

**Rural chemistry: an elementary introduction to the study of the science in its relation to agriculture / By Edward Solly.**

**Contributors**

Solly, Edward, 1819-1886.

**Publication/Creation**

London : Published at the office of "The gardeners' chronicle," , 1843.

**Persistent URL**

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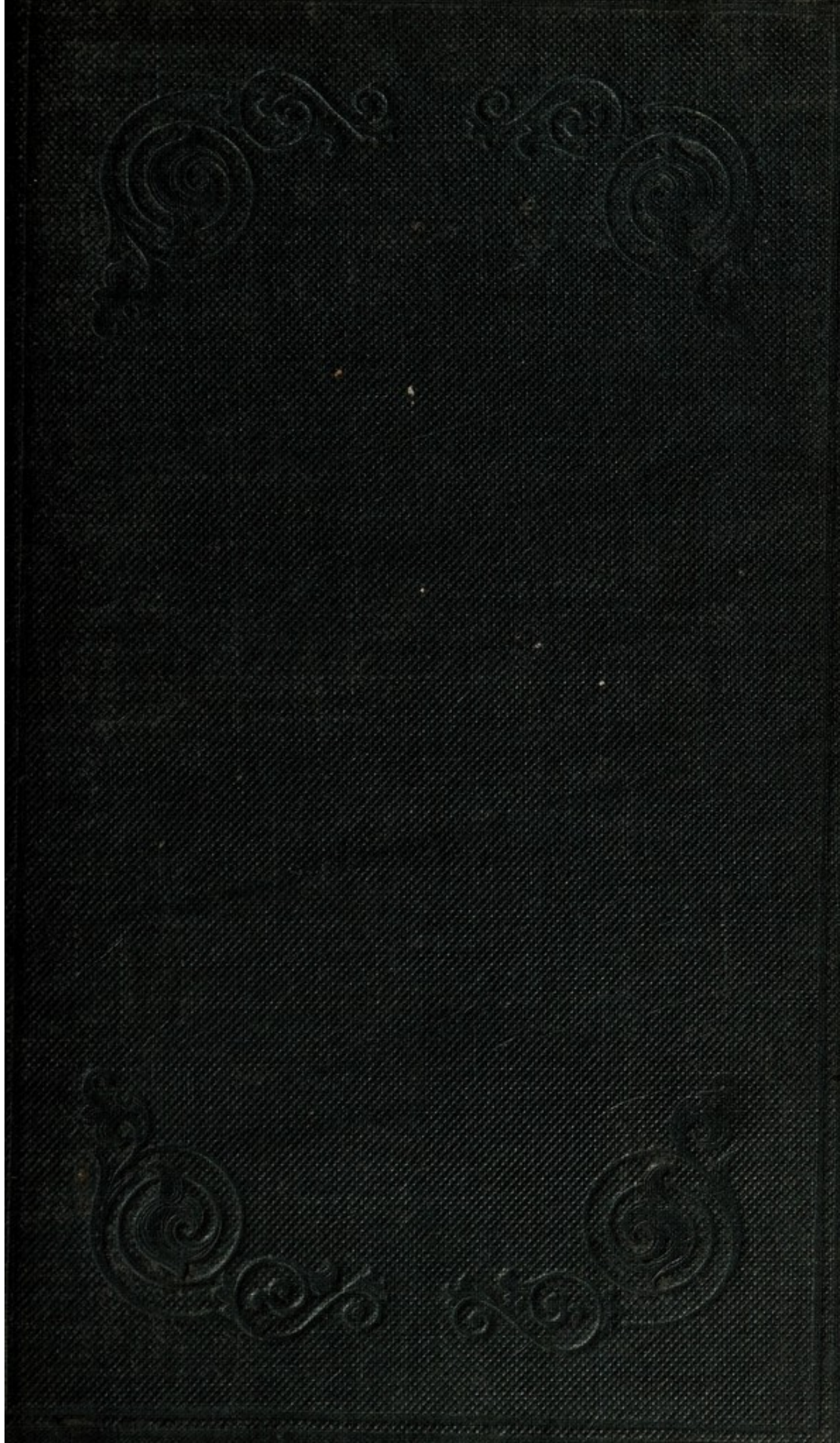
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# RURAL CHEMISTRY :

AN

## Elementary Introduction

TO

THE STUDY OF THE SCIENCE

IN ITS RELATION TO AGRICULTURE.

BY

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LONDON :

PUBLISHED AT THE

OFFICE OF "THE GARDENERS' CHRONICLE,"

3, CHARLES STREET, COVENT GARDEN.

MDCCCXLIII.



For Prospectus of "THE GARDENERS' CHRONICLE,"  
see last page.



## PREFACE.

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THE following pages formed the substance of a short series of articles on Chemistry, which originally appeared in the columns of the *Gardeners' Chronicle*. The interest which they excited in the readers of that journal has led to their republication in a separate and more complete form. It would have been easy to have greatly increased the size of the book, and indeed it was frequently very difficult to select from the mass of information which exists, those facts which appeared most worthy of notice. The original object of the author was to give such an elementary sketch of the science, as should enable those ignorant of the subject, more readily to comprehend



the works of the various authors, who have written on Agricultural Chemistry. As a general rule, care has been taken, as much as possible, merely to give well established facts, or, when doubtful theories are mentioned, to state distinctly that they are more or less problematical.

## CONTENTS.

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION . . . . .	vii

### CHAPTER I.

Objects of Chemistry—Affinity—Nature of combination, and decomposition—The Elements—Air, its properties and composition—Oxygen and nitrogen—Combustion, results of combustion—Carbonic-acid-gas—Water, ice, and steam—latent heat—composition of water—Hydrogen . . . . .	1
---	---

### CHAPTER II.

Carbon, its different forms—Cohesion—Combustion and decay—Carbonic-acid-gas, produced by respiration, combustion, fermentation, &c.—Nature of acids—Carburetted hydrogen or fire-damp—Compounds all definite in composition—Carbonic oxide—Nitrogen, combined with hydrogen forms ammonia—Nature and properties of ammonia, nitrogen, and oxygen—Nitric acid—Sulphur, sulphurous acid, sulphuric acid, sulphuretted hydrogen—Chlorine, muriatic acid—Phosphorus, phosphoric acid . . . . .	19
--	----

### CHAPTER III.

Bases—Potash, its properties—Carbonate and nitrate of potash, Gunpowder—Soda, common salt, sulphate, carbonate and nitrate of Soda—Ammonia, its carbonate, sulphate, and muriate—Lime, its nature and compounds, carbonate, sulphate, and phosphate of lime—Magnesia, its carbonate, sulphate, muriate, and phosphate—Alumina, its properties—Alum—Silica or silicic acid—Silicates of potash and soda—Glass—Silicates in the soil, in plants—The metals, their oxides—Iron, its oxides, and sulphuret—Sulphate of iron or green vitriol—Manganese—Metallic salts . . . . .	43
---	----



CHAPTER IV.	PAGE
Organic matter—Vegetable substances—Lignin, or woody fibre— Starch, varieties of starch—Gum, soluble, and insoluble— Sugar, Cane sugar and Grape sugar—Gluten and albumen— nature, properties, and composition of these substances— Vegetable acids, Oils, Resins, Gum-resins, and colouring mat- ters—Chemical Changes—Fermentation—Inorganic consti- tuents of plants, ashes of plants—Animal substances—Albumen, Fibrin, Blood, and Muscle—Gelatin—Fat—Bones, teeth, horn, &c.—Composition of Animal substances—Food of animals . . .	75

#### CHAPTER V.

The food of plants—Substances derived from the air—Sources of oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, and carbon—Substances derived from the soil—Sources of earthy substances—Composition of soils, their formation—Decomposition of silicates—Mechanical structure of soils—The saline constituents of soils—Organic matters in soils, humus, humic acid, their use in soils—Ger- mination—Moisture, air and warmth—Influence of light— Office of the leaves—Roots—Formation of organic matter— Flowers, fruit, seeds—Organic, and organised matter—Vitality of embryo—Nature of seeds—Earthy substances in plants —Effects of climate—Action of plants on the air . . .	93
--	----

#### CHAPTER VI.

Deterioration of soils, its cause—Modes of maintaining the fer- tility of the soil—Theory of Fallowing—Rotation of crops— Subsoil Ploughing—Draining—Manure—Organic manure— Animal manure, contains nitrogen—Results of putrefaction— Sulphuretted hydrogen—Loss of manure—Liquid manure— Animal excrements, guano—Modes of fixing ammonia, by acids, by gypsum, &c.—Strong manures—Bones—Vegetable manures —Wood ashes—Green manures—Inorganic manures—Lime, chalk, marl, shell sand—Gypsum—Phosphate of lime—Ashes —Burnt clay—Soot—Gas-liquor—Potash—Alkaline nitrates —Salt . . . . .	121
---	-----

#### APPENDIX.

Composition of substances—Chemical equivalents, or proportions —Tables of equivalents of simple and compound substances— Composition of the principal varieties of organic matter—Tables of the inorganic constituents of plants—Composition of soils— Salts in sea-water—Composition of Guano and Urine . . . . .	149
--	-----



## INTRODUCTION.

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No branch of knowledge has made more rapid progress during the last hundred years than chemistry. From being merely a confused collection of marvellous facts and incomprehensible phenomena, it has become a definite and methodical science : no longer mysterious and full of uncertainty, but based on clear and simple laws, the knowledge of which at once gives us the key to a great number of natural changes and phenomena, which without it would be quite unintelligible.

Chemistry is intimately connected with all other sciences, for it embraces the study of the various forms and conditions of matter, their nature, properties, and the changes which, either from natural or artificial causes, they undergo. The study of chemistry is of the greatest importance in relation to the arts of life, which all depend, more or less, on chemical principles. Hence, a knowledge of this science enables us more



readily to understand the processes of the manufacturer, points out the best and most economical mode of effecting his objects, and teaches how that, which was before useless and of no value, may be converted into sources of wealth and happiness.

It is needless to point out examples of the influence which the progress of chemistry has had on our manufactures, for every one of them owes, more or less directly, its present improved condition to the labours of the chemist. Such being the case, it becomes interesting to inquire, what has chemistry done for agriculture, the most important, because the most necessary, and most extensively practised, of all the arts? It is remarkable that agriculture should have received infinitely less assistance from the labours of chemists, than any other art; but this ceases to be surprising when we consider how little attention was paid by the ancient chemists to that subject.—The chemistry of the earthy and metallic substances presented to them easier and more attractive objects of inquiry; they were led away by the visionary hope of discovering a mode of making gold, and they consequently neglected everything in order to try all sorts of experiments in the vain idea of converting lead, iron, &c., or the base metals as they called them, into gold. Hence it is not to be wondered at, that the



chemistry of the metals was studied and investigated, long before the nature and properties of vegetable and animal substances were examined. The labours of the alchemists brought to light many valuable discoveries respecting the uses, nature, and properties of earthy and metallic substances; but it was only in the last century, when the constitution of the air, and other gaseous bodies was discovered, that anything approaching to correct ideas respecting the nature of animal and vegetable substances, was entertained.

The important discoveries of Dr. Priestley led the way to a complete revolution in the science, and may almost be said to have laid the foundation of agricultural chemistry. It is true that before his time there had been many careful and accurate observers, and multitudes of laborious and valuable experiments had been made on plants, by such men as Van Helmont—Evelyn—Boyle—Hales, and others; but before the time of Priestley, and his contemporaries, Ingenhousz and Bonnet, little progress had been made in studying the chemical changes on which the growth of plants depends. We are indebted to Hales for much curious information respecting the rise and motion of the sap in plants, the perspiration, or evaporation, which is constantly going on to a greater or less extent, from the surface of the leaves; and the



effects of various substances on plants; his chemical speculations, however, are for the most part of little value, though he was often apparently on the point of making important discoveries. The discovery of carbonic-acid-gas or fixed air, by Dr. Black, and the beautiful experiments of Priestley, opened a new field of inquiry and research; he observed that plants possessed the property of purifying the air, in fact that they were able to decompose the carbonic-acid-gas which it always contains in small quantity; appropriating the carbon, and restoring back to the atmosphere the oxygen, or vital air, so necessary to the processes of respiration and combustion. The knowledge of this great fact, necessarily led to many minor discoveries respecting the growth of plants, and the sources of their food. After this period, Organic Chemistry began to attract a large share of the attention of chemists, the composition of vegetable substances was carefully investigated, new modes of analysis were discovered, and an immense mass of curious and useful facts was collected. A great number of chemists occupied themselves with researches in Vegetable Chemistry, but for the most part they were employed in examining the innumerable substances which plants produce; whilst the great questions as to the food of plants, their growth, and nourishment, were



left very nearly in the same state which the experiments of Priestley and Ingenhousz had brought them to.

At the end of the last century, and in the commencement of the present, Organic Chemistry made rapid advances ; the labours of Humboldt, Berzelius, Saussure, Sennebier, Einhof, and Davy, contributed to throw light on many parts of the subject ; whilst the investigations of Gay-Lussac, Hatchett, Lampadius, Lavoisier, Marcet, Prout, Thomson, Vauquelin, Thénard, and others in all parts of Europe, led to a more complete and accurate knowledge of the nature, composition, and properties of organic matter.

The first chemist who wrote on agriculture was, I believe, J. G. Wallerius, who, in 1754, published a book on the Cause of Fertility. He was succeeded by several other authors, amongst whom ought to be mentioned Gyllenborg, Einhof, and Dundonald ; but the speculations of these authors (though ingenious), were for the most part crude and incomplete. At the commencement of the present century, when Organic Chemistry was rapidly advancing, Berzelius and Davy endeavoured to apply the conclusions to be derived from chemical experiments, to agriculture. If the deductions which they made were not always correct, and if the plans which they proposed did not always produce the effects which



they anticipated, it must be remembered that they were amongst the first to take the subject up, and that though they did so under far more favourable circumstances than their predecessors did, yet that even then the science of organic chemistry was in many respects very imperfect and incomplete.

During the last forty years, many important additions have been made to this department of Chemistry; improved and more accurate modes of chemical investigation have enabled more exact analyses to be made of the different varieties of organic matter; the composition of those substances which constitute the bodies of animals and plants, has been accurately and carefully ascertained. At the same time, many valuable observations have been made respecting the functions of plants, the conditions requisite to germination, the formation of flowers and seed, the chemical changes attendant on the ripening of fruit, the office performed by roots and leaves, and a variety of other important subjects of inquiry. The names of Liebig, Schübler, and Sprengel, in Germany; Braconnot, Boussingault, Chevreul, Colin, Chaptal, Dumas, Edwards, and Payen, in France; and of Daubeny, Johnson, Pepys, Turner, and Christison, in our own country, deserve especial mention.

Intimately connected with the progress of Vegetable



Chemistry, is the study of Vegetable Physiology ; a knowledge of the one is essential to a perfect comprehension of the other, for it is impossible well to understand the chemical changes going on in the organs of plants, if we are wholly ignorant of the forms and structure of their organs ; and, on the other hand, the most complete knowledge of the anatomy of vegetables, could never lead any one to sound and correct conclusions respecting the nutrition of plants. It is rather to be regretted that both Chemists and Physiologists have appeared to avoid availing themselves of the advantages which both might have derived by studying the results which the others had obtained ; it is only by comparing together the observations of both that correct conclusions can be formed. The observations made by the older physiologists, like those of their chemical contemporaries, were mostly imperfect, and the deductions they formed were, in consequence, very frequently erroneous ; the modes of examination, and the instruments which they employed, were far less perfect than those which have been used in more recent times. Nevertheless, the observations recorded by Grew, Malpighi, and Duhamel, are of considerable value ; they may be said indeed to have laid the foundation of Vegetable Physiology. As the study of Botany itself advanced, greater care was be-



stowed in examining the structure and anatomy of plants, and from the labours of many zealous and careful observers, there has resulted a tolerably complete system of Vegetable Physiology. In recent years, Decandolle, Brongniart, Decaisne, Dutrochet, and Mirbel, in France; Link, Mohl, Meyen, and Schleiden, in Germany; Amici in Italy; and Brown, Griffiths, Henslow, Knight, and Lindley, in England, have, besides many others, made valuable additions to Vegetable Physiology. The relations of plants to climate, and the influence of heat, light, and moisture, have also been studied; especially by Daniell and Royle in our own country.

Amongst the names of those who have contributed to the science of Agricultural Chemistry, that of Liebig stands pre-eminent. The thanks of all are due to him, both for the valuable and laborious experiments he has performed, and likewise for the exertions which he has made to remove the many doubts and uncertainties that surrounded the very elements of the subject. But little had been done since the days of Priestley and Ingenhousz to prove how plants obtained their food, what were the sources whence they derived the elements of organic matter, and the nature of the office performed by manures. Chemists, and likewise physiologists, had formed many ingenious speculations, but they



had not employed the only real mode of getting at the truth, namely, well selected and carefully performed experiments. Liebig, in his "Organic Chemistry applied to Agriculture and Physiology," has strongly drawn attention to these important questions; he has exposed the fallacy of many of the theories which had been formed to explain them, and has established on good evidence the simple chemical rules which regulate the growth of plants.

Although the experiments of Priestley and Ingenhousz had shown that plants possess the power of decomposing Carbonic Acid, and although they had advanced numerous arguments to prove that plants derive the carbon which they contain from the decomposition of that gas; yet this doctrine, although admitted by many physiologists, was by no means universally believed by chemists. Few experiments, indeed, were made to shew that this explanation was improbable; but it was conceived that plants must derive their carbon from the soil, and many theories were formed to explain the mode in which they might be supposed to obtain it. These theories have been rigidly examined by Liebig, and the results of his investigation have shown, that the old views put forth by Priestley and Ingenhousz, were in truth correct.



It has long been known, that plants consist of Carbon, Oxygen, Hydrogen, and Nitrogen, and also that they invariably contain a small quantity of inorganic, or earthy and saline, matters. The presence of Nitrogen was formerly greatly overlooked, in analyses of vegetable substances; it is contained in less quantity than the other three elements of organic matter, and was very commonly regarded as being merely accidental, and not a necessary constituent of plants. Improved modes of analysis have established that it always exists in the same proportion, in certain constituents of plants; and as it appears that these substances are also those which form the most valuable part of food, it becomes a question of the first importance, whence do the plants derive their Nitrogen? They obtain it principally, if not wholly, from the air; they do not absorb it in the free and uncombined form, but they absorb it combined with Hydrogen, in the state of Ammonia. The importance of the earthy substances in plants was, likewise, greatly overlooked formerly. It has been proved, by repeated experiments, that these substances are of the greatest importance in the growth of plants, being quite essential to their development.

Although much has been done, and although chemists have laboured to remove the perplexities which encom-



passed the subject, there is still a very great deal which requires investigation ; many important points are as yet imperfectly, or even not at all, explained, and many questions must be satisfactorily settled before a complete system of Agricultural Chemistry can be established. Till these difficulties are removed, it is premature to expect that Chemistry can be of more than partial assistance to Agriculture, for whilst many of the fundamental laws of Agricultural Chemistry are still scarcely understood, all attempts to apply them to practice must be incomplete, and liable to error.

The composition of the principal varieties of organic matter is well known ; the substances which, by combining together, form the various constituents of plants, have been ascertained. The food of plants, the great sources whence they derive it, and the manner in which they absorb it, are known. The various changes which organic matter undergoes, the conversion of one substance into another, and the influence which these changes have on the growth of plants, is likewise easily understood ; nearly all the purely chemical operations which are concerned in their nutrition can be explained, by reference to simple chemical laws ; but there are many most important phenomena which are as yet wholly in the dark. Thus, for example, the manner in



which wood is formed, and, indeed, all those natural operations in which cellular or organised matter is generated under the influence of light and heat, are but very imperfectly explained. A knowledge of the chemical composition of soils, and the various substances employed as manures, enables us to comprehend the mode in which the latter act ; and a knowledge of the nature of those substances which plants require, points out the best and most economical methods of restoring to the soil, by manures, those substances which plants remove from it ; but our knowledge of this part of the subject is very far from being complete, for although it is certain that, in addition to the great elements of organic matter, which plants derive from both air and soil, they likewise absorb small quantities of inorganic or mineral substances from the soil exclusively, the office performed by the latter in the vegetable economy is not yet well understood. Many theories indeed have been formed respecting their use, but very little is positively known on the subject.

Although Agricultural Chemistry is in this imperfect state, and though much still remains to be done in that branch of science, yet it is so far advanced as to be able to render substantial assistance to the practical agriculturist. It can teach him the prin-



principles which govern the growth of plants, and, consequently, guide him in the application of artificial means to produce the most beneficial results. He must, however, not expect too much from the aid of Chemistry, nor give himself blindly up to speculations or theories. Whilst he gives due credit and belief to well authenticated facts, he must always receive theories with caution and doubt.

Perhaps the most important advantage which a practical man may at present derive from a knowledge of Agricultural Chemistry, is connected with the use of manure. If he knows what it is that gives the fertilising powers to manure, and is aware of the nature of those substances, he will soon learn the best method of preserving and using them; he will then understand how to make the most of the various sources of manure at his disposal, and he will be enabled readily to save much, that, for the want of such knowledge, would otherwise be lost.



ERRATA.



Page 21, line 28, *for* "whenever" *read* "whenever an organic."

Page 41, line 12, *for* "continuing" *read* "combining."

# RURAL CHEMISTRY.

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## CHAPTER I.

### COMBINATION—DECOMPOSITION—AIR—WATER.

1. THE object of Chemistry is to determine accurately the properties of all natural substances, to study the changes which are going on in nature, to find out the rules which govern them, and the manner in which these natural operations are influenced by circumstances.

2. In pursuing these inquiries, the chemist is obliged to proceed slowly and with great caution; it is quite impossible for him to predict beforehand the result of an experiment; he must try it, and then, if it has been properly conducted, the result furnishes him with a new fact, for he is sure that on repeating it in the same manner, he will obtain the same result. Hence chemistry is purely an experimental science; every fact is the result of repeated experiment, and every theory is deduced from the study of such facts. The greatest care must be taken to distinguish facts from theories; the former are well established and unquestionable truths, the



latter are plausible conjectures, to which we are led by the attentive study of facts. When a chemist has made a number of experiments or has observed many phenomena, he endeavours to ascertain the cause of the effects he has been studying. He selects the most probable explanation, and adopting it as a theory or view, to be confirmed or disproved by future experiments, proceeds to try in all possible ways the truth of his conclusion. By thus forming a theory he is enabled to arrive at the truth more easily than if he were merely to continue making experiments at random. It is by reasoning on the result of thousands of experiments that chemists have been enabled to reduce the science into a useful form, as they have thus been led to discover certain great leading laws, which govern all chemical changes or operations.

3. Nearly all the changes which are going on in nature may be classed under two heads. The one kind of change is that which takes place when two substances come together which have, as it were, an attraction or affinity for each other. As a familiar example of what then happens, we may take the common process of soap-boiling. When an alkaline or caustic ley is boiled with tallow or fat, soap is formed. The alkali which is contained in the ley has an attraction for the fat; the two become thoroughly mixed, and combine or unite together, and form a new substance, quite different from either the fat or the alkali, which new substance is called soap.



4. This kind of action is quite distinct from simple mixture. When we mix together two substances—such as, for example, brown sugar and sand—no change takes place, for they have no affinity or attraction for each other; and therefore, if boiling water is poured upon the mixture, it will soon dissolve out all the sugar and leave the sand, and neither the sugar nor the sand will be at all altered by having been mixed.

5. When we mix two substances which have an attraction for each other, they are both changed, and the new substance formed by their union is quite different from either; and when two substances are thus united or combined together, they are not so easily separated as when merely mixed, because they require the exertion of some attraction more powerful than that which made them combine, to cause their separation. In the case of the soap just mentioned, it is different from the ley in not being caustic, and differs from the fat in being easily soluble in water.

6. It is a rule which holds good in all cases, that whenever two substances combine or unite together, and form a new substance, the properties of the new substance are quite different from those of either of its components; but when two substances are only mixed, the properties of the mixture are intermediate, or half-way, between those of its two components.

7. Another common case of affinity is observed when we slake quicklime. Quicklime has a strong affinity for water, and when it is wetted, it becomes very hot;



the lime combines with a quantity of water, and when it has cooled, we find that the lime is much altered, having lost its strong caustic properties, and become mild or slaked.

8. It may perhaps seem as if these two examples of the change produced by attraction or affinity were processes of art, and not of nature. They will, however, serve as examples of what is going on in a great many natural operations : and as we proceed with the subject, it will be evident that this kind of change, by which two different substances unite and form one new substance, is exceedingly common throughout nature.

9. The second kind of change which we shall have to consider, is that which goes on whenever anything decays. This change is quite opposite in its nature to that which we have just been describing. It takes place whenever any substance is separated or divided into its component parts. Thus, to return again to the quicklime, which is made by burning chalk or limestone, we say that the chalk or limestone is decomposed, when, by burning or heating it in a very hot fire, all the water, or whatever else it contains, which can be roasted out by fire, is driven off, and the lime only remains. (74.)

10. The decomposition of a substance is also effected when it is mixed with anything which has a very strong attraction for one of its components. Soap is made by the attraction which the alkali has for fat ; but if we add to a solution of soap in water anything



which has a stronger attraction for the alkali than the latter has for the fat, we shall decompose the soap: there are many substances which have the power of doing this, but it is sufficient now to mention one. If vinegar is poured into a solution of soap, the soap is decomposed; the fat is separated and floats on the surface, and the vinegar combines with the alkali of the soap. This kind of change is always going on when anything decays or putrefies, and therefore is of considerable interest in connexion with manures.

11. It is a very common saying that there are four elements, air, earth, fire, and water; and many people believe that all things are composed or made up of these four elements. This is very incorrect, because there are many substances which do not contain any of these so-called elements; and they are, besides, themselves compounded of many different substances. The term elements, in the sense in which it is used by chemists, means a certain set of simple substances, which by combining, or uniting together, form all the various matters that occur in nature.

12. To return once more to the example of soap, we may say that the elements of soap are alkali and tallow; but then the question will arise, what are the elements of tallow and alkali? which can only be ascertained by chemical experiments. In this way, then, we may analyse, or pull to pieces, different substances, till at last we find that we are unable to separate or decompose them any further,—and the substances



which then remain are called elements, or simple substances.

13. There are upwards of fifty of these elements, but it will not be necessary to study the nature and properties of the whole series, because many of them are of very rare occurrence, and found only in small quantities. We will commence with those substances which are of the greatest importance, whether simple or compound, and gradually go through them, before entering upon the chemistry of vegetation. Foremost in importance, of the substances whose properties we are about to study, stands the air.

14. We are too apt to think of the AIR as being merely empty space ; we move about through it without feeling any resistance, and from its being invisible and totally unlike anything else we know, many forget its existence altogether. The fact is, that every part of the surface of the globe is surrounded by air, which floats on its surface almost like water.

15. It is easy to prove that the air is really a substance. When we try to squeeze together the sides of an inflated bladder the mouth of which is tightly tied up, we feel that the bladder is full of something which resists the pressure ; this is occasioned by the air which it contains, and which, though so easily displaced, or pushed aside, by anything moving through it, resists strongly any force applied to it when thus confined in a limited space ; and if whilst we are pressing the bladder we prick a hole in it, the air rushes out, and we feel that



the resistance is gone, and that the sides of the bladder easily come together.

16. And again, when working a pair of bellows, it is the resistance of the air which we have to overcome by the force of the arms, which constitutes the labour of working the bellows; and if the nozzle of the bellows is stopped up, we presently find that it is impossible to go on working the bellows any longer, because having forced in as much air as it can hold, the natural resistance of the air prevents any more from entering.

17. Although we are so forgetful of the very existence of the air, it is of the greatest importance to all our daily occupations, and even to life itself. Without air nothing could burn—we could have neither fires nor lights; and, indeed, without air neither animals nor plants could live, for it is just as essential to the life of animals as it is to the growth of plants and the burning of coals and candles.

18. If a lighted candle is put into a large glass bottle, and the mouth of the bottle then stopped up, the candle soon gets dim, and in a short time goes out. The reason of this is that the air is no longer able to keep it alight. If we now put a second lighted candle into the bottle, it will go out immediately. Were a living animal substituted for the lighted candle, after living for a certain time in a confined portion of air, it would die, and a second animal placed in the air would immediately expire.

19. The question now will naturally arise, Is the whole



of the air then spoiled or used up ; and if it is, why does not fresh air enter the bottle and supply its place ? The truth is, only a small portion, perhaps about one-fifth of the bulk, of the air is able to feed the flame of a candle ; the remainder, which cannot feed flame nor the life of an animal, is of a different kind from the air which can ; and we find that the common air which we breathe is a mixture of two kinds of air, or GAS, as it is called by chemists ;—the one kind, which we might call good air, which supports the life of animals, and is essential to the burning of fires and candles ; and the other, or bad air, in which animals and plants die, and which immediately puts out fire and lights.

20. Chemists call the good air oxygen, and the bad air nitrogen ; but we must not suppose that because the nitrogen appears thus useless, it is really so ; for it is, in fact, of very great importance, as we shall hereafter see. In the experiment just mentioned of burning the candle in a large bottle, the oxygen is all combined with the elements of the tallow, and the nitrogen left unchanged, which puts out a fresh-lighted candle plunged into it.

21. When a candle burns, it gradually disappears ; it grows shorter and shorter, and at last, when all the tallow is burnt, the candle goes out ; but we must not therefore suppose that it is utterly destroyed. A change has taken place ; the tallow, or rather its elements, have combined with the oxygen of a portion of air, and



a new compound, which is a gas or kind of air, is produced. If we put a piece of salt into water, it will get less and less, and at last will disappear altogether, having wholly dissolved; but the salt is not destroyed, it is only dissolved in the water.

22. Now we may compare the burning of a candle to dissolving a piece of salt; for all the solid matter of the candle remains diffused throughout the air, after it is burnt, just as the salt remains dissolved in the water: but with this difference—the salt is dissolved in the water, but not combined with it. The elements of the tallow are dissolved in the air, but they have combined with a quantity of oxygen, because they have a strong affinity or attraction for it. If the solution of salt is left some time in a warm place, the water evaporates, and we get the salt again, unchanged; but in the case of the candle, its elements have combined with oxygen, and they cannot be separated again from it except by the action of something, which having a more powerful attraction for the oxygen than it has for the elements of the candle, causes it to relinquish them.

23. There are substances which have sufficient attraction for the oxygen to effect this, though, indeed, we cannot get back the tallow, but only its elements, or the simple substances of which it is composed. What has been said with regard to the burning of a candle is equally applicable to the burning of wood, coal, or in fact any combustible matter. In all cases they burn in consequence of their affinity for the



oxygen of the air, and they are never destroyed when burnt, for their elements may always afterwards be found combined with oxygen in the air in which they have been burnt.

24. It must also be remembered that when the candle goes out for want of air, it does not do so because all the oxygen is burnt, but because the elements of the candle having combined with all the oxygen of the air, or as it were saturated it, there is no more oxygen left to keep up the combustion of the candle.

25. The changes occasioned by chemical action frequently proceed slowly and quietly, but in many cases, and especially when substances combine together which have a strong affinity for each other, a great deal of heat is given out. Sometimes as soon as two substances are brought together they combine directly, and become very hot; this is the case in the slaking of lime; but it most usually happens that the mere bringing together of two substances, even though they have an affinity for each other, is not sufficient to cause them to combine.

26. In these cases combination cannot take place until the substances are heated up to a certain point. Thus charcoal has a strong affinity for the oxygen of the air, yet it cannot combine with it whilst both are cold; but as soon as a part of the charcoal is heated red-hot combination commences, and this very act evolves so much heat that the surrounding parts of the charcoal soon begin to burn, and thus the combustion, or combination



of the charcoal with oxygen, continues and increases until either the charcoal is all burnt or the oxygen in the surrounding air is saturated with carbon, and is therefore unable to burn any more.

27. The common operation of lighting a fire is a daily illustration of this. The fuel contains carbon, or charcoal, ready to combine with the oxygen of the air, but unable to do so until, by applying a light to it, we heat a portion up to the point required to commence combination: after which, the heat given out by the chemical action going on keeps it alight, and causes the combustion to spread to the surrounding fuel.

28. Now the atmosphere is composed of two different gases, called oxygen and nitrogen: but besides this, it also contains a small quantity of a third gas or kind of air, which is not simple like oxygen and nitrogen, but a compound of charcoal (by chemists named CARBON) with oxygen, and called CARBONIC acid gas.

29. It is known that all things containing carbon will produce a quantity of this gas whilst burning; and hence we can have no difficulty in accounting for its presence in the air. Indeed we might at first suppose that it must be always increasing in quantity; this, however, is not the case, for we always find exactly the same quantity in any portion of air that we analyse. The cause of this is, that all plants contain substances which have a very strong affinity for carbon, but which cannot combine with it in its solid forms because they are unable to come in contact with it; but which, when



the carbon has combined with oxygen and become a part of the air, are able, in consequence of their having a more powerful attraction for it, to seize upon the carbon of the carbonic acid gas thus diffused throughout the air, and cause it to relinquish the oxygen with which it was previously combined.

30. These facts show us a new use of plants, for we learn that the objects which we have only admired for their beauty, or valued for their utility as producing articles of food, and even weeds themselves, and things we usually consider as wholly useless, are all constantly, by the agency of attraction or chemical affinity, decomposing carbonic acid gas, and thus keeping the air in a uniform and healthy state.

31. Hence the air always contains a regular proportion of carbonic acid gas, which is constantly produced by the burning of combustibles, and in many other ways, and as constantly decomposed by the action of plants. As we are now only considering the properties and nature of the air, we will, for the present, pass over further consideration of this carbonic acid gas, to which we shall shortly return when studying the nature of carbon, and merely mention now, that it is of the greatest importance to the life of plants, being the principal source from whence they derive the carbon necessary for their growth. (65.)

32. The air always contains dissolved in it some water, or rather vapour, which varies in quantity according as the air is hotter or colder. When it is hot, a larger



quantity of water is evaporated or converted into vapour, and dissolved in the air, which in consequence becomes more damp; whilst, on the other hand, when the air becomes cold, the vapour in the air is condensed, returning to the state of water, and the air becomes drier.

33. This, of course, is modified according to circumstances: thus, in dry barren countries where the ground contains but little moisture, the air, when it becomes hot, remains of course comparatively dry; whilst in moist or swampy countries, under similar circumstances, the air becomes very damp from the abundance of vapour given off; and thus some of the principal differences of climate depend mainly upon the quantity of water suspended or dissolved in the air.

34. The solution of water or vapour in the air may easily be seen on observing the steam issuing from the spout of a tea-kettle. When the water boils strongly, and there is a large volume of steam coming out of the spout, we observe that just where it comes out the steam is transparent and almost invisible; that at a little distance it becomes white and cloudy, and when it gets further out into the air it soon disappears and becomes again invisible. The reason of this is, that hot steam is quite colourless and invisible, like air; and it only becomes apparent to us when it is partly cooled by rushing out into the cold air, and therefore is beginning to return to the state of water, and it would fall to the ground in a shower of little drops like rain if it



were not dissolved and carried away by the air as fast as it is formed.

35. The quantity of moisture in the air is also rendered apparent to us whenever a cold substance is exposed to it; this cools the vapour in the air so much that it is condensed and appears again in the fluid state as water, in little drops on the cold surface: thus a bottle of cold water from a deep well brought into a warm damp air speedily becomes covered on the outside with dew, or water thus condensed from the air.

36. The substance next in importance to air is WATER, which exists naturally in three different states: namely, in the solid form as ice; in the fluid state in its ordinary condition; and lastly, as vapour or steam. These three states of water are familiar to every one, but few are aware what causes the great difference between them.

37. When ice is placed before the fire, or exposed to the sunshine, or in any other way warmed, it absorbs heat, it melts and becomes water; and when water is heated, it assumes the form of steam or vapour. The difference between these three forms of water is entirely caused by the quantity of heat they contain; and we may truly say that water is a compound of ice and heat, and that steam is a compound of water and heat.

38. Although this seems very like chemical action, it is really quite different, and must not be confounded



with it. Chemical action can only take place between material substances, or those that have weight; now heat is not a substance—it is not a thing we are able to weigh, like all the chemical elements, and consequently when it combines with any substance it only alters the appearance and outward characters of that substance, but does not at all change its chemical properties or nature.

39. When heat is thus combined with a substance it is said to be latent (hidden), which means that it is not sensible to the feel. This will be easily understood from a very simple experiment. If we put some water in a kettle on the fire, we find that it will soon begin to feel warm to the hand if immersed in it; the warmth which we then feel is called free or sensible heat: but if we put some ice into the kettle in place of water, it will not become warm so soon, but will remain ice-cold until all the ice is melted, because all the heat supplied to it by the fire is absorbed or combined with the ice in melting, and therefore as the heat so absorbed does not make the melting ice any warmer, it is called latent. When all the ice is melted, the water will begin to get warm.

40. It has already been stated that water is not an elementary or simple substance; it is a compound, and consists of two gases. This at first seems very incomprehensible, for we can hardly believe it possible that a hard and solid substance like ice, or a weighty fluid like water, is composed of colourless and invisible gas.



The difficulty, however, greatly diminishes when we remember that heat alone, without adding anything to the weight of ice, converts it into water, and that a little more heat will convert that water into an invisible colourless vapour; for, as has already been said, (34,) pure hot steam is quite invisible, and only becomes visible to us when partly condensed by the contact of the colder air, which deprives it of the heat necessary to keep it in a state of vapour.

41. The consideration of these facts makes the composition of water appear far less wonderful; for we have little difficulty in believing that steam is composed of two gases, and we know that steam, water, and ice, are, chemically speaking, the same.

42. One element of water is oxygen gas—that part of the air which is so essential to life and combustion: it constitutes eight-ninths of the weight of ice, water, and steam.

43. The other element, or the remaining one-ninth, is called hydrogen gas, or inflammable air, because it is very combustible, being the basis of the common coal-gas used for lighting the streets, and entering into the composition of the inflammable air or fire-damp of mines and many other combustible substances.

44. Water is not like common air a mere mixture of two gases: it is a compound, and therefore is quite different in its properties from either of its two elements. The very inflammable gas hydrogen having combined with a certain quantity of oxygen, which is the great



promoter of combustion, forms water, a compound which we always regard as the greatest enemy to fire or combustion.

45. The purest kind of water which occurs naturally is rain-water, for all others, such as spring, river, or sea-water, are more or less contaminated or rendered impure by substances dissolved in them. Thus sea-water contains, along with other matters, a large quantity of common salt, which in some places is procured from it by exposing it in shallow pits to the heat of the sun, which causes the water to evaporate, and leaves the salt behind. (See Appendix.)

46. This fact explains why rain-water is purer than other sorts of water, because when the heat of the sun evaporates water from the surface of the earth, all the impurities which it contains are left behind; and of course when this vapour is cooled and falls down in the form of rain, it must be very nearly pure.

47. Springs which rise from the ground always contain earthy matters dissolved in them, which vary in nature and quantity with the soil through which the springs rise. The presence of these impurities in water in any quantity gives to it that peculiar character which is termed hardness. Sometimes springs contain a small quantity of iron or sulphur, and other substances, which constitute the many varieties of mineral waters. These matters, like the more common earthy impurities, are all derived from the beds of stone, sand or clay, through which the springs rise.



48. Besides these saline and earthy substances, water always contains atmospheric air dissolved in it. This is essential to the life of fishes, and to the growth of water-plants, which could not exist if they were not thus supplied with common air.

49. Water is essential to the existence of all plants and animals : it constitutes a large portion of all animal and vegetable substances, it is the principal component of the blood of animals and the sap of plants, and is of the greatest importance, as being the means of introducing into their systems many soluble matters necessary for their healthy growth.

50. Hydrogen, the inflammable element of water, is a substance of considerable interest ; it is true, it is never found in nature in a pure and separate state, but its compounds are abundant, and some of them very important ; when pure, hydrogen is an invisible transparent gas, like the air ; very combustible, burning readily when once inflamed, and remarkable for being so much lighter than common air that a thin bladder, filled with this gas, would rise through the air in the same manner that a bubble of common air rises through water.

51. The most important of its compounds are water, in which it is united to oxygen ; ammonia, a gas which it forms by combining with nitrogen ; and coal gas or carburetted hydrogen, an inflammable gas consisting of hydrogen and carbon. The two latter will shortly come under notice (80.) (93.) (149.).



## CHAPTER II.

CARBON—NITROGEN—SULPHUR—CHLORINE—  
PHOSPHORUS.

52. We now come to the consideration of an elementary or simple substance which has been already more than once alluded to, namely, carbon or charcoal. Carbon is the name applied to the pure element, but common charcoal is so nearly pure that we may consider the two words as meaning the same thing; it is an essential part of all kinds of fuel or combustible substances, during the burning of which it combines with oxygen, and forms carbonic acid gas, the substance before adverted to as always existing in the atmosphere.

53. The forms of carbon which we are accustomed to see are almost all black, like common charcoal; but this is not the case with all the forms of carbon, for we know that the brilliant colourless gem called the diamond is really pure carbon, there being no chemical difference between that gem and common charcoal.

54. There are many substances in nature which exist in two or more different states presenting very different appearances, but being really chemically the same. Thus, chalk and marble are very different-looking substances, but they are composed of precisely the same elements; the difference between them is not caused by



heat, like the difference between the three states of water, but is wholly of a mechanical nature ; the particles composing a piece of chalk are much smaller than those composing a piece of marble, and hence a piece of marble appears made of many little grains cemented together, whilst chalk is composed of particles so small that we are unable to distinguish them, and it therefore appears to be a uniform substance.

55. The power which holds together the little particles composing the piece of marble or chalk, or any other substance, is called cohesion, and this power varies in strength in different substances ; thus it is far stronger in marble than in chalk, and hence a piece of marble requires a much harder blow to break it than a piece of chalk. In the same way we say that the particles composing the diamond are held together more firmly by cohesion than the particles composing a piece of charcoal. Cohesion is, of course, quite independent of chemical attraction, for it holds the different particles of a substance together, constituting its mechanical strength ; whilst chemical affinity binds together particles of two different substances, forming a compound substance, but does not in any way affect the strength of the compound to resist mechanical force applied to it.

56. Under common circumstances, carbon is one of the most unchangeable things we know ; neither air, water, nor any of the substances commonly found in nature, have any action upon it ; and hence the practice of charring the lower parts of wooden posts which are



intended to be driven into the ground ; the coat of charcoal thus formed protects the wood from decay for a much longer period than if not charred. When, however, carbon is heated, its chemical affinity for oxygen is greatly increased, and it no longer appears to be the unchangeable substance which it is whilst cold.

57. Carbon has been already stated to be a necessary element of plants, which though so various in form and colour, are nevertheless composed of very few elements. They consist almost wholly of oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, and carbon, which by combining in different proportions, form all the principal parts of both plants and animals.

58. The greater number of vegetable substances consist wholly of oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon ; whilst animal matters mostly contain, in addition to these three elements, a quantity of nitrogen. When wood is charred, its elements are separated from each other ; the hydrogen and oxygen combine together and form water, whilst the carbon is left behind. When wood is burnt in the open air, both its hydrogen and carbon combine with oxygen, causing flame ; the combination of carbon with oxygen proceeds slowly and steadily, the carbon continuing to glow until all is consumed ; hydrogen, on the other hand, combines with oxygen more rapidly, burning at once, with a flame.

59. Whenever a substance burns with a flame, we may be sure that it contains hydrogen ; and whenever



the flame is bright, we are sure that it contains a good deal of carbon, for the flame of pure hydrogen is very pale indeed, and the brightness of a flame, such as that of a candle, is entirely due to the carbon contained in the tallow, which is burned at the same time with the hydrogen, both combining with oxygen of the air.

60. As the products of the combustion of a candle are carbonic acid gas and water, it would be natural to expect that a cold substance held over the flame of a candle would take from the vapour of water thus formed the heat necessary to its existence in the state of vapour, and consequently condense it into the fluid form. This is an experiment which may very easily be made, for we have only to hold a cold glass at a little distance above the flame of the candle, and we shall soon find it lined with a fine dew of water condensed in this manner.

61. Carbon is unable to combine with oxygen at common temperatures; it requires to be heated before it can enter into combination with that substance; but when a compound substance containing carbon is exposed to the air, it usually happens that if the other elements which it contains combine with oxygen, the carbon also is then able to combine with oxygen, and forms carbonic acid gas.

62. Thus when a plant dies and decays, its elements separate and form new compounds; but the carbon is not set free in the form of black charcoal—it is slowly combined with oxygen.



63. Hence we see that decay is very like burning, similar effects being produced by both; only that the change which is effected by combustion in a short time, and accompanied with a great deal of heat, is very slowly and gradually effected by decay, very little heat being at the same time evolved. In both cases carbonic acid gas is produced, which is essential to the growth of plants, as they, being able to decompose it, thus obtain carbon.

64. This explains the use of decaying vegetable substances in manures; they, of course, contain carbon, which is slowly combining with oxygen, and therefore, always supplying the growing plants with carbonic acid gas (29).

65. Carbonic acid gas is produced in large quantity by the breathing of animals. A constant supply of fresh air is requisite for the support of life, and we know that if an animal is prevented from breathing or inhaling fresh air, it will very soon be suffocated. The chemical action which goes on in the lungs of an animal is just the reverse of that which takes place in the organs of plants: in this case carbonic acid gas in the air is decomposed, and the carbon which it contained is appropriated by the plant; whilst in the lungs of an animal carbonic acid is formed; for the oxygen of the air is found, on being expelled from the lungs, to have combined with carbon and become converted into carbonic acid gas. In fact the process of



breathing is very similar to that of combustion, the same results being produced in either case (23).

66. Carbonic acid gas is called an acid, although it certainly is not acid or sour to the taste, like vinegar, and the other common acids we are acquainted with: it will, therefore, be proper, before proceeding any further, to explain why it is called an acid, and in fact what is meant by that term.

67. There exists in nature a numerous class of substances which are called bases; amongst which are potash, soda, lime, and other caustic substances. Now an acid is a substance that has a strong affinity for these bases, and which in combining with one of them forms a neutral compound.

68. Some acids are exceedingly sour, and very corrosive substances, like oil of vitriol, and aquafortis; but when poured upon a base, such as potash or soda, they combine with it directly, and both the acid and the base lose their caustic and corrosive qualities.

69. These compounds of acids and bases are usually called salts, or saline compounds, and are very numerous; for there are many acids and many bases.

70. Acids have a curious property of changing certain vegetable colours. The greater number of vegetable blue colours are by acids changed to red, and this property is therefore made use of by the chemist to detect the presence of a free acid; for this power of acids



ceases immediately after they are combined with bases ; because their powers are then neutralised.

71. A very common illustration of this change of colour may be seen in the pickling of red cabbage. Every one knows that red cabbages, as they are called, are really dark purple whilst growing, and they only become red by the action of the acid vinegar employed in pickling them ; the same effect would be produced if any other acid was employed.

72. If now we add to some cabbage thus reddened by acid a little alkali, either potash, soda, or ammonia, or indeed a portion of any base, the colour will soon be restored to its original blue ; because the acid is neutralised by the base. And if the base employed be one of the three alkalies, or their carbonates, such as common pearlash, which is the carbonate of potash, the solution of cabbage will become green, because free alkalies, and likewise their carbonates, have the power of turning vegetable blues green ; and thus vegetable colours are most useful indicators of the presence either of free acid, or of alkali, in a solution.

73. Although carbonic acid, being a gas, is not perceptibly sour to the taste like the strong acids just mentioned, it nevertheless combines with bases, and in so doing neutralises, or at least weakens to a considerable extent, their caustic properties ; but as it has a far less powerful attraction for bases than most other acids have, it is very easily expelled from compounds containing it, by the action of another acid, which



seizes upon the base and sets the carbonic acid gas at liberty.

74. We have already spoken of the conversion of chalk into lime by heat, in which process the chalk is decomposed, certain matters being expelled or driven off, and the lime left caustic. Chalk is a compound of carbonic acid gas and caustic lime, together with a quantity of water, and is called a carbonate of lime.

75. The carbonic acid is combined with the lime by so weak an attraction, that heat alone is sufficient to expel the acid, together with the water which the chalk contains. If a piece of chalk is put into some vinegar, or indeed into any sour liquid, the chalk will be decomposed, and the carbonic acid will bubble through the fluid until the vinegar or other acid is fully combined with lime, and its acid powers entirely neutralized.

76. In consequence of this gas being rather heavier than common air, it frequently collects in caverns, cellars, and other similar situations, and often occasions serious accidents, suffocating those who unfortunately enter the places thus filled with carbonic acid. Its presence in such places in the air, in any quantity, may always be easily ascertained by letting down a lighted candle into the well or cellar: if the candle continues to burn, we know that there is enough oxygen present to support the life of an animal; and if the candle is extinguished we are certain that the place is full of carbonic acid gas, and therefore that it must not be entered until



the heavy carbonic acid is dispersed by proper ventilation.

77. Carbonic acid is also evolved in large quantities during the process of fermentation, and occasions the pricking taste and effervescence of cider, bottled ale, and other liquors. Common ale is allowed to ferment in open vessels, so that nearly all the carbonic acid formed during that process is dispersed; but bottled ale being confined in close vessels before its fermentation is completed, much of the carbonic acid evolved subsequently is pent up in the liquor and escapes from it in innumerable small bubbles when the cork of the bottle is removed.

78. Carbonic acid then is constantly being formed in several different ways: it is evolved during the combustion of all substances containing carbon, during the respiration of animals, during the decay of almost all vegetable and animal substances, and during the process of fermentation. It is likewise, in many situations, naturally given out by the earth in large quantities.

79. To counterbalance all these sources of increase there is only the power of plants already mentioned (29) of decomposing it, by abstracting its carbon and setting free the oxygen again.

80. Although when carbon burns in the air it only combines with oxygen, it can, under some circumstances, combine with nitrogen and also hydrogen. Thus when vegetable matters decay under water, we find that a gas is given off in bubbles which consist of hy-



drogen and carbon, and is therefore called carburetted hydrogen.

81. This gas is, as may be supposed, inflammable; burning in the air with a tolerably bright flame, and forming, by the combustion of its two elements water and carbonic acid. This gas is found in very large quantity in coal-mines, where it is called fire damp, and occasions violent explosions when a light is incautiously brought into a mixture of it and common air.

82. In these cases the gas is mixed with a quantity of atmospheric air, but the affinity of the carbon and hydrogen, of which it consists, for the oxygen of the air, is not powerful enough to cause combination. When, however, a lighted candle or lamp is brought into the mixture, that part is immediately raised to the temperature at which combination can take place, the mixture takes fire, the flame spreads with very great rapidity, and in a few seconds the mixed gases are changed from air and carburetted hydrogen into carbonic acid gas, steam, and nitrogen. At the moment of explosion the gases are very greatly expanded by the heat of the flame, and subsequently they are suddenly condensed as the steam is cooled and converted into water. It is this that causes much of the dreadful effects produced by such explosions.

83. There are also many other compounds of carbon and hydrogen, in which different quantities of the two elements give rise to a great variety of different substances: one of the most important of these is the



common coal gas used for lighting the streets, which differs from the fire-damp of mines in containing rather more carbon.

84. When two substances combine together and form a compound, they always unite in the same proportion. A given weight of carbon, in burning, always combines with the same quantity of oxygen, to produce a certain weight of carbonic acid gas; and this rule holds good in all cases of chemical combination, for it is one of the distinctions between mixture and combination that we are able to mix two substances together in any relative proportion we like; but we are only able to make substances combine in certain fixed proportions.

85. Compounds do not always consist of equal parts of their elements, for they can consist of one part of one element, and one, two, three, or more parts of another element; and indeed there can frequently be formed several different compounds by the union of two elements in various proportions. When, however, we mix together two substances which can unite together, they always combine in one of these fixed proportions; and if there is more of the one element than is requisite to form the compound, it is left unaltered.

86. Thus we know that every six grains of carbon or pure charcoal require 16 grs. of oxygen to burn them perfectly, and convert them into carbonic acid; and exactly the same quantity will be required whether the carbon is burnt in a few seconds, or slowly combined with oxygen by the gradual process of decay. If we



were to try to combine six grains of carbon with 20 grains of oxygen, we should find that only 16 grains of the oxygen would combine with the charcoal, and the remaining 4 grains of oxygen would be left unchanged.

87. When we try to burn charcoal so that it shall get less oxygen than is requisite to convert it into carbonic acid, we find that it is possible to do so, but that the gas produced is not carbonic acid. Carbon and oxygen are able to combine together in more than one proportion; and consequently, though when carbon is burnt in the air, or where it can get abundance of oxygen, it always forms carbonic acid, yet when burnt so that it cannot combine with a sufficient quantity of oxygen to form that gas, it forms a different compound containing less oxygen, which is called carbonic oxide.

88. This compound is a transparent colourless gas like carbonic acid, and resembles it also in being totally unfit to support animal life; indeed it appears to be far more dangerous than carbonic acid when taken into the lungs, even though considerably diluted with common air. It extinguishes flame, as might be expected, but it is itself combustible, burning with a pale blue flame, and at the same time is converted into carbonic acid, in consequence of having acquired more oxygen from the air in which it has burnt.

89. We frequently see on the top of charcoal or coke fires a pale blue flame, quite different in appearance from the usual bright flame of wood or coal; this is occasioned by carbonic oxide which is formed in the midst



of the mass of burning fuel, where the carbon, being unable to get enough oxygen to form carbonic acid, produces this gas, which, when it reaches the top of the fuel, meets with fresh air and combines with a further quantity of oxygen. When, however, a charcoal fire is burning slowly, a quantity of carbonic oxide escapes into the air without being burnt into carbonic acid; and its poisonous nature is often shown when persons have foolishly placed a pan of burning charcoal in a close bedroom. The charcoal is not only abstracting the oxygen of the air and converting it into carbonic acid, which cannot support life, but is also forming quantities of the highly poisonous gas, carbonic oxide, the presence of which in a room, in any considerable quantity, is sure to destroy life.

90. When plants or vegetable substances, consisting of oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon, decay, their elements form new compounds, the principal of which are carbonic acid and water. We must now consider what are the products resulting from the decay of animal matters, and of those vegetable substances which, like them, consist of oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, and nitrogen (58).

91. This last element differs from most other substances in appearing to be remarkably inert; it seems to have little or no affinity for any other substance. It is always mixed with oxygen in the air, but it appears to have no inclination to combine with it; and when carbon, or substances containing it, burn, they combine only with the oxygen, and never with the nitrogen of



the air : so that it would appear as if the chief use of nitrogen in the air was to dilute the oxygen and prevent it from combining too rapidly with carbon and other substances.

92. Under some circumstances, however, nitrogen does combine with other elements, and its compounds are amongst the most curious and important substances we know. When animal or vegetable matters containing nitrogen decay, we find that it, like the carbon, is not set free in its simple and uncombined form, but that during decay it combines with a portion of hydrogen.

93. Therefore in addition to water and carbonic acid the two principal substances arising from the decay of ordinary vegetable matters, we find a pungent, strong-smelling gas, composed of nitrogen and hydrogen, which is called ammonia.

94. This substance, though a gas, is, like potash and soda, a base ; like them it has a strong affinity for acids, and when combined with them neutralises their powers ; and, therefore, as it is evolved at the same time with carbonic acid, it combines with that acid and produces a solid salt, which is called a carbonate of ammonia, just as the compound of carbonic acid and lime is called a carbonate of lime.

95. AMMONIA is always produced when animal or vegetable substances containing nitrogen are decomposed, whether by combustion or by decay ; in both these cases carbonate of ammonia is formed, which is a very volatile salt, and consequently is carried away by



the air as fast as it is formed. Now water absorbs large quantities of ammonia, which, as well as all its compounds, is easily soluble in that fluid; and consequently the ammonia and salts of ammonia formed during these processes of decomposition are never retained in the air, but are dissolved and brought down to the surface of the earth by rain.

96. Ammonia was formerly called the volatile alkali, because in properties it very closely resembles potash and soda, which are distinguished from all other bases by being called alkalies. Ammonia, however, differs from the two other alkalies in being a gas, whilst they are both solid, and almost all its compounds are more or less volatile, or capable of being converted into vapour by heat; whilst the compounds of potash and soda are all fixed, or quite incapable of being raised into vapour by any ordinary application of heat.

97. Ammonia has also a less powerful affinity for acids than the two other alkalies have, and consequently it is easily expelled from its compounds by either potash or soda, as well as by lime and several other bases, which set free the ammonia in the gaseous form and unite themselves with the acid previously in combination with the ammonia. (149—150.)

98. Ammonia is not the only compound containing nitrogen which is formed during the decomposition of animal substances; for although nitrogen and oxygen appear to have no affinity for each other, as they exist together in a state of mixture in the air, and yet do not



enter into combination, yet when a compound already containing nitrogen is decomposed, we find that besides the compound of nitrogen and hydrogen just described, a compound of oxygen and nitrogen is also formed, which is possessed of very extraordinary powers, being a very strong acid, and commonly called aqua fortis, or nitric acid. (104.)

99. Nitrogen is able to combine with oxygen in five different proportions, giving rise to as many distinct substances: four of these are of comparatively little importance, and may therefore here be passed over; the fifth, or that containing the greatest quantity of oxygen, is the only one at present worthy of consideration.

100. Nitric acid is never found in its free or uncombined state, but always in combination with some base; being a very powerful acid, it is easy to understand that as soon as formed it seizes upon some base to combine with, and forms a neutral salt. The commonest salts containing nitric acid, or nitrates, as they are called, are the nitrates of potash, soda, and lime, which are found native abundantly in different places.

101. The nitrate of lime is very frequently to be met with on old walls near which organic substances containing nitrogen have decayed and formed nitric acid, which has combined with the lime of the mortar; and in the same way nitrate of lime may be formed artificially by mixing lime with decaying substances which can yield the acid, and, after having allowed them to



remain some time together, by pouring water over the mixture: this dissolves the nitrate of lime, and forms a solution, which leaves the salt in question when the water is evaporated by heat.

102. Although nitric acid is a very strong acid, and has a very powerful affinity for bases, yet there are even more powerful acids, which are strong enough to expel it from its combinations, and we are thus able to procure the pure acid: this is usually done by what is called oil of vitriol, or sulphuric acid (114), a substance consisting of brimstone, or sulphur, combined with oxygen. When this acid is poured on a nitrate, it expels the nitric acid in the form of very acrid or sour and biting fumes, which may be condensed by cold water, and then form an intensely sour liquid which is called nitric acid, or aqua fortis.

103. Nitric acid acts very strongly on all organic bodies, decomposing them sometimes with great violence, and causing their elements to enter into new combinations: thus when strong nitric acid is mixed with oil of turpentine, it sets it on fire. This is caused by the large quantity of oxygen which nitric acid contains, which enables it to burn substances, or at least makes them combine rapidly with oxygen, which we know is the cause of combustion.

104. When we mix nitric acid with substances which, having a strong affinity for oxygen, are able to decompose the acid, we obtain some of the other compounds of nitrogen and oxygen before alluded to, and



by various processes we are able to obtain compounds of nitrogen with most other elements, setting out with this acid as a source of nitrogen; for it seems that nitrogen hardly ever will combine with an element, except when it is being evolved or set at liberty by the decomposition of a substance in which it was already combined with some other element.

105. There are three other elements deserving notice which, like nitrogen, are of little interest in themselves, but which, by combining with other substances, form important compounds; these are sulphur, chlorine, and phosphorus.

106. The properties of Sulphur, or brimstone, are familiar to every one; it is a pale yellow solid substance insoluble in water, having neither taste nor smell when cold, melting easily when warmed, and catching fire very readily, burning with a pale blue flame, and giving out at the same time a peculiar and very disagreeable smell. The compounds which sulphur forms with oxygen and also with hydrogen are the principal which demand attention.

107. Sulphur, like nitrogen, is able to combine with oxygen in several proportions, and hence forms several distinct compounds; it is only necessary to describe two of them, sulphurous acid, and sulphuric acid or oil of vitriol.

108. When sulphur is burnt in the air, it forms sulphurous acid gas, a transparent invisible gas, possessing a very strong and suffocating smell; it is easily dis-



solved by water, and the solution then obtained has a strongly sour taste.

109. A portion of sulphurous acid is formed whenever we light a common brimstone match; and the peculiar suffocating smell then perceived is occasioned by this acid, and not by the sulphur alone, which has no smell, but which is used to tip the matches because it has a strong affinity for oxygen, and requires less heat to enable it to commence combination than the wood itself; but when it has once fairly got alight, it then produces heat enough to fire the wood.

110. Sulphurous acid does not form any important compounds when combined with bases, and its principal interest consists in its bleaching powers. It has long been used to destroy colour in things desired to be bleached, which are merely hung up over some burning sulphur, and exposed to the fumes of sulphurous acid thus formed. Articles thus bleached, however, frequently retain an unpleasant smell of sulphurous acid.

111. It is likewise used in fumigation, being considered destructive of contagion; and, therefore, sulphur is burnt in houses where persons have died of an infectious disorder, and in other circumstances where evil effects are feared from the communication of disease. In these cases sulphurous acid has really a useful influence, as it seems able to destroy a minute quantity of poisonous matter diffused throughout the air; but it must be remembered that it can have no power of improving air which is unwholesome from the presence of



a large quantity of carbonic oxide or carbonic acid, for in these circumstances burning sulphur would only tend to make the air worse, both by removing oxygen and also by adding sulphurous acid.

112. The bleaching power of this acid may be very well shown by holding a lighted brimstone match near a dark purple or blue flower, the colour of which will be immediately more or less destroyed, and we may easily thus, either in part or wholly, render the flower white.

113. Sulphurous acid contains less oxygen than the sulphuric acid; in fact, it stands in the same relation to that acid which carbonic oxide does to carbonic acid. Sulphurous acid is formed whenever sulphur is burnt in the air, because under those circumstances it is not able to combine with enough oxygen to form the more powerful acid.

114. Sulphuric acid is made by burning sulphur mixed with nitrate of potash, which supplies it with more oxygen than it could get by merely burning in the air; because the nitric acid in the salt contains a very large quantity of oxygen, and is easily decomposed by any substance which has a strong affinity for oxygen. When sulphur is burnt in this manner, and the fumes produced by its combustion are condensed in cold water, a very acid liquid is formed, which is called oil of vitriol, or sulphuric acid.

115. It is a heavy, very corrosive, poisonous liquid, although its elements are only oxygen and sulphur, the one being that part of the air necessary to support life,



and the other a tasteless, odourless, yellow substance. Sulphuric acid in its free state is only remarkable as being one of the strongest acids we know, destroying vegetable and animal substances: that is to say, abstracting and combining with some of their elements, and causing the others to enter into new combinations; and having a strong affinity for bases, with which it forms a class of compounds called sulphates, some of which are of very great importance, and must be considered hereafter.

116. Sulphuric acid is a most valuable substance to the chemist; being one of the strongest known acids, it enables him to expel or drive out most other acids from their combinations, and thus through its agency many other acids are obtained pure and separate from their compounds with bases. (102.) 121.) (125.)

117. Under certain conditions sulphur combines with hydrogen to form sulphuretted hydrogen,—a transparent colourless gas, remarkable for the exceedingly disagreeable smell which it possesses. It is to the presence of this gas that the nauseous, disgusting smell of putrefying animal matter is due. It is a very poisonous substance, and it would probably cause many fatal accidents were it not that its offensive odour warns us of its presence and induces us to take measures to disperse it by ventilation and other means.

118. Sulphuretted hydrogen is soluble in water to a considerable extent, and the solution possesses the strong and nauseous smell of the gas itself. The gas is inflam-



mable, and in burning produces water and sulphurous acid gas. Sulphuretted hydrogen has sometimes been called an acid, for it possesses feeble acid powers, combining with some bases and to a certain extent neutralising them.

119. Chlorine is an element which is never found free, but only in combination with some other element ; it is a very poisonous gas, causing very great irritation when breathed, even though it is largely mixed with air ; it is remarkable for possessing in a very great degree the power which sulphurous acid has of bleaching or destroying colours and also contagious matters. It is, therefore, very largely used in all cases where it is wished to destroy or remove colour : it is, however, a very powerful agent, and therefore must be used with great care, as otherwise if linen, for example, be bleached carelessly by means of it, the texture is destroyed, and the linen becomes rotten and useless.

120. Small quantities of this gas are used with very beneficial effects in removing foul smells, and otherwise rendering sweet and wholesome the air of large buildings, such as hospitals. It is unnecessary for us further to occupy ourselves with this element than to know that when combined with hydrogen it loses all these peculiar powers, and forms a strong acid, the muriatic acid, which, by combining with bases, forms a series of salts called muriates.

121. The process by which muriatic acid is procured, is very simple: a quantity of oil of vitriol or sulphuric



acid is poured on some common salt, acid fumes arise, they are made to pass through cold water which absorbs them, and in time a very sour corrosive liquid is obtained, which is the muriatic acid or the spirit of salt of the shops. In order to explain the action which takes place in this process, it is necessary to say a few words respecting the nature of common salt.

122. Common salt is a compound substance, consisting of two elements; the one is chlorine—the corrosive yellow-coloured gas just described, and the other is a white silvery-looking metal called sodium, a substance having a very strong affinity for oxygen, eagerly continuing with it and forming the alkali—soda. (140.)

123. The substances, then, concerned in the process for making muriatic acid, are, common salt or, to speak scientifically, chloride of sodium, sulphuric acid and of course a portion of water, as oil of vitriol is a solution of dry sulphuric acid in water. Both the chloride of sodium and the water are decomposed, the oxygen of the water combines with the sodium of the salt, whilst the hydrogen of the water combines with the chlorine of the salt, and thus soda and muriatic acid are formed; the latter is given off or expelled in the form of gas or vapour, whilst the soda combines with the sulphuric acid to form a neutral salt,—the sulphate of soda. This is a very good example of combination and decomposition. In consequence of the powerful affinity which sulphuric acid has for soda, both the salt and water are decomposed; and the chlorine and hydrogen being free from



their combinations, unite together to form muriatic acid.

124. Phosphorus in several respects resembles sulphur; like it, it is a readily fusible and very combustible solid. It is of a white colour, about as hard as wax, and has so strong an affinity for oxygen that it takes fire in the air with the greatest facility as soon as it is a little warmed: like the preceding element chlorine, it is never met with in a separate state, but always in combination. Its most important compound is phosphoric acid, the substance which is formed when phosphorus burns in the air or in oxygen: it is a white solid substance, very soluble in water, and eagerly combining with bases to form a class of salts called phosphates.

125. Phosphoric acid is generally obtained by decomposing one of its compounds by sulphuric acid. The most abundant compound of phosphoric acid is that in which it is united to lime, called the phosphate of lime: this substance is an ingredient of the bones of animals, and of some vegetable substances. When phosphate of lime is mixed with sulphuric acid, it is decomposed and the phosphoric acid is set at liberty. It may be artificially made by burning phosphorus in the air, from which it abstracts the oxygen and leaves the nitrogen unaltered, just in the same way that carbon burns into carbonic acid: only that in that case the product of combustion is a gas, like the air, whilst the result of the combustion of phosphorus is a solid acid.



## CHAPTER III.

THE ALKALIES.—THE EARTHS, AND THEIR SALTS.

126. THE class of substances called bases, or those with which acids can combine, are very numerous. The commonest, and therefore the most important, are the three alkalies, potash, soda, and ammonia, together with a few substances called earths, because they are the principal ingredients which enter into the composition of the soil in which plants grow.

127. The principal source of potash is the vegetable kingdom, and the simplest method of procuring it is by burning wood. When this is done, after all the carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen is burned, there remains a quantity of white or grey matter called ashes, which when put into water renders it caustic. This is occasioned by the presence of potash, which not being altered by the heat occasioned by the burning of the wood, is left in the ashes.

128. In this way, however, we do not obtain the potash pure, because, being a powerful base, and having a strong affinity for acid, it combines with some of the carbonic acid formed by the burning of the carbon contained in the wood, and therefore the caustic substance found in the ashes of the wood is an impure carbonate of potash. It is purified by pouring water on ashes, straining off the clear liquor, and evaporating it; a



white salt is left, which is the carbonate of potash separated from all the other matters which were contained in the ashes, and when thus purified it is called *pearlash*.

129. Pure potash is readily obtained from its carbonate by means of quicklime ; that substance has a stronger affinity for carbonic acid than potash has, and accordingly it decomposes the alkaline carbonate and leaves the alkali in its pure state : when free from any acid, it is found to be a very caustic solid substance, which has a strong affinity for acids, and is very difficult to keep, as when exposed to the air it rapidly acquires carbonic acid from it, and becomes converted into the carbonate.

130. Potash is not a simple substance ; like soda, it is a compound of a metal and oxygen. By the action of charcoal at a very high temperature it may be decomposed, for at a white heat the affinity of charcoal for oxygen is so great that it is even able to take it from potassium, as the metal of potash is termed : potassium is of course never found in a native state, for its affinity for oxygen is so great, that when exposed to the air it instantly absorbs a quantity of that gas, and is soon converted into potash. It may readily be proved that potash, soda, and the earths are all compound bodies, and that they consist of peculiar metals combined with oxygen ; but as the affinity which they have for that element is very great, and as they are never decomposed under ordinary circumstances, it is quite unnecessary to study the nature of potassium, sodium, &c., further than



to know that they are white, silvery looking metals, which by combining with oxygen form potash and soda. For all practical purposes we may think of potash and soda as elementary substances.

131. Potash has a strong attraction for water; so that when dry pure potash is exposed to the air, it very soon becomes moist, and in a short time has attracted so much water from the air as to appear changed into a liquid. This power of attracting water from the air is common to most of the salts of potash, as well as to many other saline compounds. Pearlash, if left exposed to the air, rapidly becomes moist, and finally runs into a liquid, which is a very strong solution of that salt in water; and therefore it must always be kept in a dry place, and in well-closed vessels.

132. In the same way, we often find that common salt when kept in a damp place becomes very moist: this is not occasioned by any attraction which the salt itself has for the moisture in the air, but by certain saline impurities, usually contained in the salt, which have this power in a high degree.

133. One of the most important of the salts of potash, is the nitrate, or, as it is commonly called, *saltpetre*, or *petre*, which is found native in many places as a white powdery matter on the surface of the ground, and is procured pure, by washing the earth, and evaporating the solution of nitre thus obtained.

134. Nitre is a perfectly neutral salt, and is in that respect very different from the carbonate of potash,



which, although far less caustic than pure potash, has still very considerable caustic powers, in consequence of which it is so commonly used in washing, and for other household purposes. Carbonic acid, in combining with the alkalies, does not seem able to neutralise them, or destroy their caustic powers so completely as it can most other bases; and therefore it must be remembered that the carbonates of the alkalies still possess some of the powers of the alkalies themselves. The other compounds formed by the alkalies with the more powerful acids are quite neutral, and in them no traces of the caustic nature of the bases can be found.

135. One of the principal uses of nitre is in the manufacture of gunpowder, which consists of nitre, charcoal, and sulphur, finely powdered, and very carefully mixed together. The chemical action which takes place during the burning or explosion of gunpowder is very simple. The nitre consists of potash and nitric acid,—a substance containing a very large quantity of oxygen, combined by a comparatively weak attraction with a portion of nitrogen. The finely-powdered charcoal has a very strong attraction for oxygen, and when sufficiently heated is able to decompose the nitre, seizing upon the oxygen of the nitric acid, and forming carbonic acid, a small portion of which combines with the potash of the nitrate, and forms carbonate of potash.

136. The use of the sulphur in gunpowder is similar to its use in the lighting of a common sulphur match; it very easily catches fire, and the flame thus produced



instantly heats the charcoal so much that it is able to decompose the nitre.

137. The mechanical force of gunpowder when fired is occasioned by the instantaneous production of a large quantity of gas from a small bulk of solid matter; as of course the nitrogen and the greater part of the carbonic and sulphurous acids formed are given off in the gaseous state, and comparatively little is absorbed by the potash.

138. Nitre is one of the few compounds of nitric acid which are found native, and indeed it is almost the only source of that acid. It is also used as a manure, and will therefore come before us again on a future occasion.

139. Salts of potash are met with in a great many plants in small quantities; they are likewise commonly to be found in the soil, and potash is by no means uncommon in stones: indeed, it is evident that the salts of potash found in the soil must have been derived from the gradual breaking down and decomposition of stones and rocks containing compounds of potash.

140. The second alkali, soda, is in its general characters similar to potash; it is a very strong caustic solid substance, and has a powerful attraction for acids, and is consequently never found in a pure and separate condition, but always in combination with an acid or some other substance. The most abundant source of soda is common salt, which exists in very large quantities in sea-water, and is likewise found native in the earth,



when it is called rock-salt, to distinguish it from the salt obtained by the evaporation of sea-water, called sea or bay salt.

141. Common salt has already been stated to be a chloride of sodium (122), a compound of chlorine with a white brilliant metal called sodium. It used formerly to be called a muriate of soda, because it was known that sulphuric acid poured on salt expels muriatic acid, whilst on the other hand there are substances which can take away the acid and leave caustic soda. It is now known that dry salt contains nothing but chlorine and sodium; and when it is decomposed by sulphuric acid or in any other way, the muriatic acid and soda evolved were not contained in the salt, but are formed by the decomposition of a portion of water, the oxygen of which unites with the sodium to form soda, whilst the hydrogen combines with the chlorine to form muriatic acid. Hence, though strictly speaking common salt is a chloride of sodium, yet for practical purposes it may be considered as a muriate of soda; because whatever change it undergoes, or in whatever manner it is decomposed, soda and muriatic acid are given out just as if they were really the components of salt.

142. The only other compound of soda, which occurs native in any quantity, is the nitrate or cubic nitre, as it is commonly called. It is found native in large quantities in certain parts of South America, and is used to a considerable extent as a manure. When it



was first brought over to this country, some few years ago, it was proposed to substitute it for the nitrate of potash in the manufacture of gunpowder and for the preparation of nitric acid. It was, however, found that it possessed the property of attracting moisture from the air; and hence being always more or less damp, it could not be used by the gunpowder-makers. When first imported its price was low, and it was accordingly advantageously substituted for the more expensive nitrate of potash in the manufacture of nitric acid; but as the price of nitrate of soda soon rose, it was no longer found profitable to use it for this manufacture, and now almost the only purpose for which it is employed is as a manure. It appears to resemble the nitrate of potash in its effects on growing plants, and like it to exert considerable influence on the fertility of certain kinds of land.

143. The "soda" of commerce is, as will be readily supposed, not the pure alkali soda, but is a carbonate, and, like the carbonate of potash, possessed of considerable caustic properties. It was formerly for the most part procured by burning sea-weed, the ashes of which contain a large quantity of carbonate of soda, and immense quantities of sea-weed were annually collected and burnt for the purpose of obtaining weed-ash, kelp, or barilla, as the crude salt was called. Of late years, however, means have been discovered of obtaining the carbonate of soda by decomposing common salt; from which it is now manufactured so cheaply, that it has



not only superseded the use of kelp or barilla for all purposes where carbonate of soda is required, but has also from its low cost been substituted to a great extent for potash and pearlash; and hence the carbonate of soda, or "soda" as it is commonly called, is very largely used in the arts of glass and soap making, and other processes where an alkali is employed.

144. In order to obtain carbonate of soda by the decomposition of common salt, it is first of all necessary to convert the salt into a sulphate: this is done by mixing it in certain proportions with oil of vitriol or sulphuric acid, and heating the mixture in a furnace. Muriatic acid is expelled, and the sulphuric acid, which has a powerful attraction for the soda, combines with it and forms sulphate of soda.

145. The second process is to mix the sulphate of soda thus formed with chalk and pounded coal, and strongly heat the mixture in a furnace; the sulphate is decomposed at a high heat by the charcoal or carbon of the coal, and a carbonate of soda is produced, which is of course impure, containing charcoal and an insoluble compound of lime; so that by pouring water on the crude salt after being taken out of the furnace, a clear colourless solution is procured, which on evaporation yields a clean and nearly pure carbonate of soda.

146. This "soda" contains a large quantity of water, although apparently dry; and when left exposed to the air, it does not, like the carbonate of potash, attract water from the air, but, on the contrary, parts with it



and becomes drier, at the same time crumbling down to a fine powder, which is found to be less caustic than it was before it underwent this change. The reason of this is, that when the carbonate of soda, by exposure to the air, parts with a quantity of water, and consequently becomes much lighter, it at the same time combines with a second dose of carbonic acid, which it obtains from the air, and its caustic qualities become more fully neutralised than they are in the common carbonate.

147. The salts of soda are for the most part white, and easily soluble in water; and, like the compounds of potash, are widely diffused throughout nature. They are found, besides the sources already mentioned, in many rocks and soils: a great many plants, more especially those which grow near the sea or in salt marshes, contain large quantities of salts of soda; and a good many of the compounds which this alkali forms with different acids are found native, though in far smaller quantities than the nitrate.

148. The sulphate of soda is also found native, and is frequently met with in mineral waters; it is also called Glauber's salts, and Cheltenham salts, as it is the principal ingredient in the mineral springs of Cheltenham.

149. The third alkali, ammonia, has already been before us (93): in its pure state it is a colourless, invisible, and very pungent-smelling gas; but, like potash and soda, it has a very strong affinity for acids, and is therefore hardly ever met with in its free state, but



always in combination with carbonic, or some other acid. It is far less abundant or common than the other alkalies, potash and soda ; for its principal source is the decay of animal and vegetable substances which contain nitrogen.

150. The most important of the salts of ammonia are, the carbonate and the muriate and the sulphate: the carbonate, which is the salt produced during the decay of organic matters, was formerly called salt of hartshorn, because it was mostly procured by burning horn ; it is now, however, principally obtained from the combustion of coal, which contains a small quantity of nitrogen, and therefore during burning gives off a small quantity of ammonia, which combines with a portion of the carbonic acid formed by the burning of the carbon of the coal ; hence carbonate of ammonia is always an ingredient of soot.

151. Carbonate of ammonia is largely obtained from the refuse matters of gas-works, where immense quantities of coal being decomposed, the salts of ammonia collect in large quantity. Carbonate of ammonia possesses the peculiar pungent smell of pure ammonia, though far less powerfully ; because being but partially neutralised by carbonic acid and united to it by but a feeble affinity, it is constantly escaping from its compound, evaporating into the air.

152. The muriate of ammonia, commonly called sal-ammoniac, which used also formerly to be obtained by burning animal substances, is now procured from the



refuse of the gas-works, which contain carbonate and other salts of ammonia. They are first of all converted into a sulphate by the action of oil of vitriol, which expels the carbonic and other weaker acids, and the sulphate thus obtained is decomposed by mixing it with common salt and heating the mixture.

153. Muriate of ammonia, like many other of the salts of ammonia, is volatile at a certain heat; that is to say, it becomes a vapour, and reassumes the solid form when cooled again: in the process for obtaining the muriate of ammonia, therefore, it is converted into vapour by the heat applied to the mixture, and is condensed in the solid form again in the upper part of the vessel in which it is heated, which is kept cool on purpose. The uses of sal-ammoniac in the arts are numerous and well known; its principal consumers are the dyers and workers in metals.

154. Ammonia has a strong affinity for sulphuric acid; the sulphate may either be formed directly by mixing together sulphuric acid and caustic ammonia in its carbonate, or it may be obtained by substituting for the sulphuric acid a sulphate in which the acid is held by a less powerful affinity than that which it has for ammonia; when this is done, the ammonia seizes the sulphuric acid and causes it to relinquish the weaker base with which it was previously combined. When, for example, a solution of carbonate of ammonia is mixed with a quantity of sulphate of lime, they are both decomposed, the ammonia combines with the



sulphuric acid and the lime takes the carbonic acid. Sulphate of ammonia has a strong saline taste, but no smell: it is a perfectly neutral salt, and may be kept any time without undergoing change. It is readily soluble in water.

155. Ammonia often seems to combine with substances for which it really has no affinity: this is merely a mechanical effect. Such substances have the power of absorbing a large quantity of the gas, which is condensed or packed up in the pores of the substance, but not combined with it, and is ready to be given off again on the application of heat, or any acid. Thus charcoal, and, indeed, most porous substances, absorb or condense a large volume of this gas.

156. The earth, or soil, consists of a mixture of various ingredients; but the greater part of it is composed of certain substances which are called earths. Some of these are bases, and resemble the alkalies; whilst the remainder are not bases: that is to say, they seem to have no affinity for acids, and cannot combine with them to form salts. The most important of the earths which are bases, are called lime, magnesia, and alumine.

157. Lime, in its pure condition, is a highly caustic substance, slightly soluble in water, but far less so than the alkalies are. It has a very strong attraction for acids, being even able to decompose the salts of the alkalies, in consequence of the superior attraction which it has for the acids contained in them; and it is for



this reason that it is customary to mix quicklime with woodash, which contains comparatively little free potash, as the greater part is combined with carbonic acid, when it is desired to make a very strong caustic ley: the quicklime decomposes the carbonate of potash, combines with the carbonic acid, and becomes converted into carbonate of lime; whilst the potash, being no longer combined with an acid, is able to exert its caustic powers.

158. The most common compounds of lime are the carbonate and the sulphate; the former of these, especially, is a very abundant substance, existing naturally in immense quantities in the different forms of chalk and limestone; it is also very commonly an ingredient of the soil, and constitutes a considerable part of the bones of animals, and shells.

159. As we have already stated (73), lime has a less powerful attraction for carbonic acid than it has for any other acid; and therefore when we pour a quantity of any acid over carbonate of lime, great bubbling, or frothing, is occasioned by the escape of the carbonic acid which is set at liberty when the lime combines with the new acid (75).

160. This bubbling, or effervescence, as it is called, enables us very easily to ascertain whether a stone be limestone or not, and likewise whether any particular soil contains carbonate of lime; for if any acid, such as vinegar, does not occasion any effervescence, it is certain that no carbonate of lime is present; and if, on the



other hand, it does expel bubbles of gas, we may be quite sure that a portion of some carbonate is present, and by far the most common is the carbonate of lime.

161. All the forms of this substance are tasteless, and quite insoluble in pure water; but rain-water, which commonly contains dissolved in it a very small quantity of carbonic acid, has the power of dissolving carbonate of lime: hence we commonly see the surface of chalk or limestone appears gradually corroded or worn away by the rains; and for the same reason buildings of freestone or limestone are much less durable than those which are built of granite—a stone which does not contain carbonate of lime, and is, therefore, not thus acted on by rain-water.

162. In this kind of action no chemical change is effected: the carbonate of lime is merely dissolved by water holding in solution carbonic acid: hence when either from heat or any other cause the carbonic acid is expelled from the water, it is no longer able to hold the carbonate of lime in solution, which is therefore deposited again unaltered.

163. The uses of carbonate of lime are very numerous: one of the most important is for burning into lime. This is a very curious process, for heat generally increases the attraction which two different substances have for each other; yet in this and some other cases, it rather diminishes it, and the strongest heat is unable to drive off carbonic acid from its combination with potash or soda, though lime, which parts with it so readily



when heated, is able when cold to take it from either of the alkalies. (129.)

164. When quicklime is mixed with vegetable or animal substances, it greatly accelerates their decay: it, however, renders the process of putrefaction far less noisome than it is under ordinary circumstances, because the lime absorbs many of the products of decay.

165. When quicklime is slaked with water, it crumbles down to a powder, and is found to have combined with a quantity of water; although it appears quite dry, for the water is chemically combined with the lime: if this lime thus slaked is left exposed to the air, it combines with carbonic acid, and becomes changed into carbonate of lime, and at the same time parts with part of the water with which it had previously combined.

166. Sulphate of lime is less common and abundant than the carbonate; it is however a frequent ingredient in the soil, in spring and mineral waters, and is found sometimes in large beds constituting what is called plaster-stone, gypsum, and alabaster; these are all compounds of lime and sulphuric acid, and precisely similar in composition. Common plaster of Paris is dry sulphate of lime, or gypsum deprived by heat of the water which it naturally always contains, and when mixed with a small quantity of water it recombines with it and becomes a hard, dry, solid substance.

167. The burning of gypsum to make plaster of Paris is quite different from the burning of chalk to make quicklime: in the former case the native sulphate of



lime, which contains water, is heated and the water thus expelled; whilst in the burning of lime not only is the water expelled, but also the acid itself with which the lime was combined.

168. Sulphate of lime is dissolved in small quantity by water, and accordingly we find it almost always present in spring-water, which derives it from the soil through which it rises; it is the presence of this substance in spring-water which gives it that freshness which distinguishes it from common river-water, and renders it pleasanter to drink than soft water; in fact, the great distinction found between hard and soft water is mainly caused by the presence or absence of sulphate of lime, which, though contained in very small quantity, greatly influences its usefulness for domestic purposes.

169. There is only one other compound of lime of much importance, and which has already been mentioned: this is the phosphate. It is found in small quantity in many plants, and forms a great part of the solid matter of the bones of animals. (125.)

170. Phosphate of lime is by no means an abundant substance, but it exists in small quantity in a great many substances. Traces of phosphoric acid are found in the soil, in almost all plants and animal matters. It never occurs free, or uncombined, but always in combination with a base, and this is very commonly lime. Thus we always find phosphate of lime in wheat and other grains, which constitute part of the food of man; and we find it in a very considerable quantity associated with car-



bonate of lime in the bones of man and other animals, who obtain it from the substances on which they feed.

171. Phosphate of lime is easily decomposed by the more powerful acids, such as sulphuric acid and muriatic acid: in the former case an insoluble sulphate will be formed, and phosphoric acid left in solution; and in the latter, a clear solution will be obtained containing phosphoric acid and muriate of lime, a salt which is very easily soluble in water.

172. Magnesia is an earth somewhat similar to lime, but far less common and abundant. It occurs usually in connexion with lime, forming what is called magnesian limestone, which is a mixture of carbonate of lime and carbonate of magnesia.

173. The commonest forms in which magnesia is found are the carbonate, the sulphate, the muriate, and the phosphate. The carbonate is sometimes found native pure, but by far more frequently it is mixed with the carbonate of lime or limestone, the properties of which it considerably modifies. When the carbonate of magnesia is strongly heated, it parts with its carbonic acid, and the pure earth magnesia is obtained.

174. This earth is almost insoluble in water, and far less strongly caustic than lime; it also has less affinity for carbonic acid, so that when left exposed to the air, it does not, like lime, rapidly become converted into carbonate by absorbing carbonic acid from the air, but remains for a long time caustic; and hence when a magnesian limestone is burnt in a limekiln, the quicklime



obtained of course contains caustic magnesia, which, if exposed to the air, will remain caustic long after the lime has become reconverted into carbonate; it is for this reason that limestone containing magnesia cannot be used for some purposes, where the caustic powers thus retained are objectionable.

175. The carbonate of magnesia, like the carbonate of lime, and indeed all other compounds of that acid, is easily decomposed by any more powerful acid.

176. When acted on by sulphuric acid, sulphate of magnesia is formed, which is a salt easily dissolved by water, and distinguished by a peculiar sweet-bitter taste. It is found in many mineral waters, and exists in unusually large quantity in some springs near Epsom, in consequence of which it is commonly called Epsom salts.

177. The compound of muriatic acid and magnesia is also frequently found in mineral waters, and exists in some quantity in sea-water; it is very soluble in water, and therefore when sea-water is evaporated in order to procure the common salt which it contains, it is never wholly evaporated; but when the greater part has been driven off by heat, and a large quantity of common salt is deposited, the remaining liquor, which contains a little common salt, and nearly all the muriate of magnesia, and other easily soluble salts, is drawn off.

178. The muriate of magnesia, and also the muriate of lime, are very deliquescent salts; that is to say, they have a very strong attraction for water, and hence when



exposed to damp air, they soon become moist, and at last we find, instead of the solid salt, a very strong solution of it in water. It is to the presence of a small quantity of these two salts in common sea-salt that its deliquescent properties before alluded to are due. (132.)

179. The phosphate of magnesia, like the carbonate, is seldom found alone, but usually mixed with the phosphate of lime: thus we find it associated with that substance in small quantity in many animal and vegetable matters, and likewise in the soil. The uses of magnesia are limited, and the most important purposes to which its compounds are applied are as medicines.

180. Alumine, or pure clay, the last of the earthy bases, is a very abundant and widely-diffused substance. It occurs native both pure and in combination, but it is most usually met with mixed with another earth called silex, and combined with a quantity of water. It is sometimes found pure and free from water or any acid, and constitutes the hard gems called the ruby and sapphire; but these are very rare, and seldom met with.

181. The properties of alumine, in the ordinary state in which it occurs in the soil, are very different from those of the preceding bases; it is quite insoluble in water, has no caustic powers, and does not absorb carbonic acid from the air. It has a strong attraction for water, and when thoroughly wet it appears in the form of a very tenacious paste, remarkable for its great plasticity, and the ease with which it may be moulded into any form. All the varieties of clay derive their



tenacious properties from the large quantity of this earth which they contain; and the whole arts of making pottery, bricks, tiles, &c., are entirely dependent on this property of alumine.

182. This earth is able to combine with acids, but the salts which it forms are mostly of very little importance, and we need not inquire into their characters. The only one which is found native is the phosphate, but this is by no means of common occurrence; it is only found in certain districts and in very limited quantity.

183. The sulphate of alumine is largely manufactured from certain kinds of slate or shale which contain alumine and sulphur. When sulphate of alumine is mixed with sulphate of potash, the two salts combine and form what is called a double salt—the sulphate of alumine and potash, or common alum. If a little potash is added to a solution of alum, the sulphate of alumine will be decomposed, pure alumine will be separated, and sulphate of potash alone remains in solution.

184. The only other earth of much importance besides the three already mentioned, is called silex or silica, and is found both pure, and mixed or combined with alumine and other substances,—constituting, in a nearly pure condition, quartz, sand, flint, &c., and when associated with alumine, forming clay and a numerous series of stones; being in fact an essential ingredient of the greater number of the hard stones with which we are acquainted.



185. Silica differs from the preceding earths in not being a base—in being unable to combine with acids; indeed it has rather the character of an acid, for it is able to combine with the alkalies so much in the manner of acids, that it is by some chemists termed silicic acid.

186. It is quite insoluble in water, and unacted on by the air, and under ordinary circumstances is a very unchangeable substance: when, however, combined with the alkalies, it is easily dissolved in water, and the compound thus formed is sometimes present in very small quantity in mineral waters.

187. The ordinary forms of silica or silicic acid, such as sand or flint, are very little acted on by potash; but when finely-pounded silica is mixed with potash or soda, and strongly heated, they melt and form a clear transparent substance, which is in fact glass. Indeed so strong is the affinity which silica has for potash and soda, that if fine sand or pounded flints are mixed with the carbonate of either of those bases, and strongly heated, the carbonic acid is expelled, and the silica and alkali unite to form a glass. Such a compound is called a silicate.

188. Common glass always contains other substances, but the basis of all good glass is this compound of silica and alkali—either silicate of potash or soda. The proportions taken of the two ingredients are always such that the glass obtained shall be perfectly unacted on by water; but if more alkali be employed than is



requisite to form a good glass, a silicate will be obtained which is easily soluble in water. A solution thus made is easily decomposed by any acid, as the potash has comparatively but a weak attraction for the silica, and hence that substance is separated from its solution on the addition of almost any acid.

189. Though potash is scarcely able to combine with silica at common temperature in its usual states, yet when the silica is in an exceedingly fine powder, the alkali is able to dissolve a small quantity; but this action is far slower and less perfect than when the two are strongly heated together.

190. Silica is almost always an ingredient of the soil, and exists there not only in its solid and insoluble form of sand, but also in the soluble condition of silicate of potash or soda; it will easily be seen that as many stones contain silica, they will, whilst gradually decomposing and crumbling down by exposure to the air, constantly add to the soil silica in a very finely divided state, and therefore well adapted to combine with either potash or soda; and as the number of different stones also contain a small quantity of alkali, considerable quantities of silicates of potash and soda are constantly being formed.

191. Silica is found in many plants, such as for example corn and grasses, the stalks of which mainly derive the strength requisite to enable them to grow erect from the silica which they contain. Plants derive this earth from the soil, and are only able to absorb by



their roots the silica which by having combined with alkali, has become soluble in water, and is consequently able to enter into the structure of the plant.

192. When a stack of hay or straw has been burnt, so that all the volatile or combustible matters have been dissipated, there is found a large quantity of a dark glassy-looking substance, which consists principally of silicate of potash previously existing in the plants, and which being unaltered by the heat given out during their burning, is merely melted, together with other substances contained in the plants, into a glass. This may also very easily be observed by burning a piece of straw in the flame of a candle : abundant white ashes will be left, which continue to retain nearly the form of the straw, and which, if kept in the flame of a candle, melt into an imperfect sort of glass ; this is principally silicate of potash.

193. The quantity of this substance which exists in the stems of different plants varies much,—some, such as the plants used for polishing, commonly called Dutch rushes, contain even more than hay or straw ; and cane contains so much silica, that it appears completely coated with flint.

194. Silica and alumine, which are generally the two principal constituents of soils, differ very greatly in their respective uses. The former is of importance, both chemically and mechanically. Chemically, as forming a soluble compound with alkali, and thus being absorbed by the roots of plants, and conferring strength and stability to their structures ; and mechanically, by diminish-



ing the extreme closeness and tenacity of alumine, and thus, by making the soil more porous and open, allowing the passage of air and water through it, and enabling the roots of plants more easily to penetrate it than they could, were it wholly composed of alumine.

195. On the other hand, the use of alumine is principally mechanical, tending to keep the soil moist from its attraction for water, and likewise being highly useful in absorbing ammonia, both from the air and from all decaying substances evolving it in the vicinity, by virtue of that property which many porous substances, and more especially charcoal, possess, of absorbing or condensing that gas (155), which, as we shall shortly show, is of great importance in the growth of plants.

196. Besides the three earthy bases already spoken of, and a few others of far less importance, as they are very rare, and only to be found in particular places, there are a numerous series of bases called metallic oxides, several of which are of great importance in the arts, and one of which is almost always present in minute quantity in the soil.

197. Most of the common metals, such as iron, lead, and zinc, gradually tarnish, and become rusty when exposed to the air: the reason of this is that they have a strong affinity for oxygen, and under these circumstances they gradually become covered with a film of an oxide, or compound of the metal with oxygen. These oxides are mostly bases, and form with acids a very numerous series of salts.



198. The most widely diffused and abundant of all the metallic oxides, as well as that which is the most important and valuable in the arts, is the oxide of iron, which exists in different quantities in a great variety of stones, is very common in soils, and is constantly present in very small quantity in the blood of animals.

199. Iron is very rarely indeed found native in its pure metallic state, but is usually met with in the form of an oxide, either pure or combined with carbonic acid, and mixed with alumine and silica. Thus the rich black and red iron ores of Cumberland and other places are nearly pure oxide of iron, whilst the common clay iron-stones, as they are called, of Staffordshire and Wales, are principally carbonate of iron, mixed with various proportions of alumine and silica.

200. The important art of smelting iron is entirely a chemical operation, and depends mainly upon the fact, that at a high temperature, carbon has a stronger affinity for oxygen than iron has; and hence when the native oxide of iron is heated with coal or charcoal, it is decomposed, and carbonic acid gas and metallic iron are the results of the process.

201. When those ores are smelted which consist principally of oxide of iron, they are at once heated with carbon; but when the clay iron-stones are used—and they are the ores most commonly employed—they are first submitted to a preparatory process something like the burning of lime, in order to expel the carbonic acid



gas which they contain; and when thus converted into oxide of iron, they are mixed with carbon and lime, the use of the latter being to combine with the silica or silicic acid and alumine, and form with them a fusible compound called a slag; which greatly assists in the melting and running together of the newly-reduced iron.

202. Iron is able to form two distinct compounds with oxygen, according to the quantity of that gas with which it combines: when it is combined with two-sevenths of its weight of oxygen, it constitutes a black substance, which is called the protoxide, and when combined with three-sevenths, forms a brownish-red substance, called the peroxide. These oxides are both bases, and each forms a distinct series of salts by combining with acids; but the salts formed by the protoxide have always a tendency to absorb oxygen from the air, and thus become converted into the salts of the peroxide.

203. The colour of a great many stones and soils is principally caused by the presence of a small quantity of either the peroxide of iron, or of a mixture of both its oxides.

204. The rusting of iron, which proceeds so rapidly when iron is exposed to damp air, is caused by the attraction which the metal has for oxygen. It is very remarkable that iron is unable to combine with the free oxygen always in the air, but is able to take it from its compound with hydrogen; for we find that in dry air,



iron remains clean and bright for a long time, but very rapidly rusts when exposed to the joint action of air, carbonic acid gas, and moisture, under which circumstances water is decomposed and oxide of iron formed.

205. The rust of iron is not a pure oxide, but commonly a mixture of both oxides with a portion of carbonate or compound of the protoxide with carbonic acid.

206. Although iron cannot combine with the free oxygen of the air at ordinary temperatures, yet when strongly heated it rapidly absorbs oxygen, and then becomes converted into a black scaly oxide; whenever a piece of iron is heated in the fire, a quantity of a brittle, black oxide is formed on its surface, which easily rubs off the iron—and hence this metal is gradually worn away by exposure to fire; it is from this reason that the iron pokers, fire-bars, and other things much exposed to the fire, gradually get thinner and thinner from the constant oxidation of the surface whilst hot, and removal by friction of the brittle coat of oxide thus formed.

207. When a piece of iron is very strongly heated, it at last begins to *burn*, that is to say, the combination of the external part with oxygen goes on so rapidly, and evolves so much heat, that the whole mass of iron is kept sufficiently hot to continue this process of combination, and in consequence the iron glows brightly, gives off abundance of sparks, and runs down in drops of the melted oxide for some time after it has been



removed from the fire in which it was heated. In fact, iron, when thus strongly heated, would catch fire and continue to burn like charcoal, if it were not that the crust of oxide formed protects the metal from further oxidation, and soon stops the combustion.

208. One of the most common and abundant of the ores of iron is called pyrites, which is a compound of iron and sulphur; it is not used in the manufacture of iron, because it is very difficult to separate the sulphur completely from the iron, and the native oxides and carbonate are far more convenient sources of the metal.

209. Pyrites, or sulphuret of iron, is however a substance of considerable importance in the arts, being one of the sources of sulphur, which is obtained by heating pyrites in an oven, so constructed that the sulphur which is expelled in the state of vapour from the pyrites is cooled and condensed into the solid form in a different part of the oven.

210. Pyrites, when exposed to the air, soon crumbles down, and undergoes a very curious change, in consequence of absorbing and combining with oxygen. Both the iron and the sulphur combine with oxygen, and form oxide of iron and sulphuric acid; and hence the result of this action is sulphate of iron, or common green vitriol, a salt much used in the arts for a variety of purposes. Pyrites is most abundantly found in the form of variously-shaped balls imbedded in chalk; and as the chalk-hills on the sea-side gradually wear away from the action of the sea and weather, these



balls of pyrites get exposed to the air, and fall down on the beach, whence they are collected for the use of manufacturers. Many springs of water contain a small quantity of iron, in consequence of which they have a peculiar inky taste; this is usually derived from the gradual oxidation of sulphuret of iron,—and from the same reason soils also sometimes contain traces of this salt.

211. Sulphuret of iron is likewise very commonly found in coal, being sometimes dispersed throughout it in the form of little yellow shining particles, and sometimes as layers or lumps of the solid sulphuret; its presence in coal is for some purposes highly objectionable; because, whether the coal is burnt in its crude state, or after being converted into coke, a quantity of sulphurous acid gas is always formed by the imperfect combustion of the sulphur; and that nauseous-smelling gas causes serious mischief in several operations in the arts, and consequently in such cases coal free from sulphuret of iron can only be employed. It is the presence of this substance in coal that causes the strong suffocating smell of sulphurous acid sometimes given out by coal and coke fires.

212. The oxides of iron are quite insoluble in water, but many of the salts of iron, like the sulphate, are readily soluble in it; the solutions of these salts are all decomposed when a little alkali is added to them,—this combines with the acid, and the oxide of iron is separated as an insoluble powder.



213. The only other metal of much importance in connection with vegetable chemistry is manganese; its oxide is occasionally present in soils, though only in small quantity. In all its general characters it is very similar to iron, and, like that metal, it has a strong affinity for oxygen. It is, however, far less abundant or common than iron.

214. It is unnecessary further to describe the metallic oxides and salts, as the oxides and salts of iron are by far of the most interest in relation to plants; the other oxides, though very important in the arts, are scarcely ever found in the soil, or in any vegetable substances.

215. What has been said of iron is, however, generally speaking, applicable to the other metals; they all have a more or less powerful affinity for oxygen, and under proper circumstances combine with it: some have so strong an affinity for it that they are able to decompose water, and hence rust when exposed to the weather; others again are unable to combine with it at common temperatures, but oxidise rapidly when heated; and some have so weak an affinity for oxygen, that they are unable to combine with it unless under the most favourable circumstances, such as, for example, when boiled in strong nitric acid, which, from the large quantity of oxygen it contains, is a very powerful oxidising agent (103), and is therefore able rapidly to corrode most of the metals.

216. Some of the metals only combine with oxygen in one proportion, whilst others combine in two or more



relative proportions, and form different oxides. Thus, for example, when lead is melted over a fire and kept for a long time exposed to the air, it gradually combines with oxygen, and becomes converted into a yellow-coloured substance, called litharge; this is an oxide of lead, and if it be kept heated, it absorbs an additional quantity of oxygen, and passes into a brilliant red substance, called minium, or red lead; this is a second oxide, and contains more oxygen than litharge does. Besides these two oxides, there is yet a third, which cannot be formed by merely heating red lead and exposing it to the air, but which is easily made by boiling red lead in nitric acid; it then acquires a third dose of oxygen, and becomes dark brown.

217. These oxides are not all bases; they are not all able to combine with acids and form salts, but usually only one, or sometimes two, of the oxides of a metal are bases: thus, only one of the three oxides of lead, that containing least oxygen, is a base, and when combined with carbonic acid, forms white lead, a substance of very great importance, as being better suited than any other we are acquainted with for the manufacture of paint. The other two oxides of lead are unable to combine with acids, and therefore, when acted on by strong acids, they part with some of the oxygen they contain, and are then able to combine with the acid, being converted into the protoxide, which is a base.

218. Modern discoveries have shown that both the earths and alkalies are, in fact, the oxides of peculiar



and very oxidisable metals (130). Hence the earths, alkalies, and ordinary metallic oxides, are all classed together under the general term base, they combine with acids to form salts; thus gypsum or sulphate of lime is a compound of lime, which is the oxide of a peculiar metal and sulphuric acid. Green vitriol or sulphate of iron, is a compound of oxide of iron and sulphuric acid; and Cheltenham salts, or sulphate of soda, consists of soda, (the oxide of sodium), and sulphuric acid.

219. To speak correctly, green vitriol should be called sulphate of oxide of iron, but such a system would be very inconvenient; it is therefore customary, when speaking of the salts formed by the oxide of a metal, merely to call them by the name of the metal. Hence when chemists speak of sulphate of iron, and carbonate of lead, they always mean salts of the oxides of those metals; the metals themselves not being bases, could not combine with the acids to form salts.



## CHAPTER IV.

ORGANIC MATTER—THE COMPOSITION OF VEGETABLE  
AND ANIMAL SUBSTANCES.

220. WE have now very briefly described most of those substances which are of importance in studying vegetable chemistry. Before explaining the action which they have on the growth of plants, it will be proper to go a little more into detail respecting the nature of organic matter; that is to say, the various compound substances which constitute the bodies of animals and plants.

221. Most of the substances hitherto described, such as water, ammonia, carbonic acid, common salt, &c., consist wholly of two elements, and are sometimes called *binary compounds*. On the contrary, all animal and vegetable substances consist of three or four elements, and are sometimes termed *ternary* or *quaternary* compounds. It has been already stated that plants and animals are composed of carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen (58); it is very important to understand clearly the nature of the compounds formed by these elements.

222. When we endeavour to analyze a plant, that is to say, to ascertain of what it is composed, we find that the greater part of it consists of carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and a small proportion of nitrogen, combined



together. When we burn it, or in any other way weaken the affinity which the elements have for each other, they separate, and by combining together, generally form water, carbonic acid gas, and ammonia.

223. When a plant is boiled in water, it is found that part of the plant dissolves in the water, whilst part remains insoluble, and we are unable by long-continued boiling to make the whole of it dissolve in the water. These, then, are two great divisions of vegetable matter—that which is soluble in water, and that which is not. By very simple operations of this kind it is easy to discover that plants are composed of a variety of different substances, readily distinguished from each other by the different properties which they possess. Of those which are usually found in all plants, the most abundant are called lignin, starch, gum, sugar, gluten, and albumen. The four former consist of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen alone, whilst the two latter contain, in addition to these elements, a portion of nitrogen.

224. Lignin or woody fibre exists in almost all plants; it constitutes the greater part of the stem, bark, and branches of trees, and is present, though in smaller quantity, in the leaves and flowers of trees, shrubs, and succulent plants. It is the most solid constituent of plants; giving strength to those parts in which any quantity of it exists. It may readily be separated from the other matters with which it is associated, by bruising or long-continued boiling: by either of these means the



softer or more soluble substances may be separated, and pure lignin is left. In the process for preparing flax, the stems of the flax plant are allowed to remain in water for some time; the green, soft parts decay, and at last nothing but the lignin or woody fibre is left.

225. Pure lignin is a white tough fibrous substance, composed of an infinite number of very fine threads or fibres perfectly insoluble in water, and not at all altered by keeping in dry air. When heated in the fire it soon turns brown, being partially decomposed; if it be still further heated, it takes fire and burns with a bright flame, the results of its combustion being water and carbonic acid gas.

226. Starch is almost always found in considerable quantity in all parts of plants. When pure, it is a white powder, insoluble in cold water, but readily dissolving in that fluid when boiling hot. There are many different varieties of starch, distinguished from one another by some peculiar property, and which have received various names, according to the plant from which they are obtained. Common wheat-starch, which exists in such large quantities in the seed of wheat, is a good example of the general character of this substance.

227. When grated potatoes are placed on a sieve, under a stream of water, a very large quantity of starch may be washed out. The starch will soon settle to the bottom of the water, the soluble matters of the potato will be dissolved, and at last there will remain on the sieve little else besides the lignin or fibre which the potatoes contained.



228. Potato-flour, arrow-root, tapioca, and sago, are all varieties of starch. They all agree in general chemical characters with wheat-starch, and, like it, consist of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen, rather less than one half of their weight consisting of oxygen.

229. Under the name of Gum are included several substances, which differ considerably in their nature and properties. They all agree in being tasteless, or nearly so ; but some dissolve readily in water, and form a clear transparent solution ; whilst others do not dissolve, but merely soften and swell up in water, forming a gelatinous mass. Gum arabic is a good example of the first kind, whilst common cherry-tree gum belongs to the insoluble variety of gum.

230. A solution of gum in water is called mucilage ; comparatively a small quantity of gum renders water thick and slimy : such a solution feels sticky to the fingers ; it dries slowly, and leaves a small quantity of gum on the surface of any substance over which it has been spread. The juices of many plants are sticky from the quantity of gum which they contain.

231. Gum consists of the same elements as starch, namely, oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon ; but it contains a rather larger proportion of oxygen than starch does.

232. Associated with gum in many plants, there is found a substance which dissolves easily in water, and like gum, forms a sticky thick solution ; it is distinguished readily from gum, however, by possessing a sweet taste, whilst gum is insipid or tasteless ; it is called sugar or saccharine matter, under which



names a considerable variety of different substances are included.

233. Sugars are divided into two classes : those which are crystallizable, and those which are uncrystallizable, that is to say, those which, when their solution in water is evaporated, are obtained in the form of regular-shaped little grains, like common cane sugar, and those which under these circumstances do not form regular grains, but remain thick viscid liquids, like treacle.

234. Sugar exists in a great many vegetables, but it very frequently happens that there are so many other substances present, that the sweet taste of the sugar is quite hidden. It is only in those plants which contain a very large proportion of sugar, or which do not contain any strong-tasted substances, that we are able to recognise sugar by its sweet taste. Most ripe fruits contain a large quantity of sugar ; it is likewise found abundantly in the sap of a good many trees, from some of which it is procured in such quantities as to be extracted as an article of commerce.

235. The composition of sugar is similar to that of starch ; the proportions in which its three elements, oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon, are united together are very nearly the same as the composition of starch. The varieties of sugar contain slightly different proportions of these elements : thus, the composition of cane sugar is not precisely the same as that of sugar obtained from beet-root, or other plants.

236. Gluten and albumen in many respects are very



similar; they exist in plants in smaller quantities than the three substances already described; but they are nevertheless most important, and of especial interest, as their presence in vegetables is essential to their value as food.

237. When the clear juice of any plant is boiled, there usually collects on the surface a thick green scum, which may easily be separated by straining the liquor through linen. This scum consists almost entirely of albumen and gluten; they are associated together, and exist in greater or less quantity in almost all plants. In general the seeds of plants contain even a larger proportion of these substances, than the plants themselves.

238. The flour of wheat contains a considerable proportion of gluten; it may be readily separated from flour by tying a portion of thick paste in a piece of linen, and then kneading the paste thus enclosed in linen under a stream of cold water; by this process all the starch will gradually be washed out, and at last there will remain in the linen nothing but gluten.

239. Pure gluten, when thus obtained, is a greyish white, soft, solid substance, elastic and tough, and almost resembling a piece of animal skin in appearance; it may be dried by carefully warming it till all the water which it contains is evaporated; and when dry may be preserved for a long time without undergoing any change.

240. In its moist state, or as it is obtained, by washing a thick paste of flour in the manner above described, gluten is very liable to decompose. Both this substance



and likewise albumen contain nitrogen ; and all organic substances containing nitrogen have a great tendency to putrefy.

241. Every one knows that plants possess very various properties : some are noted for their fragrant smell, others for the brilliant colours they produce ; some yield oils, others resins, and a great many are valued for their peculiar medicinal qualities : all these various properties are caused by the presence of a certain quantity of some organic substance, some peculiar compound of oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, and nitrogen, which is formed by the plant.

242. The number of these organic substances which have been discovered in plants is very great ; it is quite unnecessary to describe or even enumerate them all ; it will be sufficient to mention very briefly the most important of them, arranged under three or four heads.

243. Amongst the substances formed by plants is a numerous series of organic acids, substances composed of oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon, which possess acid powers, and combine eagerly with bases to form neutral salts ; in general they do not exist in plants in the free state, but are combined with various bases derived from the soil ; sometimes they are found in the state of perfectly neutral salts, but more frequently they form acid salts, that is to say, there is more acid than the base is able to neutralize ; such plants have a sour taste.

244. When the salts of organic acids are burned or strongly heated, the acids are decomposed ; in these cases



the base, which was previously combined with the organic acid, is found after its destruction combined with carbonic acid in the state of a carbonate.

245. The most important of the organic acids are vinegar, citric, tartaric, malic, and oxalic acids. There are few plants which do not contain a small portion of one or other of these acids, either in the free state, or else combined with a base. Unripe fruit contains a considerable quantity of malic and tartaric acids; and the leaves and stems of many plants, such as sorrel and rhubarb, have a strong sour taste from the presence of oxalic and malic acids.

246. The oily substances formed by plants are likewise very numerous; they are of two kinds, fixed and volatile, those which when exposed to the air remain without diminishing in bulk, and those which when so exposed evaporate. Olive oil, castor oil, and cocoa-nut oil, belong to the former class; whilst oil of lavender, oil of cloves, and oil of lemons, are volatile oils.

247. All vegetable oils, whether fixed or volatile, contain oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon; they are all combustible, and when burning form water and carbonic acid gas. Oils are found in all parts of plants, but rather more abundantly in the seeds and fruits than in other parts. The seeds of some plants, such as the poppy, linseed, rape, and mustard, contain frequently nearly half their weight of oil.

248. The resins, which are not less numerous than the oils, resemble them in chemical composition and



combustibility; they are formed in large quantity by many plants, and are very frequently seen adhering in large transparent drops to the bark of trees which produce them. Resins very frequently look very like gum, but they may readily be distinguished from gum by the fact that they are quite insoluble in water, whilst gum easily dissolves or softens in that fluid (233). Most of the common resins dissolve in spirit of wine.

249. There are likewise found a number of gum-resins, as they are called, which have some of the properties of gum, and yet resemble resins; these are mixtures of gum and resin. They dissolve, though but imperfectly, in both water and spirit of wine.

250. Plants contain an immense variety of different colouring matters, all of which, however, when analyzed, are found to consist of nothing but oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon, or these three with the addition of nitrogen. The nature and properties of these substances are as various as their colours. They are all destroyed by heat, which burns them, like all the other varieties of organic matter. When burnt, the results are water, carbonic acid, and frequently ammonia.

251. Lastly, there are a number of peculiar vegetable substances, to the presence of which in plants their medicinal properties are in many cases due. Chemists have obtained from various plants a great number of substances called "active principles," some of which are highly poisonous, whilst others in small quantities are valuable medicines. Amongst this class of substances



are the vegetable alkalies, as they are called ; these are compounds of oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, and nitrogen, which possess the power of combining with acids and forming neutral salts ; they are of course destroyed by heat, and whilst burning give off the usual results of the combustion of organic matter—water, carbonic acid, and ammonia.

252. It is certainly a very surprising fact, that so many different substances should be formed by the combination of the same elements in different proportions. Nothing can well be more dissimilar than oil and sugar, flax and starch ; yet it is easily proved that they all consist of the same elements.

253. The knowledge of this might naturally lead one to suppose that, if the whole difference between such substances consists in the relative proportions of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen which they contain, it might be possible, by some chemical operation, to take away a small portion of carbon or hydrogen, and thus, by altering the relative proportions of the elements, to convert starch into gum, or flax into starch. Now this can really be done ; and strange as it may appear, it is nevertheless true, that, by very simple means, it is easy to change gum, starch, and lignin, &c. into each other.

254. Sugar, spirit of wine, and vinegar, consist of the same elements : they contain oxygen, carbon, and hydrogen ; but the elements are united in different proportions ; the properties of these three substances are as opposite as they well can be, and yet the whole differ-



ence is in the proportions of their elements. It is well known that when a solution of sugar ferments, it is changed into spirit; it parts with a portion of carbon and oxygen, and the elements left constitute spirit; hence, during fermentation carbonic acid is given off (77). Again, when spirit and water is exposed to the air and moderate warmth, it soon changes into vinegar; this change is wholly effected by the absorption of a little oxygen from the air.

255. Fermentation is a very singular process, and a knowledge of the effects which it produces enables us to understand many changes which would otherwise appear incomprehensible. Under ordinary circumstances, pure sugar, dry or dissolved in water, may be kept for a long time without its undergoing any change; when, however, it is mixed with a small quantity of certain matters, it ferments and is changed into spirit. The substance added does not combine with the sugar or its elements, but, whilst itself decomposing, it causes the sugar also to change.

256. Fermentation, then, is the spontaneous decomposition of a substance, occasioned by the presence of a small quantity of decomposing matter. The yeast, or ferment of beer, possesses the power of inducing the decomposition of sugar and similar substances when mixed with them. Common yeast, and all substances which possess the power of causing fermentation, contain nitrogen; they are compounds of carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen, and are accordingly very liable to decompose.



257. The various vegetable substances, though so different in properties, are very similar in chemical composition, and may for the most part be readily converted or changed into each other by simple means. They may, when pure, be preserved unchanged for an unlimited time, if quite dry; but when exposed to air and moisture they sooner or later begin to decompose. Those which consist of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen alone, are far less prone to decompose than those which contain in addition nitrogen; and these latter, when decaying, possess the singular property of causing substances which do not contain nitrogen to decompose or change likewise.

258. When vegetable substances, such as lignin or sugar, are burnt in the air, water and carbonic acid are produced; precisely the same substances are formed by decay as by combustion. When gluten and albumen are burnt, water, carbonic acid, and ammonia are formed.

259. All plants contain a small quantity of inorganic matter. Besides the lignin, gum, sugar, starch, gluten, and other similar substances which consist of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen, and which burn in the air when heated, there are always found substances which cannot burn, but which are of an earthy nature; these substances remain as ashes, when plants are burnt.

260. The inorganic substances found in plants are by no means numerous; the most common are salts of lime, potash, soda, magnesia, and silica. These sub-



stances are found in the ashes of plants, combined with carbonic, sulphuric, phosphoric, and some other acids.

261. The ashes of plants very frequently contain a considerable quantity of carbonate of potash (127); this salt does not exist in the growing plants, but is formed during their combustion. Potash is found in a very great number of plants, sometimes in combination with sulphuric acid or silica, but more commonly united to tartaric, oxalic, or some other organic acid, constituting a tartrate, oxalate, or other salt of potash. When plants are burned, all the organic acids are burned, as well as the lignin and similar substances which they contain; consequently, although in living plants the potash is combined with organic acids to form neutral salts, yet, as these acids are destroyed when plants are burned, caustic potash is left (128), which, of course, combines with carbonic acid to form carbonate of potash (244).

262. In the same way, carbonate of soda is frequently formed by burning plants which contain salts of soda united to various organic acids.

263. The ashes of many plants contain silica (191), generally in combination with either potash or soda.

264. Lime is almost invariably found in the ashes of all plants, and frequently constitutes a large proportion of the earthy substances present in them. It sometimes exists in combination with sulphuric acid and sulphate of lime (166), but far more commonly united to phosphoric acid, or in the state of phosphate of lime (170).



It is likewise very frequently found in considerable quantity in plants, combined with organic acids; hence the ashes of plants commonly contain a portion of carbonate of lime, which is formed in a similar manner to the carbonate of potash already described (261).

265. Magnesia is very often found associated with lime, more especially in the state of phosphate of magnesia (179).

266. The ashes of many plants contain a trace of oxide of iron, and occasionally also of the oxide of manganese.

267. The bodies of all living animals contain a considerable quantity of water; when this is evaporated by heat, there remain certain substances, which may be readily separated from each other in consequence of the different properties which they possess, just in the same way that we can separate the various substances which compose plants (223).

268. The constituents of the bodies of animals may be naturally divided into the earthy or inorganic matters, such as the bones, and the organic substances, of which the softer parts of animals are composed.

269. Animal substances, for the most part, are rather more complicated in their nature than vegetable substances; they almost all consist of oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, and nitrogen; in consequence of the presence of this latter element, they are more liable to decay (245) than most vegetable substances are.

270. The principal substances which compose the



bodies of animals, and which are therefore called proximate animal principles, are, albumen, gelatin, fibrin, and fat, or oily substances ; besides these, chemists have detected a multitude of other substances ; but these are the most important, or those which constitute the greater bulk of animal matter.

271. There are many varieties of albumen and fibrin, which, in consequence of peculiar properties or slight differences in composition, have received different names ; it is unnecessary to study the nature of all these substances ; we may include them under the general terms albumen and fibrin.

272. Albumen is a white solid substance, which swells up and dissolves in water, forming a clear transparent solution. Albumen is separated from its solution in water by the addition of certain acids, and also by the action of heat ; when a clear solution of albumen is boiled, the albumen separates in the form of a white curd or scum.

273. This substance exists in many parts of the animal system. The white of egg consists of hardly anything else ; when a fresh egg is boiled, the albumen separates as a white curd ; it coagulates, or becomes insoluble in water. Albumen occurs, in a state of solution, in blood and many of the liquids and softer parts of animal bodies. It is also found in a dry or solid form.

274. Dry albumen may be kept for a long time without undergoing decomposition ; but in solution, or when



wet, it is very liable to change: when heated, it burns; and the results of its decay, as well as its combustion, are, water, carbonic acid, and ammonia.

275. The muscle or flesh of animals consists principally of fibrin, associated with albumen and gelatin; fibrin is insoluble in hot or cold water; when dry, it may be easily preserved; but when moist, like albumen and gelatin, it soon begins to decompose. The composition of fibrin is identical with that of albumen; they consist of the same elements, united together in the same proportions.

276. Gelatin, the third great principle of animal matter, is a tough, colourless substance; in cold water, it very slowly softens and dissolves; in boiling water, it dissolves more readily, and forms a solution which becomes a jelly as it cools. The skin, horns, and hoofs of animals consist principally of hard, dry gelatin; and it likewise occurs in many of the softer parts of the body, associated with albumen. Common glue and isinglass consist almost wholly of gelatin; the former is prepared by boiling the clippings of skin, refuse horns, hoofs, and similar matters, in water; a strong solution of gelatin is thus obtained, which, as it cools, becomes a jelly; this jelly, cut into slices and dried, is the glue of the shops.

277. The fat of animals is perfectly similar in nature to vegetable oil; some kinds of fat are solid, others fluid, at common temperature; but they are all fluid when made sufficiently hot; animal oils, like those of



vegetable origin, consist of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen, and, when burnt, they form carbonic acid and water.

278. When flesh or other animal matters are burnt, there remains a small quantity of inorganic ash, principally salts of lime, magnesia, potash, and soda; some animal substances, such as, for example, the blood, contain a small quantity of oxide of iron.

279. The bones of animals contain a very large proportion of earthy matters; and, indeed, derive their strength and solidity principally from the quantity of those substances which they contain. When bones are burnt, there remains, after the combustion of all the organic matter which they contain, about three quarters of their weight of earthy substances; these are principally carbonate and phosphate of lime; bones consist of phosphate and carbonate of lime, cemented together, as it were, with gelatin and a little albumen; they also contain a small portion of oil. Ivory and the teeth of animals are composed of the same substances as bone. Hoofs and horn likewise contain phosphate and carbonate of lime, but in far less quantity; they consist principally of gelatin (276).

280. The same remarkable similarity of chemical composition which is found amongst vegetable substances is likewise observed amongst those of animal origin; the various substances which constitute the bodies of animals, are, for the most part, almost identical in composition, and, like vegetable substances, they appear more or less convertible into each other.



A very slight alteration in the relative proportion of the elements of which they consist causes very great differences in their nature and properties; and in consequence of the very peculiar nature of nitrogen (91), all substances which contain it are exceedingly liable to change.

281. On comparing together the various substances which constitute animal and vegetable matter, it is observed that lignin, gum, sugar, and starch, are all perfectly distinct in nature and properties from any of the substances usually found in the bodies of animals: a remarkable similarity, however, exists between the gluten, albumen, and oily substances of plants, and certain forms of animal matters.

282. The albumen and gluten of plants closely resemble the albumen and fibrin of animals; indeed, some of the varieties of these substances may be said to be absolutely identical; they consist of the same elements, and possess the same properties: thus, for example, there is no chemical difference between that variety of albumen which exists in peas, beans, and other leguminous seeds, which is called legumine, and the animal albumen which is found in milk, cheese, &c., and called casein.

283. The knowledge of this fact, that the gluten and albumen of plants are identical in composition with some of the most common forms of animal matter, throws great light on the nutrition of animals. It shows that the gluten and albumen of plants used as food may



immediately enter into the system of the animal ; whilst gum, starch, sugar, &c., must undergo a change before they can constitute a part of the body of an animal.

284. It has already been stated that vegetable and animal oils consist of the same three elements ; many of these oils contain precisely the same proportions of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen : hence there is good reason to believe that the oil existing in many vegetables used as food may contribute to the formation of fat, without undergoing any change.

285. Bearing in mind, then, that the strength of man and animals depends mainly on muscle, and that the formation of muscle is greatly dependent on the amount of organic matter containing nitrogen in their food, it becomes a matter of the first importance to study the mode of increasing the quantity of these matters in food.

286. Some animals feed wholly on vegetable food ; others feed wholly, or in part, on flesh : in either case they derive their nitrogen, or the substances containing it, from plants. Animals do not appear to have any power of absorbing nitrogen from the air ; all the albumen, fibrin, &c., which they contain, is therefore either directly or indirectly obtained from plants.



## CHAPTER V.

## THE FOOD OF PLANTS—ITS NATURE AND SOURCES.

287. HAVING shortly described the elements of vegetable matter, and enumerated the principal compounds of those elements which are found in plants, we may at once proceed to consider the sources of the food of plants; that is to say, the means naturally provided to insure to them a due supply of the various substances necessary to their growth, namely, oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, nitrogen, and the various earthy and saline substances which are always found in plants.

288. There are only two sources whence it is possible for plants to derive these matters, namely, the air and the soil; let us inquire what substances they can obtain in this manner, and how they avail themselves of the food thus offered to them.

289. It has been already stated that the air at all times contains a small quantity of carbonic acid gas (28); it likewise always contains a still more minute proportion of ammonia, which is constantly being formed by decay. Here, then, we see that the air contains the four elements of organic matter; and when, in addition to these facts, we remember that the air is always more or less damp, it is easy to understand that



plants can derive from the air alone the greater part of the substances which they require.

290. Although the air contains so large a proportion of oxygen, and although that substance is in a free state,—that is to say, not combined with any element, but ready to combine with any substance for which it has an affinity,—yet it does not seem that plants derive the oxygen which they contain directly from the air; and, in the same way, there is no evidence to show that they are able to absorb nitrogen from the air: it appears that plants can only absorb these substances when in a state of combination.

291. It might have been supposed that plants would obtain the nitrogen which they require directly from the air, which contains nearly four-fifths of that gas; but there is very good reason to believe that this is not the case, and that plants can only obtain nitrogen, or assimilate it, as chemists say, by absorbing it in combination with some other substance.

292. What has just been said with regard to oxygen and nitrogen, is equally applicable to carbon and hydrogen: the former is a solid substance, and therefore, as one might rightly conclude, plants cannot absorb it in the separate state; when combined with oxygen in the form of carbonic acid gas, and probably also when in the form of carburetted hydrogen (80), it can be absorbed by plants. Hydrogen has never been found in the air, except in a state of combination. It may be laid down as a rule, that plants can only absorb oxygen,



hydrogen, carbon, and nitrogen in a state of combination, and moreover that these compounds, to be absorbed, must be either fluid or gaseous.

293. The soil consists of silica, alumina, lime, magnesia, oxide of iron, small quantities of various alkaline and earthy salts, and a portion of decaying organic matter. It likewise contains water, and the small quantity of ammonia and carbonic acid which the rain has brought down from the air. Plants cannot derive the elements of organic matter from the earthy constituents of the soil, nor from the organic matter which it may contain, unless there is air present ; by the action of air these substances decay, and are gradually changed into gases, which plants can absorb.

294. It is commonly supposed that plants derive the whole of their food from the soil ; but this is a great error : it is a fact well ascertained by chemical experiments that plants derive the greater part of their nourishment from the air, although the soil is equally essential to their growth.

295. The earthy substances contained in plants are principally obtained from the soil ; it is true that the air contains exceedingly minute traces of various earthy and saline substances which are suspended in it in the form of dust, but the quantity which plants can derive from this source is comparatively small. The air near the sea-shore, and even to a great distance inland, is frequently loaded with saline particles derived from the sea ; after a storm the quantity of salts thus suspended in the air is very considerable.



296. The fact that some solid substances can be thus carried along in the air, in a state of very fine powder, is important, and well worthy of being remembered, as it explains many apparently mysterious phenomena. It is exceedingly difficult to detect the very minute quantity of solid matter contained in the air, but there is no doubt that it often does exist, although we are not aware of its presence.

297. Setting aside the small quantity of earthy matters which plants may derive from the air, it is evident that the great source of the lime, potash, and other similar substances contained in plants, must be the soil: hence the chemical composition of the soil exerts great influence on the plants which are cultivated in it.

298. The soil or earth is essential to the growth of plants in several distinct ways. It enables them to fix themselves firmly, as from its open, porous nature it allows the roots to extend, in various directions, and obtain a secure hold, so that the plant can grow erect into the air without danger of being blown away by the winds. The soil likewise supplies them with substances essential to their growth: such as carbonic acid and ammonia, either generated by the decay of substances which the soil naturally contains, or absorbed from the air; and also yields them the earthy and alkaline salts which they require.

299. The soil is, as may be supposed, very variable in composition; its nature is generally a good deal



dependent on the subsoil and stony matters which are buried beneath the surface, many of which are slowly decomposing or crumbling away, and adding to the soil the substances of which they consisted.

300. This gradual decomposition of stony particles in the soil is caused by the action of the air. Many of the common rocks are compounds of several different earthy and alkaline substances, in which silica, united to lime, alumine, potash, and soda, forms silicates of those or similar bases.

301. Silicates of this kind, or natural compounds containing silica in combination with several earthy and alkaline bases, are quite insoluble in water, and are scarcely acted on even by the strongest acids; nevertheless they gradually decompose when exposed to the air. Under the joint action of the moisture and carbonic acid in the air, these compounds are disintegrated, carbonate of potash or soda is formed, and in part washed away by the rain, whilst the insoluble earthy bases are left in the form of a very fine powder.

302. The most abundant constituent of soil is commonly silica, which frequently forms nearly nine-tenths of the whole of its weight; but this is by no means always the case, for in calcareous or limestone countries we frequently find soils containing a very large quantity of lime; whilst others again contain a large proportion of alumine. These differences in the proportion of the earthy components of the soil give rise to the varieties of light or free, and stiff or clayey soils, which are also



modified by the presence of a greater or less quantity of organic substances.

303. Soils differ greatly in their mechanical as well as in their chemical nature. The same substances constitute a soil possessing very different properties according as they are in the form of little grains like sand, or in very fine powder. This state of mechanical division is of great importance for several reasons, and most particularly in relation to water. A soil containing a large quantity of alumine is generally known by its stiff, tenacious character, and is remarkable for its great retentive power for water; whilst those consisting principally of silica, and more especially those in which it exists in the form of sand, are generally light and porous soils, and far less retentive of water.

304. The best soils are those in which the earthy constituents are so proportioned that the light, porous qualities of the one are balanced by the close, retentive properties of the others; for they are then most uniformly suitable to vegetation.

305. The silica and alumine in soils are of course almost wholly free and uncombined with any acid, as the former is not a base, and the latter has hardly any affinity for the weaker acids, such as the carbonic. Small quantities of silica are almost always found in soils, combined with either soda or potash, forming those curious compounds before alluded to, in which the silica seems to play the part of an acid (185); soils never contain more than a very small quantity of these substances;



but it is evident that plants, such as grasses, which contain silica, must obtain it from the soil, by gradually absorbing it in combination with alkali dissolved in water.

306. Lime and magnesia, both which have a powerful affinity for acids, are never present in the soil except in combination with some acid, and this is most commonly the carbonic; the former substance is also not unfrequently found combined with sulphuric acid, constituting gypsum, or sulphate of lime.

307. The oxides of iron in the soil are usually uncombined, as they have not sufficient attraction for carbonic acid to combine with that gas, which is always present in the air. They in great measure occasion the variations of colour observed amongst soils; for according as the iron is in the state of protoxide or peroxide, it gives to the soil a black or brownish-red colour.

308. It must not be supposed, however, that the colour of soils is wholly dependent on the iron which they contain, or that the blackness of any particular soil is indicative of the presence of protoxide of iron. The decomposing vegetable substances, which all soils contain in greater or less quantity, are usually of a brown or black colour, and therefore not unfrequently give a very dark colour to soil which does not contain any iron.

309. Sulphate of iron is also sometimes present in soils in very small quantity, being formed by the gradual oxidation of sulphuret of iron in the manner pre-



viously mentioned (210). A very minute quantity of this salt of iron confers upon the soil peculiar properties which render it appropriate for particular plants; but a slight increase of its amount is attended with bad results, for, unless in very minute quantity, it is poisonous to plants; and hence such soils as contain much sulphate of iron are invariably barren, or incapable of supporting healthy vegetation.

310. The saline matters in the soil are principally the sulphates, muriates, nitrates, and phosphates, of the alkaline and earthy bases. The nature and quantity of these substances vary considerably, but they never constitute more than a very small portion of the soil; their influence upon vegetation is, however, considerable, for certain plants seem to require particular saline substances, and do not grow well in soils not containing them\*. Thus all kinds of grass and corn contain silica and phosphoric acid: the former substance requires the presence of an alkali, either potash or soda, to render it soluble, and to enable it to enter the roots when it is dissolved in water; whilst the latter is also always associated with a base, which is usually either lime or magnesia. In the same way all plants are found to contain small quantities of similar saline and earthy matters.

311. The nature and quantity of the organic substances in the soil have great influence upon its character and fertility. They act in several ways. By slowly

\* See Appendix.



decaying they present a constant source of carbonic acid, and likewise of ammonia, if they contain nitrogen; whilst, by rendering the soil open and porous, and at the same time augmenting its absorbent powers, they assist in keeping it uniformly moist. They also increase the means which the soil possesses of absorbing and condensing ammonia and carbonic acid from the air.

312. It is a remarkable fact, that a mixture of two or three earths, such as lime, silica, and alumina, is better fitted to absorb moisture and gaseous matter, than either of the earths taken singly; and in the same way, the addition of organic matters to the soil has the effect of increasing this power still further; and, therefore, as was before said, the best soils are those containing a quantity of each of the three earths, mixed with a moderate proportion of decaying organic matters.

313. Some soils contain a very large quantity of organic substances, and indeed not unfrequently consist almost wholly of the remains of vegetables: the different varieties of peat are of this character. In such soils we observe the bad effects of the presence of too much organic matter in a soil. It is thus rendered tough, porous and spongy, so that it is soon saturated with water, or completely dried, by changes of weather. Besides all this, it frequently contains a peculiar acid analogous to humic acid, produced during the decay of vegetable matter, which is hurtful to the growth of plants.

314. Another use of the organic constituents of the soil is, that they furnish to the plants growing on it the



saline substances which they naturally contain, and which not being subject to decay, are gradually washed out by the rains during the decomposition of the organic substances, and are ready to be absorbed by the roots of growing plants.

315. The decay of the vegetable remains in the soil never proceeds so far that the whole of the elements which they contain are converted into carbonic acid and water. The first change which they undergo, when exposed to air and moisture in circumstances favourable to decay, is a diminution of the quantity of oxygen and hydrogen, and, likewise, though in smaller relative proportion, of the carbon which they contain.

316. The result of this is a change of colour, somewhat similar to that produced by slightly burning or singeing them by heat: they become more or less brown, according to the degree to which this change has proceeded. Whilst in this state, they constitute what is called HUMUS, the name by which chemists distinguish all kinds of vegetable matter when in a state of decay, and more especially woody fibre, which indeed usually constitutes a very large proportion of the bulk of plants.

317. This process of decomposition proceeds slowly for a considerable time, the relative proportion of the oxygen and hydrogen to the carbon gradually decreasing, carbonic acid and water being all the time formed, until, at last, the humus ceases to undergo any further change, and then it is termed mould by chemists.

318. In order to understand this process, which is one



of great importance in connexion with the growth of plants, it must be remembered that woody fibre and most vegetable substances consist of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen. Though the elements of these substances are united together in nearly the proportions to form carbon and water, we must nevertheless clearly understand that they are not composed of carbon and water, but that they are distinct compounds of the three elements; and, therefore, of course, that the water produced during their decay, is not merely set at liberty by a process of decomposition, but is formed by the hydrogen which is given off during decay, entering into combination with oxygen.

319. When woody fibre and similar vegetable substances are exposed to air and moisture, they decay; the chemical affinity which binds their elements together seems to be weakened, and the elements acquire a tendency to form new combinations. The oxygen and a portion of the carbon unite and constitute carbonic acid; whilst a portion of the hydrogen combining with oxygen from the air, gives rise to the formation of water.

320. This explains the use of air in facilitating the decay of these substances; for it is evident that if free oxygen be required to combine with the hydrogen, this process cannot go on without a constant supply of fresh air. The rapidity of the decay of vegetable matters in the soil, therefore, depends greatly on the porosity or closeness of the soil, permitting a more or less perfect action of air.



321. In soils containing a large proportion of clay or alumine, the decay of vegetable matter or humus proceeds very slowly, because the close, dense nature of the soil greatly retards the free access of air; though, in other respects, such soils are decidedly favourable to decay, inasmuch as they remain long moist, and a certain degree of moisture is essential to decay.

322. It is necessary to acquire a clear conception of the nature of what is called humus, and the office which it performs in the nutrition of plants. It was formerly supposed that plants derived their carbon from the organic matter of the soil,—that the brown decaying substances called humus were directly absorbed by plants, and their carbon appropriated: it is now known that this is not the case. The real use of humus is, that it constantly generates carbonic acid.

323. When water is poured on humus or decaying vegetable matter, very little of it is dissolved, and the water acquires a pale yellow colour: if, however, the water contains potash or soda, either caustic or in the state of carbonate, it dissolves far more humus, and acquires a deep brown colour: the cause of this is, that the alkalies facilitate the decay of that substance. Under the influence of the alkalies, a peculiar acid is formed, which has accordingly been termed the humic. The brown solution obtained under these circumstances contains humic acid in combination with potash or soda.

324. It has been supposed that this acid might be formed by the action of alkalies on the humus or decay-



ing matters which the soil contains, and that the humates, or compounds of humic acid, thus formed, being absorbed by plants, might supply them with carbon. There is, however, no proof whatever that this really is the case; on the contrary, as has already been stated, there is every reason to believe that decaying vegetable matters merely yield carbon to growing plants, by generating carbonic acid gas.

325. The food of plants, then, is carbonic acid gas, water, and ammonia, partly derived from the air, and partly from the soil; and certain earthy and saline substances, derived almost wholly from the soil. Let us consider the circumstances under which plants are able to absorb and assimilate these substances, and what other conditions are requisite to their growth.

326. The important influence which water has on the changes which vegetable substances are liable to undergo has already been alluded to, when speaking of gluten and the other similar substances which enter into the composition of seeds. All these substances, which, under the joint action of air and moisture, are so liable to undergo various changes, become comparatively fixed and unchangeable, when well dried and protected from the action of water. During the germination of seeds, a great change takes place in the nature of the substances composing them. Carbonic acid is formed by the combination of a portion of the carbon which they contain with the oxygen of the air. The conditions requisite to the germination of seeds are,



therefore, moisture, a certain degree of heat, and the presence of air.

327. Light appears to be prejudicial, and, therefore, darkness may be said to be also necessary to the perfect germination of seeds; and these conditions are all secured by a good soil. The office performed by moisture is, in the first place, principally mechanical, serving to soften and swell up the dry matters composing the seed, and, by assisting in the introduction of air, to facilitate the changes requisite to germination: it likewise acts chemically, its presence being essential to the conversion of starch into gum and sugar. It is also possible that water may be decomposed during germination, its oxygen combining with carbon to form carbonic acid.

328. When seeds germinate in a confined portion of air, we find that the air does not increase in bulk at all; the nitrogen is not at all affected, but the oxygen is found to have combined with a quantity of carbon, and to be converted into carbonic acid, and, in consequence, the insipid and comparatively insoluble starch contained in the seeds has changed into more easily soluble, sweet, and mucilaginous or gummy substances, fit for the nourishment of the embryo plant, before its roots and leaves are sufficiently developed to enable it to derive support from the different sources of food presented to it.

329. When the access of air is prevented, whilst at the same time seeds are exposed to moisture, they are unable to undergo this change; germination, or the growth of the embryo, cannot take place, and the seeds



decay ; a portion of the water is decomposed, and the oxygen and hydrogen which it contained unite with the elements of the vegetable matter, and form carbonic acid, carburetted hydrogen, and other substances.

330. The chemical changes attendant on the process of germination are very different from those which go on during the growth of a complete plant. Before the formation of leaves, and in the very earliest stages of its growth, a plant requires only warmth, moisture, and the presence of air ; but subsequently, it requires, in addition to these, carbonic acid and light.

331. It is the oxygen of the air alone which is essential to the germination of seeds, for the nitrogen being unable to combine with carbon, under ordinary circumstances, is quite useless in diminishing the quantity of that substance contained in the seeds : its presence in the air is, however, very useful, serving to dilute the oxygen and to prevent its acting too rapidly. Seeds are found to germinate very quickly in pure oxygen gas, but the plants produced are weak and unhealthy.

332. In the next stage of the growth of plants, or when they have leaves, they begin to absorb carbon from the air instead of parting with it ; and this they do by decomposing the carbonic acid always present in the air, a power which they possess when exposed to the influence of light.

333. The effects of light in increasing chemical affinity are highly curious, and but very imperfectly understood : there are a good many substances which, although they



have an affinity for each other, cannot combine in the dark. In the same way, that peculiar chemical change which goes on when plants grow, cannot proceed in the dark; the decomposition of carbonic acid and water, and the combination of their elements in order to form lignin or starch, &c., cannot go on without light.

334. When seeds are sown in the earth, they are placed in a situation where they are protected from the action of light, and exposed to the influence of air and moisture; and provided they are sufficiently warm, that is, above the freezing point of water, they will germinate and produce plants. Below that temperature seeds cannot germinate, because, as has been already said, the action of water is in the first instance to soften the seed, and this it cannot effect when so cold as to assume the solid form itself. If buried too deep in the soil, the free access of air to the seeds will be retarded, or even perhaps wholly prevented, and under these circumstances of course they cannot grow.

335. The nature of the soil too is of considerable importance: very clayey soils allow a less perfect action of air than those which are of a more porous and open structure, and in the former, therefore, the process of germination proceeds more slowly.

336. When the young plants appear above the surface of the ground, their mode of growth is changed: they then require air and light, and being no longer preserved by the soil from the action of light, are immediately able to effect the decomposition of carbonic acid.



337. The roots of a plant require little more than moisture. The water which they obtain from the soil contains those saline and gaseous matters which the plants want, whilst the leaves require carbonic acid, ammonia, and the influence of light; and these they obtain by growing up into the air.

338. When plants are shaded from the light, or covered up, either artificially or by the leaves of surrounding plants, the action of light is impeded, and they are unable to effect the proper decomposition of carbonic acid. Every one knows that under these circumstances plants become unhealthy and send up long weak shoots, endeavouring to reach the light, and to place their leaves in a situation where they will be exposed to its influence.

339. The germination of seeds may be readily effected in water, although they are for the most part unable to grow and vegetate under that fluid. The change which under ordinary conditions is effected in seeds by the oxygen of the atmosphere is, under these circumstances, caused by the oxygen of the small quantity of common air always dissolved or held in solution by water. In no case can a seed germinate unless free oxygen is present, or some other means exist by which a portion of the carbon in the seed can be removed, so as to cause the change in the constituents of the seed before described.

340. In the process of malting, or converting raw grain into malt, the object to be attained is to change a large portion of the starch and gluten which the barley



contains into gum and sugar. This is effected by steeping the grain in cold water, and then heaping it up together on the floor of the malt-house; it is thus placed in the most favourable conditions for germination, and consequently the chemical changes attendant on that process immediately commence. The seeds lose carbon, and at the same time convert the oxygen of the air into carbonic acid; the embryo or young plant begins to increase in size, and the grain becomes warm from the heat evolved by the chemical action.

341. If this were suffered to continue, the sugar and gum formed would be consumed by the growing young plant, and the malt would then become useless. When, therefore, the process has proceeded to a certain extent, it is stopped by the gradual application of heat, which, by driving off the water and drying the grain, destroys the conditions requisite for the further growth of the young plant, and preserves the grain in the state most proper for the uses of the brewer and distiller.

342. The existence of most plants may be divided into four periods: firstly, germination, or the development of the young plant from the embryo; secondly, the growth of the plant to maturity; thirdly, blossoming, and the formation of seed or reproductive parts; and, fourthly, decay, or a cessation of vitality, and consequent decomposition of the organic structure.

343. In each of these four periods different chemical changes are going on, and therefore different conditions are requisite for the perfection of those various



processes. In the commencement, water, air, a certain degree of warmth, and the absence of light, appear nearly all that is required for the growth of the embryo, which obtains food from the matters stored up in the seed, until it has so far increased in size as to have acquired roots and young leaves, and in other respects has become fitted to derive nourishment from external sources.

344. During the growth of the perfect plant, it is observed, that in addition to water and a certain degree of warmth, carbonic acid, ammonia, and certain earthy and saline substances, are required; whilst light, which in the first stage of its growth appears prejudicial, is now required to assist in those complicated chemical changes which are going on, when the compound organic substances, such as woody fibre, gum, starch, gluten, &c., are formed in the organs of the plant by the combination of the elements of water, carbonic acid, and ammonia.

345. Hence during the day, or whilst plants are exposed to the influence of light, the carbonic acid absorbed by them is decomposed, the carbon alone being retained in their structure, whilst the oxygen is given off.

346. During the night, or when light is withdrawn, this process of decomposing carbonic acid and acquiring carbon cannot go on, and accordingly the carbonic acid then absorbed by the roots is given off again unchanged, by other parts of the surface of the plants, in place of undergoing decomposition. For plants are at all times receiving from the soil carbonic acid, which must neces-



sarily enter their system with the water they absorb from the soil through their roots; but they can only derive nourishment from it when, in consequence of the influence of light, they are able to effect its decomposition, and so, by retaining the carbon, to increase the quantity of organic matter which they contain.

347. In the third stage of the existence of a plant, or during the formation of seed, the same general conditions are required which are necessary during the second; for the formation of seeds and fruit is governed by very nearly the same laws which regulate the production of leaves and woody fibre. Those causes which are most influential in maintaining the healthy growth of the leaves, such as temperature, a due supply of food, and more especially light, are likewise the most important in the growth and perfection of the seed.

348. The principal chemical use of the leaves is to assist in the formation of the organic substances existing in plants, which they do by exposing the crude juices to the action of light, and thus effecting those peculiar changes dependent on the combination of carbon, nitrogen, hydrogen, and oxygen, under the influence of light, on which the growth and increase of plants depend.

349. The organic substances thus formed in the leaves are either stored up in the stem of the plant, or in other ways appropriated to its increase and perfection; and in most cases but little of them remains in the leaves. The office of the fruit or seed-vessel is different; for though, like the leaves, it is able to assist in the pro-



duction of organic matter, the substances so formed are retained and stored up in itself, and the fruit or seed-vessel not only returns nothing to the plant on which it grows, but in addition attracts to itself a large portion of the vegetable matter formed, or, to speak scientifically, assimilated, by the leaves.

350. Thus, whilst the leaves are continually adding new matter to a plant, the fruit, on the other hand, by absorbing that matter, checks the growth. Hence, also, the practice of pruning fruit-trees with a view to improve the fruit; the young fruit thus gets an additional supply of crude sap, which would otherwise have gone to the formation of fresh leaves had not the branches been removed.

351. It must not, however, be supposed that the formation of flowers and seeds is similar to the formation of woody fibre, or leaves; very different changes take place, but the same general conditions are required by plants in both cases.

352. Flowers do not, like leaves, possess the power of decomposing carbonic acid under the influence of light; on the contrary, flowers appear at all times to give out carbonic acid. From this it is evident that they must consist principally of substances containing in proportion less carbon than the ordinary proximate principles, such as gum and lignin. There is a common belief that plants in blossom deteriorate the air, and, therefore, that their presence in bed-rooms is highly objectionable. It is true that flowers generate carbonic acid; but it is probable



that the evil effects occasionally produced by flowers in sleeping-rooms, are occasioned by a minute quantity of a volatile oil, to the formation of which the smell of flowers is to be attributed.

353. When fruits are first formed, they act very like leaves; they absorb food from the air, and under the influence of light form organic matter, whilst at the same time they collect and appropriate much of the organic matter generated by the surrounding leaves. At this period of their growth fruits have very little taste, and in composition they somewhat resemble leaves; when they have attained a certain size they undergo a new change, and ripen, during which they acquire a sweet, or slightly acid taste.

354. In the first stage of the ripening of fruit, acid matter is generated, in consequence, apparently, of the conversion of some of the tasteless constituents of the fruit into malic, tartaric, and other organic acids. During the second period of ripening the greater part of these acids are converted into sugar, and a portion of colouring matter is at the same time formed. The formation of sugar and colouring matter takes place quite independent of the plant; for fruits may be ripened after removal from the plant which produced them.

355. In the first period of vegetation, when a seed has been placed in the conditions requisite to germination, the embryo plant has no power of obtaining food for itself, either from the air or the soil; it is entirely dependent on the seed for a supply of those matters



which are necessary to its growth. A seed, then, is a magazine or store of food, prepared for the use of the young plant, and accordingly a large quantity of the matters secreted by a plant are necessarily employed in the formation of seed.

356. There is a great distinction between organic and organised matter. The former term signifies, as has already been explained, sugar, starch, or similar compounds; whilst by the latter name is meant the cellular and fibrous parts of plants. The chemist may by artificial means readily make some forms of organic matter, and convert them into others; but he cannot make organised matter: the latter is a product of vital action, and has never been formed by artificial means.

357. The first change effected by plants is to convert carbonic acid and water, under the influence of light, into starch and similar forms of organic matter; the second operation is to form these substances into the various cells and tubes which compose the structure of plants. The former is a purely chemical operation; the latter requires something more, namely, the exertion of vital power.

358. The embryo of a seed possesses vitality, but has no power, at first, of assimilating the elements of organic matter directly from the air; it is, therefore, able to convert starch, gluten, and the other proximate principles into organised matter, and consequently grows and increases in size, by feeding on the store of organic matter provided for its use in the seed.



359. The means provided to insure the reproduction of plants are very various. In some plants seed only is formed; whilst in others we observe tubers or collections of food, prepared and preserved in underground receptacles, for the nourishment of the young plants of the next season.

360. Many plants, such as wheat, barley, beans, &c., form seeds which consist merely of an embryo, or growing body, surrounded with a supply of organic food, sufficient for the use of the young plant, until it has grown large enough to feed itself. The seeds of other plants are more complete, being surrounded with an additional quantity of organic matter, which, by decaying, insures to the roots and leaves of the young plant a due supply of gaseous food as soon as it is able to feed itself by those organs.

361. The seeds of all plants which bear fruit are of this kind. When a peach, for example, falls from the tree which produced it, the soft pulpy matter of the fruit soon decomposes, and by the time that the seed begins to germinate, the fruit is wholly converted into humus: hence the roots of the young plant are placed in a soil rich in carbonic acid, as soon as it is possible for them to absorb it.

362. During the whole existence of a plant, from the formation of its first leaves till its death, it is constantly absorbing moisture from the soil through the roots, and as constantly parting with it by the leaves. The water thus collected from the soil contains carbonic acid,



ammonia, and such saline matters as the soil contains. If the leaves of the plant are exposed to the action of light, the carbonic acid and ammonia are decomposed together with a portion of the water, and organic matter is formed.

363. During the night, or in the absence of light, this change cannot take place; and hence, then, the water absorbed by the roots, which is still given off by the leaves, carries with it the gaseous matter collected from the soil.

364. The exact office in the nutrition of plants, performed by the saline substances they absorb, is as yet but imperfectly known. Some plants appear to require particular substances,\* and it is known that certain substances cannot be formed by plants unless the soil contains particular saline matters. Albumen and gluten are always found to contain a small quantity of certain phosphates, hence these substances appear to be essential to the formation of those principles in plants.

365. It is not known whether plants have any power of selection by their roots; that is to say, whether they are able to absorb from the soil only those substances which they require, or whether they absorb all the soluble matters present in it. Almost every plant is found to contain a little lime, and the same may also be said with regard to potash.

366. The quantity of these inorganic matters found in plants is different at different periods of their growth.

\* See Appendix.



In general, young plants contain a larger proportion than old ones, and as seeds contain a supply of all that young plants require, a quantity of these salts is necessary for the ripening of seed: hence plants require a large supply of inorganic matter from the soil during the third period of their existence, or during the formation of seed.

367. These are, in very general terms, the conditions requisite to the growth of plants; but there are many special conditions appropriate to particular species, and many important circumstances which must not be overlooked in studying the chemistry of vegetation. The differences of climate, and its influence on the growth of plants, is not less remarkable than those of the soil itself; and indeed the very same soil would possess a very different degree of fertility in different climates.

368. In the hot, moist regions of the tropics, plants grow with far more rapidity, and vegetation is more vigorous, than in temperate regions. In tropical countries, decay proceeds far more rapidly than it does in our own country; carbonic acid and ammonia, the food of plants, are produced in greater quantity than here; whilst, from the greater power of the sun, plants are able to assimilate more of those substances than they can in colder countries.

369. Hence, in endeavouring to introduce into one country the plants of another, it is necessary to consider the conditions under which they naturally grow; and care must be taken to imitate as closely as possible those conditions, not merely as regards soil, but likewise



in respect to temperature, moisture, and light. These, however, are practical matters into which we cannot enter.

370. In the last stage of the existence of a plant, or when, either from excessive cold, disease, or merely old age, the vitality becomes extinct, all that curious series of changes by which organic matters are generated under the influence of light in the cells of plants ceases; decay commences, the organic compounds of the plant begin to decompose, and their elements re-arrange themselves into simpler forms. The greater part of the hydrogen combines with oxygen, and is gradually given off in the state of water; the nitrogen and hydrogen combine, and form ammonia; whilst the carbon is slowly dissipated in the air in the state of carbonic acid, and at last little remains besides mould, or charcoal in combination with a very little hydrogen (317), and the small quantity of insoluble earthy matters which the plant may have contained.

371. As has already been observed, plants are constantly employed in preserving the purity of the atmosphere: they feed on the foul or vitiated air produced by respiration, combustion, and decay; and their vigour and luxuriance are always in proportion to the impurity of the air. It must be clearly understood, that there is a limit to the quantity of carbonic acid plants are able to decompose: an excess would kill them; whilst if there were none of it in the air, they could not live. The vegetation of the whole globe is just enough to keep the air in a uniform state of purity.



## CHAPTER VI.

ARTIFICIAL SOURCES OF THE FOOD OF PLANTS.—  
ACTION OF MANURES.

372. WHEN we remember that, although plants derive a large portion of their nourishment from the air, yet at the same time they absorb considerable quantities of saline matters from the soil, it is evident that all plants must more or less impoverish the soil, by taking away that which causes its fertility.

373. The natural vegetation of any country enriches rather than deteriorates the soil, because nothing is carried away from its surface; the plants which grow on it return to the soil, during their decay, all the earthy and saline substances which they had absorbed from it during their growth, whilst they add to it a considerable quantity of the carbon they had collected from the air.

374. Very different, however, is the condition of cultivated lands; on them large crops are raised year after year, which are removed and carried away to a distance, to form the food of men and animals. Such land is rapidly impoverished, because with the crops a large quantity of inorganic matter, necessary to the fertility of the land, is removed. It remains for us to inquire, what are the best means of restoring these matters to



the soil; and likewise, in how far is it possible to increase the fertility of the soil by augmenting the natural quantity of any of its constituents.

375. In practice there are three courses adopted to maintain the fertility of the soil, namely, fallowing, a rotation of crops, and the application of manure.

376. In order to comprehend the effect produced by fallowing, it is necessary to remember the mode in which soil is formed. As has already been stated, soils consist principally of small fragments of different rocks and stones, which, from a variety of causes, have gradually crumbled down to powder. The sand or fine particles of stone in the soil are constantly decomposing (300) and adding to the soil, potash, soda, and very finely-divided earthy matters; it is from sources of this kind that most of the saline substances present in the soil are derived.

377. The soluble salts formed in this manner are dissolved by the rains, and in great part washed away from the surface; a portion, however, always remains in the soil, and is absorbed by plants. When a crop of some plant requiring, for example, a large quantity of potash, is raised in such a soil, it often happens that the crop takes away all the soluble potash the soil contains; and in consequence, it would be impossible to raise a second crop of that plant on the same soil, as there would not be potash enough in it.

378. If, however, the soil is left for some time fallow, if no crop at all is raised on it, the soil has time to renew



itself ; by the action of the air, the further decomposition of the silicates and other similar stony compounds in the soil, is effected, and a fresh supply of potash is provided.

379. The same end is obtained by a system of rotation. In place of sowing a second crop of the plant which requires so much potash, some other plant is taken, which does not require potash, but which requires other substances that the soil contains.

380. In both these cases we restore, by the slow effects of the air, those substances which we remove with the first crop ; in manuring, we at once add to the soil that which the plants require.

381. Generally speaking, wheat cannot be grown on the same land year after year, and accordingly various systems of rotation are adopted. It is evident, however, that as soon as we know what are the substances required by wheat and other crops, we shall at once know how to restore to the soil those substances which each crop removes, and thus be enabled to obtain crops of the same plant, for any number of years in succession, from the same soil. The labours of chemists are, however, hardly far enough advanced for this, at present.

382. With respect to the natural sources of saline matters in the soil, it must be observed that although their nature and quantity are in great measure influenced by the composition of the subsoil and stony substratum, yet it frequently happens that from want of mixture the soil is deficient in some of those very substances



which the subsoil is rich in ; and in consequence the soil becomes considerably improved by mixture, or by spreading over the surface some of the decomposing stones dug from below.

383. The system of subsoil ploughing, so successfully practised in many parts of the country, is connected with this subject, and depends mainly upon the advantages derived from admixture of the subsoil with the surface. In this operation a plough is employed to break up and pulverise the soil to a considerable depth below the surface, without bringing the soil so disturbed up to the top ; by this process the permeability of the soil to air is greatly increased, and in consequence, the subsoil is soon brought into a fit state to be mixed with the ordinary soil, by the use of a suitable plough.

384. Part of the benefit derived from this operation is doubtless due to the greater openness conferred upon the soil, which permits a more perfect access of air and moisture, and allows the roots of the growing plants more easily to penetrate throughout it ; but at the same time, advantage is also derived from the greater supply of saline and soluble earthy matters which are thus made available for the use of the plants.

385. We are apt to think that a soil must of necessity contain portions of those substances which enter into the composition of the substratum ; but this is by no means always the case. Thus the surface-soil of a chalk district is not unfrequently nearly wholly destitute of calcareous or chalky matters ; and soils



in such situations are, therefore, often improved by spreading lime over the surface.

386. It is therefore of high importance to know the nature and composition of the subsoil, as well as the surface soil; for by a judicious use of the former, the soil itself may frequently be very much improved, and probably some saving effected in the quantity of manure required for the land.

387. A very great variety of different substances are included under the general name of manure. Some of the substances added to the soil act principally in a mechanical way, improving its texture; others are chiefly valuable as sources of carbonic acid and ammonia, whilst many are useful as supplying saline and earthy matters in which the soil may be deficient. It would be easy to divide all manures into these three classes; but it is more convenient to divide them simply into the organic and the inorganic, because many manures act in all these three ways at once, improving the texture of the soil, and supplying carbonic acid, ammonia, and saline matters.

388. Organic manures may in general terms be described as consisting of any kind of organic matters in a state of decay. Setting out with the knowledge that organic matter consists of carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen, it is not difficult to understand the changes produced by its decay.

389. Whilst describing the different varieties of organic matter, attention has constantly been drawn to the



results produced by their decay. It has been repeatedly stated that the substances formed by the decay of organic matter are water, carbonic acid, and ammonia. The process of decay is, however, greatly modified by circumstances.

390. Organic matter containing nitrogen decays far more rapidly than that not containing this element (240, 280). It might have been supposed that under such circumstances the nitrogen would be given off in a free and uncombined state; it is therefore remarkable to find that, at the moment of escaping from one compound, it enters into combination with another element. This fact is important, and deserves a little further consideration, for it is found that at the moment of separation substances have a peculiar tendency to enter into fresh combination.

391. Substances in this state, or whilst being set at liberty by the decomposition of compounds which previously contained them, are said to be in the nascent state. It is always found that substances which have an affinity for each other, but under ordinary circumstances cannot combine, are able to do so when in the nascent state.

392. All attempts have failed to cause the combination of a mixture of hydrogen and nitrogen gases; but when these two substances are in the nascent state they combine readily, and ammonia is formed.

393. The rapidity with which animal substances decay or putrify depends on warmth, air, and moisture.



It has been stated that substances of this kind may be preserved a long time if dry; water is necessary to their putrefaction, and so also is the presence of air. It is well known that meat may be preserved fresh a long time if frozen, or kept at a temperature below the freezing point of water, whilst, on the other hand, if kept in a warm place, it soon begins to change.

394. The putrefaction of animal matter may likewise be greatly accelerated by the mixture of potash, soda, or lime, &c., with it, and under these circumstances nitric acid is formed (98—101.) It appears that the mixture of these bases assists in the formation of the acid, in consequence of the strong affinity which they have for it, and that therefore they increase the natural tendency which nitrogen has to separate from the carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen with which it is united in organic matter.

395. Whilst animal matters are decaying, they commonly emit a very offensive smell: now, as neither water, carbonic acid, ammonia, nor nitric acid can cause this, it is evident that some other substance must at the same time be formed. The fact is, that the nauseous odour given off under these circumstances is occasioned by the formation of sulphuretted hydrogen (117).

396. Sulphur and hydrogen, though hardly able to combine with each other under common circumstances when brought together, unite readily when the hydrogen is in that peculiar nascent state above adverted to. Thus, when organic substances containing small quantities



of sulphates decay, a portion of the hydrogen, whilst set at liberty, combines with some of the sulphur contained in the sulphates, and sulphuretted hydrogen gas is formed.

397. This gas is evolved in considerable quantity during the decomposition of nearly all animal substances, and likewise those vegetables, such as cabbage, &c., which are rich in nitrogen and sulphur; though its odour is not unfrequently almost overpowered by the strong pungent smell of the ammonia evolved at the same time.

398. When such decaying substances are exposed to the air, the sulphuretted hydrogen gas formed is dissipated, and carried away in the atmosphere; but at the same time a large quantity of the ammonia also formed is lost, and this is of course highly objectionable. The value of these kinds of manure depends mainly upon the quantity of nitrogen which they are able to supply to the plants; and everything tending to assist in retaining that substance in the soil, and rendering it available to the growth of plants, is advantageous; whilst, on the other hand, everything increasing its loss, or dissipation in the air, lessens the value of the manure, and renders its application of less service.

399. Animal manures, to a slight degree, modify the mechanical texture of the soil; though from their great proneness to decay, the effects of this kind which they produce are comparatively transitory. Their principal value consists in the ammonia and carbonic acid, or nitric acid, which they yield, and the earthy and saline compounds which they contain. In addition to this,



they are also of value by facilitating the decomposition of vegetable substances employed as manure.

400. As perhaps the most useful part of these kinds of manure is the volatile substances formed during their decay, great care should be taken to suffer as little as possible to escape and be lost. It is probable that the best method of preserving the greater part of these matters is to dissolve it in water. The employment of liquid manure is gradually coming more and more into use, and the prejudices against its application are vanishing, as the beneficial results produced by its use become known.

401. The greatest attention should be paid to the modes of collecting, preserving, and economising animal manure. There can be no doubt that a very large quantity of manure is constantly wasted under the old systems of using it, and the least consideration will convince any one of this.

402. The food of plants consists principally of certain volatile or gaseous substances, produced, amongst other ways, by the decomposition of organic matter; we add organic matters to the soil, to supply plants with more food than they could otherwise obtain. If, then, previous to using these substances as manure, they are exposed for some time to the air, sun, and rain, a considerable portion of the volatile products of decay will be lost; and this is constantly done.

403. Manure should be carefully collected — none should be neglected or suffered to go to waste; it should



be preserved in proper receptacles, sheltered from the sun and rain, so that the volatile products of its decay may neither be lost by the heat of the former, nor washed away by the latter; and lastly, by the action of water it should be softened, and as much as possible reduced to a fluid state, so that it may be easily and uniformly applied to the land. The formation of liquid manure tanks deserves the most serious attention of the farmer.

404. In the application of these kinds of manure, it has to be remembered that although carbonic acid and ammonia are the principal food of plants, yet that there are limits to the quantity of these substances they can absorb, and that too great a supply of such food is not only useless, but even objectionable, being highly injurious. It is useless to give a plant abundance of carbonic acid and ammonia, if we do not at the same time give it those earthy and saline substances which it requires (364). Even if both are supplied to plants, it is impossible for them to absorb more than a limited quantity. Excess does harm.

405. As animal matter is either directly or indirectly formed from vegetable substances, it is natural to expect that animal substances must contain, in addition to the four elements of organic matter (58, 221), the same earthy substances which plants contain, and this is really the fact (278). The phosphate and carbonate of lime of the bones is obtained from plants, and the alkaline and other salts found in the various parts of the animal body are derived from a similar source.



406. The knowledge of this fact necessarily leads to the conclusion that all animal matter must be valuable as manure. The flesh and softer parts of animals, as well as the bones and other solids of the body, are composed of the same substances, both inorganic and organic, as plants; and during their decay yield them up again in a fit state to be absorbed by plants.

407. The vegetable substances which constitute the food of animals contain more earthy and saline matters than animals require, and they are accordingly passed from the body as excrementitious. The food of animals in great part goes to supply the waste, occasioned by respiration. In this process carbonic acid is formed by the oxidation of carbon in the body by the oxygen of the air; hence in the air expired from the lungs it is found that the oxygen is more or less combined with carbon, and converted into carbonic acid (28, 65). The heat evolved by the combination of this carbon with oxygen keeps up the warmth of the body. The waste of organic matter in the body thus occasioned, is supplied by food, the organic part of which supplies that consumed by respiration; but as the inorganic substances contained in food are not required for this purpose, the excess is voided in the solid and fluid excrements.

408. There are few things of greater value as manures, than these offensive and apparently useless substances, which consist of a mixture of organic and inorganic matters; the former, in consequence of the nitrogen they always contain, ready to decompose and furnish carbonic



acid and ammonia; the latter, those very substances which we require to add to the soil, those very substances which are removed with crops. In consequence of the volatile nature of the products of decay, every means must be employed to prevent their loss.

409. When animal substances are left for some time exposed to the air, they undergo decomposition, and there at last remains nothing but the more fixed substances which they contained, together with a quantity of salts of ammonia, formed during the decomposition of the easily putrefiable matters. This residue is a valuable manure, though in forming it a very large portion of the ammonia produced, is lost by evaporation. The guano of South America, which has of late excited so much interest, is the remains of the excrements of sea-fowl, which has undergone this change.

410. There are other modes besides that already adverted to (403), whereby the loss of ammonia may be prevented. Both ammonia and its carbonate are volatile, and though by the addition of water it is easy to retard their escape, it cannot be entirely prevented. It has therefore been proposed to add to liquid manure a small quantity of some acid, which shall combine with the ammonia to form a neutral salt, and so prevent further loss from volatility. The trials which have hitherto been made appear perfectly satisfactory, and the only question is—which is the best method of thus neutralising or fixing it?

411. The simplest method of fixing ammonia is to



add to the manure a small quantity of a weak solution of any acid; but we may also fix it by the addition of any salt containing an acid united to a base by a less affinity than the acid has for ammonia: when this is done, the salt is decomposed, the base is set free, and the acid combines with the ammonia.

412. Ammonia may be fixed by the addition of a small quantity of sulphuric, nitric, muriatic, phosphoric, or any other acid. Sulphuric is, generally speaking, the cheapest, and therefore the most convenient to employ; the quantity to be added of course depends on the quantity of ammonia in the manure; when enough acid has been used, all smell (93, 397) of ammonia disappears. A slight excess of acid does no harm, as it is certain to become neutralised by the bases always present in the soil.

413. It not unfrequently happens that from local circumstances a large supply of some other acid liquors may be obtained, more particularly in the vicinity of manufactories; all such substances may be used with advantage. The comparative value of the different salts of ammonia is as yet unknown; perhaps the best acid, if it could be procured cheap enough, would be the phosphoric. Phosphate of ammonia forms a most valuable manure.

414. Various salts have been proposed for the purpose of fixing ammonia; amongst these the best appear to be gypsum or sulphate of lime (166), and copperas or green vitriol, the sulphate of iron (210). When either of these salts is mixed with solutions containing ammonia



or its carbonate, it is decomposed, sulphate of ammonia is formed (154), and carbonate of lime or oxide of iron is left, as an insoluble powder. For several reasons acid is preferable to fix ammonia; it is more easily used, and requires far less care and attention in mixing with the solution containing ammonia.

415. Animal substances must have undergone decomposition before they can serve as the food of plants. It has already been stated that plants appear only able to absorb nitrogen in a state of combination (291); no form of organic matter is suitable to the nourishment of a healthy plant. It is the office of the leaves to convert carbonic acid, ammonia, and water, into organic matter, and hence organic matter must be resolved by decomposition into these substances, before it can be absorbed by plants.

416. There are some plants, however, which seem to be exceptions to this rule, and which appear able to feed on organised matter. Certain fungi and parasitical plants, or those which grow upon others, probably feed by directly absorbing organic matter. The small fungi which constitute the various forms of mouldiness are of this description; they flourish in the dark, and grow on any kind of dead organic matter. All plants which have leaves and require the influence of light, feed on gaseous matter, and never on organic compounds.

417. Amongst the principal animal substances employed as manures are urine, and dung of all kinds, the flesh and blood of dead animals, fat and oily matters,



hair, wool, skin, and lastly horns, hoofs, and bones. These substances are all more or less valuable, as yielding to the soil a large quantity of the substances which constitute the food of plants; they putrefy, and their elements form new combinations with great rapidity. Those which change most readily of course yield ammonia and carbonic acid most rapidly, and these constitute the most powerful manures: those which decompose more slowly are less powerful, but more lasting in their effects.

418. Urine, dung, and the decaying carcasses of animals are for many purposes considered to be too strong, and means are adopted to diminish their power. These manures evolve during their rapid decay, a very large quantity of ammonia, carbonic acid, &c. far more in fact than plants require or can absorb. The excess is hurtful and must be prevented.

419. There are two ways by which this may be effected, the one is to mix strong manure with a considerable quantity of some substance far less prone to decomposition, so as to dilute it, or check its decay; the other, and certainly infinitely the worst way, is to expose it to the air for some time, and not to use it until a great part of the ammonia evolved by its decay is dissipated,—what remains is then sufficiently mild to be used with safety.

420. In order to save as much as possible the valuable parts of these manures, they should be mixed with a certain quantity of vegetable refuse matters, such as



sawdust, &c. This addition tends to check their too rapid decay, and prevents the great loss which ensues when manure ferments, or becomes hot from the effects of its own decomposition; and at the same time the vegetable matters added are gradually brought into a state of decay, which renders them also a most valuable addition to the soil.

421. Strong animal manures are doubly valuable, for not only do they contain abundance of those matters which constitute the food of plants, but they also assist in rendering useful, materials which would without them be of far less service. Whether these manures are employed in the liquid or in the solid form, some means should be adopted to retain the ammonia, either by the addition of acids, or by some other method.

422. These remarks are far less applicable to animal manures, such as fatty substances, horn, wool, bones, &c., which decay but slowly. These substances for the most part act slowly and gradually, and in a very different manner from the softer parts of animals. In general the strength or value of animal manures is in proportion to the quantity of nitrogen which they contain; those which contain much of that element decay rapidly, and evolve a considerable quantity of ammonia; whilst those containing little or no nitrogen decay slowly, and, though valuable, and perhaps more lasting in their effects as manures, are far less powerful for the time.

423. Wool, and horn, contain less nitrogen than flesh



or the excrement of animals, and oil and fat of all kinds contain no nitrogen at all. Bones consist of earthy matters (279), together with a quantity of glue and fat; the value of bones as a manure consists in their mechanical effect on the texture of the soil, the earthy substances which they supply (405), the ammonia given out during the decay of the glue or gelatine, and the carbonic acid and hydrogen supplied by the fat.

424. The quantity of putrefiable matter in bones is small in proportion to their whole weight, and its decay is retarded by the large quantity of earthy matter they contain, hence bones form a good and lasting manure. Boiled bones form a better manure than raw or green bones. This appears to be occasioned by the removal of fat during boiling; the fat which bone contains retards the decomposition of the gelatin, and probably also renders the phosphate of lime less soluble than it is when the oil is removed.

425. It is frequently the custom to mix a considerable quantity of earth or soil, with putrefying animal manure. This to some extent is a good practice; the earth added prevents too rapid decay, and retains some of the products of decomposition; a considerable quantity of ammonia, which would otherwise be lost, is absorbed by the soil (155). The addition of burnt clay or charcoal is useful for a similar reason (195).

426. The use of lime, on the other hand, is decidedly objectionable; it increases the rapidity of decay, and tends to the formation of a portion of nitric acid, but its



use causes the loss of a large quantity of ammonia, in consequence of its power of decomposing all the salts of ammonia (95.97), combining with the acid which they contain, and expelling the ammonia in the state of gas. The addition of lime greatly accelerates putrefaction, and renders it a far less noisome process, as the lime absorbs the sulphuretted hydrogen evolved (395), which would otherwise escape into the air.

427. Wood ashes mixed with putrefying animal matters act in a similar manner to lime; the alkali which they generally contain accelerates decomposition, but occasions loss of ammonia.

428. A good deal of what has been said respecting animal manures is equally applicable to those of vegetable origin; but in general the decay of vegetable manures is far less rapid than that of animal substances, and they are chiefly of value for their mechanical effect, and the carbonic acid and saline matters which they supply; whilst, in addition to these, animal manures yield ammonia, the substance which is indispensable to the formation of gluten and albumen, two of the most important of the constituents of vegetables (236).

429. The use of decaying vegetable matters has already been described whilst speaking of the nature of humus, and the organic constituents of the soil (322). A moderate quantity is very desirable, but too much is decidedly hurtful. A soil containing a very large quantity of humus or decaying vegetable matter is always full of carbonic acid; seeds cannot germinate in such a



soil ; and the excess of carbonic acid is even hurtful to plants themselves.

430. The principal vegetable substances employed as manure are straw of all kinds, leaves, sawdust, bran, oil-cake, seaweed, and green manures, or crops which are merely sown to be ploughed in, and thus afford food to a second crop, of some more valuable plant.

431. All these manures when mixed with soil slowly decay, and yield carbonic acid and small quantities of saline and earthy matters. They are most advantageously used when employed in combination with some kind of animal manure ; this is the case in farm-yard manure. Straw alone decays but slowly, but when mixed with the dung and urine of cattle it soon begins to change, and in a short time the whole is brought into a state of decomposition.

432. The decay of vegetable manures may also be facilitated by the addition of lime ; for the objection which applies to the mixture of lime with animal manures is not applicable to vegetable substances. The latter for the most part contain but little nitrogen, their value principally depending on their mechanical action, and on the formation of carbonic acid.

433. Vegetable manures decay more or less rapidly in proportion to the quantity of nitrogen which they contain ; green manures contain a notable quantity of gluten and albumen, and accordingly decompose rapidly, whilst sawdust, which consists principally of woody fibre, and contains hardly any nitrogen, decomposes slowly.



Sawdust is therefore a most excellent substance to mix with the excrement of animals, and other strong animal manures.

434. The number of inorganic substances employed as manures is very great, and their use is naturally much dependent on the nature of the soil. In many cases great benefit is derived from mixing soils: either mixing a portion of the subsoil with the surface-soil (383), or by adding to the soil, earth brought from a distance, possessing different nature and composition.

435. The earthy matters thus added to the soil can hardly be called manures, although in truth they considerably resemble manures in the mode in which they act. By draining, deep ploughing, mixing, and by the use of mineral manures, either the mechanical texture of the soil is improved, or substances are added to it in which it was previously deficient.

436. It is unnecessary to say anything respecting the importance of draining, and the change which it produces in too retentive soils. The facts which have previously been stated, show, that too much moisture in a soil is hurtful, preventing the free circulation of air throughout it, and in several ways interfering with the healthy growth of plants; this is remedied by draining.

437. By draining, and subsoil ploughing, the access of air is facilitated, and the decomposition of silicates and similar stony compounds in the earth is assisted. In mixing, or by adding mineral manures, we increase the quantity of certain inorganic compounds of the soil.



438. The mode in which inorganic matters act is very imperfectly understood, and must of necessity remain so until the office performed by saline and earthy substances in the nutrition of plants is explained. It is, however, certain that the addition of an earthy substance to the soil is of no use, if the soil already contains abundance of that substance; and consequently that the applicability of any such manure is wholly dependent on the nature and composition of the soil.

439. When reading accounts of experiments with various inorganic manures, it must always be borne in mind that on one soil salts of potash, on another nitrate of soda, and on a third phosphate of lime, may be the best manure, because the soils may happen to be deficient in those substances.

440. Many lands are found to be greatly improved by the addition of a quantity of sand, clay, marl or calcareous clay, and other substances of a similar nature; part of the effect produced is of a mechanical nature, and part chemical. The substance added contains something which the soil is deficient in, and which plants require.

441. Plants almost invariably contain salts of the alkalies, and lime, or magnesia; sometimes combined with organic acids, sometimes with sulphuric, muriatic, or phosphoric acid. Phosphates of lime and magnesia, in particular, are very commonly met with in plants. It will be proper to briefly enumerate the artificial sources of these substances.



442. Carbonate of lime is a very common ingredient in plants, and is also found in almost all fertile soils; the addition of lime or calcareous matter, therefore, to soils which are destitute of it, or contain but very little, invariably improves them. Besides bones, and the organic substances already mentioned which contain lime, a good many might be mentioned which are used as manure. Lime is added, in the forms of quick lime, chalk, marl, shell-sand, &c.

443. When quick lime is spread over the surface of land, other effects are produced besides the mere addition of carbonate of lime. The quick lime soon absorbs moisture, and crumbles to powder, gradually absorbing carbonic acid from the air, and returning to the state of carbonate. The chalk which is thus formed is in a state of very fine powder, and becomes more thoroughly mixed with the soil than it could be by ordinary means; but at the same time the quick lime has greatly assisted in promoting the decay of organic matters in the soil, and caused the formation of a considerable quantity of nitrate of lime, a salt of some value as a manure.

444. There is great difference in the goodness of different kinds of lime. All limestones which consist merely of carbonate of lime yield pure caustic lime when burnt (163), but many limestones contain a portion of carbonate of magnesia, and these when burnt yield a mixture of caustic lime and magnesia. Such lime is in general objectionable as manure. It is probable that the tendency which magnesia has to remain caustic for a long



time, absorbing carbonic acid but slowly from the air, is the cause of this (174).

445. Chalk, shell-sand, and indeed shells themselves, which consist of carbonate of lime and a small quantity of animal matter, are useful additions to all soils which contain but little lime. Quick or caustic lime is especially useful in soils rich in humus. Both lime and likewise its carbonate are valuable additions to soils containing any quantity of sulphate of iron (210, 309). That salt, which appears to be hurtful to vegetation, is decomposed by lime; gypsum is formed, whilst the iron is converted into oxide or carbonate.

446. Sulphate of lime, or gypsum, is likewise a very useful addition to all soils which do not naturally contain it. It is partly useful as supplying lime, and partly as serving to fix ammonia from the air (414), and thus yielding plants more of that substance than they could otherwise obtain.

447. Phosphate of lime is found native as a mineral in Spain and other countries; it would certainly form a valuable manure for many soils. As phosphate of lime is generally found in nearly all plants, all substances containing it are useful as manures. The native phosphate of lime has as yet hardly come into use at all as a manure.

448. There are no mineral manures which contain phosphate of magnesia; it exists in many soils, and in a good many organic manures. Bran contains a considerable quantity of this salt.

449. Ashes of various kinds constitute an important



class of manures. They are of value for the charcoal, lime, phosphoric acid, and alkaline salts which they contain. The ashes of organic substances, such as the ashes of wood and vegetable matters, consist principally of those substances which plants require. Kelp, or the ashes of sea-weed, consists of similar saline compounds, generally containing more alkaline salts than the common ashes of land plants.

450. The ashes of turf, peat, and weeds consist of pretty nearly the same substances as the ashes of trees and other plants, they therefore constitute valuable manures. The good effects which have been produced by paring and burning, are in great part due to the charcoal and saline matters which are spread over the soil, in the form of ashes. The earth which adheres to the roots and plants burnt in this process acquires considerable power of condensing ammonia from the air (155).

451. Burnt clay or clay which has been strongly heated, has its mechanical properties also greatly altered, and acquires the property of absorbing ammonia in large quantity. When dry burnt clay, which has been exposed to the air for some time, is moistened or breathed upon, it gives out a very perceptible smell of ammonia.

The ashes of coal are of less value as manure than most other ashes; they do not contain alkali or phosphoric acid, but consist of silica, alumine, oxide of iron, and a small quantity of lime. Their chief value appears to consist in the charcoal and lime which they contain.



452. In connexion with ashes, soot and the refuse of gas-works may be mentioned, although very different in their nature. Soot consists principally of finely-divided charcoal or carbon, but it contains a considerable quantity of salts of ammonia; hence it is a powerful and valuable manure. If a little quicklime is mixed with soot, the salts of ammonia will be decomposed, and the strong pungent smell of ammonia is evident.

453. Soot contains a good deal of the ammonia obtained during the combustion of coal, but, in consequence of its volatility, a considerable portion is lost. In the process for making gas, where coal is roasted in close iron vessels, all the ammonia is saved, and is condensed by means of cold water. The gas is made to bubble through a quantity of water: this condenses the ammonia, and constitutes what is termed gas liquor, or the ammoniacal liquor of the gas-works. It is a solution of ammonia, partly caustic, and partly combined with carbonic acid and sulphuretted hydrogen (118).

454. Ammoniacal liquor is a strong and excellent manure, resembling in some respects the manures formed by the decay of animal substances. As obtained from the gas-works it is almost always too strong to be used as a manure for grass-lands or crops, and must be diluted with four or six times its bulk of water.

455. In consequence of the volatility and caustic nature of free ammonia, it is found advisable for most purposes to fix the ammonia of gas liquor. This may either be done with an acid, or with gypsum or sulphate



of iron (412-414) : a cheap acid like the sulphuric is, generally speaking, the most convenient. Gas liquor resembles putrid urine, inasmuch as it is very rich in ammonia; but it differs from it in not containing the alkaline and earthy salts which that manure does.

456. Potash, as has several times already been stated, is very commonly found in plants, and is consequently an important constituent of manure. The principal value of wood-ashes appears to depend on the potash which they contain. One other compound of this alkali requires notice in this brief sketch, namely, the nitrate. The result of experience has shown that, on some lands, nitrate of potash forms a most valuable manure, whilst on others, it has produced little or no effect; this has led to great differences of opinion as to its value.

457. Many soils contain a small quantity of nitrate of potash or of soda. The way in which these salts are formed will be easily understood when we remember, that whenever substances containing nitrogen decay in the neighbourhood of alkaline salts, a portion of nitric acid is formed (191). Under these circumstances, the ammonia which would otherwise be produced, is oxidised, and in place of ammonia, nitric acid and water are formed; the acid combines with the alkali, and nitrate of potash or soda results. These salts, together with nitrate of lime, are frequently formed in mixtures of decaying organic manures; they are formed in the same way in the soil itself.

458. The nature of the influence which nitrates exert



on vegetation is but little understood. Some plants, such as the sunflower, tobacco, lettuce, and many others, always contain more or less of these salts. Others do not contain them, but when supplied with nitrates, are subsequently found to contain the base, without the acid. The soda, potash, or lime, is combined with some organic acid, whilst the nitric acid has disappeared. It is probable that in these cases the nitrogen of the acid is assimilated by the plant, or that it assists in the formation of gluten and albumen.

459. Nitrates can have but very little value as manures on the soils which naturally contain salts of nitric acid, or which, in consequence of the substances they contain, are constantly forming nitrates. On soils neither containing nitrates nor other alkaline salts, they appear to produce very beneficial results. It has been found that wheat manured with alkaline nitrates contains more gluten and albumen, than that grown in land not so manured.

460. These remarks apply equally to nitrate of soda and nitrate of potash ; at least, similar effects are produced by the two salts, as far as regards the increased formation of gluten and albumen.

461. Common salt, and a number of other saline substances, have been proposed and employed as manure. Many experiments might be quoted to show the beneficial effects produced by this or that substance in particular soils ; but this is foreign to our object, and would merely be collecting isolated facts. Nearly all that can at



present be said respecting saline manures is, that the addition to the soil in moderate quantity of those substances which plants are found to contain is always good. The mode in which they act, and the office they perform in the nutrition of plants, is as yet but very imperfectly understood.



## APPENDIX.

### A.—COMPOSITION OF SUBSTANCES.

IN the preceding pages all calculations have been carefully omitted, with a view to rendering the subject as plain and simple as possible ; as, however, there are many things which cannot be well explained without reference to numbers, they have been placed at the end, in the Appendix. In expressing the composition of any substance, chemists are in the habit of saying, that it consists of such and such proportions of its elements ; whatever quantity they may have taken for analysis, they generally calculate the proportion which a hundred or a thousand parts would consist of. Thus, for example 550 grains of pure dry Carbonate of Lime contain 308 grains of Lime, and 242 grains of Carbonic Acid ; hence 1000 grains must contain 560 grains of Lime, and 440 grains of Carbonic Acid, and 100 grains of Carbonate of Lime contain 56 grains of Lime, and 44 grains of Carbonic Acid. This is a very simple example, but it constantly happens that the composition of substances is not so easily expressed. 1000 grains of dry Gypsum, or Sulphate of Lime, consist of 412 grains of Lime, and 588 grains of Sulphuric Acid. The composition of 100 grains of such a substance is represented thus :

Lime	.	.	41·2
Sulphuric Acid	.	.	58·8

This merely means that one hundred grains contain 41 and 2-tenths of a grain of Lime, and 58 and 8-tenths of a grain of Sulphuric Acid, hence there is no real difference whether we put the dot or not ; if it is used, the figures behind it are known to be



fractions ; if not, they are whole grains. The composition of Sulphate of Lime may be expressed also as—

Lime . . .	.412	4.12	41.2	412
Sulphuric acid . . .	.588	5.88	58.8	588
	—————	—————	—————	—————
	1 grain.	10 grains.	100 grains.	1000 grains.

In all the analyses given in the following pages, no fractions are used ; the composition of everything is given as it would be obtained if 10000 or 100000 grains were analysed.

Chemists are constantly in the habit of speaking of atoms, proportions, combining numbers, and similar terms ; it will be well briefly to describe what is meant by these terms. It has been already stated that the composition of all compound substances is definite (84) ; that a certain weight of Carbon, for example, can only combine with a fixed quantity of Oxygen to form Carbonic Acid (86). Let us observe what relation there exists between the quantity of different substances which can combine together. It is found that one grain of hydrogen (for hydrogen, though a gas, can be readily weighed) will combine with eight grains of Oxygen to form nine grains of steam, and this relative proportion between the two elements of water is perfectly invariable. One grain of Hydrogen can combine with exactly sixteen grains of Sulphur to form seventeen grains of Sulphuretted Hydrogen (117), or, with six grains of Carbon, to form seven grains of Carburetted Hydrogen (80). These numbers, then, express the quantity of each of these substances which can combine with one another, for, of course, it is perfectly the same whether we take a grain, an ounce, a pound, or any other weight. But this is not all ; the number thus found for Carbon, namely six, is not merely the quantity of that substance which could combine with one of Hydrogen, but represents the quantity of Carbon which can combine with eight parts of oxygen, to form Carbonic Oxide (87), or with twice eight, 16, parts of Oxygen to form Carbonic Acid ; and, again, eight parts of Oxygen is not merely the quantity which can combine with one part of Hydrogen, or with six of Carbon, but also exactly the quantity which is able to combine with a certain



proportion of a great number of other substances. The numbers which are in this manner obtained are called combining weights, proportionals, equivalents, etc. ; they express the relative proportions in which substances combine together. Compounds consist of a single proportional of each of these elements, but more commonly they contain one of one element, and two, three, or more, of the other ; organic substances, for the most part, consist of nearly ten or a dozen proportionals of each of their elements. The following tables show the proportions or combining weights of the most important substances, whether simple or compound, which have been previously described.

COMBINING OR EQUIVALENT WEIGHTS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT  
SIMPLE SUBSTANCES.

Oxygen . . . . .	8
Hydrogen . . . . .	1
Carbon . . . . .	6
Nitrogen . . . . .	14
Chlorine . . . . .	35
Phosphorus . . . . .	31
Sulphur . . . . .	16
Iron . . . . .	27

When a compound is formed by the union of two elements, the equivalent or combining proportion of the compound is exactly the sum of the equivalent of its elements ; thus, for example, Carbonic Acid consists of one equivalent of Carbon, the number of which is 6, and two equivalents of Oxygen, weighing 16 ; the sum of 6 and 16 is 22, this then is the weight of Carbonic Acid, which combines to an equivalent weight, of any base, with 28 parts of Lime, 47 of Potash, and so on.

In the following table the combining weight of some of the most important compounds is exhibited :—

Water . . . . .	9	Carburetted Hydrogen . . . . .	8
Nitric Acid . . . . .	54	Ammonia . . . . .	17
Carbonic Oxide . . . . .	14	Potash . . . . .	47
Carbonic Acid . . . . .	22	Soda . . . . .	31
Sulphurous Acid . . . . .	32	Lime . . . . .	28
Sulphuric Acid . . . . .	40	Magnesia . . . . .	20
Phosphoric Acid . . . . .	71	Silica . . . . .	46
Muriatic Acid . . . . .	36	Alumine . . . . .	51
Sulphuretted Hydrogen . . . . .	17	Prot-oxide of Iron . . . . .	35



Very extensive tables of this sort are given in chemical books ; they are exceedingly useful for many purposes, and greatly assist the memory in learning the composition of compound substances. Ammonia for instance consists of one equivalent of Nitrogen and three of Hydrogen ; hence we know that every 17 parts by weight of that substance contain 14 parts of Nitrogen and 3 parts of Hydrogen, and from this it is easy to reckon the exact quantity of Nitrogen in 100 parts, or in any given weight of Ammonia.

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B.—COMPOSITION OF VARIOUS ORGANIC SUBSTANCES.

LIGNIN.

Carbon . . . . .	4980
Oxygen . . . . .	4462
Hydrogen . . . . .	558
	<hr/>
	10000—PROUT.

GUM.

Carbon . . . . .	4268
Oxygen . . . . .	5095
Hydrogen . . . . .	637
	<hr/>
	10000—BERZELIUS.

CANE SUGAR.

Carbon . . . . .	4499
Oxygen . . . . .	4860
Hydrogen . . . . .	641
	<hr/>
	10000—BERZELIUS.

GRAPE SUGAR.

Carbon . . . . .	3671
Oxygen . . . . .	5651
Hydrogen . . . . .	678
	<hr/>
	10000—SAUSSURE.

STARCH.

Carbon . . . . .	4425
Oxygen . . . . .	4908
Hydrogen . . . . .	667
	<hr/>
	10000—BERZELIUS.

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## GLUTEN.

Carbon . . . . .	5522
Hydrogen . . . . .	742
Nitrogen . . . . .	1598
Oxygen with Phosphorus and Sulphur	} . . . . 2138
	<hr/> 10000—JONES. <hr/>

## VEGETABLE ALBUMEN.

Carbon . . . . .	5501
Hydrogen . . . . .	723
Nitrogen . . . . .	1592
Oxygen with Phosphorus and Sulphur	} . . . . 2184
	<hr/> 10000—JONES. <hr/>

## ANIMAL ALBUMEN.

Carbon . . . . .	5484
Hydrogen . . . . .	709
Nitrogen . . . . .	1583
Oxygen with Phosphorus and Sulphur	} . . . . 2224
	<hr/> 10000—MULDER. <hr/>

## ANIMAL FIBRIN.

Carbon . . . . .	5456
Hydrogen . . . . .	690
Nitrogen . . . . .	1572
Oxygen with Phosphorus and Sulphur	} . . . . 2282
	<hr/> 10000—MULDER. <hr/>

## ANIMAL GELATINE.

Carbon . . . . .	5077
Hydrogen . . . . .	715
Nitrogen . . . . .	1832
Oxygen with Sulphur and Phosphorus	} . . . . 2376
	<hr/> 10000—SCHERER. <hr/>



In these analyses the composition of the various organic substances is shown, quite independently of the number of atoms, or proportions of their elements which they contain. The above numbers show the quantity of each element in 10000 parts of the compound; the number of equivalents is easily calculated from such analyses.

C.—INORGANIC CONSTITUENTS OF PLANTS.

WHEAT.

100000 parts of dry Wheat contain 1177 parts of inorganic matter; the same quantity of Wheat straw contains 3518 parts of earthy matters. These consist of the following substances:—

	GRAIN.	STRAW.
Potash . . . . .	225	20
Soda . . . . .	240	29
Lime . . . . .	96	240
Magnesia . . . . .	690	32
Alumina . . . . .	26	90
Silica . . . . .	400	2870
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	50	37
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	40	170
Chlorine . . . . .	10	30
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	1777	3518—SPRENGEL.
	<hr/>	<hr/>

BARLEY.

100000 parts of dry Barley contain 2349, and 100000 parts of straw 5242, parts of inorganic matter, consisting of:—

	GRAIN.	STRAW.
Potash . . . . .	278	180
Soda . . . . .	290	48
Lime . . . . .	106	554
Magnesia . . . . .	180	76
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	trace	14
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	—	20
Alumina . . . . .	25	146
Silica . . . . .	1182	3856
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	59	118
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	210	160
Chlorine . . . . .	19	70
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	2349	5242—SPRENGEL
	<hr/>	<hr/>



## OATS.

100000 parts of dry Oats contain 2580, and 100000 parts of straw 5740 parts, of inorganic matter, consisting of:—

	GRAIN.	STRAW.
Potash . . . . .	150	870
Soda . . . . .	132	2
Lime . . . . .	86	152
Magnesia . . . . .	67	22
Alumina . . . . .	14	6
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	40	2
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	—	2
Silica . . . . .	1976	4588
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	35	79
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	70	12
Chlorine . . . . .	10	5
	<u>2580</u>	<u>5740</u> —SPRENGEL.

## RYE.

100000 parts of the grain of Rye contain 1040, and 100000 parts of the straw contain 2793, parts of inorganic matter, consisting of:—

	GRAIN.	STRAW.
Potash } . . . . .	532	32 11
Soda }		
Lime . . . . .	122	178
Magnesia . . . . .	44	12
Alumina . . . . .	24	25
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	42	
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	34	—
Silica . . . . .	164	2297
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	23	170
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	46	51
Chlorine . . . . .	9	17
	<u>1040</u>	<u>2793</u> —SPRENGEL.



## COMMON PEAS.

100000 parts of Seed contain 2464, and 100000 parts of the straw contain 4971, parts of inorganic matter, consisting of :—

	SEED.	STRAW.
Potash . . . . .	810	235
Soda . . . . .	739	—
Lime . . . . .	58	2730
Magnesia . . . . .	136	342
Alumina . . . . .	20	60
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	10	20
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	—	7
Silica . . . . .	410	996
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	53	337
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	190	240
Chlorine . . . . .	38	4
	<u>2464</u>	<u>4971</u> —SPRENGEL.

## BEANS.

100000 parts of Seed contain 2136, and 100000 parts of the straw contain 3121, parts of inorganic matter, consisting of :—

	SEED.	STRAW.
Potash . . . . .	415	1656
Soda . . . . .	816	50
Lime . . . . .	165	624
Magnesia . . . . .	158	209
Alumina . . . . .	34	10
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	—	7
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	—	5
Silica . . . . .	126	220
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	89	34
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	292	226
Chlorine . . . . .	41	80
	<u>2136</u>	<u>3121</u> —SPRENGEL.



## LUCERN.

100000 parts of fresh Lucern contain 2580 parts of inorganic matter, consisting of:—

Potash . . . . .	362
Soda . . . . .	166
Lime . . . . .	1304
Magnesia . . . . .	94
Alumina . . . . .	8
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	8
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	0
Silica . . . . .	90
Chlorine . . . . .	86
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	109
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	353
	<hr/>
	2580—SPRENGEL.
	<hr/>

## SAINTFOIN.

100000 parts of the fresh plant contain 1671 parts of inorganic matter, consisting of:—

Potash . . . . .	494
Soda . . . . .	105
Lime . . . . .	527
Magnesia . . . . .	69
Alumina . . . . .	16
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	traces
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	0
Silica . . . . .	120
Chlorine . . . . .	38
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	82
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	220
	<hr/>
	1671—SPRENGEL.
	<hr/>



## WHITE CLOVER.

100000 parts of White Clover in the fresh state contain 1735 parts of inorganic matter, consisting of :—

Potash . . . . .	590
Soda . . . . .	110
Lime . . . . .	446
Magnesia . . . . .	58
Alumina . . . . .	36
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	12
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	0
Silica . . . . .	280
Chlorine . . . . .	40
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	67
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	96

1735—SPRENGEL.

## LINSEED.

100000 parts of Linseed contain 2340 parts of inorganic matter, and 100000 parts of the stem contain 1456 parts of inorganic matter, consisting of :—

	SEED.	STALKS.
Potash } . . . . .	438	510
Soda }		
Lime . . . . .	630	230
Magnesia . . . . .	234	480
Alumina . . . . .	2	2
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	trace	10
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	0	0
Silica . . . . .	120	20
Chlorine . . . . .	12	20
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	24	66
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	880	118

2340                      1456—SPRENGEL.



## BUCKWHEAT.

100000 parts of the seed of Buckwheat contain 1354 parts of inorganic matter; 100000 parts of the dry straw contain 3203 parts, consisting of :—

	SEED.	STRAW.
Potash . . . . .	204	332
Soda . . . . .	330	62
Lime . . . . .	156	704
Magnesia . . . . .	183	1292
Alumina . . . . .	26	26
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	8	15
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	44	32
Silica . . . . .	144	140
Chlorine . . . . .	15	95
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	74	217
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	170	288
	<u>1354</u>	<u>3203</u> —SPRENGEL.

## BEET.

100000 parts of dry Beet-root contain 5986 parts of inorganic matter, and 100000 parts of the dry leaves contain 15439 parts, consisting of :—

	ROOT.	LEAVES.
Potash . . . . .	1481	5600
Soda . . . . .	3178	3290
Lime . . . . .	285	2316
Magnesia . . . . .	139	839
Alumina . . . . .	20	130
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	58	50
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	50	60
Silica . . . . .	105	425
Chlorine . . . . .	380	1064
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	423	975
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	167	690
	<u>5986</u>	<u>15439</u> —SPRENGEL.



## PARSNEP.

100000 parts of dry Parsnep roots contain 4643 parts of inorganic matter ; 100000 parts of the dry leaves contain 15661 parts, consisting of :—

	ROOT.	LEAVES.
Potash . . . . .	2310	3207
Soda . . . . .	780	2448
Lime . . . . .	520	4160
Magnesia . . . . .	300	473
Alumina . . . . .	26	132
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	5	9
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	0	0
Silica . . . . .	180	1400
Chlorine . . . . .	198	950
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	213	1198
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	111	1784
	<u>4643</u>	<u>15661</u> —SPRENGEL.

## CARROT.

100000 parts of dry Carrot contain 5090 parts of inorganic matter ; 100000 parts of the leaves contain 10420 parts, consisting of :—

	ROOT	LEAVES
Potash . . . . .	2718	3236
Soda . . . . .	709	921
Lime . . . . .	505	3050
Magnesia . . . . .	295	398
Alumina . . . . .	30	78
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	25	15
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	46	0
Silica . . . . .	105	454
Chlorine . . . . .	54	223
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	208	1082
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	395	963
	<u>5090</u>	<u>10420</u> —SPRENGEL.

## D.—ANALYSIS OF SOILS.

The following table shews the composition of three soils, according to the analysis of C. Sprengel. It is needless to give more than an example of the composition of soils, for the proportions of the different substances which constitute soils, vary



almost from field to field. Almost all good fertile soils contain a large quantity of silica, a portion of alumina, and various salts of lime, magnesia, potash and soda.

Silica and fine sand . . . . .	94998	92980	96721
Alumina . . . . .	610	820	370
Oxides of Iron . . . . .	1080	1666	480
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	268	188	trace
Lime, chiefly combined with Silica	141	748	5
Magnesia . . . . .	208	168	80
Potash . . . . .	50	65	trace
Soda . . . . .	44	130	36
Phosphoric Acid . . . . .	86	246	trace
Sulphuric Acid . . . . .	41	trace	trace
Chlorine (in common salt) . . . . .	4	trace	58
Humic Acid . . . . .	400	764	800
Humus, containing Nitrogen . . . . .	2070	2225	1450
	<u>100000</u>	<u>100000</u>	<u>100000</u>

These three analyses are given from Dr. Sprengel's book on the composition of soils; they are of soils taken from lands in the north of Germany, but serve as examples of the general nature of ordinary soils.

#### E.—COMPOSITION OF SEA-WATER.

(From the English Channel.)

Water . . . . .	96474
Common Salt . . . . .	2706
Chloride of Potassium . . . . .	76
Chloride of Magnesium . . . . .	366
Bromide of Magnesium . . . . .	3
Sulphate of Magnesia . . . . .	229
Sulphate of Lime . . . . .	140
Carbonate of Lime . . . . .	3
Iodine . . . . .	traces
Ammonia . . . . .	traces

100000—SCHWEITZER.

Iodine and Bromine are two undecomposed or elementary substances somewhat analogous to Chlorine (119, 120) in their nature



and properties, but they are far less common than Chlorine is; they combine with metals, &c. to form compounds called Iodides and Bromides, just as the similar compounds formed by Chlorine are called Chlorides. Magnesium is a peculiar metal, the oxide of which is the earth Magnesia, (218—) Chloride of magnesium dissolved in water constitutes Muriate of Magnesia (177—123).

F.—COMPOSITION OF GUANO.

The relative proportion of the constituents of Guano appears to vary slightly: the following analyses have recently been published.

Urate of Ammonia . . . . .	90
Oxalate of Ammonia . . . . .	106
Oxalate of Lime . . . . .	70
Phosphate of Ammonia . . . . .	60
Phosphate of Ammonia and Magnesia	26
Sulphate of Potash . . . . .	55
Sulphate of Soda . . . . .	38
Muriate of Ammonia . . . . .	42
Phosphate of Lime . . . . .	143
Sand, and clay . . . . .	47
Organic matter—traces of salts— of iron—and water } . . . . .	323
	<hr/> 1000—VÖLCKEL.

Urate of Ammonia . . . . .	32
Oxalate of Ammonia . . . . .	134
Oxalate of Lime . . . . .	164
Phosphate of Ammonia . . . . .	64
Phosphate of Ammonia and Magnesia	42
Sulphate of Potash . . . . .	42
Sulphate of Soda . . . . .	11
Muriate of Ammonia . . . . .	65
Phosphate of Lime . . . . .	100
Phosphate of Soda . . . . .	53
Alumina . . . . .	1
Residue (insoluble in acids) . . . . .	58
Waxy and Resinous matters . . . . .	6
Common Salt . . . . .	1
Organic matter—free ammonia, } &c. Water } . . . . .	227
	<hr/> 1000—BERTELS.



The first salt mentioned in these two analyses, the Urate of Ammonia, is a compound of Ammonia with Uric acid : a peculiar organic acid, which is formed in the urine of many animals.

G.—COMPOSITION OF THE URINE OF THE COW.

The composition of cows' urine, and the changes which it undergoes when suffered to putrify, either alone or mixed with water, are shown in the following table. Urea is a peculiar organic substance containing a large proportion of nitrogen, which is found in fresh urine. Benzoic and Lactic acids are organic acids, consisting of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen.

	FRESH.	PUTRIFIED ALONE.	PUTRIFIED WITH WATER
Urea . . . . .	4000	1000	600
Albumen . . . . .	10	—	—
Mucus . . . . .	190	40	30
Benzoic acid . . . . .	90	250	120
Lactic acid . . . . .	516	500	500
Carbonic acid . . . . .	256	165	1533
Ammonia . . . . .	205	487	1622
Potash . . . . .	664	664	664
Soda . . . . .	554	554	554
Silica . . . . .	36	5	8
Alumina . . . . .	2	—	—
Oxide of Iron . . . . .	4	1	—
Oxide of Manganese . . . . .	1	—	—
Lime . . . . .	65	2	8
Magnesia . . . . .	36	22	30
Chlorine . . . . .	272	272	272
Sulphuric acid . . . . .	405	388	332
Phosphoric acid . . . . .	70	26	46
Acetic acid, or Vinegar . . . . .	—	1	20
Sulphuretted hydrogen . . . . .	—	1	30
Insoluble earthy phosphates and Carbonates } . . . . .	—	180	150
Water . . . . .	92624	95442	93481
	<u>100000</u>	<u>100000</u>	<u>100000</u>

SPRENGEL.



## H.—COMPOSITION OF HUMAN URINE.

Urea . . . . .	3010
Mucus . . . . .	32
Lactic Acid, Lactate of Ammonia, Animal matter insoluble in alcohol	1714
Chloride of Sodium . . . . .	445
Sulphate of Potash . . . . .	371
Sulphate of Soda . . . . .	316
Phosphate of Soda . . . . .	294
Phosphate of Ammonia . . . . .	165
Muriate of Ammonia . . . . .	150
Earthy Phosphates . . . . .	100
Uric acid . . . . .	100
Silica . . . . .	3
Water . . . . .	93300

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100000—BERZELIUS.



## INDEX.

- ACCLIMATIZING, 119  
 Acid, benzoic, 163  
 Acid, carbonic, 11, 151  
 Acid, humic, 102, 105  
 Acid, lactic, 163  
 Acid, muriatic, 40, 48  
 Acid, nitric, 34, 49, 127, 137, 151  
 Acid, phosphoric, 42, 151  
 Acid, sulphuric, 35, 38, 151  
 Acid, sulphurous, 37, 151  
 Acid, uric, 163, 164  
 Acids, 24  
 Acids, organic, 81  
 Acids, test for, 25  
 Action of plants on the air, 120  
 Active principles of plants, 83  
 Affinity, 2  
 Air, 6, 95  
 Air, bad, 8  
 Air, good, 8  
 Air, inflammable, 16  
 Alabaster, 57  
 Albumen, animal, 89, 153  
 Albumen, vegetable, 80, 151  
 Ale, bottled, 27  
 Alkali, volatile, 33  
 Alkalies, 43  
 Alkalies, vegetable, 84  
 Alum, 62  
 Alumine, 61, 96, 99, 151  
 Alumine, sulphate of, 62  
 Ammonia, 18, 32, 43, 51, 126, 128, 151  
 Ammonia, fixing, 133  
 Ammonia, fixing by acids, 132, 133  
 Ammonia, fixing by gypsum, 53, 133  
 Ammonia, fixing by copperas, 133  
 Ammonia, carbonate of, 32, 52  
 Ammonia, muriate of, 52  
 Ammonia, phosphate of, 133  
 Ammonia sulphate, 53  
 Ammonia, urate of, 163  
 Ammoniacal liquor of the gas-works,  
     145  
 Animal manures, 128, 129  
 Animal principles, proximate, 89  
 Animal substances, 88  
 Aquafortis, 24, 34, 35  
 Arrow-root, 78  
 Attraction, 2  
 Ashes, 43, 143  
 Ashes, wood, 138  
 Ashes of plants, 87, 154  
 Ashes of coal, 144  
 Ashes of sea weed, 49  
 Atoms, 150  
 Bad air, 8  
 Barilla, 49  
 Barley, 110  
 Barley, analysis of, 154  
 Bases, 24, 43  
 Bay salt, 48  
 Beans, analysis of, 156  
 Beet, analysis of, 159  
 Binary compounds, 75  
 Bleaching, 40  
 Blood, 67, 91, 134  
 Bone, 91, 130, 135, 136  
 Bones, boiled, 137  
 Bones, green, 137  
 Bottled ale, 27  
 Bran, 139, 143  
 Breathing of Animals, 23  
 Brimstone, 35  
 Bromides, 162  
 Bromine, 161  
 Buckwheat, analysis of, 159  
 Bubbling, or effervescence, 55  
 Burning, 8, 144  
 Burning of plants, 87  
 Burnt clay, 137, 144  
 Carbon, 11, 19, 151  
 Carbon in plants, 21  
 Carbonate of ammonia, 32, 52  
 Carbonate of iron, 67  
 Carbonate of lime, 26, 32, 56, 141  
 Carbonate of magnesia, 59, 142  
 Carbonate of potash, 43, 87  
 Carbonate of soda, 50, 87,  
 Carbonic acid, 11, 23, 25, 106, 112,  
     116, 151  
 Carbonic oxide, 30, 151  
 Carburetted hydrogen, 18—28, 95, 108  
     151



- Carcases, 135  
 Carrot, analysis of, 160  
 Casein, 92  
 Castor oil, 82  
 Caustic lime, 142  
 Caustic potash, 87  
 Caustic substances, 24  
 Chalk, 4, 19, 26, 124, 142  
 Changes, chemical, 84, 110  
 Charcoal, 10, 19, 137, 144  
 Charring, 20  
 Cheltenham salts, 51  
 Chemical changes, 84, 110  
 Cherry-tree gum, 78  
 Chloride of sodium, 41  
 Chlorine, 40, 151  
 Cider, 27  
 Citric acid, 82  
 Clay, 61  
 Clay, burnt, 137, 144  
 Climate, effects of, 119  
 Clover, analysis of, 158  
 Coal, ashes of, 144  
 Coal gas, 18, 29  
 Cocoa-nut oil, 82  
 Cohesion, 20  
 Coke, 71  
 Colour, 40  
 Colour of soil, 100  
 Colours, changing of, 24  
 Colours of plants, 81  
 Colouring matter, 83  
 Combination, 2  
 Combining numbers, 150  
 Combining weights, 151  
 Combustion, 8, 22  
 Combustion, results of, 11  
 Common salt, 41, 47, 147  
 Composition of bodies, 150  
 Composition of soils, 99  
 Composition of water, 16  
 Compounds, binary, 75  
 Compounds, all definite, 29  
 Compounds, saline, 24  
 Compounds, ternary and quaternary, 75  
 Contagion, 37  
 Contagious matters, 40  
 Copperas, 133  
 Corn, 100  
 Crops, rotation of, 123  
 Cubic nitre, 48  
 Cultivated lands, 121  
  
 Decay, 22  
 Decay of humus, 104  
 Decomposition, 4  
 Decomposition of stony particles, 98  
 Deliquescent, 60  
 Dew, 14  
 Diamond, 19  
 Division, mechanical, 99  
  
 Draining, 140  
 Dung, 134  
 Dutch rushes, 65  
  
 Earths, 43, 54  
 Earthy substances, 86  
 Earthy substances in plants, 118  
 Effervescence, 55  
 Elements, 5  
 Embryo, 111  
 Embryo of a seed, 116  
 Epsom salts, 60  
 Equivalent weights, 151  
 Excrements, 131  
 Excrements of sea-fowl, 132  
 Experiments, 141  
  
 Fallowing, 122  
 Farm-yard manure, 139  
 Fat, 90, 134, 137  
 Fatty substances, 136  
 Fermentation, 27, 85  
 Fertility, 121  
 Fibre, woody, 76  
 Fibrin, 89, 153  
 Fire damp, 28  
 Fire, lighting a, 11  
 Fixed oil, 82  
 Fixing ammonia, 53, 133  
 Flax, 77, 84  
 Flesh of animals, 90, 134  
 Flint, 62  
 Flowers, use of, 114  
 Food of animals, 92  
 Food of plants, 94, 129  
 Food, too great a supply of, 130  
 Formation of seed, 114  
 Formation of soils, 98  
 Foul smells, 40, 127  
 Fruit, ripening of, 115  
 Fruit and seeds, 117  
 Fruit, unripe, 82  
 Fungi, 134  
 Fumigation, 37  
  
 Gas, 8  
 Gas, inflammable, 18  
 Gas liquor, 145  
 Gas-works, 52  
 Gas-works, ammoniacal liquor of, 145  
 Gas-works, refuse of, 145  
 Gelatin, 89, 137, 153  
 Germination, 106, 107, 110  
 Germination in oxygen, 108  
 Glass, 50, 63  
 Glauber's salts, 51  
 Glue, 90, 137  
 Gluten, 80, 86, 153  
 Good air, 8  
 Grass, 100  
 Green bones, 137  
 Green manures, 139



- Green vitriol, 70, 133  
 Growth of plants, 112  
 Guano, 132, 162  
 Gum, 78, 93, 152  
 Gum arabic, 78  
 Gum, cherry-tree, 78  
 Gum, resin, 83  
 Gunpowder, 46  
 Gypsum, 57, 74, 133, 143  
  
 Hair, 135  
 Hard water, 17, 58  
 Hartshorn, salt of, 52  
 Heat, 10  
 Heat, latent, 15  
 Hoofs, 90, 135  
 Horns, 90, 135, 136  
 Humates, 106  
 Humic acid, 102, 105  
 Humus, 103  
 Humus, decay of, 104  
 Hydrogen gas, 16, 151  
 Hydrogen, carburetted, 18, 28, 95, 195, 151  
 Hydrogen, sulphuretted, 39, 127, 138, 151  
  
 Ice, 14  
 Inflammable air, 16,  
 Inflammable gas, 18  
 Inorganic manures, 140  
 Iodides, 162  
 Iodine, 161  
 Iron, 67, 100, 151  
 Iron, carbonate of, 67  
 Iron, oxide of, 33, 67, 68  
 Iron, peroxide of, 68  
 Iron, protoxide of, 68, 151  
 Iron-stoves, 67  
 Iron, sulphate of, 70, 100, 133  
 Iron, sulphuret of, 70  
 Isinglass, 90  
 Ivory, 91  
  
 Kelp, 49, 144  
  
 Latent heat, 15  
 Lead, red, 73  
 Lead, white, 73  
 Lead, oxides of, 73  
 Leaves, 139  
 Leaves, use of the, 113  
 Legumine, 92  
 Lettuce, 147  
 Light, 107  
 Light, effects of, 108  
 Lighting a fire, 11  
 Lignin, 76, 86, 152  
 Lime, 24, 54, 78, 96, 97, 100, 136, 151  
 Lime, carbonate of, 26, 32, 56, 141  
 Lime, caustic, 54, 142  
 Lime, when useful, 139  
  
 Lime, when not to be used, 138  
 Lime, muriate of, 59  
 Lime, nitrate of, 34, 142, 146  
 Lime, phosphate of, 58, 87, 137, 143  
 Lime, quick, 142  
 Lime, sulphate of, 57, 87, 133, 143, 150  
 Limestone, 4  
 Limestone, magnesian, 59  
 Linseed, 82, 158  
 Liquid manure, 129, 130  
 Litharge, 73  
 Loss of manure, 132  
 Lucerne, analysis of, 157  
  
 Magnesia, 59, 88, 96, 100, 151  
 Magnesia, carbonate of, 59, 142  
 Magnesia, caustic, 59, 142  
 Magnesia, muriate of, 60  
 Magnesia, phosphate of, 88, 143  
 Magnesia, sulphate of, 60  
 Magnesia, salts of, 36, 60  
 Magnesian limestone, 59  
 Magnesium, 162  
 Malting, 110  
 Malic acid, 82  
 Manganese, 72  
 Manganese, oxide of, 88  
 Manure, 125  
 Manures, animal, 128, 129  
 Manures, inorganic, 140  
 Manure, farm-yard, 139  
 Manures, green, 139  
 Manure, loss of, 132  
 Manure, liquid, 129, 130  
 Manures, organic, 125, 126  
 Manures, saline, 148  
 Manures, strong, 135  
 Manures, vegetable, 138  
 Marble, 19  
 Meat, 127  
 Mechanical division, 99  
 Metallic oxides, 66  
 Metals, 61  
 Minium, 73  
 Mixture, 3  
 Mould, 103  
 Mouldiness, 134  
 Mucilage, 78  
 Muriates, 40,  
 Muriatic acid, 40 48, 151  
 Muriate of ammonia, 52  
 Muriate of lime, 59  
 Muriate of magnesia, 60  
 Muriate of soda, 48  
 Muscle of animals, 90, 93  
 Mustard, 82  
  
 Natural vegetation, 121  
 Nature of the soil, 109  
 Nitrates, 147  
 Nitrate of lime, 34, 142, 146  
 Nitrate of potash, 34, 43, 146



- Nitrate of soda, 34, 49, 141, 147  
 Nitre, 45  
 Nitre, cubic, 48  
 Nitric acid, 34, 127, 137, 49, 151  
 Nitrogen, 8, 11, 31, 95  
 Nutrition of plants, 118, 151
- Oats, analysis of, 155  
 Oil, 82, 84  
 Oil-cake, 139  
 Oil, castor, 82  
 Oil, cocoa-nut, 82  
 Oil, fixed, 82  
 Oil, olive, 82  
 Oil of vitriol, 24, 35, 38, 82  
 Oil of poppy, 82  
 Oil of rape, 82  
 Oil of linseed, 82  
 Oil of mustard, 82  
 Oil of lavender, 82  
 Oil of cloves, 82  
 Oil of lemons, 82  
 Oily matters, 134  
 Olive oil, 82  
 Organic acids, 81  
 Organic manures, 125, 126  
 Organic substances in soils, 102  
 Organic substances, 75, 116  
 Organised matters, 116  
 Oxalic acid, 82  
 Oxide, carbonic, 30  
 Oxide of manganese, 88  
 Oxide of iron, 66, 68, 88, 96  
 Oxides, metallic, 66  
 Oxygen, 8, 11, 151
- Paring, 144  
 Parsnep, analysis of, 160  
 Pearlash, 25, 44  
 Peas, analysis of, 156  
 Peat, 144  
 Peroxide of iron, 68  
 Petre, 45  
 Phosphate of ammonia, 133  
 Phosphate of lime, 58, 87, 137, 143  
 Phosphate of magnesia, 88, 143  
 Phosphoric acid, 42, 151  
 Phosphorus, 42, 151  
 Pickling, 25  
 Plants, burning of, 89  
 Plants, action of, on the air, 120  
 Plants, death of, 120  
 Plants, food of, 94  
 Plants, growth of, 112  
 Plants, nutrition of, 118  
 Plaster-stone, 57  
 Ploughing, subsoil, 124, 140  
 Poppy, 82  
 Potash, 24, 43, 97, 146, 151  
 Potash, carbonate of, 43  
 Potash, caustic, 87  
 Potash, nitrate of, 34, 45, 146
- Potash, salts of, 47  
 Potash, silicate of, 65  
 Potassium, 44  
 Potassium, chloride, 161  
 Potato-flour, 78  
 Potatoes, 77  
 Pottery, 62  
 Protoxide of iron, 68  
 Proximate animal principles, 89  
 Principles, active, 83  
 Proportions, 150  
 Pruning, 114  
 Putrefaction, results of, 127  
 Putrefiable matter, 137  
 Putrefying animal matter, 39  
 Putrid urine, 146  
 Pyrites, 70
- Quartz, 62  
 Quicklime, 3, 57, 142
- Rain-water, 17  
 Rape, 82  
 Raw bones, 137  
 Red cabbage, 25  
 Red lead, 73  
 Refuse of gas-works, 145  
 Resins, 82  
 Respiration, 131  
 Results of combustion, 11  
 Results of putrefaction, 127  
 Rhubarb, 82  
 Ripening of fruit, 115  
 River-water, 58  
 Rock-salt, 48  
 Rotation of crops, 123  
 Rust, 72  
 Rusting, 68  
 Rye, analysis of, 155
- Saccharine matter, 78  
 Sago, 78  
 Saintfoin, analysis of, 157  
 Sal ammoniac, 52  
 Saline compounds, 24  
 Saline manures, 148  
 Salts, 24  
 Salt, bay, 48  
 Salts, Cheltenham, 51  
 Salt, common, 41, 47, 147  
 Salts, Epsom, 60  
 Salts, Glauber's, 51  
 Salts of hartshorn, 25  
 Salts of magnesia, 60  
 Salts of Potash, 47  
 Saltpetre, 45  
 Salts of soda, 51  
 Salts of Iron, 71  
 Salts, metallic, 72, 74  
 Salt, rock, 48  
 Sand, 62  
 Sawdust, 136, 139



- Sea-fowl, excrements of, 132  
 Sea-shore, 96  
 Sea-water, 47, 161  
 Sea-weed, 49, 139  
 Seeds and fruit, 117  
 Seed, formation of, 114  
 Selection by the roots, 118  
 Shells, 143  
 Shell-sand, 142  
 Silica, 62, 87, 96, 98, 151  
 Silicates, 64, 98  
 Silicate of potash, 65  
 Silicic acid, 63  
 Silex, 62  
 Skin, 90  
 Slag, 40, 68  
 Smell, 39  
 Smells, foul, 40, 127  
 Smelting, 67  
 Soap, 2  
 Soap-making, 50, 151  
 Soap-boiling, 2  
 Soda, 24, 41, 43, 47, 50  
 Soda, carbonate of, 50, 87  
 Soda, muriate of, 48  
 Soda, nitrate of, 34, 49  
 Soda, sulphate of, 41, 51  
 Sodium, 41, 48  
 Sodium, chloride of, 41  
 Soft water, 58  
 Soils, analysis of, 161  
 Soil, colour of, 100  
 Soils, composition of, 99  
 Soils, formation of, 98  
 Soil, nature of, 109  
 Soot, 52, 145  
 Sorrel, 82  
 Spirit, 85  
 Spirit of salt, 41  
 Spirit of wine, 84  
 Spring-water, 58  
 Starch, 77, 84, 93, 152  
 Steam, 13  
 Stoves, 62  
 Straw, 109  
 Strong manures, 135  
 Subsoil, 123  
 Subsoil ploughing, 124, 140  
 Substances, in soils, organic, 102  
 Substances, volatile, 129  
 Substratum, 123  
 Sugar, 86, 78, 84, 93, 152  
 Sulphates, 39  
 Sulphate of alumine, 62  
 Sulphate of iron, 70, 109, 133, 74  
 Sulphate of lime, 57, 87, 133, 143, 150  
 Sulphate of magnesia, 60  
 Sulphate of soda, 41, 51  
 Sulphur, 35, 36, 151  
 Sulphuret of iron, 70  
 Sulphuric acid, 35, 38, 151  
 Sulphurous acid, 37, 151  
 Sulphuretted hydrogen, 39, 127, 138, 151  
 Sunflower, 147  
 Tapioca, 78  
 Tartaric acid, 82  
 Teeth, 91  
 Ternary and quaternary compounds, 75  
 The tropics, 119  
 Tobacco, 147  
 Treacle, 79  
 Turf, 144  
 Unripe fruit, 82  
 Urea, 163  
 Urine, 134, 163, 164  
 Urine, putrid, 146  
 Use of the leaves, 113  
 Use of plants, 12  
 Vapour in the air, 13  
 Vegetable alkalies, 84  
 Vegetable manures, 138  
 Vinegar, 5, 82, 84  
 Vitriol, green, 70, 133  
 Vitriol, oil of, 38  
 Volatile alkali, 33  
 Volatile oil, 82  
 Volatile substances, 129  
 Water, 14, 104, 151  
 Water, composition of, 16  
 Water, hard, 17, 58  
 Water, rain, 17  
 Water, river, 58  
 Water, sea, 17, 47, 161  
 Water, soft, 58  
 Water, spring, 58  
 Wheat, analysis of, 154  
 Weeds, 144  
 Weed-ash, 49  
 White of egg, 89  
 White lead, 73  
 Wood ashes, 138, 146  
 Woody fibre, 76  
 Wool, 135, 136  
 Yeast, 85



LONDON:

BRADBURY AND EVANS, PRINTERS, WHITEFRIARS.



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*On Saturday, January 7, was published, price Sixpence, stamped to go  
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THE FIRST NUMBER FOR 1843 OF

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