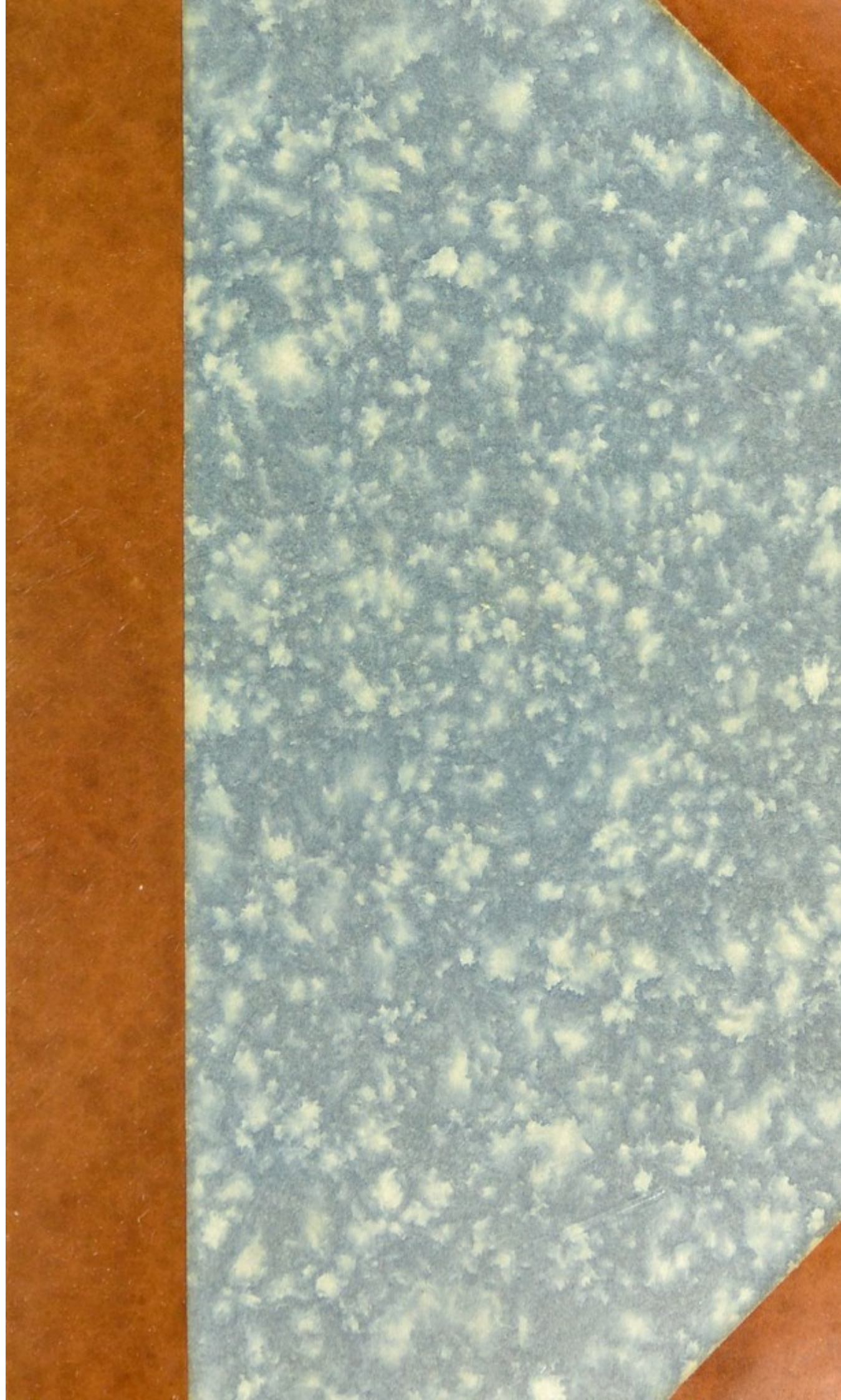
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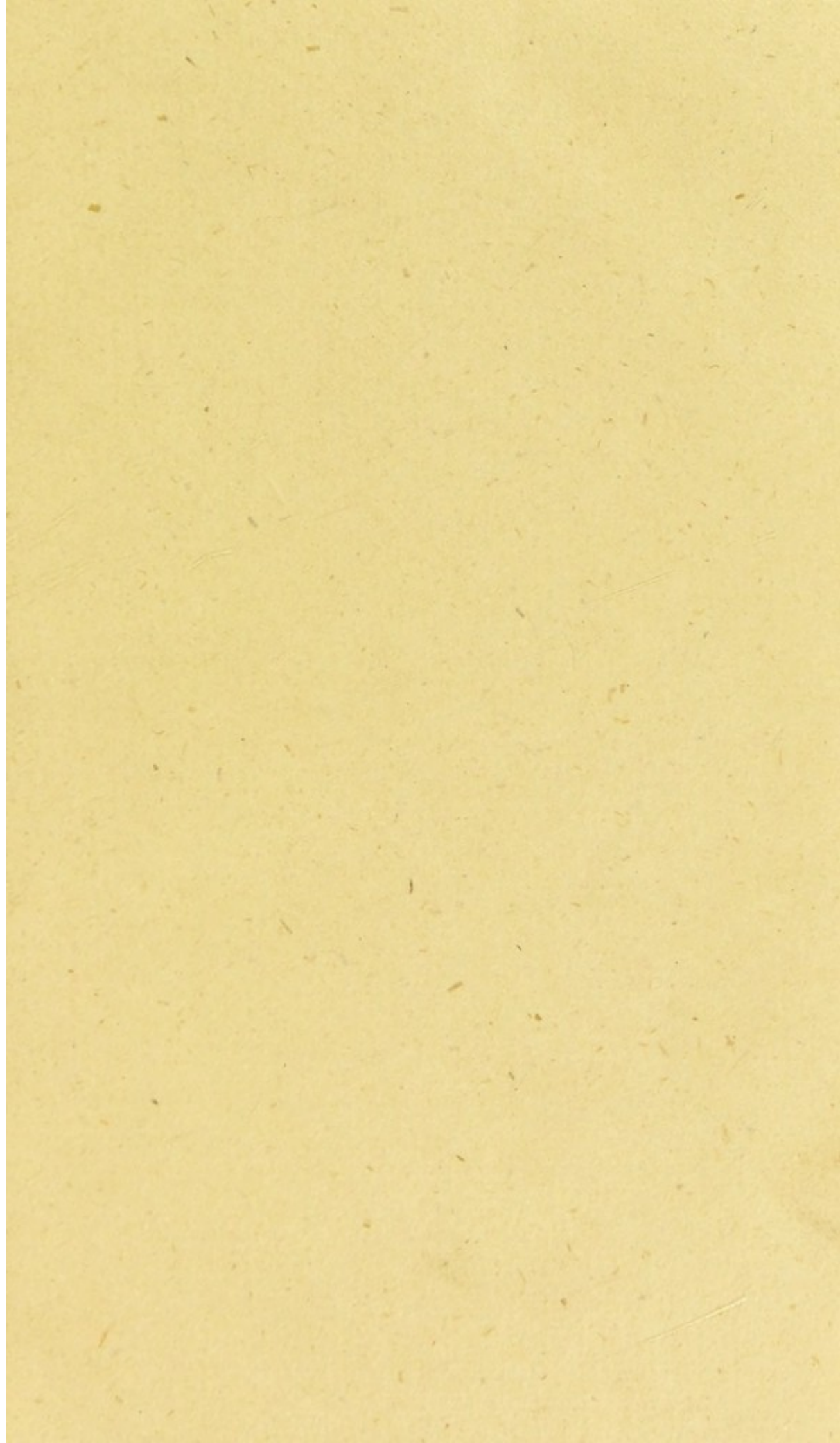
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An extremely important work in the history of science. Yeats, like his contemporary Beddoes, drew attention to the merits of Mayow and though, says E. Irving Carlyle, "like most of Mayow's admirers Yeats appiauded with too little discrimination, he assisted in the rescuing of his achievements from oblivion."

Yeats was an American born in Florida who took his medical degrees in England. This is his most important work.







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REVOLUTION



JOHN MAYOW.

871

OBSERVATIONS
ON THE
CLAIMS OF THE MODERNS,
TO SOME
DISCOVERIES IN CHEMISTRY
AND
PHYSIOLOGY.

BY G. D. YEATS, M. B.

OF HERTFORD COLLEGE, OXFORD, MEMBER OF THE
ROYAL MEDICAL SOCIETY OF EDINBURGH,
AND PHYSICIAN AT BEDFORD.

*De verbis autem cavillisque cum nemine unquam libuit altercari,
quærenti derisori scientia ipsa sese abscondit, sed studioso veritatis
obviam venit et se præbet conspiciendam. WALÆUS.*

Tros Tyriusve mihi nullo discrimine agetur. VIRGIL.

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TO
DR. MAYO, DR. VAUGHN,
AND
DR. P. MAYO,
PHYSICIANS TO THE
MIDDLESEX HOSPITAL,

THE FOLLOWING WORK IS INSCRIBED,

AS A MARK OF ESTEEM,

BY THEIR SINCERE FRIEND,

THE AUTHOR.

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INTRODUCTION

TO

PART THE FIRST

When I became acquainted with the more recent theories in chemistry and physiology, I was taught to believe, that they had been exclusively broached by the philologists of the present day; but having applied myself to the reading of authors of more early date, I was surprised to find, that not only many of the modern theories had been delivered and explained, but also, that a consequent practice had been adopted and followed. The more I examined into their writings, the more was I confirmed in the belief, that the labours of many ingenious men had been unaccountably overlooked, or greatly misrepresented. Chemistry, in particular, which has blazed with such superior lustre from the Continent, forms a distinguished portion of the effects of modern investigation.

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INTRODUCTION

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The discovery and decomposition of the different gases, will give a permanency to that branch of science; and which, with some theories in physiology, very much contribute to revive and confirm the opinions of many eminent men, of the last and present century. This assertion will, no doubt, cause surprize in some; but if they will candidly and impartially examine the subject, they must be convinced of the fact. It is certainly, *primâ facie*, a matter of astonishment, how it happens, that theories and experiments, clearly and fairly explained, should have escaped the observation of medical men, till more recent investigation attracted their attention to the subject. It is difficult to account for the prejudice of the human mind, with its consequent rooted attachment to established systems; but there, certainly, is evident, in the popular mind, a proneness, at particular periods, to the reception of certain systems, in like manner as there exists in the body, a predisposition to disease, at different times. That custom powerfully operates to confirm prejudices, however absurd, and to enslave the mind to theories, however ridiculous, is evident from many distinguished

distinguished æras in the annals of philosophy. When men have spent, probably, a long life in persuading themselves that a particular system is true, they receive, with reluctance, any alterations from the more successful labours of cultivated genius. The reliance upon a certain remedy, because it has sometimes succeeded; the attachment to a particular theory, because they have been taught to believe it; the envy, perhaps, of not being themselves the discoverers; all conspire to raise the spirit of opposition, against the intrusion of philosophical innovation. ‘Multi ob faustos eventus semel aut bis observatos ex aliquo remedio, vel potius ob innatam quendam proclivitatem tum laudendi tum fingendi, ad libitum medicamentorum vires ita erga remedium aliquod efficiunt, ut putent, illud unum ad curandos quosque morbos summam vim ac veluti imperium obtinere*.’

I need scarcely observe, how lamentably often this has happened, and how long it obstructed the progress of medical knowledge. Notwithstanding the discovery of the valves of the veins, by Fabricius,

* Baglivi de Praxi Medica. P. 18.

Fabricius, Cefalpinus, and others, so wedded were medical men to the Galenic doctrine, that they not only had no idea of their use, but laboured to explain them, as subservient to that theory; and the liver still maintained its pre-eminence in the system. Circumstances, like these, seem long to have retarded the knowledge of the circulation, and after our eminent countrymen demonstrated, with the precision of mathematical truth, his brilliant discovery, the partial admiration of Galen produced so violent an opposition, that it prevented the diffusion of the discovery, with that celerity, which its great importance required.

These thoughts naturally pressed themselves upon my mind, when I reflected, with what coolness the beautiful experiments of Mayow were received, upon their publication. Retired from the world, he planned and executed, in the cloisters of a college, experiments the most elegant and decisive, that the greatest genius could contrive. Unassisted by the labours of others, not encouraged by the adoption of his opinions, his aspiring genius soared into the regions [of truth, amid the obstacles of surrounding opposition. Every one

who

who is acquainted with Mayow's writings, and the spirit of his expressions, must acknowledge and regret, that his early death was a great loss to science*. Had he lived, he would, no doubt, have pressed his accumulated truths upon the minds of men, with resistless evidence.

It is an observation, justified by the pages of philosophy, that the adoption of systems, is the result of the preparation of the minds of men, by a continued attention to the phænomena of nature. The labours of an individual, however successful, will not suffice to convince the erroneous, or to reclaim the bigotted. It appears, that a particular stimulus is wanting, to direct, to the particular object, that general attention, which the brilliancy of genius cannot always command. A revolution in science, is always attended with a revolution in terms; and these are often applied, from a particular theory: hence the difficulty, without a painful and laborious attention, of arriving at the spirit in the expression of the discoverers. But when experiments are made, by several philosophers, quickly

* Vide Wood's Athenæ Oxon.

quickly succeeding each other, the mind is prepared, by a *partial* acquaintance with terms; and, therefore, receives, with less reluctance, the full completion of the discoveries. The quick succession of ingenious experiments, from the industry of Hales, of Priestley, and of Black, paved the way, and caused a ready reception, for the beautiful system of Lavoisier; and had not anatomy directed the attention of medical men, to the discovery of the valves of the veins, immediately previous to Harvey, the knowledge of the circulation would, probably have remained, for some future examiner into the operations of the animal œconomy. When it remains for an individual, whose acute observations is not satisfied with the contradictions in an established system, to plan and execute a revolution in science, he may expect a cold reception, and for a time, a rejection of his opinions. When, however, from the evolution of events, and a more minute acquaintance with natural phænomena, the mind is, in some degree, divested of its prejudices, the new system begins to undergo investigation, and if consistent with truth, acquires its votaries from candour and impartiality.

partiality. This seems to have been precisely the case with Mayow. His system suddenly burst upon the literary world, with all that beauty and energy, which adorn the pages of the modern chemist. His terms perplexed, because they were not properly studied, and his doctrines were neglected, because, at that time, severe attention was necessary to understand them.

When a system of science, which future discoveries prove to be false, has been adopted and believed, for ages, we are naturally surprised to find, that errors, so gross, should have been maintained, or that facts, so simple and obvious, should have escaped observation. The unprejudiced mind, engaged in its pursuits, beholds, with a mixture of surprise and curiosity, the discoveries of the ingenious, and contributes its exertions to examine these new opinions. Novelty, indeed, with some, independent of the importance of facts, has a considerable effect in enchanting the mind; and when aided by the charms of eloquence, and enforced by the powers of argument, it enslaves us often to prejudices and contradictions. But when time has wiped away the force
of

of novelty, and the effervescence, caused by the promulgation of the discoveries, has subsided, the mind retires, to examine into their authenticity, and to award its justice. When we find, from enquiry, that the new discoveries have arisen from objects, daily presented to our observation, we are naturally led to examine, how far the ingenious, of past ages, were acquainted with them; and if they possessed the knowledge, what obstacles prevented its completion, or retarded its transmission to posterity. Speculations, like these, prompt us to trace, in authors, the opinions of past ages; and free from the bias of party zeal, we can make a candid enquiry, and give an impartial view of the merits of the discoverers. The simplicity which adorns the late discoveries in chemistry, will naturally suggest such reflections, and will induce us to imagine, that phænomena, so striking and obvious, must have arrested the attention of many ingenious men, who flourished in past ages; accordingly, we find in many, the most pointed remarks, and the clearest expressions, accompanied by proofs, by which we cannot but believe, they understood a considerable part of modern chemistry.

The doctrine of the convertibility of air into other substances, and *vice versâ*, is very antient. Even as far back as the time of Pythagoras, we trace a remarkable co-incident between his doctrine, and that of modern times. It is needless for me to mention, that we have no writings, either of Pythagoras himself, or of any of his immediate scholars: of course, our notion of his philosophy, must be taken from the occasional mention of him and his opinions, in the antient philosophers and poets. The doctrine of this sage, cannot be better explained to the reader, than by quoting the passage, concerning it, from the fifteenth book of Ovid's *Metamorph.*

Hæc quoque *non perstant*, quæ nos *elementa* vocamus.

Quasque vices peragant, animos adhibete, docebo.

Quatuor æternus genitalia corpora mundus

Continet. Ex illis duo sunt onerosa, suoque

Pondere in inferius, tellus atque unda, feruntur;

Et totidem gravitate carent: nulloque premente

Alta petunt, aer atque aere purior ignis.

Quæ quanquam spatio distant, tamen omnia fiunt

Ex ipsis, et in ipsa cadunt: resolutaque tellus

In liquidas rorescit aquas, tenuatus in auras

Aeraque humor abit; dempto quoque pondere rursus

In superos aer tenuissimus emicat ignes.

Inde retro redeunt, idemque retexitur ordo.

Ignis enim densum spissatus in aera transit,

Hic in aquas, tellus glomeratâ cogitur unda.

Nec species sua cuique manet: rerumque novator,

Ex aliis alias reparat natura figuras.

Nec perit in tanto quidquam (mihi credite) mundo,

Sed variat, faciemque novat, nascique vocatur,

Incipere esse aliud, quam quod fuit ante: morique

Definere illud idem. Cum sint huc forsitan illa

Hæc translata illuc; summa tamen omnia constant.

V. 237.

The ingenious Dr. Gregory, who fills, with such distinguished merit, the practical chair at Edinburgh, in answer to a letter which we wrote to him, makes the following observations. ‘ The co-incident between the doctrine in this passage, and some of the most modern chemical discoveries, especially those about air and water, appears to me very striking. I reckon it merely accidental. But alluding to the admiration of the antients, which prevailed for two centuries and more, after the revival of letters, and the eagerness which some learned men shewed, to refer to the antients every modern discovery and improvement, I said, in my lectures,

lectures, 'There was a time when, upon the faith of that coincidence, the credit of our most important modern discoveries in chemistry, would have been transferred from the real author of them to Pythagoras, or perhaps to Hermes.'

The convertibility of different substances into each other, was attended to, we see, by the Pythagorean school. Lucretius, too, has mentioned this doctrine, in his work *De Rerum Natura*; and says, that air is constantly changing into other substances, which are again decomposed into air; and were it not for this continual round, every thing, at last, would remain converted into air.

Aera nunc igitur dicam, qui corpore toto

Innumerabiliter privas mutatur in horas,

Semper enim quodcumque fluit de rebus, id omne

Aeris in magnum fertur mare, qui nisi contra

Corpora retribuat rebus recreetque fluenteis,

Omnia jam resoluta forent et in aera versa,

Haud igitur cessat gigni de rebus, et in res

*Recidere assidue, quoniam fluere omnia constat.**

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* Titi Lucretii Cari, de Rerum Nat. Lib. V. v. 274.

This idea, no doubt, first presented itself to this sect, from observing water to escape in a state of vapour, and from attending to its subsequent condensation. The different fermentations shewed to them, that solid bodies were reducible into fluid masses, and that, during this conversion, a considerable quantity of *vapour* escaped; hence they concluded, and not without reason, that these substances were changed into air. Water, they saw, in a solid, fluid, and vaporific state, according to the degree of heat; but they were not aware of the cause of these different states. It was imagined, then, by the Pythagoreans, to speak in modern language, that all substances were composed of the same elementary principles, in different states of combination. By spontaneous changes, these were resolvable, reciprocally, into each other, according as circumstances varied. A spontaneous decomposition was continually going on, which varied the face of the creation; nature was employed, in one continued circle of operations; and the various objects which presented themselves to their observations, were changed, modified, and renewed; and thus originated

nated the doctrine of the Samian sage. These, were facts acquired from the experience of a long course of years, and, by no means, the result of a particular enquiry. A philosophy like this, too, would have been the first to be adopted, by an attentive observer, as it arose from facts, the most obvious and the most striking; accordingly, we find the principles of it traced to the earliest period.*

With notions like these, it is not difficult to understand the origin of metempsychosis. The Pythagoreans contended, that nothing was perishable: substances, which appeared to be destroyed, by no means suffered a total annihilation; it was only a modification of form. A transition, from the material to the immaterial part of the creation, was easy; the analogy was striking, the conclusion inevitable. This doctrine was regular and systematic, in every branch of it; it comprised a complete and uniform plan of philosophical principles; and as it wore the appearance of truth and simplicity, and was delivered out with the authority of

* It is said, that Pythagoras borrowed the principles of his doctrines from the Gymnosophists, or Indian Brahmins.

age and experience, it required numerous votaries, and enslaved the mind, for many subsequent centuries.

That admirable philosopher, Mr. Boyle, imagined, that water might be converted into air. He relates an experiment, which he says he made, in consequence of effects produced by a machine, which Kircher had invented, and by which he supposed the water was changed into air. He took a glass vessel, capable of containing about three ounces: He filled it with oil of vitriol, diluted with half its quantity of water, and having thrown in some pieces of iron, he inverted it into another vessel, containing the same fluid. Air was soon disengaged, in considerable quantity; and the acid, of course, would be proportionably depressed. This air, he says, very soon filled the inverted glass; and it is worthy of remark, he adds, that when he applied his warm hand to the glass, containing the air, it expanded very rapidly. This experiment, he says, although it does not absolutely prove, that air is produced from water, yet it shews, beyond a doubt, that air may be generated *de novo*. The reader knows, that it was hydrogen which Boyle here

here procured, one of the constituent principles of water. What induced him to add water to the acid, in this experiment? Was he aware, that the oil of vitriol did not act upon iron so rapidly, as when united with water? Certain it is, that the water was added, from Boyle's own words, with a view to decomposition. How beautifully has this truth been confirmed, by the experiments of the Honorable Mr. Cavendish, who first disunited the component parts of water. Little has it been imagined, however, that similar ideas were entertained, previous to the present age. The ingenious Mr. Boyle made many experiments on animals, with his air-pump. It will be proper to say something of them, as they involve many important facts, and as Mayow quotes them in his work. It is well known that the Honorable Mr. Boyle was considered, as one of the first experimentalists of the age in which he lived. He invented a variety of ingenious contrivances, for carrying on his experiments. The most ingenious, as well as the most useful, was the air-pump, which he considerably improved from Otto de Guerick, its celebrated inventor, and which first incontestibly

b 4 proved,

proved, that animals could not live, one moment of time, without the presence of air. He found, that a variety of insects, as flies, bees, worms, &c. were immediately deprived of the power of motion, by exhausting the air-pump, and that mice, sparrows, &c. died, when placed in the same situation. He made the experiments with fish, with the same result; and observed, that they turned upon their backs*. Such remarkable phenomena could not pass without a comment, from so acute a philosopher as Boyle; he subjoins some observations (doubts as he calls them) on respiration, so intimately connected with these experiments. He modestly confesses, that his experiments are not sufficiently numerous or satisfactory, to warrant positive assertions; but they have suggested to me, he says, some new ideas, with respect to the use of air, by which my former distrust of the general received opinion, is much strengthened; I am, therefore, inclined to seize the present opportunity, and relate my doubts.

That

Even after the revolution of more than a century, this opinion continued to prevail; and Dr Priestley endeavoured to confirm it, after his discovery. Vide Vol. III. P. 252.

* This fact is very ingeniously explained by Mayow, as the reader will see, by turning to Sect. XIV. P. 255.

That respiration is not intended to cool and condense the blood, as many philosophers of the first respectability imagine, is evident, from many facts; but particularly from observing, that to animals of cold blood, and old people, whose circulation is languid, and heat deficient, respiration is necessary; also, in some diseases, animal heat is so much exhausted, that were respiration to cool the blood, much injury would be done. There are others, of the first note, who imagine, that the very substance of the air enters the lungs, and passes to the left ventricle, not only to cool the blood, but also to prepare the way for the generation of animal spirits. This opinion he does not admit, although it comes nearest to the truth of any. It is the opinion of others, again, that respiration is intended to pass the blood, from one ventricle to the other, by which it is enabled to discharge much noxious effluvia*, which keeps up the vigour of the circulation, in a similar way, as

* Even after the revolution of more than a century, this opinion continued to prevail; and Dr. Priestley endeavoured to confirm it, after his discoveries Vide Vol. III. P. 55; and Kirwan on Phlogiston.

as a fire egress to the smoke causes a fire to burn well. He agrees, in part, with this opinion; and relates an experiment, in confirmation of it. He confined a bird, under a glass vessel, and it died in about three quarters of an hour; this happens, he says, because the exhalations from the body have so infected the air, as to render it unfit for respiration. This is not to be wondered at, he observes, because the insensible perspiration exceeds the other discharges of the body. Notwithstanding this, it may be reasonably suspected, that the air serves other purposes, besides carrying off effluvia from the lungs; we may therefore conclude that there is some other use of the air, not yet discovered, which makes it so uninterruptedly necessary to the life of animals. Paracelsus, indeed, observes, that as the stomach digests the food, and converts one part to the use of the body, and rejects the other; so the lungs consume one portion of the air, but does not admit the other. It would appear, therefore, that we should agree with this philosopher, that there is a certain vital elixir in the air, necessary for restoring our vital spirits.

I take the present opportunity, says Boyle,
of

of relating the invention of Cornelius Debrell, a man deservedly celebrated, on account of his skill in chemistry and mechanics. It is related by many of the first credit, that he built, for our late King James, a small boat, so constructed, as to be rowed under water, which experiment was made, with wonderful success, in the river Thames. This boat carried twelve rowers, besides passengers, one of whom is living at this day, and related the story to a great mathematician, from whom I got it. I also mention it, since neither curiosity has been wanting on my part, nor have I let slip any opportunity, of making a particular enquiry among the relations of Debrell; but chiefly I enquired of an ingenious physician, who married his daughter, how it could possibly be effected, that men should remain so long under water, with perfect impunity. I was told, that Debrell imagined, that it was not the whole body of air, but a certain quintessence, or spirituous part of it, which served respiration, and which being consumed, the remaining part of the air became effete, or lifeless, so that it was unable to maintain the vital flame, residing in the heart. Therefore (as far as I could procure

procure intelligence) besides the mechanical contrivances of a vessel, he had a certain chemical liquor, which was the great secret in this submarine navigation; for as often as he perceived the purer part of the air was consumed, or too much injured by respiration, and infected with the effluvia of the navigators, he opened the vessel containing this fluid, which suddenly restored to the injured air so much of its vital parts, as enabled it to serve the purposes of respiration, for some time longer. Boyle says, that Debrell never told any, of what this curious liquor was composed. I have related this story, says this ingenious philosopher, not because I think it altogether true, but because it is not mentioned by any author, nor is it generally known. With respect to respiration, I am sometimes inclined to agree with those, who imagine, that the air is necessary to maintain the vital flame in the heart; for in our experiments with the air-pump, when the air is exhausted, flame will not continue much longer than the life of an animal. Although our experiments shew a new similarity between life and combustion, yet this opinion is opposed by many

1

difficulties;

difficulties ; for although in the hearts of animals the blood is warm, it is impossible to conceive, how the air can arrive at the heart, and if it did, by what means it can increase the heat ; for although the air increases the heat of burning coals, yet being blown on warm liquors, it cools them.

Such are the doubts which Boyle has proposed, without determining for any one opinion. How near was he to the truth, when he observed, that there was a similarity between life and combustion. Here experiments were wanting ; and had Boyle varied his, he might have discovered the cause of animal heat. He did nothing more than prove, that animals were killed, and flame extinguished, in an exhausted receiver. This indeed demonstrated, that air was absolutely necessary to animal life and combustion ; but in what way it answered these great purposes, continued as great a mystery as before. It remained, too, to be shewn, that only one part of the air entered the blood, during respiration, and was consumed by combustion. — Here it was that Mayow, who was cotemporary with Boyle, but when Boyle was far advanced in years, commenced our knowledge of pneumatic chemistry.

chemistry. His invention of a pneumatic apparatus, the happy manner in which he executed his experiments, and his application of his discovery of vital air, to explain the wide influence of its effects in respiration and combustion, must give us a high idea of his genius. The works of this ingenious physician, certainly contain a great part of those noble truths, which have given reputation to the names of Priestley, Scheele, Lavoisier, and others. The reader, we trust, will be convinced of this, from perusing this publication, a considerable portion of which is taken up in examining the opinions of Mayow.

We are aware, that the attention of the medical world has been already directed to the works of this author, by two very eminent men, Dr. Scherer and Dr. Beddoes. The analysis of the former is accurate, but deficient, as not containing the best and most noble of Mayow's discoveries: the extracts, too, are published, without pointing out Mayow's opinions, as they quadrate with those of the moderns. Much laudable zeal is, however, displayed by Dr. Scherer, to restore to Mayow his long lost honours; but the analysis is incomplete,
and

and does not impress the mind of the reader with the extent of Mayow's discoveries. We have asserted, as the reader will see in the work, that Mayow was not encouraged, by the adoption of his doctrines, during his own life time. This is contrary to the opinion of Dr. Scherer, who says, the Royal Society of Arts in London, Henry Munday, Physician at Oxford, and some others, received and adopted his doctrine, with pleasure. An account of Mayow's experiments was, indeed, given in the Phil. Tr. previous to their publication; but, says Dr. Beddoes, the fullen reviewer in the Transactions, could never once prevail on himself to smile upon the fair features of this new-born offspring of science. I know not, upon what authority Dr. Scherer attributes the adoption of Mayow's opinions to Munday. I can say, from a perusal of this Author's work, that he does not mention him*. The ingenious Dr. Beddoes was the

* Βιοχημολογια, seu Commentarii, de Aere Vitali de Esculentis, de Potulentis cum Corollario de Parergis in victu; Auct. Hen. Munday, Med. Oxon. 1680. I heard of this work in town. I knew, from consulting Wood's Athenæ,

the first, who held up the merit of Mayow to the literary world. The abstract, however, which he published, was rather hastily done. He wished only to let the world know, that there was such a book in existence, which merited the attention of the literary. His professional, as well as other important avocations, hurried him too much, in detailing the beauties of Mayow; and, indeed, the ingenious Dr. Beddoes, with a candour and liberality peculiar to himself, has written me, that he is sensible his extracts from Mayow have been published in too cursory a manner*.

Notwithstanding the opinions of Mayow did not meet with the immediate reception which a candid examination would have produced, yet he was afterwards taken notice of, by several authors of credit and respectability. Many, however, by not
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that he was cotemporary with Mayow. I, therefore, went immediately to Oxford, to examine the Bodleian Library, with full hopes of finding an adoption and explanation of Mayow's opinions. I was, however, miserably disappointed, not only in this, but in not discovering any thing worth attending to. Appendix No. VI.

* Appendix No. I. and III.

understanding him, rejected his opinions; and others attributed to him doctrines, which he never held. Jocher, in his Lexicon, says, that Mayow's opinions did not meet with approbation; Dr. Beddoes imagines, that he asserts this upon the authority of Morhof. In the Polyhistor. no notice is taken, of what reception the nitro-aerial doctrine met with, in Mayow's own time: but he is repeatedly quoted by Morhof, on different subjects, and his opinions adopted*.

It is not necessary to say much about the nature of the following work; the table of contents sufficiently shew that†. It was undertaken with a view of examining, how far the recent publications on chemistry and physiology, are entitled to the claims of novelty. I have long accustomed
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* Dr. Beddoes says that he wished to see Morhof's account of Mayow, but unfortunately the Polyhistor had no index. The edition in his possession must be very imperfect, for the one I was fortunate enough to procure in London has a very copious one.

† It was originally the intention of the author, to have given a large and full table of contents; but he found, that it would unnecessarily increase the size of the work.

myself to, and been peculiarly delighted with, reading the works of the last century; an age distinguished for the production of many learned men, in every department of science. I have often stole an hour from my more immediate professional engagements, that I might dedicate it to this sort of reading. Little did I imagine, at first, that such employment would be the subject of publication; and as little did I conceive, that I should trace out facts, supposed to be but very recently discovered. I could not be surprised, too, when I observed theories, founded upon these facts, very similar to those we now entertain. I mentioned them, during conversation, in the philosophical circles which I had the pleasure to attend, during my residence in London. Some believed, more disbelieved, and many supposed, that from the glow of conversation, exaggeration might creep in. Having collected a sufficient number of facts, to justify my observations, I imagined they would afford an hour of entertainment to the curious reader.

It is a source, too, of rational and agreeable amusement to the cultivated mind, to examine the
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similarity of opinions, in distant periods, and to trace the progress of science. It is curious to observe the co-incidence, that sometimes take place, between the philosophical systems of great men. As researches into nature ever afford a pleasing employment to rational minds, and as her operations are all directed by fixed and immutable laws, it is not inconsistent to expect, that even in periods the most distant from each other, the philosophical pursuits of the literary will converge to the same point. The same observations, with respect to facts, have, no doubt, repeatedly occurred to every enquirer; and results, which arise from the consideration of general principles, have presented themselves, in a similar point of view, to the examination of philosophers. But it is not a loose hint thrown out, nor a system founded upon conjectural philosophy, that entitles a man to the merit of a discoverer. An arrangement of facts, the result of experimental enquiry and close reasoning, alone, claims that honourable appellation. Laborious, indeed, is the investigation, which requires it, and tedious the course. How carefully, therefore, ought we to avoid wresting from the

brow of a discoverer, the dear-bought crown of literary fame. It affords a grateful pleasure to a feeling mind, to observe each man, possessing the rewards due to his labours, and however difficult it is, perhaps impossible, to award the *suum cuique*; yet investigation, under almost every circumstance, contributes to that end, and promotes the dispensation of distributive justice.

OBSERVATIONS, &c.

PART THE FIRST.

SECT. I.

OF FIRE-AIR PARTICLES.

I SHALL now enter into the principal object of this Publication, which is to shew, that what many of the moderns have given out to the world as their own, may be clearly traced in earlier authors. I shall begin with Mayow, the great chemical luminary of the last century, whose works every where abound with the most obvious traces of genius and ability. His publication commences with the history of nitre. He was aware, he says, that many authors had written upon this subject, as if it had been ordained, that nitre should make as much noise in philosophy as in war; but the truth, observes Mayow, seems still obscured, notwith-

standing the multitude of writers; and the properties of nitre are still concealed from our knowledge.* When the wonderful phenomena produced by the combustion of gun-powder became more generally known, they would certainly arrest the attention of the philosopher; and it is probable, the chemist would more particularly direct his enquiry to the properties of nitre; but nothing satisfactory could be known on this subject till its elementary composition was detected.† On this subject, therefore,
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* In the year 1670, four years before Mayow published the Collection of his Tracts, a Sir William Clarke, Physician to the King, published a book on Nitre, entitled, A Natural History of Nitre, or a Philosophical Discourse on the Nature, Production, Situation, Artificial Extraction, Virtues, and Use of Nitre. Morhof says, it is a trifling work, *verum parum præstitit pro dignitate hujus subjecti; nam in naturâ ejus indagandâ exilis admodum ipsius opera est.* The great Lord Verulam had directed the attention of the physician to nitre, by maintaining, in his *Historia Vitæ et Mortis*, that its daily use would prolong life.

† The discovery of gunpowder is commonly attributed to Barth. Schwartz, a German Jesuit; but it is clear, that Roger Bacon, who lived some ages before, was the original discoverer.

did our ingenious author employ his time; and upon the result of his beautiful experiments with nitre, were all his discoveries founded. The happy manner in which he conceived all his experiments, and the neatness and accuracy with which he seems to have executed them, could not fail of producing the most unequivocal results. It is evident, he says, from analysis and synthesis, that nitre is composed of an alkaline salt and an acid, the former derived from the earth, the latter, in part, from the atmosphere: for if we distil nitre, the acid spirit will come over into the receiver, the alkali remaining in the retort; and by adding nitrous acid to an alkali, nitre will be formed. Mayow did not rest satisfied with this rough mode of explanation; he was determined to discover the component parts of each, and examine what gave activity to the nitrous acid. This quality, he proves, is derived from the atmosphere, and is the common principle

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discoverer. It is a curious circumstance, that both Morhof and Boerhaave give to Bacon the honour of the discovery, whereas Cambden attributes it to the Jesuit. Vide Boerhaave's Chemistry, Shaw's Edit. p. 130.—Morhof's Polyhist. p. 422.

of acidity, and procured from the same source. In order that his ideas on this subject may be more clearly understood, he explains his theory of combustion, in which the reader will find a beautiful doctrine, and perfectly analogous to that of the modern discoverers. (A) In the first place, I think it will be granted, that an aerial something, whatever it may be, is absolutely necessary to the production of flame. The experiments of Boyle place this beyond a doubt;* for it appears from these, that a lighted candle is much sooner extinguished *in vacuo*, than when confined under a glass filled with air: an evident proof that the flame is not choaked, as some imagine, by the smoke, but goes out for the want of an aerial supply. He adds, (B) Besides, any combustible body placed *in vacuo*, cannot be inflamed by burning coals, ignited iron, nor by the sun's rays collected in the focus of a lens; so that we must allow, that certain aerial particles are necessary to the production of fire. Having premised this, he

* These experiments are related by Boyle, in his *Nova Experimenta Physico Mechanica, de vi aeris elastica, et ejusdem effectibus.*

he goes on to observe, (C) But we are by no means to imagine, that the igneo-aerial supply is the whole air employed, but its more active and subtle part; for a candle under a glass will cease to burn, although a considerable quantity of air remain. Having made these observations, which not only the experiments of Boyle, but also more recent investigations have shewn to be perfectly agreeable to truth, he proves, by an experiment the most decisive and convincing, that the active and igneous part of the air exists in nitre; (D) For we must observe, that nitre mixed up with sulphur, will burn perfectly well, either *in vacuo* or under water, as is evident from the following experiment.

Let well levigated gun-powder be reduced into a pretty firm mass, with a little water; with this fill a tube, the one end of which must be closed, ramming it tight with a piston; then set the powder on fire at the open extremity of the tube; then invert it, and plunge it into water; in this situation the powder will completely burn away. The same powder, thus managed, burns equally well *in vacuo*, when all other burning bodies are extinguished, for the want of the aerial supply; a clear proof

that nitre contains the igneo-aerial particles, so necessary to combustion; hence there was no occasion to supply them from the atmosphere.*

That the phenomena of combustion are produced by the fire-air particles present in nitre, and not from any sulphureous (phlogistic) matter, is proved by a variety of means. It is evident, that fire-air particles exist in nitre from its deflagration, when these particles are rapidly thrown off; for I cannot agree with Willis, that any sulphureous matter exists in nitre.† For although the
fire.

* Vide Mem. de Mathematique, &c. XVI. 686—1786. 4to. for an experiment of Lavoisier's, very similar to this. Bernoulli, in the last century, ascertained the development of air by the deflagration of gun-powder. He placed *four* grains of powder in a recurved tube of glass, plunged the tube in water, and set fire to the powder by means of a burning glass; after the combustion, the interior air occupied a larger space, so that the space abandoned by the water, was such as would have contained *two hundred grain* of gun-powder.—Hist. de l'Academie des Sciences de Paris, 1696, tome ii.—Memoire de M. Varignon sur le Feu & la Flamme.

† Quod sulphur copiosè insit nitro, præter deflagrationem ejus, satis testatur ipsius genesis; nascitur enim præ-

fire-air particles are absolutely necessary to combustion, yet of themselves they are not capable of inflammation, unless some combustible substance be added. (E) To the inflammation of any combustible matter, it is necessary that fire-air particles should be supplied from the atmosphere, or from nitre mixed with it; hence the reason why sulphur will not burn *in vacuo* without nitre. On the contrary, there is no necessity that fire-air should be supplied from the air for the combustion of nitre, as it will deflagrate sufficiently well *in vacuo*; but for its inflammation, it is absolutely necessary that some combustible body be mixed with it. If nitre too be thrown into an ignited crucible, it will not inflame; nor will this effect be produced by the flame of a candle, or rays of the sun, except some combustible body be mixed with it, a clear proof that nitre contains no sulphureous matter whatever: and hence it follows, that flame produced by combustion with nitre, arises from its fire-

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air

cipue in locis ubi scatent animalium excrementa sulphurea.—

De Ferment. p. 77.

air particles. (F) This is the reason why the flame of nitre differs so greatly from that which is excited in any burning body; for the combustible body burns in consequence of the fire-air particles derived from the atmosphere, but nitre inflames on account of the fire-air particles thickly condensed in itself: hence it happens, that the flame of nitre is so very violent.

Having thus taken notice that combustible matter will not burn *in vacuo*, except nitre be present, and that flame is extinguished under a glass, although a considerable quantity of air remain, he denominates that part of the atmosphere which supports combustion, Fire-air Particles*. Since also

these

* The coincidence between this term of Mayow, and that of the Swedish Chymist, is very remarkable. Mr. Scheele having collected some air from nitre, mixed it with three parts of air, in which fire would not burn, and it afforded an air similar to the common sort. He observes, ' Since this
' air is absolutely necessary for the generation of fire, and
' makes one-third of our common air, I shall henceforth
' call it, for shortness sake, Fire-air.'—Experiments on Air and Fire, p. 35. There is no foundation, says Dr. Beddoes, for the vague poetical term *empyrean*, the compound word

fire-air particles exist in nitre, in common with the atmosphere, he calls them also by the compound appellation of Nitro-aerial Particles, and Nitro-aerial Spirit.* He maintains, that the nitrous acid is a compound containing fire-air particles; but notwithstanding this, it will not produce inflammation, because these particles are surrounded with moisture. Had he not been hurried on by an ardour of mind, conscious of the truth of his doctrines, he might have been led to the striking experiment of mixing nitrous acid with oil; for he himself afterwards shews, that oils, fat, &c. are principally composed of combustible matter. Mayow attributes heat too to the motion of fire-air particles. The doctrine that motion is the cause of heat must have been the first that presented itself to those who considered the subject. The common experiment of friction, the motion

feuer-luft signifying precisely fire-air.—Letter to Dr. Goodwin, p. 28.

* We see here Mayow forming a nomenclature for himself, the just result of his experiments, and which presented itself to him from the new facts which occurred in the prosecution of his subject.

tion and extrication of heat, which took place in the union of different salts, &c. naturally produced this idea in the mind. The genius of Black had not yet explained the doctrine of latent heat, and Mayow was not aware of *that* which caused the solid and aeriform state of bodies. This was, therefore, the most obvious theory that could occur to him, when he observed motion in all his experiments in which caloric was disengaged: hence he adds, the reason why combustible bodies are as necessary to produce the phænomena of combustion is, because they are fitted to stir up a very rapid and igneous motion with the nitro-aerial particles. We should say, in modern times, that the oxygen, under a certain temperature, acquires a greater affinity for the elementary principles of the combustible body; hence it gives out heat and light. Mayow therefore attributed the phænomena of combustion to the motion, the moderns to the condensation of fire-air. He explains himself more clearly afterwards. Having mentioned these properties of his nitro-aerial particles, he further examines into combustion and heat, as arising from them. He observes, (G) If we seriously attend

to the nature of flame, and carefully examine what change the igneous particles are undergoing, while they are in a state of inflammation, we shall conclude, that the inflammation of the igneous particles is produced in no other way, than by their very rapid motion. To prove that the combustible, and not the nitro-aerial particles are ignited, and also that both are necessary to the production of flame, he adduces another experiment. (H) If nitre be thrown into an ignited crucible, it will presently be melted, but will not take fire; but if oil be injected into this crucible it will immediately inflame. That the igneous particles, collected in the ignited crucible, are of a nitro-saline nature (i. e. contain nitro-aerial particles) is evident, because any combustible matter injected into this ignited crucible, immediately bursts into a flame; but combustible particles are by no means thrown into that rapid and igneous motion, except through the medium of nitro-aerial particles. Here it may be observed, our ingenious author makes no distinction between heat and fire-air. He saw the crucible ignited; ignition he maintained was owing to the motion of fire-air; any combustible

combustible substance, therefore, thrown into the crucible, would inflame, in consequence of motion being communicated to it by this air.* Besides, he observes, that particles of a combustible nature, are too gross to penetrate solid bodies, as iron, glass, &c. for if a polished plate of metal be held for a while in the flame of a candle, it will be penetrated and heated by the igneous particles; but that these are fire-air, and not combustible particles, is evident, because the latter adhere to the surface of the metal, in the form of soot, and by no means enter it. In order to form the subtile and penetrating nature of his fire-air particles, he mentions a very remarkable fact, and

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* Dr. Pearson, the ingenious lecturer in chemistry, thinks that the blue appearance at the bottom of the flame of a candle, is owing to the combustion of hydrogen and carbon. Mayow thinks, that the blue flame, which is observed during the combustion of sulphur, is owing to the less rapid motion of fire-air particles. In burning phosphorus under a bell-glass, I have frequently observed, that at first, when the combustion is *very rapid*, the flame is *yellow*, but as soon as the inflammation begins to decrease in violence, the oxygen being *more slowly* applied, the flame becomes blue.

till of late not at all understood. Having observed that antimony is calcined in the focus of a burning glass, as if nitrous acid had been poured upon it, or as if it had been exposed to the flame of nitre, for in this the fire-air particles are thickly condensed, he emphatically adds, ⁽¹⁾I must by no means omit to observe, that antimony calcined in the focus of a lens, is not a little increased in weight, as is known from experiment; nor can we conceive whence that increase of weight is derived, except from the *fixation of fire-air particles*, during the calcination. In all these processes too, it acquires equally a diaphoretic quality. Here is an observation, that medicines act as explained by the modern physiologist, and we know it to be conformable to truth.

Dr. Thornton has informed me, that the breathing of oxygen, produces an increased exhalation from the skin; and indeed that gentleman, with a liberality which should every where be inseparable from the Medical Profession, has permitted me to be present when he receives his patients, and to ask questions, with respect to the operation of pneumatic remedies.—From every enquiry I have
made,

made, I have found, that an atmosphere of a higher than ordinary standard promotes the cuticular discharge. The additional weight acquired during oxydation, is, by Mayow, attributed to the right cause. How has this excellent observation been thrown away upon the Stahlans? How has not philosophy been tortured to explain the contradiction of increased weight with disengaged phlogiston? How have they not been obliged to recur to the imaginary cause of repulsive power and principle of liberty, by neglecting the obvious and simple explanation of Mayow? They ought to have recollected, too, the rules of the great Lord Verulam, the first who rejected hypotheses not founded on direct experiment, that to reason from occult causes, is an inexhaustible source of error. From what has been here delivered, it is evident that Mayow met with oxygen, which he never, however, collected in a separate state, and from the manner of his expressions, we can have no doubt that he discovered that active principle, which he has so admirably employed in the explanation of his experiments. If the reader, however, should be inclined to
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with-hold his assent, we think he will be convinced from what will be afterwards detailed ; but before we proceed any further, it will be necessary to explain, what Mayow means by his Salino-fulphurous particles, which are hereafter so often mentioned.

S E C T. II.

OF SALINO-SULPHUREOUS PARTICLES.

From experiments made by different chemists, it appears, that oils, fats, and the food we eat, are composed principally of hydrogen, azot, and carbon. When hydrogen and carbon are combined together, without the intervention of caloric, to bring the hydrogen into the state of gas, they form oil, which is either fixed or volatile, according to the proportions of hydrogen and carbon in its composition. By means of calculation applied to the products of experiments, we find, that fixed air is composed of twenty-one parts, by weight, of hydrogen, combined with seventy-nine parts of carbon. Animal substances, being composed of nearly the same elements with cruciferous plants, give almost the same products in distillation; with this difference, that, as they contain a greater quantity of hydrogen and azot,

they produce more oil and more ammoniac*. It is from these elements of hydrogen, azot, and carbon, by different combinations, that various substances, apparently very dissimilar, are formed. It is by these that the animated creation has its life and being. From these we derive our daily nourishment, and by their union with oxygen, taken in by the lungs, animal heat is disengaged, the chief stimulus to the irritability of the animated fibre. Again it is by the union of these with oxygen, that combustion is supported. We shall see something very like this in Mayow. By the by, I must observe, that he uses sulphureous and falino-sulphureous, indiscriminately, to express the same thing. The word sulphur was one of the most vague terms made use of by the older chemists. It was applied to the inflammable principle of bodies, and all substances capable of inflammation, were said to be sulphureous; hence oils, resins, animal fat, &c. were by some called sulphurs. Sulphur, however, properly so called,

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was

* Elements of Chemistry by Mr. Lavoisier, p. 165-7-82.
3d Edit. by Kerr.

was supposed to be a compound, consisting of concentrated oil of vitriol and phlogiston* ; and sulphur, being a very inflammable substance, the terms phlogistic and sulphureous became synonymous. Whenever, therefore, Mayow uses the terms sulphur, sulphureous, and salino-sulphureous particles, he means simply combustible matter, capable of producing flame, by a rapid motion with fire-air. We wish the reader to recollect this, whenever he meets with these terms. He says that the fat of animals is formed of these sulphureous particles ; we may learn, from a variety of expressions, that this was his opinion, such as the sulphureous particles of the blood, of which the fat is composed, sulphureous particles producing fat, &c. (K) Our food, he maintains, is principally composed of such matter ; moreover our nourishment is replete with salino-sulphureous particles : hence those substances which copiously contain a volatile salt and sulphur, are best adapted

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* Vide Neumann's Chemical Works, p. 165;—and Lewis's Mat. Med. p. 559.

to recruit the strength worn out by daily labour*. The following passage from Mr. Hewson, shews how accurately Mayow had attended to the animal œconomy; speaking of the absorption of fat for nourishment, he adds, ‘This circumstance was clearly proved by my valuable and ingenious friend, the late Dr. Stark, who, in a course of curious experiments made by weighing himself, after living for some time on different sorts of food, discovered that a less quantity of fuet was sufficient to make up for the waste of his body, than of any other sort of ordinary food; and that when compared with lean part of meat, its nutritive power was, at least, as three to one’†. If any one

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should

* We know, says Mr. Lavoisier, that animal substances are composed of hydrogen, carbon, azot, phosphorus, and *sulphur*, all of which, in a state of quintuple combination, are brought to a state of oxyd, by a larger or smaller quantity of oxygen.—Elem. of Chem. p. 202.

† Experimental Enquiry into the Properties of the Blood, p. 127-8. The ingenious Dr. Stark, at an early age, fell a victim to his zeal for experimental enquiry, his death having been occasioned by a course of experiments (made upon himself) on the effects of various kinds of food. Vide Med. Communications, Vol. I. art. 24.

should still doubt that these expressions, made use of by Mayow, were merely vague and loose terms, thrown out without an express intention, the following passage, in which he mentions, still further, what substances contain the salino-sulphureous particles, must convince, that he attached a precise idea to these terms ; for he observes, that *spirit of wine*, and the chemical *oil* of vegetables, are fluids replete with a volatile sulphur. It was thought necessary to premise these observations, that the reader might not imagine, the expressions of Mayow were tortured to a different meaning, when it is said, that his salino-sulphureous particles are what we now find to be the composition of different substances, and to which the French chemists have given the appellation of hydrogen, azot, and carbon. We do not mean to say, that Mayow *exactly* meant this ; or that he maintained his sulphureous substances were composed of different elementary principles ; but when he mentions the substances, containing the salino-sulphureous particles, the component parts of which are now known to be hydrogen, azot, and carbon, we may fairly conclude that the chemical agency which

which Mayow ascribes to the former, is analogous to that of the latter; and that certain principles, acting in these substances, produced chemical effects, during their operation, similar to those now attributed to the elements of the more combustible bodies. All sebaceous substances, indeed, were, by Stahl and his followers, termed phlogistic, as containing the principle of inflammability, which continued in use, till the late happy revolution in chemistry, by detecting the ambiguity of such expressions, has given to substances appropriate names.

S E C T. III.

O F A C I D S.

On the constitution of the acids, the ingenious Mayow is no less curious; and we discover a striking analogy between his facts and reasonings, and those of the modern chemists, on this subject. The reader will, probably, be surpris'd to find the following account of the formation of the acids, in so old a writer; for it is exactly similar to the explanation which the new discoveries have given rise to. He has already, as we have seen, described, that active principle in the atmosphere, which forms a part of the nitrous acid; he now wishes to account for its constituents: but before he does this, it is necessary to lay down a general theory of the acids, for, as he observes, there is a great similarity among all of them. He rejects the opinion hitherto entertained, that an acid exists, ready formed, in sulphur, because in its union with alkalis, no effervescence

vescence takes place, and we cannot detect it by any chemical means. The sulphuric acid, he says, is formed by the union of fire-air particles with the sulphur, during combustion. He supposed sulphur to contain particles of an alkaline nature, and the following idea which he gives, of the manner in which the fire-air particles unite with the sulphur, in no wise effects the truth of his theory, as it is a mode of expression which he borrowed from the language of the times. (L) During the burning of sulphur (*i. e.* whilst the sulphureous particles and fire-air are hurried into a motion constituting fire) the saline particles, adhering to the sulphureous, are broken down, and comminuted by the repeated strokes of the fire-air, so that these saline particles being frequently bruised and broken down, are so attenuated, that instead of being firm and solid, they become flexile and fluid. Moreover the saline particles of the sulphur, which were before of a fixed nature, after they become sharpened and reduced to fluidity, are converted into a sharp and sour liquor, and form, as is very probable, the common spirit of

fulphur*. The acids of woods are formed in the same way, as are also the acids of sugar and honey†. His explanation of the formation of vitriol from martial pyrites (sulphuret of iron), shews how justly he conceived this subject. (M) For indeed the nitro-aerial spirit, effervescing with the metallic sulphur of the marchasites, converts their more fixed part into an acid, which immediately attacks and calls forth the metallic particles of the mineral, and unites with them into a vitriol. Moreover the rust of iron, which possesses the nature of vitriol, appears to be produced by the
nitro-

* This mechanical explanation has not lost its effects in our days. Mr. Lavoisier, when treating on the formation of gas, observes, 'It is perhaps more natural to suppose, that the particles of caloric have a stronger mutual attraction, than those of any other substance; and that these latter particles are *torn asunder*, in consequence of this superior attraction of the particles of caloric, which *forces* them between the particles of other bodies, that they may be able to reunite with each other.'—Elements of Chemistry, p. 72.

† The acid of wood is now termed pyro-lignous; Mr. Gostling was the first who made a particular enquiry into its nature and properties.—Vide Crell's Chemical Journal for 1779.

nitro-aerial particles, attaching to the metallic sulphur of the iron. In this way, he observes, rust, or an imperfect vitriol, is produced, in the same manner as if an acid had been thrown upon the iron. Has he not here anticipated the modern chemists, in their ideas of an oxyde? The same principle which constitutes acidity, thus unites with metals, to form rust; for we must observe, he adds, that not only in solids, but also in fluids, an acid salt, or sharpness, is produced, by the action of the nitro-aerial spirit. Of this he gives an example in the souring of wines, which owe their acidity to the union of nitro-aerial particles. (N) On this account, wines or ales, exposed to the rays of the sun, or kept warm, in process of time are converted into vinegar; for the nitro-aerial particles being communicated to those liquors, either from the solar rays, or the heat, (he imagined heat was owing to the rapid motion of nitro-aerial particles, and that they formed a part of the sun's rays), effervesce with their saline-sulphureous particles; whence it happens, that these saline particles are acidified, by the action of the nitro-aerial particles.

particles and converted into acid salt*. Notwithstanding, however, that there is a great similitude between the acids, in consequence of fire-air being the general principle of acidity in all, yet there is a difference observable in them. This is owing to the nature of the acidifiable base, and the degree of oxygenation of which it is capable†. Sugar, mucus, under which term are included the different kinds of gums and starch, are vegetable oxydes, having different proportions of hydrogen and carbon, as their radicals or bases. By the addition
of

* According to the new chemical doctrine, the acetous fermentation, or oxygenation of vegetable matters, takes place, in consequence of the increased temperature altering the state of affinity; for the chemical attraction which exists between oxygen, and various substances, is varied, in proportion to the degree of temperature. Although Mayow, however, here mentions heat, as necessary to the acetous fermentation, he does not seem to be aware, that the increased temperature produced a change in the state of chemical affinity.

† Thus the base may be double or triple, very rarely single. The base may be composed of carbon and hydrogen, or of carbon, hydrogen, and phosphorus, combined with some oxygen.

of a certain quantity of oxygen, they become acids ; and according to the degrees of oxygenation, and the proportion of hydrogen and carbon in their bases, they form the several kinds of vegetable acids*. (O) As to the difference of acid liquors, observes Mayow, we must conclude, that it is produced by the diversity of the salts (base) of which they are composed, *viz.* that the fixed salts are sometimes more, sometimes less broken down and acidified by the nitro-aerial spirit. There is, nevertheless, a great similitude between each of the acids ; and the nitro-aerial and fire-air particles are contained in *all* of them, as in a proper subject.

Such is the consistent and beautiful manner, in which this great genius applied his discovery of fire-air, to explain the formation of the acids. From his experiments and acute observation, he beheld the necessity of a principle to give activity to the acids, and without which there could be no acidity. It occurred to him too, that this principle must be united to some base, before acidity could

* Lavoisier's Elements of Chemistry, p. 172.

could be formed. Mayow never rested with a simple fact: it was his ruling passion, to explain and come at the elementary principles of every thing. He might have been content with saying, that nitre was formed of an acid and an alkali:—this did not satisfy him, he must give the constituent principles of nitre. We know that nitre is formed of three substances, *viz.* fixed alkali*, azot, and oxygen. Mayow saw from his experiments, that there must be a triple combination in the formation of nitre. This salt, he says, is composed of three principles, *viz.* 1st, of an active part, derived from
the

* The fixed alkalis have never yet been decomposed; and we are still ignorant, whether they be simple or compound bodies. The constituent parts, however, of the volatile alkali, or ammoniac, have been discovered by Mr. Berthollet, to be azot and hydrogen.—Vide Memoirs of the Academy, for 1784, p. 316. Analogy has led Mr. Lavoisier to imagine, that all the alkalis are compound bodies, and that azot is one of their elementary principles; but from some experiments related in the Transactions of the Turin Academy, there is reason for supposing, that soda is a modification of magnesia, and this latter substance, according to the experiments of Baron Born, appears to be a metallic oxyd.

the atmosphere ; *2d*, this uniting to the saline vehicle, constitutes the nitrous acid ; which, *3d*, attaching the fixed salts of the earth, forms nitre.

The principle, which thus constitutes the most active part of the atmosphere, gives acidity to substances, and is the support of life and flame, is also the chief agent in fermentation. (P) The expressed juice of vegetables, as the must of wine and cyder, &c. effervesce, by the nitro-aerial and salino-sulphureous particles inherent in them ; or the nitro-aerial particles may be supplied, *ab extra*. He thinks it very probable, that the putrefaction, as well as the acetous fermentation, is produced by the nitro-aerial particles : (Q) Hence those things which exclude the nitro-aerial particles, preserve bodies from corruption ; and this is the reason, why the fruits of vegetables, as also flesh covered with butter, are long kept from putrefaction, and also iron, besmeared with oil, is not corroded by rust.

We know, from the experiments of Pringle and Macbride, that carbonic acid is highly antiseptic, and that various other substances possess this quality ; and some curious experiments, made by

Dr.

Dr. Alexander, prove, that meat, exposed to the exhalations of a common privy, is prevented from undergoing the putrefactive process for a long time, which, as he maintains, was certainly owing to the disengaged ammoniac. How far these substances act by excluding the fire-air particles, or oxygen, remains for future investigation. One experiment, however, which we made, proves, that if oxygen does not accelerate, at least it does not retard putrefaction. I took three pieces of raw beef, of nearly the same size. One was confined with oxygen, the second with hydrogen, and the third remained exposed to the atmospheric air, for a standard. After remaining for five days, the pieces of meat were taken out, extremely foetid. The one in oxygen felt firm, and was of a bright red colour throughout; the other was very lax and dark-coloured, particularly at its upper surface, where it had been in contact with the hydrogen, the under part being somewhat redder. The standard piece was not putrid; it had become perfectly dry: whereas those in the glass were kept moist, by the confined evaporation from the water; this no doubt produced its effect. The

experiment

experiment was performed in the month of April, 1796; the thermometer in the room varied from 40 to 48. We have not had sufficient time to continue experiments of this kind; but we are just about commencing experiments, to discover, how far the different gases accelerate or retard the vinous, acetous, and putrefactive fermentations.

(A) Primo, concedendum esse arbitror, non-nihil, quicquid fit, aereum, ad flammam quamcunque conflandam necessarium esse; id quod experimenta Boyliana, extra dubium, posuerunt; utpote, ex quibus constat, lucernam accensam multo citius in vitro aere vacuo, quam in eodem aere repleto expirare; indicio manifesto, flammam vitro inclusam, non tam a proprio fuligine, uti nonnullis visum est, suffocatam, quam pabulo aereo destitutam interire*. P. 11.

(B) Præterea, materia quævis sulphurea in vitro, ex quo aer exhaustus est, collocata neque
carbone,

* Tractatus Quinque Medico-Physici, studio Joh: Mayow, LL. D. et Medici, necnon, Coll. Omn. Anim. in Univ. Oxon. Socii.—An. Dom. 1674.

carbone, aut ferro ignitis, neque radiis solaribus, speculi ustorii ope collectis, accendi potest; ut minime jam dubitandum sit, quin particulæ quædam aeræ, ad ignem excitandum omnino requiruntur. P. 12.

(C) At non est existimandum, pabulum igneo-aereum ipsum aerem esse, sed tantum partem ejus magis activam subtilemque; quippe lucerna, vitro inclusa, expirat, cum tamen copia aeris, satis ampla, in eodem continetur. P. 12.

(D) Quippe annotare est, nitrum sulphuri admixtum, in vitro aere vacuo, item subter aquas, satis prompte deflagrare; uti sequenti experimento constabit.—Nempe pulvis pyrius, minutissime tritus cum aquæ tantillo, in massam duriusculam redigatur, quâ tubulus quivis, cujus altera extremitas obturata est, dense impleatur, materiam subinde cum bacillo fortiter impellendo; dein pulvis iste pyrius in extremitate tubuli apertâ accendatur, tubulusque inversus aquæ immergatur, ibidemque detineatur; ita pulvis pyrius, ad totalem sui absorptionem, subter aquas deflagrabit. Quinetiam pulvis iste, modo prædicto dispositus, in vitro aere vacuo, ardebit, cum tamen ignes alii
ob

ob pabulum aeris subductum mox extinguuntur: indicio fati manifesto, sal nitrum particulas igneo-aereas, ad flammam conflandam requisitas, in se continere; ita ut ad ejus deflagrationem, particulas igneas ab aere suppeditari, minime opus sit. P. 13.

(E) Ad materiæ cujusque sulphuræ accensionem, requiritur, ut particulæ igneo-aeræ ab aere, aut a nitro, ei prius admixto, suppeditentur: quæ causa est, quod sulphur, in loco aere vacuo, flammam non concipiet, nisi nitrum ei admixtum fuerit. E contra, vero, ad nitri accensionem non est opus, ut particulæ igneo-aeræ ab extra suggerantur, utpote quod in locis, a quibus aer præcluditur, fati prompte deflagrabit; verum, ad ejus accensionem, omnino requiritur, ut materia aliqua sulphurea ei admisceatur. P. 15.

(F) Et hinc est, quod flamma nitri valde diversa fit ab ea, que a materia quavis sulphurea deflagrante, excitatur; quippe materia sulphurea particulis igneo-aereis ab aere suggestis, nitrum autem particulis igneo-aereis, in ipso confertim agglomeratis, agmineque densissimo erumpentibus deflagrat; unde fit, quod flamma nitri maxime impetuosa fit. P. 16.

(G) Si ad flammæ naturam ferio attendamus, et nobiscum cogitemus, qualem demum mutationem particulæ igneæ subeunt, dum eodem accenduntur, nihil aliud certe concipere possumus, quam particularum ignearum accensionem, in motu earum perniciosissimo, consistere. P. 25.

(H) Si nitrum in crucibulum ignitum immitatur, idem mox liquabitur, non vero flammam concipiet; cum tamen oleum crucibulo dicto injectum, statim accendetur. Quod vero particulæ igneæ, in crucibulo ignito agglomeratæ, indolis nitro-salinæ sint, indicio est, quod materia quævis sulphurea, crucibulo dicto injecta, a particulis iisdem accenditur; particulæ autem sulphuræ non, nisi particularum nitro-aerearum ope, in motum velocissimum igneumque, suscitantur. P. 26.

(I) Neque illud prætereundum est, quod antimonium, radiis solaribus calcinatum, haud parum in pondere augetur; uti experientiâ compertum est; quippe vix concipi potest unde augmentum illud antimonii, nisi a particulis nitro-aereis igneisque ei, inter calcinandum infixis, procedat. P. 28.—9.

(K) Sed insuper alimentum particulis salino-sulphureis

phureis refertum; hinc ea, quæ fale volatili sulphure que copioso constant, vires laboribus diurnis attritas reficiendo, præcipue idonea sunt. P. 30.

(L) In sulphuris deflagratione (dum, viz. particulæ ejus sulphuræ et nitro-aeræ mutuo se motu igneo exagitant) particulæ sulphuris salinæ, particulis ejus sulphureis adhærentes, crebris particularum nitro-aerearum ictibus, verberantur, atteruntur, comminuunturque; ita ut particulæ eæ salinæ, sæpius attritæ et contusæ, tandem instar gladiolorum exacuantur, et insuper adeo attenuentur, ut eadem a rigidis solidisque, in flexiles fluidasque convertantur. Particulæ, vero, sulphuris salinæ, quæ antea indolis fixæ fuerant, postquam ita exacuantur, et ad fluorem perducuntur, in liquorem aereum acidumque convertuntur, spiritumque sulphuris vulgarem, uti verisimile est, constituunt. P. 34.

(M) Nimirum spiritus nitro-aereus, cum sulphure metallico marchasitarum istarum effervescent, partem earum fixiorem in liquorem acidum convertit, qui mox, ab ortu suo, particulas metallicas lapidis dicti adoritur evocatque, tandem-

que cum iisdem in vitriolum coalescit. P. 39—
40.

(N) Huc etiam spectat, quod vina aut cere-
visia generosior, radiis solaribus diù exposita,
aut in loco calido detenta, processu temporis in
acetum commigrant: nempe particulæ nitro-aeræ,
a radiis solaribus, aut ab igne, liquoribus istis
communicatæ, (etenim alibi ostensus sum, ca-
lorem quemcunque a particulis nitro-aereis, in
motu positis, provenire) cum particulis liquorum
eorum salino-sulphureis effervescent; unde fit,
quod particulæ salinæ, particularum nitro-aerea-
rum actione exacuantur, inque salia acida con-
vertantur. P. 41.

(O) Quoad differentiam liquorum acidorum,
eam a diversitate salium, e quibus iidem constitu-
untur, procedere, putandum est, uti etiam ex eo,
quod salia fixa nunc magis, nunc vero minus, a
spiritu nitro-aereo, atterantur exacuanturque: et
tamen inter salia acida quæcunque, affinitas magna
est et similitudo; inque iis omnibus particulæ
nitro-aeræ igneæque, veluti in subjecto idoneo,
hospitantur. P. 44.

(P) Succus ex vegetabilibus expressus, veluti
mustum

mustum vini, aut pomacei, idque genus alia, ope particularum nitro-aerearum sulphurearumque sibi innatarum, effervescent. P. 60.

(Q) Hinc ea, quæ spiritum nitro-aereum excludunt, res a corruptione vindicant; uti etiam carnes butyro coopertæ, a putredine diu præferventur; item ferrum, oleo illitum, rubigine non corrodat. P. 62.

S E C T. IV.

*Of the ANALOGY between RESPIRATION and
COMBUSTION.*

From what we have already extracted from the works of our ingenious Author, the reader will clearly perceive, that he was acquainted with an active principle, constantly present in the atmosphere, and which was necessary to the maintenance of flame. Here he enters more deeply into the subject; and by a set of beautiful experiments, not only proves it beyond a doubt, but also unequivocally shews, that the same aerial matter is consumed, both by respiration and combustion. These experiments are instituted, chiefly, with a view of proving, that the elasticity of atmospheric air, in part, depends upon the nitro-aerial particles.

(A) If a cupping glass be applied to the skin, a partial vacuum will be formed, as soon as the
flame

flame is extinguished; hence the skin will rise into the glass, on account of the pressure of the surrounding air. What is the cause of this, says Mayow, or whence does it happen, that these circumstances are produced? ^(B) It is very probable, that the air is closely united to the flame, being taken up by it, as a pabulum; so that there is not the smallest portion of flame, in which there does not exist some portion of air. Hence we may conclude, that the vacuum is formed, because the air is deprived of its fire-air particles, by the combustion; as is more clearly proved by the following experiments.

^(C) Let a lighted candle be so placed, in water, that the wick shall rise about six fingers breadth above the surface; a glass vessel is then to be inverted over it, as is shewn in *Fig. 1*. Care must be taken, at the same time, that the water be of the same level, within and without, by means of a syphon, the one leg of which is previously placed within the inverted glass: this will let out the air, as it is compressed by the immersion of the vessel. The syphon is then to be withdrawn, lest afterwards the external air should rush in. In a short

time you will perceive, while the candle is yet burning, the water rising into the inverted vessel. He will not deny, but that the ascent of the water may be, in part, owing to the included air being less rarified and agitated, at the moment the candle is going out. It is by no means owing to this cause alone; but it is produced by the combustion of the candle destroying the nitro-aerial and elastic particles of the air, so that it is no longer able to resist the pressure of the atmosphere. Lest any one should withhold his assent to the inference, drawn from the above experiment, he institutes another, that no doubt may remain, as to the fact he wishes to establish.

(D) Let a piece of camphor, with some tinder dipt in melted sulphur, be suspended in a large glass vessel, inverted, as is seen in *Fig. 1*. The vessel is to be immersed, ten fingers breadth, in the water, which is to be brought to the same level, both within and without, by the means already described. That the view, however, may be more distinct, some water may be taken out of the external vessel. Let the height of the water, in the inverted glass, be marked, by pasting bits of paper against

against

against its side. After these preparations, let the combustible matter be fired, by a burning lens. The water, at first, will be depressed by the rarefaction of the air. When the combustion, however, has ceased, and the apparatus cooled, you will find the water to have risen above its pristine height. After the smoke was dissipated, he attempted to fire, by the lens, a portion of the camphor, which had not been destroyed by the combustion; but the experiment did not succeed: a sufficient proof, that the air was deprived of its fire-air particles, by the combustion; so that it was no longer able to support that process. This was surely a rigorous experiment, and proved incontrovertibly, that the atmosphere was composed of two kinds of air, the one fit to support flame, the other intirely destructive of it. The diminution that took place, in consequence of the absorption and condensation of the fire-air, made Mayow imagine, that the elasticity of the air depended upon the presence of that gas. He was unwilling, however, to yield implicit assent to this opinion, apparently founded upon fact, as we shall see in the sequel. It was his opinion, as has been already

ready

ready stated, that the same elastic, and fire-air particles, were subservient to the purposes of respiration and combustion. To determine this point, the following experiments were made.

(E) Let a moistened bladder be tied over the mouth of a circular glass vessel; then let another, containing a mouse, be applied tight to the bladder, as is seen in *Fig. 2*. The edge of the vessel will shortly be seen to adhere firmly to the bladder, and the bladder itself will rise into the cavity of the glass, in the same manner as if a cupping glass had been used, with a burning body in it; and this will take place while the animal is breathing: hence an animal may be used, instead of flame, in the operation of cupping. From this it appears, that the air is deprived of its elasticity by the respiration of animals. Not content, however, with merely shewing, that one part of the air is consumed by respiration, he institutes another experiment, to determine how much the air is diminished.

(F) Let an animal, confined in a cage, be suspended in a glass cucurbit, in a similar manner as the small jar is in *Fig. 4*. The cucurbit is then

then to be inverted over water, which is to be made to ascend into the glass, by means of the syphon. Some of the external water is then to be taken out, that we may have a more distinct view; and the height of the water, within the glass, is then to be marked, by slips of paper affixed to its sides. In a short time you will see the water gradually rising, within the glass, although it should seem, that a contrary effect would be produced by the heat and exhalations from the animal: and from experiments made with various animals, I have discovered, that the air is diminished one-fourteenth by respiration.

(G) From what has been shewn, it evidently appears, that the respiration of animals exhausts the air of certain vital and elastic particles; so that we can no longer doubt, that something from the air, absolutely necessary to life, is taken into the blood by respiration. It is manifest too, that the air is deprived of its elastic power, by the respiration of animals, in a similar manner as by combustion; and indeed it is rational to believe, that these two processes deprive the air of the same particles, as the following experiment decidedly proves.

(H) Let an animal be enclosed, with a burning candle, in a glass, inverted over water. In a short time, the candle will be extinguished, nor will the animal long survive; for I have found, that the animal will not live much above half the time that it would have done, had it been confined without the candle. Lest any suspicion should be entertained, that the animal was suffocated by the fumes of the candle, he made the experiment with spirit of wine; the animal therefore could not have died from that cause. Since then the air included in the glass, is deprived, in part, of the nitro-aerial particles, by the burning of the candle, it could not be long of use to the respiration of the animal; hence not only the candle, but also the life of the animal, will be shortly extinguished, from the defect of nitro-aerial particles. He says, the animal survives the flame, because the candle requires a continual and rapid supply of nitro-aerial particles, to support combustion.

S E C T. V.

Of the different Gases MAYOW met with in his
EXPERIMENTS.

Before we proceed to lay before the reader, Mayow's application of the fire-air particles to the purposes of the animal œconomy, it may not be improper to enquire, how far he was acquainted with the other kinds of air. The reader must not expect to find accuracy of distinction between the airs, by Mayow ; but he will perceive the same acuteness of observation, and quickness of thought. His mind being wholly engaged with the discovery of fire-air, and his thoughts entirely occupied with the wide extent of its influence, he did not pay much attention to the other gases which escaped, during his chemical operations. He, however, collected different kinds of unrespirable airs, and proved by experiment, that they were unfit to support life, and that the fire-air particles were alone adapted to that purpose. He
had

had to invent, too, a method for transferring air, from one vessel to another, which, like the egg of Columbus, appears simple and obvious, after it is explained; but before explanation, required ingenuity, thought, and reflection. To be sensible of the merit of the following contrivances, says Dr. Beddoes, we have only to recollect, how difficult it must have appeared, before a living philosopher, of whom this country has just reason to be proud, a second time taught us the art, to confine, divide, remove from vessel to vessel, examine, and manage at pleasure, fugitive, incoercible, and impalpable fluids, like that which we breathe*. Mayow fully exhibits this ingenious invention, in his enquiry, and displays a mind, ardent, sagacious, and observant.

(1) I attempted to fire, says Mayow, combustible matter, under a glass, in which an animal had died; but the experiment failed: therefore it is probable, that the same air which is unfit for respiration, will not support combustion. Mayow learnt, from his experiments, that the air, deprived
of

* Honorable H. Cavendish's Exp. on Facitious Air. Ph. Transf. lvi. p. 142 and the plate.

of fire-air particles, become lighter*; (K) For, he observes, if a mouse, or a bird, be placed in the superior part of the glass, it will die sooner, and the water will not rise so high, as if the animal had been situated lower. This is more manifest, if two animals be used; for the one at the bottom of the glass will survive the one at the superior part. (L) From these facts we may be allowed to imagine, that the air thrown out from the lungs becomes lighter, because it is deprived of nitro-aerial particles, and therefore ascends to the top of the glass. The same exactly happens with respect to a burning body; (M) For if a glass cucurbit be inverted, and suspended in the air, and a candle be held up under it, it will, in a short time, be extinguished; for the air contained in the glass, being made unfit to support flame, by the combustion of the candle, and being, by the same means, rendered

* Oxygen is more ponderous than the air of the atmosphere; the cubic foot of atmospherical air weighing 720 grains, while the cubic foot of purer air weighs 765—Chaptal's Elem. of Chem. Vol. p. 120. According to Mr. Kirwan, the weight of oxygen, to that of common air, is as 1103 to 1000 nearly.—Essay on Phlogiston, p. 13.

rendered lighter than common air, the surrounding atmosphere presses upon it on all sides, and prevents it from descending in the glass.

Mayow, then, here met with what we now term azot, and distinguished it by the only two properties by which we now distinguish it, *viz.* its being unfit for respiration and combustion. He was not aware, that in respiration and combustion, the carbonic acid gas is given out. The chemical reader well knows, that this gas is heavier than common air*; but that a considerable quantity of caloric being disengaged, both by the animals and burning bodies, the carbonic acid is rendered lighter, and consequently ascends. Mayow did a great deal, in thus decomposing atmospheric air, and distinguishing between the fire-air particles and azot; it was enough for him to have shewn, that only one part of the air supported life and combustion. He admires the wisdom of Providence, in thus carrying

* The weight of fixed air, procured from calcareous spar, by muriatic acid, is to that of common air, as 1500 to 1000; and that of azot, is as 985 to 1000.—Kirwan, p. 15—17.

ing off from the earth, air unfit for the purposes of life. How much more would he have praised the benevolence of the Deity, had he known, that carbonic acid is of greater specific gravity than atmospheric air; but to remedy the evil that would arise to animal life, from its accumulation, it is made the food of plants, and is readily absorbed by water, to which, no doubt, the agitation of tempestuous weather greatly contributes. Mayow maintained, that the elasticity of the air depended, in a great measure, on the fire-air particles. He entertained, however, much doubt upon this subject; and did not deny, that air, deprived of fire-air particles, was also elastic. There is something else then necessary to produce this effect. It is, therefore, very probable, he says, that a subtile active matter, being interspersed between the particles of the air, and constantly keeping them in motion, not a little conduces to the expansive power of air; and by this means, it would appear, that the elastic force of the air is caused from the application of heat. The following experiment was made to determine, how this elasticity was diminished.

D

(N) Let

(N) Let a stick, equal in length to the widest part of a glass cucurbit, be placed within it, so that its extremities may rest upon the sides, as is seen in *Fig. 4*. From this transverse stick, suspend a glazed earthen-ware vessel, capable of containing about four ounces, half full of nitrous acid. Throw across the stick, directly over the vessel containing the acid, pieces of iron, tied to a cord, the other end of which must be sufficiently long to come out from under the cucurbit. The orifice of the inverted cucurbit is to be immersed about five fingers breadth below the water. After the water is raised in the cucurbit, by the syphon, some is to be taken from the outer vessel, until that within stand about three fingers breadth higher. Let every thing remain thus, till the included air, heated by the hands, return to its former state; the height is then to be marked with strips of paper. The pieces of iron are then let down into the acid, by means of the cord. A violent ebullition with heat will immediately take place, and the water will be depressed by the disengaged gas. In about twenty minutes, or rather when the water has been depressed about three fingers

fingers breadth by the gas, the pieces of iron are to be raised from the acid: you will then soon see the water rising gradually in the glass; and in an hour or so, it will be elevated far above the height marked by the strips of paper, so that one-fourth of the space, hitherto occupied by the air, will now be filled by the water; and indeed, in no long time, the water thus raised, will descend to its former level. ‘ I suspect some mistake here, says Dr. Beddoes; the author says nothing more of this strange new depression of the water; how can any air be generated in these circumstances? Did one of the pieces of iron, at any time come off the bunch, and remain behind in the acid? I wish the passage were out of the book; or at least, that any one would explain it to me.’ It does not appear difficult of explanation; it is well known, that oxygen unites with azot in various proportions, forming the nitrous oxyds. During the solution of metals in the nitrous acid, as the oxygen is robbed from the acid, a gas is generated, which is sometimes azot or nitrous air, with different proportions of oxygen; for it is not the same quantity of oxygen which unites

with azot to form nitrous air; and in proportion to the quantity of oxygen, so is its absorption by the water more or less rapid. In this way, we may easily account for the new depression of the water. After the pieces of iron were withdrawn, some portion of the acid would remain adhering to them, by which azot, or nitrous gas, with a small proportion of oxygen, would be disengaged; these were not absorbed by the water, and the air could not be again diminished in bulk, because the oxygen had already been exhausted by the nitrous gas first disengaged, and we know too, that nitrous gas is not rapidly absorbed by water; hence it must have suffered a new depression from the disengaged gas. It is evident, that in this experiment, Mayow procured nitrous air; and it is rather curious, he does not mention the turbid fumes which it produces in its union with fire-air particles. This appearance, as far as we know, was first mentioned by Dr. Hales, who procured nitrous air from Walton pyrites and steel filings, with the nitrous acid.*

If

* Vide Statical Essays, Vol. II. p. 280.

If the pieces of iron be let down a second and a third time into the acid, fresh gas will be disengaged, but the water will not rise, as in the first case. His method of explaining the rise of the water deserves attention, notwithstanding that it is a little confused, from the want of distinct ideas, with respect to the transition of bodies, from the aeriform to the solid state. (O) The effervescing particles, he observes, produced in the first ebullition, being mixed with the particles of the air, destroy them; hence the water not only rose into the space left by the condensed gases, but also into that which the destroyed air formerly occupied: but when the air in the glass was in a great part destroyed by the first fermentation, or rather had its elasticity as much as possible diminished, it happened, that after the gas was disengaged a second time, the water would not rise into the glass, as in the first instance, except as far as the generated gas was condensed. We may here perceive, that Mayow makes a distinction between the diminution of the air's elasticity by the gas, and the condensation of the gas itself. In the first instance, therefore, the water would

rise from two causes, *viz.* the loss of elasticity in the air, and the condensation of the gas; but in the second case, when the elasticity had been already destroyed by the gas previously generated, the rise of the water could be only attributed to the condensation of the nitrous air. Such is the manner in which Mayow accounted for this extraordinary phenomenon, which past unnoticed, and neglected for more than half a century,* when it was observed by Dr. Hales, who although he quotes Mayow on respiration, took no notice of this curious circumstance. In the disengagement of airs, from Mayow's effervescing mixtures, he observed, that the water sometimes did not rise again, after its depression. He accounts for this in the following manner: (P) When the disengaged gases occupy more space than is relinquished by the lost air, then, although the elastic power of the air be diminished, that circumstance will not take place: hence when gases are procured from the nitrous acid and a fixed salt (carbonic acid gas)

* The Vice-Chancellor's Imprimatur for Mayow's Tracts, is dated 1673, Sir I. Newton's, as P. R. S. for Hales's 1st Vol. in 1726—27.

gas) and from sulphuric acid and iron (hydrogen gas), in the manner already described, the water will not rise above its pristine height. When Mayow found, that part of the air could thus be condensed, and as it were lost, he set on foot an enquiry, to discover whether air could be generated anew. During this investigation, he collected various gases, with which he made several trials, with respect to their fitness for respiration and combustion. In the following experiment, the reader will perceive, that he procured nitrous air in a separate state.

(Q) Place equal parts of nitrous acid and water in a large glass, then plunge into it a small glass goblet, till it be quite full, and after having introduced into its mouth two or three iron globules, invert it on the bottom of the other vessel, as is seen in *Fig. 3*, taking care to prevent the globules from falling out, by applying the finger to the orifice. In a short time, the acid will corrode the iron, and raise an effervescence; vapours, in the form of bubbles, will ascend to the top of the glass, and there constitute a gas, by which the water will be gradually depressed. After the glass

has been filled with the gas, the iron is to be withdrawn, taking care that the orifice of the glass does not rise above the surface of the fluid. We shall soon see the gas becoming gradually condensed, and the liquor rising into its place. About one-fourth of the gas will remain in the glass, which cannot be condensed by the severest cold. Some condensation would, no doubt, take place, after the heat was dissipated, which was generated during the effervescence; but the disappearance of the nitrous air, is to be wholly attributed to its absorption by the nitrous acid and water.

(R) If in the place of the nitrous, we use the vitriolic acid, mixed with water, or if the effervescence produced, as in the last experiment, be very slow, or if the globules of iron be allowed to remain a day or two in the glass, the gas generated in this way will suffer no condensation. The reader will perceive, that hydrogen was procured in the first instance, which we know is not absorbed; and in the two last cases, the liquor, on account of the nitrous air passing slowly through it, would become saturated, and no diminution would take place in that which rose to the top of
the

the glafs: ſome azot, too, would undoubtedly be difengaged. It is difficult to ſay, obſerves Mayow, whether this gas be really air or not; but it is evident, from the following experiment, that it is equally capable of expansion.

(S) Take a glafs tube, of the ſize of a gooſe quill, and about four fingers breadth long, hermetically ſealed at one end; let fall into it a drop of water, and note down the ſpace occupied by the drop, upon paper paſted on the outside; then let fall ſome more drops, noting down the height; and ſo on. The open extremity of the tube is then to be cloſely cemented, into the orifice of another glafs, perforated at both ends, as is ſeen in *Fig. 5*. The tube and glafs veſſel are then to be filled with water, and inverted in another, containing the ſame fluid. The gas is then to be transferred into this apparatus, in the following manner: (T) Let a ſmall veſſel, filled with water, be introduced under the orifice of the other, containing the gas, and be thus removed to the apparatus, containing the veſſel and tube; then bring the mouth of the glafs, filled with the gas, to the orifice of the one filled with water, and in-

cline

cline the former in such a manner, that the gas may pass into the latter, which may be thus filled with gas, although a small quantity will suffice for our purpose. The vessel and tube containing the gas, are then to be placed in Boyle's air-pump, by introducing under it a vessel, sufficiently large to receive its orifice. (V) When the apparatus was thus adjusted, he found, by exhausting the air-pump, that the gas expanded, so as to fill the glass vessel; and by comparing the capacity of the whole vessel, with the space generally occupied by the gas, and marked on the paper, he found, from frequent repetition of the experiment, that the gas expanded about two hundred times its original bulk; and had the pressure of the water been removed, he says, it would have made double that expansion, and common air managed in the same way, does not expand more. (W) This experiment, then, decidedly proved the gas to have one property, common with atmospheric air. But this does not argue its respirability; for air in which an animal has died, or candle been extinguished, is capable of an expansion, equal to that of any other air; and we know it to be deprived
of

of the nitro-aerial and vital particles. Although therefore, these gases will expand themselves, when atmospheric pressure is removed, we must not imagine, that they are respirable. This analogical reasoning did not satisfy Mayow, he was determined to rest his opinion upon matter of fact; to clear up therefore all doubt and suspicion, on the subject, he made the following experiment.

(X) Let a mouse, confined in a trap, be placed upon a support, under an inverted glass vessel, as is seen in *Fig. 6*. Let all things remain in this situation, till the animal dies: the time it lived is to be exactly noted. The mouse is now to be withdrawn, and another placed in the same situation, and under similar circumstances, taking great care, that the same quantity of air be used in this, as in the first case. The apparatus being thus adjusted, some gas is then to be thrown up into the vessel, about twice or thrice the quantity it contains of air. In this case it will be found, that the animal will live but very little longer than in the first, when the gas was not confined with it. The reasoning he applies, shews how accurately he attended to the result of his experiments. If the gas
were

were really air, and fit to support life, the second animal employed should have lived twice as long as the first. An observation which he adds is extremely nice; the reason why the animal lived somewhat longer in the second, than in the first instance is, because the air being diluted with gas, the fire-air particles are more gradually consumed.

Mayow does not mention, from what he procured the gas made use of in this experiment; but from the result we must conclude, that it was the hydrogen, otherwise the mouse would have been instantly killed by the nitrous gas. From a review of these experiments, we cannot but admire the neatness and accuracy with which our ingenious author contrived and executed his plans. The method he used for transferring the gases from one vessel to another claims our admiration, and must have been the result of much painful labour and attention. We have seen how completely he has anticipated the modern chemist, in this mode of experiment. One method, however, which he used, is sufficiently curious, and certainly deserves notice. He wished to transfer, from one vessel to another, the air which had been
de-

de-oxygenated by respiration and combustion. To effect this, he had recourse to the following expedient. A phial is filled with water; round its neck is tied a piece of string; another piece, of sufficient length to suffer both its extremities to come out from under the edge of the glass, is thrown across the transverse stick in the apparatus, *Fig. 4*; one end of this is tied to the bottom of the phial; by drawing down, therefore, the other end of the string, the phial will be raised above the level of the water in the inverted glass, and will consequently be filled with air; again, by drawing down the string to the neck of the phial, it can be withdrawn, and transferred where we please. He did this with a view of discovering, by his measuring apparatus, *Fig. 5*, whether the air, in which an animal had died, or candle been extinguished, was capable of expansion, which he found was the case. We may observe, that our ingenious author did not discriminate between the different gases he obtained. One distinction, however, he made, but it did not occupy his attention, *viz.* that some of his gases underwent, what he called, condensation; but which was their absorption by

the liquors, over which they were procured, while others did not. He seems to have considered them all the same, in their properties ; and only knew they were unfit to support animal life and combustion. Let it be remembered, that after the lapse of more than a century, it required the innumerable experiments, and diligent investigation of Priestley and Cavendish, to distinguish rightly between the gases ; and even after this period, the effects of noxious airs upon animal life were not known, the experimentalist considering the qualities of the unrespirable airs as similar. This led to the different conclusions which Mr. Kite and Mr. Coleman drew from their experiments* ; but the causes of the error we have pointed out, in our paper to the Royal Society, on the effects of the different gases on the influence, termed by Galvani, animal electricity.

(A) Si cucurbitula, flammâ repleta, cuti applicetur, flammam mox extinctum iri, spatium-
que

* Dissertation on Suspended Respiration, by E. Coleman, p. 24.

que intra cucurbitulam inclusum, pene vacuum fore. P. 97.

(B) Probabile est, aerem flammæ confertim immisceri, utpote cui in pabulum cedit; ita ut ne minima quidem flammæ pars sit, in quâ aeris aliquantulum non existit.

(C) Nempe candela accensa, ita in aqua collocetur, ut ellychnium accensum digitos circiter sex transversos aquæ superemineat: dein cucurbita vitrea satis alta, inverfaque, lucernæ iste superimponatur, prout in *Fig. 1*, ostenditur. Curandum est autem hic, ut superficies aquæ intra vitrum inclusæ, altitudinem aquæ exterioris æquet; quo autem id fiat, syphonis incurvati ejus alterum intra cucurbitæ cavitationem, antequam eadem in aquam demittitur, includatur crure altero exterâ eminente. Syphonis istius usus est, ut aer in alembico inclusus, et ab aquâ ei substratâ, dum vitrum in aquam demittitur, compressus, per syphonis cavitationem exeat. Cum autem aer per syphonem istum exire desinit, syphon statem eximatur, ne aer postea per eundem in vitrum irruat. Brevi aquam in cucurbitæ cavitationem, cum adhuc lucerna deflagrat, gradatim assurgentem percipies. P. 99.

(D) Nempe materia quævis combustibilis, quæ facile flammam concipiet, in cucurbitâ quam capacissimâ, inversa, suspendatur, prout in *Fig. 1*, ostenditur (ipse frustulum camphoræ, cui lentei ad nigredinem, uti moris est, calcinati, sulphureque liquefacto intincti, tantillum affigitur, suspendere soleo). Quo factò, cucurbita ea inversa, ad digitos circiter 10 aquæ, ita immergatur, ut aqua intra vitrum inclusa, aquæ exterioris altitudinem æquet, quod ope syphonis fieri potest; ac demum aqua exterior eousque exhauriatur, donec aquæ interioris, altitudo exteriori supereminet, quo melius in conspectum veniat; tum altitudo aquæ interioris, chartulis hic illic lateribus vitri affixis, notetur. Jam vero cucurbita ista radiis solaribus exponatur, et camphora in eadem inclusa, ope vitri ustorii accendatur; quo factò, aquam interiorem, ob particularum ignearum exagitationem aerisque rarefactionem, intus descendere percipies. Postquam lucerna expiravit, cucurbita una cum vasculo, cui incumbit, a radiis solaribus amoveatur, quo se aer in ea inclusus denuo refrigescat, et ad pristinum statum redeat, atque ita aquam interiorem, supra metam primo notatam, elevatam esse invenies. P. 100—101.

(E) Nempe vesica madefacta, orificio circulari vasis cujusvis superextendatur, eidemque alligetur; dein cucurbitula, in quâ animalculum, putamus inclusus est, vesicæ prædictæ strictim applicetur, ut in *Fig. 2.* delineatur. Cucurbitulam, post breve temporis spatium, vesicæ isti firmiter affixam, et insuper vesicam, qua eadem cucurbitulæ substrata est, sursum in vitri cavitatem impulsam videre est, haud secus, ac si cucurbitula ea, cum flammâ ei inclusa, applicata fuisset; atque hoc, animale ad huc spirante, continget. Et quidem, animalculum cucurbitulæ cuti applicandæ impositum, flammæ vicem aliquantulum supplere potest. Ex quibus liquet, vim elasticam aeris, per animalis respirationem, imminutam esse. P. 103-4.

(F) Nempe animal, in carcere idoneo inclusum, in cucurbita vitreâ suspendatur, prout vasculum in *Fig. 4.* Dein vitrum inversum aquæ aliquantulum, ita immergatur, ut aqua intra vitrum inclusa, aquæ exterioris altitudinem æquet, quod ope syphonis incurvati fieri potest. Aqua exterior aliquantulum exhaureatur, quo altitudo aquæ interioris melius conspici possit, quæ chartulis hic illic vitri lateribus affixis, notetur. Brevi, aquam

in vitri cavitatem fenſim affurgentem videbis, licet calor ab animalis præſentiâ in vitro iſto excitatus, item halitus ab eodem exeuntes, potius contrarium efficere viderentur; et quidem experimento, cum animalibus variis facto, compertum habeo, aerem in ſpatium ex parte circiter decimâ quartâ minus, quam antea, per animalium reſpirationem redactum eſſe. P. 104-5.

(G) Ex dictis, certo conſtat, animalia reſpirando particulas quaſdam vitales eaſque elãſticas ab aere exhaurire; ut minime jam dubitandum ſit, aereum aliquid, ad vitam prorfus neceſſarium, ſanguinem animalium reſpirationis ope ingredi. Ex quibus manifeſtum eſt, aerem per animalium reſpirationem, haud multo ſecus, ac per flammæ deſlagrationem, vi ſuâ elãſticâ deprivari; et utique credendum eſt, animalia ignemque particulas ejuſdem generis ex aere exhaurire, id quod ſequenti experimento, magis adhuc confirmatur. P. 106-7-8.

(H) Nempe animalculum quodvis, unâ cum lucernâ, in vitro includatur. Brevi lucernam iſtam expirantem videbimus, neque animalculum diu tedæ ferali ſuperſtes erit. Etenim obſeryatione com-

pertum habeo, animal una cum lucernâ, in vitro inclusum, haud multo plus, quam dimidium temporis istius, quo aliàs viveret, spiraturum esse. P. 108.

(I) Porro conatus sum materiam combustibilem, in vitro, una cum animale suspensam, postquam animal in eodem suffocatum est, ope vitri ustorii accendere; verum experimentum non successit. Verisimile est autem, aerem, qui vitæ sustinendæ inidoneus est, etiam ad flammam conflandam ineptum esse. P. 110.

(K) Si animalculum, veluti mus aut avis, in summitate vitri includatur, idem multo citius morietur, et aqua substrata multo minus elevabitur, quam si animalculum idem, in inferiori parte vitri collocatum esset. Hoc autem maxime manifestum erit, si aves, aut mures duo, simul, unus in superiori, alter in inferiori parte vitri inclusi fuerint; ita enim animalculum, in inferiori vitri parte positum, alteri aliquandiu superstes erit. P. 124—5.

(L) Verum arbitrari fas sit, particulas aeris, è pulmonibus animalis egestas, ob particulas nitro-æreas partim ex ipsis exhaustas, leviores fieri, eoque ad summitatem vitri ascendere. P. 125.

(M) Quinimo si cucurbita vitrea inverfa, in

aere suspendatur, et dein lucerna in eandem immittatur, lucernam brevi expirantem percipies; quippe aer, in vitro isto contentus, ob lucernæ deflagrationem, ad ignem sustinendum ineptus redditur, cum vero idem reliquo aere levior fit; hinc fit, quod aer ambiens eum sursum impellit, neque facile è vitro descendere permittet. P. 126.

(N) Nempe bacillus diametro cucurbitæ vitreæ, qua eadem maxime patet, æqualis, in cucurbitam imponatur, dein idem transversim collocatus, deorsum trahatur, quousque bacilli extremitates utræque vitri lateribus innixæ, ab iisdem subfulciantur, prout in *Fig. 4.* cernitur. Vasculum fictile intus vitrefactum, unciarum liquoris circiter quatuor capax, ope unci ferrei ei adaptati, de bacillo isto transverso suspendatur, idemque ad dimidium plus minusve spiritu nitri impleatur. Porro frustula aliquot ferri in fasciculum colligata, ope funiculi de bacillo prædicto suspensi, e directo supra vasculum illud suspendatur, funiculus autem iste tantæ longitudinis esse debet, ut ejus extremitas altera ad vitri orificium protensa, foras propendeat. Orificium cucurbitæ istius inversæ ad digitos circiter quinque aquæ immergatur ita—
aqua

aqua exterior eouſque exhauriatur, donec aqua interior digitos ciciter tres eidem ſuperemineat; atque ita maneant omnia, donec aer in vitro inclufus manibus tractantis calefactus, ad priſtinum ſtatum redeat : tum altitudo aquæ interioris chartulis hic illic vitri lateribus exterius affixis, notetur. Jam vero fruſtula prædicta, ope funiculi, in vaſculum, in quo ſpiritus nitri collocatus eſt, demittatur; atque ita brevi æſtus admodum intenſus excitabitur et aqua interior ab halitibus inde ortis ſtatim deprimetur. Poſtquam æſtus iſtius modi per tertiam plus minusve horæ partem duraverit; ſeu potiùs cum aqua interior ad digitos circiter tres ab halitibus excitatis depreſſa fuerit, fruſtula iſta ferri ope funiculi e vaſculo eleventur. Poſt brevi temporis ſpatium aquam interiorem gradatim affurgentem et intra horam unam aut alteram longè ſupra altitudinem ab initio notatam, elevatam eſſe percipies; ita ut pars circiter quarta ſpatii, quod in vitro eo antea ab aere occupatum eſt, nunc ab aqua intus affurgente teneatur. Et quidem aqua eo modo in vitrum elevata, neque poſt longum tempus, ad priſtinam metam deſcendet. P. 136-7-8.

(O) Particulæ effervescentes ab æstu priori exeuntes, particulis aereis confertim immixtæ, eas deperdiderunt ; unde factum est, ut aqua non tantum in spatium ab halitibus condensatis, sed etiam ab aere absumpto relictum, elevata sit : cum vero aer in vitro eo ex maximâ parte per primam fermentationem deperditus est, seu potius quoad vim suam elasticam, quantum fieri poterat, imminutus est, hinc fit, ut post æstum secundâ vice factum, aqua non nisi, quatenus halitus excitati condensationem patiebantur, et proinde multo minus, quam in priori casu in vitrum ascenderet. P. 141.

(P) Quandocunque halitus generati plus spatii occupabunt, quam ab aere deperdito relinquitur, tunc, utcunque vis elastica aeris imminuitur, illud tamen in vitro prædicto non comparebit. Atque hinc est, quod si æstus a spiritu nitri et sale fixo commixtis, uti etiam ab oleo vitrioli et ferro, modo prædicto, in vitro excitatus fuerit, aqua tamen, supra altitudinem pristinam non assurget. P. 145.

(Q) Nempe spiritus nitri et aqua fontana, in æquali quantitate commixta, vitro satis amplo imponantur ; dein vitrum parvulum mixturæ isti ita
sub-

submergatur, ut idem liquore eo penitus repleatur, quo facto, globuli duo vel tres, e ferro compositi, orificio vitri hujus indantur, idemque inversum fundo vitri alterius incumbat, prout in *Fig. 3*, delineatur, cavendo tamen, ne globuli isti è vitro excidant; quo autem hoc præcaveatur, orificium vitri istius digito obturetur, donec idem fundo vitri alterius innititur. Post brevi temporis spatium, menstruum illud acidum globulos ferreos corrodet, et cum iisdem insigniter effervescent; halitusque sub bullularum formâ, ab æstu eo excitati, ad supremam vitri partem ascendent, auramque ibidem component, quæ sensim aucta aquam substratam gradatim deprimet. Postquam vitrum istoc aura istius modi penitus impletum est, idem parum elevetur, quo globuli ferrei ex eodem elaborantur, qui è liquore eximendi sunt; cavendo tamen, ne vitri orificium supra liquorem attollatur. Atque ita videbimus auram istam gradatim condensari, liquoremque substratum in locum ejus ascendere; etenim vitrum ex parte circiter quartâ usque implebitur, auraque ea, tempestate frigidissima existente, nunquam tamen in liquorem condensabitur. P. 161-2-3.

(R) Si loco spiritus nitri, oleum vitrioli cum aqua commixtum substituat; aut si fermentatio valde remissa, modo prædicto, excitetur; aut etiam si globuli ferrei, in vitro eo per diem unum aut alterum manere sinantur; tunc aura, eo modo generata, vix omnino condensationem patietur. 163.

(S) Nempe vitrum tenue, ad magnitudinem calami anserini, quatuor plus minus digitos longum, in alterâ extremitate hermeticè sigilletur; dein gutta una aquæ, orificio ejus alteri aperto, instilletur, et in chartulâ vitro exterius affixâ designetur, quantum vitri istius spatium gutta ea occupat; tunc gutta insuper altera, et ita deinceps aliæ vitro ei, ut prius immittantur, spatiumque ab iis impletum, in chartulâ prædictâ notetur. Vitri istius extremitas aperta, orificio angustiori vitri alterius, in utrâque extremitate perforati, indatur, et dein foramen illud ope cementi idonei strictim obturetur, prout in *Fig. 5.* delineatur. Vitrum hoc, eo modo paratum, aquæ in vase idoneo contentæ, ita submergatur, ut orificio ejus sursum versus spectante, aer ex eodem totus exeat, et aqua ejus locum subeat, curando diligenter, ut etiam vitrum aquâ repleatur; dein vitrum,

trum, istoc aquâ impletum, invertatur, idemque fundo vasis alterius incumbat, atque ita singula maneant. P. 164-5.

(T) Nempe vasculum parvulum, orificii tamen vitri, in quo aura existit, capax, eidem tamen supponatur; et dein vasculum illud liquore prædicto repletum, una cum vitro inverso, in quo aura continetur, ei incumbente, in vasculum illud transferatur, in quo vitrum primo descriptum collocatum est, atque orificium vitri, in quo aura existit, orificio vitri alterius aquâ repleti supponatur, vitrumque illud eousque inclinetur, quoad aura in eo contenta prorumpit, et in vitrum alterum ascendit, quod hoc modo aurâ istâ impleri potest; quanquam satis est, ut aeris aliquantulum eidem immittatur. P. 165.

(V) Postquam aer ex parte exhaustus est, aura in vitro prædicto inclusa, ultra vitri cavitatem se expandet. Itaque si spatium vitri totius, ope aquæ ei guttatim instillatæ, commensuretur, idemque cum spatio eo vitri tenuioris, quod aura reliqua adimpleverat, conferatur, compertum erit, in quantum aura prædicta se expanderat. Atque experimento *sepe* repetito, compertum habeo,
auram

auram istius modi, plus quam ducenties se expandisse; et quidem si eadem ab aquæ ambientis pressurâ liberata fuisset, in spatium circiter duplo majus se expandisset, neque quidem aer vulgaris, eodem modo dispositus, in spatium majus se explicabit. P. 166-7.

(w) Quanquam aura ab æstu prædicto generata, vi elastica non minori, quam aer vulgaris imbuta fit, tamen non exinde sequitur, eam reverâ aerem esse talem, viz. qui particulis vitalibus, igneisque donatur; quippe aura ista, in quâ animal aut lucerna expirarunt, vi elasticâ æque ac aer inviolatus pollet; et tamen eadem particulis nitro-aereis, vitalibusque, destituitur. P. 169.

(x) Animalculum puta mus in carcere angusto collocatus, in summâ vitri inversi cavitate collocetur, sustentaculo idoneo ei supposito, ut in *Fig. 6*, delineatur. Ita maneat omnia, usque dum animal moriatur; spatiumque temporis quo animal in vitro eo spiravit, diligenter observetur. Jam vero animal mortuum eximatur, atque animal aliud vivum, in ejus loco substituatur, et veluti prius, intra vitrum aquæ immersum includatur, curando diligenter, ut aeris eadem
quantitas,

quantitas, quæ prius, intra vitrum includatur: quo factò, aura prædicta in vitrum, in quo animal collocatum est, tantâ copiâ modo antea ostenso transferatur, ut aura ita immiffa, bis aut etiam ter aerem vulgarem intra vitrum istoc ab initio inclusum superet. Comperiemus animalculum, in vitro eo, haud multo diutius secundâ vice vitam degisse, quam alterum primâ, cum, viz. aura prædicta vitro isti non imponebatur. Sin autem aura ista revera aer, eademque vitæ sustinendæ idonea effet, animalculum secundâ vice immiffum, duplo longius quam præcedens perdurasset. Quod vero animalculum, aurâ prædicta, vitro in quo idem extitit, impositâ, paulo diutius quam alias vixerat, ratio esse videtur; quoniam aer, intra vitrum istoc inclusus, ob auram ei admixtam magis gradatim, neque adeo confertim ac aliàs ab animalculo hauriri et violari, poterat.

P. 169-70-1.

S E C T. VI.

O F R E S P I R A T I O N.

There is no part of the animal œconomy, which would sooner have excited the attention of the observer, than the necessity of continued respiration to the life of animals. The most common daily occurrences must have pointed out, that we could dispense with any thing but air for a considerable time. (A) So great a demand, says the venerable Hippocrates, have our bodies for air, that we may refrain, with impunity, from all other kinds of food, for two, three, or more days; but if any thing should interrupt the communication of the air with our bodies, for a short time only, we must unavoidably perish, so necessary is the presence of air to our being. A crowded meeting, in places of public amusement, or courts of justice, must have prest upon the observation of the earliest philosophers, the necessity of

of

of the presence of fresh air. The decomposition which daily takes place in different substances, from fermentation, presented to their examination various exhalations; but these were all confounded under the name of air, or vapour. They beheld the beautiful structure of the animal frame governed by certain laws, which did not exist one moment without the presence of air; hence it was reasonable to infer a connection between the functions of the system and that fluid. A distinction was also made between the air necessary, and the external atmosphere; but the manner of its action, and the nature of its effects, were entirely unknown. We are surprised that they knew so much, when we consider how little they were acquainted with the operations of the animal œconomy; and for the greatest part of their knowledge on this subject, they were indebted to the labours of one man, to the acute observation and regular attention of the venerable Father of Physic. A spirit, it was said, pervaded all nature, gave laws to the animal œconomy, and regulated the motion of the heavens, and this spirit was derived from the air, but was different from
it.

it. Hippocrates mentions, that all animated nature is supported by a triple nourishment, by meat, drink, and a spirit, σιτά, ποτά, και πνεύμαλα. Since existence was inseparable from this spirit, it was considered as the soul and great mover of all the operations of the œconomy, and became synonymous with life.*

Dum memor ipse mei, dum spiritus hos regit artus.†

Afterwards, when the nerves of the body were found to have so great a share in its motions, this spirit was supposed to reside chiefly in them; hence the terms nervous, vital, and animal spirits. The word spirit was used to convey the idea of an immaterial quality, which might exist *per se*, but without which all the animated creation would be devoid of life and vigour. After the time of
Hippocrates,

† The lungs are so useful to us, as to life and sense, that the vulgar think, our breath is our very life, and that we breathe out our souls when we die. Suitably to this notion, both *anima* and *spiritus* in Latin, and πνεύμα in Greek, are derived from words that signify both breath and wind, and *efflare*, or *exhalare animam*, signifies to die.—Ray, p. 13, Part II.

* Æneid lib. VI. V. 336.

Hippocrates, it was the fashionable philosophy, that heat or fire was that quality, under the name of spirit, which produced harmony and order in the revolutions of the animated world. ‘Hic noster ignis, says Cicero, quem usus vitæ requirit, confector est et consumptor omnium, idemque quocumque invasit, cuncta disturbat ac dissipat. Contra ille corporeus, vitalis est et salutaris, omnia conservat, alit, auget, sustinet, sensuque adficit’.* In the absence of heat, it was observed, that the creation became torpid and cramped in her operations, ‘all nature sickened,’ and the hibernating animals retired to their caves and secret places, to remain until this vivifying principle restored animation to the face of the world; hence probably, arose the idea of fire or heat, being the soul and life of created being; and hence we may derive the terms vital flame, igneous spirit, &c. It was the breath of life, and impress upon the world, *ab origine*, by the Deity.

Igneus est ollis vigor, et cœlestis origo
Seminibus†.

In

* De Natura Deorum, p. 144.

† Æneid. Lib. VI. v. 730.

In the time of Hippocrates then, the spirit which animated the human frame, was derived from the air, and afterwards the disciples of the Platonic school considered it as the same with fire. They made no distinction, however, between life itself and its stimulus. The body was the machine in which this spirit performed its operations; but they did not imagine that, connected with the body, was a principle, independent of this spirit, but to which it acted as a stimulus. This beautiful illustration of the œconomy was reserved for a distant period. No wonder then, that the antients were perplexed in their reasonings on this subject, since it required so many ages to discover a principle, without the knowledge of which, we should have still remained ignorant spectators of the phænomena which daily occur in the animated frame. It is a curious co-incidence in the history of science, that the two qualities which the antient philosophers considered as necessary to life, and which they thought were different, should be found combined in a single substance by the discoverers of modern times. We cannot be surpris'd to find, that the two most powerful agents in nature, air

and fire, should have been called forth to explain the phenomena, which occurred to the observation of the philosopher. General observations, however, were only made without being particularised by any determinate ideas on the subject. This could not be otherwise, when we consider how little men were in the habit of making experiments, and how much it was necessary that the arts should be improved, before it was possible that experimental knowledge could be acquired. So near is the connection between the arts and sciences, and so much does the practice of the philosopher depend upon the improvement of the workman's art. Ridiculous hypothesis prevailed, in proportion as the theorist was perplexed in his ideas, until the great Lord Verulam arrested the progress of theoretical reasonings, not founded on direct experiment. Soon after this Mayow appeared, and in 1668, published his Treatise on Respiration. The doctrine laid down for this important function, evidently shews, the great attention of an ingenious mind, eagerly applied to the object of its pursuit. Unsatisfied with having discovered that only one part of the atmosphere supports vi-

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tality, he extends his enquiry, to learn what *this* performs in the system; and we shall see how accurately he has struck out the truth. He rejects the prevailing theory of his time, that respiration is to cool the blood; on the contrary, he maintains that it produces the opposite effect. He denies that it is intended to transmit the blood from the right to the left side of the heart. (B) Indeed, it is evident, that the blood can pass through the lungs without their motion; for if blood, or any other fluid, be injected by the means of a syringe into the pulmonary artery of a dead animal, it will very readily pass into the left ventricle of the heart. Any one may experience this in himself; for although respiration be suppressed for a time, yet the pulsation of the arteries is sufficiently firm in the wrists, which certainly could not happen, unless the blood at that time passed through the lungs, to the left ventricle of the heart. He does not however deny, that the action of the thorax, assists the transmission of the blood; neither will he allow, that respiration is to break down the dense venous blood, because impure air very well answers the purpose of giving motion

to the lungs, and agitation to the blood, but it does not support life. Having thus refused his assent to the commonly received doctrine of respiration, it was incumbent on him to deliver his ideas on the subject, and to urge his objections. Concerning the use of respiration, therefore, we may reasonably conclude, that an aerial something, whatever it may be, absolutely necessary to support life, passes into the mass of blood; thence air thrown out from the lungs, from which the vital particles are exhausted, is no longer fit to serve the purpose of respiration. Mayow seldom hazards an opinion without the rigid test of experiment, and here he adduces one in proof of his doctrine.

(c) If the lungs of a dog be inflated by a pair of bellows, in such a manner that the air may pass through perforations made in them, which is immediately to be supplied by the bellows, lest the lungs should collapse; in this case, I say, the dog will live. Yet when the lungs are kept in this constant state of inflation, no shaking or agitation of the blood can take place; and we know too, that if the motion of the lungs be entirely sup-

pressed, the blood will, nevertheless, pass to the left ventricles. Again, if after a full inspiration, the mouth and nostrils be stopt, although the lungs remain inflated, the animal must die, because it cannot make an expiration; and yet, in this case, the blood has a passage through the lungs, equally as free as in the former; nor can it be said, that in the first instance, there was a greater breaking down of the blood, since in each experiment the lungs were equally distended, a decided proof, that respiration is not so necessary, either to the passage of the blood through the lungs, nor to break it down, since, in the first case, the animal lives, but in the last it dies, because in that there was an occasional supply of fresh air, but in this there was none.* No other conclusion could be drawn from these experiments and observations, than that which Mayow made; the inferences were perfectly just, and warranted the opinion founded upon

* An experiment, nearly similar, has been made, by a celebrated modern physiologist, whose death science must regret, to confirm an opinion he had formed, with respect to the cause of death in drowning.—Hunter, p. 118. See also Hales, Vol. I. 253.

upon them. Having thus proved, that respiration is not intended to break down the blood, nor to pass it through the lungs, but that this function is intended to transmit air into the lungs, let us next inquire, says Mayow, what that aerial supply is, which is so absolutely necessary to the support of life, that we cannot exist one moment of time without it; and this he determines to be the fire-air particles. Here again, another difficulty presented itself, which he was determined to solve, *viz.* since the fire-air particles are so necessary to existence, what purpose do they answer, after being transmitted into the mass of blood? Not content with having proved the brilliant truths we have detailed, he is restless, until he finds out, of what use the fire-air particles are to the system. After having thus introduced the nitro-aerial particles into the blood, we must next inquire, what purposes they fulfil; and indeed, it is our opinion, that the nitro-aerial particles are the principal source of life and motion in animals. This life and motion, he proves, are produced by heat evolved in the system from the fire-air particles. We shall presently see how beautifully this ob-

ervation is confirmed, and how exactly conformable Mayow's explanation is to doctrines lately promulgated.

It will be necessary, however, before we proceed any further, to say a few words on the modern doctrine of animal heat. The atmosphere, it is well known, is composed of two kinds of fluids, azot and oxygen, which are kept in the gaseous state by caloric. During respiration, or the passage of the blood from the right to the left side of the heart, a great quantity of oxygen is absorbed, rendering the venous blood arterial. Carbonic acid gas, and water, are formed during the process; hence the blood loses its hydrocarbonous impregnation, and has its capacity for caloric increased.* The oxygenated blood thus passes on
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* To do justice to Dr. Duncan, the ingenious Professor of Edinburgh, we must observe, that ever since the year 1774, he has delivered at his Lectures, a theory similar to this; but in explaining animal heat, before the new discoveries, he employed the term phlogiston, for which he has now very properly substituted the hydrocarbonous principle. The coincidence of opinion between the Professor and Mr. Seguin, may be seen, by consulting *La Médecine Eclairée*, Vol. I. p. 56.

to the different parts of the system, through the medium of the circulation. During this course, but particularly in the capillary vessels, a chemical change takes place; the oxygen unites with the other elementary principles, by which caloric is evolved, and the phenomena of animal heat produced. This, we think, cannot be effected by mere chemical affinity; it is evident, that a certain action of the vessels must take place to produce the effect, and the consequent change of caloric, from a latent to a sensible state, must arise from a peculiar power, modified by the operation of the vital principle; hence the local heat that very often occurs in different parts of the body. In fevers too, where the action of the vascular system is greatly increased and deranged, the disengaged heat is one of the most troublesome symptoms to the patient, and to lessen this evolution of caloric, by whatever means it may be effected, is a great step towards a cure; hence the good effects that have been produced by the effusion with cold water, and which are certainly not to be explained from the mere restoration of tone. It is by no means our intention to assert, that there is a power

inherent in the body, capable of producing heat, independent of the oxygen absorbed by the lungs. Something very like this is maintained by the ingenious Dr. Currie, in his valuable publication on fevers.* He says, the vibrations of the arterial system (in an experiment which he made) were unusually slow, yet animal heat was disengaged with more than four-fold rapidity.† This observation is made to refute an opinion maintained by some, *viz.* that animal heat is connected with the action of the heart and arteries. No instance, we believe, can be pointed out, where increased action of the heart and arteries is not attended with a proportional increase of the heat of the system. The reverse of the proposition, however, is not true, *viz.* if the action of the heart and arteries be diminished, it will be followed by a proportional decrease of animal heat; this is very easily explained. It is well known, that the extreme vessels have an oscillatory motion, independent of the action of the heart and larger arteries, as has been proved by Whytt and De Gorter;

* Vide p. 177.

† Appendix, p. 35.

Gorter;* the pulse is therefore no indication of the action that is going on in these capillary vessels, and it is in these, we think, that the evolution of caloric is principally produced; hence more sensible heat is indicated by the thermometer in the right than in the left ventricle of the heart.† The substances taken into the stomach, will, no doubt, vary the actual degree of heat in the system; for in proportion as these contain their component parts in a loose state of combination, so will they more readily unite with oxygen, and evolve the caloric; hence the heat produced by ardent spirits, but more evidently by æther, which has the hydrogen and carbon very loosely combined. We might carry our speculations further, did our subject admit of it;‡ but it is time to return to Mayow. (A) In order to explain his ideas of animal

* Whytt's Physiological Essays; De Gorter, De Motu Vitali.

† Coleman on Suspended Respiration, p. 42.

‡ Is it not probable, that the coldness always felt in digestion is caused by the dyspeptic state of the stomach, forming substances, which, by having a greater capacity for caloric, absorb, instead of evolving animal heat?

animal heat, our ingenious author supposes, that a vital motion, or fermentation, takes place in the blood, by the union of fire-air with the falino-sulphureous particles. Here he points out an analogy between the animal and vegetable kingdom; for as the nitro-aerial particles, which are absorbed by the soil, stir up a gentle and gradual commotion with the falino-sulphureous, upon which vegetable life depends, in like manner, the same nitro-aerial particles, being introduced into the mass of blood by respiration, and being ultimately blended with the falino-sulphureous, produce an effervescence of such a nature, as is conducive to animal life. The dark and dusky colour of venous blood, is owing to the falino-sulphureous particles;* and as fermentation in general depends upon the nitro-aerial particles, I do not hesitate to say, that the motion of the blood is derived from the same source. This opinion is confirmed, when we consider, that the blood enters the lungs
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* We wish the reader here to recollect, that the dark colour of the blood was attributed, till lately, to phlogiston, for which we have now substituted hydrogen and carbon. Vide Crawford, p. 150.

of a dark colour, but returns of a bright red, as has been proved by the ingenious Lower. Here Mayow adduces the arguments and experiments of this physiologist in confirmation of this fact, and adds, that if the surface of the blood in a cup be rendered fluid by the air, we must not wonder that that effect should be produced in the lungs, since the air, in this case, is diffused through every particle of blood, and intimately blended with it. That arterial blood contains more air than venous, is evident from the following experiment.

(E) If blood which has been kept in a cup for some time, be placed in the air-pump, small bubbles will rise from its surface by exhausting the receiver; but if arterial blood, yet warm, be placed in a similar situation, it will expand in a wonderful manner, and throw out an infinite number of bubbles. We must here observe, says Mayow, that as the nitro-aerial particles cause the fermentation of the blood, so the fermentation strikes out, and attracts the nitro-aerial particles from the air, by which the motion in the blood is again renewed; that is, the nitro-aerial spirit, mixed
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with the mass of blood in the lungs, produces in it a fermentation sufficiently strong; the greatest part, however, of these particles being secreted from the blood for purposes in the system hereafter to be mentioned, the motion of the blood returning to the lungs, on account of their deficiency, is much diminished and rendered slower: the fermentation, however, does not cease so much, but that it can be again renewed by an additional supply of fire-air particles; and thus it is, that in the animal automaton, the motion of fermentation observes one continual round. In like manner as the motion, so does the heat of the blood depend upon the union of fire-air with salino-sulphureous particles. For if any salino-sulphureous mineral, as the vitriolic marchasite, be exposed to moist air, a heat and motion will be produced by the effervescence of the fire-air with the salino-sulphureous particles. How much greater then must be the heat and motion of the blood which abound with the salino-sulphureous particles properly prepared, and with which the fire-air particles are intimately blended by the power of respiration? In confirmation, I add, that the great heat observed

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in animals, from violent motion, takes place, because respiration being very much quickened, a larger quantity of fire-air particles are thrown into the blood, by which a greater than usual heat and motion are produced: in violent exercise we cannot attribute so much heat to the friction of parts, and indeed, if any one at rest will breathe quick for awhile, he will feel a glow of warmth to pervade his whole body. How has this doctrine been thrown away, says Beddoes, upon Boerhaave and his disciples, even upon Haller, the best of them all. Notwithstanding that Mayow makes use of the word effervescence, he takes care to explain his meaning, and does not admit of that expansion in the blood to which the action of the heart was attributed, previous to the Harveian discovery. He observes, that he by no means allows, that ferment, which has been said to be present in the left ventricle, for part of the blood in the fœtus, does not enter the left side of the heart, but passes directly through the canalis arteriosus in the aorta, which would not be the case if a ferment was so necessary to the blood in the left ventricle; how much less probable then is it, that

that the pulsation of the heart depends upon a rarefaction, and expansion of the blood in its ventricles. (F) If this were the case, the heart should be considerably dilated at every pulsation, as a bladder is rendered larger by inflation; but it is evident, from dissecting living animals, that the heart contracts at its pulsation, and the blood is expelled during contraction, and by no means during dilatation. Moreover, it appears, that the motion of the heart does not depend upon the rarefaction of the blood, for hearts cut from animals are observed to pulsate, although all the blood be squeezed out of them. Indeed I know, says Mayow emphatically, from repeated experiments, that if a solution of opium or cold water be injected into the jugular vein, the motion of the heart becomes quicker, which certainly does not arise from the expansion of the blood. Whence it would appear, that the heart is a muscle, which does not differ in its action from any other muscle. The effervescence therefore which Mayow meant, as he expressly asserts, was not an expansion or rarefaction in the blood, but a motion which was communicated by the air to the blood in the
lungs

lungs, and which was continued as well in the whole vascular system as in the heart. As this vital motion in the blood depends upon the absorption of fire-air by the lungs, it was an inevitable conclusion, that from a suppression of respiration, the blood would lose those properties, by which it gave vigour and activity to the whole frame. But the blood is expelled with sufficient force from the right venticle, when it is not yet impregnated with air. Blood, therefore, with different qualities, is equally capable of motion, since we find that in one ventricle it has acquired air, and, in the other, it is devoid of it. How then does it happen, says Mayow, that death so soon takes place from suppressed respiration, since blood without air, as happens in the right ventricle, is capable of motion? He explains himself in the following manner. (G) Life consists in a distribution of the animal spirits; to supply which, it is absolutely necessary that the heart should pulsate, and that there be a continual afflux of blood to the brain; for it appears, that the motion of the muscles, and that of the heart, depends chiefly on this aerial salt. But it is necessary to observe,

that the sudden contraction of muscles is produced, by the union and mixture of two kinds of particles, the one derived from the air, by respiration, the other supplied from the mass of blood. Wherefore, when respiration is suppressed, this aerial salt, so absolutely necessary to motion, is withheld; the pulsation of the heart, and consequently the afflux of blood to the head, must be interrupted, and death ensue. That this is the use of respiration, is further confirmed, by a variety of circumstances. In the more violent exercises, we are obliged to breathe more quick and laborious; not that the blood may have a freer passage through the lungs, for we have shewn, that this can take place without their motion; but since, from the various effervescences produced in the action of muscles, a very great waste of the nitro-aerial salt is caused, so that the venous blood returns to the heart, very much impoverished and grumous (as is observed more evidently in epileptic convulsions), therefore that the impoverished blood may restore its waste, there is a necessity for quicker respiration. Besides, in the violent motions, on account of the more abundant flow of

blood,

blood, the pulsations of the heart are increased, which could not be continued, (especially as the blood is now deprived of air), without a more plentiful supply of nitro-aerial spirit: *hence we may conclude, that the chief use of respiration is, to cause and keep up the motion of the heart and muscles.* We may further add, that if after the motion of the heart has ceased, on account of suppressed respiration, air be blown through a tube, inserted in the *vena cava*, the motion of the heart will be gradually restored; whence it appears, that the air is that property, without which the motion of the heart cannot be maintained: nor is it of any consequence, by what means air is introduced into the mass of blood; whether through the lungs, or in any other way*. The doctrine which Mayow has thus laid down, is so exactly similar to the theory suggested by the late discoveries, and

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* This nice observation has been confirmed, by an experiment of ours, in which the motion of the heart was kept up, independent of respiration, oxygen being supplied to the blood, through the coats of the vessels. Needham, in the last century, restored to life a strangled dog, by inflating the thoracic duct with air.—Vide infra, P.

is so beautifully illustrated by himself, that it scarcely requires a comment. That the blood acquires a vital air in the lungs, for the purposes of animal heat, and loses it again, on its return to the right ventricle, is now, we believe, not doubted by any. That this idea impressed itself, with full force, on the mind of Mayow, we think every one will allow, after what has been delivered. So convinced, indeed, was he, of the truth of his doctrine, and so clearly did he see into the operation of his fire-air particles, that he extends their influence, to various functions in the animal frame. Although he does not seem to have distinctly understood, how substances pass from an aeriform to a condensed state, yet he saw and proved, the absorption of fire-air, by the blood, in the lungs.

One apparently great objection to his doctrine, however, still remained to be refuted, which was, that the fœtus in utero, and chick in ovo, lived, were nourished, and acquired growth, without the function of respiration. In the explanation of this seeming contradiction, we shall see Mayow pursuing one uniform and systematic plan, and applying his doctrine, in a most beautiful manner.

manner. The most obvious, and therefore the most commonly received opinion, with respect to the use of the vessels, was, that they were formed, for the sole purpose of conveying nourishment from the mother to the child. Mayow denies, that this can be the sole object of their formation; and refutes a variety of other opinions, brought forward on the subject. ^(H) Wherefore, since the functions, which have been assigned to the umbilical arteries, do not seem to be consistent with the truth, we may be allowed to conclude, with the divine old man, Hippocrates, that the umbilical vessels supply the office of respiration to the fœtus, which is also the opinion of the learned Everard*. We may, therefore, conclude, that the fœtal blood, conveyed through the umbilical arteries to the placenta, not only carries along with it a nutritious juice, but also a supply of nitro-aerial particles to the fœtus; whence the

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blood

* Although Mayow thus agrees with the premises of Everard, he does not assent to his conclusion, which is, that the circuit of the blood, through the long and tortuous course of the umbilical vessels, is intended to cool it.

blood of the foetus, by circulating through the umbilical vessels, becomes impregnated with nitro-aerial particles, in the same manner as in the lungs. We must, therefore, no longer denominate the placenta, the liver, but the lungs of the uterus.

That blood is only of use, in proportion as it is impregnated with fire-air, is a fact which evidently arrested the attention of Mayow. He saw, that respiration was quickened in violent motion, for the purpose of supplying that which was expended in the different functions ; hence he concluded, that the foetus must derive this aerial supply from some source. ⁽¹⁾ Indeed it is very probable, says Mayow, that if arterial blood, which is impregnated with the nitro-aerial spirit, could be conveyed to the heart, instead of venous, there would be no occasion for respiration. In confirmation of this, he mentions a very curious and remarkable experiment, which, if justly appreciated, cannot fail to convince the reader, that Mayow's ideas, with respect to the agency of fire-air in the body, are exactly similar to those of the moderns. ^(K) Whilst arterial blood is transfused

fused from one dog into another, although the dog, into whom the blood is injected, is panting and breathing deeply, yet upon receiving the arterial blood into his veins, he scarcely seems to breathe. The animal having received, says the ingenious Beddoes, from an unusual source, the substance which is probably expended in muscular action, it was, therefore, not necessary to inhale it rapidly.

The discovery made by Mayow, that fire-air is absolutely necessary to the foetal œconomy, and the source from whence it is derived, have now, we believe, no opponents. This function of the umbilical vessels, Mayow extended to the chick in ovo. It is our opinion, he says, that the chick breathes through the umbilical vessels, in a similar manner as the foetus in utero. If it should be objected, that the air contained in the liquors of the egg, is not sufficient to supply respiration, during the whole time of incubation, I answer, that the air contained in the egg is not common air, but that aerial matter, selected from the common air, by the power of respiration. Besides, the foetus in utero and ovo, have occasion for only a small quantity of nitro-aerial particles, because the foetus, in either case, has no motion,

except that of the heart; therefore a small supply of nitro-aerial particles, from the arterial blood of the mother, and the liquors of the egg, is abundantly sufficient for the purpose. The gentle warmth, too, excited in the egg by incubation, supplies the place of nitro-aerial particles, upon which depends the heat of the system: for as the nitro-aerial particles enter the earth, and effervesce with the salino-sulphureous, from which are derived the respiration and life of vegetables; and as the same particles, mixed with the blood in the lungs, cause a motion necessary to animal life; so being blended with the liquors of the egg, by the influence of the gentle warmth, they induce a vital fermentation, and animal motion in them, and supply the place of respiration. We are at a loss, which most to admire, the beautiful facts Mayow discovered, or his close and acute reasoning upon them. Nothing can be more consistent, than the manner in which, he says, fire-air is supplied to the foetus in utero and ovo; and the reason he gives, for the foetal state not requiring so much fire-air, is admirably explained by him, as the reader will see in the section on muscular motion.

S E C T. VII.

OPINIONS of AUTHORS, *contemporary with*

MAYOW, *concerning* RESPIRATION.

About the time, that the ingenious Mayow gave to the world his ideas of respiration, two treatises were published, on the same subject; the one by Swammerdam, the other by Thruston. It was the opinion of Swammerdam, that something was mixed with the blood, during respiration, and which was necessary to its perfection; and also, as the blood pass through the lungs, vapours were thrown off, as noxious to the system. He asks himself the question, Of what use is respiration to life? and he answers, that it is of utility to the heart, and that, for the sake of the preservation of life, which we think consists in the final perfection of the blood, in the left ventricle of the heart. He maintained, that the more subtile part of the air was absorbed; and by his expres-

sions seems to think, that the vapours which are exhaled, make room for the absorbed air. He held, nevertheless, the common opinion of the times, that the inspired air was intended to cool and condense the blood, become heated and rarefied by fermentation, in the right ventricle. He mentions, however, that the heart is stimulated to action, and nourished, by the fine part of the air, taken in during respiration. Much confusion and perplexity of ideas pervade the whole of his treatise; and he seems occasionally at a loss, to find terms to convey to the mind of the reader, his notions of the effect of air on the blood, resulting, no doubt, from a want of experiment, by which alone, a knowledge of this kind is to be acquired. He relates, however, a curious experiment, which he made. A long flexible tube was fixed in an opening, made in the trachæa of a dog: the animal was then immersed in water, and he lived for a considerable time, by breathing through this tube, the upper extremity of which rose above the water, on the surface of which, the respiration of the dog produced a beautiful undulation.

In Thrufton's publication, we find ideas very similar to those we at present entertain, with respect to the use of respiration.* He seemed to be aware of the great connection between air and life, and of the dependence of the one upon the other, and quotes, in confirmation of this, the passage in Genesis, ' He breathed into his nostrils the breath of life.' In order to shew in what manner

* I cannot avoid remarking, as very singular, that in every work I have consulted, published in the time of Mayow, no notice is taken of him. Thrufton's work was originally a thesis, which he wrote for his degree at Cambridge. It is a custom in the Universities of Cambridge and Oxford, for the candidates to write a paper, on a medical subject, in which they are questioned by the Professors, in the presence of a numerous audience. Thrufton's thesis was first made known, when he took his degree, in 1664. Anno enim 1664, Cantabrigiæ in scholis medicis circumfusa, virorum doctissimorum et juventutis florentissimæ, frequenti corona comparuit. Mayow's treatise was published about four years after, viz. in 1668; but Thrufton's was not delivered to the public, for several years after he took his degree: yet he makes no mention of Mayow, notwithstanding he maintains, that respiration is to warm the blood; an opinion first proved by Mayow, in his beautiful experiments, and in opposition to the prevailing theories of the times.

manner respiration is so necessary to animals, he first considers motion as absolutely indispensable to the blood, while it is possessed of vitality. He brings forward the arguments of Harvey, for the circulation; and maintains, that the cause of it is heat, derived from the air absorbed by the blood in the lungs. He makes some observations upon the nature of air, which, he says, possesses nitrous particles, for which he refers us to Gassendi, Ent, and Digby. It is very probable, says Thruston, that as the more pure, more subtile, and more penetrating part, is absorbed by the lungs, and is there, as it were, lost, so the expired air, becoming replete and vitiated with the exhalations, and deprived of its better part, is, in some degree, rendered effete and useless: moreover, I believe, it loses, very considerably, its elasticity, being, in a great measure, deprived of its more active matter. How similar, with some exception, is this, to the reasoning of Mayow. Were the experiments of Mayow, before publication, noised abroad, so as to suggest these ideas to Thruston; or did opinions, like these, beginning to prevail at that time, from observation, rouse the genius

of Mayow, to institute experiments to confirm the truth of them? Certain it is, that at this period, immediately, after Charles was restored to the crown, the genius of medical men began to enquire, more minutely, into the secrets of nature. Harvey had but just immortalized his name, by the discovery of the circulation; Sydenham was in all the glory of his medical career; and the different branches of medical science were enriched, by the elegant publications of Willis, Gliffon, Mayow, und innumerable others. When this noble, but alas! much abused profession, was adorned by such able supporters, every attention would be paid to the phænomena of the animal œconomy, and every theory would be brought forward, that industry could examine, and abilities explain; and it appears, that a history of the state of physic, during the last century, would afford an interesting account to the medical reader.—

But to return.

The intromission of air, into the blood, by the lungs, according to Thruston, was necessary to its fluidity and heat. ^(M) The particles of the air, being mixed with the blood, conduce not
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only to its fluidity, but also to the preservation of its heat. The heat is owing to the nitrous particles of the air, which, he says, he could easily prove, by a variety of experiments, unless he studied brevity; and to explain its *modus operandi*, in producing animal heat, he has recourse to fermentation. It was observed, too, by him, that the blood acquired its florid colour, by its union with air; whence it is rendered more fit for the functions of the circulation. His theory had been taken notice of by some, without mentioning his name; and he adds, it is with peculiar pleasure I find, that the experiments of Lower confirm my ideas. ^(N) It is our opinion, that this is the peculiar office of the lungs, *viz.* to transmit air into the blood, by which it acquires a red and florid colour; whence it happens, that it becomes not only more florid, but more fluid; and the more fluid it is, the more easily will it be fitted for the functions of the circulation. Those two celebrated philosophers, Hook and Lower, seem to have placed this matter beyond a doubt, by a very ingenious experiment. And I do not a little rejoice, and return them my hearty thanks, that they

they have produced a complete confirmation of my theory, which has been publicly attacked by several, without mentioning my name. It was an opinion, held by medical men, for some time after the discovery of the circulation, and till the nature of respiration became better understood, that sanguification was performed by the heart alone. This is entirely rejected by Thruston: the office of the heart, he says, is to circulate and distribute the blood, through all parts of the body, and with it, the vital heat. If we at all consider the nature of sanguification, and examine into the effects produced in the blood, we shall not fail to attribute them to the lungs. No phenomena in the system, since the late discoveries in chemistry, have excited greater attention, than the suspension of respiration, in drowning, hanging, and suffocation. It is generally believed, that the cause of death, in these cases, has been but lately discovered. Various have been the conjectures offered, and as various the publications. It is evident, that unless medical men had a true idea of the function of respiration, no adequate explanation could be given, of the
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cause of death, in hanging, drowning, and suffocation.

Among the writers who have adorned physiology, by their publications on this subject, that of the ingenious Mr. Coleman seems to have been conducted with most accuracy.* This gentleman has shewn, that irritability is more or less connected with animal heat, which the blood acquires in its passage through the lungs; that the difference of irritability in the two ventricles, is owing, in drowning, hanging, &c. to the blood having lost its heat, in consequence of not undergoing the necessary change in the collapsed lungs. It is most assuredly true, that the blood in the right ventricle, during suspended respiration, must possess more heat, than when it arrives at the left; because it has traversed through the lungs, where it must have lost a considerable quantity, to support the life of those organs. The proximate cause of death, in the case of drowning, &c. according

* To do justice, however, to Dr. Fothergill, of Bath, we must say, that from some accidental circumstances, we have not read his work on this subject; it is a pleasure we promise ourselves very shortly.

according to Mr. Coleman, is a want of latent heat in the blood, with obstruction in the pulmonary vessels, from the collapsed lungs. It appears to me, that want of the latent heat alone, is the proximate cause. I regard the want of latent heat, as an effect produced by the collapsed lungs. Mayow, and others, have long ago shewn, that fluids can pass from the anterior to the posterior cavities of the heart, when the lungs are collapsed. The only intention of nature, in distending the lungs, during respiration, is, that more points of contact may take place, between the blood and atmospheric air, for the absorption of oxygen; and were it possible, that the same quantity of oxygen could be absorbed by the lungs, when they are collapsed, as in the other case, I have no doubt, that there would be no occasion for the alternate contraction and dilation of the thorax. I speak abstractedly of respiration, for every one allows the utility of pressure, &c. in respiration, producing considerable effects, in promoting the flow of the fluids of the body.

The same idea, with respect to the cause of death, in drowning, &c. presented itself to the
ingenious

ingenious Thrufton; and probably Mr. Coleman will be furprifed to find his theories and experiments, in part, anticipated, as far back as the year 1664. It occurred to Thrufton, that the death produced by hanging, drowning, and fuffocation, arofe from one and the fame caufe. Many and various experiments had fully proved, that in thefe cafes, air was prevented from uniting with the blood; hence its motion was ftopped, and life deftroyed. He had obferved, that the anterior cavity was always greatly diftended with blood; for from the fufpention of refpiration, there was nothing which could convey that principle to the blood, by which it acquired its heat, fluidity, and vitality. (°) Having premifed thus much, fays Thrufton, it is fcarcely neceffary to enquire, why animals die fo quickly, in hanging, drowning, and fuffocation: we muft repeat, that air being withheld from the blood, its motion ceafes, and life is deftroyed. That this is the cafe, is proved by a variety of obfervations and experiments. Harvey fays, that in a body juft hanged, he found the right auricle and lungs
 very

very much distended and infarcted with blood*. Respiration ceasing, there was nothing which could propel the blood into the left ventricle; nothing which could properly blend it together, and communicate to it vitality, fluidity and heat. Experiments were instituted, to shew how necessary the presence of air is to the vitality and motion of the blood. Hook had, before this, exhibited to the Royal Society, the experiment of affording and with-holding life, by the motion of a bellows in the trachea of a dog; and Professor Croon, at London, before the President and Fellows of the College of Physicians, restored to life a strangled fowl, by blowing air into its lungs. Dr. Needham too, at Oxford, in the presence of Boyle and others, recovered a dog, which had been hanged, by inflating the thoracic duct with air. (P) The *inspired* air, observes Thruston, united with the blood, and promoted its fluidity, by which means it restored the circulation, which had stagnated in the right ventricle, and in the lungs. He adds, that bleeding is often found of

H

use,

* Epist. ad Riolanum.

use, in cases of hanging, &c. and it could only produce its good effects, by relieving the right ventricle and lungs of their load of blood; hence the great use of that remedy, in some cases of difficult respiration. The remarks which Thruston has made on this subject, are very judicious; and the coincidence, which had taken place, between his observations, and those of Mr. Coleman, is curious and worthy of notice. The heart has been found, says this gentleman, to be loaded. If, therefore, from the right side of the heart, while thus in a state of violent plethora, a small quantity of blood could be taken, experiment and observation tell, that its power and actions would be instantly re-invigorated*.

Although it had been asserted and proved, by many, that the presence of air, was absolutely necessary to the life of animals, yet several very able men denied, altogether, its union with the blood in the lungs†. It was urged, that no experiments had decidedly proved it; that the same
pores

* P. 163-4.

† Harvey, Highmore, Diemerbroeck, &c.

pores which gave entrance to the air, would suffer the blood to escape. Willis, however, imagined, that the air got access to the blood, immediately before it passed from the artery into the vein, when it is changed from a dark to a florid colour*. They did not know, that air could unite with blood, through a medium as dense as a bladder. Experiments had not been made to prove the absorption of air by the blood, when Harvey and Highmore denied it; and, had Thruston attended to the experiments of Mayow, he would have been able to have urged more powerful arguments, in favour of the absorption of air. Lower too, soon after, as we shall presently see, incontestibly proved, by his experiments on animals, the union of air with the blood in the lungs.

H 2 Notwithstanding,

* Pharmaceut. Rat. P. 17. By the way, we may observe, that this ingenious physician maintains, that the use of respiration is to give vitality to the blood, by its union with air. He takes notice of the difference between arterial and venous blood; and says, that the blood, in passing through the lungs, to the pulmonary vein, is animated by the air; and adds, that this vein is exactly similar to an artery, and that you may inject it from trunk to branch.

Notwithstanding, however, that Mayow's experiments had decided, beyond the shadow of the doubt, that atmospheric air is composed of two kinds of air, the one the preserver, the other the destroyer of animal life; and Lower had clearly shewn, by additional experiments, its absorption by the lungs; yet we find an ingenious anatomist denying its union with the blood; so much does prejudice pervert the judgment. How air could be brought from the elastic, to the unelastic state, was a difficulty, which could not be solved by the philosophers of the last century; and they did not attempt to explain it; because they never imagined such a change. From different facts and observations, they could understand, how air might *mix* with the blood in the lungs; but beyond this, they could not extend their ideas, as the powerful and necessary aid of experiment was wanting. They saw the fœtus in utero, living and growing without respiration; they observed, that all the blood did not pass through the fœtal lungs, and that nature, to supply this defect, had formed other channels, to transmit the blood from the right to the left side of the heart, *viz.*

the

the foramen ovale, and canalis arteriosus. Hence they concluded, that as air could not arrive at the fœtus, and that as the temporary channels were obliterated in the adult, respiration was of no other use, than to circulate the blood through the lungs. It was thus imagined, that the most powerful argument against the absorption of air by the lungs, was the event of respiration in the fœtus in utero. (Q) If air be so necessary to the adult, why should the fœtus be deprived of that privilege? But in the fœtus, no union of air can take place, because it cannot breath in the uterus; yet in it, equally good and fine blood is prepared as in the adult who breathes.

Of this objection, Thruston was aware; and although he mentions that the mutual heat and umbilical vessels supply the place of the lungs and respiration, yet he seems to lay hold of the idea, lest he should be obliged to give up his theory, of the absorption of air by the lungs, and not as if he understood the nature and office of the placenta. Had Diemerbroeck, with his usual penetration, attended to the experiments and observations of Mayow and Lower, how soon would he have been

convinced of his error? He would there have seen, that the placenta supplied the place of the lungs and respiration, by oxygenating the fœtus with the maternal blood. He only mentions Mayow once, and then in such a manner as if he did not at all understand the sublime truths he had discovered. Maurocordatus had published at Constantinople ‘*De Motu et usu Pulmonum,*’ in which he denied, that respiration was of any use, except to transmit the blood from the right to the left cavities of the heart. This opinion, says Diemerbroeck, John Mayow has refuted by a celebrated experiment. The experiment, I suppose, for he does not quote it, of injecting a fluid into the pulmonary artery, and finding it in the left ventricle.

The difference between the colour of arterial and venous blood, formed a no less subject for speculation, than the function of respiration. Hippocrates knew nothing of the distinction between artery and vein, and confounded both under the name of $\phi\lambda\epsilon\psi$. Erasistratus, who had been invited by the Ptolemies into Ægypt, where he made some dissections, was the first who distinguished

guished veins from arteries, which he called smooth, in contradistinction to the aspera arteria. He imagined, however, that they contained air. Galen next asserted, that arteries were not air vessels, which he discovered by the obvious experiment, of passing ligatures round the vessels. He observed, that arterial blood was differently coloured from that of the veins, which, he said, was owing to the air, which mixed with it in the arteria venosa. He imagined, however, that it united with the air, by passing through the septum cordis. Columbus maintained, that the blood was mixed with air, in its passage through the lungs; and this was, also, the doctrine of Servetus, which he published in his book ‘De Restitutione Christianismi.’ These observations, however, that blood acquired its colour from the air, were made without actual experiment, and was a mere theoretical opinion. Neither was it adopted by physiologists in general: and the doctrine which obtained the most credit among medical men was, that the colour of the blood was owing to the heat it acquired in the heart; little imagining, that both the heat and colour are originally owing

to one and the same cause. The obvious experiment of observing the blood in the pulmonary artery and vein, had not *directly* occurred to any one, till the middle of the seventeenth century. The doctrines which began to prevail at this time, respecting the laws of the animal œconomy, bear a striking analogy to those which are at present adopted. It was an age, indeed, remarkable for accuracy of observation and elucidation of facts. Certain it is, that at this period, opinions, supposed to be modern, were whispered in literary circles, and suggested experiments, upon which to build the foundation of rational systems. The prejudices of mankind, and a superstitious veneration for the dead, were now considerably obliterated, by the diffusion of knowledge. The necessity of the study of anatomy, was perceived by men not connected with the profession, and whose minds had been emancipated from the shackles of prejudice, by a liberal education: hence dissections became more frequent; and in proportion as these prevailed, discoveries were made, which refuted or confirmed the theoretical opinions of their predecessors.

Among

Among those who by their industry and attention, acquired and merited their medical celebrity, was the ingenious Lower. This physician, by his accurate and well conducted experiments, convinced the unprejudiced mind, at once, that the change produced in the blood, was owing to the absorption of air. We are by no means, to imagine, that the blood derives its colour from the heat which it acquires in the heart. This opinion is sufficiently refuted, by observing, that the colour is different in each ventricle; and since their functions are similar, why should not the change take place, equally in one as in the other? for every one will allow, that blood, drawn from the pulmonary artery, is venous, in every respect.

(R) Experimental enquiry clearly proves to us, that the new redness is not acquired in the left ventricle; for if we insert a cork into the divided trachea of an animal, and draw blood from the cervical artery, immediately upon suffocation, it will be completely venous, in every respect, as if it had flowed from an opened jugular. However, that no room might be left for doubt upon the subject, the following experiment was made on a dog, deprived

deprived of all sensation and motion by suffocation, to prove the effect of air upon the blood, in its passage through the lungs. (S) The lungs, which were perforated, were inflated by air blown into them; the event answered expectation completely; for the blood was received into a cup (from the pulmonary vein) equally as florid, as if it had been taken from the artery of a living animal.*

(T) The experiments which prove, that the blood acquires its red colour from aerial particles, is confirmed by the common observation, that the surface of venous blood becomes florid, when received into a cup, by being in contact with air. If this be removed by a knife, the next stratum will acquire the same colour, from a similar cause. It is, therefore, very evident, that the bright red colour of the blood, is owing to the particles of air insinuating themselves into it; the whole mass is rendered florid in the lungs, because in them, the

* The lungs were perforated, that they might be constantly distended, and that the air might have free egress. Lower uses the terms *floridus*, *purpureus*, *rutilus*, & *coccineus*, indiscriminately.

the air being diffused through all the particles of the blood, is intimately blended with it; and if blood be kept constantly agitated, as it flows from a vein, it will become florid throughout. If you ask, says Lower, in what manner the nitrous spirit of the air passes into the blood, do you shew me, by what pores the same nitrous spirit of snow, passes through vessels and cools fluids*. (V) We may, therefore, rationally conclude, that the blood, in its passage through the lungs, absorbs air, to which its red colour is altogether owing; afterwards, however, when the air has escaped from the blood, into the *structure of the system and parenchyma of the viscera*, and has transpired through the pores of the body, it is perfectly agreeable with reason to say, that the venous blood, being deprived of it, appears, on that account, more dusky and black. Can any reasoning be more close or more accurately applied? or where shall we find induction, from experiment, better understood, or more clearly perceived? It is, however, remarkable, and rather singular, that Lower no
where

* This was a branch of the atomical philosophy, which considered frigorific particles as the cause of congelation.

where mentions his ideas, with respect to the *use* of the inspired air. He contents himself with a simple relation of facts, and probably did not wish to hazard his reputation upon theory, particularly as there appears to have been a jealousy entertained against Mayow, for the new doctrines which he had so boldly and so confidently asserted. It appears extraordinary, that Lower should not have quoted Mayow's experiments and observations, in confirmation of his own opinion, that the blood lost the florid colour it acquired in the lungs, in consequence of the air being disengaged from it in the system, particularly too, when that opinion was very much doubted by physiologists of the first respectability.* Lower, however, throws out some observations upon the subject, which had long before partly occurred to medical men. (W) From observing the effects produced upon the blood, during respiration, we may easily conjecture,

* Lower's Treatise on the Heart was published several years before Mayow wrote; but the fourth edition of the *Tractatus de Corde* came out above six years after Mayow gave to the world his *Experiments and Observations on Respiration*.

conjecture, how much the health of the blood depends upon its union with the air, and of what consequence it is to respire it pure; and how greatly they are in the wrong, who deny this intercourse between the air and blood, without which it would be equally as possible to enjoy health in the filth of a prison, as in the pleasantness of country air. He adds this remarkable observation, which shews how gradually knowledge was stealing upon the mind,—for wherever a fire burns freely, there also we breathe with most ease. Little did Lower imagine, how intimately connected this observation was with the admirable experiments of the neglected Mayow, and how beautifully illustrated by them. Nothing can afford a more pleasing amusement to the rational mind, than to observe the growth of knowledge, in succeeding generations: and little praise is due to that man, whose mind would not grow warm from the contemplation of science, or whose enthusiasm would not encrease, from discovering the beauties of an author. Surely the mind must be deeply interested, when she observes the gradual display which genius makes in the advancement of knowledge;

ledge; and when she beholds the efforts of aspiring abilities stumbling upon truth, but again falling from it, for the want of experiment.

(A) Τοσαύτη δε τυγχανέει πάσι χρεῖη τοῖσι σώμασι τῆ πνευματος ἔξσα, ὥστε των μεν ἄλλων ἀπαντων ἀπεχομενος ὁ ἀνθρώπος, καὶ σιτίων καὶ ποτῶν, δύναται ἅν ἡμέρας δυο καὶ τρεῖς καὶ πλείονας διάχειν : ἦν δέ τις ἐπιλάβοι τὰς τῆ πνεύματος εἰς τὸ σῶμα διεξόδους, ἐν βραχῆι μέρει ἡμέρης, ἀπόλλοιτο ἅν, ὡς μετῆς χρεῖης εἰσῆς τῷ σώματι τῆ πνεύματος. De Flatibus.

(B) Imo certe constat, posse sanguinem, sine ipforum motu pulmones pertransire: etenim si sanguis, aut liquor quivis alius, ope syringæ, in arteriam pulmonalem animalis mortui injiciatur, idem in finistrum cordis ventriculum promptè fatis permeabit. Et utique quisque in se experiri potest, quanquam suppressâ ad tempus respiratione, pulsus tamen arteriarum in carpis fatis validum esse, quod vero non contingeret, nisi sanguis, per pulmones, ad finistrum cordis ventriculum, tunc temporis transiret. P. 298.

(C) Nempe si ope follium asperæ arteriæ adaptatorum,

adaptatorum, animalis cujusvis, veluti canis, insufflentur pulmones, ita tamen ut per foramina in eorum extremitatibus hinc inde facta, etiam exeat aliquid aeris, qui iterum per folles supplendus est, ne pulmones concidant, in hoc casu vivet animal. Et tamen in pulmonibus incontinenter inflatis, istius modi, sanguinis conquassatio locum habere nequit; quin et pulmonum motu prorsus cessante, sanguis, nihillominus, per eosdem, ad sinistrum cordis ventriculum transmittitur. Sin autem alias, inspiratione institutâ, spirituque in pulmones hausto, os et naris alicui obturentur, quamvis inflati maneant pulmones, mori tamen necesse erit, quia non licet expirare. Et tamen, in hoc casu, æque patet sanguini transitus per pulmones, ac in priore, neque enim in illo, major esse potest sanguinis comminutio, cum in utroque casu, pulmones se pariter distentos habeant; certo utique argumento, neque ad sanguinis transitum per pulmones, neque ad conquassationem, adeo necessariam esse respirationem; ideo autem in priore casu vivit animal, in posteriore tamen moritur; quia in illo novus est subinde aeris recentis accessus, in hoc vero nullus. P. 299-300.

(D) Nimirum

(D) Nimirum quemadmodum particulæ nitro-aeræ, terræ spiracula lente subeuntes, ibidem cum particulis salino-sulphureis, iis verò immaturis, æstu obscuro congregantes, a quo vegetabilium vita dependet; ita particulæ eadem nitro-aeræ, magis confertim in cruoris massam pulmonum ministerio introductæ, particulisque ejus salino-sulphureis, ad justum rigorem evectis, quoad minima admixtæ, fermentationem satis insignem qualis sc. ad vitam animaleam requisita est, efficiunt. P. 47. Cruoris massa a particulis salino-sulphureis, ad justam volatilitatem evectis, conflatur, unde fit quod ei color atro-purpureus suppetat. Enimvero fermentationes rerum naturalium fere quascumque, a particularum nitro-aerearum motu procedere, et utique sanguinis æstum ab eadem causâ provenire nullatenus dubito. P. 148.

(E) Si sanguis in vase aliquandui fervatus, in vitrum collocetur, ex quo aer per antliam aeream exhauritur, sanguis iste in superficie, quâ idem colorem floridum obtinuit, leniter efferveschet et in bullulas affurget. Sin autem sanguis arteriosus adhuc incalescens, in loco aere vacuo
positus

positus fuerit, idem mirum in modum expandetur et in bullulas pene infinitas elevabitur. P. 149. Annotandum est hic loci quod sicut particulæ nitro-aeræ sanguinis fermentationem efficiunt, ita fermentatio ista particulas nitro-aereas alias, ex aere excutit, elicitque, a quibus æstus in sanguine de novo instauratur. Nimirum spiritus nitro-aerei sanguinis massæ in pulmonibus immixti, effervescentiam satis intensam in eâdem excitant; iidem vero mox in corporis habitu maxima ex parte a sanguine in usus infra dicendos fecernuntur; ita ut æstus cruoris ad pulmones reversi, ob eorundem defectum multum imminutus et remissius fiat; neque tamen fermentatio adeo penitus cessat, quin eadem particulis nitro-aereis ex aere pro sui renovatione eliciendis valet. Atque ita demum in automato animali motus fermentationis perennatur. P. 150-1. Quemadmodum sanguinis fermentationem, ita etiam illius incalescentiam a particulis nitro-aereis cum particulis cruoris salino-sulphureis exæstuantibus, oriri existimo. Etenim si minera quævis salino-sulphurea, cujusmodi sunt marchasitæ vitriolicæ aeri humido exponantur, eâdem brevi æstum caloremque intensum concipient;

cipient; in quantum sc. particulæ aeræ cum
 particulis mineræ salino-sulphureis congressæ, ef-
 fervescentiam insignem excitant. P. 151. Quanto
 ergo major sanguinis æstus fervorque erit, qui
 particulis salino-sulphureis, rite evectis abundet
 et quibus particulæ aeræ confertim et quoad
 minima, pulmonum ministerio admiscentur? Qui-
 bus insuper addo, calorem istum adeo intensum,
 quo animalia in motum violentum concita affi-
 ciuntur, ex eo partim provenire, quod in moti-
 bus violentis respirationem magnopere intendi
 necesse sit; unde fit, ut particulæ nitro-aeræ ma-
 jori copia in sanguinem introductæ, effervescentiam,
 caloremque solito majorem efficiant: neque enim
 in motibus maxime violentis membrorum attritio
 tanta est, quæ calorem adeo fervidum excitare
 possit. Imo si quis etiam in quiete aliquantisper
 intensius respiraverit, idem se calore, solito majore,
 mox suffusum esse sentiet. P. 152.

(F) Etenim si cordis pulsatio a sanguine in
 sinibus ejus exæstuante perficeretur, tunc pul-
 sante corde, illius ventriculi a sanguine isto maxime
 dilatarentur; haud aliter quam vesica in figuram
 maxime capacem inflatur. At vero ex vivi sec-
 tionibus

tionibus constat, cordis ventriculos in pulsu suo contrahi et non a sanguine rarefacto sive exploso dilatari, item sanguinem e corde se contrahente, non vero resoluto, profilire. P. 302. Et ulterius adhuc constat motum cordis a sanguine rarefacto non fieri, quippe corda nonnumquam exacta, quanquam expresso ex ventriculis eorum sanguine, nihilominus pulsare observantur. Enimvero si opii dissolutio, aut aqua frigida per venam jugularem injiciantur, cordis motus statim crebrior erit, ut sæpe expertus sum, at hoc propter crebriorem accensionem fieri non potest. Plane ut cor nihil aliud esse videatur, quam musculus, in actione sua e cæteris parum discrepans. P. 303.

(G) Vita ni fallor, in spirituum animalium distributione consistit, quibus supplendis cordis pulsatione sanguinisque ad cerebrum affluxu omnino opus est. Enimvero verisimile est, ad quemvis musculorum motum sal hoc aereum omnino necessarium esse. P. 304. Etenim arbitrari fas sit, subitam illam musculorum contractionem a diversi generis particulis invicem commixtis procedere. Particulas nitrosalinas ex aere inspirato haustas particularum motivarum alterum genus constituere, quæ particu-

lis aliis salino-sulphureis a sanguinis massa fuggestis, effervescentiam eam excitant, a quâ muscularis contractio procedit. Quapropter suppressâ respiratione, cum sal illud aereum, ad motum quemvis requisitum, deficiat, cordis pulsationem et consequenter sanguinis ad cerebrum affluxum interrumpi, mortemque sequi necesse erit, 304-5. Et hic respirationis usus ulterius confirmari potest. Etenim in exercitiis, motibusque violentis intensiore utique, et crebriore respiratione opus est; non tam ut major sanguinis affluxus liberius per pulmones transeat; hoc enim cessante respiratione fieri posse ostendimus; sed quoniam per varias istas effervescentias, in musculorum contractione factas, maxima sit salis nitro-aerei impensa, ita ut sanguis venosus multum jam depauperatus et grumofus ad cor redeat (uti etiam post motus convulsivos in epilepsiâ factos evenire certum est) quapropter ut sanguis effætus dispendia refarciat, intensiori respiratione omnino opus est. Præterea in motibus violentis ob uberiores sanguinis affluxum, cordis pulsationem citatiorem esse necesse est, quod sine liberiore spiritus nitro-aerii accessu (præsertim sanguine effoeto jam existente)

istente) fieri vix potest. Plane ut præcipuus respirationis usus esse videatur, ut musculorum et præcipue cordis motus instituat. Et ulterius adhuc, si postquam cordis motus ob suppressam respirationem cessaverit, aer pertubulum venæ adaptatum insuffletur, motum cordi ex postliminio restitutum videatur. Ut videatur, aerem esse illud, sine quo cordis motus institui plane nequit, neque multum referre, quâ ratione, utrum per pulmones, an aliâ quâvis viâ aer in sanguinis massam trajiciatur. P. 306-7.

(H) Quocirca, cum munera arteriarum umbilicalium, quæ hactenus assignata sunt, minus propria, veraque videantur, liceat, cum divino sene Hippocrate, statuere, umbilicum embryo respirationis vicem supplere; quæ etiam doctissimi Everardi sententia est. P. 318. Statuimus, sanguinem embryi per arterias umbilicales ad placentam five carunculas uterinas delatum, non tantum succum nutritium sed una cum eodem particularum nitro-aerearum portiunculam commeatu suo ad foetum devehere; plane ut sanguis infantuli, per circulationem suam in vasis umbilicalibus factam, eodem modo ac idem in vasis pulmonalibus, par-

ticulis nitro-aereis impregnari videatur. Proinde, ut placenta non amplius jecur, sed potius pulmo-uterinus, nuncupanda sit. P. 319-21.

(I) Enimvero verisimile est, si sanguis arteriosus, qui spiritu nitro-aereo imbutus est, loco venosi ad cor accederet, nullâ omnino respiratione opus est. P. 321.

(K) Et hoc inde confirmari videtur, quod dum sanguis arteriosus ex uno cane in alterum, noto jam experimento, transmittitur, canis in quem sanguis transfertur, quanquam antea anhelus et intense respirans, sanguine tamen arterioso intus recepto vix omnino respirare videtur. P. 321.

(L) Verisimile etiam esse, puriorem, subtiliorem, magisque penetrabilem aeris partem, dum ille inspirando pulmonibus hauritur, ibidem quasi deperdi, adeoque aerem expiratum, utpote fuliginibus et vaporibus implicitum inquinatum, orbatumque potiori parte sua, vapidum quodammodo atque effœtum reddi; quinetiam (ut facile crediderim) eidem elasticitatis suæ vim magna ex parte perire, nempe mobiliori illa materia plurimum spoliato. P. 34-5*.

(M) Porro

* De Respirationis Ufu primario Diatriba. Auctore Malachia Thruston, M. D. Lugd. Batav. 1671.

(M) Porro particulæ aeris fanguini commixtæ, non ad fluiditatem solum, verum etiam ad colorem ejus conservandum non parum valent. P. 52.

(N) Tandem hoc pulmoni proprium ac peculiare esse volumus. Quod intromissis particulis aeris, colore coccineo, rutiloque sanguinem donet; unde non floridior tantum, sed etiam fluidior ut fit, necesse est; quo autem fluidior est, eo facilius circuitu etiam suo defungitur. Celeberrimus Hookius et Lowerus, jam aliquoties laudatus, nobilissimo experimento, rem hanc difficillimam confecisse videntur, nec sinunt nos diutius de eadem dubitare. Ego vero non parum lætor, illisque gratias ago quod theoriæ meæ (a nonnullis publice sed suppresso meo nomine impugnatæ) rem ipsam testem dederint. P. 128-9.

(O) Hoc præmissis, non opus erit ut quæramus, cur strangulati tam subito morte pereant, five illi suspendantur laqueo, five aquâ submergantur, five catarrhis suffocentur? repetendum enim est, aeris usu interdictis sanguinem a motu cessare, proindeque et vitam tolli. Atque hanc rationem veram esse, multæ variæque observationes, et experi-

menta, testantur. Harveius (in Epist. ad Riolanum) se in cadavere humano, noviter strangulato, auriculam cordis dextram et pulmones sanguine plurimum distentos, atque infarctos reperisse testatur. Nempe cessante respiratione, nihil erat, quod sanguinem e pulmonibus in sinistrum cordis propelleret, nihil quod fluidum fatis, calidumque, ac spirituosum, adeoque rite commixtum et rutilum præstaret. P. 61-2.

(P) Nimirum inspiratus aer et sanguini commiscebatur, ejusque fluiditatem promovebat, ac totum ejus flumen, quod jam in dextro cordis ventriculo, atque in pulmonibus stagnarat, forti impulsu ad progressum et circulationem sollicitabat. P. 63-4.

(Q) At in fœtu nihil aeris admisceri potest, cum in utero non respiret; et tamen in eo, non minus bonus ac spirituosus sanguis conficitur, in quam homine nato et respirante. P. 455*.

(R) Quinimo nec a sinistro cordis ventriculo, novum hunc ruborem sanguini impertiri, certissimo hoc experimento confici potest; si nimirum
aspera

* Iibrandi De Diemberbroeck Medicinæ et Anatomies Professoris Anatome Corporis Humani. Genevæ. 1679.

aspera arteria in collo nudata discindatur, et immisso subere arctè desuper ligetur, ne quid aeris in pulmones ingrediatur, sanguis ex arteria cervicali simul discissâ effluens (saltem qui aliquandiu post præfocatum pulmonem erumpit) totus venosus pariter, et atrii coloris apparebit, non aliter quam si vena jugulari pertusa profusus fuisset. Hoc ego sæpius expertus sum. P. 119*.

(S) Itaque propulso sanguine atque insufflatis simul, necnon perforatis pulmonibus; expectationi eventus optime respondebat; quippe æque purpureus in patinam excipiebatur, ac si ex arteria viventis effusus fuisset. P. 119.

(T) Præterea colorem hunc rutilum particulis aeris sese in sanguinem insinuantibus omnino deberi, ex eo satis perspicuum est; quod sicut in pulmonibus per totum floridus redditur, quia in illis aer per omnes sanguinis particulas diffusus, cum ipso intimius permiscetur, ita sanguinis venosi in vase excepti superficies, et pars summa, quatenus

* Tractatus de Corde, item de Motu et Colore Sanguinis et Chyli in eum transitu. Authore Ricardo Lower, M. D. Coll. Med. Lond. Socio. Editio quarta. Londini, 1680.

quatenus aeri expofita fit, coccineum quoque colorem acquirit ; quæ fi cultello auferatur, proxima quæ subjacet a fimili aeris contactu, in eundem brevi mutabitur. P. 121.

(V) Quare fanguinem in fuo per pulmones tranfitu aerem haurire, ejuſque admixtioni floridum fuum colorem omnino debere, maxime verifimile eſt ; poſtquam autem in habitu corporis et viſcerum parenchymatis aer rurfus a fanguine magnâ ex parte avolavit, atque per poros corporis tranſpiravit, fanguinem venoſum illo privatum obſcuriorem et nigriorem illico apparere, rationi pariter conſentaneum eſt. P. 122.

(W) Ex quo conjicere facilè eſt, quantum fanguini beneficium ab admixto aere accedat, quantumque interſit, eum ſalubrem ſemper et ferenum haurire ; quantumque aberrent illi, qui aeris hoc cum fanguine commercium omnino intercedant ; abſque quo fieret, ut poſſet aliquis non minus ſalubriter verſari in fætore carceris, quam inter ameniſſima vireta ; ubicumque ſc. ignis fat commode ardere poteſt, ibi et nos æque commode respirare. P. 123.

S E C T. VIII.

MAYOW'S *Theory of RESPIRATION* adopted by
WOLFERSTAN and VERHEYEN.

When the mystery of respiration began to be unfolded by men of abilities, the truths which every where adorn the works of Mayow, soon caught the attention. Observations were made, which the neglected experiments of Mayow had already confirmed, and opinions started, which his doctrine had long before beautifully illustrated. The study of air, too, became a favourite pursuit, and branched out into multiplied experiments, in order to account for the various phænomena, which accompany the important function of respiration. As Mayow, from his laborious and ingenious experiments, had explained this subject in the most accurate and satisfactory manner, it was natural, when truth asserted her dominion, to bring forward him whose labours most certainly

entitled

entitled him to credit and respect. In a book which we accidentally met with, the author adopts the theory of Mayow, and explains himself, very clearly, on the subject*. He rejects, as absurd, the idea of fermentation in the heart; and says, that the chyle coming to the right ventricle, is more intimately blended with the blood in the diastole; yet they stay not to make that bustle some have thought, but by the systole, or contraction of the heart, are soon driven out again, the chyle accompanying the blood, to the greatest amongst all the the viscera for *sanguification*, I mean the lungs, where they both receive a *florid red*, and by the admission of *new particles*, are more perfectly assimilated, and united with each other†: and he says, he very much questions, whether

* An Enquiry into the Causes of Diseases, in general, and the Disturbances of the Humours in Man's Body, wherein the Nature of the Blood, of the Air, and of a pestilential Constitution, are briefly considered, with some Observations on the Venom of Vipers, by Stanford Wolferstan, M. A. London, 1692. I find no account of this author in Wood's Athenæ, neither is he mentioned by Morhof.

whether any thing else is left in a healthy air, to join with the blood, but the aerial salt.

His observations, on the use of the aerial salt, are very striking. It is apparent, he observes, that the air does enter the vesicular cells, and there, whether by adhesion or dissolution, does deposite, at least, *some part* of this aerial salt, where meeting with the occurring humours, it is directly carried to the heart, and by its pungent particles, molesting and irritating the streight and oblique fibres of the heart, does stir them up into a systole, or contraction, and so, by streightening its ventricles, to drive forth the blood contained in them, in the arteries. *And this I take to be the true original of all pulsation, and first motion of the heart,* and circulation of the blood throughout the body.* He says, he cannot suppose, that the aerial salt enters the pores of the body: neither, when I observe the difference between the florid, *aerial* coloured blood, returning from the lungs, and the atro-purpureal blood contained in the veins, can I believe this aerial salt does enter by
the

the pores; or is mixed with the venal blood, when I see the venal blood both changed in colour and consistence, from what I either find in the lungs or arteries.* He maintains, that the effects of the aerial salt on the system is evident, in many cases: it produces hunger, by entering the stomach and lungs; hence the appetite in taking the fresh air: that it is highly useful to the motion of the stomach:† it prevents too the coagulation of the blood, and promotes the secretion in our bodies, and facilitates the separation and expulsion of almost every humour. The reader will recollect, that this was also the opinion of Thruston, who maintained, that the inspired air gave fluidity to the blood.

That oxygen renders the blood more fluid, by its union with it, we think is evident, from the following

* P. 28.

† My very worthy and ingenious friend, Dr. Ingen-Houfz, found by his eudiometer, that there was less oxygen in the marshy lands of Holland, than at Vienna; and he attributes the *keenness of appetite*, and *quickness of digestion*, in the latter place, to this circumstance. Mayow also maintains, that the fire-air particles are essential to digestion.

following experiment, which we made. After a frog had remained several hours in nitrogen gas, he was taken out, and barely shewed signs of sensation, when pinched. He was now opened; the heart was turgid with dark blood, and did not act, except when pricked. In this state, he was placed in a glass jar, containing oxygen gas. The heart began instantly to act, and the blood became very quickly florid, through all the vessels. I observed, when opening him, that the blood in the vessels, particularly in a large one, which runs along the internal surface of the abdominal muscles, was dark, firm, and coagulated, and did not flow, but only left a spotted mark on the scissars, where they divided the vessel; as soon as it became florid, from the admission of oxygen, it flowed freely through all the vessels, and in considerable quantity, giving a bright red colour to the surface of the water.* It is far from us to build theory or practice upon distorted facts; such

* Experiments similar to this, the Royal Society have done us the honour to receive. We have there proved, that oxygen is not the principle of, but stimulus to irritability, contrary to the opinion of Girtanner and others.

such is the experiment, and the reader is at liberty, to draw what conclusions he pleases from it. These suggestions, however, of Thruston, and Wolferstan, confirmed by our experiment, hold out the hopes of resolving tumours, by the inhalation of oxygen, and accordingly this idea has been put to the test of experiment; and the tumours I have seen reduced by this remedy, affords the pleasing consolation, that when observations shall have been matured by further experimental enquiry, cases of this kind will be as little dreaded by the practitioner, as the most trifling: and it gives me pleasure, that the knowledge, on this subject, daily increases; for among the many cases which come under the care of Dr. Thornton, he often meets with glandular swellings, particularly about the neck, which yield surprisngly to the inhalation of vital air.

After having enumerated these effects of the aerial salt, Wolferstan forms a theory, which few will imagine was entertained by so old a writer. He says, that the plague, and pestilential fevers, must arise from either a partial defect, or partial contamination, or depravation of this salt. When
reasoning

reasoning on the partial want of the nitro-aerial particles, he adds the following remarkable observations; Yet even in these partial defects, when only one part of one lobe of the lungs is ulcerated, yet in how short a time is the motion, colour, and consistency of the blood, changed from what it was? *

In cases of pestilential fevers, for the want of this combining salt, the particles of our blood are dislocated, its crasis made lax, and prepared very ready to receive and combine with this aerial depravation†. The reader will, probably, here recollect, the reasoning that has been applied, in the cure of typhus, by oxygen. The analogy pointed out between the blood, in the secondary stage of fever, and sea scurvy, is very striking. The same idea presented itself to the penetrating mind of

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Wolferstan,

* P. 45-6. † P. 48. Wolferstan seems to think, that only a *certain* quantity of nitro-aerial particles preserves the proper, or if I may say, the vital consistence of the blood. That different states of aggregation, in the component parts of the blood, takes place, to a certain extent, during life, I believe is allowed; but it would be desirable to know, how far oxygen is concerned in such alterations.

Wolferstan, when he observed, that the crasis of the blood was lax, for the want of the combining salt. Some of the most curious passages, in this valuable little treatise, relate, if I may apply the expression to so early an author, to the de-oxygenation of the blood. He applies Mayow's theory, to account for the effects produced by the bite of the adder. He observes, that the different parts of adders produced no bad effects, when eaten by dogs, cats, &c. but when a living creature was bit, the place always swelled, looked black, and the blood seemed to coagulate.* Not being able to find, by tedious dissection, a structure for the secretion of poison,

nor

* P. 62. Baglivi gives a similar account of the bite of the tarantula. *Demorsa pars quandoque stupore insigniprehenditur circulo livido, nigro, aut subflavo statim coloratur.* And an observation which he adds is so remarkable and curious, that I must quote it. *Generaliter loquendo symptomata tarantulorum, primo veneni insultu similia sunt iis, quæ in malignâ febre ex coagulatione observari solent, qualia sunt angor cordis spirandi difficultas, omnimodò fere pulsus oppressio, animalium vitaliumque actionum repentina, ac pene fatalis jactura.* *Dissert. de Anat. &c. et Tarant. P. 23-5.* How similar this, to the description of scurvy!

nor the poison itself ; but above all, he says, having observed, that during biting, the adder kept its jaws so exactly close, that no breath or water could pass out, and that the animal, at the time, made an expiration, and that no ill effects were produced from the bite, if he prevented the animal from making an expiration ; and after having quoted Mayow, to shew, that expired air is no longer fit for animal life, he concludes, that it is *the introduction of this unwholesome breath into the system, which produces the consequent evils.** The ingenious Wolferstan, draws another conclusion from these facts, to explain the symptoms attending pestilential fevers. 'Tis as easy to conceive, he adds, as in the adder, how the same deficiency is made in the air we breathe in, and what effect that deficiency will have upon the humours of our body.†

It is supposed now, by some, that various poisons act by de-oxygenating the system. May not many animals poison, by introducing into the system, expired air? It is known, from experi-

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ments,

* P. 70.

† P. 74.

ments, that carbonic acid and azotic air, injected into the blood vessels of animals, produce a dark colour of the blood, and speedily destroy life.* It is found, also, that the presence of the deleterious gases, to any considerable extent, more or less prevents the union of oxygen with different substances. Hence, probably, the reason, why so small a quantity, introduced into the circulating system, produces death. The celebrated Italian experimentalist, Fontana, has shewn, that the venom of the viper, mixed with the blood of a fowl, rendered it black, and preserved it in that state, notwithstanding its exposition to atmospheric air; and we know, that under this latter circumstance, its surface should have acquired a florid colour. Hence the venomous influence, prevented the absorption and usual agency of oxygen.

The doctrines of Mayow, thus elucidated, in some degree, by Wolferstan, began now to make their way on the Continent, and to acquire further able supporters. The clearness and precision, with which they pointed out the necessity of

* Girtanner.

of the presence of an aerial fluid, to the vitality of the blood, demonstrated, that respiration was not intended for those futile purposes, to which it had been hitherto applied. Some of the best ideas on this subject, after Mayow, were those published by Verheyen. We cannot avoid mentioning some remarkable observations of this author, as they clearly shew, that he perfectly understood this important function; particularly, too, as he has attended, with more accuracy, than any one, to Mayow's experiments, and has altogether adopted the reasoning and doctrine founded upon them. He rejects, with Mayow, that respiration is to cool the blood, or to transmit it through the lungs; other more important uses must be sought for. (A) From considering, with attention and accuracy, every circumstance, it appears, that respiration is performed, for the express purpose of continually supplying air to the system, to keep up the motion of the blood; for it is evident, that our life and health altogether depend upon this cause. Now, when we observe, that this motion fails, when respiration is impeded, it is rational to conclude, that something is supplied

from the air, through the medium of respiration; more especially, too, when we recollect, that the blood acquires its beautiful crimson colour in the lungs. The blood, however, he remarked, lost this colour, in its circulation through the system, for it is observed to be dark in the veins. (B) Therefore, since the veins receive the blood from the arteries, it follows, that its bright red colour is lost, either in the capillary branches, or in its passage from the arteries to the veins; and since the bright crimson colour is restored to the blood, after it has circulated through each ventricle, and the intermediate lungs, we must conclude, that the colour originally lost, is restored to it, during its passage from one ventricle to the other. Here the experiments of Lower are quoted, in confirmation of his opinion, and he makes the following curious remarks. (C) The last portion of blood drawn, during venæsection, has very frequently the appearance of being arterial. It is owing to this cause; as the blood in the veins flows slowly, it opposes some resistance to the circulation of the arterial blood, which, when moderate, is of use, for the safe and easy secretion of various principles,

principles, from the mass of blood; but during the flow of blood from an opened vein, that resistance being removed, the arterial blood circulates more freely, and therefore does not deposit, in such quantity, those principles, which it otherwise would have done, and *among which we must take in the matter supplied by the air.*

Verheyen was not satisfied with asserting, that air entered the blood, during respiration; like Mayow, he must enquire what that aerial matter is, which is so necessary to life. Here he quotes this author, and adopts his opinion, that the nitro-aerial particles is the matter supplied. He agrees with him, too, in thinking, that that part of the air is copiously condensed in nitre; hence it is, that combustible matter readily burns in vacuo, when combined with that salt. (D) I could adduce, adds Verheyen, many more arguments, drawn both from reason and experience, in favor of the opinion, that such an aerial supply is acquired by respiration; but the want of time, and a wish to consult the convenience of the reader, prevent me: if any one, therefore, is desirous of more knowledge, on this subject, he may consult the

treatise, which the ingenious Mayow has published, on nitre and the nitro-aerial spirit. Verheyen goes on to prove, that the nitro-aerial particles are taken into the system, for the purpose of producing heat and motion, which are caused by the mutual union of the nitro-aerial and sulphureous particles. We now know the reason, he says, why respiration is so much quickened by exercise, and why animals die in the vacuum of an air pump; for together with the air, are exhausted those particles so necessary to life. (E) Indeed it is very probable, that together with the air, are included other particles, of a more subtle nature, differing very much in their nature and properties. And it is certain, that animals die in vacuo, on that account, because the flame and ignition of coal, a candle, and such like substances, confined in the glass, are immediately extinguished, on the exhaustion of the air, if we are to credit the experiments of Boyle; but gun-powder, which besides sulphureous, contains nitrous matter, burns and flames almost equally as well as in the open air.

This author, by attending to the experiments
of

of Boyle and Mayow, acquired a perfect knowledge of the function of respiration; and his ideas on the motion and heat of the blood, are no less accurate. These effects, he says, are produced, by the union of the particles, taken in by the lungs, with the phlogistic matter, which is conveyed to the system with our food.

S E C T. IX.

MAYOW'S APPLICATION of FIRE-AIR to
VEGETATION.

The new discoveries in chemistry, have thrown as much light on the œconomy of plants, as on that of animals. It is now evident, that the food of vegetables is chiefly air. The ingenious Priestley, the world well knows, instituted a variety of experiments, to discover what air was best adapted to the food of plants; and at last determined, that plants grew the most vigorously, in noxious and putrid airs. All the noxious airs, however, were not equally favourable to vegetation; nitrous air, he observed, presently destroyed it. The experiments of Priestley discover much contradiction; in some cases, the plants thrived perfectly well in putrid air, but in others they died.* Dr. Priestley also found, that plants have a power of correcting bad air; but did not know the condition, necessary to

* Vide Vol. I. for 1781, p. 86.

to make plants perform such an office; for both he and Mr. Scheele observed, that the growth of plants very frequently injured the air. These contradictions could not be accounted for, by the diligent enquiries either of Priestley, of Senebier, or of Scheele, till my accurate and learned friend, Dr. Ingen-Houfz, clearly pointed out the error. He discovered, that not only the same plant did not, at all times, give out the same kind of air, but also that different parts of the same plants, afforded different kinds of air; and that these variations were owing to the influence of the sun's light upon vegetation. His experiments too, led him to draw very different conclusions from those of Priestley. This philosopher imagined, from his experiments, that oxygen was invariably injurious to vegetable life. This opinion, however, Dr. Ingen-Houfz has refuted, and maintains, that plants shut up in vital air, live so much the longer, as the air is superior, in purity, to atmospheric air.* The use of oxygen is, to
form

* Essay on the Food of Plants, p. 2. Is it not probable, that the food of different plants vary, like that of animals?

form with carbon, fixed air, the chief food of plants. Being persuaded of this, from his experiments, he concluded, that the soil was continually engaged, in forming carbonic acid, for the nourishment of vegetables; and that, for this purpose, it must absorb oxygen from the atmosphere, being already supplied, by a variety of substances, with carbon: hence the necessity of fallow. To prove this, he made the following experiments; He exposed eight cubic inches of good mouldy ground, to eighteen of atmospheric air, for three days, but constantly hid from the sun's light, by covering the apparatus with a flower-pot, and found the air so much deprived of oxygen, that a wax taper could not burn well in it; and when the experiment was made in the light, the remaining air was almost pure azot.*

This,

animals? Those which grow in marshy grounds, it is probable, have their food principally composed of hydro-carbonate, which is disengaged, in considerable quantity, in such situations. Dr. Priestley found, that the willow thrived the best of all in putrid air; and this plant, we know, constantly grows in marshy soils.

* Ibid. p. 16-17.

This, surely, has let in considerable light upon agriculture, and shews the great influence of oxygen, in the wide extent of the creation. This use of fire-air, did not escape the penetration of the ingenious Mayow. We have seen, how admirably he has applied this air, to the purposes of the animal body; his explanation of the vegetable process, upon the same principle, is no less curious and remarkable. He supposed, however, that nitre formed the chief nourishment of vegetables; but the manner in which he has explained it, discovers how accurately he marked the agency of oxygen, in the vegetable kingdom. It was his opinion, that the fire-air particles united with various substances in the soil, but chiefly with the alkaline base of nitre.

(F) The nitro-aerial spirit slowly and gradually effervescing with the earthy matter, varies its sulphureous part to a proper volatility; and moreover unites with the saline part into nitre; the elementary principles are formed in such a manner, as to promote the growth of vegetables. It will be evident, that this is the case, if we consider at what season of the year, chiefly, the nitro-aerial

aerial spirit effervesces with the earthy matter, and forms nitre. Now, we know, that nitre is produced, in greater quantity, in the spring, than at any other time: for, in the winter, the nitro-aerial particles and earthy sulphur, are bound by the frost; but on the approach of spring, the nitro-aerial spirit is brought into motion, by the warmth of the sun, and the soil is opened, the frosty weather disappearing: hence the nitro-aerial spirit, being now more active, descends deep into the earth, and there meeting with salino-sulphureous particles, produces a violent effervescence, whence nitre is copiously generated, and vegetation comes on rapidly.* That oxygen unites with other matters besides carbon, to form the food of plants, is evident, from a variety of circumstances. The many heterogenous substances, which enter into the composition of common mould, must contain various elementary principles, ready
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* Vide Appendix, No. IV. and V. where Dr. Ingen-Houfz has given a full account of his discovery, that plants give out oxygen, by the influence of the sun's light, and where the coincidence between his opinion and that of Mayow is further mentioned.

to unite with oxygen, in various proportions, according to the degree of temperature. It is needless to particularize any one base, with which it will unite, as the reader can supply many from his own observation. It is evident, that it will form acids, and then neutralize salts, *ad infinitum*, according to the substances it meets with : and in a letter to Dr. Ingen-Houfz, we have mentioned it as probable, that the great quantity of oxygen absorbed by the soil, contributes to form those vast reservoirs of water, found in the bowels of the earth.

The necessity of air, then, to the growth of plants, has been fully proved, by Hales, Priestley, Ingen-Houfz, and Scheele. A plant shut *in vacuo*, soon dies, says Dr. Ingen-Houfz ; and it is probable, observes Hales, that the air freely enters plants, not only with the principle fund of nourishment by the roots, but also through the surface of their trunks and leaves, especially at night, when they are changed from a perspiring to a strongly imbibing state.* Dr. Ingen-Houfz,
too,

* Vegetable Statics, Vol. I. p. 59. The absorption of air, by plants, was proved by a very beautiful experiment. P. 155. Expt. 47.

too, has not only proved, that plants can exist altogether upon air, by being hung up to the ceiling of a hot-house, but has also shewn, as we have seen, that the aerial fluid is so necessary to their existence, that it is absorbed in great quantities by the soil, for the purposes of nourishment. It would appear, from the positive manner in which Mayow expresses himself, that he had made experiments to prove the very same thing. (G) So necessary indeed, he observes, is this aerial salt to every kind of life, that not even plants can vegetate in earth, from which the access of air is precluded; but if this earth be exposed to the air, it becomes impregnated with this fœcundating salt, and is again rendered fit for the nourishment of vegetables: which proves, that the very plants have a kind of respiration, and are under the necessity of imbibing the air.

(A) Itaque omnia rem istam concernentia exacte perpendens, existimo, respirationem eo potissimum collimare, ut quædam materia sanguini, pro motus illius continuatione jugiter ex aere subministratur;

ministratur; enimvero evidenter constat, vitam nostram, adeoque et sanitatem, motu sanguinis omnino dependere. Cumque videamus hunc motum, ob defectum respirationis statim deficere, non inepte concludimus, ejusmodi materiam ex aere, mediante respiratione, suppeditari, maxime si attendamus, sanguinem splendorem suum, et intensum ruborem, præcipue nancisci in pulmonibus. Vol. II. P. 326*.

(B) Itaque cum venæ recipiant sanguinem ex arteriis, sequitur, colorem ejus intense rubrum deperdi, vel in ramis capillaribus, vel in transitu ex arteriis in venas; et cum idem ille sanguis fuscus, postquam utrumque cordis ventriculum et pulmones intermedios peragravit, redeat totus rutilans et coccineus, consequens est, colorem illum ante deperditum ipsi in transitu esse restitutum.

P. 327.

(C) Pro quo notandum, quod sanguis in venis tarde fluens, aliquatenus resistat transitui sanguinis adventantis per arterias, quæ resistantia

L moderata,

* Corporis Humani Anatomia, autore Philippo Verheyen, in Universitate Lovaniensi Art. et Med. Doct. et Professore. Amstelodami et Lipsiæ. 1731.

moderata, utilis est, ut ea, quæ a sanguinis massa separari debent, facilius feliciusque separentur: at vero dum aperta vena sanguis effluit, sublata dicta resistantia, sanguis arteriosus liberius subsequitur, adeoque minus deponit illa, quæ alias fuissent deponenda, inter quæ est ipsa materia ex aere desumpta P. 329.

(D) Possum, pro eadem respirationis materia, ejusque necessitate, afferre plura argumenta, tam ab experientia quam a ratione petita; sed temporis angustia et lectoris commoditati consulendum duxi: si quis ulteriora desideret, legere poterit tractatum, quem prælaudatus D. Mayow, de sale nitro et spiritu nitro-aereo, conscripsit. P. 331-2.

(E) Etenim maxime verisimile est, inter particulas aere inclusas, alias aliis esse subtiliores, atque inter se natura et indole omnino diversas. Et certe animalia in loco aerem non continente, ob eam rationem interire, inde confirmatur, quod ignis carbonum, candelæ, et similibus, magno vitro inclusus (si experimentis Boyleanis fidendum est) extracto aere confestim extinguatur: pulvis tamen pyreus, qui præter sulphur materia nitrosa abundat, fere æque ac in libero aere accendatur, ardeatque. P. 339.

(F) Spiritus nitro-aereus, cum materia terrestri motu obscuro effervesces, partem ejus sulphuream ad justam volatilitatem perducit; et insuper cum parte ejus salina in nitrum coalescit, principia verum naturalium in tali constituuntur, qualis ad vegetabilia formanda requiritur. P. 52.

Rem modo prædicto, in vegetabilium ortu se habere, indicio est: quod quo tempore vegetabilia præcipue a terrâ oriuntur, spiritus nitro-aereus cum materia terrestri maxime exæstuat, et salnitrum præcipue in terra generatur: quippe experientia constat, nitrum majori copia ineunte vere, quam reliquis anni temporibus in terra nasci. Nimirum tempore hyberno, particulæ nitro-aeræ et sulphur terrestre glacie constipantur; ineunte autem vere, spiritus nitro-aereus, æstu solis intensiori in motum concitatur, terræque compages, glacie jam liquefacto referatur: hinc spiritus nitro-aereus, in motu positus, in altam tellurem descendit, ibidemque cum particulis ejus salino-sulphureis minutim perfractis congressus, effervescentiam satis intensam efficit; unde nitrum copiose generatur, et vegetabilia confertim excrefcunt.

P. 52-3.

(G) Adeo enim ad vitam quamcunque sal istoc
aereum necessarium est, ut ne plantæ quidem in
terra, ad quam aeri accessus præcluditur, vege-
tari possint; sin autem terra ista aeri exposta,
sale hoc sæcundante denuo impregnetur, ea de-
mum plantis alendis iterum idonea evadet. Plane
ut vel ipsæ plantæ aliqualem respirationem, aerif-
que hauriendi necessitatem habere, videantur.

P. 52-3.

S E C T. X.

Of MUSCULAR MOTION.

The beautiful discoveries of the ingenious Mayow, enabled him to extend his theories and observations, to several functions of the animal œconomy. To a man who contemplates, with serious attention, the structure of the human frame, the cause of muscular motion must present many perplexing ideas. A self-moving animal, is a machine of wonder to the eye of the beholder; and nothing but custom, has familiarized our minds to such objects. That an animal should become loco-motive by volition, or a simple exertion of will, has afforded matter for speculation and dispute, in almost every age.* The laborious

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anatomist

* Does there appear any principle, in all nature, more mysterious, than the union of soul and body, by which the spiritual part possesses such an influence over the material, that it is able to direct the motion of any, or even sometimes a part of a muscle? *Hume.*

anatomist could not discover the cause in tedious dissection; and it was equally concealed from the reasoning of the speculative theorist. It was little imagined, that respiration had any connection with muscular motion, or that a constituent part of the atmosphere, at all assisted in this extraordinary function. When the mind was fatigued with reasoning, and nothing satisfactory appeared, it is curious to observe, that it was attributed to a *cause*, originally impressed upon the works of the creation. As it has been proved, that all matter is in a state of perpetual motion, originally impressed upon it by nature, it seems most agreeable to the analogy of nature, to refer muscular motion to an original law of animated matter, for which no cause can be assigned, any more than for gravitation, cohesion, or chemical affinity.* It is with diffidence, we dissent from so high an authority as that of Dr. Blane. The universality of motion is evident to all; but such an explanation of muscular action, is equally applicable to dead as to living matter. The Deity has, no doubt, impressed certain determinate

* A Lecture on Muscular Motion, read at the Royal Society, by Gilbert Blane, M. D. F.R.S.

determinate and immutable laws on inanimate matter; but if that were the case with the animated creation, to what purpose has he given the living principle? That the muscular fibre is every way fitted for that motion, to which it is applied, is a question which no one can deny; but that the cause of this motion is similar to that of gravitation, cohesion, or chemical affinity, is a position, which an acquaintance with the animal œconomy entirely rejects, as unfounded.

The difficulty of this subject, did not deter the boldness of Mayow's genius to attempt an explanation. When we consider, that his nitro-aerial particles are the same with oxygen, when we reflect, that his ideas of respiration, and its application to the purposes of the œconomy, exactly coincide with those of modern times, we may expect to find his speculations on muscular motion, to form a striking analogy with those of some recent authors. When the nerves were found to have so great a share in muscular motion, it was a natural conclusion, that what was denominated animal spirits, should be called in to assist, in the explanation of the motion of animals. A difficulty,

however, still presented itself, which required considerable labour and investigation to surmount; this was the nature of the nerves themselves, a subject which always occasioned much perplexity, and is not to be developed or unravelled by speculations alone. Of late it has been imagined, that the discovery of animal electricity, opened a wide field, to acquire a *certain* knowledge of the cause of muscular contraction. An ingenious author, on this subject, takes considerable pains to prove, how fully he is convinced, that the nervous electricity is the animal spirits, and that to the influence of this cause, is owing the contractile power of the fibre. It is remarkable, that the same reasoning which Mayow applied to his nitro-aerial particles, has been called in to aid the explanation of the nervous electricity, by Valli. It is time, that we should now examine what Mayow has said, upon this subject, and we shall be as concise as possible.

(A) I maintain, that muscular contraction is produced by different particles, uniting and effervescing, in the structure of a muscle. We cannot doubt, but that an influx of animal spirits
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is necessary, because if a nerve be cut or obstructed, the muscle to which the nerve is distributed cannot contract. But we are not to imagine, that muscular contraction arises from the animal spirits alone; in as much as to the performance of which, it is absolutely necessary, that other particles should be supplied from the mass of blood. Since, indeed, the arterial blood flows to the muscles, in a continual stream, and that in a greater quantity than is distributed to other parts, or than is sufficient for their nutrition, especially in violent actions, it is rational to conclude, that arterial blood, during its passage, deposits something necessary to muscular contraction. To prove this, he relates an experiment of Steno's, who, by tying up an artery, found, that the muscle to which it was distributed, was unable to undergo contraction*.

(B) As to the nature of the *motive* particles, secreted from the mass of blood, we are of opinion, that they are of a salino-sulphureous nature. For we must observe, that not a small loss of fat takes place,

* This assertion, says Valli, has been proved to be void of foundation, by the observations of Kaaw, Boerhaave, Langruish, Pozzi, and several others.

place, in violent exercise, and it is almost altogether consumed, in laborious employments long continued: but, on the contrary, animals indulging in ease, and cessation from labour, become corpulent, and fat is deposited, in considerable quantity, upon the muscles; whence we conclude, that the sulphureous particles of the blood, claim some share in performing muscular contraction.

Having thus explained one set of particles, necessary to muscular action; he next enquires into the nature of others, viz. animal spirits, which are also necessary to this function. Concerning the nature of animal spirits, we may conclude, that they are formed from the nitro-aerial particles. To understand this, he says, we must recollect, that the use of respiration is, to transmit nitro-aerial particles into the blood, and also, that they are necessary to motion. (C) Hence animals, in the more violent exercises, as in swift running, are obliged greatly to quicken their respiration, which seems to take place, because the nitro-aerial particles are secreted from the mass of blood, and consumed during muscular contraction.

tion.* For I think, that the nitro-aerial particles, coming from the brain into the moving parts, and there meeting with the salino-fulphureous particles, they effervesce, and by these being thrown into agitation, muscular motion is performed.† Hence it is absolutely necessary, for the continuation of animal motion, that a supply of salino-fulphureous, and nitro-aerial particles, should never be wanting in the mass of blood; and in proportion as muscular contraction is increased, as in the more violent exertions, so is there a greater

* As oxygen is necessary to the contraction of the muscles, it is probable, that it is consumed; or, more properly speaking, enters into some new combination, in consequence of which it is eliminated out of the body; for we cannot but suppose, that the quantity employed, corresponds to the vast quantity imbibed. Hence we may understand the final cause of quickened respiration, during great exertions of the muscles.—Beddoes on Scurvy, &c. P. 50.

† Does not muscular contraction, or intumescence, really depend upon the combination of oxygen with hydrogen and azot (separately, and combined in various proportions) in consequence of a sort of explosion, produced by the nervous electricity?—Beddoes' Remarks on Girtanner's Essay on Irritability, P. 258.

greater waste of nitro-aerial and sulphureous particles; to restore which, not only respiration must be quickened, but also aliment, replete with salino-sulphureous particles, must be taken in greater quantity: hence those substances, which consist principally of a volatile salt and sulphur, are the most proper for recruiting the strength, worn out by continual labour. Whence are the nitro-aerial particles supplied in muscular motion? is a question, which Mayow asks himself. (D) Concerning this, I was sometime in doubt, whether the nitro-aerial particles did not immediately pass from the blood, into the moving parts; but when I had applied more attention to the subject, it appeared more probable, that the *motive* particles, supplied by the blood, were of a salino-sulphureous nature: whence it follows, that the nitro-aerial particles are derived from the brain, and, consequently, that they are the same with the animal spirits. I think it may be allowed, too, that in the more perfect animals, the animal spirits are only formed in the brain, and thence dispensed through the spinal marrow, and nerves arising from it. Why should not the animal spi-

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rits be rather derived from the atmosphere, than from our food? It is apparent, that the air is impregnated with extremely active and subtile particles, and so great is the demand of the system for air, that we cannot exist one moment of time without it. And indeed it does not seem possible, that the immense waste of animal spirits, can be supplied from any other source than from the air.

Such is the admirable manner, in which our author reasons upon this subject. The attention that has been bestowed on this department of physiology, points out, at once, its difficulties. The elaborate investigations of Valli, of Pugh, and of Blane, with all their experience, from the time of Mayow, have scarcely been sufficient to the task. The explanation of the mechanical philosopher, is rejected by the chemist, who thinks something more is necessary, to produce the phænomena. Had all the muscles been subject to volition, less difficulties would have perplexed the subject; as it is, muscular action depends on something exclusive of that cause; and it is as certain, too, that the action of volition alone, is
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not adequate to produce the effect. The will employs its agent; and what that agent is, has been the dispute for many ages. The æther of Sir I. Newton, the fire-air particles of Mayow, with the oxygen and nervous electricity of modern times, have perplexed, divided, and confounded the medical world. The doctrine which seems most adequate to explain the phænomena, is that founded upon the curious discovery of Galvani. Here too, insurmountable difficulties attend; and notwithstanding the ingenious and plausible endeavours of Valli, to reduce under the principle of the electric fluid, the general effects produced by the influence of the nervous system, there are still innumerable exceptions.

Although I hold it highly injurious to science, to say the Deity wills it, when we are unable to explain certain phænomena, it is, nevertheless, allowed by all, that there are certain bounds placed to our knowledge, beyond which it is not permitted us to explore; and it would be no difficult matter to prove, that were our intellectual faculties more refined or intuitive, or our sensibilities more acute,

* The asylum ignorantiae of Spinoza.

acute, we should be very unfit inhabitants of this globe. In contemplating man, says an ingenious philosopher, as at the head of those animals with which we are acquainted, a thought occurred, that no sentient being, whose mental powers were greatly superior, could possibly live and be happy in this world. If such a being really existed, his misery would be extreme. With senses more delicate and refined, with perceptions more acute and penetrating, with a taste so exquisite, that the objects around him could by no means gratify it, obliged to feed upon nourishment too gross for his frame, he must be born only to be miserable, and the continuation of his existence would be utterly impossible. Even in our present condition, the sameness and insipidity of objects and pursuits, the futility of pleasures, and the infinite sources of excruciating pain, are supported with great difficulty, by refined and cultivated minds. Increase our sensibilities, continue the same objects and situation, and no man could bear to live.* Hence the Heathen superstition, attached something præternatural to the mode of life, nature, and food
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* Smellie's Philosophy of Natural History. P. 526.

of their gods, as we find in the descriptions of their antient philosophers and poets. Far be it from me to damp the ardour of investigation; and it is impossible for us to say, what can or cannot be known, as we have not yet arrived at, or acquired the full completion of *time*; but it appears, that muscular motion depends upon an immaterial cause, little cognifiable by our senses, and originally implanted in animal nature by Creative Wisdom, to direct the instinct and the reason of the rational and irrational part of the creation.

S E C T. XI.

*Of the CONSPIRING ACTION of the INTER-
COSTAL MUSCLES.*

The accuracy of Mayow, as an anatomist, is no less conspicuous than his skill as a chemist. His attentive observation of the animal œconomy, from the slow-paced labour of dissection, led him, no doubt, to the knowledge of the oblique co-operation of muscles; a discovery which Dr. Monro has so exclusively claimed to himself, that many will be justly surpris'd, when they read the quotations from Mayow. First, we shall briefly lay before the reader, Dr. Monro's doctrine, with his reasoning; and after, by bringing passages from Mayow, we shall be the better able to judge of the circumstances. Dr. Monro, after giving an account of muscular obliquity, in general, adds, ' but in treating on particular parts, I dwelt chiefly on the structure and effects of the intercostal

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muscles, as a variety of opinions, concerning their operation, has, in the course of the last hundred years, been proposed; and as *no author had explained the reason of the obliquity of their fibres, nor of their being disposed in two layers of decussating fibres*, after fully explaining the structure, I endeavoured to prove, as Haller had done, but with some additional arguments, that both rows of intercostal muscles, conspired to elevate the ribs, or that they were muscles of inspiration.* After having asserted this, he proposes his reasons and illustrations. That the first rib is so much fixed, as to be almost immovable; and that the second rib is more fixed than the third, and the third than the fourth, and so on, downwards.†

Now let us see, what Mayow has said upon this subject. (E) It is a received opinion, that the external intercostal muscles serve to dilate, and the internal to contract the thorax; but it appears to me more rational, that the thorax is dilated,

* Observations on the Muscles, and particularly on the Effects of their Oblique Fibres, by A. Monro, M. D. Edinburgh, 1794. P. 15.

† P. 16, 17.

lated, at the same time, by both. And we may assert, that the thorax is dilated, when the ribs are raised, and on the contrary, contracted when they are depressed. Let us suppose here (of what any one may be satisfied by examining the skeleton) that the ribs are not articulated with the spine and sternum, at right angles, but that the angle below the ribs is somewhat less than a right one, so that if a rib be raised, its articulations with the spine and sternum approach to right angles. Moreover we maintain, that the thorax is dilated, by the ribs being brought to right angles.* Whenever a muscle attached to two bones contracts, the one bone approaches the more fixed; therefore, since each lower rib is less fixed than the upper one, it follows, when the intercostal muscles contract, that each lower rib must be drawn upwards. And the same takes place, during the action of the

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internal,

* Haller mentions something similar to this. *Costæ, circa suas articulationes rotatæ, angulos et cum sterno et cum vertebra majores faciunt, in mediis vero arcubus ascendunt, marginem suum inferiorem antrorsum erigunt. Primæ Linæ Physiol. P. 162.* It must be remembered, that Haller quotes Mayow, in his *Elements of Physiology*.

internal, as well as external intercostal muscles; nor is it of any consequence, that they are inserted into the ribs at different points, as appears in *Fig. 1*, where the interior muscle, *a. a.*, during its contraction, draws up the lower and more moveable rib, equally as well as the exterior muscle, *b. b.* We must here observe, that the ribs are articulated, in such a manner, with the spine, that when they are raised by the action of the intercostal muscles, they easily ascend, and are thrown out, so as to describe a circle.*

Can expressions and reasoning be more strikingly similar? In some places it is almost a literal translation. Dr. Monro further observes, that from the origin and insertion of the intercostals in an upper and lower rib, they act with a longer lever upon the upper rib;† and says, it is evident, that the obliquity of the fibres here, is not intended to increase their number or strength of the muscle; because the fibres would have been more numerous, if they had passed directly from one rib to the other, or had been inserted into the
ribs

* Vide the quotation from Haller, in note, P. 179.

† P. 17.

ribs at right angles.* Let Mayow speak for himself. After observing that both sets of intercostals conspire to raise the ribs, he adds, (F) The oblique and opposite situation of the intercostal muscles, is a farther proof of this. Although an insertion at right angles would have been better adapted, for directly raising or depressing the ribs, yet nature seems to have inserted those muscles obliquely into the ribs, because the intercostal spaces are so small, that if those muscles had been inserted at right angles, they would have been shorter than their nature allows; therefore, that they might have their proper length, it is necessary that they should be inserted obliquely into the ribs. But since this oblique position is less fit for raising the ribs, therefore nature, that excellent mechanic, has formed muscles of various insertion, that, whilst they at different points obliquely raised the ribs, the ribs should, nevertheless, ascend directly upwards, as is seen in *Fig. 2*, where the exterior muscle, *a.a.*, and the interior, *c.c.*, acting at the same time, the inferior and more moveable rib

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ascends

* P. 21.

ascends directly upwards, in like manner as if it had been acted upon, by a muscle inserted at right angles. From this it is plain, that both the internal and external intercostal muscles, acting at the same time, raise the ribs, by their joint cooperation, and thus dilate the thorax. Mayow further maintains, that the ribs are thrown out, during inspiration; and observes, that they are united, by a double articulation, to the vertebræ. His words are, (G) It is to be remarked, that the ribs are not, as is commonly believed, united to the spine by a single, but by a double articulation; and these articulations are so obliquely placed, and are formed with such art, that it is impossible that the ribs should be raised by the intercostal muscles, but that they must, at the same time, be thrown out, for the more ample dilatation of the breast, as is evident from *Fig. 3.* In which let *a. e. i.* be a portion of a rib, whose round head *a.* enters the sinus *c.* in the spine, which articulation is superior and anterior. On the contrary, in the other articulation, *viz.* the inferior and exterior, the sinus, which is smaller, is hollowed out in the rib, at *e.*, which is articulated with the

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spine,

spine, at the protuberance *b.* Now if we suppose *a.*, the head of the rib, to be placed in the spinal cavity *c.*, and the costal sinus *e.* to rest upon the spinal protuberance *b.*, and then if that rib, connected to the spine by these double articulations, be moved upwards, it is easy to conceive, that that rib would be thrown to the left, or which is the same, with respect to the situation of the thorax, would be extended outwards.* An ingenious and accurate anatomist of London, takes considerable pains to impress upon the minds of his pupils, the effects produced by the double articulation of the ribs. He maintains, that the ribs are, thereby, much assisted, in rolling upwards and outwards. It is unnecessary for me to mention, how far this is the opinion of Mayow.

The acute Mayow offers another reason for

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* The celebrated Author of the *Conspectus Medicinæ*, has the following observations. *Hæ (sc. costæ) autem, propter obliquum quem cum spina dorsi habent situm et nexum, elevari nequeunt, quin simul protrudantur ipsæ et sternum quoque protrudant et latera pectoris opposita a se invicem aliquantum dimoveant.* Vol. I. p. 295.

his opinion, that the ribs are thrown out, during inspiration, and which, we think, is an irrefutable fact. (H) Nor is it to be neglected, that the cartilages, through the medium of which the ribs are articulated with the sternum, are united to the ribs with a remarkable obliquity, as is seen in *Fig. 4*, in which *a. c.* is the rib, *c. e.* the cartilage between the rib and sternum, *e.* the angle formed by their union. This obliquity is so formed, that the ribs may be extended and thrown out, describing a circle. The clear and explicit manner in which Mayow has expressed himself, the full and satisfactory reasoning he has applied to the facts, and the just inductions he has drawn, must convince the most obdurate sceptic, that he has completely anticipated both Haller and Monro, in their ideas of the operation of the intercostal muscles. We are, by no means, so prejudiced in favour of our author, as not to admit, that Dr. Monro has very ably extended the principle of obliquity to the action of muscles in general. We only wish it to be observed, that the principle is clearly explained by Mayow, and therefore he must be considered as

the discoverer of this important fact in physiology. He had, also, many opponents to struggle with, in promulgating this doctrine. It was an opinion generally received, previous to his time, that the external intercostals, were intended to dilate, and the internal, to contract the thorax, during respiration. This doctrine acquired strength, and seemed firmly established, on account of its being countenanced by the first physiologists of the times, as the reader will see, by consulting the twenty-third and twenty-fifth pages of the *Pharmaceut. Rational.* of Willis. Mayow was aware, that he had to oppose not only a prevailing doctrine, but one which seemed sanctioned by the authority of time and experience; for he opens the subject with saying, that he shall not pay so much regard to the authority of writers, as to truth itself. Notwithstanding, however, this general prevalence of opinion, that the two layers of intercostals performed different offices, Mayow's doctrine, not long after it was published, acquired its advocates, and those of the most powerful kind. In a system of anatomy, published in 1685, the author adopts the opinion, of the co-operation

operation of the intercostals, in elevating the ribs.* It is a received opinion, says he, that the outward intercostal muscles are ministerial to the dilatation, and the inward to the contraction of the thorax; but as I humbly conceive, it is more agreeable to reason, that both the outward and inward intercostal muscles, do assist each other, in the dilatation of the thorax; by reason both kinds of muscles have their extremities implanted into the margents of the next upper and lower rib, whereupon the most loosely fastened doth approach the more strongly, by the contraction of the intercostal muscles; wherefore the lower rib, having a more lax articulation than the upper, must necessarily be drawn upward, by the motion of the muscles, toward the upper more fixed rib, as

* A Systeme of Anatomy, treating of the body of Man, Beasts, Birds, Fish, Insects, and Plants, illustrated with many Schemes; by Samuel Collins, Doctor in Physick, Physician in Ordinary to his late Majesty, of blessed Memory, and Fellow of the King's most famous College of Physicians, in London, and formerly a Fellow of the Royal Foundation of Trinity College, in the most flourishing University of Cambridge. London, 1685.

as to the center of motion; whence it may be reasonably deduced, that both the external and internal intercostal muscles, though they have different insertions into the ribs, yet, in their contractions, they assist each other, at the same time, to lift the ribs upwards, toward the throat.* This position is proved, by the very structure and situation of these muscles; their obliquity is contrived, to give them greater extent of motion; for had they been inserted at right angles, they would have defeated the purpose which nature intended, therefore the grand Architect, hath most wisely contrived the divers situations of the external and internal intercostal muscles, that both pulling obliquely, with equal force, might mutually concur to the carrying ribs upwards.† It is rather singular, that although these passages have all the appearance of being a translation from Mayow, yet Collins does not take notice of this: he, however, mentions him immediately after, shews great respect for his authority, and gives him the discovery of the double articulation of

* P. 824-5.

† P. 826.

of the ribs. And it is worthy our remark, he says, that the ribs have not only one, as is commonly thought, but two articulations, discovered by the learned Dr. Mayow, in his *Treatise de Respiratione*.*

Notwithstanding the opinion, that both sets of intercostal muscles conspired to elevate the ribs, during their action, was afterwards opposed by some anatomists, yet it had abettors of the first respectability, who all acknowledged it to be the discovery of Mayow. Drake, in his anatomy, mentions this discovery, attributes it to its right author, and adopts the opinion. The fibres of these muscles (intercostals) run in an order contrary to each other, which has made some anatomists imagine, that they antagonized one another, fancying that the external drew upwards, and the internal downwards. This erroneous opinion, was first severally refuted by the learned Steno, and our ingenious Dr. Mayow, whose arguments, however convincing, have, nevertheless, failed of success, over the prejudices of many
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* P. 826.

later writer†. He mentions the mistake of Willis, with respect to the action of the intercostals, which, he says, is scarce worth while taking notice of, were it not for the great authority of the man, which is sufficient to keep that error in countenance even to this very day. Verheyen, an accurate anatomist, at the close of the last, and commencement of the present century, mentions Mayow's discovery of the conspiring action of the intercostals, and adds, that his treatise on respiration, is very learnedly and ingeniously written. He observes, ⁽¹⁾ That the ribs are so constructed, that when they are raised, they must, at the same time, be thrown out, and thus widen the cavity of the thorax. To elucidate what he means, he gives a diagram, and describes it, in a manner similar to Mayow. With respect to the actions of the intercostals, as producing this effect, he adopts the opinion of Mayow, whose observations, he
 adds,

† *Anthropologia Nova, or a new System of Anatomy*, by James Drake, M. D. Fellow of the College of Physicians, and F. R. S. London, 1717. P. 400. Vol. II. We wish the reader would consult the account which Drake has here given, as the passages are much too long to transcribe.

adds, he always found conformable to truth, by his own dissections. The doctrine, then, that the ribs are thrown out into an arch, while they are at the same time raised, during inspiration, and that both sets of intercostals conspired to produce this effect, as each upper rib is more fixed than the lower, was brought forward by Mayow, and adopted by succeeding anatomists, before Haller or Monro. It appears somewhat extraordinary and surprising, that the observations and arguments of Mayow, Collins, Verheyen, and Drake, should have escaped the attention of these great anatomists; and our surprise is increased, when we consider, that both Monro and Haller quote the words of these authors, who have taken considerable pains, to confirm Mayow's illustration of the beautiful mechanism of the thorax*.

(A) Musculorum contractionem, a particulis
 diversi generis, in muscoli compage invicem com-
 mixtis,

* Mayow is quoted by Haller, Elem. Phys. 3-206. and the reader is referred to several passages in Drake's Anatomy, by Monro, in his publication de Venis Lymph. Valv. p. 80. Edin. edit.

mixtis, mutuoque effervescentibus, provenire statuat. p. 8. Tractat. Quartus. Spirituum animalium influxum, ad functionem motivam obeundam necessarium esse, minime dubitandum est: in quantum sc. nervo præciso vel obstructo, musculus, in quem idem distribuitur, contractionem inire prorsus nequit, cæterum non est putandum, musculorum contractionem a spiritibus animalibus solis dependere; utpote cui peragenda particulis insuper aliis a sanguinis massa suggestis, omnino opus est. Quandoquidem enim, sanguis arteriosus continuo gurgite, eoque pleniore, quam ad cæteras partes, aut quam eorum nutritioni sufficit, præsertim in motibus violentioribus, ad musculos appellit, liceat concludere, sanguinem arteriosum nonnihil ad musculorum contractionem necessarium, in transitu suo deponere. P. 15-17.

(B) Quod spectat ad naturam particularum motivarum, a cruoris massa secretarum, nostra fert opinio, easdem indolis salino-sulphuræ esse. Etenim anotare est, pinguedinis jacturam haud modicam in exercitiis violentioribus fieri, eamque in laboribus diuturnis pene totaliter absumi: cum tamen e contrà, animalia otio indulgentia, et a laboribus

ribus vacantia, admodum obesa evadunt, eorumque musculis adeps copiâ fatis amplâ accrescit. Unde colligimus, particulas sanguinis sulphureas, è quibus pinguedo componitur, in musculari contractione obeundâ partes aliquas obtinere. P. 22-3.

(C) Animalia, in exercitiis violentioribus, veluti in cursu valde concitato, omnino necesse habeant respirationem quam maxime intendere; quod propterea fieri videtur, quoniam in motibus violentis, particulae nitro-aeræ, pro musculorum contractione instituendâ a sanguinis massa feceruntur et absumuntur, p. 24. Nempe existimo, particulas nitro-aeræ, a cerebro in partes motrices profilientes, ibidem cum particulis salino-sulphureis iis in occursum datis effervescere; a quibus mutuo se exagitantibus, contractio muscularis perficitur. Et hinc est, quod pro motu animali continuando omnino necesse est, ut pabulum salino-sulphureum, particulæque nitro-aeræ, in sanguinis massa nunquam deficient; et quanto intensius contractio muscularis instituitur, veluti in laboribus violentioribus, tanto majora particularum nitro-aeræarum et sulphurearum dispendia fiunt; pro quibus refarciendis, non tantum respi-

ratio

ratio intenditur, sed insuper alimentum, particulis salino-sulphureis refertum, copiâ majori fumendum est, hinc ea, quæ sale volatili sulphureque copioso constant, vires laboribus diuturnis attritas reficiendo, præcipue idonea sunt. P. 30.

(D) Super hoc, in dubiis aliquandiu hæsitaverim, an non particulæ nitro-aeræ immediate a sanguinis massa in partes motrices cederent: verum cum seriò ad rem attenderim, magis probabile visum est, particulas motivas, a sanguine suggestas, indolis salino-sulphuræ esse; unde sequitur, particulas nitro-aeræ a cerebro provenire, et consequenter ipsos spiritus animales esse. P. 32-3. Concedendum esse arbitror, spiritus animales, in animalibus perfectioribus, non nisi in cerebro elaborari, atque eosdem ab eo fonte ad spinalem medullam, nervosque ab eâ oriundos disseminari. P. 38. Quidni ergo spiritus animales potius ab aere, quam alimentis ingestis ducantur? Certè aer particulis maxime activis, subtilibusque imprægnatur; illiusque hauriendi tanta necessitas est, ut ne momento quidem temporis, sine eodem, vivere possimus. Et quidem immensa spirituum animalium dispendia aliundè quam ab aere instauriri, vix posse videntur. P. 45.

(E) Recepta opinio est, musculos intercostales tantum exteriores dilatando, interiores autem contrahendo pectori inservire. At mihi videtur rationi magis consentaneum ab iis utrisque simul pectus dilatari. Nempe affirmare fas fit, costas sursum tractas pectoris spatium dilatare, deorsum autem retractas idem contrahere. Supponimus enim hic (quod cuivis in sceleto videre datum est) costas cum spina et sterno non secundum angulos rectos articulari, sed angulos infra costas esse paulo recto minores: ita ut si costa sursum trahatur, ejus articulationes cum spinâ et sterno, versus angulos rectos accedant. Afferimus insuper, a costis ad angulos rectos elevatis, pectus dilatari. P. 278-9. Quandoque musculus duobus ossibus affixus contrahitur, os minus fixum ad alterum magis fixum accedit: quapropter, cum inferior quæque costa minus fixa est quam superior, necesse est, ut musculis intercostalibus etiam interioribus se contrahentibus, costæ singulæ inferiores sursum trahantur. Imo similis planè ratio obtinet in interioribus musculis ac in exterioribus; neque obstat, quod illæ diversa positione costis inseruntur, uti *Fig.*, patet, ubi musculus interior

interior, *a. a.*, in contractionē suā, æque sursum trahet costam inferiorem, mobilioremque, ac musculus exterior *b. b.* Advertendum est hic loci, quod costæ cum spinâ ita articulentur, ut costæ a musculis prædictis tractæ, facile ascendant, et in orbem eleventur. P. 281.

(F) Et hoc ulterius adhuc ostendit muscutorum intercostalium obliquus et contrarius situs. Ideo enim videtur natura musculos illos oblique costis inseruisse (quanquam iisdem sursum aut deorsum movendis recta insertio melius conveniret) quia costarum interstitia adeo minuta sunt, ut si muscoli isti rectis angulis insererentur, breviores essent, quam ipsa musculorum natura patitur; quapropter, ut dicti muscoli justam longitudinem obtinerent, eos oblique, ut fit, costis insertos esse oportet: cum tamen obliqua hæc positio ad costas sursum movendas minus idonea sit, ideo natura, machinatrix sapientissima, diversi sitûs musculos constituit, ut dum hinc inde æquali nixu oblique costas trahunt, costæ interim rectæ sursum ascendant, prout in *Fig.* , ostenditur; ubi musculis exterioribus *a. a.*, et interioribus *c. c.*, simul se contrahentibus, costa inferior, mobiliorque non

oblique sed rectâ sursum ascendet; perinde ac si a masculo, rectis angulis ei affixo, traheretur. Plane ut videantur muscoli interiores, simul et exteriores, eodem tempore se contrahere, et sociato nixu costas sursum ducere, pectusque ampliare. P. 282-3.

(G) Advertendum est hic loci, quod costæ non unicâ, uti vulgò creditur, sed duplici articulatione cum spinâ jungantur; articuli que isti adè oblique collocentur, talique artificio formentur, ut costæ a musculis intercostalibus sursum trahi nequeant, quin eadem simul extrorsum pro majori pectoris dilatatione trahantur, prout in *Fig.* . manifestum est. In quâ *a. e. i.* costæ portio fit, cujus caput rotundum *a.* finum in spinâ excavatum *e.* ingreditur, quæ articulatio superior et interior est. E contra vero, in articulatione alterâ, sc. inferiori et exteriori, sinus, is autem minus conspicuus in costâ ad *e.* excavatur, qui cum protuberantiâ spinæ, ad *b.* extante articulatur. Jam vero si supponamus caput costæ istius *a.* in cavitate spinæ *c.* collocari, et finum costæ *e.* protuberantiæ spinæ *b.* incumbere, et dein costam eam, binis istis articulationibus spinæ connexam, sursum moveri, facile est conceptu, costam eam

ad lævam, five quod idem est, respectu pectoris extrorsum latum iri. P. 284-5.

(H) Neque illud prætereundum est, quod cartilaginee istæ, quarum interventu costæ cum sternone jungantur, non sine obliquitate notabili costis inferantur, prout in *Fig.* . delineatur, in quâ *a. c.* costa fit, *c. e.* cartilago, cujus interventu costa ea cum sternone combinatur, *e.* angulus ex commissura ambarum constitutus. Obliquitas autem ista eo spectat, ut costæ extendantur, et extrorsum in orbem trahantur. P. 285.

(1) Verum rem penitus inspicienti et arcuatam costarum figuram, earumque inarticulationem consideranti manifestum est, costas attolli non posse, nisi simul recedant extrorsum, atque ita thoracem amplificent. P. 310, Vol. II.

S E C T. XII.

Of DIGESTION and Use of the SPLEEN.

When we reflect upon the many diseases, idiopathic and sympathetic, to which the stomach is so often subject, we are not surpris'd, at the almost innumerable dissertations that have been published, to explain the nature and cause of digestion; that grand function, upon which depends the life and activity of the whole frame. To an attentive observer, nothing appears more curious, than digestion, by which substances the most heterogeneous, are converted and assimilated into a bland and nutritious fluid. One of the first causes to which it was attributed, was fermentation, obviously because this operation was the first that presented itself; in which it was perceived, that the qualities of substances were spontaneously and completely changed. It was natural, therefore, to have recourse to a ferment, which seem'd so satisfactorily

fatisfactorily to explain this important function. The term fermentation, was applied almost to any internal motion, which took place in various substances; it was applied, uniformly, to the decomposition of all bodies, and was equally extended to the effervescence, produced by the union of an acid with an alkali. Decomposition, certainly, takes place in every fermentation; and in this sense of the word, it is with equal propriety applied to digestion.

The knowledge of respiration, has beautifully explained the connection between that function and digestion. That animal food increases the necessity, and causes a greater absorption of oxygen by the lungs, is now placed beyond a doubt, and will certainly lead to important regulations, in the regimen of patients, in different diseases. Certain it is, that the union of oxygen with hydrogen, &c. produces considerable effects in the system; and by this union, provided the oxygen be taken in by the lungs, results animal heat, the *sine qua non* of animal life. If the oxygen be thrown in by the stomach, in the form of acids, &c. it is in a fixed state, separated from its caloric; of course

this method of oxygenating the system, is not so useful, when we wish to increase the generous and benign stimulus of animal heat, as in chlorosis, dropfy, &c. But in fevers of the putrid kind, when the heat is very great, from the rapid decomposition of oxygen, and when, at the same time, we wish, under certain circumstances, to throw in that fluid, the stomach seems, at least, as good a medium as the lungs, for oxygenating the system. I, therefore, cannot agree with my ingenious friend, Dr. Rollo, that it is proper, in every case, to oxygenate the system by the stomach. Besides, when we oxygenate by the lungs, we aid digestion more powerfully; and in dyspepsia, where acidity always more or less prevails, oxygen is present in sufficient quantity; but it requires animal heat to give vigour, and apply the oxygen to the purposes of the œconomy; and cold extremities is a never failing symptom in dyspepsia. Acids, too, are cooling, and they appear to me to produce this effect, by lessening the absorption of oxygen with caloric by the lungs.

Let us now examine, what Mayow has said on this subject: He will not admit the opinion of
his

his time, that digestion is owing to an acid ferment in the stomach. The acid eruptions are produced by bad digestion, and not by any natural acid in the stomach. Iron, indeed, is corroded, and milk coagulated in the stomach. How is this to be accounted for? In the first place, I suppose, that digestion is performed by the animal spirits, carried through the nerves, which are so numerously supplied to the stomach; and according as the animal spirits are supplied, in greater or less quantity, to the chylopoietic organs, the digestion of our food is more slowly or more quickly performed. (A) Hence if any one, after food, applies to study, or employs his thoughts on any abstruse subject, so that the animal spirits are, in a great measure, detained in the brain, on account of the attentive contemplation, and greater agitation of the mind, the office of digestion is not rightly performed, because there is a want of animal spirits: but our food remaining undigested in the stomach, causes a heaviness and anxiety in that organ, as any one may put to the test of experiment in himself. But, on the contrary, when the mind is not engaged in thought, as in sleep,

sleep, the digestion of our food goes on perfectly well; for then the animal spirits, not being employed in carrying on other functions, are copiously supplied to the organs destined to digestion: hence it happens, that immediately after a full meal, we feel a great propensity to sleep. It is a fact, which no one will now dispute, that the brain should be continually supplied with well oxygenated blood, in order that its functions may be exerted vigorously, and unimpaired. Certain it is, too, that oxygen powerfully assists digestion; but whether it produces this effect by giving vigour to the nervous system, or that the oxygen is immediately carried to the stomach, for this purpose, from the aorta, through the cæliac and gastric arteries, I cannot determine. Mayow, himself, had his doubts upon this point. ^(B) I will not, he says, positively assert, whether in land animals,* besides the nitro-aerial spirit communicated by the nerves, there be also an aerial ferment, directly supplied from the mass of blood to the stomach.

I should

* He had just quoted Dr. Gault. Needham, to prove, that there is a communication between the stomach and air-bladder of fishes.

I should think, it was necessary in both cases. The stomach, we know, is very vascular; no function is performed by the blood, without the assistance of nerves. Is it then inconsistent to say, that the arterial blood, which follows so copiously to the stomach, is intended to supply oxygen, as a component part of the gastric juice, and also animal heat, as a stimulus to the stomach;* and that the nerves are intended to give vital energy to the whole, by the supply of nervous electricity, or any other power, the reader chuses to give the nerves? From observing, that the brain must be supplied with fire-air particles, and that digestion is injured, if after a full meal we are employed in deep thought; (c) hence, I would conclude, says Mayow, the far-famed ferment of the stomach, is chiefly composed of nitro-aerial particles, which being deposited, through the medium of the nerves, or the membranes of the stomach, it is highly probable, are there mixed with a proper fluid, secreted from the blood by glandular membranes,

* The ingenious Mr. Coleman has shewn, that it is animal heat, and not oxygen, which is the stimulus to the fibre.

branes, of which the stomach is composed; both these being carried, by proper vessels, into the cavity of the stomach, from its fermenting liquid.* And we may now know, why a clear and pure air causes appetite, and promotes the digestion of a surfeit; while, on the contrary, a dense atmosphere, polluted with noxious vapours, soon produces anxiety at the stomach. (D) If the stomach is entirely empty, it is very probable, that its inner membranes are irritated by the nitro-aerial particles; hence hunger is produced. Such is the admirable and concise manner, in which the accurate Mayow reasons on this subject. Who can withhold their applause, when we find him, in
every

* Although Mayow had denied, that digestion was owing to an acid ferment; yet we see, he makes use of this term, because the physiological vocabulary was not sufficiently enlarged, to allow a better. This is evident, from what he says in the sentence immediately preceding: Although the nitro-aerial spirit is, of itself, not acid, yet iron is corroded by it, and by being united with other substances, it becomes almost an universal menstruum: hence the far-famed, &c. &c. Has he not here anticipated Stevens, Spallanzani, and Hunter, in their ideas of the gastric solvent?

every case, striking out some noble truths, and wonderfully anticipating the modern pneumatists?

After some observations on the succus pancreaticus, which, he says, contains fire-air particles, the next subject which occupies his attention, is the spleen; the use of which has baffled the investigation of physiologists. Mayow observes, that after this part of his work was written, De Graaf's publication, *De Succo Pancreatico*, came into his hands, in which the same use was assigned to it by De Graaf, as by himself, *viz.* by its union with bile, to form a proper digestive for the chyme. But we cannot, adds Mayow, agree with him, that the pancreatic juice possesses any acidity; for in that case, instead of forming a homogeneous fluid, it would produce an indissoluble coagulum, which acids are known to precipitate from bile*. The subserviency of the spleen to the liver, has been long noticed by anatomists, and considered as its principal, if not its only use; notwithstanding that the idea is contradicted by the remarkable
and

* For a confirmation of this fact, see Maclurg's *Experiments on Human Bile*, p. 11; and Saunders on the *Liver*, p. 102-3.

and well authenticated fact, that animals can live, perfectly well, after the spleen has been cut out, as is observed by Mayow, Baglivi, and innumerable others. The ingenious Dr. Saunders has made an experiment, which decisively proves, that the functions of the liver are, altogether, independent of the spleen. He examined the bile of a dog, from which the spleen had been removed for several weeks, and found no difference between it and bile under the usual circumstances*. When it was found, that the animals could live without a certain viscus, no wonder that the medical world was perplexed about its use. It is imagined, that a physiologist, now a lecturer in the Borough, has discovered (if it is discovered) the true use of the spleen. It is considered by this gentleman, as a reservoir for blood, which is supplied to the chylapoietic organs, during digestion. The stomach being distended with food, presses upon that viscus, and prevents the blood from flowing freely through the splenic artery; consequently a greater than usual quantity will be carried to the stomach and pancreas, into which branches from the splenic

* P. 42.

nic artery are distributed : hence a greater secretion takes place, from these viscera producing their salutary effects. If this be the whole of the theory, Dr. Haighton will find, that he has been anticipated, many years ago. We shall first examine what Mayow has said upon this subject.

That it may be understood, what opinion we entertain, respecting the use of the spleen, we must here repeat, what has been before mentioned, *viz.* It is probable, that to support animal life, it is necessary that the animal spirits, *i. e.* the nitro-aerial particles, must be continually passing through the brain, or, at the least, the cerebellum ; hence it happens, that if respiration be suppressed, or the pulsation of the heart be interrupted, but for a moment, the more perfect animals are instantly destroyed. The nitro-aerial particles are carried by nerves from the brain to the different parts. The organs of digestion, require a greater supply of nitro-aerial particles at one time, than at another. It is, therefore, probable, that the spleen is formed to mix, intimately, the nitro-aerial particles with the blood. The functions, therefore, of the spleen are these : (E) 1. That the nitro-aerial

aerial particles, which incessantly flowing through the brain, are not all exhausted in the natural and animal functions, might be carried back into the mass of the blood, and intimately united with the same. 2. That the nitro-aerial particles might be properly and regularly supplied to the digestive organs; for as these organs are, more or less, full, so they require a greater or less supply of fermentative particles. 3. That the nitro-aerial particles, endued with a motion and activity, and by being intimately blended in the structure of the spleen, with the salino-sulphureous particles, might produce, in the mass of blood, an effervescence, of such a nature, as shall exalt its salino-sulphureous particles to a proper volatility. Mayow, we see, considered the spleen, as subservient to digestion, not mentioning a single word of its connection with the liver. He makes use of the term nitro-aerial particles, instead of arterial blood, as it is only in it, that the fire-air is conveyed to the different parts of the system.* In a work published in 1723, entirely on the spleen,

we

* The fire-air, carried by the nerves, was modified, and became the animal spirits.

we find the author maintaining, that it is intended to assist digestion*. It is the fullest and best account of the spleen we have ever read; and the author seems to have bestowed very considerable pains upon the subject. After mentioning the opinion of the antients, respecting its nature and use, and giving a very accurate description of it, he then offers, very fully his ideas, as to the functions it performs. From the structure, he calls it an animal sponge, the great reservoir and magazine of blood. Mentioning the numerous vessels ramifying through it, he observes; this contrivance in nature, can serve no other purpose, than most effectually to form a sponge, which, when filled by arterial blood, can, at pleasure, upon its contraction, throw it all out again, into the great channel of the splenic vein, or back into the artery, if it be not too full†. The great quantity of blood, which flows to this viscus, must have been intended, by nature, to answer

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some

* Of the Spleen, its Description and History, Uses and Diseases, by William Stukely, M. D. C M L. and S R S. London. 1723.

† P. 19.

some important purpose. The spleen, then, must be said to officiate to the stomach, by pouring in upon it, as it swells in eating, a new quantity of blood, besides that derived in the ordinary course of circulation, which is to procure the required heat and necessary juices in concoction. And that this is not only necessary, but likewise in a very high degree, a little consideration will persuade us*. It would occupy too great a portion of the present work, to mention the facts and arguments, which Stukely brings forward, in confirmation of his opinion; suffice it to say, that it was his opinion, that it supplied blood, during digestion, to all the chylopoietic organs, stomach, pancreas, &c†. and adds, Mayow's opinion quadrates with ours, only putting blood, instead of his favourite nitro-aerious particles, which in due plenty, and with a certain regimen, are carried to the bowels dedicate to the concoction of the aliment‡.

(A) Hinc si quis mox a pastu studiis incumbat, aut super materiâ difficili cogitabundus fuerit, ita

* P. 33.

† P. 61.

‡ P. 42.

ita ut spiritus animales in cerebro, ob contemplationem attentam et majorem mentis agitationem, magnâ ex parte detineantur, digestionis munus, ob spiritum animalium defectum, rite non perficitur; sed cibus in stomacho indigestus manens gravedinem et molestiam ventriculo facit, uti quilibet in seipso experiri potest; cum tamen, e contra, dum animus e cogitationibus vacat, uti etiam in somno, ciborum concoctio optimè peragitur; in quantum sc. spiritus animales, non jam in functionibus aliis obeundis versati, ubertim per viscera digestionis dicata deferuntur. Huc etiam spectat, quod mox a prandio, sive cœnâ pleniore, dormiendi cupiditate teneri solemus. P. 54-5.

(B) Utrum vero etiam in animalibus terrestribus, præter spiritus nitro-aereos nervorum ductu advectos, fermentum insuper aereum immediate a sanguinis massa in ventriculum faceffat, nihil certi statuere possum. P. 56.

(C) Quapropter statuendum esse videtur, fermentum ventriculi adeo decantatum, a particulis nitro-aereis præcipue constare, quæ nervorum ductu in membranas ventriculi depositæ, ibidem, uti verisimile est, liquori idoneo, membranarum

glandulosarum, quibus ventriculus constat, ministerio, a sanguine secreto, commiscentur; e quibus utrisque, per vasa peculiaria, in ventriculi cavitatem ingestis, liquor ejus fermentativus componitur. P. 55-6.

(D) Si stomachus cibus prorsus vacuus fuerit, illius membranæ interiores a particulis nitro-aereis, uti verisimile est, vellicantur; unde fames oriri videtur. P. 57.

(E) 1º Ut particulæ nitro-aeræ, quæ cerebrum serie continua pertranseunt, in functiones naturales aut animales non erogantur, in sanguinis massam reportentur, eidemque rite admisceantur. 2º Ut particulæ nitro-aeræ debitâ copiâ et cum regimine quodam ad viscera ciborum coctioni dicata ferantur; prout enim viscera ea alimento referta, aut vacua fuerint, ita eadem, majori aut minori, particularum fermentativarum affluxu opus habent. 3º Ut particulæ nitro-aeræ, in motu et vigore positæ, cum particulis sanguinis salino-sulphureis in lienis compage quoad minima permixtæ, effervescentiam istiusmodi in cruoris massa excitent, quæ ad particulas ejus salino-sulphureas ad justam volatilitatem perducendas idonea est. P. 62-3.

SECT. XIII.

MAYOW'S EXPLANATION *of some* DISEASES
from his DOCTRINE.

When a principle has been discovered, which produces considerable effects in the phænomena of nature, it becomes a matter of course, not only to recur to this principle for explanation, in deviations from regularity, but also, upon the same foundation, to extend our enquiry by analogical reasoning. Thus, soon after Dr. Priestley had made his discovery of dephlogisticated air, he immediately extended his ideas to respiration; and the discoveries of the great Lavoisier, in France, were followed up, by their application to the irritability of the fibre. When Mayow, therefore, observed the universal agency of his fire-air particles, his penetrating mind immediately perceived, that they would assist him in explaining the symptoms of disease. In our days, upon the same foundation, and in an almost similar manner, a

system of phycic has been formed, which certainly explains satisfactorily, some of the most obscure laws of the animal œconomy. Upon our knowledge of the airs, a superstructure is now daily rising, which will add further dignity to the profession of phycic, and will render it a pursuit, more philosophical and engaging: and we would fain indulge a pleasing thought, that by a more general diffusion of its principles, the credulity of mankind will not be so much imposed upon, by that numerous herd of empirics, which every where insult the common sense of the metropolis. The materia medica has been so much enriched, by the new discoveries, that the study of chemistry must now form an indispensable part, in the education of a medical practitioner. The beautiful and useful manner, in which the new discoveries illustrate the nature of disease; and the remedies they have suggested, in cases hitherto incurable, will render the doctrine, founded upon the pneumatic theory, a most powerful aid in the hands of the physician.* The innumerable cases, already published,

* I here allude, more particularly, to the cure of
 3 diabetes,

published, by Dr. Beddoes, afford a convincing proof of the utility of the airs, in a variety of complaints, which had resisted the effects of the usual remedies; and in the hands of a skilful and cautious practitioner, I have no doubt, that this branch of science, in conjunction with remedies by the stomach, will be made subservient to the most useful purposes in the practice of physic. The manner in which the airs act upon the animal frame, did not escape the all-investigating eye of Mayow. His explanation of their effects upon the body, is, in some cases, perfectly analogous to that of modern times. The chapter, in which he handles this subject, is entitled, ‘Of the diseases, to which the animal spirits are subject.’ The first disease which arrests his attention, is phthisis; and this, we know, was the first complaint, in which the theory and practice of pneumatic chemistry was applied. He explains it, as arising from the want of fire-air: this forms, however,

diabetes, by the hepatifed ammonia, &c. and the venereal disease, by the nitrous acid of oxygenated muriat of potash; for which see the ingenious work published by Dr. Rollo, and Mr. Cruikshank of Woolwich.

no objection to the justness of his remarks, as the reasons which he subjoins are conclusive, and which occurred to Dr. Beddoes, in his observations on that disease. (A) In order that animal life may be properly supported, it is of great consequence, that the lungs possess a sound diathesis, that the nitro-aerial particles may be supplied to the blood, in sufficient quantity, and be intimately united with its sulphureous particles. Hence, if the lungs should become consumed or tabid, the blood, on account of the want of nitro-aerial particles, is not rightly fermented; and because the *motive* particles of both kinds are deficient, there will follow a prostration of strength, and a wasting. This theory, we see, is opposite to the one which Dr. Beddoes proposed, some years ago;* but let it be remembered, that the first trial made, in this complaint, was by the inhalation of oxygen gas. It spreads flowers, says Mr. Chaptal, on the borders of the tomb, and

* I however think it probable, that instances have occurred, where the loss of a considerable part of the substances of the lungs, has checked the progress of the disease. Obs. on Calculus, &c. p. 146.

and prepares us, in the gentlest manner, for the last dreadful effort of nature.*

That oxygen is one of the most powerful stimuli, we can apply to the irritability of the fibre, is, I believe, now very little doubted. When we know, that an animal cannot exist one moment of time, without a supply of this necessary fluid, we cannot but conclude, that it is concerned, in a variety of alterations which occur in the body, both in health and disease. That its quantity may be increased or diminished, by certain alterations in the state of the system, affecting the lungs, is as probable and certain, as that the absorption by the skin, undergoes these variations, from a multiplicity of causes. It is probable, too, that even should a sufficient quantity of oxygen be absorbed by the lungs, yet, from certain causes, it may not be supplied to different organs of the body, in the quantity which the part may require. The brain is one of those organs, which require a continual supply of well oxygenated blood, to support both mental and corporeal vigour. (B) If the
nitro-

* Elements of Chemistry, Vol. I. p. 138-9.

nitro-aerial particles, says Mayow, are not supplied to the brain in sufficient quantity, or are unable to pass obstructed nerves, a deranged state of the animal œconomy must be the consequence; and it would seem, that from this cause, not unfrequently are produced apoplexy, palsy, and diseases of that kind. If there be a fluid, necessary to the functions of the nervous system, it is highly probable, that a deranged structure of the nerve will impede, or totally prevent its transmission. The influence, termed animal electricity, is, we know, varied in its transmission through the nerves, by a variety of causes. If, therefore, we agree with Valli, in supposing the animal electricity to be the same with the nervous power, may we not be allowed to imagine, that a nerve may be so affected, as to become a non-conductor to that fluid? Is any one air a better conductor than another? Air, we know, is only a conductor, in proportion to the moisture it contains; but has it been proved, that none of the airs are possessed of a conducting power? As charcoal is a conductor, it is probable, that the carbonated hydrogen possesses that quality. Experiments, instituted
upon

upon these queries, would probably be more than curious. That oxygen is of as great use to the nervous, as to the muscular parts of our bodies, is evident, from the great quantity distributed by the carotid arteries. A sixth-part of the whole mass of blood is driven to the brain, from the heart, in an oxygenated form, and quickly returns thence, de-oxygenated, and is as speedily supplied by fresh oxygenated blood. - The oxygen, therefore, which is carried to the brain, may, previous to its being applied to the nervous system, undergo, let me say, from morbid action, combinations, inconsistent with the healthy functions of the brain. Does not something, analogous to this, evidently take place in diabetes? Is there not here, diseased action, forming combinations, from the elementary part of our food, inconsistent with health? If, in other parts of the body, oxygen enters into morbid combinations, it is probable, that the same effect may be produced in the brain. It was maintained by Mayow, that as fire-air was so indispensable to the health of the brain, so any quantity of another principle, would produce opposite effects. He imagined, that a greater than usual quantity of salino-

salino-fulphureous particles, might get admiffion into, and injure the brain. Whatever obftructs oxygen, will, in fome degree, increafe the other principles; for as oxygen is withdrawn, the other principles will be more or lefs difengaged, and thus an accumulation take place, as happens in fcurvy. We do not mean, that they are completely difengaged in the vafcular fyftem, but that they form a combination, into the compofition of which, oxygen does not enter, and thus produce the falino-fulphureous particles of Mayow.

As the nitro-aerial particles, fays our author, are abfolutely neceffary to the functions of the brain, fo the falino-fulphureous ought to be excluded from it. (c) If it fhould fo happen, that they get entrance too copioufly into the brain, the animal œconomy is difturbed, as happens in intoxication, epilepsy, and fimilar difeafes: for liquors replete with a volatile fulphur, as fpirit of wine, and the chemical oil of vegetables, too inconfiderately taken, not unfrequently produce thefe difeafes. Intoxication, we know, is produced quickeft by the ftrongeft fpirits, that is, by thofe which have the fmalleft quantity of oxygen in
their

their composition, and their other principles in the loosest state of combination. The degree of intoxication, independent of the quantity of spirit taken, will, no doubt, be relative to the excitability of the system. It is not the mere increase of vascular action, nor the stimulus, abstractedly considered, applied to the stomach, which causes drunkenness. That a de-oxygenated state takes place, is evident, from the paleness and lassitude which succeed a debauch. With respect to epilepsy,* we know it to be produced by a variety of

* The mention of this disease, brings to my recollection, a case which occurred, under my own observation. At the commencement of the winter, 1796, when I was in London, a man applied for advice for fits, to which he was subject. I mention this, as one of the innumerable impositions practised by the empirics. I found the complaint to be epilepsy. The subject was a shoemaker, ætat. 23 : had been under the care of an apothecary in town; but being impatient, and allured by the deceitful hand-bills daily distributed in the streets of London, he applied for relief to the author of one of them, who told him, that the disease was trifling, and should be cured in a week; after some months, he dismissed him uncured, not, however, before he

of causes, affecting the nervous system; but more particularly, that great source of nervous energy, the brain. We are very little acquainted with the precise nature of diseases, caused by affections of this organ. Its excitement and collapse, to use the words of the great Dr. Cullen, depend so much upon, what appear to us, contradictory causes, that they have divided and perplexed the medical world. Spasmodic affections of all kinds, are frequently very much beyond the reach of medical art, notwithstanding the elucidation that has been given to the subject, by an ingenious physician. Pathology, says Dr. Beddoes, is, on no account, more indebted to the author of *Zoonomia*,

had taken from him twenty guineas!!! When he applied to me, he had a fit almost daily, attended with considerable sickness and vomiting at times. I concluded, that the disease was owing to a diminished energy, connected with dyspepsia; but I knew, that although I removed the original cause, the disease would be continued from habit. I, therefore, ordered an æther draught to be taken, whenever he, in the least, suspected a fit was coming on. This, together with occasional vomits, a proper regimen, and pills formed of the calx of zinc, and tartarized iron, restored him to health.

nomia, than for the light he has thrown upon the obscure origin of convulsive diseases. The reader would do well, to consult this part of Dr. Darwin's publication, with the cases published in the fourth part of Considerations on Factitious Airs, with the ingenious speculations of Dr. Beddoes on the subject.

We have mentioned it, as the opinion of Mayow, that an accumulation of those principles in the system, which exclude oxygen, proves highly injurious to the well being of animal life. Some observations which he adds, are extremely curious, and are analogous to a similar subject, mentioned in Medical Extracts. I wish the reader to attend to this explanation, as it decidedly points out, Mayow's ideas of chemical combinations, which sometimes takes place in our frame. (D) To the same cause, may be referred a fact, which has more than once come under my observation, *viz.* I have known several subject to be seized by maniacal and convulsive fits, whose saliva, when thrown upon the fire, during these paroxysms, has burst into a flame, like oil, or rather like gunpowder. It is probable, adds Mayow, that these phænomena

phænomena are owing to the falino-sulphureous particles ; the reader will recollect, that these are the principles which Mayow had maintained, united with the nitro-aerial particles, or oxygen, to produce fire or flame. In the first Vol. p. 92, of Medical Extracts, are some curious facts, mentioned with a similar idea. Some remarkable cases are there quoted, from authors of the first respectability, of persons who have been consumed by fire, in consequence of dram-drinking ; so eager, says the ingenious Dr. Beddoes, are the principles, of which such persons are composed, to combine with oxygen. The reader may attach what credit he pleases to such facts. Persons, who consider the subject with a vulgar eye, will probably turn from it with contempt and ridicule ; but the philosophic enquirer, although he may have his doubts, rests not his disbelief upon the appearance of improbability. A fact, somewhat similar to those we have referred to, I find mentioned by Baglivi : On dissecting a dog, the vapors which exhaled from the viscera, crepitated like sea-salt, when a candle was applied*.

* Dissert. de Experim. Anat. Pract. p. 110. The hog
had

It appears, from some observations of the ingenious Mayow, that it was his opinion, that the functions of the brain might be injured, not only by directly with-holding the nitro-aerial particles from that organ, but also indirectly, by any changes which might be produced, with this principle, in other parts. Is not this evident, from the following expressions? (E) Melancholy and madness, are owing to the salino-sulphureous particles being detained in the spleen, and there effervescing, for a long time, with the nitro-aerial particles, produce the atra-bilious and gloomy disposition. The manner of his expression here, and the mode of explanation, are conformable to the idea he entertained, of the nature and functions of spleen; and the atrabilis was a constant attendant of the melancholia, according to the ancients. The curious sympathy, that exists between the brain

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and

had been, previously, fed, with a view to experiment. The lacteals were copious and tinged upon the mesentery, and also some lymphatics; the fluid in the latter, I tasted, says Baglivi, which was very sharp, and left a very disagreeable impression upon the tongue; eratque mordacissima, et linguam graviter feriebat. The animal was very much emaciated, and laboured under the mange.

and abdominal viscera, is known to the most superficial medical observer; but why an affection of these parts, produces a concomitant change in the functions of the brain, is difficult to prove. When the chylo-poietic organs are debilitated, or deranged in their actions, who has not observed a great disposition in the patient to magnify his complaints? Every medical practitioner must have frequently observed, that a cathartic has removed that gloominess, which overcasts the minds of those, who are subject to what is called the melancholic temperament.

It is evident, that animal heat, the result of this decomposition of oxygen, is absolutely necessary to the energy of the brain. As this is the case, we may be indulged in an observation. When any of the chylo-poietic organs are in a deranged state, a disposition to the generation of acidity is always present; hence oxygen is absorbed, in less quantity, by the lungs; animal heat is, consequently, diminished, the vascular system becomes weakened in its action, for the want of a sufficient stimulus, the brain is deprived of its necessary quantity of animal heat, and the
train

train of thought will be affected, in proportion as the organ undergoes any modification, from an *altered* supply. This is entering more into speculative theory than we wish ; but when principles cannot be rendered cognifable to our senses, it is natural and reasonable, to hazard conjecture ; and from conjectures, facts often arise, which are perfectly reconcilable to truth and experience. It is not my wish nor intention to vindicate every theory, Mayow may have thought his discoveries suggested : but his hints, as well as his positive facts, ought to be taken into the account ; and from the remarkable co-incidence between his discoveries and observations, and those of modern times, it would be an injustice not to pay as particular attention to his speculations, as to those of a more recent theorist upon the same subject.

Notwithstanding that oxygen is so easily taken in by the lungs, it is not decomposed from the blood by simple chemical affinity alone. The heat of the body is, by no means, sufficient to form the different combinations, according to the laws of chemistry. We must, therefore, look out for some other aid, to account for those various

decompositions, which we observe to take place daily in our body. We can refer it to nothing, but the principle of life. A certain action is, therefore, necessary in the vessels, to prepare the different elementary principles, in order to form the various compounds which the system may require. Our food, which consists principally of hydrogen, azot, and carbon, must, therefore, be modified, by the powers of the system, in such a manner, that when decomposed, the elementary parts may readily unite with oxygen; a circumstance absolutely necessary to animal heat and motion. The same idea presented itself, to the all-grasping mind of our most accurate author. (F) It is absolutely necessary to the support of life, says Mayow, that the salino-sulphureous particles* be so managed by the powers of the system, as to be brought to that state, in which they readily unite with nitro-aerial particles. As it is evident, that such an action must belong to the system, and as that action may be rendered irregular, by a variety of causes, it follows, that the

* The reader will recollect, that Mayow said, that our food is composed of these particles.

the elementary principles may be formed into compound, inconsistent with the health of the system. (G) If the salino-fulphureous particles, says our author, are not properly prepared, on account of some morbid diathesis of the muscular fibre, an impediment to motion will be the consequence; and, therefore, it is probable, that the spontaneous lassitude and disinclination to move, which take place in scurvy and jaundice, arise from this cause. Is there not here, something more than a hint of that theory, proposed by Dr. Beddoes, and confirmed by Dr. Trotter? and do not the remarkable inability, and disinclination to motion in scurvy, confirm the ideas of Mayow*? with respect to jaundice, every medical observer is acquainted with the languor, that attends an obstructed flow of bile into the intestines. We have mentioned, that when a debilitated action takes place in the abdominal contents, a consequent effect is produced upon the brain; and, in proportion as this is affected, a diminished energy

P 3

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* Vide Lind, Roupp, Blane, &c. A disinclination to exertion, is so prominent a symptom, that Cullen mentions asthma in his Definition. Synop. Nosolog. Method, P. 294.

is communicated to the whole nervous system; or, to use the words of Dr. Saunders, a torpor is diffused, by sympathy, over every part of the system, and langour and lassitude prevail.* As a certain degree of vigour is necessary in the body, to eliminate and apply the elementary principles, taken in by the stomach and lungs, it follows, that whatever lessens that necessary degree of power, prevents the proper decomposition of our food; the caloric will, therefore, not be disengaged from the oxygen, and the system will want that indispensable stimulus to its excitability: hence follow the cold extremities, langour and fallowness of countenance, observed in those who are, from any cause, affected with torpor of the alimentary canal. There seems, observes Dr. Saunders, much sympathy between the brain and liver; and in maniacal persons, there is generally a defect in the secretion of bile.†

Whatever

* P. 123.

† P. 154. Does not this explain, the good effects that are sometimes produced by strong purgatives in mania? Does the stramonium act in any other way, than by producing
a flow

Whatever part of the works of Mayow we examine, we always find sufficient cause for admiring the fertility of his genius, and the accuracy of his remarks. ^(H) As it appears, that with debility, as in scurvy, there is a deficiency of fire-air, therefore, says Mayow, we now know, the reason why exercise of the body contributes so much to the cure of scurvy and jaundice, and to keep off the paroxysms of intermittents: for, during exercise, respiration is so much quickened, that the nitro-aerial particles are thrown into the blood, in much greater quantity. How beautifully has the truth of this theory been illustrated and confirmed, in some of the most popular and recent publications. The reader has only to consult the works of Beddoes, Thornton, Trotter, &c. to find analogous theories explained and confirmed. In every case of muscular contraction, there is an expenditure of oxygen, and the waste is in proportion to the quantity and violence of exertion. It is probable, too, that the exertion

P 4

of

a flow of the different secretions into the intestines, and thus relieving their torpor, and ultimately the brain?—Vide Rush's Essays.

of the muscles may be so violent, as to expend or eliminate out of the body, more oxygen than the lungs are able to convey to the system, especially if they be, in any degree, morbidly affected. This seems to explain, says Beddoes, an observation, that has so frequently been made at sea; that the scurvy makes its appearance after a storm, when the seamen, having undergone violent exercise, have expended a great part of the oxygen of the solids.* Animals, during violent motion, observes Mayow, breathe very quick; because the blood, returning to the heart, is deprived of the nitro-aerial particles, and very much so in the brain, for the formation of animal spirits. (1) From this we may see, the reason why blood, drawn during a convulsive paroxysm, is apt to be thick, and in some degree grumous: for in the more violent muscular contraction, there is not only a very great waste of nitro-aerial, but also of salino-sulphureous particles (upon the proper union of which, the fermentation and fluidity of the blood depend); and on this account it is, that the blood

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* Observations on Calculus, &c. P. 50.

is more disposed to coagulate. This happens too more readily, in these cases, if the parts, subservient to respiration, become convulsed, then on account of respiration being almost suppressed, the waste of nitro-aerial particles, caused by the convulsions, cannot be so quickly restored, as in other violent motions, when respiration is free. The great disposition which the blood shews to coagulate, in a de-oxygenated state, and the curious, but extraordinary case, furnished to Dr. Beddoes, by the Leyden Professor, are a confirmation of these admirable observations of Mayow. The reader will recollect, too, how quickly oxygen communicated fluidity to the coagulated blood, in an experiment which we made with a frog.

Having now, in a great measure, finished our extracts from Mayow's works, we cannot but express much surprize, that such noble and confirmed truths, should have lain buried in oblivion for near a century. Every candid reader must yield his assent, to this very extraordinary anticipation of modern discoveries. I feel a degree of veneration for his name, when I reflect upon his genius; and I have derived the same satisfaction
from

from the perusal of his works, that was felt by the ingenious Professor of Gottingen. *Acutissimi ingenii medici Joh. Mayow, says Blumenbach, tractatum Oxon. 1674 editum, magnâ cum voluptate legi et relegi.**

The philosophy of Mayow was published in an age, remarkable for its production of great literary characters. Contemporary with him were Boyle, Newton, Lower, Willis, and innumerable others, whose labours have considerably improved the sciences.† Harvey had but lately discovered the circulation; the philosophic world was engaged in examining the Newtonian and Cartesian doctrines; and the theory of Stahl was just adopted by chemists, and was in the full career of its glory. Germany was now famous, all over Europe, for its production of able chemists; and men were much attached to the chemical labours of that country, which had given birth to Becher, to Van Helmont, and to Stahl. It was impossible for a man, who died at the early age of thirty-two, however

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* *Instit. Physiologicæ*, P. 114. 1787.

† We may mention Sydenham, Glisson, Thruston, Bartholin, De Graaf, and Stahl.

ever true his theory, or just his system, to oppose, with success, such accumulated obstacles. No champion would be found, hardy enough to stem the tide of popular opinion, with theories and experiments not his own; and it is not likely, that many would risk their literary reputation, in defence of doctrines, which appeared to meet with general disapprobation. Thus it was, that the opinions of Mayow did not attract notice, till many years after his death, when his works were read and admired by some of the first philosophers of the age. His opinions, however, were not generally understood, so as to form a system; the public mind was not ripe for improvement; and thus it was, that his theories were lost, in the great mass of discordant doctrines. The best mode, says Dr. Scherer, which led to the perfection of chemistry, and which, although now adopted, does not remain entirely exempt from controversy, was forgotten, and suffered to lie in dust and oblivion, for upwards of a century. It is but a few years ago, that Wiegel, Blumenbach, and latterly, Dr. Mettger, all friends of antient literature, have called the attention of the chemist
and

and physiologist, to the penetrating genius of our author.*

The name of this great man is now restored to the annals of science; his genius is acknowledged, his abilities admired, and his opinions confirmed. The unequivocal concurrence of respectable testimonies, have added lustre to his literary fame; and may the laurel of merited reputation continually flourish, unfaded, which the fatigues of discovery have wreathed about his brow.

(A) Ad vitam animalem ritè instituendam, imprimis necessarium est, ut pulmones diathesi sanâ potiantur, quo particulæ nitro-aeræ copiâ fatis amplâ in cruoris massam trajiciantur, et cum particulis ejus sulphureis quoad minima permisceantur.

* These physiologists, however, did not sufficiently appreciate the merits of Mayow.—Vide Appendix, No. VI. The gentleman who favoured us with this letter, is not the Dr. Scherer who made extracts from Mayow's works. Monf. de la Metherie, has also given a short account of Mayow's chemical opinions, with the plate of his pneumatic apparatus. Vide Observations sur la Physique, sur l'Histoire Naturelle, & sur les Arts, par M. l'Abbe Rozier. P. 154.

ceantur. Hinc si pulmones absumpti sint, aut etiam tabidi, flaccidique fuerint, sanguinis massa, ob particularum nitro-aerearum defectum, non ritè fermentatur: unde fit, quod particulæ motivæ utriusque generis deficient, eòque summa virium dejectio, corporisque imbecillitas contabescencia sequantur. P. 73.

(B) Si particulæ nitro-aeræ aut copiâ non debitâ in cerebrum deferantur, aut nervos obstructos pertransire nequeant, œconomiam animaleam et functionem motivam perturbari necesse est. Atque ab hâc causâ apoplexia, paralyfis, idque genus morbi alii, haud rarò originem trahere videntur. P. 73.

(C) Hinc œconomia animalis valde perturbatur, uti in ebrietate, epilepsiâ, id genus aliisque morbis, evenire verisimile est: quippe liquores sulphure volatili referti, veluti spiritus vini, oliaque vegetabilium chymica, nimis propere ingesta, morbos prædictos haud raro inducunt. P. 74.

(D) Huc spectat observatio, haud semel a me facta. Nempe quosdam noveram paroxysmis veluti maniacis et insuper convulsionibus corripis solitos, quorum sputum, dum istius modi paroxys-

mis laborarunt, igni immiffum, inftar olei, feu potius pulveris pyrii ritu, in flammam prorumperit. P. 74.

(E) Quoad melancholiam et maniam, probabile eft particulas fanguinis falino-fulphureas, in lienis parenchymate detentas, ibidemque cum fpiritibus nitro-aereis diu effervescentes, indolem atribilariam malignamque acquirere. P. 75.

(F) Ad vitam infuper animale et functionem motivam instituendam requiritur, ut massa fanguinea particulis falino-fulphureis, iisque debite evectis imprægnetur, quo viz. particulæ nitro-aeræ iis admiftæ, effervescenciam justam in cruoris massâ excitent. P. 75.

(G) At vero si particulæ falino-fulphuræ, ob fermentationem fanguinis nimis imminutam non rite exaltentur, aut ob carnis musculosæ diathesin vitiatam non satis prompte a cruoris massa fecerantur, functio motiva vix institui potest; et utique probabile est, lassitudinem eam spontaneam, et ad motum ineptitudinem, quæ scorbutum et mortum ictericum comitantur, ab hac causâ procedere. P. 76.

(H) Ex dictis ratio assignanda est, cur corporis
 2 exercitium

exercitium ad morbum ictericum, scorbutumque, item ad febrium intermittantium paroxysmos præcavendos tantum valet : nempe in exercitiis, particulæ nitro-aeræ majori copia per respirationem intensiorem, in sanguinis massam transmittuntur P. 76-7.

(1) Ex quibus ratio petenda est, cur sanguis, in paroxysmis convulsivis emissus, valde crassus et aliquantulum grumofus esse solet : nempe in contractione musculari violentiori, non tantum particularum nitro-aerearum, sed etiam salino-sulphurearum (a quibus mutuo æstuantibus, sanguinis fermentatio et fluiditas dependent) dependia quam maxima fiunt, eoque cruoris massam aliquantulum coagulari necesse est. Hoc etiam tum præsertim contingit, cum etiam partes respirationi inservientes, convulsiones patiuntur, tunc enim ob respirationem fere suppressam, particularum nitro-aerearum jactura in motibus convulsivis facta, non uti alias in motibus violentis per respirationem instauratur. P. 44.

S E C T. XIV.

MAYOW'S WORKS *attended to by various*
AUTHORS, *after his DEATH.*

It is a trite, but just observation, that the works of an author often lie neglected, till the author himself has paid the debt of nature. It then not unfrequently happens, that many exert themselves to bring his works into notice. It requires time, too, to unfold the reasoning of the mind ; and as most people have not paid that attention to the subject which the author himself has, they will not so readily understand his experiments. As observations are made, they confirm the facts, or refute the theory advanced by him, whose labours have been overlooked. If the subject is of sufficient importance, at all to engage the attention, the author, in either case, is in time taken notice of ; and we are often surprised to find, that truths so noble, and the result
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of tedious experiment, should have been neglected, for a considerable length of time. This seems to have been the case with our ingenious author; and it will be a pursuit of pleasing curiosity, to examine how far his writings were taken notice of, when he was unable to feel the honors paid to his superior genius. The comprehensive abilities of Mayow, not to be restrained within the narrow limits of ordinary minds, grasped, at once, the whole animal œconomy, and endeavoured to explain all its laws, from his admirable discoveries. If in the ardour of enquiry, he is sometimes found to be wrong, we are not to blame the genius of the man, so much as the fallibility of humanity. When the mind has been long employed, in investigating the causes of natural phænomena, it feels an inexpressible pleasure, in detecting the operations of nature: it gives a spur to industry, and a rest for further enquiry. Wholly taken up with the object of its pursuit, and exulting in the satisfaction of not being employed in vain, it is apt to stray from the principles with which it set out, and fall into error, from premature conclusions. It is thus, that many great abilities have

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been

been led into mistakes, by a favourite doctrine.

The opinion, that air held a considerable share in the functions of the system, had been mentioned, but not understood, before Mayow wrote. We may, therefore, expect, that this part of his works would be first attended to : accordingly, in publications already examined, ample testimony is given, of the confidence placed in the accuracy of Mayow's experiments, and his authority quoted, in confirmation of observations on the aerial doctrine. The manner in which the ingenious Woulferstan explained the effects produced by the bite of the adder, shewed, that he had very particularly attended to Mayow's writings. The equivocal expressions of, *particula nitro-aerea*, *nitro-falina*, &c. which Mayow used, is a reason, why he was so easily misunderstood, by those who did not thoroughly examine into his expressions ; and also afforded an opportunity, for others to ascribe to him opinions, which he never publicly avowed. Science was not yet sufficiently improved, to allow of better ; and as far as chemistry was advanced at this period, no terms could be more aptly

aply applied. Had Mayow's life been spared to an older age, his terms would, no doubt, have been altered; as by a variety of experiments, he would have extended his discovery of oxygen, more generally, and have seen the necessity of *inventing* expressions, less equivocal.

About thirty years after the death of Mayow, a book was published at Amsterdam, on the subject of nitre. Schelhamerus, the author, makes Mayow say, that the air is full of nitre, and the nitrous particles is that part of the air, which is so necessary to the preservation of life. Another author, of more recent date, attributes the same opinion to Mayow. He says, that Mayow pretends, some saltpetre flies about in the atmosphere*. This is entirely a mistake, which it is *now*, we hope, unnecessary to correct. The doctrine, that atmosperic air was replete with nitrous particles, was not attributed to Mayow by Schel-

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hamerus

* Translator of Scheele's Essay. Should it be asked, says Dr. Beddoes, if the author of this assertion had read Mayow, and should it be replied, yes; then let it again be asked, if he understood him; will that question be also answered in the affirmative?—Letter to Dr. Goodwin, p. 38.

hamerus alone. It was believed to be his, and eagerly adopted by the philosophers of Europe: and the manner in which Schelhamerus mentions this circumstance, shews some jealousy of Mayow's reputation. Speaking of the absorption of nitrous particles by the lungs, he adds; (A) Which opinion, *as the present age is so fond of novelty,* was *greedily* received by the physiologists of England, France, Germany, and Holland. This is the account which Schelhamerus gives. Are we warranted in saying, that, because Schelhamerus thought Mayow mentioned, that the air contained nitrous particles, he attributed the adoption of the same opinion to others, who understood him in the right sense? Is it not agreeable to think, that of the many who subscribed to his doctrines, some must have entered into the *true spirit* of Mayow's enquiry? Morhof, we shall see, perfectly understood him. Among those, too, who adopted the opinions of Mayow, the celebrated Baglivi of Rome.

The necessity of applying a name to *that*, which is absorbed during respiration, must have been clearly perceived by all, when that function was
 better

better understood. The anatomist who examined into the structure of the fibre, or the physiologist who theorised upon the nature and effects of respiration, must have acknowledged, after this period, the efficacy of air, in the functions of the animal frame. The great discovery of the circulation had now been made, and acknowledged by all Europe; the full importance of the absorbent system was understood; no wonder then, that the beautiful doctrine of Mayow, as it so well illustrated and *completed* the discovery of the circulation, should have gained so general a reception in the medical world: and had not the madness of politics distracted the attention of mankind, at this time, the discoveries of Mayow might have led to those brilliant truths, which are now universally adopted. It is a remarkable coincidence in the history of science, that the great discoveries in chemistry and physiology, of the last and present century, should have been attended with a corresponding revolution in the politics of Europe. The name of Harvey was first immortalized amid the broils of civil war, and notwithstanding Mayow published his work after the Restoration, politics

still engrossed the attention of the public, and the effervescence produced in the minds of men, by the political mania of the times, did not subside, till 1688, when James abdicated the throne of these kingdoms. Even after that period, the claims of the Pretender found advocates among many, and politics still intruded upon the peaceful labours of the Muses. Scarcely had the beautiful system of Lavoisier excited the attention, and claimed the acknowledgment of the chemist, when the fury of politics, and the madness of war, hurried all things into one undistinguished confusion. How must the heart of every man feel, when he reflects upon the murder of that illustrious philosopher. When shall we again find combined, his spirit, industry, and great abilities, which an ample fortune enabled him to employ to their fullest extent? It is a loss, which a century will not repair. Singular infatuation! that even the hoary head of science should be made to bend, without a crime, to the fury of democratic tyranny *. But to return.

Notwith-

* A great northern philosopher, whose labours have much contributed to our present knowledge of the gases, in
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Notwithstanding the exertions of Schelhamerus, to discredit the doctrines of Mayow, which he did not understand, his truths made their way into the writings of authors of the first respectability. His assertion, that the philosophers, throughout Europe, attributed to Mayow the doctrine, that nitrous particles are absorbed by the blood, is remarkably contradicted in the Polyhistor, of Morhof. Morhof seems to have been better acquainted with the writings of Mayow, than the other authors of his time. He was a man of extensive reading, accurate judgment, and deep penetration. He travelled to different Universities, for the improvement of his mind. (B) He past over into England, immediately upon the Restoration, and celebrated the inauguration of Charles, at Oxford, in Latin verses. He also resided at this University for some time,

an introductory lecture on the History of Chemistry, when he came to the discoveries of Lavoisier, was unable to proceed; the generous feelings of a humane heart, recurring to the cruel circumstance of his death, prevented utterance. It is said, that when Lavoisier was informed, by letter from Dr. Black, of his conversion to the antiphlogistic doctrine, so great was his joy, in having acquired such able support, that he published it in all the newspapers in Paris.

time, to enjoy the benefit of reading, in the extensive library of the Bodleian. As Morhof made it a point to cultivate the acquaintance of the literary, in the different Universities in which he studied, I had imagined, that he might have met with Mayow, when he was at Oxford; but upon adverting to chronology, I find, that was impossible, as Morhof was at Oxford in 1660, and, according to Wood, Mayow did not enter the University, till September 1661, ætat 16.

The assiduous application of Mayow, had not only endeavoured to investigate the laws of the animal œconomy, but he employed his discoveries to account for various phænomena, which occur in natural philosophy. He had extended his doctrine to the explanation of combustion, respiration, the chemical union of salts, &c. &c. In most of his opinions, he is followed by Morhof, who, on every occasion, takes an opportunity of paying him a compliment. In various parts of this author's interesting miscellany, we find the *Tractatus Quintus*, as a book of reference. Among other subjects, which Mayow had considered, that of combustion claimed his attention. He imagined, as we have

have seen, that it was owing to the rapid motion of fire-air particles. In this part, he is quoted by Morhof, who says, that Mayow's opinion is singular; and adds, after having described his theory,—this, to speak the truth, is very ingeniously and curiously imagined by him. On the subject of nitre, Mayow had very ably employed his genius and his pen; and before his time, the nature of this neutral salt was very imperfectly understood. The clear and explicit manner, in which he points out it's composition, claims our admiration, when we consider, through what darkness and confusion he had to wade, in his application to this subject. The promises, which Glauber had made, were not realized, in the subsequent pages of his *Novum Mundi Miraculum*, and his dreams had imposed both on himself and others; neither was any elucidation given to this subject, from the express publication of Clarke. After perusing the treatise, *De Salnitro*, by Mayow, Morhof exclaims; (c) John Mayow has very learnedly, and with much perseverance, enquired into it's composition, in a whole treatise upon the subject; and has shewn, that there is a certain spirit, which he terms nitro-aerial, dis-

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perfed through the earth and are, whence air derived the production and fermentation of all things. As Mayow had applied both his attention and experiments, to difcover the nature and properties of atmofpheric air, he thought it his bufinefs, to explain the phænomena that are produced by the agency of this great mafs of fluids. The fingular appearances, caufed by water-fpouts, attracted his curiofity, and he determined to exert his abilities, in the explanation of them; and the mafterly manner, in which he has executed his determination, is another laurel, which the hand of Genius has wove into his crown. The vacuum formed by converging winds, did not efcape his obfervation; and the water rifing on the principle of the Toricellian tube, is the explanation of the accurate Mayow*. Morhof mentions him, as the author who has given the beft theory of thefe phænomena.

As

* Electricity, certainly, has its influence in the production of water-fpouts; their fudden appearance and difappearance, their occurrence in thunder ftorms, the flafhes of light that are fometimes feen iffuing, the custom that failors have, of prefenting pointed fwords to difperfe them, all tend to confirm this idea.—Nicholfon's Philofophy, Vol. II. p. 361.

(D) As to those aerial whirl-pools, termed by the English, spouts, no one has more accurately explained them than John Mayow, who has also described them by plates.

The chemical accuracy of the indefatigable Mayow, is no where more conspicuous, than in his examination of Bath-waters. Notwithstanding his doctrines did not meet with a kind reception, at first, yet we learn, from Wood, that he became noted, from his practice in physic, and especially in the summer time, in the city of Bath. The waters of this celebrated place of fashionable resort, would not escape the prying eye of one, so eager to examine into the operations of nature, as Mayow; and the results of his experiments and observations, form a curious coincidence with those of Dr. Falconer. It is proper, Mayow observes, before we enquire into the cause of the heat of these waters, to examine their impregnations. The experiments of Mayow, produced the following results. The waters become turbid, from the addition of the fixed and volatile alkalis, and they form a curd in boiling milk *. Hence, he concludes, that

* Falconer on Bath-Waters, Vol. I. p. 240-8.

that an acid is present in these waters, in a combined state. It appears, from the experiments of Dr. Lucas and Dr. Falconer, that selenite, or sulphat of lime, is contained in them. They are therefore rendered turbid by the precipitation of the lime, the alkali seizing upon the sulphuric acid. According to Mayow, these waters contain no nitre, because the residuum, after evaporation, when thrown on burning coals, does not deflagrate like that salt*. Dr. Falconer imagined, that the Bath-waters contained sulphur, in the form of a calcareous hepar. This ingenious gentleman, triturated quicklime and flowers of sulphur, with distilled water, and by adding the different alkalis, in their mild and caustic state, observed, that the same appearances were produced as in the Bath-waters. An objection has been made to this experiment, by a writer on the materia medica, who, had he exerted his chemical abilities, would have discovered, that this objection was founded in error. He maintains, that sulphur and quicklime, triturated with cold water, produce a simple lime-water, without sulphur. This is a mistake; for
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* Vide Falconer, p. 239.

the heat generated during the union of the quicklime and water, is sufficient to produce a solution of some of the sulphur. Dr. Lucas, however, maintains, that they contain no sulphur; Mayow also thinks so, and gives a curious reason, why it was imagined they contained sulphur. It is a prevailing opinion, he says, that silver is tinged yellow by these waters; but this is by no means the case, for the deception has arisen in the following manner. It is a custom with the keepers of the baths, to colour pieces of money with the sulphurous filth of privies, and then sell them to strangers for a moderate compensation. According to our author, these waters contain no sal ammoniac; and the chalybeate impregnation, which they are said to possess, was detected by him. (F) The Cross and Hot-Baths, he says, contain no iron; but the King's Bath strikes a black colour, with infusion of galls. This, too, accords, in some measure, with the experiments of Dr. Falconer, who says, that they all shew the presence of iron; but, beyond all doubt, the chalybeate impregnation is most perceivable in the King's Bath water*,
and

* P. 232.

and Dr. Lucas detected most iron in the water from the same Bath.

Mayow mentions a very curious circumstance, unnoticed by other authors; and as he is very accurate in other respects, I cannot doubt it. (G) He says, that the fabulous matter, which rises with the water from the spring, shews no impregnation of iron, upon the addition of infusion of galls; but if the vitriolic acid be added, a brisk effervescence takes place, and then the infusion will strike a black colour. Hence, he concludes, that this sand contains a metallic impregnation, convertible into a vitriol, by the addition of the acid. It appears, at first sight, a remarkable circumstance, that authors should have varied so much, in their analysis of mineral waters; but when we consider the fallacy that often obtains in these nice experiments, and also the variety of minutiae, which escape the attention, we must be satisfied, with the imperfect knowledge of their impregnations. It appears to me highly probable, that from the continual decompositions which nature is undergoing, the quantities and qualities of the different impregnations must vary,

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at different times, producing no very sensible alteration, except by the nice analysis of chemical tests. Hence, probably, the reason, why the results have so often varied. I think it rational, also, to conclude, that they are continually undergoing a change, and repeatedly return to the same qualities, by succeeding recompositions, from various causes, which we daily see done artificially by the hands of the chemist. The coincidence between the experiments and observations of Mayow, and those of Dr. Lucas and Falconer, is curious and remarkable. In him were combined the rare qualities of industry, genius, and perseverance. Undismayed by the difficulties of pursuit, his ardent mind, with a perception attendant only on great abilities, examined into the secret operations of nature. His clear explanation of complicated experiments, his indefatigable industry, and consequent discoveries, have handed down to posterity, the name of Mayow. It was impossible for a mind, so vigorous as his, to rest satisfied, with giving a simple explanation of the contents of Bath-waters; their heat, also, arrested his attention, and he was determined to

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explain

explain the cause. It was an opinion, pretty generally adopted, in the time of Mayow, that the heat of springs was owing to subterraneous fire. Dr. Jordan was one of the first who rejected this doctrine, and maintained, that from fermentation, was derived the cause of this never-failing heat. It was not sufficient for Mayow to know, that fermentation produced this phænomenon; the cause of *that*, also, must come under his examination. It is owing, therefore, to the decomposition of martial pyrites. The sulphuret of iron, being moistened, becomes heated, and Mayow says, this is produced by the fermentation, which takes place between the air of the water, and the sulphureous part of the marchasite. Will the martial pyrites, moistened *in vacuo*, produce heat? Is it not owing, according to Mayow, to the decomposition of atmospheric air? It is a well known fact, that iron and sulphur, kneaded together, with a little water, will absorb oxygen from the atmosphere. That water contains air, Mayow says, is proved, from the bubbles which are emitted, during the exhaustion of an air pump. In further confirmation of this, he relates an experiment,

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which deserves a description. A vessel, filled with water, is immersed, with its mouth downwards, into a larger one, containing the same fluid. The water is made to boil, and afterwards set by to cool: we shall then find a quantity of air, collected in the upper part of the inverted vessel; and this he found, by his experiments, to possess the elasticity of common air. In perusing many passages of this most ingenious author, my mind is sometimes unwilling to believe, that they were published as far back as 1688; so astonishingly similar are they, to the chemical doctrines, and mode of experiment, lately promulgated; so strikingly great is the analogy between them. That air, too, is contained in water, is evident, from the life of marine animals; for fish soon die in water, from which the air has been exhausted.

(H) In this case, they turn on their backs; because the air in their air-bladder exerts its elasticity, and the abdomen is distended, the atmospheric pressure being removed. He will not determine, whether the contents of the air-bladder enter the mass of blood, as in respiration, but he thinks it

probable; because fishes will live longer than other animals, in an exhausted receiver.*

So just and able account of the heat of mineral waters, would not fail to acquire the assent of the accurate Morhof: no wonder, then, when he found Mayow so clear in his ideas, and so well arranged in his facts, that he rejects the doctrines of others, and prefers Mayow's in this, as in other instances. ⁽¹⁾ More agreeable with truth, appears to be the opinion of John Mayow, who following Jordan, imagines the heat of mineral waters to arise from fermentation, produced in the bowels of the earth; *viz.* the particles of air descending into the earth, with the rains, and there meeting the salino-sulphureous mineral, produce heat in it, and the springs arising from the mineral, thus heated, constitute the warm mineral waters. The
ingenious

* My very worthy friend, Dr. Brodbelt, of Jamaica, has discovered, that the air, in the air-bladder of the sword-fish, is pure oxygen, and which, he very justly observes, is to serve the purposes of life, when the animal is far below the surface of the water.—Vide Letter to Dr. Duncan, in Med. Annals.

ingenious author of the *Polyhistor*. takes notice of Mayow, on several other occasions. The abilities he had displayed, in his treatise on respiration, did not escape the attention of Morhof, who recommends his work, on this subject, with those of Schwammerdam and Thruston. It is evident, from what has been detailed, that Morhof set a value on the labours of Mayow; whether, however, he clearly perceived what Mayow meant, by his nitro-aerial particles, may perhaps be doubted. If we are to judge, merely, from the manner in which he quotes Mayow, it would appear, that he entered into the spirit of his author; on the contrary, when we find no explanatory account of these quotations, a suspicion may be entertained, of his complete knowledge of their meaning*.

It requires more than a cursory reading, to

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The authority of Mayow, as a writer of credit and respectability, was referred to and relied upon, in other branches, besides that of chemistry. Hansen, in his *Inaugural Dissertation on Rickets*, published at Gottingen, 1762, quotes him in the honourable company of Glisson, Petit, Heister, Boerhaave, Hoffman, Sydenham, &c. and he is also frequently mentioned, by the commentator on Van Horne's *Microcosm*.

understand his works, especially when we consider, that at this period, the language of the chemist was not altogether free from the jargon of alchemy. As soon, however, as the composition of the atmosphere, and the knowledge of the different gases began to be developed, by the labours of Hales, of Priestley, and of Black, Mayow's works immediately arrested the attention of the philosophic world. In confirmation of the truth of this observation, we need only remark, that almost directly upon the supposed discovery of fire-air, by Priestley and Scheele, a celebrated writer on physiology immediately referred to Mayow, as the original discoverer*.

It is well known, with what enthusiasm Dr. Beddoes published his extracts from the works of Mayow. The concise manner, in which he treated the subject, barely did justice to the genius of the author. If we have at all filled up the deficiency, or, in any wise, imprest the chemist and physiologist, with the respect due to the abilities of so great a man, we shall feel the most sensible satisfaction; and happy are we, from the investigation we have
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* Blumenbach.

gone through, in being able to contradict the too hasty conclusion, that his name, as it never was echoed by popular applause, was soon forgotten among men, and his memory obliterated.

(A) Quæ sententia, ut est novitatum amans hoc seculum, statim ab omnibus, vel tantum non omnibus Anglis, Batavis, Gallis, Germanis, avidè arrepta est. P. 100*.

(B) Exeunte eodem, A. 1660, in Bataviam et Angliam abiit, viros utriusque celebres salutavit, Caroli II, Britanniaë regis, inaugurationi interfuit, suumque applausum carmine illi testatus est gratulatorio, et in academia Oxoniensi, ut bibliotheca hujus illustri uteretur, aliquandiu substitit. Prolegom. P. 10 †.

R 3

(c) Longe

* Guntheri Christoph. Schelhameri, de Nitro Commentatio. Amstelodami, 1709.

† Danielis Georgi Morhofi, Polyhistor. Literarius, Philosophicus, et Practicus, Edit. à Johanne Mollero, Flensb, Lubecæ, 1714.

(C) Longe doctius and magno molimine, nuper in ejus materiam inquifivit toto libro Johannes Mayow; qui oftendit, per totam terram et aerem spiritum quendam, quem nitro-aereum vocat, effe difperfum, unde omnium rerum fermentationes et germinationes deducit. Lib. II. Part 2, Cap. 38.

(D) Quod ad vortices illos aereos attinet, qui Anglis *fpout* dicuntur, eos nemo accuratius, iconibus etiam additis descripfit, quam Joh. Mayow. Lib. II. Part. 2. Cap. 23.

(E) Balneorum custodibus familiare fit, nummos argenteos fimo falino sulphureo, qualis in cloacis paffim reperire eft, tingere et veluti deaurare, dein eofdem, tanquam aquis balneorum tinctos, peregrinis pro quæftu modico venditare. P. 251.

(F) Quod ad vitriolum denique fpectat, balneum, vulgo dictum Balneum Crucis, item alterum Præfervidum nominatum, vitriolum plane nullum continere videntur; etenim fi gallæ contufæ aquis thermarum dictarum infufæ fuerint, aquæ iftæ colorem purpureum aut nigrum nequaquam habituræ funt. Quod ad Balneum Regis, iftoc vitrioli tantillo imprægnari videtur, quippe fi gallæ contufæ,

ſæ, ejus aquæ injiciantur, eodem colore atro-purpureo leviter tingetur. P. 151-2.

(G) Si fabulum iſtoc balneorum liquore acido imprægnatum, infuſioni gallarum injiciatur, liquor mox colorem atro-purpureum acquiret; cum tamen, ei infuſio gallarum fabulo iſti recens a balneis exempto affundatur, ea nequaquam colorem purpureum obtinebit. P. 252.

(H) Illud hic loci obiter annotare liceat, quod ſi piſcis aquæ in vaſe idoneo contentæ impoſitus, intra vitrum includatur, ex quo aer exhauritur, idem non ut antea pronus, ſed e contra ſupinus nabit; quin et venter ejuſdem ex parte aliquâ ſupra aquæ ſuperficiem elevabitur, quorum ratio eſſe videtur, quod aer in veſicâ natatoria incluſus, quamprimum aeris externi preſſura aufertur, ob vim, quâ pollet, elatiſtam ſe ſtatim extendit, ita ut veſica prædicta, uti etiam cavitas abdominis ab aere iſto inflentur. P. 259-60.

(I) Rectior eſſe videtur ſententia Johannis Mayowii, qui Jordanum, popularem ſuum, ſecutus, thermarum incaleſcentiam a fermentatione, in terræ viſceribus alicubi excitata, provenire exiſtimat, ſic, ut particulæ aeræ, una cum aquis

pluvialibus, in altam tellurem descendentes, ibidem
 mineræ salino-fulphuræ occurrentes, æstum admo-
 dum intensum in eadem excitent, et demum
 aquarum scaturigines e minera, eo modo exæstu-
 ante, profluentes, thermas constituunt. Lib. II.
 Part. 2. Cap. 20. Mayow. 261-2.

CONCLUSION *to the* FIRST PART.

Having shewn, how accurately different authors were acquainted with the operation of air upon our bodies, during the last century, we presume it will form no uninteresting part of the present work, to trace the progress of opinion, on this subject, from that period to the present times. We have seen, how extensively diffused Mayow's doctrine was, although greatly misunderstood by some physiologists. We are, therefore, not surpris'd, to find his expressions adopted, without knowing to whom they belong, and his doctrine affecting the arguments of the physiologist, to the discoveries of Priestley and others. Certain it is, that almost immediately after the time of this most ingenious physician, we find, in a variety of authors, the reasoning of the chemico-physiologist more clear, distinct, and consistent with the truth ; but occasionally, as is natural, we discover deviations from the spirit and meaning of the original discoverer. There is a tide in discoveries, which, like a stream, flows

neglected and unperceived from its source, and occasionally is encreased or diminished, in proportion as it is confined, or receives its tributary waters, till at last it bursts into a broad and extensive plain : it then arrests the attention, and obliges us, by its magitude, to reflect on its source.

When it was known, that neither fire nor life could be supported, without the presence of air, it was natural, from analogy, to transfer the term, vital flame, to animal existence ; it was a just inference, too, to say, that this flame resided in the air. That this was actually the case, we find, in various publications, since the time of Mayow ; and which we shall now examine. Fire, flame, or heat, abstractedly considered, was regarded as the grand stimulus to all the motions of the animated frame ; it was the vital flame, residing in the blood*. No clear distinction, however, was made between the matter of heat and fire, or flame. The want of this discrimination, tended very much to confuse the ideas and perplex the reasonings of the

* The Wisdom of God, manifested in the Works of the Creation, by John Ray, F. R. S. London. 1692. P. 61.

the physiologist, till the beautiful theory of Dr. Black was published. The air, says Ray, serves us and all animals, to breathe in, containing the fuel of that vital flame we speak of, without which it would speedily languish, and go out*. This general proportion, involves in it facts of great extent and importance. We all know, how near it is to the truth; yet the nature and qualities of that fluid, which supplied the vital flame, were as unknown to Ray, as to the predecessors of Mayow. He saw, however, that something different from common air, but contained in it, supported life; but its properties he found it difficult to understand. The necessity of an aerial pabulum was felt, and acknowledged by him; for he maintains, that the blood, in its passage through the lungs, receives air, as the fuel of the vital flame, and thus impregnated, returns to the heart†. Animal heat was the effect, too, of this acquisition of air: hence animals of hot blood have two ventricles, by which that fluid has a more frequent communication with the air in the lungs, so requisite to muscular motion.

* P. 62.

† P. 48.

tion*. The idea of animal heat being produced from the air, imbibed by the lungs, occurred to Ray, from the consideration that horses, sheep, &c. remained with impunity in the open air, during the coldest weather. Considering with myself, by what means they were enabled to do this, and to abide and resist the cold, it occurred to me, that the extremities of their toes were fenced with hoofs, which in good measure secured them ; but the *main thing* was, that the cold is, as it were, its own antidote ; for the air being fully charged and sated with nitrous particles (which are the great efficient of cold, and no less also the pabulum of fire) when inspired, doth by means of them, cause a great accension and heat in the blood (as we see fewel burns rashly in such weather) and so enable it to resist the impressions of

* P. 100. Did Ray ever consult the works of Mayow? He no where quotes him ; but we suppose had an *inkling* of his writings, from the following expressions. When speaking of the damps in mines, he says, indeed though there were no damps, yet the *nitrous part* of the air being spent, and consumed by the breathing of the miners, the remaining part would be rendered altogether unfit for respiration, unless new and fresh air could succeed. P. 69-70.

of the cold, for so short a time as its more nimble circulation exposes it thereto, before it comes to another heating*.

The apparent want of air to the foetus in utero, has often been the grand objection urged by those, who maintained the non-absorption of air by the blood in the lungs. This formed no obstacle to Ray, who explains it in a manner similar to Mayow; for he says, that the foetus does receive as much as is necessary for it, in its present state, from the natural blood, by the placenta uterina or cotyledons. That the respiration of the dam did serve the foetus also, or supply sufficient air to it, I have met with in books; but the explicit notion of it, I owe to my learned and worthy friend, Dr. Edward Hulse †. It was a doctrine then more prevalent, at that time, than

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* P. 102. Here, by not making a proper distinction, he falls into error, which would not have happened, had he read and understood Mayow. From him he would have learnt, that it is only one of the principles of nitre, which by decomposition produces heat; and that the neutral salt, only during solution, produces cold.

† P. 65.

we are apt to imagine, but which owed its origin to Everard, and was more clearly elucidated and improved, by the experiments and observations of Mayow. The chief use, therefore, says Ray, of the circulation of the blood, through the placenta uterina, seems to be the impregnation of the blood with air.

When the principles of a science have been developed, and have rendered familiar and easy the explanation of phænomena, we are, in some degree, astonished to find, in older writers, facts laid down, and partly explained, but which required a much greater improvement, in that branch of knowledge, perfectly to understand. No one will be bold enough to assert, that Ray was acquainted with that principle, we now call oxygen; yet it is evident to conviction, that he knew there was an absorption of a vivifying quality from the atmosphere, and which was supplied to the fœtus, through the medium of the mother. He not only understood, that something was imbibed by the lungs, but maintained, that it was the support of the vital energy. This, surely, was a great point gained; and the doctrine would have received more firm

support,

support, and would have been more eagerly adopted, had Mayow's writings been thoroughly examined, and more generally understood. The fluctuation of opinion, with respect to a particular doctrine, arises, frequently, as much from the want of a general knowledge of the subject, as from a prejudiced attachment to a favorite theory. In examining into the works of succeeding authors, we are surpris'd to find one, who ranks high in the scale of the medical world, totally unacquainted with the nature of respiration, although this function had been examined, and its object pointed out, in the most unequivocal manner, by men of the first literary abilities*. It is a curious circumstance, that notwithstanding Lister did not understand this important function, yet he distinguishes between atmospheric and vital air; but in a manner which confounded, instead of elucidating the subject. He maintained, that notwithstanding air was necessary to life, yet it did not unite with the blood, in the lungs, but entered with the chyle†. There is a difference, he says, between pure air or æther,

* Lower, Mayow, Thurston, &c. &c.

† *Dissertatio de Humoribus*, P. 29-30.

æther, and common or atmospheric air : the former is, every where, clear, pellucid, invifible, and poffeffed of a certain degree of elasticity; the latter is compofed of two kinds of *halitus*, and contains fire and water. The one *halitus* is moift, and evidently the vapour of water, produced by evaporation; the other is a warm and dry fpirit. Of thefe two kinds of *halitus*, therefore, is compofed atmospheric air, which, on that account, is to be confidered both as dry and moift. Æther, therefore, or pure air, by which animals are furrounded, being replete with a dry and aqueous vapour, conftitutes vital air*. This vital air, defcending into the ftomach with our mafficated food, is the caufe of digeftion; and its fulphureous part, after it enters the lacteals, produces animal heat, by agitation with the chyle in the heart. The following is a remarkable obfervation, which he makes, with refpect to animal heat; and he would have been able to have explained the fact, had he underftood the nature of refpiration. Our food, he fays, is either a caufe of animal heat, or an indifpenfable condition to its generation †.

A cer-

* P. 88. † P. 97.

A certain fact, which the chemical doctrines have beautifully illustrated. I feel myself totally inadequate, to give any clear account of the distinction which Lister has made, between atmospheric and vital air. The confused manner in which he has handled this part of his work, shews, that he himself possessed no distinct ideas of the subject. He seems to have taken his notions from the doctrine of Hippocrates; but rendered more confused, by adopting the language of the Pythagorean School. He applied the term vital, to that part of the air, which Hippocrates called *spiritus*, and which was necessary to the nourishment of animals. I should have deemed it unnecessary to have mentioned this work, did I not wish to point out, that although certain laws of the animal œconomy could not be understood, without having recourse to the air, yet that so remarkable a deviation should be made from the more simple and obvious explanation of Mayow, Ray, and others.

Soon after the commencement of the eighteenth century, many ingenious men investigated the nature and properties of air, with its effects on the human frame. The labours of Hales, of Arbuthnot, and of Bryan Robinson, principally

claim our attention, till we arrive to within a very few years of the late chemical discoveries, when our admiration is due to the genius of a great physician, the late celebrated Dr. Hugh Smith. The laborious experiments of Hales, furnished ample matter for future investigation, by shewing how much might be done. The *quantity* of air, which he disengaged from a variety of substances, seemed to take up his attention, much more than their properties. No just or useful discrimination was made, between the various airs which escaped, during his chemical operations. They all appeared to him to possess nearly the same quality; and when they were rendered unfit for respiration or combustion, it was owing to the loss of their elasticity*. The term, loss of elasticity, has been used by Hales and others, to express that diminution, which takes place in the bulk of air, from respiration and combustion; not knowing, that every kind of air, when heated, is capable of nearly the same degree of expansion. Hales imagined, that elasticity was a quality, of which the air might, *in toto*, be deprived. I made some attempts, both

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* Statical Essays, Vol. I. P. 258-75.

by fire, and also by fermenting and absorbing mixtures, to try, if I could deprive all the particles of any quantity of elastic air, of their elasticity; but I could not effect it*. Owing to this idea of elasticity, Hales maintained, that combustion was not maintained, nor animal life supported, by the vivifying spirit of air. The candles and matches ceasing to burn, soon after they are confined in a small quantity of air, seems not to be owing to their having rendered that air effete, by having consumed its vivifying spirit; but should rather be owing to the great quantity of acid fuliginous vapours, with which that air is charged, which destroy a good deal of its elasticity, and very much clog and retard the elastic motion of the remainder †.

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* P. 312. The term elastic, is very improperly applied, in these cases; because it is owing, altogether, to the interposition of another matter, *viz.* caloric; and the degree of expansion will be, in proportion to the quantity of caloric applied: for the same reason, iron, when heated, may be said to be elastic.

† P. 275. A very considerable step was made, by Hales, in improving our knowledge of the airs. He accidentally

As a disciple of the Boerhaavean school, Hales attributed animal heat to friction; and maintained, that the blood was cooled, in its passage through the lungs. He quotes Mayow in two places, yet pays no attention to his discovery of pure air, and his application of it to the animal œconomy *. There is a very particular experiment in the Statical Essays, extremely similar to one of Mayow's, which proves, that air, once breathed, is unfit for respiration. The coincidence is so striking, that I could wish to quote the passages, were they not too long †. Dr. Hales found, that he could breathe air, through cloths sprinkled with vinegar, as long again, as the same quantity of air not thus managed ‡. I could point out, were it

tally hit upon an experiment, by which he produced nitrous air. This he observed to form red fumes with atmospheric air, with a diminution of its bulk. He procured it from Walton pyrites, iron-filings, and mercury, with nitrous acid. We cannot call it his discovery, as Mayow had already done the same; and it is surprising, that he should not take notice of this circumstance in that ingenious author.

* P. 234-36.

† Compare P. 98-299 of Mayow, with Stat. Ess. P. 169-255.

‡ For the Note, Vol. I. P. 266.—Vol. II. P. 321.

necessary, in several parts of the Statical Essays, expressions and observations, precisely similar to those of Mayow, as the fermentation of pure air with sulphureous particles, &c. I am sure it is unnecessary for me to mention, that I have not the smallest suspicion of plagiarism by that admirable philosopher; a character which all respect and admire. I only wish it to be observed, that had Dr. Hales applied his abilities, with proper attention, to Mayow, he would have been less perplexed, in accounting for the multiplied variety of his experiments, and thus, as it were, by beginning where Mayow finished, he would have considerably advanced the progress of knowledge. Had he, too, properly weighed the importance of Mayow's discoveries, would he then have broke out into the following exclamation? 'If those who unhappily spent their time and substance, in searching after an imaginary production, that was to reduce all things to gold, had, instead of that fruitless pursuit, bestowed their labour in searching after this much neglected volatile Hermes, who has so often escaped through their burst receivers, in the disguise of a subtile spirit, a mere flatulent explosive matter,

they would then, instead of reaping vanity, have found their researches rewarded, with very considerable and useful discoveries.* The varied and multiplied experiments of Hales, instead of deterring, seemed to stimulate others to undertake the same subject. The great quantity of air discovered by him, in almost innumerable substances, obviously pointed out, that its presence was intended to answer some useful purpose. The alteration produced in the function of respiration, by different states of the air, shewed, that it had it's effects upon the œconomy. The various phænomena that occurred from modified airs,† but above all the apparent connection between epidemical diseases and a state of the atmosphere, pointed out this subject, as one very fit for the examination of the physician and physiologist. Accordingly, it attracted and merited the attention of Dr. Arbuthnot, who, in 1733, published an Essay on the Effects of Air on Human Bodies; a work replete with judicious

* Vol. 1. P. 317.

† By modified air is meant, an alteration produced by impregnation with different matters, as may be seen in the experiments of Hales, and others, previous to this time.

judicious and accurate remarks. His observations are a collection of facts, which experience had suggested, but which he could not explain, for the want of chemical knowledge. He knew, that a portion of air, once breathed, was rendered deleterious to animal life; this he learnt from Hales; but he was entirely unacquainted with the cause. He was led into error, by attending too minutely to Hales's experiments, which did not discriminate between the effects produced by different kinds of air. After the manner of that philosopher, Arbuthnot attributed the effects, produced by respiration and combustion, to the action and re-action of elastic air-particles. He, however, was obliged to acknowledge, that air had many uses and effects, in the animal œconomy, besides what was deducible from mechanical principles; and that there is in it some other vital principle, which makes it so necessary for the life of all animals*. We come now to an author, whose genius and abilities have considerably improved the science of medicine. The name of Bryan Robinson, is well known in the medical circles; and his Treatise on the Ani-

* P. 115.

mal Œconomy, will not detract from his merit by being examined. In this work we find, the mind returning into the path of truth, after it had been mutilated, for upwards of fifty years, by the crude speculations of Lister, and the unconnected experiments of Hales*.

There is nothing which so much retards the progress of knowledge, as the neglect of the labour of our predecessors. Harvey would, probably, never have discovered the circulation, had he not made himself acquainted with the knowledge of the antients; and it is not improbable, that the writings of Hales, and others, led Priestley and Cavendish to their discoveries. The mind of an individual is not sufficiently vigorous to investigate, in its fullest extent the minutiae of science; something must be previously and repeatedly performed, otherwise *all* the knowledge, which we now possess, would have

* We hope the reader does not imagine, that we mean to depreciate the merit of this ingenious experimentalist. The manner in which the subject was treated, could not have afforded any other result. We are rather surpris'd, however, that he did not attempt to make any discrimination, between the variety of airs which escaped, during his chemical operations.

have presented itself to the experiments and observations of philosophers, many centuries ago. A lucky train of thought, an accidental experiment, or a casual explanation, have led to some of the most brilliant discoveries, which adorn and enrich the different sciences. Chemistry and physiology, had received considerable and important improvements from the labours of Mayow, Lower, Wulferstan, and others; but from neglect and inattention, these noble truths were buried in oblivion. Their merit, indeed, had acquired votaries, both at home and abroad; but from some unfortunate circumstances, their discoveries were not followed up, which would have prevented that confusion, which has crept into the experiments and speculations of succeeding chemists and physiologists. After perusing the writings of Mayow, Lower, Glisson, &c. what a great falling off do we observe, when our reading leads us to the publications of Boerhaave, Hales, and innumerable others. Notwithstanding this, however, science is indebted to the latter, for considerable improvements; they set that investigation on foot, which had been neglected, in the writing of their predecessors, and
which,

which, but for their exertions, would have been longer consigned to accompany musty records, in the dusty corner of antiquated libraries.

It is with pleasure we peruse the works of Bryan Robinson, who, by going systematically to work, and arranging accurately his facts, has struck out some of those truths, which are now generally received. The following is the position he lays down to be proved. The life of animals is preserved, by acid parts of the air, mixing with the blood in the lungs; which parts dissolve, or attenuate the blood, and preserve its heat, and by both these, keep up the motion of the heart*. This, he proves, in the following manner: Animals die, when they are deprived of air; and they also die soon, in a small quantity of air, closely confined. Under similar circumstances, a candle goes out; glowing coals, and red-hot iron, cease to shine. Animals, also, die in air, rendered effete, by burning coals or candles in it till they are extinguished; and *vice versa*. If air be rendered effete, or blown on live coals, it puts out the fire; but if fresh air be admitted, the coals begin to burn, and

* P. 190.

and shine afresh: and he adds this remarkable fact, that common air, by being passed through red-hot iron, red-hot charcoal, or the flame of spirit of wine, becomes unfit to preserve life, and the shining of fire or flame. From these unequivocal and well authenticated facts, he could not but conclude, that the very same parts of the air, which preserved animal life, by respiration, also maintained flame, during combustion. He concluded, that this part of the air was acid, from the well known experiment of mixing nitrous acid with unctuous substances. He performed Mayow's experiment, of burning sulphur and nitre, under water, without acknowledging the author; and translates pages from Lower, concerning the red colour which the blood acquires in the lungs, but does not mention his name. He takes considerable pains to prove, that it is not the elasticity of the air, which preserves life and flame; because the air which remains, after a candle is extinguished, or an animal dies, is itself elastic. The air is, also, the cause of animal heat; for spirit of vitriol, which contains acid air, dissolves iron-filings, with great heat and ebullition; and the acid of the air, dissolves sulphureous and

unctuous substances, with the heat of fire and flame. Hence, we may conclude, that since the acid of the air unites with the blood in the lungs, and attenuates it, the same effect must be produced there *. That the motion of the heart is owing to the same cause, is evident; because, if the acid air be with-held from respiration, the pulse becomes small and quick. The same reason, which induced Mayow to give the name of fire-air particles to oxygen, also persuaded Robinson to call that gas, acid air; and from a similar cause, have the more recent discoverers given it its present appellation. The most rigid sceptic could not have with-held his assent, to the close reasoning of Robinson; for when chemistry was not yet analysed into its elementary principles, his observations were perfectly consistent with truth. Dr. Robinson
saw

* By a substance being attenuated, I understand its being rendered more fluid. If a substance, we shall say, be composed of two kinds of particles, the simple interposition of a third, must make an alteration in the state of aggregation, *i. e.* remove the original particles at a greater distance from each other, or render the substance more fluid. A chemical interposition would produce different effects, according to the degrees of affinity between the elementary principles.

saw the air united with the blood in the lungs; the same he knew to be a constituent principle of the acids; and, as the acids produce heat, in dissolving various substances, it was natural to conclude, that when the acid air came into contact with the blood in the lungs, it caused animal heat in the same way. The genius of Black had not yet illustrated, by his beautiful doctrine of latent heat, some of the most important chemical phænomena; neither was it strictly ascertained, that atmospheric air (for Mayow's experiments were not studied) could be analysed into two component parts*. The conclusions of Robinson were, therefore, perfectly just; and if the reader will take the trouble of examining Prop. 24, from P. 190 to P. 206, in his treatise on the animal œconomy, he will find, with what a remarkable accuracy of observation his experiments and facts were illustrated.

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* Pure atmospheric air is composed of twenty-eight parts of oxygen, to seventy-two of azot; the other gases, which are found in it, are accidental, and vary according to local circumstances.

The period was now fast approaching, when the whole doctrine of the humoral pathology began to be suspected; for experiment and observation now taught, that neither viscid lentor, nor error loci, could, in every case, be the cause of fever or inflammation. The doctrines of Hoffman had made their way into the hands of the students of Edinburgh, and found a more ready reception than those of Boerhaave; at this time, the humoral pathology was at its acmè, being taught by the professors, who had been all pupils of Boerhaave.

The ingenious Dr. Gregory, of Edinburgh, has the following observations: I consider Hoffman, as the original and great author of the revolutions in the theory of medicine, for these last fifty years past. The Boerhaavean doctrine was then taught, in this place, by the professors, who had all been the pupils of Boerhaave; and it is curious, that the revolution was first began here by the students, some of them having got hold of the works of Hoffman. The Boerhaavean doctrine was first overthrown, in the Medical Society, fifty years ago; this I have, upon the authority of my father, who was a member of that society*.

society*. When the mind has once perceived error, in a particular system, it becomes ardent in the pursuit of fallacy; for something is then promised to the fatigues of labour and investigation. The doctrine of the importance of air, in the functions of the animal œconomy, was gradually stealing upon the minds of men, at this time, and in every part of the world it seemed to engross the general attention†. In proportion, therefore,

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* The Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, of which I have the honour of being a member, is one of the useful ornaments to this celebrated school of physic. Composed principally of students, who have no object in view but the improvement of science, the opinions of professors are canvassed with the warmth of youth, and candour of impartiality. Some of the first medical characters in the kingdom, have derived their knowledge from this society; and it is with great pleasure I seize the present opportunity, of paying my tribute of respect and esteem, to the abilities I have seen displayed in this learned seminary.

† Dr. Priestley and Mr. Cavendish, in England; Dr. Black, in Scotland; Dr. Macbride, in Ireland; Mr. Scheele, in Sweden; with Messrs. Lavoisier, Foureroy, and others, in France, were all employed in making those beautiful discoveries, which have since so much added to the improvement of science in general.

as the suspicion of the truth of former systems increased, so would a greater importance be attached to the doctrine of air, now become more seriously the subject of consideration. In 1778, the late Dr. Hugh Smith, published his Syllabus of Philosophical Lectures, in London, four years after Dr. Priestley's discovery of dephlogisticated air. We find, in this work, remarks the most curious, and an aerial system of physic beginning to be formed. The nature of Dr. Smith's theory, is somewhat analogous to the ideas entertained by Hippocrates, and adopted and enlarged, but confused by Lister. He makes no distinction between the air, except between what he calls vital and atmospheric, what he thus distinguishes: Air rarified, in motion, detained in animal bodies by glandular secretions, or circulating with the fluids in the vascular system, permit us to call vital air*. The first circumstance, which led this ingenious physician to the theory of air, was his attention to the cause of the circulation of the blood. He studied Harvey, whose doctrine, that the motion of the blood was

owing

* P. 32.

owing to itself, he adopted. But the cause of this motion, Harvey did not understand, because he knew not the principle; and this cause, Dr. Smith pronounces to be vital air.

The hypothesis of life existing in the blood, certainly owes its origin to Moses, though first adopted, philosophically, by Harvey, who goes so far as to suppose, the blood to be the seat of the soul. Dr. Harvey's doctrine deprived, altogether, the muscular fibre, of its share in the functions of the vascular system. He attributed every thing to the blood; and seemed to think, that its motion was owing to a power, inherent in itself, without any assistance from the arterial system. Nor is the blood, says Harvey, to be called an original and principal part only, because in it and from it, motion, and the beginning of pulsation, arise; but also, because in it animal heat first is bred, the vital spirit is produced, and the soul itself resides. How infinitely near, adds Dr. Smith, does he approach, and yet does not seem to have the most distant conception, that air was the unknown principle, yet wanting, to produce all those wonderful phænomena, that thus claimed his most curious

T attention?

attention? I cannot help considering this great man, as my valuable and good ally; but we have a formidable opponent to contend with, one who has endeavoured to overturn the whole of Dr. Harvey's theory, in order to establish his own; I mean the celebrated Boerhaave, who absolutely affirms, that the cause impelling the blood, from the heart into the arteries, and from the veins into the heart, is not in the blood, but to be sought for in the heart itself. At this time, the Boerhaavean doctrine of the circulation, was generally received, throughout the medical world; and Smith laments, that his hypothesis should have obtained the preference over Harvey's. From our observations, perhaps, it will appear, that the re-action of the vessels, which Boerhaave and his followers make the first cause, is, in reality, only the secondary cause of the circulation. Both these great men, however, observes Dr. Smith, though they differed so widely in their theories, were neither of them far from the truth. One discovered motion in the vascular system, but knew not the cause; the other discovered motion in the vascular system, and mistook it for the first cause.

cause. It was necessary to collect thus much from Dr. Smith's writings, in order to make his doctrine intelligible, which we shall now briefly examine.

By a series of experiments, Dr. Smith proved, that vital air, heat, and motion, were inseparable from animal life. Upon this his theory is built, upon this has he founded all his reasonings, and from this are all his conclusions drawn. It will be sufficient to mention his leading facts. Vital air is the material cause of motion in animal life; it produces its effects by rarefaction from animal heat. His words are curious, and mark a mind attentive to the subject, though somewhat confused, from the want of a clear and distinct idea of terms. In the degree of heat, proper to animal life, this air must be in a rarefied and active state. The propelling force of air, thus rarefied and confined in the vascular system, is the first cause of the circulation of the blood; and the *reaction* of the vascular system (his own words) we presume, to be the secondary cause, in conjunction with the former. Here we find a part of that doctrine, adopted by Cullen, and afterwards published,

lished, in a more visionary manner, by Brown. The re-action of the vessels was produced, by the distension caused by the rarefied air; or to speak in more modern language, they acted from the stimulus of distension. This mode of expression is certainly proper; for when the blood is driven from the left ventricle into the aorta, considerable effect will be produced, both as to resistance and propulsive force, by the elasticity of the artery, independent of the contraction produced by the stimulus being applied to the irritability of the fibre. It is evident, that Dr. Smith imagined, that air was in a disengaged and free state in the vascular system, and that it produced its effects upon mechanical principles. This was deviating, very materially, from Mayow, who, although he did not precisely understand, how fluids passed from an aeriform to a condensed state, yet maintained, that air *united* with the blood, and produced its effects from chemical laws. He drew his conclusions, indeed, from a very different combination of facts, the result of closely connected experiments. These, although justly conceived, and admirably executed, were neglected by many, notwithstanding the same

idea

idea was entertained and delivered to the Public, under different expressions. The vivifying spirit of one, with the vital and acid air of others, all meant the fire-air particles of Mayow; and there was only wanting a comparative view of experiments and observations, to confirm the beautiful system published by that ingenious author. Recently has this doctrine been revived, in a full and ample manner. The attention of medical men seems now principally directed to the agency of air in the human frame; and from the trials that have been made, it would seem, that great benefit will result to the practice of physic.

INTRODUCTION

TO

PART THE SECOND:

COMPRISING THE HISTORY OF THE ABSORBENT
SYSTEM.

THE nature and functions of the absorbent system, is a subject which still considerably engages the attention of the physiologist; and it is supposed, that, but lately, this part of our frame has been rightly understood. Immediately upon the discovery of the lacteals, the office assigned to them was the result of the idea entertained, of the nature of the circulation. But as soon as that great light was let in upon physiology, by the immortal Harvey, and when the discoveries of Rudbeck, of Bartholin, and of Jolyffe, were known, the first abilities were exerted, in explaining this important part of the animated fabric, and

the futility of absorption by red veins, and of the lacteal carrying chyle to the liver, was seen and acknowledged.

The discovery of the lacteals, by Asellius, forms an æra in the history of medicine. But, notwithstanding that he undoubtedly has a sole right to this discovery, yet we find, that others, about the same period, maintained, that they saw the lacteals, without knowing of Asellius's discovery. Highmore puts in this claim, but, at the same time, gives up the right of discovery to Asellius, as Bartholin ought to have done that of the lymphatics to Rudbeck.* When dissecting a dog, says Highmore, I accidentally saw these vessels, without having read of them in any one author; at first, I could only trace them to the pancreas, but afterwards, I acquired a more perfect knowledge of them, from Asellius.

Asellius

* Circa eadem tempora, in Suecia, fimiles aquosos ductus delexit et postea descripsit Olaus Rudbeck. In Anglia de Jolivio quoque suo gloriantur amici. Quin nobiscum aliis hinc inde visa sunt, negare nolim sed nobis qui primi in arenam descendimus, nullus mortalium viam monstravit. Anat. Renov. p. 622. Upon the same grounds, Highmore has a right to the discovery of the lacteals.

Afellius discovered these vessels, in brutes, in 1622; and Highmore says, that an Oxford physician mentioned to him, that he saw them in the human subject, in 1637, and that he himself saw them, also, in the human subject, in 1639, and shewed them, distended with chyle, to a number of pupils; but Veslingius, according to Haller, first saw the lacteals in men, in 1634. Mr. Cruikshank, in his ingenious work, points out, that absorption was maintained, but not understood, both by Hippocrates and Galen; and that Herophilus, according to the latter, had seen the lacteals. Highmore mentions the same thing, and quotes a remarkable passage from Fallopius, who certainly saw the lymphatics, from the accurate description he has given. On the flat side of the liver, are certain very small ducts, which terminate in the pancreas,* and neighbouring glands, and which convey a white oleaginous juice. The lacteals then, were first seen by Herophilus; but their nature and functions were not understood by anatomists, until Afellius again held them up

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* Pancreas afelli, the mesentery.

to the notice of the medical world, when Veslingius, Highmore, and others, notwithstanding that the existence of such vessels was denied by the great Harvey, by seeing them in men, confirmed the discovery. The lymphatics appear to have been first seen by Fallopius; it is evident, that Afellius also saw them, but mistook them for lacteals. This subject remained confused, until Rudbeck and Jolyffe again discovered them, when Willis, Gliffon, Bartholin, and others, completed the subject. The thoracic duct, according to Mr. Cruikshank, was first seen and described, in 1563, by Eustachius, a Roman anatomist; but this discovery was also neglected by anatomists, till Pecquet and Van Horne tacitly censured this neglect, by confirming the truth of it. Such, concisely, are the revolutions, which the knowledge of the absorbents suffered, for many years, till the middle of the last century, when the subject underwent a full investigation, as the reader will see in the subsequent part of this work.

This subject, however, seems not to have employed much consideration, for several years, previous to the publications of Hunter and Monro.

It is well known, that these celebrated anatomists declared themselves, the discoverers of the identity of lacteals and lymphatics ; that is, that both these sects of vessels absorbed from cavities or surfaces, and at times carried the same kind of fluid, and therefore, in that point of view, were similar, in respect of office ; and that, also, they were to be considered as the same system of vessels, from a similarity of structure*. Now it will be no difficult matter to prove, that these ideas were entertained and adopted, long before Dr. Monro or Dr. Hunter ever thought upon the subject. Mr. Cruikshank, in his valuable treatise on this subject, maintains, that Dr. Hunter still has a claim to the discovery. Having observed, that Dr. Hunter maintained his claim so well, that the greater part of those who were entitled to hold any opinion, were on his side, he adds ; when Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood, his opponents first attempted to prove he was mistaken ; but finding that ground untenable, they then asserted it was known,
long

* Vide Lect. on Anat. p. 58 ; and De Vasis Lymph. Valv. p. 103 ; and Prolegom. p. 8.

long before: Servetus, Columbus, and Cefalpinus, all knew it*. It is very remarkable, that those observations should be brought to invalidate arguments, brought against Dr. Hunter's pretensions, when we find that gentleman himself strongly asserting, that the discovery of the circulation was made prior to Harvey. Speaking of absorption, he adds, Gliffon having been quoted, I considered what he had advanced upon this subject, and had the pleasure and mortification to find, that he gave exactly the same account, both of transfusion and absorption; so that I could no longer call it, what I really believed it to be, a new opinion, but Gliffon's revived and confirmed: for in him it was mere opinion, and accordingly was overlooked or rejected, by his successors, as happened

* Introduction, p. 3. We have been unable to procure the works of Servetus and Cefalpinus. The anatomy of Columbus is in our possession; and he certainly makes some striking observations, on the circulation of the blood, through the lungs: but notwithstanding this, he maintained, that sanguification was performed by the liver, according to the Galenic doctrine. At some future day, if time will permit, it is our intention, to examine minutely the doctrines that were entertained, respecting the circulation, previous to Harvey.

pened to the doctrine of the circulation, in the writings of Servetus and Cefalpinus*. But further, in his introductory lectures to anatomy, we find the following observations : Servetus first, and Columbus afterwards, had clearly given the circulation of the blood through the lungs, which we may reckon, at least, three-quarters of the discovery ; and Cefalpinus had, many years before Harvey, published, in three different works, all that was wanting to make the circulation quite complete†. Having mentioned the great merit which is due to Columbus, for the discovery of the Western Hemisphere, and to Copernicus, for that of the Solar System, he adds ; In merit, Harvey's rank must be comparatively low indeed. So much had been discovered by others, that little more was left for him to do, than to dress it up into a system ; and that, every judge in such matters must allow, required no extraordinary talents. Yet easy as it was, it made him immortal : but none of his writings shew him to have been a man of uncommon abilities‡. It is unnecessary for me
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* Med. Comment. p. 61.

† P. 44.

‡ P. 47.

me to use any argument, to prove the comparative merits of Harvey : it is foreign to my purpose. As Mr. Cruikshank asserts Dr. Hunter's right to the discovery of the lymphatics being absorbents, I shall chiefly confine my observations to his work, particularly too, as containing the opinions of Dr. Hunter ; and all the arguments and observations will be equally applicable, to whatever share of discovery Dr. Monro may have claimed, in this important branch of physiology. It is, by no means, our intention, to enter into the dispute between Dr. Hunter and Dr. Monro : our object is to shew, that the doctrine of transfusion and absorption, was a position maintained by the first discoverers, and considerably improved by the anatomist who immediately succeeded them.

We flatter ourselves, no apology is necessary to the gentlemen, whose doctrines we have so freely canvassed. The most ostensible modern author, on the subject of the absorbents, is Mr. Cruikshank, whose liberality will not permit him to suppose, we had any thing else in view, than a candid and impartial enquiry, by the freedom of our strictures on his opinions.

PART THE SECOND.

SECT. I.

Of ABSORPTION *by* RED VEINS.

BEFORE we proceed to examine, what different opinions eminent anatomists maintained, as to the office of lacteals and lymphatics, let us first see, what ideas they had, as to absorption by red veins. Bartholin strenuously maintains, that no absorption takes place by the meseraic veins. His words are. (A) Their use, according to the antients, is to suck up chyle from the intestines, and to carry it, by the trunk of the vena portæ, to the liver; but the chylous fluid is never found in these vessels, they being always filled with blood: moreover, the discovery of the lacteals and lymphatics, disprove such an absorption. That chyle is absorbed by the lacteals alone, is proved, by an experiment of Barbett. He passed ligatures under some part of the intestines of a living dog: between the ligatures,

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the mesenteric vessels, both red and white, came into view; some of these he tied with a thread, and afterwards inflated the intestine with force, through a pipe; but he found, that not the red veins, but only the lacteals became turgid*. And a little lower down, he adds; ^(B) ‘Hence the mesenteric veins can absorb nothing from the intestines. Riolan, however, asserts, that in obstructions of the lacteals, the chyle must, from necessity, be carried through these vessels; but this is by no means the case. Nor do these veins open into the intestines; for then the blood would be effused, and, in my opinion, nourishment would rather cease, as happens in lientery, from obstruction of the lacteals.’ When speaking of the lacteals, he observes, ^(C) ‘Their proper use and action is to distribute chyle to the liver, according to Afellius; but rather to the receptacle, and through the thoracic duct to the heart, as Pecquet and ourselves have observed; not by the meseraics, as heretofore believed, through which there is neither a distribution of chyle to the liver, nor of blood to the intestines.’ He combats, by powerful arguments,

* This experiment did not succeed with Lower;—vide *infra*, Sect. III.

guments, the experiments which De Bilis had made, to prove absorption by the mesenteric veins; and observes, that from their structure, it is impossible for them to absorb. (D) ' The meseraic veins are so constructed, that they cannot take up chyle by their mouths.' In Walæus we find the following observations: (E) ' Chyle is never observed to enter any vein in the stomach, nor any mesenteric vein. The chyle is carried through vessels, suited to the purpose rather than through the meseraic, which contain blood; for then it would be necessary, that these veins should open into the intestines, by which the blood would easily escape.' We find, also, another celebrated anatomist, making direct experiments, to disprove the absorption by red veins. (F) ' And this is the only way, says Lower, through which the chyle passes, from the stomach and intestines, to the blood and heart. Because some have fallen into the same error with the antients, and strenuously maintain, that the meseraic veins take up chyle from the intestines, I have paid particular attention to this subject, that I might be certain of the fact; and I at length found, not from one experiment only, that the

whole supply of chyle is thrown into the blood, by no other passage but the chyloferous ducts; for if its passage through these vessels be obstructed, the animal, with whatever kind of food it may be fed, will die in a few days from famine, as I have experienced in two dogs. He lacerated the thoracic duct, and observed, that notwithstanding the stomach and intestines were distended with food, and the lacteals with chyle, yet the dogs died. He was aware, he says, that the thoracic duct was sometimes double; he, therefore, made the incision high enough up, in order to be above the junction: he found the chyle effused in considerable quantity into the thorax from the lacerated duct; (G) An evident and clear proof, he adds, that the chyle does not enter by the meseraic veins, and that it has no other way by which it is carried to the blood, since the animal is so certainly destroyed, if the passage through the thoracic vessels be cut off.' Surely no candid mind can refuse its assent to the convincing arguments drawn from these experiments. It can be no violence to reason to observe, that both Bartholin and Lower saw the *necessity* for different functions, in the

abforbents and red veins. They beheld and admired the effectual fimplicity of nature, in the animal œconomy; hence they reasoned on the futility of red-vein abforption; and hence they maintained, with a firmnefs which always attends the affertion of truth, and proved by direct experiments, their opinions to the contrary.

In Diemerbroeck, too, we find a ftrenuous affertor of the non-abforption by red veins. When fpeaking of the different ufes that have been affigned to the mefenteric veins, and the objections started againft them, he adds; (H) ‘ Plempius, perceiving thefe difficulties, explains the fubject otherwife, and fays, that the arterial blood remaining after the nourifhment of the intefines, flows back by the meferaic veins to the porta, and along with it the chyle. But I wifh Plempius would demonftrate to us, the way by which the chyle enters thefe veins. It is neceffary for the reception of the chyle, that they fhould, in fome manner, open into the intefines; if this is the cafe, why does not the blood flow through thefe apertures into the intefines? and again, in the following paffage, his expreffions are remarkably ftiong.

(1) ' Besides, no one could ever see chyle, nay not any thing which bears the smallest resemblance to chyle, in the meseraic veins, but the white chyle is always found in the lacteal and other chyloferous vessels, which were constructed by the Supreme Architect to this express purpose, viz. that they should convey the chyle.' He mentions the experiments of De Bills, who separated from each other, in a living dog, the mesenteric veins and arteries, and past ligatures round the latter, which prevented any blood from passing from the arteries into the veins. He then sewed up the abdomen, and preserved the dog, until he imagined the food, which he had previously given the animal, was converted into chyle. He then found the arteries empty, but discovered the veins filled with a muddy fluid, of a cineritious colour. This experiment of De Bills greatly excited the attention of the physiologists. Some of the first medical characters of the age entered the lists, and the dispute was carried on with that acrimony which has, too often, disgraced literary controversies.

(K) All the Bilianists, says Diemerbroeck, regard this experiment as miraculous, and ascribe so much

to it, that they are astonished if any one should dare to contradict it; moreover, they revile, with the most base and sharp contumelies, language unworthy literary characters, those who oppose the opinion.

The names of Steno, Bartholin, and Diemerbroeck, are found among the disputants; and the latter, after having brought forward the experiments and opinions of others against red-vein absorption, cries out exultingly: (L) ‘ We ourselves have repeatedly collected blood from the meseraic veins, and at that time, too, when all the lacteals were replete with chyle, and have compared it with the blood of other veins; but we were never able to discover the smallest difference, in colour, thickness, or coagulation. The same, also, was taken notice of by that most accurate observer, Nicolaus Steno’. Van Horne, too, one of the discoverers of the thoracic duct, did not believe in absorption by red veins; and Bartholin, in his *Structura nova Diaphragmatis*, mentions some authors who maintained such an opinion, and refutes their arguments*.

* Notwithstanding these unequivocal experiments and

(A) Ufus, secundum antiquos, chylum exfugere ex intestinis, et per truncum venæ portæ in hepar deferre; sed nunquam in his lacteus chyli succus repertus, semper sanguine refertis: adhæc inventio venarum lactearum et lymphaticarum isti repugnat. Per solas lacteas chylum fugi hoc experimento probat Barbettius. Prehensum quâvis parte canis vivi intestinum utrinque ligat: in medio hujus exprompta mesenterica vasa, tum alba tum rubra, aliquot itidem filo necit: post per adaptatam fistulam fortiter flatum injicit; sic non ligata sanguinea, sed sola lactea intumescere vasa comperit*, P. 602-3.

(B) Hinc

observations, by different eminent anatomists, Dr. Hunter, in his Med. Comment. after relating the experiments of John Hunter, to disprove absorption by red veins, says, here is a *new doctrine* proposed in physiology, viz. that red veins do not absorb.

* Thomæ Bartholini Anatomie ex omnium veterum recentiorumque Observationibus, &c. Renovata. Lugduni Bat. 1673.

(B) Hinc nihil ex intestinis mesaraicæ fugere possunt. Necessitatis tamen tempore in omnimoda obstructione venarum lactearum, per hæc chylum deferre concedit Riolanus, sed nullo argumento. Nec enim hiant in intestina, alioquin effunderetur sanguis, et meo iudicio, cessaret potius nutritio, quod in lienteria videre est, illis obstructis. Ibid. P. 603.

(C) Actio et usus proprius est chylum per *ἐναίδοσιν* ad hepar distribuere juxta Asellium ; sed ad receptaculum verius, indeque per thoracicas lacteas ad cor, secundum Picqueti nostrasque observationes ; *non per mesaraicas*, ut hætenus creditum, per quas nec fit chyli *ἐναίδοσις* ad hepar, nec *διαδοσις* sanguinis ad intestina. Ibid. p. 613.

(D) Venæ mesaraicæ ita sunt comparatæ, ut chylum per oscula sua non recipiant. Ibid. P. 606.

(E) Nunquam autem chylus animadversus est venam ullam in ventriculi corpore, nec ullam mesaraicam intrare. P. 765*. Per peculiare autem

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venas,

* Epistolæ Duæ de Motu Chyli et Sanguinis ; annexed to the Anatomie Renovata.

venas, potius quam per mesaraicas sanguinem continentes, defertur chylus; quod mesaraicæ sanguinem admissuræ, aperiri osculis in intestina debuissent, per quæ facile sanguis in intestina fuisset elapsus. Ibid. P. 789.

(F) Atque hæc via unica est, qua chylus e ventriculo et intestinis, in ipsum sanguinem et cor infunditur. Verum quia nonnulli in eodem cum veteribus errore etiamnum versantur, venasque mesaraicas chylum ex intestinis excipere confidenter statuunt, ipse ut de hac re certior fierem, seriam aliquando impendi operam; atque non uno experimento tandem mihi constitit, totum chyli penum *nulla alia via* quam per ductus chyliferos, in sanguinem infundi; si enim cursus ejus per vasa thoracica impediatur, animal qualicumque cibo fatiatum, intra paucos dies fame penitus interibit, quod in duobus canibus expertus sum. P. 153-4*.

(G) Claro satis argumento, chylum per venas mesaraicas non intrare, neque ullam aliam dari viam qua sanguini misceatur; cum animal, ex
transitu

* Tractatus de Corde item de Motu et Colore Sanguinis et Chyli in eum transitu; Authore R. Lower, M. D. Coll. Med. Lond. Socio. Londini, 1680.

transitu per vasa thoracica impedito, tam certò intereat. Ibid. P. 155.

(H) Plempius, has difficultatés percipiens, rem aliter explicat, et dicit, sanguinem arteriosum, a nutritione intestinorum residuum, per venas mesaraicas refluerè ad portam, eique chylum ex intestinis adjungi vel permisceri. Sed velim nobis demonstret Plempius, vias per quas chylus venas illas ingreditur. Illæ enim ut chylum recipiant necessario debent alicubi in intestinis aperiri; at quare, dum aperiuntur, sanguis, qui tenuior et spirituosior est chylo, per istas aperturas non effluit potius in intestina? P. 724-5*.

(I) Præterea, nemo unquam chyli, imò ne minimam quidem chyli similitudinem, in venis mesaraicis observare aut videre potuit; sed chylus albicans semper invenitur in vasis lacteis, aliisque chyliferis, *eum in finem, ut chylum veherent*, a Summo Architecto speciatim conditis. Ibid. P. 725.

(K) Hoc experimentum omnes Bilsonianistæ, tanquam miraculosum admirantur, idque tanti faciunt,

* Isbrandi de Diemerbroeck Anatomie Corporis Humani. Genevæ, 1679.

unt, ut obstupescant, si quispiam aliquid contradicere audeat; imo turpissimis acerrimisque contumeliis ac convitiis, viris doctis indignissimis, quoscunque contradictores proscindant. Ibid. P. 725.

(L) Nos enim non semel sanguinem e mesaricis collegimus, etiam eo tempore, quo omnes lactei ductus chyloso succo turgebant, eumque cum aliarum venarum sanguine contulimus; sed nullum manifestum discrimen in colore, substantia, aut coagulatione, animadvertere potuimus. Illud ipsum etiam observavit oculatissimus Nicolaus Steno. Ibid. P. 726.

S E C T. II.

ORIGIN of LACTEALS and LYMPHATICS.

It appears, from reading the works of those who have written upon the absorbents, that, notwithstanding some of them maintained, that the lymphatics were continued from arteries, many, also, supported the opinion, that they arose from surfaces and cavities. Mr. Cruikshank, in several parts of his work, maintains, that Bartholin knew nothing of the origin of the lymphatics. I agree with him in thinking, that he sometimes had his doubts; but shall we say, because he hesitated, that he therefore was totally unacquainted with it? But he seems to be tolerably clear, on this subject, in some places. (A) ' The origin of the lymphatics is from all parts, and the viscera, from which lymph is *separated*, the liver, the gall-bladder, the sternum, mediastinum, pericardium, heart, lungs, intestines, stomach, spleen, uterus, testicles, &c. The

use

use of all the lymphatic vessels is, to carry a limpid fluid or lymph; the lymph is produced from all parts, throwing out a superfluous serum, or from the arteries abounding with lymph.' Can any position be more clearly stated? He first lays it down, as certain, that the use of the lymphatics is, to carry lymph; and he then says, that the lymph is thrown out, upon different parts. What conclusion are we now to draw? It is so evident, that it would be doing violence to common sense, to mention it. He ascribed to the lacteals and lymphatics, the absorption of medicines, poisons, &c. hence, he says, we may account for many diseases, as dropsy, &c. and we can now see, he adds, the cause of the consent between the stomach and heart. He observes, that these vessels serve to complete the human frame; and concludes, that as to the diseases he has mentioned, he will treat of them fully, in a book, *De Morbis Lymphaticis*, a work we have never seen, but which, it is very probable, contains many observations and opinions, supposed to be modern. In a work published by Bartholin, after the *Anatome Renovata*, which came into our hands after the above was written, he gives a most
decided

decided opinion, that the lymphatics are not continued from arteries, by continuity of canal. (B) ' Moreover, although we assert, that the lymphatic vessels receive their contents from the arteries, *we by no means allow of a direct anastomosis of the lymphatics with the arteries*, except through the medium of cells, or some other structure, into which the blood being effused (a curious idea) and having supplied to the nutrition of parts and secretion of fluids, the lymphatics return the lymph, the veins the blood.' Other celebrated anatomists paid particular attention to the same doctrine, and by their expressions, we cannot doubt, but that they had a clear and adequate notion of the subject. Paulus, the editor of Van Horne's Opuscula, has the following words, when speaking of the liver; (C) ' Indeed those lymphatics, as well as the others of the whole body, do not arise so much from membranous parts, as from the interstices where the arteries terminate.

It was the opinion of Steno, Ruysch, and Malpighi, that the lymphatics arose from glands; and this opinion is adopted by Diemerbroeck. Bartholin denies, that they arise solely from glands. (D) ' My honoured father, he says, who
first

first gave name and eternity to the vessels discovered by him, believed, that the lymphatics returned the lymph into the blood, from all parts, as well glandular as the extreme joints.' He mentions, that they had been seen coming from parts not glandular; and that many laughed at De Graaf, for maintaining, that he had seen them upon the uterus. This author, in speaking of the lymphatics of the testicles, has the following words. (E)

‘ The lymphatic vessels, which the curiosity of our age has so admirably discovered in the testicles, are seen not only to come out from the tunica albuginea, but also from the internal substance of the testicles.’ These lymphatics, as well as the rest, he adds, have numerous valves to prevent the return of the lymph to the testicles, and also to cause it to be propelled, with more ease, to the receptaculum chyli. Reverhorst gives a very particular and accurate account of the lymphatics of the liver, of which, he says, there are two sets; the deep seated and the superficial. He mentions, that before they quit the liver, they form themselves into six, seven, or eight large trunks, and sometimes more, passing along both sides of the suspensory ligament. A circumstance

cumstance which he mentions, clearly proves, that the lymphatics could not be continued from the arteries, by continuity of canal. (F) These lymphatics, he says, both deep seated and superficial, transmit lymph, very different from that of the other lymphatics, because it is impregnated with bile, and therefore may be deservedly called bilious lymph. This is also taken notice of by Kirchringius, as quoted by Bartholin, who mentions it to prove, that the lymphatics are not continued from the arteries. (G) This is also proved for us by Kirchringius, who, because he saw the lymph tinged of a yellow colour, in a lymphatic creeping along the top of the gall-bladder, and perceived a taste of bile, concluded, that this bitter lymph was taken up, *without the vessels of the arteries*; because if there were an anastomosis between the arteries and lymphatics, the lymph would not be found bitter, but sweet, as it is detected in the arteries*.

The ingenious Thruston, when speaking of the nourishment of the fœtus in utero, in the
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* De Graaf gives a very neat plate of the uterus, with a description of the lymphatics running along it.—De Mulier. Organ. P. 247.

examination for his degree at Cambridge, says, that the fluids, in which it is immersed, pass through the skin. Dr. Needham, the professor, questioned him, as to this particular, to which he gave the following answer; ^(H) ' Nor do I think that you will deny, that something passes through the skin, in the capillary vessels, and thus mixes with the blood. I believe, that you (so long and so successfully employed in the practice of physic) not unfrequently order fermentations; suppose you are prescribing for schirrosities of the abdomen, can you doubt, but that some part of them enter through the skin, into the sanguiferous vessels? Here we find absorption maintained to be performed by the cutaneous vessels. The discovery of the lymphatics was made several years previous to this period; and the doctrine, that fluids were removed by them, had been for some time mentioned and acknowledged: it is probable, therefore, that Thruston might imagine, this office to be performed by the cutaneous absorbents; although I do not deny, that his words will bear a different interpretation. If a candid reader, therefore, puts a different construction upon the passage,

page,

sage, we willingly resign our idea, as our object is, not to support, unjustly, the pretensions of any one man, but to promote, by dispassionate enquiry, the knowledge of truth.

In a work published a few years after the *Anatome Renovata* of Bartholin, we find an excellent history of the absorbent system.* Zellerus, the author of this publication, gives the following unequivocal account of the origin of the lymphatics. (1) ‘ Some believe, that these vessels come out from nourished parts; others hail all the greater conglobate glands, as the fountain of all of them; others, again, deny this, since they are found in parts, as the lungs, where no glandular structure obtains. Almost *all of them are in the right*. We pronounce the glandular membrane, which is extended over all the muscles, in a word, over all parts, and the viscera as *their commencement, fountain, and origin, since we may see them arising from all parts*, as well from the

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* Bartholin's work came out in 1674; Zellerus's account of the lymphatics is published with the *Disputationes Anat. Select.* by Waller. Mr. Cruikshank says, he never saw Zellerus's publication.

conglomerate as conglobate glands, from the liver, pancreas, testicles, the viscera, from the joints, the abdominal lumbar, and intercostal muscles, from the diaphragm, pleura, pericardium, and membranes of the brain.* (I) Long, too, before the time of Zellerus, Van Horne maintained, that absorbents were distributed over the whole system. (K) The diligent investigation of our more recent anatomists has taught us, that there is scarcely any part of our body, which wants these vessels; for they are found in the lungs, mediastinum, stomach, spleen, testes, uterus, septum narium, eye-lids, palate, cheeks, &c.

The several passages here selected, point out, beyond a doubt, that some of the first discoverers of the absorbents, knew their general extent and influence over the whole system. They shew clearly, too, that the physiologists of the last century

* Dr. Morelli, Professor of Medicine at Padua, and who studied for five years under Muscagni, mentioned to a friend of mine, that he has frequently seen lymphatics, running between the arachnoid coat and pia mater of the brain.—Vide Nuck's *Epist. Anatom.* P. 150; where he mentions, that he has seen lymphatics passing from the pineal gland.

tury knew, that the lymphatics arose from cavities and surfaces, and that they were not returned from the arteries, by continuity of canal; yet Dr. Hunter maintains, that this was the opinion entertained by anatomists since the discovery of the absorbent system, notwithstanding we find Bartholin himself, so anxious and careful in asserting the contrary doctrine.

S E C T. III.

O R I G I N *of the* L A C T E A L S.

There could be but one opinion, as to the part whence the lacteals derived their origin; but the *manner* in which they proceeded, from their commencement, formed a subject for dispute, which, by the way, points out, how much the authors of last century were occupied with this part of physiology. Lower imagined, that the lacteals arose obliquely from the intestines. Having first fed a dog, he collected air in that portion of the jejunum, where ileum commences, and having applied ligatures above and below, he found no air in the lacteals with the chyle, after repeated pressure with the hand, before he untied the ligatures. He repeated this experiment, he says, but made use of a coloured fluid instead of air; spiritus vini atramento tinctus; the result, however, was the same: hence, he concludes, (L) ‘from

this we have reason to think, that the lacteals do not open directly and immediately into the intestines, but run obliquely among their coats, before they penetrate the intestinal cavity; in the same manner, perhaps, as the ductus communis choledochus enters the duodenum, or the ureters the urinary bladder.*

This is the opinion of Lower. Whether it has been confirmed or refuted by modern experiments, I cannot pretend to say; but it appears, that such an oblique commencement is contrary to the design of Nature, by throwing obstacles in the way of a ready absorption. The numerous mouths which the lacteals present in the villi of the intestines, shews, how careful Nature is, to promote the grand and necessary office of these vessels, *viz.* the absorption of chyle: and the beautiful description, which the accurate Cruikshank has given, of the numerous mouths which he saw, deserves the attentive perusal of the physiologist.†

* Vide the Experiments of John Hunter, as related in his Brother's Med. Comment. P. 38. The reader will, probably, be surpris'd at experiments so similar.

† Vide Chap. xi. of the Anatomy of the Absorbing Vessels.

Other writers, previous to this ingenious anatomist, have given descriptions of the origin of the lacteals, as if they saw their mouths; but as they do not positively assert it, we cannot declare for them. (M) ' They (the lacteals) are inserted, says Bartholin, into all the intestines, into which they open with their mouths, surrounded with a crust of mucous matter; and least the chyle, once received, should return into the intestines, they are beset with valves.' Diemerbroeck, too, in his anatomy, gives a similar, but more accurate description, of the manner in which the lacteals take their origin. (N) They arise, says he, from the intestines, between the coats of which they open into their interior cavity, by numerous very small terminations, their mouths being concealed under a kind of spongy mucus.' This spongy mucus, was probably the ampullula of Liberhuhn, and the villi so often mentioned by anatomists.

It is useless to give quotations from more authors, on this part of our subject; they have arranged their ideas in almost similar terms, which convey to us, that the doctrine generally adopted,

was that which we have just now mentioned. They form descriptions, however, very analogous to those we find given in modern books, on this subject, which oblige us to agree, if they did not actually see the mouths of the lacteals, that their ideas are very accurate.*

* Vide Hewson, Cruikshank, Monro, &c.

S E C T. IV.

STRUCTURE of LACTEALS and LYMPHATICS.

The absorbents are, every where, described by the first discoverers, as transparent, pellucid vessels, carrying a limpid fluid; hence they have been called by the different appellations of *vafa crystallina*, *rorifera*, *serosa*, &c. This pellucid appearance arose, it was imagined, from their delicate structure; and from this circumstance, they are mentioned as possessing but one coat. (O) 'The lacteals, says Diemerbroeck, are slender, pellucid vessels, having but one coat; and being dispersed, in infinite numbers, over the mesentery, are destined to carry the chyle.' This error, however, was soon corrected, by the ingenious Nuck, who separated the thoracic duct into two coats. He gives the following description of a lymphatic. (P) 'The membrane composing a lymphatic vessel, when examined by the naked eye, appears pellucid

pellucid and slender, and the external senses can discover no peculiar structure, on account of the minuteness of the parts. But examined by the microscope, it presents a texture, which exhibits an infinite number of globules, great and small, in contact with each other; some of which seemed to form small, but irregular ducts, united by various anastomoses, like the meshes of a net; but whether these lines were vessels or not, I cannot for certain determine.*

The most important part, in the structure of the absorbents, are the valves, which are more numerous in these vessels, than in any other of the human body. These, too, notwithstanding their minuteness, did not escape the investigation of the anatomists, who were acquainted with the absorbents. (Q) ‘ They are knotty, says Bartholin, and appear externally unequally swelled, especially if the flow of the lymph be stopt by ligature; this happens, on account of the valves, which are not only affixed at the entrance into the axillary vein, but are also *disposed, every where*

* Were these not the vasa vasorum, which Nuck saw? confounding them probably with the fibres of the lymphatic.

where double, and in pairs, through all their branches; are very slender in their structure, and more numerous than in the veins, so much so, that some anatomists have demonstrated above two thousand in the lymphatics; their use is, to prevent the retrograde motion of the lymph.* So minute a description, could have been the result only of laborious attention; and so indefatigable was their industry, that they attempted even to enumerate them. It is, notwithstanding, asserted by Mr. Cruikshank, that the discoverers of the lymphatics were not acquainted with their valves. 'One is surpris'd to find, he says, that one of the first discoverers of lymphatics was almost *entirely ignorant* of the valves; and that, after the vessels themselves had been described, both by Bartholin and Rudbeck, the dilucidatio valvularum should have been left for Ruysch.* It is very certain, that

* P. 63. Mr. Cruikshank here quotes a passage, from some work of Bartholin, in which he says, valvulae, ob subtilem contextum, cultro anatomico separari non possunt. This is almost directly contradictory to the one we have selected, and in which he describes the valves so well. We could

that Ruysch was the first who published, separately, upon the valves; but surely he was not, on that account, the first who knew any thing of them: on the contrary, it appears, that Bartholin was as well acquainted with their structure and use, as Ruysch himself. This last anatomist, too, censured Rudbeck, for being ignorant of the valves; but, according to Mr. Cruikshank himself, he is very distinct and clear upon the subject. Glisson, also, who wrote long before Ruysch, but after Rudbeck, and to whom Jolyffe first mentioned his discovery of the lymphatics, thus speaks of the course of the lymph: ^(R) 'It clearly appears, that this fluid flows from the liver, and by no means towards it; this is also evidently proved, by the structure of the valves, which are very numerous in these vessels; they yield a ready passage to the fluid, coming from the liver, but altogether prevent its return.'

Any one who sees a turgid absorbent, must observe considerable inequalities in its surface.†

So

could not find the passage advanced by Mr. Cruikshank, as he has given no references to the authors he has quoted.

† It is not necessary to open the vessels, in order to

So striking and unusual a structure, must have arrested the attention, and have induced the enquirer to examine into this curious appearance; and a simple dissection would soon explain the cause. Accordingly, we find the valves mentioned, and accurately described, by the first discoverers, and the braided, or *nodulated* appearance, is delineated, in the engravings of Bartholin, Willis, Glisson, Reverhorst, and innumerable others.

(A) Exortus lymphaticorum vasorum est ab omnibus partibus et visceribus, ex quibus lymphæ separatur, hepate nempe vesicula fellis, ster-
no, mediastino, pericardio, corde, pulmonibus, in-
testinis, ventriculo, liene, utero testibus, &c. Usus vasorum lymphaticorum omnium est, liquorem limpidum seu lympham vehere; origo lymphæ

discover the valves; they are sufficiently marked on the outside, and give the vessels the appearance of being notched or jointed, in different places. The lacteals are, generally, strongly marked in this way, which makes them, at times, resemble a string of beads. Anatom. of Absorb. p. 65.

phæ est a partibus singulis superfluum serum remittentibus, vel ipsis arteriis, lymphâ abundantibus. Anat. Renov. P. 723-4.

(B) Cæterum quamvis vasa lymphatica humorem suum ab arteriis accipere asserimus, non tamen lymphaticorum cum arteriis immediatam ponimus anastomofin, nisi mediantibus cribris, vel aliis corporis partibus, in quæ ubi sanguis effusus, partium nutritioni et humorum secretioni prospexerit, vasa lymphatica lympham, venæ sanguinem revehunt. P. 99-100*

(C) Etenim ista lymphatica, æque ac reliqua totius corporis, non tam a membranis provenire, sed vel ab interstitiis, ubi arteriæ terminantur, &c. P. 68†.

(D) Parens meus venerandus, qui primus et nomen et æternitatem dedit vasis a se inventis, lymphatica ab omnibus partibus, tam glandulosis quam

* Caspari Bartholini Thom. F. Diaphragmatis Structura Nova. Parisiis, 1676.

† Johannis Van Horne, Opuscula Anatomico-Chirurgica, cum Annotationibus, &c. ad auctâ studio D. Johannis Gulielmi Pauli. Lipsiæ, 1707.

quam extremis artubus lympham, ad sanguinem referre credidit. *Struët. Nov. Diaphrag. P. 89.*

(E) Vasa lymphatica, quæ admodum dextrè in testiculis detexit nostri sæculi curiositas, non solum provenire nobis videntur, sed etiam ab internâ testiculorum substantiâ. *P. 35*.*

(F) Vasa hæc lymphatica, tam interna quam externa, longe etiam et a reliquis lymphaticis diversam vehunt lympham, utpote particulis biliosis magis volatilibus gravidam, ideoque meritò lympham biliosam dicendam. *P. 17†.*

(G) Quod etiam nobis confirmat Kirkringius, qui, quia in vase lymphatico, per summam fellis cystidem reptante, lympham subflavo colore tinctam conspexit, et fellis saporem gustu percepit, concludit lympham hanc amariorem extra arteriarum vasa delatam fuisse; quia si vasorum lymphaticorum cum arteriis esset anastomosis, non amara reperitur sed dulcis, qualis in arteriis deprehenditur. *Struët. Nov. P. 100.*

(H) Verum

* Regneri De Graaf Opera omnia. Lugd. Batav. 1677.

† Dissertatio Anatomico-Medica de Motu Bilis Circulari ejusque Morbis; Auët. Mauritio Van Reverhorst, Medic. Cand. Lugd. Batav.

(H) Verum neque tu inficias iveris opinor, aliquid per cutem in vasa capillaria transire posse, adeoque sanguini commisceri. Credo te (in praxi medica feliciter ac diu occupatum) fotuum usum non raro imperasse: puta dum schirrosis tumidisque abdominibus opem adferres, dubitastne igitur, an aliquid eorum per cutim in vasa sanguifera penetret? P. 153.*

(I) Nempe crediderunt nonnulli, e partibus nutritis emergere ista; alii glandulas omnes majores conglobatas primam omnium eorum scaturiginem salutarunt; alii hæc posteriora negarunt, cum in partibus, pulmonibus scilicet, reperiuntur, ubi tamen nulla glandulosa structura notata fuerit. Veritatem dicunt fere omnes. Membranas, ut glandulosas, omnibus musculis, verbo omnibus partibus et visceribus super extensas, tanquam *principium*, fontem, ac *originem*, declarabimus, cum illa æque ex conglomeratis ac conglobatis, hepate, pancreate, testibus, visceribus omnibus, ex artubus, abdominis lumborum, et intercostalium musculis, diaphragmate, pleura, pericardio, ac meningibus,

* De Respirationis Ulu primario Diatriba; Auct. Machia Thruston, M. D. Lugd. Batav. 1671.

ningibus, *verbo omnibus partibus egredi videamus.*

P. 819*.

(K) Imo recentiorum docuit diligentia, vix ullam nostri corporis partem, iisdem carere; nam et in pulmonibus, mediastino, ventriculo, liene, testibus, utero, narium septo, palpebris, palato buccis, &c. reperiuntur. *Opera Omnia. P. 73.*

(L) Unde opinari licet, venas lacteas non directe et immediate in intestina hiare, sed obliquè inter eorum tunicas ferri, antequam in cavitates intestinorum penetrent; non aliter, forsitan, ac ductus communis in duodenum, aut ureteres in vesicam terminantur. *De Corde. P. 150.*

(M) Inferuntur in omnia intestina, in quæ osculis suis hiant, mucosæ materiæ crustâ oblinitis; et ne ad intestina versus relabatur chylus, semel acceptus, donatæ sunt valvulis. *Anat. Renovat. P. 612.*

(N) Exsurgunt ab intestinis, inter quorum tunicas plurimis tenuissimis radicum finibus versus interiorem eorum capacitatem hiant, osculis sub spongioso quodam muco latentibus. *Anatome. P. 67.*

(O) Sunt

* Differtatio Anatomica de Vasorum Lymphaticorum Administratione; Auct. Joh. Zelleri. M. D. Tubingæ, 1687.

(O) Sunt autem vasa (lacteā) tenuia et pellucida, simplici tunica donata, per mesenterium dispersa, numero infinita, chylo vehendo dicata. *Anatome*, P. 67.

(P) Membrana vasculum lymphaticum componens, externo oculo examinata, pellucida est et tenuis, nihilque peculiare (quoad structuram) ob partium tenuitatem sensibus externis offert. Verum microscopio examinata, texturam præbet infinitorum globulorum, majorum minorumque, contactu mutuo inter se cohærentium; quorum nonnulli ductulos aliquot, sed irregulares, arearum in modum, componere videbantur, variis anastomosis inter se junctos; hi autem tractus, an vascula fuerint, necne, pro certo, affirmare non audeo. P. 41-2*.

(Q) Nodosa quoque sunt, et externe apparent inæqualiter tumentia, imprimis si, ligatis illis lymphæ fistatur, idque propter valvulas, non tantum ingressui in axillarem affixas, sed in omnibus ramis dispositas, geminatasque ubique et oblique invicem superpositas, textura tenerrimas et numerosiores quam in
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venis,

* *Adenographia Curiosa et Uteri Fœminei Anatome Nova*, Auctore Antonio Nuck, Med. Doct. Ludg. Batav. 1696.

venis, adeo ut supra bis mille in lymphaticis aliqui demonstrent, quarum usus est impedire ne aqua ad lymphatica regrediatur. Anat. Renov. P. 622-3.

(R) Manifeste constabit, eundem ab hepate, non autem ipsum versus tendere; idque etiam valvularum structura, quæ numerosæ in iis reperiuntur, dilucide evincit; illæ siquidem liquori ei hepate effluenti facile cedunt, regressuro autem secluduntur. P. 268*.

* Francisci Glissonii, in inelyta Cantabrigiæ Academia Medicinæ Profess. et Coll. Lond. Soc. Anatomia Hepatis. Ad Calcem Operis subjiciuntur nonnulla de Lymphæ-ductibus nuper repertis. Londini, 1654.

SECT.

S E C T. V.

IDENTITY of LACTEALS and LYMPHATICS.

When Afellius discovered the absorbents of the intestines, he called them lacteals, from the fluids they contained; in like manner, Rudbeck and Bartholin gave the absorbents, in other parts of the body, the name of ferous and lymphatic vessels, for the same reason. It was, however, found, that the lacteals sometimes carried lymph, and, therefore, the term lymphatic was equally applicable to them. The appellation of lacteal, however, was retained for the same reason, that it still continues in use, *viz.* to distinguish between vessels which receive chyle from the intestines, and those, in other parts of the body, which never contain that fluid. Notwithstanding that this distinction of name remained, yet we find it mentioned, that the lacteals, occasionally, contained the same fluid with the other absorbents of the system, and

therefore, were called lymphatics. Mr. Cruikshank observes, that ‘ the lymph is the fluid, supposed, by the first discoverers of the lymphatics, to be found *only* in them, and not in lacteals; and which occasioned their forming these vessels into two classes’*. I confess, that I do not find, in the *Anatome Renovata* of Bartholin, any expression, by which he unequivocally means, that the *vasa lactea* ever contained lymph; but he asserts, that the thoracic duct always contains lymph, except when it is distended with chyle. (A) The receptacle receives the lymph from lymphatics, and through the same thoracic lacteal ducts, delivers it to the heart. It is always filled with lymph, when no chyle is present†. And again, during the time of distribution, its chief office is to carry chyle, but always at other times lymph. In a work, however, which we have since met with, published by Bartholin, he asserts, that he has seen the lacteals turgid with lymph. (B) I have more than once lately seen, in animals, opened two hours after they had taken food, the lacteals containing

* P. 95.

† Diemerbroeck also asserts the same, P. 76.

taining no chyle, but all of them passing from the intestines, turgid with the clearest lymph, and creeping along the glands, after the manner of the lacteals'.

Without having recourse to any further quotations from Bartholin, I find, in a work published only a few years after the *Anatome Renovata*, as full and clear an account of the identity of lacteals and lymphatics, as can be expressed in words. Speaking of the receptaculum chyli, the author* says, (c) 'This sack is formed by the union of three branches of absorbents, *viz*: the hepatic, mesenteric, and iliac. Having mentioned the ramus iliacus, he adds; The second branch is the mesenteric, the greatest of the lacteal vessels, *all which are true lymphatics, and are only lacteals during the time of distribution; that being past, they again become turgid with lymph.* He says, the lymphatics are found in all parts of the body. There is no part of the whole body, which does not contain

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such

* Zellerus. The Editor of Van Horne's *Opuscula* thus speaks of this author. *Circa modum vasa lymphatica observandi et demonstrandi Zelleri dissertatio meretur evolvi.*

such vessels; so that they not only pass out from the conglobate, but also from the conglomerate glands, from muscular parts, from all the joints, from the diaphragm, the lungs, &c. but he adds, they are not every where equally numerous. Nuck, too, had long ago mentioned, the similitude of structure between lacteals and lymphatics; since therefore the structure of the lacteals and lymphatic vessels is the same, &c. In another place he says, (D) ' The mesentery has also its lymphatics, of the same structure with the lacteals. I have sometimes remarked, that the lacteals of the mesentery not only afforded a passage to the chyle, but also to the lymph; the distribution of chyle being finished and received into the blood, the lacteals must give entrance to the lymph; for, besides that, we have sometimes seen lymph in the lacteals, it is not difficult to conceive, that the greater portion of the pancreatic juice, and also the lymph, secreted from the glands of the intestines, not finding any other way than these, by which they will therefore pass through the thoracic duct into the blood. The ingenious Editor of Van Horne's works also maintains, that

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the lacteals sometimes carry lymph. (E) Moreover, the lacteal veins, *primi generis*, according to Ruyfch,* have not so many valves as the lymphatics; and, indeed, the lacteals, *secundi generis*, although both sets are true lymphatics, carry a mere lymph, when chylication is completed.'

No comment can surely be required to these clear expressions. Why did Hunter and Monro suffer these truths to pass unnoticed? It appears then, from the testimony of Bartholin, Nuck, and others, that the lacteals and lymphatics were the same system of vessels, were similar in structure, and occasionally carried the same fluids.

(A) Lympham ex lymphaticis recipit receptaculum, et per eisdem ductus thoracicos lacteos amandat ad cor. Hoc lympham fere semper repletur quando chylus deest. P. 112. Chylum tempore distributionis, primario vehere et semper alias lympham. P. 621.

(B) Semel atque iterum nuper vidi in animalibus, duas post pastum horas apertis, nimirum

Y 4

venas

* Dilucid. Valvular. Cap. II. p. 34.

venas lacteas nullas chylo repletas, sed omnes ab intestinis prodeuntes, lymphæ limpidissima turgidas, eodem more glandulas mesenterii perreptare, quo lactea consuevere. P. 94. Struct. Diaphrag.

(C) Saccus ille formatur ex unione trium ramorum, hepatici, mesenterici, ac iliaci. Secundus ramus insignior est mesentericus ex omnibus lacteis vasis, quæ omnia vera lymphatica sunt, et lactea distributionis tempore solum apparent, ista vero elapso, iterum lymphæ turgent. Nulla est pars totius corporis, quæ non talibus gaudeat; ita ut non ex glandulis solum conglobatis egrediantur, sed etiam conglomeratis, ex musculosâ parte, omnibus artibus, diaphragmate, pulmonibus, &c. P. 812-13.

(D) Mesenterium etiam suos habet lymphæductus, eandem fere fabricam ac vasa lactea componentes. Verum aliquoties notavi, vasa mesenterii lactea, non tantum chylo, sed et cum eo lymphæ transitum præbere, imo peractâ chylicatione, chyloque jam in sanguinem advecto, humori lymphatico tantum eadem patere; namque præterquam, quod lympham aliquoties in lacteis viderimus, etiam conceptu difficile non erit, si

fucci pancreatici portionem majorem, necnon in
intestinatorum glandulis lympham secretam, alias
vias, præter has, nusquam invenire, per quas ductui
thoracico, et ita sanguini, accedere posset. P.
146-7.

(E) Venæ insuper lacteæ primi generis, notante
Ruyfchio, Dilucid. Valvular. Cap. II. P. 34,
non tanta valvularum copia, quanta vasa serosa;
imo et secundi generis lacteæ, quamvis utiusque
generis vascula revera sint lymphatica, lympham
videlicet meram alio, quam chylicationis tempore
transportantia. P. 51. Note x.

S E C T. VI.

FUNCTIONS *of the* ABSORBENT SYSTEM.

Having laid before the reader what was known in the last century, respecting the structure, origin, &c. of the absorbents, it remains, that we should treat of their functions. A considerable part of this subject has been, unavoidably, anticipated, in the preceding sections; but it is proper to bring the whole in one connected point of view, that it may be seen, how far our predecessors were acquainted with this part of physiology. The chyle is the fluid, which the lacteals most generally receive from the intestines, although they will, occasionally, contain a variety of other substances. The first discoverers attributed to the lacteals, the absorption of chyle; and, therefore, must also have allowed, that what was occasionally mixed with chyle, would also be taken in. Bartholin, and others, mention, that they take up medicines,

poisons,

poisons, &c. Of this, indeed, there was no doubt; but it has been imagined by the moderns, that the first discoverers did not know how the lymph, &c. got into the absorbents of the body. It was the opinion of Bartholin, Willis, Gliffon, Zellerus, &c. that the lymphatics were not continued from arteries, by continuity of canal. How then was it imagined, that the lymph was received into their mouths? The mode of absorption, is a subject which still divides the physiological world. No one doubts, that the absorbents are intended to receive the various substances applied to their mouths; but it is still a matter of dispute, *how* the substance gets into the absorbent; whether by the activity of the absorbents themselves, or by their action as capillary tubes, or by the pressure of surrounding parts. Mr. Cruikshank, himself, is, by no means, decided on this point. He is undetermined, whether to accede to the opinion of Aggiunti, of Boerhaave, or of John Hunter. We must not be surprised, then, if the authors of the last century had their doubts upon the subject.

As many ingenious men flourished about the period, when the discovery of the lymphatics was
 much

much talked of, their great attention to medical pursuits; and to the laws of the animal œconomy, as their works fully testify, must have led them to the knowledge of the great importance of the absorbent system. They observed fluids continually pouring into different cavities; they knew, from the experiments of Bartholin, Lower, and others, that the red veins did not absorb; they also knew, that the red veins did not throw out any fluid; they must, then, have concluded, that other vessels exhaled, and that the lymphatics absorbed. Accordingly we find, in the works of Gliffon, Willis, and others, a full account of these important functions of the animal frame. Willis gives the following account of the lymphatics of the lungs.

(A) ‘ Indeed a considerable number of vessels of this kind are required in the lungs; for since the blood is here *chiefly heated*, and rapidly circulated, the veins do not easily receive all the blood from the arteries; moreover, the glands do not long retain *what is effused into them*; therefore there was a necessity for lymphatics, as so many rivulets, by which the continually superabundant moisture might be carried off. If it happens, that these

vessels

vessels are obstructed or ruptured, an anasarca pulmonum, or hydro-thorax will arise, as also coughs, and phthical affections, will be often produced*. Nuck also says, that dropfy may arise from rupture of lymphatic; and mentions a case, of what he says is a new disease, *viz*: a dropfy of the peritonæum.

Paulus, in his commentary on Van Horne's Microcosmus, mentions this opinion of Nuck †; and Diemerbroeck held it as probable, that dropfy might arise from the same cause. (B) We must observe, with respect to the lymphatics of the abdomen, that if they be ruptured from any cause (for they are of a delicate structure) then the serous lymph will be effused into the cavity of the abdomen, and ascites will be at length, produced, by its accumulation; although it also arises from other causes.

* This passage is very remarkable, because Willis says, that the lymph is taken up from glands: and Mr. Cruikshank, p. 175, from some oversight, gives a passage from this author, immediately before the one we have quoted, and another immediately after, but passes over the very pointed expressions mentioned above.

† Vide Nuck's Adenograph, p. 97-98-100. Van Horne's Microcosm. p. 57, note h.

causes. Hydatids, he thinks, are caused, by the effusion of lymph, forming vesicles. Lower doubted very much, whether the rupture of lymphatics can produce dropfy. He past ligatures round the vena cava of a dog; the wound was then sewed up. The dog died in a few hours. When dissected, a great quantity of serum was found in the abdomen. He also tied up the jugulars in another dog. All the parts above the ligature swelled greatly, in a few hours; and in two days, the dog perished, as if suffocated by angina *. (C) During this time, there was not only a profusion of tears, but also a great flow of saliva from the mouth, as if it had been brought on by mercury. After death, I separated the skin from the tumefied parts, and expected to have found them turgid with blood; but it was quite the contrary, for I could not discover any trace or colour of blood; all the muscles and glands were distended with limpid serum, and appeared, in some measure, pellucid.

How far these circumstances tend to investigate the cause of ascites and anasarca, I leave to others
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* Vide Baglivi Dissert. de Experim. Anatom. Pract.
P. 107.

to determine; I shall only make this remark, says Lower, that ascites does not always, if ever, arise from ruptured lymphatics: for I have dissected many sheep, killed by the dropfy of thorax and abdomen, in which I found the lymphatics more turgid and full, than I ever remember to have seen; so that if any one intends to give a complete history of the lymphatics, no subject can answer his intention or design better. This idea of rupture, as the cause of dropfy, is also mentioned by Bartholin, and has been since adopted by Whytt and Cullen. Willis, again, mentions the pulmonary lymphatics, and gives a plate of them, taken from the lungs of an ox*. The following passage, concerning their use, is so exactly similar to Dr. Hunter's theory, that I shall be excused from transcribing the whole of it. (D) If I dare conjecture, concerning the use of these vessels, it is very probable, that those cavities, intercepting each of the lobules, receive vapors every where, copiously flowing from the heated blood (particularly as they can no where be effused or collected with greater convenience), that

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* Rudbeck, Bartholin, and Ruysch, had seen the lymphatics of the lungs. Vide, Diemerbroeck, P. 87.

is to say, these *vapours transude from the terminations of the vessels*, through their very delicate coats, and thence being propelled further, *are condensed into water*, to be carried off from the lungs by these vessels, fitted for that purpose: moreover, least the lymph, thus formed and condensed, from the vapours within these ducts, should regurgitate into the lungs, they are beset with numerous valves*.

The plates give the exact reticular appearance of the pulmonary absorbents, as described by Mr. Cruikshank †. In the works of Glisson, we find, completely, the modern doctrine of transudation, and absorption. This will appear, by a transcript from his book. He first asserts, that the lymphatics take up a fluid, from parts into which they are inserted. He then enquires, whence this fluid is derived. (E) Whence is this fluid derived, which
those

* It is rather curious, that Mr. Cruikshank quotes another passage from Willis, immediately after this clear account, without taking any notice of it.

† P. 84. During a lecture, which we heard in London, some time ago, on this subject, a plate of the lymphatics of the lungs was handed round; we were struck with its exact similarity to that of Willis's, and took the liberty of mentioning it after lecture.

those vessels carry off? It is possible, that the arteries may claim to themselves, some part of this office. For it cannot otherwise happen, but that the blood passing through them, should pour out a copious halitus upon those parts, into which it is sent; and the more so, because the same halitus is, for some time, confined, by the thick and dense coat of the artery. This halitus, thus effused, is retained, in considerable quantity, by fibrous and membranous parts, and is again collected; and, after the manner of distillation, is condensed into a certain liquid, which forms some portion of the fluid, carried off by the lymphatics. He thinks, the arteries alone do not furnish this halitus, but that it is supplied by other vessels. The whole of the fluid carried off by the lymphatics, is not derived solely from the halitus of the blood, nor from the arteries, but also from other vessels; these, he says, are nerves. But notwithstanding that the nerves supplied a fluid to be absorbed, yet he attributes the greater quantity of transudation to the arteries; by far the greatest part of this lymph is condensed from the halitus of the blood, and carried off by the lymphatics. If Glisson had not already expressly

asserted, that a halitus is thrown out, condensed, and taken up by the absorbents, we might collect, from these passages, that he could not have imagined, the lymphatics to be a continuation of arteries; because, he says, it takes a great deal of pains to prove it, that the nerves throw out a fluid to be absorbed; which he certainly could not have said, had he maintained, that the lymphatics were returned from arteries, by continuity of canal. The absorption of solids was, also, maintained by this author. He urges, when speaking of the lymph, that the absorbents are those vessels, which return into the system, effused fluids; that this effusion is not excrementitious; for so true and œconomical is nature in her operations, that she never leaves her work incomplete. We must conclude, that he meant the solids were taken up, from the following expressions. The chyle is the daily support, by which the waste of the blood is continually repaired; from its deficiency, the very solid parts are broken down into a fluid, and when necessity requires, restores the loss of the blood. I could point out, were it necessary, numerous other passages in Glisson, to the same purpose; and if any one will be

at the pains of reading Chap. 45 of the Anatomia Hepatis, his trouble will be amply repaid.

During the latter period of the seventeenth century, medical men were very active, all over Europe, and eminently so in the learned Universities of Cambridge and Oxford. In their writings, we find the brightness of genius flowing through every page. The works of Willis, Mayow, Gliffon, Bartholin, and innumerable others, contain experiments and observations, which will justly surprize a modern reader; and, for my part, I must confess, that in the theories of medicine, and their application to practice, I have derived considerable advantage, from the perusal of their works: but, independent of theory, which the prolific brain of any may form, without a minute knowledge of anatomy, we find in them nice points determined, which require laborious anatomical investigation. In the arts and sciences, if we did not profit by the accumulated labours of our fore-fathers, our exertions would be vain, in as much as we should not advance the progress of knowledge. Dr. Hunter says, he has often found his observations in old books, long after he had

thought them peculiar to himself. His excellent remarks were, the result of tedious investigation. If he had been, at first, acquainted with these observations, might they not have been a clue, by which he might have directed his useful labours? Much time would be saved, of that short period allotted to man; and thus the various investigations of many, would, as it were, be concentrated by the labours of an individual, and be productive of researches beneficial to society*. It is surprising, that the useful labours of many, who have gone before us, should have been so much neglected. Mr. Cruikshank, through the whole of his work, takes no notice of the clear account Glisson gives of transfusion and absorption. He only quotes him once, when mentioning Jolyffe's right to the discovery of the lymphatics. 'As to Glisson's evidence I must observe, that Dr. Jolyffe considered

*. Though we allow him a great share of ingenuity, sagacity, and diligence, we find much to reprehend, and various occasions to wish his knowledge more matured, by previous investigations of the labours of others in the same departments. — Crit. Rev. for August, Art. Foot's Life of J. Hunter.

considered the nerves as vessels, and therefore uses the words *quartum genus vasorum*. At the same time, he appears to me to have forgot Afellius's discovery of the lacteals, or he would have said, *quintum genus*, unless he imagined his vessels and Afellius's the same; and then Glisson would never have seriously informed us, that Jolyffe had discovered a new set of vessels, Afellius having informed us of them long before*. Glisson seems to have considered the lacteals and lymphatics, as the same system of vessels; for he says, (G) Hitherto, only four sets of vessels have been discovered, *viz.* arteries, veins, nerves, and lymphatics. He could not have forgot the discovery of Afellius; for he observes, When I first saw these vessels, the assertion of Afellius, that he had discovered lacteals going to the liver, occurred to me †.

Upon consideration it appears, that both Jolyffe and Glisson ranked the *venæ lacteæ* with red veins; and, therefore, the discovery of Jolyffe

* P. 35.

† We may conclude, from this, that Afellius saw the lymphatics.

would be a *quantum genus vasorum*. We wish, that that distinguished anatomist, Mr. Cruikshank, had paid more respect to Gliffon, and had given him that place in his publication, which his great merit and true theory certainly deserved. No wonder that Dr. Hunter was mortified, when he read the works of Gliffon, and was obliged to confess, that his theory was Gliffon's, revived and confirmed. He might, also, have seen, that Willis believed in transfudation. I must observe, however, that Willis, and others, did not seem to be aware, that transfudation took place, only, through organic pores. They have no where positively asserted, *how* this transfudation was performed; and as far as I know, this was left to be proved, by the ingenious author of the Treatise on the Absorbent System. His excellent account, in the first part of his publication, forms a beautiful and consistent theory. Let us now examine, what ideas were entertained, with respect to *how* absorption was performed. Acellius ascribed the absorption of chyle, to a traction in the heart; and this opinion was adopted by anatomists: but when the circulation was explained by Harvey, this doctrine,

doctrine, in a great measure, fell to the ground ; but even after that noble discovery, so strong was prejudice, that many adhered to the old opinion of a valida tractio in the heart. I have mentioned, that Lower imagined, from his experiments, that the lacteals arose, obliquely, from the intestines*.

(H) From this circumstance, he thought, that the action of the intestines compressed the mouths of the lacteals, and prevented absorption ; but as the peristaltic motion is not incessant, he concluded, that the chyle was received into the lacteals, when the motion ceased. It is evident, from this, he ascribed an activity to the mouths of these vessels. The chyle, having got into the lacteal, is propelled, by the vermicular motion of the intestines into the receptaculum. The ascent to the chyle, would be very difficult, says Lower, were the receptacle not placed between the tendons of the diaphragm ; whence it happens, that as it is contracted during respiration, its tendons being drawn close together, firmly compress, and agitate this lacteal sack, especially when filled with chyle, so that they propel

* This was also the opinion of Drake.

the chyle into the subclavian veins. Other authors, if we are to judge from the terms they use, attributed an activity to the mouths of these vessels; for we meet with *exfugo*, *absorbeo*, and *exhaurio*.

An opinion, however, which prevailed very much, with respect to absorption, was, that the contents of the absorbents were received into them, and propelled by the action of surrounding parts; making the absorbents altogether passive in their functions. This doctrine is mentioned by a variety of authors. Diemerbroeck says, that the chyle and lymph are impelled into the absorbents, by the pressure of adjacent parts, as muscular motion. ^(I) The cause of the entrance of the chyle into the lacteals, and its motion through them, is two-fold, *viz.* the peristaltic motion of the intestines, and the contraction of the abdominal muscles, together with the action of the respiratory organs. When speaking of the lymphatics, he observes, ^(K) The impulsive cause is the same, *viz.* motion and pressure. The lymph, which comes from the joints, is impelled by the motion of the muscles of those parts, in like manner as

we see the falival liquor flows copiously into the mouth, by the motion of the jaw ; but when we are at rest, as in sleep, there is little or none. By this pressure of parts, not only the glands lying in them, but also the lymphatics, are pressed upon, both by the muscles, and the superincumbent viscera ; and thus the contained fluid is squeezed out, and propelled forwards. I think the lymph moves slow and quick, at different times, according to the greater or less motion of those parts, in which the conglobate glands and lymphatics are situated, as happens to the sublingual salivary ducts, which proceed from conglomerate glands.

We have already mentioned, that Bartholin said, the lymph was thrown out from the arteries. Diemerbroeck is of the same opinion. (L) Glisson of opinion, that the lymph is derived from the nerves ; Bartholin maintains it comes from the arteries : the former idea is absurd ; the latter is the most probable, on account of the quantity of lymph, which cannot be secreted, in such quantity, from any vessels, as from the arteries. Diemerbroeck seems, here, to have forgot, that Glisson, although he held it probable, that a fluid
might

might be derived from the nerves, maintained, that by far the greater part of the lymph was secreted from the arteries. Arterial action, too, is expressly mentioned by some, as a cause of the motion of the lymph. Bartholin, speaking of the lymphatics which accompany blood-vessels, observes, ^(M) This I suspect, to accelerate the motion of the lymph, in like manner as I believe, the blood in a vein to be propelled, by the pulsation of the artery in the neighbourhood.

The doctrine, that the absorbents are perfectly passive in their functions, is fully explained by Collins, an ingenious anatomist, who flourished about the middle of the last century. Now somewhat may be said of the manner, how this milky liquor is transmitted through the mesentery, into the common receptacle; and this, I humbly conceit, may be accomplished by a double means. The first may be, the gentle contraction of the guts (made by carnous fibres) in their peristaltic motion, wherein the chyle, impregnated and diluted by more fluid, and excellent particles of the pancreatic juice, is impelled into the origins or roots of the milky vessels, whose pores hold an analogy,

analogy, in shape and size, with the particles of the chyle, and thereby give a reception to this select alimentary liquor. The second way of transmitting chyle, through the mesentery into the common receptacle, is more powerful, and assistant to the former, and are the muscles of the belly, which contract themselves in expiration, and thereby compress the guts, and squeeze the purer parts of the prepared aliment into the orifices of the lacteal vessels; and the more gross excrements, the reliques of concoction, having magnitudes and figures, different from the orifices or extremities of the milky veins, are secluded their cavities, and are protruded from one part of the guts to the other, as disserviceable to nutrition*.

As Collins thus allowed no action in the lacteal itself, it was necessary, that some other power should propel the chyle, once received into it. He thus describes it. The chyle being thus generated in the stomach, is thence transmitted into the intestines, and afterwards received into the origins of the lacteal, by the peristaltic motion
of

* P. 389, Vol. I.

of the guts, and the contraction of the abdominal muscles, squeezing the chyle into the milky vessels, which import it through the mesentery, into the common receptacle (being lodged between the processes of the diaphragm) compressed, when the mediastinum is moved, and brought towards a plain; whereupon the milky humour is impelled farther and farther upwards, through the thoracic ducts, till it landeth in the subclavian vein. This ascent of the chyle is much assisted by the mechanism of the ducts, as furnished with valves, which give way to the ascent of the chyle upward, toward the subclavian vein, and give a check to its retrograde motion toward the common receptacle*. It is worthy of remark, that this author, through the whole of his work, never makes use of the word absorption, which implies action in the vessels themselves; but when he wishes to express this function, says, the fluid is impelled, received, transmitted, &c. into the origin of the lymphatic or lacteal. This anatomist has given the same theory of the motion of the lymph. The thinner ferous excrements, are transmitted into the origin

of

* P. 682, Vol. II.

of the lymphæ-ducts, appertaining to the muscular parts, by whose local and voluntary motion, the natural progress of the lymphæ is much quickened. Again; the lymphæ of the adjoining lymphæ-ducts is promoted by muscular motion, from the circumference to the center to the common recaptacle*.

The doctrine of Collins, then, implied no muscularity in the absorbents, and pointed out, that they were passive in their office, their contents being propelled by the action of surrounding parts. The opinion, that the chyle was received into the lacteals by muscular motion, found its advocates in Drake and Verheyen. The chyme, says the former, which, as soon as it is reduced to a consistence, loose enough to be obedient to the pressure and peristaltic motion of the intestines, is gradually worked out, through the pylorus, into the duodenum, along the sides of which, and the rest of the intestina tenuia, the vasa lactea are planted, into whose extreme minute orifices, the thinner and more fluid part of this mass is pressed, by the natural contraction of the guts†.

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* P. 443, Vol. I.

† P. 88.

A doctrine, precisely similar to this, has been adopted, of late, by some very ingenious men. Experiments and arguments have been brought, to refute the opinion of Cruikshank, and others, who ascribe muscularity to the absorbents. A very ingenious and eminent lecturer in London adheres to this opinion, denies altogether any necessity for muscularity in the absorbents, and maintains, that their contents are transmitted into them, and propelled by the motion of surrounding parts, as muscular and arterial action. I must confess, it is difficult to account for the rapid absorption of fluids, in many cases, without allowing some muscularity in these vessels; at the same time, the irritability and muscular power attributed to them by many, is much too great, and let me add, incompatible with the safety of life*. We cannot admit of the great irritability attributed by Mr. Cruikshank to the absorbents, although we think they possess some portion of muscular

* Mr. J. Hunter says, they devour parts, as caterpillars do leaves. A very late writer talks of their *pulling down*, and carrying away the materials, that are worn out, and unfit for the support of the machine.

muscular power. If I am not mistaken, and if we are to judge from his expressions, he gives them an irritability, greater than that of the heart. It has been imagined, that the vessels continue to absorb after death. This has been brought forward as one of the most powerful arguments, in proof of their irritability. The muscular flesh of the turtle, says Mr. Cruikshank, continues to contract and relax, from the stimulus of air only, many hours after the animal's head is cut off. The absorbents appear to me, to have a similar power of action, and to be capable of absorbing, for some time after the animal is dead. Malpighi had before said, that one would be tempted to believe, that they absorbed after death, and I was determined to make the experiment. I tied up the trunks of the arteries and veins, belonging to a portion of the great intestine in an ass, which had been dead a few minutes (the intestines were still in the cavity of the abdomen and the parts not cold). I knew, that the trunks of the absorbents must be inclosed in the ligature, though not one of them was then visible. Two hours after, I returned, and found a number of absorbents, turgid with

with a transparent fluid. I opened one of the largest with a lancet; the fluid issued in a stream, which it could not have done, unless the vessels had continued to absorb and to propel their fluids, with great force, after the death of the system*. This circumstance was before taken notice of by anatomists; but it was accounted for in a quite different manner, and upon principles more agreeable to truth. The ingenious Verheyen has the following observations. (N) The motion of the lymph does not cease with life, like that of the blood, but continues a considerable time after death, which is proved, by ligatures being past round the lymphatic vessels. This seems to arise from the following circumstances: 1st. Because the lymph is very fluid and smooth, and therefore flows easily. 2d. Because the vessels themselves are lined with a coat, extremely polished, which suffer compression from the collapsed parts, and therefore the lymph is propelled forward, according to the natural motion. The proof, too, given, of their muscularity, is very fallacious; because motion was

perceived

* P. 60-1.

perceived when oil of vitriol was applied, it has been concluded by Haller and Cruikshank, that they are extremely irritable. Every one knows, that the causticity produces a chemical change; it corrugates the lacteal, hence the fluid is propelled*. I have applied sulphuric acid to the intestines of mice, after death, and found, that not only motion took place, but that a hardness was induced. This is more evident in frogs; their intestines are beautifully transparent, white, and soft; by applying sulphuric acid, they become opaque and firm, very similar to the tunica albuginea of the eye. We have separated the coats of the stomach of a frog, in this way; for the acid corrugates the external coat, and the internal easily separates: it corrugates, equally, the skin †, the lungs, the intestines, &c. Hence, we conclude, that it is not an unequivocal proof of the muscularity of parts; a mechanical stimulus would be a better test ‡.

A a

From

* An experiment, similar to this, was made by an anatomist of London, with the lacteals.

† The skin of a frog is perfectly membranous.

‡ Hanc arteriarum actionem satis demonstrant ipsius arteriæ

From what has been said, I think, no one can doubt, but that the great importance of the absorbent system was seen and admired by the medical world, during the last century. The many eminent men, who then flourished, have expressed their ideas, on the subject, in such clear and decided language, they have proved their opinions by experiments and arguments so complete, as cannot fail to bring conviction home to the most sceptical mind. Their attention to the subject is evident, through all their works; and their accuracy is confirmed by modern labour and investigation. The candid enquirer after truth, is surpris'd, how expressions, so clear, could be mistaken; and the benevolent philosopher hopes, that oversight, not wilful misrepresentation, has caused this want of candour. Highly as we respect the great abilities of Dr. Hunter, indebted as all are to him for his extensive and useful pursuits, yet surely it is worse than prejudice, to adhere blindly to the *ipse dixit*

of
 rix fabrica, manifeste musculosa tunica instructæ et multa
 quoque experimenta in vivis animalibus instituta; ubi arteriæ,
 ad hunc usque mechanicæ (nam veneno chemico fuerunt fidendum est) vali-
 diffime se contraxerunt.—Conspect. Medicinæ, P. 235, Vol I.

of superior merit. How long, and how much, has not science, and medicine in particular, suffered, from such unphilosophical bigotry.

‘*Nullius addictus jurare in verba magistri*’;— is a maxim, which, if not licentiouſly adopted, leads to calm enquiry, and would, in a great measure, have ſhortened the dark and tedious period of Galenic attachment. To acquieſce, implicitly, in the opinions of a man, becauſe he has gained applauſe and reputation, is to ſhut the door againſt investigation and enquiry; and the doctrines of a teacher are only to be held in veneration, as they are found to be conſonant with reaſon and truth. It is not the authority, but the truth, which carries reſpectability along with it; and authority, if not guided by judgment, eventually obſtructs, inſtead of promoting the great end of ſcience; and the man, who propoſes a doctrine, tacitly confeſſes, that every one who reads it, has a right to form their own judgment. ‘*Non enim tam auctoritatis in diſputando, quam rationis momenta quærenda ſunt. Quinetiam obest plerumque iis, qui diſcere volunt, auctoritas eorum, qui ſe docere profitentur: definiunt enim ſuum ju-*

dicium adhibere; id habent ratum, quod ab eo quem probant, judicatum vident.* Such was the philosophical creed of Cicero, and such ought to be the opinion of every enlightened mind.

Sydenham, by adhering to no sect, but by carefully attending to the operations of nature, has acquired that reputation in the literary world, which will be always attached to his name; and had the great Hippocrates confined himself to the doctrines of Pythagoras, those noble aphorisms, which have immortalized his name, would never have adorned and improved the science of medicine.

If the claims of Dr. Hunter be founded in justice, the opinions we have advanced, will contribute to establish that right; for if the passages we have selected shall induce medical men to examine the works themselves, they will then see, whether the conclusions we have drawn be inconsistent with the premises; for it is a maxim, unerring in its application, that a calm and dispassionate investigation always promotes the knowledge of

* De Natura Deorum, P. 11 12.

of truth. Quotations are but feeble proofs, when compared to reading the works themselves, where detached passages are connected by close reasoning, and accompanied by an accurate detail of facts.

The numerous quotations which appear in this miscellaneous work were unavoidable, from the nature of the subject. Merely to have made assertions, without adducing proofs, would have been little regarded; and had I given a translation of the passages, without the original, it might have been urged against me, as my own interpretation. As it is, I fear, some will regard it as dry reading, to wade through a mass of quotations. Such, I may safely affirm, are equally as careless upon whom the fate of science devolves, as from whom the merit of a discovery is injuriously wrested.

(A) Profecto vasa hujus generis quam plurima in pulmonibus requiruntur; quippe cum sanguis hic maxime efflagret, et rapidè circuletur, venæ haud facile totum cruorem ab arteriis excipiunt; porro glandulæ quod in iis depositum est non diu continent, quare lymphæ-ductus, quasi alveis per-

multis, opus erat, quibus humor continuo superabundans amandari possit. Si quando hos obstrui aut dirumpi contingat, pulmonum aut pectoris hydrops, quinimo tussis et affectus phthifici, sæpenumero oriuntur. P. 19.*

(B) Notandum, de vasis lymphaticis in inferiore ventre latentibus, quod si aliqua de causa rumpantur (sunt enim valde tenella) tunc serosam lympham in abdominis capacitatem effundi, ab ejusque accumulatione, tandem ascitem generari; quamvis aliis de causis fieri possit. P. 95.

(C) Toto hoc tempore, non solum lacrymæ copiosius fluebant, sed et plurima saliva ex ore, non aliter quam si ab assumpto mercurio fluxus ille concitatus fuisset. Post obitum, cutem ejus a partibus tumefactis separavi, atque expectavi ut partes tumefactæ sanguine extravasato turgenterent; sed aliter omnino evenit, quippe nullum vestigium aut colorem fere sanguinis observare potui: sed muscoli omnes et glandulæ sero limpido maxime distentæ et admodum pellucidæ apparebant. Quan-

tum

* Pharmaceutice Rationalis sive Diatriba de Medicamentorum Operationibus in Humano Corpore. Pars Secunda.

tum hæc ad ascitis et anasarcae causas investigandas conducant, aliis judicandum relinquo; hoc solum advertere oportet, ascitem non ex ruptis lymphaticis semper, si omnino unquam evenire; quippe plurimas oves, hydrope pectoris atque abdominis defunctas, dissecui, in quibus vasa lymphatica ita turgida et repleta ubique inveni, ut nusquam magis; adeo ut si quis venarum lymphaticarum historiam plene absolvere in animo habeat, nulla corpora ad votum ejus et propositum magis cesserint. P. 82-3.

(D) Circa horum usus ut conjectari ausim, verisimile est cavitates istas, quosque lobulos intercipientes, vapores a sanguine accenso quaquaversus copiose emanantes, (cum nullabi melius detrudi aut seponi possint) excipere, qui sc. e vasorum finibus in cavitates hæc, per tenuissimos ipsorum parietes, transfudant, indeque mox ulterius propulsi, in aquam, per hæc vasa appropriata e pulmone deportandam, condensantur: insuper ne lymphæ intra ductus istos, a vaporibus factæ ac ita condensatæ, in pulmones (magnam ipsis noxam illaturæ) regurgitent, densissimi valvularum obices impediunt. P. 32.

(E) Quid humorem illum apportet, quem vasa isthæc auferunt? Possunt quidem arteriæ indirecte et veluti per accidens, atque aliquatenus muneris hujus partem aliquam sibi vindicare. Fieri enim nequit, quin sanguis per illas exiliens (utpote calore insigni effervescens) copiosos halitus diffundat in partes illas, in quas immittitur: eoque magis, quod iidem halitus jam antea a crassa densaque arteriæ tunicâ aliquandiu repressi fuerint. Halitus isti, sic dispersi, a partibus fibrosis ac membranosis, magnam partem retinentur et recolliguntur denuo, atque ad distillationis modum, in liquorem quendam condensantur, qui humoris a lymphæ-ductibus avecti partem aliquam constituit. Materiam omnem per lymphæ-ductus delatam, non solum a sanguinis halitibus proficisci; neque ab arteriis duntaxat, sed et ab aliis quoque vasis supeditari. P. 402-3. Partem hujus lymphæ longè maximam a sanguinis halitibus, roris instar coactis, et per lymphæ-ductus refluis, constitui. P. 448.

(F) Chylus est victus quotidianus, quo sanguinis dispendia reparantur denuo, in illius autem defectu, ipsæ solidæ partes resolvuntur et in liquorem abeunt atque ubi necessitas ingruit, sanguinis jacturam reficiunt. P. 410.

(C) Hactenus quidem quatuor duntaxat va-
 forum communium genera innotuerunt, arteriæ
 scil. venæ, nervi, et lymphæ-ductus, P. 403. Cum
 primum vasa hæc conspiciatus essem, subiit animum
 Afellii assertio, quâ ait, exploratum sibi esse venas
 lacteas in hepar distribui. P. 268.

(H) Probabile est, tunc temporis chylum in
 venas istas assumi, quando pars aliqua intestina a
 motu et corrugatione conquiescit, et proinde ori-
 ficia lactearum laxiora et patentiora fiunt, P. 150.
 Et quandoquidem chylus per vasa thoracica, præ-
 fertim in erecto corporis situ, ut in homine, diffi-
 cilius ascendit, et proinde ob motus tarditatem ad
 coagulandum proclivior est; ideo inter tendines
 diaphragmatis, ubi spinæ alligantur, magnum hoc
 receptaculum constituitur; quo fit ut quoties dia-
 phragma in omni inspiratione contrahitur, tendines
 isti valde attracti, sacculum hunc lacteum modo
 chylo turgidus fuerit, plurimum comprimant et
 exagitent; adeoque chylum in illo contentum,
 per ductus chyliferos, in venam subclaviam pro-
 pellant, et continuo vectigali massam sanguinis con-
 tinuo pereuntem instaurent. P. 152-3.

(I) Causa quod chylus lactea vasa ingreditur,
 per eaque moveatur, duplex est; una debilior, scili-

cet undosa contractio quæ a fibris ipsorum intestinorum peragitur, quam valde conspicuum exhibent cuniculi et feles vivi secti. Altera fortior musculorum abdominis una cum respiratione sursum deorsumque motorum impulsio. P. 69.

(K) Causa enim impellens eadem est, scilicet, motus et pressio. Quæ ex artibus progreditur, per motum musculorum istarum partium promovetur, eodem modo sicut videmus per motum maxillæ etiam salivalem liquorem copiosum in os effluere, per quietem vero et in somno, paucum vel nullum. Hac enim partium pressione, simul etiam in iis latentibus glandulæ, ut et vasa lymphatica, cum a musculis, tum a depresso incumbens visceribus premuntur, ex iisque contentus liquor exprimitur et propellitur. Ego existimo lympham modo citius, modo tardius moveri, pro majore minoreve motu ac pressione illarum partium, in quibus subsistunt glandulæ conglobatæ et vasa lymphatica, sicut illud ipsum contingit in vasis salivalibus sublingualibus, quæ ex glandulis conglomeratis procedunt. P. 94-5.

(L) Gliffonius e nervis, Bartholinus ex arteriis, eam (lympham) prodire existimat. Prius absurdum est. Posterius, propter lymphæ copiam (quæ

a nullis vasis copiosior fecerni potest, quam ex arteriis) maxime verosimile videtur. P. 94.

(M) Quod motum lymphæ accelerare posse suspicor, non secus ac sanguinem in vena per arteriæ illi junctæ pulsus propelli credidi. Diaphragm. Struct. P. 101.

(N) Transitus lymphæ non, uti sanguinis, cum vita cessat; sed etiam notabili post mortem tempore perseverat, quod probatur, per ligaturum vasis lymphaticis injectam. Rationem puto, tum quod lymphæ tenuis fit et multum fluida, adeoque ad motum valde apta; tum quod ipsa vasa consistunt tunica admodum tenui, quæ proinde cessante post mortem calore naturali, a partibus collapsis facile comprimitur, et quidem magis in partibus, quæ posita ligatura exteriora respiciunt; sic ut lymphæ alioquin in viis hæsuræ, promoveatur continuo versus interiora, conformiter ad propulsionem naturalem. P. 197-8.

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APPENDIX

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CORRESPONDENCE

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AUTHOR

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IN THE WORK

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APPENDIX

CONTAINING A

CORRESPONDENCE

WITH THE

AUTHOR,

RELATIVE TO

SEVERAL SUBJECTS

IN THE WORK.

APPENDIX

CORRESPONDENCE

AUTHOR

SEVERAL

IN THE WORK

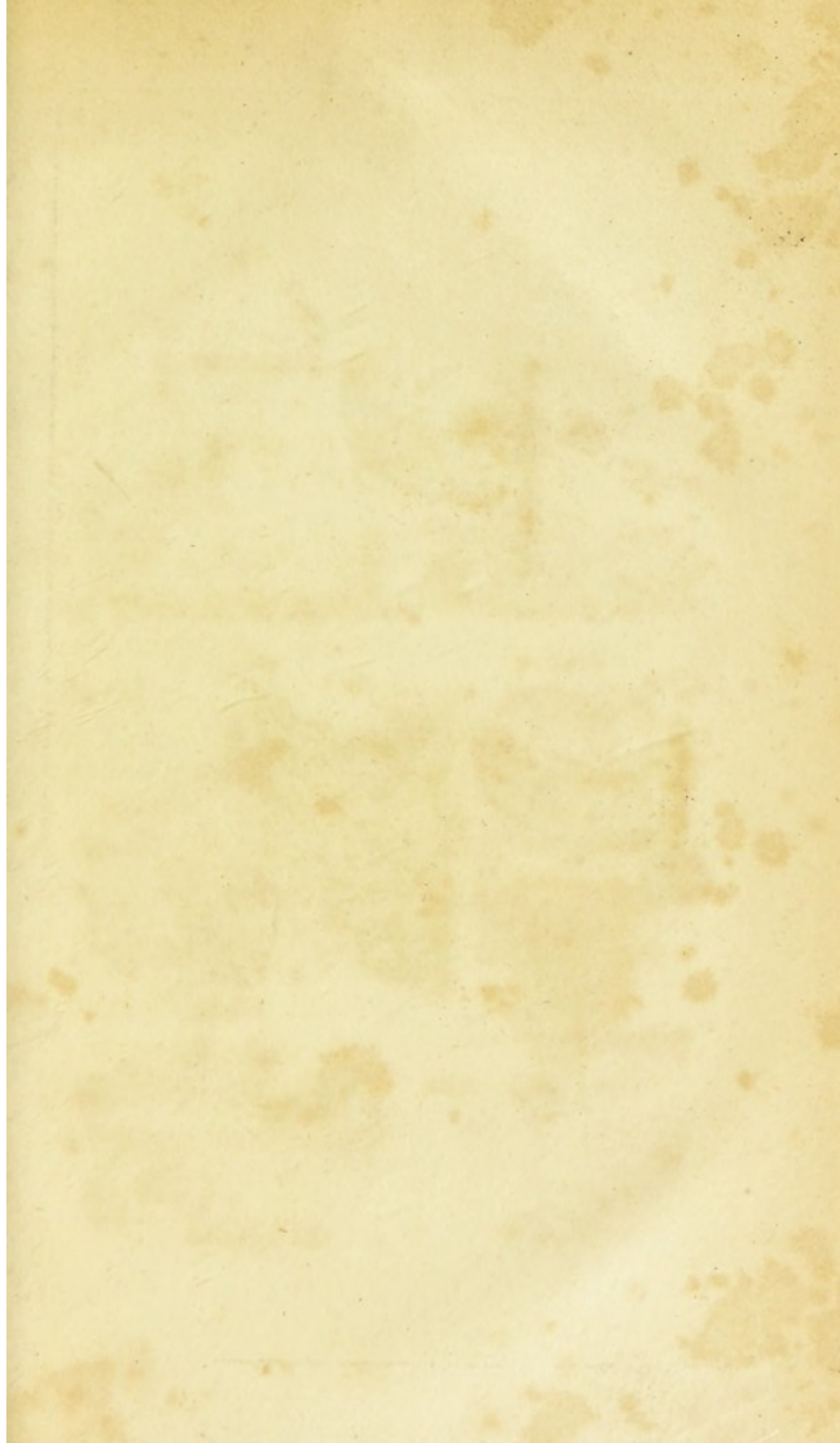




Fig. 1.

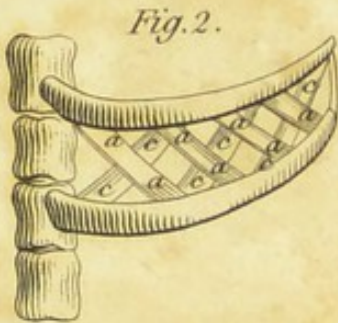


Fig. 2.

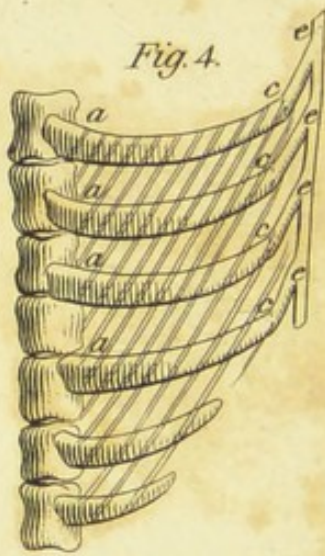
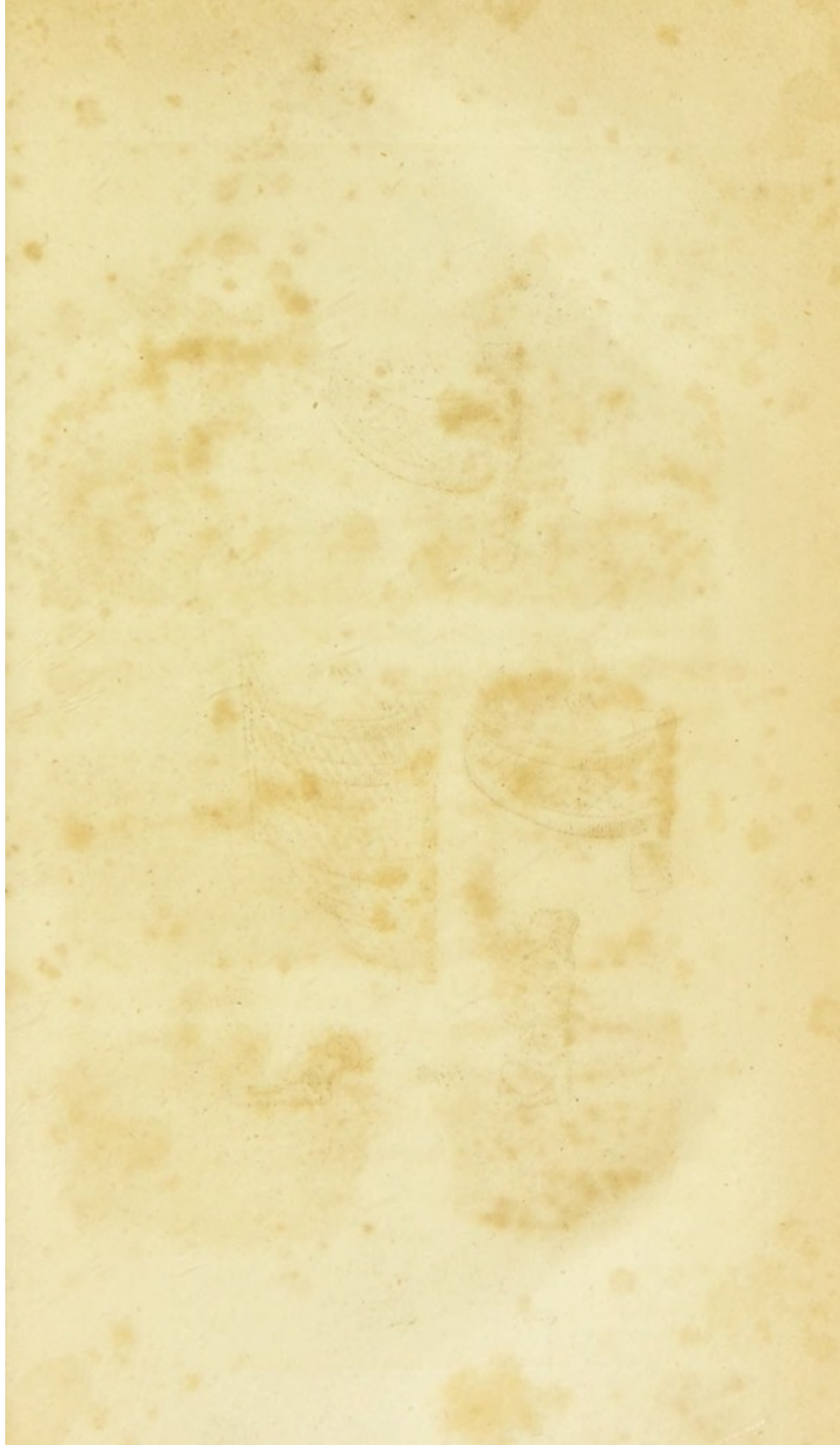


Fig. 4.

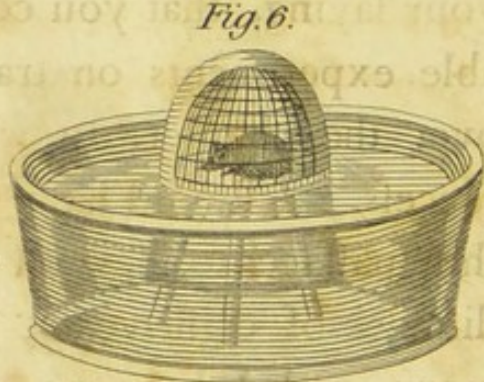
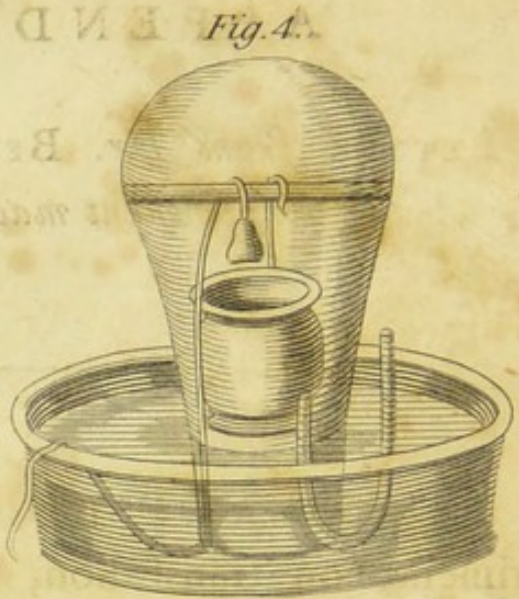


Fig. 3.





APPENDIX



APPENDIX, No. I.

LETTER *from* Dr. BEDDOES, *concerning an*
Experiment made by MAYOW.

In Sect. VI. P. 100, is related a curious experiment, on transfusion, mentioned by Mayow. Having read the works of this author, without detecting the experiment, and having afterwards seen it quoted by Dr. Beddoes, we wrote to him on the subject, and the following is the answer we received.

Dear Sir,

Clifton, Dec. 5, 1797.

I am much obliged, by your polite letter. I was, at the same time, a good deal alarmed at your saying, that you could not find the remarkable experiments on transfusion. I have looked over the chapter, to which I refer, but without success. I should have felt sure that I had shewn the passage to several individuals; but at the distance of eight years, I will not trust my memory; and I have no means of ascertaining the truth.

truth. If I have any papers, by help of which I could clear up the mistake, they are not now at my disposal, having been packed up, when I quitted Oxford, and left at one hundred miles distance from Clifton.

I have been long sensible, that my abstract of Mayow was drawn up with more ardour than judgment. I should have referred, for example, to his tracts, page by page. But I had no conception, that I could attribute to him an experiment, which he never made, and one so remarkable in its plan and result. Perhaps your researches may enable you to explain the mystery. If there be not in Mayow any passage, which I could have mistranslated, have you met with no author, whom I might have had upon the table, and in the moment of distraction, have quoted in his stead? Have you Dr. Schereris' Analysis? It is in German; I know not the title, but it is, I dare say, very accurate. I should be glad, if I did commit so enormous a blunder, to give you and the Public all the satisfaction in my power, by accounting for it; but, at present, I am utterly unable. If you choose to insert the whole, or any part of the above in your publication, it is much at your service. Should any thing more satisfactory occur, I will trouble you with a few lines. I am glad you have succeeded with the
fossil

fossil alkali, in irritation of the bladder:* it has pretty faithfully served me in such cases.

I am,

Dear Sir,

Your's, &c.

To Dr. Yeats,
Bedford.

THOMAS BEDDOES.

* This was a case of very long standing, and had resisted every remedy which had been used. So great was the pain, &c. that it was imagined a stone was present, and the dreadful operation of lithotomy was thought of. When I first saw her, I said it was nothing more than a disease of the mucous membrane of the bladder, constituting the dysuria mucosa of Cullen, and the catarrhus vesicæ of Lieutaud. Hoffman relates a similar case (Consultationes Med. Vol. II. p. 560) which he calls rarus vesicæ affectus. The soda pills gave complete relief. I attended the case with my ingenious friends, Messrs. Chapman, Surgeons, Amptill. It is but justice to observe, that these gentlemen are ever conspicuous, for an assiduous attention to their patients; and I have frequently derived considerable pleasure from their acute observations.

APPENDIX, No. II.

LETTER *from the* AUTHOR *to* Dr. BEDDOES.Dear Sir, Bedford, Dec. 11, 1797.

Your very polite letter of the 5th, I have had the pleasure to receive. I have not been able to detect, in Mayow, the experiment on transfusion you mention; and I am at a loss to know, in what author you found it. The passage I allude to, is mentioned by you (in a note) in your Observations on Calculus, Sea Scurvy, &c. p. 104, and it is also quoted from you, by Dr. Thornton, in Med. Extracts, Vol. I. p. 126. I find one passage in Mayow, respecting transfusion; but it is of another kind; it is as follows: 'Enimvero si opii dissolutio, aut aqua frigida, per venam jugularem injiciantur, cordis motus statim crebrior erit, uti *sæpe* expertus sum.' P. 303. The edition I have, is the collection of his tracts, published by himself at Oxford, 1674. If he was anxious enough to perform *repeated* experiments of this kind, it seems very probable, that his indefatigable zeal would have prompted him to transfuse blood,

from

from one animal into another; particularly as Lower had just discovered the method, and which was much noised abroad: and indeed in the year 1666, two years before Mayow gave to the world any of his works, the experiments of Lower, on transfusion, were published in the *Phil. Trans.* (de Corde, P. 129.) So remarkable and curious a discovery, we should imagine, would have arrested the attention of Mayow; and if he does not mention it, it must appear rather extraordinary, particularly as it seems so much connected with his subject. I cannot find, in any author that I have consulted, an observation, like the one in the quotation alluded to. I therefore distrust my own accuracy, and the passage may still be in Mayow, although it has hitherto escaped my examination. I have read, with some attention, almost the whole of Mayow's tracts, except the last, *de Rachitide*: it is not likely that the passage should be there.

Dr. Scherer's *Analysis* is in my possession; it is a M. S. translation from the German original, which I was favored with by Dr. Thornton. It is accurate; but does not give a sufficiently full account of the beautiful system published by Mayow. In the work of mine, about to make its appearance, I trace the history of air, as far back as the time of Hippocrates; and I remark a curious coincidence, between some of the doctrines of the Py-

thagorean School (respecting air and water) and the modern discoveries on that subject. It is but justice, however, to observe, that my attention was directed to this circumstance, by a letter which I received from Dr. Gregory, of Edinburgh.* Mayow I make my resting place; and examine the progress of opinion, from his time to the present. The opinions of this great man, certainly, met with no encouragement in his own life time; for I do not find his name mentioned, by any one author, till after his death, when his doctrine became the prevailing fashion of the times; and although greatly misunderstood by many, spread rapidly on the Continent, as I can prove, from a work which has come into my hands, (Schelhamerus de Nitro, and also from Morhof). The adoption of Mayow's theory of respiration, by the great Baglivi at Rome, contributed much to extend his reputation in Italy.

You, Sir, permit me to say it, are the man who first held up the works of Mayow to the philosophic world. To you is science indebted, for rescuing from oblivion, the beautiful experiments of a great genius, who certainly shines, with all the splendor of a modern discoverer; and if the name of Mayow is mentioned, with respect, in literary circles, it is Dr. Beddoes who has restored

* Vide Introduction to Part First.

flored him to distinction. You have promised to favor me with any thing that may occur, more satisfactory, on this subject, I shall thank you for the communication; and

I remain, &c.

To Dr. Beddoes, G. D. YEATS.
Clifton, near Bristol.

Having re-perused, with accuracy, Mayow's tracts, we discovered the passage, which had hitherto escaped examination; and which confirms the observations made in the above letter, *viz.* that it would have been a very extraordinary circumstance, if a fact, so curious, and so much connected with Mayow's ideas of respiration, had not attracted his attention. We immediately communicated our ideas to Dr. Beddoes, from whom we received the following answer.

APPENDIX, No. III.

LETTER *from* Dr. BEDDOES *to the* AUTHOR.

Dear Sir,

Clifton, March 13, 1798.

I cannot but be very thankful for your obliging letters, and rejoice, that your diligence has discovered the missing passage in Mayow. At the same time, with the best will possible, I cannot return your politeness in kind; for I have sent my copy of Mayow to a person of more leisure, to hunt for the account of the phænomenon in question; and, therefore, cannot have the satisfaction of referring as you direct.

What you say about the air in ovo, excites my curiosity; but if I had Mayow, I could not have time to study him now; for besides professional occupations, I have embarrassed myself with a course of chemical lectures.

If you can do it, without disturbing the order of your matter, I wish you would introduce, from me, my own censure, on the manner in which I have abridged Mayow. It is too rhetorical a great deal; and besides giving this proof of bad taste, I have omitted constant reference to the pages of the
original,

original, which I hold to be requisite, in a work,
of which exactness is the principal merit.

I am,

Dear Sir,

With much regard, &c.

To Dr. Yeats,
Bedford.

THOMAS BEDDOES.

B b 4

APPENDIX, No. IV.

LETTER *from the* AUTHOR *to* Dr. INGEN-HOUSZ,
relative to some curious Observations of MAYOW,
mentioned in Sect. IX, Part First, of this Work.

Dear Sir, Bedford, Jan. 21, 1798.

When I had the pleasure of meeting you in London, I mentioned to you, that Mayow, of the last century, entertained an opinion, similar to your own, but which you first proved by experiment, *viz.* that the foil absorbs oxygen from the atmosphere. As I know you take delight in chemical investigations, as soon as I arrived here, I sat down to send you that passage from Mayow, which is very remarkable, for the express manner in which he asserts this curious fact. This ingenious author, when speaking on the necessity of a continual supply of fire-air to the respiration of animals, observes, ‘Adeo enim ad vitam quamcumque sal istoc aereum necessarium est, ut ne plantæ quidem in terrâ, ad quam aeri accessus præcluditur, vegetari possint, sin terra ista aeri exposita, sale hoc fecundante denuo imprægnetur, ea demum plantis alendis iterum idonea evadet.

Plane

Plane ut vel ipfæ plantæ aliqualem refpirationem aerifque hauriendi neceffitatem habere videantur.’

Does it not appear, from this paffage, that the idea, that fallow was neceffary for the abforption of oxygen, prefented itfelf to Mayow? He has feveral other paffages, to the fame purpofe. In my work, on the anticipation of modern difcoveries, I fhall take notice of this curious coincidence of thought, between you and Mayow. Do you not imagine, that oxygen, when abforbed by the foil, enters into various combinations, for the food of plants? I know you have afferted this in your valuable publications; but you feem to attribute the moft to carbonic acid.

You have mentioned fome curious facts, in your ingenious letter to Sir J. Sinclair, with refpect to the utility of alkaline falts in vegetation. Mayow has fome remarkable ideas upon this fubject. When you made the experiment with the acid, in Baron Dimfdale’s garden, do you imagine any other effect to be produced by them, befides difengaging carbonic acid, by their union with calcareous earth?

Will not the oxygen, abforbed in fuch large quantities by the foil, affift in forming thofe vaft refervoirs of water found in the bowels of the earth? Is it not partly intended for this purpofe? I think it probable,

I remain, &c.

To Dr. Ingen-Houfz,

G. D. YEATS.

APPENDIX, No. V.

ANSWER from Dr. INGEN-HOUSZ, containing an
Account of his Discovery of the Food of Plants.

Dear Sir, February 27, 1798.

I shewed your letter to Dr. G——, who was much pleased with the perusal of it. I think the passage of Mayow very striking, as are many others of that sagacious man. You know, that Dr. Priestley and Mr. Scheele were of opinion, that plants thrive better in putrid, than in common air; and that vital air was hurtful to them. I discovered this to be a great mistake; for I think I have proved, that the same air, which is salubrious to animals, is also salubrious to plants; and that plants will even live so much the longer in vital, than in common air, in proportion as the vital air is superior, in purity, to the common air; and I point out a plain reason, why a plant, shut up in the dark, with a given quantity of common air, cannot be kept alive, but for a very limited time, though the carbonic acid be daily washed from the air; but that the same plant, shut up in the dark, with

with an equal quantity of vital air, (the carbonic acid being washed off) may be kept alive, as long as there is enough of that air remaining, to cover the plant. The death of the plant, in the common, and in the vital air, is produced by a very different cause. I do not know, whether you have seen the French edition of my work on vegetables, in two volumes, (there are three volumes of the German edition) where I explain this by facts, which you will find accurate.

As Mayow has anticipated so many things, discovered one hundred years after him, you may possibly also find, in the works of this great genius, what I have imagined to be my original discovery, about light and darkness. If you should find that doctrine, I hope you will inform me of it, as I should rejoice to have been, by accident, lucky enough to coincide with the opinions of so great a man. I do not want to repeat, what I here mention, as you must know it, *viz.* that plants correct injured air, and improve good air, by the assistance of the day or sun's light. Dr. Priestley found, before me, that there was such a power in plants; but confessed he was ignorant of the condition, necessary to make plants perform such an office, as he and Mr. Scheele observed, that they very frequently injured air. Dr. Priestley, also discovered, that a slimy, filmy matter, spontaneously deposited from well-water, had a power of producing

producing pure air, in the sun only; and Mr. Berthollet proved, that pure air is produced from oxygenated marine acid, by the sun; which air was also found to be generated, by means of the sun's light, from nitrous acid, by Mr. Scheele. But neither of these philosophers have uttered a word, that these bodies were of a vegetable nature, or have drawn any conclusion from these remarkable facts; neither have they given it, as their opinion, that as these bodies give out vital air, by means of the sun's light, that the effect of plants, in mending the air, was owing to the same cause; and, indeed, no one, in his sound senses, can doubt, but that they would have mentioned it; if they had known, or even suspected it, before 1779, when I published my work on that subject.

The importance of the discovery, could scarce fail of exciting an envy, in a mind so laudably fond of philosophical merit, as that of Dr. Priestley, and induce him to employ all possible ingenuity, to make his readers believe, that he found out the mystery, by explaining the whole of it, without even mentioning my name. He was, however, not the only one, who laboured under the difficulty of finding out some turn of expression, to draw the discovery to their side. Private letters were quoted by some, private conversations by others, and many other far-searched arguments. But to their mortification, not one of my competitors has
I
ever

ever ventured to say, openly, that they have published before me, that plants have such power, by the assistance of the sun's light. But you are, perhaps, ignorant of what still puzzles some of my competitors, and puts them, even now, to a kind of torture; it is this, by finding, that a plant shut up with air had ameliorated it, it was impossible to conclude, from such a fact alone, that it was the sun's light, and not vegetation, as such which had produced the effect, before examining another portion of the same air, after it had been exposed to the influence of a similar plant, in a shaded or dark place. Now the same test, by which it was discovered, that air exposed to the sun, became better, must have also pointed out, that the air, placed in the dark, was injured; and it was by this double examination I discovered both equally wonderful phenomena.

There is, indeed, more singularity in the effect of plants on air, in the dark, than in its effect on air in the day-light, as no one ever doubted, but that vegetation improves the wholesomeness of countries. What other reason could be given, for the total silence of Dr. Priestley, on the effect of plants on air in the dark, but the unavowed aversion of quoting any such examination made after my publication, as neither he, nor any one else, had even so much as suspected, that such a wonderful power existed in plants. Mr. Senebier, and several

veral others, after having disputed with me the fact (though it required but a few hours to verify it) during more than twelve years, and even declaring the doctrine to be a calumny against nature, have since publicly declared, that some inadvertency had made them fall into an error, and that they acknowledge Dr. Ingen-Houfz's discovery to be founded in the laws of nature. Dr. Priestley is the only one, who suppresses the whole nocturnal influence, by a profound, and as some think, an affected silence. The reason of this silence is obvious enough. I remember a learned professor coming from Geneva (where Mr. Senebier had persuaded him, that the doctrine of the nocturnal influence of plants on air was totally erroneous) addressed me in the following words, though, as you will easily believe, accompanied with a sneer. 'If the nocturnal influence of plants on air can be demonstrated as true, it would be one of the most wonderful discoveries ever made; a discovery disclosing a phænomenon produced since the creation, by one half of the organised world, and which was not so much as suspected by any mortal before you; it would make an epoch in natural philosophy. But, my dear friend, continued he, I am sorry to tell you, that you must not flatter yourself with such an honour, for you will soon see, in Mr. Senebier's book (then in the press) how much you are mistaken.'

taken.' As I am now in the country, without my books, I cannot point out to you, the places where I speak of the air, as the nourishment of plants. My opinion has always been, and is still, that air, absorbed by plants, as well as water, salts, &c. undergo various chemical operations, and are variously modified, in their organs, as food is modified in the organs of animals. I repeat this doctrine, in my pamphlet on the food of plants, and the renovation of soils. Plants imbibe, by their leaves, atmospheric air, with all its ingredients; and this air is totally renewed, in less than half an hour, day and night. But I think, that the roots and the flowers imbibe a great deal of it, after it is changed into carbonic acid. I adduce facts to prove it; and as flowers prepare, incessantly, carbonic acid, to rear up the new offspring, I argue from it, that the principal part of the nourishment of plants, is air. I have thrown some more light on this my opinion, in a letter quoted in the pamphlet on the food of plants, addressed to Sir John Sinclair, President of the Board of Agriculture;* but which makes no part of the pamphlet. There was, also, a further article on alkaline salts, as manure, in that letter, as also in a former. These letters occasioned a correspondence

* Lord Somerville is, we believe, now President.

respondence between Sir John Sinclair and myself, who, through zeal for his society, engaged me to put in writing, some further reflections on agriculture, which might occur to my mind, if they were but mere hints.

It would be too tedious, for you to read all my conceptions on the effect of acids, and other manures. My mind is sometimes full of them; but I neglect to put these fugitive thoughts to writing, as not worth attention. You seem to think, by one of your questions, that, according to my opinion, nothing is to be expected further from acids, thrown upon the soil, but the production of carbonic acid, as you may, perhaps, consider the union of the acid with the calcareous earth, as a permanent body; but this may be an erroneous opinion, as gyps exposed to the chaotic mass of vegetable soil and air, is easily decomposed, and assists the putrid fermentation, necessary for promoting vegetation. I cannot answer your queries about oxygen, conceived by you as productive of vast quantities of water, as I never considered the question. I think your experiment with the frog, very deserving notice:* I hope you will continue these useful pursuits. You will

* A frog was made paralytic with mercury, in which the animal electricity did not produce its usual effects.

will excuse me, in engaging so much of your time, in consideration of my great esteem for you; with which I profess to be,

Your's,

To Dr. Yeats,
Bedford.

J. INGEN-HOUSZ.

Cc

APPENDIX, No. VI.

LETTER from Dr. SHERER relative to MAYOW.

Sir, London, March 2, 1798.

Your kind and instructive letter, puts me under very great obligations, and much as I wished to accept your liberal offer, I am sorry to say, my time is too short, to allow me the satisfaction of your personal acquaintance, and must, therefore, content myself, with having obtained it by correspondence only. From all that I can collect, I conclude you to be a sincere friend to chemistry; and this circumstance alone, will probably be sufficient to cement, when I am at a greater distance, your valuable acquaintance. I have dedicated all my life to chemistry, and my enthusiasm for it always increases, when I have the opportunity of forming acquaintances, such as yours; and hope, we shall have, in future, means to communicate each others opinions upon chemical subjects; it being one of my first desires, to continue my connections, by correspondence with men of every country, where chemistry finds its admirers. I expect your publication, with the greatest anxiety. *Mayow has not yet met the attention he merits.*

*merits. Weigel, Mertsger, and Haller, have but very imperfectly made use of his writings.** The passage of his, concerning transfusion, I really do not recollect.† I flatter myself, your publication of Mayow will be complete. I shall not think of publishing my own, till I have read and studied yours. In respect to Munday you are very right, and I was tempted by my namesake to expect more from him.‡ My present departure for Paris, this day, occasions so much confusion in my mind, that I beg you to excuse this unsatisfactory letter. With the utmost regard, I have the honour to add, the assurance of the sincerity with which

I am, &c. &c.

D. ALEXANDER NICOLAUS SCHERER.

*To Dr. Yeats,
Bedford.*

* The reader will see, by consulting Mr. Cavallo's Treatise on Air, p. 508, that he also had a very imperfect idea of Mayow's discoveries.

† The passage concerning which the author wrote to Dr. Beddoes.

‡ Vide Introduction to Part First.

FINIS.

DIRECTIONS to the BINDER.

THE HEAD of MAYOW to face the Title.

The other PLATES to be inserted immediately
before the APPENDIX.

CORRECTIONS.

P. 10, l. 10, for as, read so.—P. 12, l. 12, for form, read prove.—P. 14, l. 11, for liberty, read levity.—P. 29, l. 2, for attaching, read attacking.—P. 29, l. 12, for putrefaction, read putrefactive.—P. 47, l. 1, for become, read becomes.—P. 58, l. 11, for generally, read generally.—P. 61, l. 13, between string and to, insert tied.—P. 81, l. 14, for hypothifis, read hypotheses.—P. 87, l. 21, for effusion, read affusion.—P. 89, note †, for digestion, read indigestion.—P. 90, l. 11, for ultimately, read intimately.—P. 91, l. 6, for fluid, read florid.—P. 93, l. 18, after allows, expunge the comma.—P. 93, l. 22, for in, read to.—P. 98, l. 3, expunge a.—P. 97, note *, after P. add 113.—P. 114, l. 7, for had, read has.—P. 117, l. 8, for event, read want.—P. 117, l. 16, for mutual, read maternal.—P. 119, l. 11, for air, read blood.—P. 122, l. 12, for is, read are.—P. 157, l. 18, for varies, read raises.—P. 159, l. 15, after shut, add up.—P. 168, l. 3, for nerves, read animal spirits.—P. 215, in the note, for of, read and.—P. 225, in the note, for tinged, read turgid.—P. 227, l. 2, for the, read that.—P. 241, l. 19, for rest, read zest.—P. 244, l. 21, before the, add was.—P. 258, l. 3, before account, add an.—P. 282, l. 22, for or, read and.—P. 321, in the note, for Waller read Haller.—P. 325, l. 15, for shews, read shew.—P. 322, l. 7, for braided, read beaded.—P. 355, l. 7, for flowing, read glowing.—P. 359, l. 16, for to, read of.—P. 361, l. 17, before of, add is.—P. 384, l. 18, for Schereris, read Scherer's.

