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Contributors

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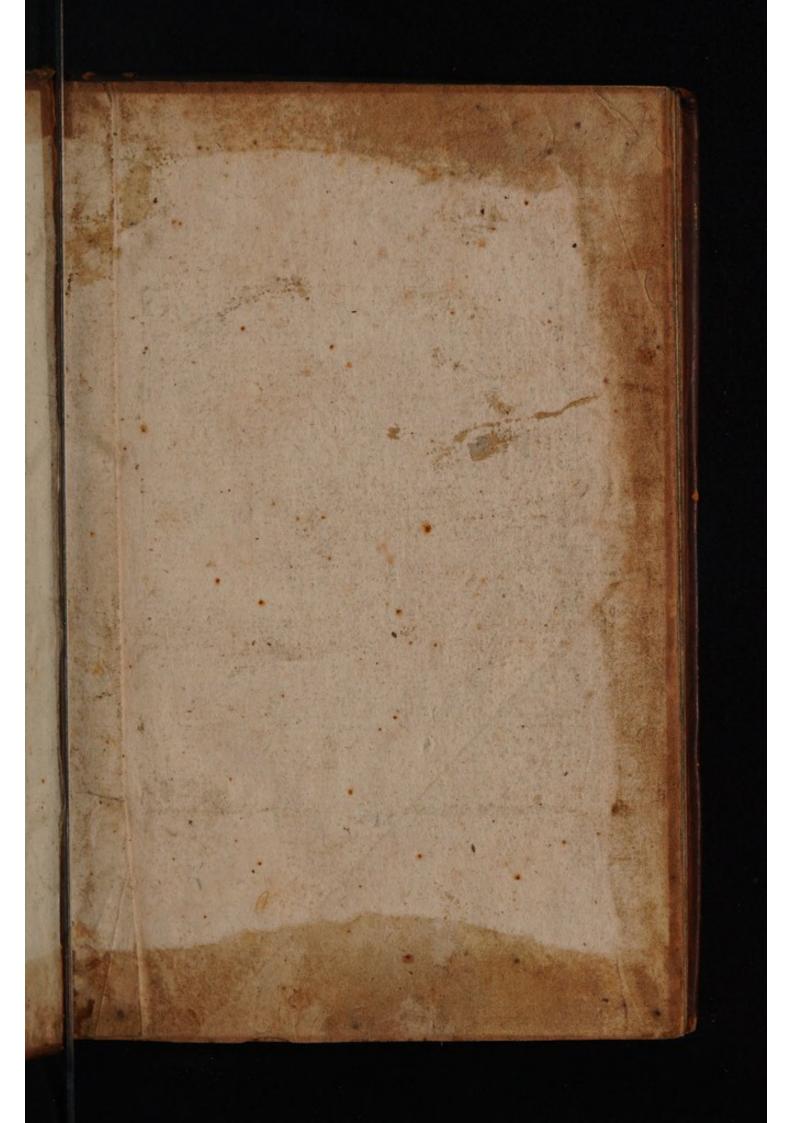


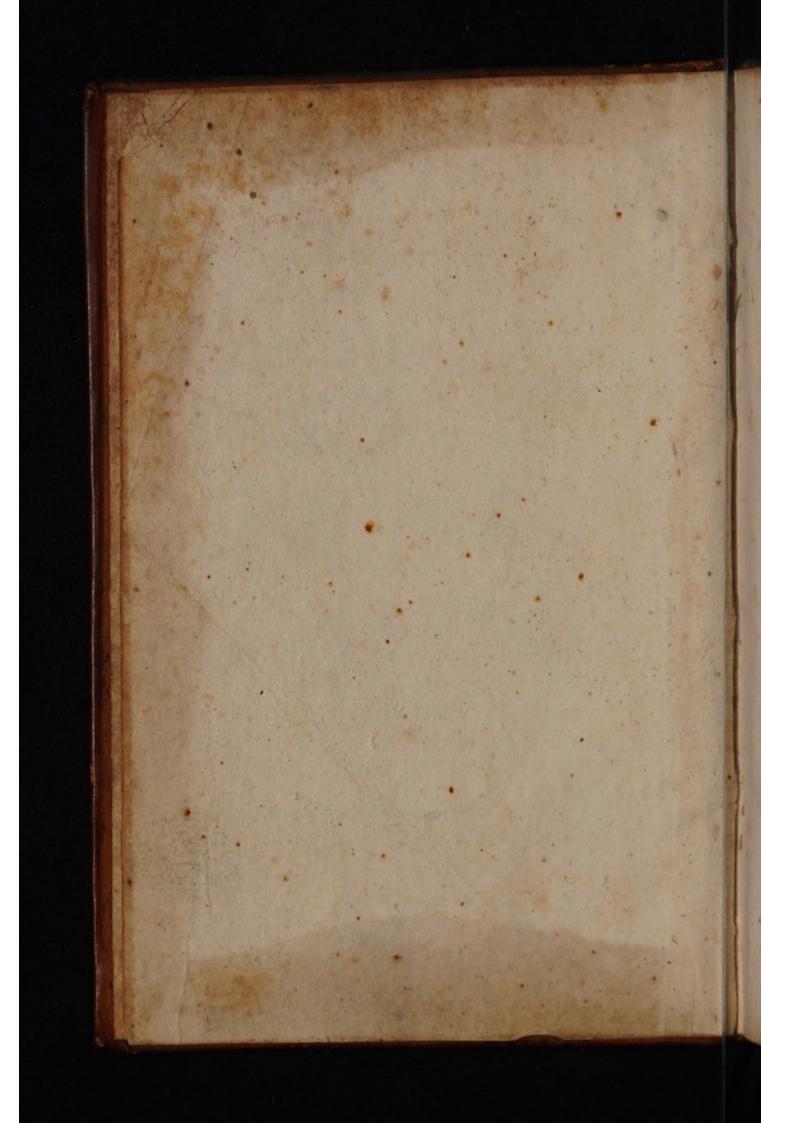


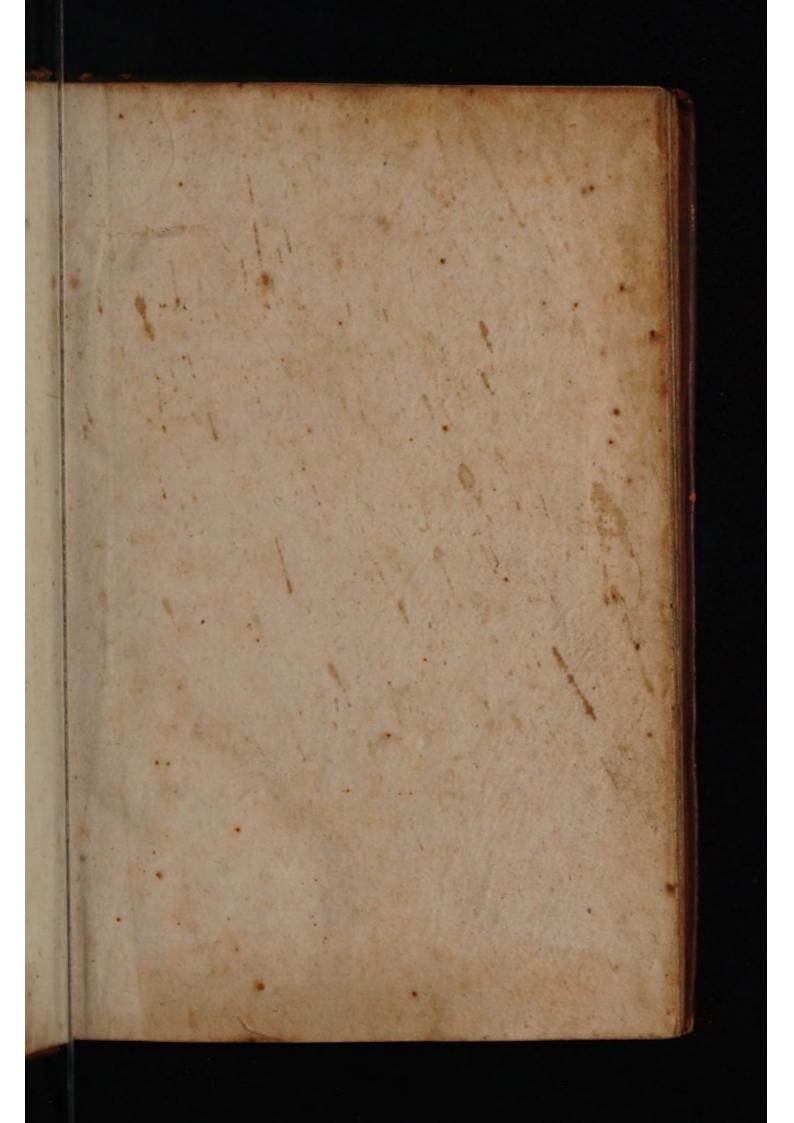


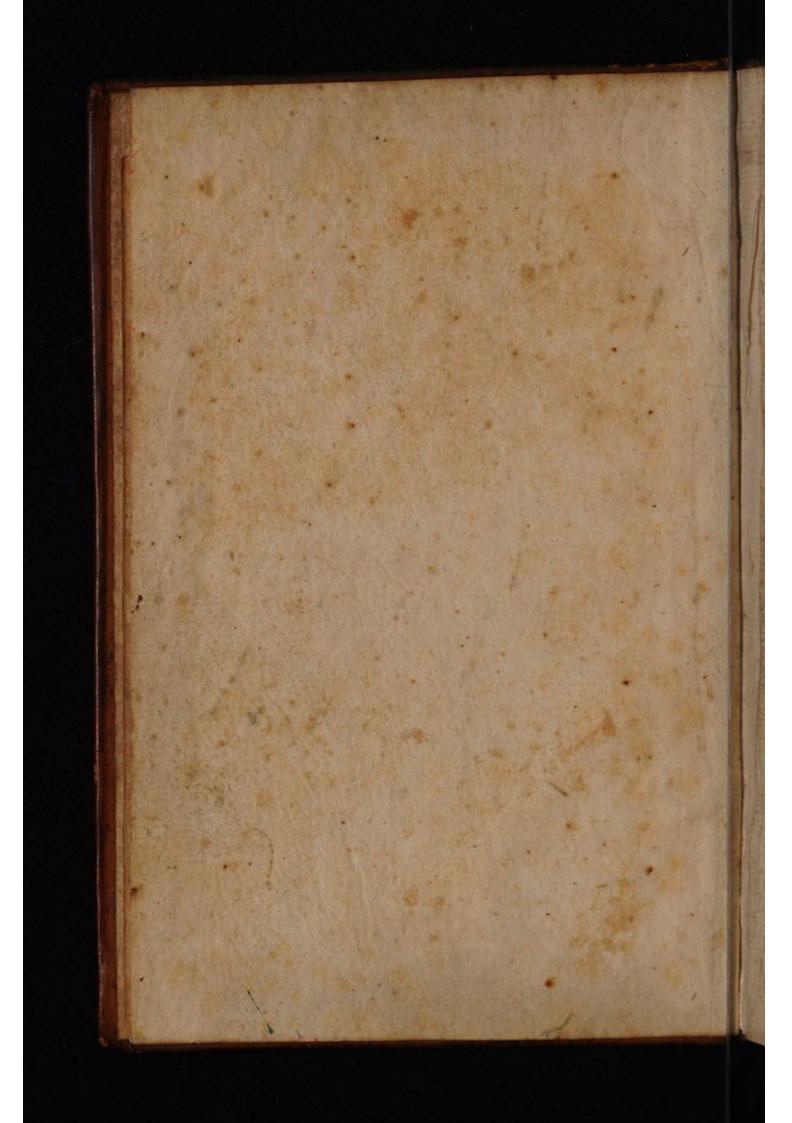


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Rostatum hunc cui Titulus Essays
of Anatomy, dignum judicamus
qui Imprimatur,

SAMUEL COLLINS, Plafes, THOMAS BURWELL, CONTAINS TORLESSE, Confored WILLIAM DAWES, THOMAS GILL,

Dat. in Comitiis Censoriis en edilesis Cellegii Nostri Dic. 6. A. D. 1695.

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ESSAYS

ANATOMY,

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Wherein the Formation of the

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AND THEIR

MECHANICAL OPERATIONS

Are clearly Explained, according to the New

HYPOTHESES.

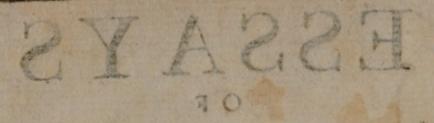
By Monf. BEDDEVOLE, Dr. of Physick.

Written Originally in French.

The Second Edition.

LONDON,

Printed for Walter Kettilby, at the Bishop's Head in St. Paul's Church-Tard, 1696.



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Publick with the HTriments of his.

Viscount of TARBAT.

Flattery which is but too common in many

Dedications: And do with , d'a o d vM

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the Approbation of a most ingenious Piece, it has encouraged the making and publishing this Translation, to supply the Scarcity of French Copies, and to satisfie the Curious, who do not understand that Language. And seeing the Author of the Essays, lately Deceased, had the Honour of your Lordship's Acquaintance, as well as the Favour of your good Opinion, I presume your Lordship will be easily induced to take this Translation under your Patronage and Brotestion.

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The DEDICATION.

The worthy Author was pleased to write to me some other of his Thoughts, about the same Subject; but to my great Regret his Letter did unhappily miscarry, otherwise I might likewise have gratisted the Publick with those Sentiments of his. My Lord, I presume to presix your Lordship's Name to this, which I know will be the more acceptable, because I shun that Flattery which is but too common in many Dedications: And do with all Submission subscribe my self,

the Approbation of a most inge-

Your Lordship's Teach Copies

And ro latisfic the Carious, who do not the Anaron along wage. And seeing the Anthor of the Estays, lately Deceased,

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THE

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TO THE

READER.

Hose that judge of a Book by the Title, are Discouraged at an Inartificial one; and on the contrary, believe the Work valuable that is set off with a well contrived one. We might doubt of their acceptance of this little Treatife, if many others which have appeared with the same Modesty, and have nevertheless had a great Success, had not favourably disposed the Reader for the word Essays. Since those of the

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ADVERTISEMENT.

Famous Montaigne, how many others have appeared in Physick and Morality, which have gain'd the Applause of the Learned? I hope therefore that they will not be prejudiced against this present Treatise, because it promiseth nothing but Essays, and that they will have the patience to see what it says.

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Hose that judge of a Book by the Title, are Discouraged at an Inartificial one; and on the contrary, believe the Work valuable that is set off with a well contrived one. We might doubt of their acceptance of this little freatise, if many others which have appeared with the same Modesty, and have nevertheless had a great Success, have nevertheless had a great Success, had not favourably disposed the Reader for the word Estays. Since those of the Fa-

The AUTHOR's

PREFACE.

HE knowledge of the Living Body is extremely necessary for Physicians:
Without it they practise at random. This is a Flam-

beau which gives them Light in the Caufes of Diseases, and in the Choice of Remedies. And all that understand nothing of it, can reasonably be concluded no other than Empiricks.

The Judicious and Ingenious Men have always acknowledged this. For this it is they have ever studied Anatomy with the greatest Application. In Ages past they thought they had attain'd to a Perfection in it. But in this they have found,

HE

to the shame of Physicians, that they have made but a very small Pro-

gres.

Former Ages were so prepossessed in favour of the Ancients, that they never apply d themselves to learn any thing but what these had discovered. Hippocrates and Galen only were then studied. They sought in their Writings, all that they were obliged to know to render them accomplished in their Art. They imagin'd they knew all, and took those for Visionaries, who pretended to know more than these: And this is the reason they have been so extremely barren in their Discories.

But, Thanks to the Penetration of an excellent Philosopher of this Age, it has been discovered that the Living Body is only a Machine. Men have applied their Minds to discover its Springs. In this Harvey and Pecquet have been successful. The Circulation of the Blood has Immortalized the one, and the Reservatory of the Chyle and the Ductus Tho-

Thoracicus, has given the other an Ever-

lasting Reputation.

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Their Example has animated all Anatomists. They found they had made small progress in the knowledge of this Machine. They were persuaded that they needed but search to make Discoveries. In effect the Bartholin's, the Wharton's, the Steno's, the Willis's, the Glisson's, the Lower's, the de Graaf's, &c. and above all the Malpighii have searched very narrowly into the Structure of the Living Body. The Discoveries which they have made give us an Idæa of an Animal, altogether different from what the Ancients had of it.

It might seem that after them, there remained nothing to be Discovered. Nevertheless there are Treatises frequently published, which tontain some new thing, and I doubt not but an hundred years hence

they may make some new Discovery.

The Contrivance of the Body, is necessary for explaining the Office and Function of its Parts; and if what we fancy to be the Contrivance, is not sufficient for the

the Explication of the Operations of the Body, nor the Effects of its Particular Members and Parts, we may conclude there is something of this Contrivance yet to be Discovered. The best Anatomists ingenuously acknowledge, that they fail in many Particulars; there are therefore many Discoveries yet to be made.

Some of them will be found in these Estays; and to me they seem Important enough to make me believe that they will not be unacceptable. I do not conceive the same hopes of my Sentiments, concerning the nature and use of the Liquors which are found in the Living Body. To those who are prejudiced, the Novelty of the most part of them, will make them seem extravagant. But I hope those who do not condemn an Opinion, without having examined it, will do me the savour to believe, that if they sind them Erroneous, I was not hastily mistaken without good and probable inducements.

I shall only beg of them to Read the first Treatise of these Essays, before they read

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the rest. It gives the Idea which I make to my self of the Elements, and without it, they will not conceive so distinctly what

is contain'd in the rest.

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There is a great Connexion between all the Treatises of these Essays: Those who would understand them well, will not do ill to read them in Order. The Order which I give them will seem Fantastical to those who are accustomed to read Courses of Anatomy written according to the Ordinary Method. But they who shall observe that each Treatise serveth for the understanding of that which followeth, will acknowledge that I have given them a Natural Order.

Perhaps it may be thought strange, that I make no mention of Authors in the places where I set down their Discoveries. They may perhaps think that I do it on Design, to attribute to my self the Glory of them. In this they would do me a great Injury. I am not so base as to acquire Reputation at the Expence of that of others. But I have not nam'd those who have made the Discoveries,

veries, because every Body knows them, and it would be of nouse for the understanding of these Essays, if they had been quoted.

There is an excellent Anatomist at Montpellier, who is called Monsieur Chirac. The first reason which has made me wave the Names of others, has no place as to him. Nevertheless, I have not Nam'd him any where. But I'll do him Justice here. It is he who has written to me, that all the Glandules were nothing but heaps of Circumvolutions of Vessels; after which I have told him, That by chance I have observed something like to this in the Prostate of a Dog.

Moreover, almost all Authors place their Names in the Frontispiece of their Works. This probably flows from the good Opinion that every one has of his own Productions. Every Body is fond of them. There is scarce a silly Scribler, who does not imagine that his Work has something of Transcendent in it. Though for the most part it is nothing but a Mutilation

of good Authors.

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By this you may know the reason why I do not as others. I have no such Opinion of this Work as to imagine it will do me any great Honour: Besides I Write but to expose my Thoughts to others, to the end, that if they be wrong, they may Correct them, and if they be right, they may help forward to better.

Though the Author's Modesty would not allow him to put his Name to these ESS ATS, yet He being now dead, and They having received their Approbation of the Learned College of Physicians, the Translator thought sit to do him Justice, by putting his Name to this Edition.

ESSAYS

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ESSAYS

OF

ANATOMY.

Of the Elements of a Living Body.

SECT. I.
Of the first Elements.

HE Idea that we have of Matter and Motion, leads us to think, that all Bodies are composed of Insensible Corpuscles, of different Magnitude and Figure. If it fall out that many of these Corpuscles are united, they compose little Masses, which we call Molecule. And if they continue separated from one another, by reason of great Agitation, they

they compose a Matter which we shall nomi-

nate the Æthereal Matter.

Notwithstanding the Molecula are formed by the meeting together of the parts of the Athereal Matter, yet there is amongst them an almost infinite Diversity, as well in respect of their Magnitude as their Make and Figure. This will be sufficiently evident to those who shall consider, that the parts of the Æthereal Matter are very different from one another. For this Reason it is that the Molecula which are made up of them, are so different one from another. Now fince we have no reafon to deny, but that they are of infinite kinds, we may well think that they differ amongst themselves an infinite number of ways, as well in respect of their Magnitude, as of their Make and Figure.

To examine well the differences of their Structure and Figure; all the Molecula may be conveniently reduced to five kinds. The first shall be of those which have sharp Angles on their Surface with much Solidity: We shall call these kinds of Molecula, Acids. The second shall be of those which have many Pores, great and open: These we shall name Alcalis. The third shall be of those which are branched, which we shall call Sulphurs. The fourth shall be of those which are long, and their Extremities like those of an Oval:

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We shall name these Phlegm. And in fine, the fifth shall be of those, which have not sharp Angles on their Surface, which are not very Porous, which are not branched, and which are not Cylindrical with Oval ends; but which are either round, or Oval, or rough, Ge. and these we shall term Earth.

The Æthereal Matter flows without ceafing through the Pores of the Molecule: It fills also all the spaces where there are no Molecula; and these Molecula compose all

those Bodies which we call Terrestrial.

A living Body is one of these Terrestrial Bodies which are composed of Moleculæ: Therefore Acids, Alcali's, Sulphurs, Phlegm or Earth must needs be in it. Since therefore we have proposed to give a clear Idea of its Elements in this Discourse, we shall examine the nature of Acids, Alcali's, Sulphurs, Phlegm and Earth.

SECT. II. Of Acids.

To understand well the Nature of Acids, we must examine their Figure, their Structure, and their Magnitude. As to their Figure, when I examine the matter more narrowly, I observe that there is amongst them

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them almost an infinite difference. There are Conical, Triangular, Regular and Irregular of all forts: There are of them whose Angles are very sharp, and others of them whose Angles are less sharp. There are somethat have many Angles, and others that have not for many. And fince there may be amongst all this an Infinity of different Modifications, we make no scruple to say, that there is almost an infinite difference amongst Acids, by reafon of their Figure; which makes me think, that it would be a fruitless labour to endeafour to know all the differences which are amongst the Acids, by reason of their Figure. The multitude of them being Infinite, we cannot hope to know them alb We shall therefore content our felves to know in general, that all the Acids have tharp Angles on heir Surface, without enquiring whether the Spirit of Sulphur, for example, has its parts Conical, Pyramidal, of many fides, or otherwise.

As to the Structure of Acids; for a smuch as it consists in the ranging of the Particles of the Athereal Matter, we need not doubt but that the Diversity which is amongst them in this respect, is almost Infinite. In effect, the ranging of these Particles depends upon their Magnitude, as well as on their Figure and

their Motion.

Now there is an Infinite difference in the Mag-

Magnitude and Figure of the parts of the Athereal Matter, and they move an infinite number of ways: There must therefore be an Infinite difference in the Structure of Acids.

Nevertheless, forasmuch as hardness depends on the Structure, because the more hard a Body is, it has the sewer Pores, or its Pores are the smaller, we may suppose that we know in general the Structure of Acids, is that they being the hardest of all the Molecula, they must have the sewest Pores, or at least such as are the smallest. It shall satisfie us to know this, without troubling our selves to no purpose, to discover all the Modifications which may be in the Pores of Acids.

As to the Magnitude of their parts, the difference is also infinite; so that to consider them in this respect, it is impossible to determine all the Diversities. If we consider in the mean time, that we find Acids whose parts are so subtil and so delicate that they are exhaled by a small Fire; as for example, the parts of the Spirit of Venus, whilst we find others so gross and Massy, that they do not exhale but by the force of a vehement heat, such as the Oyl of Vitriol, the Spirit of Alum, &c. we may well reduce, by this means, the Acids under two kinds, by dividing them into Fixt and Volatile. The Fixt,

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are those which do not exhale, but by the force of a vehement Fire, and the Volatiles on the contrary shall be those which exhale by a moderate heat.

SECT. III. Of Alcali's.

Since Alcali's are nothing but the most porous Molecula, to know them the better we need only examine their Figure, their

Pores, and their Magnitude.

We may say here of Alcali's, what we have said of Acids in speaking of their Figure, viz. That they are so many, that it is impossible to know them all. The reason is, because their composition depends upon the motion of the Particles of the Athereal Matter.

For fince these Particles move every way, they may in uniting themselves compose Molecula of all sorts of Figures, as well Regular as Irregular. So that the Understanding, finding it self unable to examine them all, and wanting moreover means to accomplish it, must content its self to know that there are Alcali's of all sorts of Figures without being sollicitous to know the Figure of each Alcali.

It is convenient however to observe here that

that some Alcali's have the Figures of Acids; that is, that many Alcali's have sharp Angles on their Surface. But because they have not Solidity, they do not produce the same effect. In speaking of the hardness of Acids, we have infinuated that it depends upon the fewness or fmallness of their Pores. Seeing then the Alcali's are incomparably more Porous than the Acids, they must of necessity have very little hardness in comparison of the other, so that if some Moleculæ partake of an Acid because of their sharp Angles, and of an Alcali, because of the great number and wideness of their Pores, they cannot produce the same effect which Acids produce, because they have no Solidity, and in certain rencounters they have not the effect of Alcali's, because of the sharp Angles of their Surface. We shall call these forts of Molecula, Alcaline Acid Particles. ish on to bessess and

The Pores of Alcali's are also different from one another an infinite number of ways, which is the cause we cannot determine them; from hence it comes, that not being able to know in particular the Structure of the Pores of Alcali's, we shall content our selves to say, that they have the wideness and Figure that is needful to produce such an effect, when we are to speak of a Pinanomenon that depends upon them, which will serve on the like occasions.

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As to the Magnitude of the Alcaline parts, tho' the Diversities that are amongst them be infinite, yet we shall divide them into Fixt and Volatile as we have done the Acids. With this exception, that the Fixt Acids do exhale by the action of a quick Fire, whereas the Fixt Alcali's do not exhale at all.

We distinguish therefore Alcali's into Fixt and Volatile; the Fixt are those which subsiste in the Fire, and change rather into Glass, than exhale. And the Volatile are those which exhale by a moderate Fire; as for example, the Spir. of Sal. Arm. the Volatile Alcal. of

SECT. IV.

Of the mixture of Acids with Alcali's.

Fter having treated of the Acids and Alcali's, we must mingle them together, to see what will follow; and that we may pursue a method that may give no occasion of quarrel, we shall say nothing in this Chapter, which does not follow from what has been said in the foregoing.

If we consider that a pure Alcali is composed of nothing but the most porous Molecula, it must needs be granted that a great deal of the Athereal Matter passes through the pores of its parts.

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From hence it follows, that to the end a Body may subsist for a long time in the huddle of Ethereal Matter, the Pores which are on its Surface must be no greater than those which are in the middle. The reason is, that if the Pores of the Surface were not a little near equal, the parts of the Athereal Matter, which should enter on one side, could not get out on the other with the same freedom as they entered. They would therefore force by their great agitation all that should oppose their passage, and consequently break the union of the parts; the meeting together whereof made the Pores too small to permit them to pass through them. Here recourse cannot be had to the groffer parts of the Æthereal Matter, which remaining on the Surface of the Body might keep its parts united, by refifting them uniformly with as much force as the Ethereal Matter that passes within: Because all the parts of the Athereal Matter which are less gross than what runs through the parts of the Body, do not enter, and confequently rest on the Surface. But in as much as they have less force than what is within, they are obliged to give way, and let them at this place make all kind of havock, by difordering all the parts of that Body, and breaking wholly the union of it. So that in that place where the Pores are narrower than considerations. in the rest, there will never fail to follow a

dissolution of the parts.

This dissolution or disordering of the parts falls out ordinarily by the mixture of some Heterogeneous body, whose parts enter into the pores of its Surface stop them, and confequently render them smaller. So that the Athereal Matter not being able to get out at this place, as freely as it entered, forces the Obstacle, disorders the parts of this Body, and makes it passage, till it can continue its way

through all with an equal facility.

When this motion which disorders the parts of a Body is fensible, it is called Fermentation, and the Body by whose mixture it falls out, is called the Ferment. There are reckon'd five kinds of Fermentation. The first is called Bubbling. It is when the mixture of Bodies excites sometimes a visible motion of the parts, accompanied with small Bubbles, and fometimes small Bubbles of Air only. These Bubbles are produc'd by the detachment of fome most delicate parts, which mingle with some parts of the Air, which is always to be met with amongst the parts of Liquors. For in separating, they scatter the other parts through which they pass, and cause a sufficient quantity of Air to be gathered together in these places, to make up a little Bubble, which by its Lightness ascends to the Surface The of the Liquor.

The second is Elevation, which is when by the mixture of certain Bodies, the Bodies are blown up and swelled, or (to speak more properly) rarified. Which is done when the dissolution is not indeed sensible, but when the parts of the Dissolvent are so figured that they cannot associate with others without taking up together more place, than when they were separated.

The third is Sparkling, which is when the mingled Bodies dissolve with a kind of hissing, accompanied with small and interrupted founds. Then the parts which are disordered encline and bow by the action of the Ferment. These parts thus bended, make a spring and excite thereby in the Air all those little motions, which may produce in us the Sensation

The fourth is Effervescence, which is done, to speak properly, when by the mixture of Bodies there is made a dissolution of parts, accompanied with some degree of heat. For if the dissolution be not made but by a great effort of the Athereal Matter, the motion which the parts acquire becomes great enough to excite in us the sensation of heat.

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In fine, the fifth is Exhalation, which is done when the disordering of the parts is accompanied with Fumes. Which falls out when by the disorder, some subtile parts ac-

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quire motion enough to ascend visibly in the Air, whiles the more gross parts remain in blown up and inciled, or the Mais.

After all these Reslections, it may easily appear that a Fermentation must follow upon the mixture of Acids with Alcali's: For Acids being pointed and Alcali's porous, if they be mingled together, the points of the Acids will enter into the Pores of the Alcali's, and render them consequently smaller. So that the Athereal Matter cannot get out at that place with the same facility that it enters. It will therefore diforder the parts amongst which the points of the Acids have been received, and this disorder or fermentation will last till the Æthereal Matter can pass

through all with an equal facility.

Moreover according as the Pores of the Alcali's are great or small, and the points of the Acids in comparison of the Alcali's great or small, the Fermentation will be a Bubbling, or an Elevation, or a Hiffing, an Effervescence or Exhalation. Sometimes two of these kinds of Fermentations will be observed at once, as the Hissing and Bubbling, the Exhalation and Effervescence, &c. Sometimes three of them, fometimes four, and sometimes all of them. For according as the Pores of the Alcah's are a little more or less stopt by the Angles of the Acids, the Ethereal Matter will move with

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more or less force the parts of the Body which is Fermented. And it is from this greater or lesser Agitation and Commotion that all the kinds of Fermentation derive their

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From all this may be easily gathered that the Fermentation must last, when it is once begun, till the Athereal Matter can pass without hindrance through the Pores of the Alcali's which are mingled with the Acids. Which is done when the parts have been so disordered, as that all the pores which were before formed, are destroyed, and others formed of a near equal wideness. For when things are brought to this State, the subtile matter meets no stop in its passage. Therefore it passes straight forward without moving any part of the Body through whose Pores it passes.

When the parts of these Alcali's have been to the passes of t

When the parts of these Alcali's have been disordered thus by Acids, they recover their first calm, and are so united with them, that there results from both a Body of a third species, which is neither Acid nor Alcali, but a composure of both, which we shall call a Salt. So that Salts are nothing but porous Bodies, whose Surface is made all rough by the points

of the Acids which are fastned to it.

There is no property observed in Salt, which is not a Consequent of what we have said,

faid, as we could demonstrate, if we did treat here of Salt as it ought to be treated in Phyfick. But fince we speak of it only as a refult of the mixture of Alcali's with Acids, we shall fay only, that as there is an almost infinite diversity of Alcali's and Acids, so there are fo many differences to be found amongst Salts that it is impossible to determine them all. Nevertheless it is fit to take notice that most of these differences depend upon Acids. For fince Salts do not act on Bodies, but by the points of Acids, which are raifed on the Surface of the Alcali's; all the difference which is to be met with in these properties, depends upon the Acid points, which act sometimes one way, fometimes another, as they are more or less sharp, in a greater or lesser number.

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There are notwithstanding Salts which differ amongst themselves by their Alcali's, as may easily appear by what we have above said. For if a certain Acid be mingled with a Volatile Alcali, it is not to be doubted, but there results from this mixture a Salt, which will be different from the Salt resulting from the mixture of the same Acid with a Fixt Alcali. For that the Volatile Alcali's have their parts incomparably more delicate than the Fixt Alcali's. From whence it follows, that the parts of the Salts must be also incomparably smaller, which suffices to make a difference between the Salts.

From what we have said we may divide Salts into Fixt and Volatile: The Fixt Salts are those which have their part so gross, that they do not exhale with any heat, as Sea Salt, Vitriol, Saltpetre, &c. And Volatile Salts are those which do exhale by a moderate heat, as the Flowers of Sal Armoniack.

we perceive they is To a difference as mongh them as to this for fince matter as divisible in information and of the parts, some of which difference amongh the parts, some of which

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XX7E have faid nothing hitherto of the VV Figure, Structure and Magnitude of Acids and Alcali's, which may not as well be understood of the Figure, Structure and Magnitude of Sulphurs. In effect, if it be confidered attentively, it will easily appear that there is an infinite diversity of Sulphurs, by reason of their Figure. For if one Sulphur have parts more branched than another; if it have parts whose branches are shorter or longer, or otherwise ranged than another, it will be infallibly different, and consequently capable of producing different effects. And foralmuch as there may be amongst all this an Infinity of Modifications, it seems to me most evident, that there may be also an Infinity of differences amongst Sulpburs in respect of their Figure. There There is no less diversity amongst them in respect of their Structure. For since Sulphurs are made by the Collection of parts of the Athereal Matter, since these parts may be collected an infinite number of ways, it is clear there may be of Sulphurs an infinite va-

riety as to their Structure.

If further we consider their Magnitude, we perceive there is no less difference amongst them as to this. For since matter is divisible in infinitum, there may be an Infinite difference amongst the parts, some of which are grosser than others, because there is no Magnitude which may not be augmented, without acquiring in the mean time the Magnitude of another which is a little grosser than it.

We cannot therefore, what Method soever we take, place Sulphurs under certain kinds, by considering simply their Figure, Structure or Magnitude. Nevertheless, since we have reduced Acids and Alcali's under two kinds, by dividing them into Fixt and Volatile; notwithstanding the infinite difference there is amongst their parts, we may do here the same thing as to the Sulphurs. And since there are Sulphurs which do not exhale but very difficultly, and others which exhale by moderate heat; we may be allowed to call the former Fixt Sulphurs, and the later Volatile Sulphurs.

The

Of the mixture of Sulphurs, &c. 17

The Fixt Sulphur's exhale very difficultly for that their parts are gross, and surrounded with thick branches. For then as soon as they are agitated, they communicate almost all their motion, to the parts of the Bodies which environ them: So that they cannot acquire Matter sufficient to exhale them without an extreme heat. Whereas the Volante Sulphur's having their parts very delicate, and their Branches most subtile and close, they move easily: And therefore amoderate heat can give them agitation sufficient to raise them into an Exhalation.

by placing themselves amongst them. They fire them of oncleves and hat having no

Of the mixture of Sulphurs with Acids and Alcali's.

A Fter having examined the nature of Sulphurs, it will not be amiss to mingle them with those Elements, whose nature we know, and see what will be the Issue.

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Since Acids are Molecula, which have many sharp Angles on their surface, and Sulphurs are Molecula branched, if we mingle an Acid with a Sulphur, the Acid must coagulate the Sulphur. When we mingle an Acid with a Sulphur, the Acid does in a manner mix its points amongst the Branches of the Sulphur; by which

which means it holds the parts and gathers them fo together, that by little and little they lose their motion, and co-agulate. So it may well be said in general, that Acids co-

agulate Sulphurs.

If the nature of Alcali's be well considered, it will easily appear that they must act on Sulphurs in a way quite opposite to that of the Acids. For if Acids co-agulate Sulphurs by implicating their points in their Branches, the Alcali's which are without points must dissolve them. When the Alcali's mingle with the Sulphurs, they do as it were separate the parts, by placing themselves amongst them. free them of one another, fo that having no more union, the whole becomes more Liquid. And fo it may well be faid in general, that Alcali's dissolve Sulphurs.

having a state of Sec T. VIII. ow ormen ston Of Phlegm. long this ment know, and fee what will be the Hue.

DEfides Acids, Alcali's and Sulphurs, there are also oblong and smooth Molecula, whose two ends are blunted, almost like the Extremities of an Egg. These parts compose the Phlegm or Water, when they are gathered together in a considerable quantity.

The difference which may be amongst Phlegm, Which

Phlegm, as to their Figure, is so small, that it does not deserve our Consideration: For as they are all oblong and smooth, the more or less they are so, the more or less capable are they of producing Effects, and conse-

quently the differences may be great.

The same thing may be said as to their Magnitude, which is never so different, as thereby to distinguish them into Fixt and Volatile. On the contrary, for that their parts are sleek and oblong, they never intermix so strongly with other Principles, but that a little motion will extricate them, and consequently a very small heat raise them into a Vapour. So that to consider them, after this manner all Phlegms must be Volatile.

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Of the mixture of Phlegm with Acids,
Alcali's, and Sulphurs.

Since Acids are the most solid and most angulous Molecula, all that can be fall them by the mixture of Phlegm is dissolution. When we consider that parts so Figured as to have many angles on their surface, when they are gathered together, do seldom touch but by the points of their angles; it will easily appear, that having so slender an union, a lit-

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tle force will shake them. And forasmuch as the dissolution of a Body is nothing but the disorder of its parts, the Phlegm having sufficient force to disorder the parts, the Acids are they of producing E. baylollib ad flum

Besides the dissolution of Acids, which is made by the mixture of Phlegm, their force is extremely weakned, which is not by the division of their angles; but rather because the Phlegm, which keeps the parts of the Acids distant one from another, has not the same force to act upon certain Bodies, that we observe to be in Acids. I'v noisom elast

All that we have faid of the mixture of Phlegm with Acids, must also be understood of the mixture of Phlegm with Alcali's. For the same reason which has made us conclude that Phlegms dissolve Acids, must make us suppose that they dissolve Alcah's, yet it is true that Phlegin must dissolve Alcali's with somewhat less trouble than they do Acids, for that the Alcali's being only porous parts, they touch them in more places than they do Acids: So that they require less force to disorder them. Their dissolution must also diminish their activity, by the same reason that the dissolution of Acids by a mixture of Phlegm, does weaken their force. For if the parts of water cannot produce the same effect with the parts of Acids, nelther can the same parts of water do the office of the Alcali's. The same thing undoubtedly may be said of Salts, because the Saline Particles not being joined together, but by the points of their Acids, they may be disordered by the least force, so that the Phlegm striking against them, shakes and separates them one from another with great case. The Phlegm must also weaken the Salts after the same manner that they diminish the sorce of the Acids and the Alcali's.

But the Phlegms must produce on the Salphurs an effect quite contrary to what they produce on the Acids, the Alcali's and the Salts: Because the Sulphurs having their parts branched, their branches do fo engage amongst one another, that they do not leave between them Interstices or Spaces large enough to give way to the parts of the Phlegm: So that the Phlegms. not being able to thrust themselves in amongst the parts of the Sulpburs, and moreover not being able to separate the parts which close one upon another, without explicating themfelves when they are encountered, instead of disfolving them, they force them closer together. For the parts of the Phlegm Striking on all fides the parts of the Sulphurs, without separating them from one another; and not being able to enter into the pores which they leave between them, they press them, the one against the other, and in some manner encrease moderate

crease their union. Hence it is that Oyls do not mingle with water.

gether, but by XI point S' E C T. OIX ve they may be disordered by the least torce to that the Follers first that the Folley first that t

fenarares them one from another

We cali's, Sulphur, and Phlegm amongst the Molecula but we have found also a fifth kind of Particles, which is different from the rest. These are they which have not sharp angles on their surface, but are rough and unequal; which have fewer pores than the Alcali's, and are less solid than the Acids; which have not the branches of the Sulphurs, nor the figure of the Phlegm; in a word, which have nothing peculiar, but a surface very unequal, with a very considerable solidity, which we call Earth.

When we consider their Figure, Strusture, and Magnitude, we can say nothing of them but what we have said already of the Figure, Structure and Magnitude of Acids, Alcali's, and Sulphurs: And this has obliged us to distinguish them into Fixt and Volatile. So we find that there may be parts of Earth gross enough to subsist in the Fire, which we call Fixt Earth; and there may be some also, which cannot subsist in the Fire, but do exhale by a

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Of the mixture of the Earth, &c. 23 moderate heat, and those we call Volatile Earth.

SECT. X ranner of to

Of the mixture of the Earth with the other Elements.

and fightles nothing to longw that there F we reflect on the nature of Acids, Alcali's, Sulphurs, Phlegm and Earth, we shall find no great Matter resulting from the mixture of Earth with the rest: For it cannot dissolve them nor co-agulate them, nor excite in them any Fermentation. So that all that it does, is to trouble the purity of other Elements with which it is mixt, and confequently to diminish their force. Nevertheless, as the most part of Bodies are composed of many of our Elements, and sometimes of them all, the Earth is not intirely useless; since it finds a place amongst the other Elements, and fills the spaces which they leave between them, and by this means renders the whole Body more folid and firm. boll modito amolitic has collect them in their distantant purity to

for example, if I would know of what prints

ciples a Phur is convoled, a take a infficient's quantity stite, begg if in antiortar, and with-

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moderate heat, and those we call Volatile SECT. XI.

Of the manner of knowing the Elements which enter into the Composition of parsticular Bodies. out to sustains ent to other Elements.

T signifies nothing to know that there are Acids, Alcali's, Sulphurs, &c. we must know which of them are in particular Bodies. To come to the knowledge of this, we make use. of Chymistry, because it separates the Elements one from another, and exhibits them as far as is possible in their Elementary purity. Type

It accomplisheth this by the means of Fire, which is an universal Dissolvent. The Fire, by its great fubtilty, enters into the pores of Bodies, and by its great agitation moves their parts and breaks their union. So that in continuing to agitate and disunite them, those which are most Volatile separate from the rest, and the more Fixt abide in the Fire. After which we separate them from one another, by the mixture of some other Body; and in fine, collect them in their Elementary purity.

For example, if I would know of what principles a Plant is composed, I take a sufficient quantity of it, beat it in a Mortar, and without any more adoe, put it in a Cucurbite. I place my Cucurbite on a Furnace, and after-

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wards put on the Cucurbite an Alembick; and to the Pipe of this Alembick, I put a Reci pient. I give it Fire as it ought to have. which acting upon my Cucurbite, makes to af cend by Vapour into the Alembick, all that is Volatile in the Plant. Ordinarily if it be an O dorous Plant, we find some drops of Sulphur w hich swim upon the Water. We call these S ulphurs Essences. Besides these Sulphurs, which are known for fuch, not only because they eafily kindle when they are cast into the Fire, but because Acids co-agulate them, and Alcali's dissolve them. There are some Acids, or some Volatile Alcali's, which are dissolved in the Water. We know them by means of the Fermentation which they excite, either with Acids, or with Alcalis. For if they ferment with Alcali's, we do not fail to conclude, that they are Acids; and if they ferment with Acids, we conclude they are Alcali's. Thus we difcover that in the Plant there are Phlegm, Volatile Sulphurs, Volatile Acids or Alcali's.

After this, that we may know what there is of Fixt; I take what remains in the bottom of my Cucurbite, and expose it to the Fire; if it take flame, I conclude that in the Plant there are fixt Sulphurs, which could not afcend by Distillation. Afterwards I reduce the whole to ashes, and to know of what these ashes are composed, I make a Lee of them.

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The Water dissolves all that there is of Acid, Alcali and of Earth. I pass my dissolution through Brown-paper, to the end I may have nothing but the Salts, Acids, or Alcali's diffolved in Water. And the Earth being too gross to pass through the pores of the Paper, remains within, and then I fee how much Earth enters into the Composition of the Plant. I take after this my dissolution which I fet upon the Fire. The Fire by its activity makes all the water to exhale, and what there is of fixt, remains in the bottom of the Veffel. I examine it, and fee if it be an Alcali, by mingling it with an Acid; or if it be an Acid, by mingling it with an Alcali, by the Fermentation which it will excite with the one or with the other. But if it do not ferment at all, neither with Acids nor with Alcali's, I conclude that it is fixt Salt. that they are saids a

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Thus I know all the Elements which enter into the Composition of a Plant, and how we may operate almost upon all Terrestrial Bodies, to extract their Elements. Chymistry is the only Science whereby we may know aright of what Bodies are composed.

The most part do not grant this, because they imagine that the Fire acting upon Bodies changes all their parts; so that the divers Elements which we extract from Bodies by the help of Chymistry, were not there in their their opinion, such as they are when we extract them. But I have great reasons to be of another Opinion: 15 Because the Fire does not change Acids into Alcah's, nor Alcah's into Sulphurs. For though the Fire by its great agitation may produce fome change in the parts of a Body; yet it is Inconceivable that it can change the Principles by despoiling them of their own Nature to cloath them with the nature of another. Thus therefore though it were even true, that the Fire should produce some change in the parts of Bodies upon which we operate to extract their Elements; yet it is certain that what is extracted of Alvali, was there under the form of Alcali; what is extracted of Acid, was there under the form of Acid, &c.sw vo TIA 343 111

But that which obliges me chiefly to think that the Fire makes no change in the Elements of Bodies which are extracted by Chymistry, is, that if we take the Spirit of Salt and mingle it with the Fixt Alcali of Tartar, we make a true Salt of it; and if we take the Spirit of Nitre, and mix it with the Salt of Tartar, we make a true Nitre of it. Nevertheless all Perfons skill'd in Chymistry, know very well that the Fire must be blown with an extreme violence to distil the Spirit of Salt and the Spirit of Nitre. So if the Fire should produce any change in the Elements that are drawn from Bodies

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Bodies by its means, it would be chiefly in the Distillation of the Spirit of Salt and Spirit of Nitre, where it must act with all its force.

Nevertheless, Experience makes appear that there is no change produced, and that the Spirit of Salt and Spirit of Nitre were such in the Salt and in the Nitre, as they are when the Fire has separated them from the other Element, with which they must be mingled to constitute the Salt and the Nitre; since we make a true Salt and a true Nitre, by mingling them with that other Element, which is the Salt of Tartar.

We are convinced by true Philosophy, that Odours are nothing but the most subtil parts that proceed from Odorous Bodies, and spread in the Air by way of Exhalation. We are not ignorant likewise that it is from the different Magnitude and Figure of the parts, that all the diversity of Odours does proceed. So that there must be a certain Magnitude and Figure in these parts to excite a particular Odour. And if it fall out that this Magnitude or Figure be changed, let the cause of the change be what it will the Odour which these parts should excite after this in us would not be the same. But we extract by Chymistry the Odorous parts of Odoriferous Bodies, without making any change in them: Since they excite in us the same Odours which the Bodies

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do from whence they were extracted. Witnel's the Essence of Rosemary, Gilly-flowers, Ci. namon, &c. from whence we may with reason conclude, that the Fire does not produce any changes in the Elements which are extracted from Bodies by the help of Chymistry.

And fince many different Liquors are to be found in Animals, which are composed of divers Elements, we shall make use of Chymistry to separate them from one another. and to examine them apart, that we may know the nature of each in particular. After this we shall easily see what may be their uses in the animal Oeconomy, and what effects do are that which ferments wiment noqui breads are we mingled with the Scrofiv.

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I do not fatisfy my felf with this, I take Alcales and nile as a wood of the sales to

confirm what I conjecture by fome new IIxperiment: And boold of the Blood bank : Inomineq

extremely disloived by this mixture. And as I Hen I strike a Lance into any outward Vi spart of a living Animal, I remark that there comes from the wound I have made a red Liquor, which I call Blood. To Isab Jana

I imagine that it is very important to know the nature of it aright, for I find it so spread through all the Body, that there is no part which is not watered with it. Which obliges me to gather a little of it in a Vessel and than

to know if it be not some of our Elements, or if it be not a Composition of them. I mingle it sirst with Acids; and I find that they co-agulate it, in such a manner notwithstanding that they co-agulate but a part of it, and what remains is very Liquid and Transparent, which we call Serosity. In the second place I take the Serosity and mingle it with Acids, and I find that there is made by this mixture a little Fermentation.

From hence I conclude, that there are in the Blood much Sulphur, and some Alcali; that the Sulphurs are that which has been coagulated by the Acids; and that the Alcali's are that which ferments with the Acids, which

we mingled with the Serofity.

I do not satisfy my self with this, I take Alcali's and mingle them with the Blood, to confirm what I conjecture by some new Experiment: And it falls out that the Blood is extremely dissolved by this mixture. And as I know that the effect of Alcali's on Sulphurs is Dissolution, I am confirmed the more in the opinion I have, that in the Blood there is a great deal of Sulphur.

The finall Fermentation which the Acids have excited in the Scrolity, makes me think that there is in the Scrolity something more than Alcali's; and by consequence that there is through all the Blood some other Principle

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than Sulphurs and Alcali's. To know therefore the truth of the matter, I take a confiderable quantity of Blood, I put it in a Cucurbite, I place my Cucurbite in a Furnace to distil some part of it by Sand. I adapt a Head to my Cucurbite, and to the Pipe of the Head I apply a Recipient. I take care to lute the Junctures well, and give it a little Fire at first, and augmenting it afterwards by degrees, I dry gently all the Blood which I

had put in my Cucurbite.

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Whilst the Blood is thus drying, there arise fome Vapours in the Alembick, which gathering in its concave Surface, run in drops of Water through the Pipe into the Recipient. I take this water and try it, by putting it on my Tongue. A little favour that it excites there, makes me judge that it is not pure Phlegm; I mingle Alcali's with it, and I remark no Fermentation. Which makes me think, that what is in this Water is not Acid. I mingle afterwards Acids with it, and I perceive by the light Fermentation that arises from this mixture, that there are Alcaline parts extremely Volatile mingled with much after the whole have been well Phlegm.

I take out (after this) that which is dried in my Cucurbite, and I put it in a Retort, which I place on a Furnace proper for this Use. I give it Fire by degrees, and there Comes in Comes

comes out of my Retort a stinking Oyl, which is the Sulphureous part of the Blood. With the stinking Oyl there comes out a great quantity of whitish Particles, which stick to the neck of the Cornute, and to the concave Surface of the Recipient, as if it were a most de-

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licate hoar Froft. and a Recipies of the Head I bead of

I examine the stinking Oyl, by the mixture of Acids and Alcali's. The Acids co-agulate it, the Alcali's Liquify it, for which Reason I doubt not but it is a true Sulphur. I do the same with the whitish Particles, which I rub off from the neck of the Cornute, and the sides of the Recipient, and I learn by the great Fermentation they make with Acids, that it is nothing but an Alcali, which rifing by a moderate heat, is very Volatile. I have therefore three Volatile Principles which compose the Blood, viz. A most considerable quantity of Phlegm, much of a Volatile Sulphur, and yet more of a Volatile Alcali. That I may know now what remains in the bottom of the Cornute, I put it in a Crucible, and Calcine it by a wheel Fire. There is some small matter that yet Exhales. And in fine. after the whole have been well Calcin'd, I make a Lixivium of it, which I filter. I make a part of the Water to evaporate, which makes up the Lixivium. I put the rest in a cool place, and there Chrystallizes somewhat about my Vessel I take n form of a Salt.

I take this Salt and mingle it with Aleasti's and Acids. The Aleali's do not move its but the Acids excite a Fermentation, yet lefs than what they do with the Volatile Aleali of Blood. Which makes me think that it is a Fixt Aleali with which there may be some

Acid mingled.

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After this, I observe there remains some Terrestreity in the Paper through which I filtered the Lixivium, from whence I had extracted the Fixt Alcali. So that after having examin'd all, I find that the Blood is a Composure of Volatile Alcali, Fixt Alcali, Volatile Sulphur, Phlegm, Earth, and it may be some little Acid mingled with the Fixt Alcali. So that it abounds more in Sulphur, in Volatile Alcali, and in Phlegm, than in any other Principle. For there is little of Fixt Salt, and almost no Terrestreity.

We may easily understand by this, the reafon why through a Microscope there are to be
seen in the Blood many small red Globules
which swim in a Chrystalline Liquor, while
the Blood is put into small Pipes of Glass.
The Sulphurs which are more disposed to keep
themselves united to one another, because
their branches are embarrassed, do swim in a
Liquor compos'd of Phlegms and Alcali's. The
Phlegms by their motion press those branched
Particles one against another, and oblige them

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to form small Sulphureons Globules, after the same manner that the Air makes the drops of water Sphærical. And the Alcali's make the smallness of these Globules and oblige the Sulphureous parts of the Blood to assemble in small Bodies, by keeping them separated one from another.

We see also the reason wherefore curdled Blood, after having been washed in cold water, seems all Fibrous: For cold water dissolves the Alcah's and carries them away. Afterwards it assembles the Sulphurs, which fall down to the bottom of the Vessel like a Glairous matter, composed of small Fibres like

Glue.

For the same reason also it is, that when Blood is put into hot water, as foon as it comes out of the Vein, there gathers about small Rodsheld therein a Mucilaginous and Glairous substance. For the Alcali's spread through all the water with the Sulphurs, and strike together against the Surface of the small Rods. The Alcali's never fix to them, because they have not proper Particles for it; but the Sulphurs infinuate the Extremities of their Branches into the Pores of the Wood, which are opened by the heat of the Water: So that finding themselves engaged, they continue fixed there, and the other Sulphureous parts of the Blood which swim in the Water join to the

the first, so that in fine, when the Water is become Cold, we find the Sulphurs of the Blood upon the Surface of the Rods, like to a Glair, or Mucilage.

DISCOURSE III. Of the Glandules.

I we follow the Arteries and the Veins, we find a great number of their Branches end at certain round Bodies involved in a most delicate Tunicle; from which Bodies there goes a Canal, and from thence flows a Liquor

quite different from the Blood.

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Anatomists call these round Bodies Glandules. There are three considerable things to be remarked in them. The first, that each Glandule receives a Branch of an Artery, which carries the Blood to it, and that there goes from it a Branch of a Vein which carries the Blood away. The second, that there goes a Canal from each Glandule from whence flows a Liquor different from the Blood. And the third, that the Composition of Glandules is of two forts, some are nothing but a heap of small Vessels contorted, which reuniting, make the Canal through which there slows a particular Liquor. And others, are nothing but a meeting.

meeting of little Vesicles. In some places these Vesicles are angular, and there is a Communication between their Cavities: So that they end all into two or three, whose prolongation makes the Canal, from whence slows the Liquor which is different from the Blood. In some others there are separated Vesicles, which send out each one in Particular a little Canal. Those, which are nothing but a heap of Contorted Vessels we shall call Vascular Glandules, and those which are composed of nothing but a heap of Vesicles, we shall name Vesicular Glandules.

If we consider these three things deliberately, we will easily discover the nature of Glandules. The arteries bring the Blood, which after having watered the Vessels or Vesicles of the Glandules, returns by the Veins which go from them. Now the Glandules are nothing but a Composure of small Vessels or Vesicles, full of a Liquor different from the Blood. But because we have not hitherto discovered any Vessel which brings any thing to the Glandules, but the Arteries which carry Blood thither, we may well think that this Liquor is a certain portion of Arterial Blood, which has been feparated from it by the Veffels or Veficles, and has been collected into their Cavity, from whence it comes that this Liquor flows always from the Glandule by the little Canal which comes comes from it, and which we shall call the

Excretory Canal.

The difference that is between this Liquor and the Blood, ought not to keep us from being of this sentiment. For since the Blood is composed of heterogeneous Principles, a certain portion of one, or many of these Principles, may be separated from the Blood into the Cavity of the Vessels or Vessels of the Glandules. And seeing the principles of the Blood are not to be met with there, whether in number or proportion, sufficient to make Blood, the Liquor that results from this Meeting, must be a Liquor quite different from Blood.

Thus the Liquor that flows from the Glandules by their Excretory Vessels must come from the Blood. And that which confirms us yet more in this Opinion, is, that we can extract nothing from this Liquor by Chymistry, which we do not draw from Blood: which is a plain Evidence, that this Liquor is nothing but a Meeting of certain principles which have been separated from the Blood, by means of the Glandule.

As to the Liqu

As to the Liquor which one Glandule separates from the Blood, we observe that it is always the same. Nevertheless, we must not for this imagine that all Glandules separate the same Liquor. We find by Experience several

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very considerable differences between the Liquors which proceed from different Glandules: And this abundantly shews, that for the most part, that different Glandules draw different

principles from the mass of Blood.

But as this does not entirely fatisfie the mind, it will not perhaps be impertinent to enquire into the manner, how the Glandules do feparate from the Blood, the Liquors which flow from them. The better to succeed in this enquiry, I shall observe that the Arteries bring the Blood into the Body of the Glandule, that the Blood is a Composure of heterogeneous parts, that some of these heterogeneous parts go out of the Cavity of the Arteries, and gather into the Cavity of the Vessels or Vesicles, which compose the Glandule. From whence I conclude, that there are passages from the Cavity of the Arteries into the Cavity of the Vessels or Vesicles of the Glandules, and such Passages as that no other principle of the Blood can pass thither, but these which are absolutely necessary for making up the Liquor which flows from each Glandule in particular. We shall call these sorts of Holes, or Passages, Pores.

To effect this, these Pores must be proportioned to the Magnitude and Figure of the parts which are separated from the Blood, that they may be gathered into the Vessels or Vesicles

Vesicles of the Glandules, whilst parts of another Magnitude and Figure cannot pass through them: For then the Blood coming to run in the Arteries, which are spread through the substance of the Vessels or Vesicles of the Glandules, such of its parts as can pass through the Pores, when they come thither are engaged in them. And because the Blood continues to move in the Arteries, the parts which are engaged in the Pores through which they can pass, are thrust forward, and being followed by others which have the same fate, they are in fine press'd forward into the Cavity of the Vessels or Vesicles of the Glandules. There they mingle with many others which are come thither after the same manner, and compose with them the Liquor which flows from the Glandule through its Excretory Vessel.

But since the Liquor which runs from one Glandule is made up of Heterogeneous parts, it must needs follow that the Pores of each Artery are not all equal. So that according as the Liquor of one Glandule is composed of Sulphurs, Alcali's, or Phlegms, there must be proportionably in the Arteries of that Glandule, Pores fitted to let Alcali's, Sulphurs or

Phlegms pass through them.

We may affirm, That not only the Pores of the Arteries of the Glandules are not all equal amongst D 4

amongst themselves; but also that those of the Arteries of one Glandule are sometimes entirely different from those of the Arteries of another. The reason is, because there comes sometimes from one Glandule a Liquor entirely different from that which flows from another.

Hence it is to be observed, that there are Glandules to be met with alone, without being joined to any other. These are called Conglobated Glandules, because they are considered as little Globes, which separate a Liquor from the Blood. But when there is a Meeting of them, and that they are all folded up within one Coat, and that all their Excretory Vessels are united in one, and so compose one Canal through which the Liquor runs, which they have all with one accord separated from the Blood, they are called Conglomerated Glandules.

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The greatest part of the Conglomerated Glandules are Vascular, and the most part of the Conglobated are Vesicular. As those may see who will give themselves the trouble to make the enquiry. Sometimes there are Conglobated Glandules which are Vascular in some Animals,

and Vesicular in others.

proportionably in the Arries of that 61st dule, Peres fitted to let Alcolog, Sulphurs or Philipms pass throughthem.

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tinually changed and chay much incellantly DISCOURSE IV.

Of the Nerves.

HE Covering of the Brain and of the L Cerebellum, as well as the inner part of the Marrow of the Back-bone, are made up of nothing but a heap of small round Bodies. It is observed that they receive Arteries, they fend out Veins, and there goes from them a small white Fibre. The Arteries do bring them Blood; after that it has watered them it returns by the Veins. But fince it is not found in the Veins with the same qualities which it had in the Arteries, we may well conjecture that it has left something in these round Bodies, which occasions all this Change.

In short, this Change does not befall the Blood, but either by the Addition of some new matter, or the loss of some of its parts: It will easily appear that it is not from the addition of any new matter, if we consider that these little round Bodies receive nothing but

from the Arteries.

For if they made this alteration in the Blood by communicating unto it any new Liquor, they would receive it elsewhere. The reason is, because the Blood passes continually through these round Bodies, and is also continually

Communicate unto it this Liquor, which cannot be, if they do not receive it from some inexhaustible source. Since therefore this source is not known, we may reasonably conclude that this Change does not befall the Blood by the addition of any new matter.

It must needs then be occasioned by the loss of some of its parts. And because this change is sensible, it must be by the loss of a considerable number of its parts; which since they cannot stay in these round Bodies, because they are perpetually parting from the Blood, they must needs go through some pas-

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fage to be carried elsewhere.

When we examine narrowly these round Bodies, we find nothing in each of them, but Arteries, Veins, and a small white Fibre. The parts which are separated from the Blood, do not go by the Artery, fince it is by the Artery that the Blood comes to the round Body; neither do they go by the Vein; for if so, there would be no difference between the Blood of the Artery and that of the Vein. It remains therefore, that they pass through the small white Fibre. And thus we find that the Covering of the Brain is nothing but a composure of small Glandules, which do receive Blood from the Arteries, which send it off by the Veins, and which have their Excretory Veffels fels from whence the Liquor flows, which

they have separated from the Blood.

There are two forts of Substance taken notice of in the Brain, the Cerebellum and the Spinal Marrow. The first is that Glandulous Substance, which composing the Covering of the Brain and Cerebellum, is called their Cortical Substance. In the Spinal Marrow, it is found in the middle covered with the other Substance. And the other, which is a white Substance, more firm than it, is nothing but the Collection of the Excretory Vessels of the Glandulous Substance. They call it in the Brain and Cerebellum, the Callous Body, or the Marrowy Substance; and in the Back-bone it has no Name.

The Vessels which compose the Callous Body of the Brain and Cerebellum, are so interwoven, that they resemble a Net. It has not as yet been discovered, whether they are inserted one into another, or whether the Nets be made only by their passing one over ano-

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In fine, they gather into little Bundles, which are found shut up into Membranous sheaths. According as they advance into the Body of the Animal, they are divided into many small branches, and after this manner spread themselves all over the Body, so that there are very few parts in the Body of an Animal,

Animal, which do not receive their portion of them.

In the Nerves the Excretory Vessels of which they are composed have no Communication; yet are observed to be interwoven. But they extend themselves in length, one above another, as if they were small Bundles

of little Cords.

I say, this happens in the Nerves, but it may be observed that it is quite otherwise in certain Tumours fastned to the Nerves, which are called Olive Bodies, or Ganglions. For these Olive Bodies are only formed by the interweaving of the Nervous Vessels; just as the thread wherewith a sling is made, seems to take up more room in the Body of the sling where the Stone is plac'd, than in the strings which are on either side.

Many Nerves meet together in divers places of the Body of an Animal, and are so interlaced one with another, that the Anatomists call these Meetings together Plexus. They part afterwards from these Plexus, and spread

round about.

It must carefully be observed, that when many Nerves meet in one, there is not an Anastromosis of the Vessels that Compose them, but only of their Coats. And when a Nerve is divided into many branches, its particular Vessels are not branched into many, but the

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division is only in their cover, and the Veffels which are in one Bundle, are parted into many Bundles.

In fine, the use of the Nerves is to distribute the Liquor which runs into the Fibres, into all the parts where they terminate. As to this Liquor, it must needs be composed of the most subtile and most Volatile parts of the Blood. It is look'd upon as a very subtile wind which passes through the Fibres of the Nerves, and that not without reason. For since it escapes our eyes, and that we are not able to discern it by the help of the best Microscopes we may well think that it is the most subtile of all the Liquors which are separated from the Blood through the Glandules of the Body of an Animal. This Liquor is called the Animal Spirits, because of its great subtilty, and because it is the Soul, which makes Animals to live.

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Though nothing of this Liquor can be gathered to examine its nature, by mingling it with Acids and Alcali's, yet we are enclined to think that the Volatile Alcali prevails in it with an extremely Volatile Sulphur. The reafon is, because all Volatile Alcali's taken inwardly, do encrease the Animal Spirits, the Volatile Sulphurs do almost the same thing, and there is nothing which does so much entrease their quantity, as Sulphureous Volatile Alcali's.

Alcali's, as all Volatile Alcali's Aromatiz'd

The Effect of Alcali's upon Sulphurs, confirms us in this Opinion. For Alcali's do diffolve Sulphurs, by separating their parts one from another, and by this means hinder their branches from intermixing. For this cause the Interstices or Intervals of the branches are replenish'd with Athereal matter, as well as the Pores which remain between the Sulphurs and the Alcali's: which being larger than

and the Alcali's; which being larger than if the Liquor were simply Alcaline or Sulphurece, do also contain within them much more of Æthereal matter. And for as much as this Æthereal matter is highly agitated, it moves with much force all the parts of this Liquor, which contributes not a little to its activity place and subtilty.

DISCOURSE V.

Of the Muscles.

Then we follow the Nerves and Arteries, we find that the most part of their branches do terminate in Carnous Bodies, which are covered over with a most delicate Membrane, and are called Muscles.

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They are composed of three parts: 1. We discover in them a great many Arteries and Veins. 2. Nerves; and 3. Small Fibres, which are neither Arteries, Veins, nor Nerves, but certain small long Filaments, very fine and yet

very strong.

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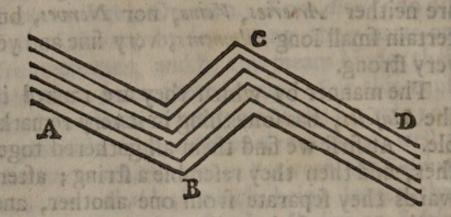
The manner by which they are ranked in the Muscles, has something in it very remarkble. At first we find them all gathered together, and then they resemble a string; after-OHTS wards they separate from one another, and receive amongst them divers branches of Arnore teries and Veins: At last they unite together, this and make again a Cord. The first and second oves Cords are called Tendons, or the Head and Tail of the Muscle. And that part which is plac'd between the Head and the Tail, and which is the place where the Fibres of the Tendons separate from one another, and where they receive the Veins and Arteries amongst them, is called the Belly of the Muscle.

These Fibres are all parallel both in the Tendons and in the Belly. Some of the Tendons are longer than others, and in the Belly all are of the same length. By the order they are plac'd in, they make an Obliquangular Parallelogram in the Belly of the Muscle. And they are so closely prest together in the Tendons, that they refemble two Strings; which draw the Obliquangular Parallelogram by its op-

polite

8 Of the Muscles.

polite sides, as may be seen in this Fi-



A. B. represents a Tendon, or the head of a Muscle, B C. the Belly, and C. D. the other

Tendon, or the Tail.

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The Arteries and Veins which are spread through the muscle, are only to be found in its Belly; if they be found sometimes in the Tendons, they are so few, that they are not to be regarded. So the Tendons are nothing but the Meeting together of the simple Fibres, which we therefore shall call the Tendinous Fibres; whereas the Interstices, which are amongst them in the Belly of the muscle, are all replenish'd with Veins and Arteries.

Hence comes the difference, which we obferve between the colour of the Tendons and
that of the Belly of the Muscles. The Tendons are Brown, and the Belly is Red. This
is the part of Animals composed of Tendinous

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Therefore we must not imagine that Flesh is Red of its felf, no more than we are to believe that a Glass, full of red Wine, is red of its felf. But rather as the Glass appears Red. because the Liquor that is within it is of that colour, even so Flesh, and all the other parts of the Body of an Animal, appear Red, only because of the Redness of the Blood which is contain'd in the Veins and Arteries of these forts of parts.

This truth is demonstrated by an Experiment which renders it Incontestable. That is, if you make Injections of warm water into the Arteries, which spread their Branches through the Flesh, after you have repeated frequently the Injection, the Flesh becomes of

the colour of the Tendons.

The Muscles are not only composed of Arteries, Veins and Tendinous Fibres, but the Nerves also make one of their parts. They march first upon their Coat and pierce it. When they have pierced it, they divide themselves in most delicate Branches, which are inserted into the Tendinous Fibres. Sometimes the Nerves enter into the Tendons, and sometimes into the Belly of the Muscles. But in what part foever they enter we find always the extremities of their Branches to end at the Tendinous Fibres. All

All these Tendinous Fibres have a Cavity that goes through them, like unto a Tube or Pipe. Indeed this Cavity cannot be seen by the eye, but there is an Experiment which abundantly shews the necessity of it, that it cannot be contradicted by those who will hearken to reafon. The Experiment is, that always when a Muscle acts, its Fibres are considerably shortned, and at the same time grow thicker. Nevertheless we cannot conceive how flexible Fibres can grow bigger, and be shortned, at the same time, but by the means of some Liquor which fills a Cavity that pierces them from one end to the other.

After this it will not be very hard to discover how all these things must act. Each Tendinous Fibre receives a Branch of a Nerve; and each branch of a Nerve sheds animal Spirits into the Cavity of the Tendinous Fibre. The Animal Spirits are the most subtil and the most agitated parts of the Blood. When they enter into the Cavity of the Tendinous Fibres they blow them up and shorten them. Even as the Air which is blown into a bladder, fwells it and shortens it at the same time.

If we consider after this, that the Belly of the Muscle is stuff'd throughout with Arteries and Veins, we will grant that the Tendinous Fibres cannot be blown up without diminishing the Cavities of the Arteries and Veins;

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from whence it follows that the Blood is driven out of them. It is for this Reason that in some Animals the Muscles become white always when the Animal Spirits do dilate the Tendinous Fibres.

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In fine, if we take notice that when the Blood stops in the Arteries and Veins, the Tendinous Fibres do not receive enough of motion from the Animal Spirits to thrust forward that Blood which stays amongst them; from hence it follows, that in such rencounters they cannot dilate nor become shorter.

Hence we may conclude, that there are two things absolutely necessary for the blowing up of the Tendinous Fibres of the Muscles: the sirst is, that the Animal Spirits must have their free course through the Nerve which goes to the Muscle. For since the Tendinous Fibres are not blown up but by them, it is clear, that if their course be so interrupted that they cannot slow into their Cavity, they cannot dilate them. Experience consirms this, in that if you cut or tie a Nerve with a thread, the Muscle which receives branches from it, becomes flaccid, and do what you will its Fibres do not swell.

The second thing needful for the blowing up of the Fibres, is the free course of the Blood through the Arteries and Veins of the Muscles. For since the Tendinous Fibres can-

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not be dilated without straitning the Arteries and Veins, and the Arteries and Veins cannot be straitned without voiding the Blood that fills them, it is visible that if the Blood stop there, it will hinder the Tendinous Fibres from being blown up.

This is so true, that if you take a living Animal and tie the Aorta four Fingers below the Heart, it becomes paralytick from the ligature even to the Extremities of the feet.

When the Fibres of a Muscle are blown up by the Animal Spirits, there are two powers which concur to restore them to their first estate. The first is the spring which these Fibres make: For since their Pores acquire a disposition by their being blown up, the Æthereal matter which does incessantly pass through them, makes an effort to restore

them to their former estate.

The second is the Effort of the Arterial Blood, which being forcibly pushed by the Heart, blows up again the Arteries and Veins, and at the same time straitneth the Tendinous Fibres. And as the Arteries empty themselves of Blood when they are straitned by the swelling of the Fibres, so the Fibres empty themselves of the Animal Spirits, when they are put again into their ordinary state, as well by the force of the Arterial Blood, as by that of their Spunginess.

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As to the rest, the Tendons of the Muscles are ordinarily fastned to some Cartilage, or to some bone. Which is the Cause why the shortning of the Tendinous Fibres makes that part move to which the Tendons are fastned. It is to be remarked likewise, that one of the Tendons is fastned to an immoveable part, and the other to a moveable part; from whence it follows, that when the Muscle is shortned the moveable part is drawn towards the immoveable.

But for as much as there is scarce any motion in one part which has not its opposite motion, so there is scarce any Muscle which has not its opposite Muscle. These Muscles which serve thus to make opposite Motions, are cal-

led Antagonists.

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It is to be observed, as to the Antagonist Muscles, that when the one is shortned, the other is extended. For since their action is opposite, and that that of the one cannot subsist at the same time with that of the other, the shortning of the Muscle which acts, must needs produce the extending of its Antagonist.

But for that the shortning of one Muscle draws the Fibres of its Antagonist beyond their ordinary length, they must needs spring back. It is for this reason that the action of one Muscle which has been lengthned by the contracting of its Antagonist, is done with ease enough.

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34 Of Cartilages, Bones, Membranes.

For the Tendinous Fibres can be easily contracted again, however they have been lengthned, though there be few Animal Spirits which flow into their Cavity, because the force of the Spirits is augmented by that of the spunginess of the Fibre.

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DISCOURSE VI.

Of the Cartilages, Bones and Membranes.

parts which seem to partake of the nature of a Bone, and of the nature of Tendons, in that they are not altogether so hard as the former, and are less soft than the other.

They call them Cartilages.

The first thing which makes me conjecture that Cartilages are nothing but a composure of Tendinous Fibres which are hardned by being replenish'd with Volatile Alcali's, is, that there is no Cartilage in which many Tendinous Fibres are not lost. That which makes my conjecture probable, is, that we see plainly that the substance of the Cartilages is nothing but a heap of Fibres. And that which puts the thing out of doubt, is, that in young Animals many parts which were Tendinous become at length Cartilaginous; and that we observe

Of Cartilages, Bones, Membranes. 55 observe frequently in old Animals, that cer-

tain Tendons are chang'd into Cartilages.

As Tendons are chang'd at length into Cartilages, the Cartilages are likewise changed into Bones. If therefore we have concluded the Cartilages to be nothing but a composure of Tendinous Fibres, because the Tendons are sometimes chang'd into Cartilages; we are obliged by the same reason to judge that Bones are nothing but a Composure of Tendinous Fibres, which after having been hardned to become Cartilages, are afterwards so far hardned as to make Bones.

The Observations which are made upon the Bones of Fætus's do give us an ocular Demonstration of this Truth. In short, we observe there are a great many Tendinous Fibres, and particularly in the Scull. It appears in the beginning, as if it were nothing but a Membrane compos'd of Tendinous Fibres. It becomes afterwards Cartilaginous, and in sine is chang'd entirely into Bone. After which it cannot be doubted, but that Bones are a heap of Tendinous Fibres, which are hardned after such a manner, that they acquire the sirmness of Bone.

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Tendinous Fibres are hardned, by being replenish'd at length with Volatile Alcali's. The Fibres of the Nerves do shed into their Cavity Animal Spirits. That which is more E

56 Of Cartilages, Bones, Membranes.

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fubtile of them, escapes by the Pores, and the grosser remains. So that at first these Fibres are filled with Volatile Alcali's and Volatile Sulphurs. Whilst there are Sulphurs there, they appear under the form of a Cartilage; but when the Sulphurs are consumed, whether by nourishing the Fibres, or by escaping through the Pores, or in splitting themselves, they appear under the form of Bones.

From hence it comes that there are no parts in the whole Body of an Animal, from whence we extract so much of Volatile Alcali's as from

Bones.

In fine, we remark that Bones are all covered over with a Membrane, which they call the Periosteum. This Membrane is so strongly fastned to the Bone, that in certain places it is impossible to separate it, but by cutting or

renting of it.

When we do examine it narrowly, we find three forts of parts which enter into its composition; to wit, a great many Tendinous Fibres, many branches of Nerves, and some Arteries and Veins. So that after we have duly considered all, we find that the Periosteum is nothing else but a Web of Tendinous Fibres of the Bone, Nerves, Veins and Arteries.

And because all the other Membranes have communication with the Bones and with the Tendons of Muscles, and because they have Tendinous

Tendinous Fibres, Nerves, Arteries and Veins, we judge that all the Membranes which are observed in a living Body, are nothing but a Texture of Tendinous Fibres, Arteries, Veins and Nerves.

DISCOURSE VII.

Of the Lymphatick Vessels, and of the Lympha.

IT is found that from all the Parts of an Animal, certain small Vessels do proceed, which Anatomists call Lymphatick, because they are full of a clear and transparent Liquor, which they name Lympha.

The Membranes which compose them are so delicate, that they are invisible when they are not replenish'd. They are inoculated into one another, and so compose pretty large Trunks, which are inserted into the Veins.

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Those which come from the Head, and Neck, are inserted into the Subclavian, or the Jugulars. And the most part of those which derive their Origin from the Inseriour parts, and the Viscera of the lower Belly, do discharge themselves into one Cistern placed upon the Vertebra of the Loins, from whence there goes a Vessel, which after ha-

ving

ving passed over the Vertebræ of the Thorax, empties its Lympha into the Subclavian Vein.

This Cistern is called the Reservatory of the Chyle, because the Chyle, which is formed in the Stomach by the Digestion of the Meat, comes thither, and the Vessel which goes from this Reservatory is called Canalis Thoracicus, because it is found upon the Vertebra of the Thorax.

That which is most remarkable in these Vessels, is a great quantity of little Valves, which are placed at very small distances from one another. They are so disposed as that they permit the Lympha easily to run towards the Veins, but they hinder it from coming back again, and from flowing towards the parts from whence the Lymphatick Vessels do

proceed.

From whence we may certainly conclude that the Lympha does not come from the Veins but from the parts from whence the Lymphatick Vessels do derive their Origin: Which agrees exactly with experience; for if you tie with a thread any Lymphatick Vessel, the Lympha does so abound between the Ligature and the part from whence the Vessel comes, that it blows it up prodigiously; and is so emptied between the Ligature and the Veins whither it is going to discharge it self, that there it becomes invisible: From whence

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it follows that the use of the Lymphatick Vesfels is, to carry into the Veins the Lympha which they have received from all the parts of

the living Body.

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We have not hitherto discovered any Vesfel which brings any thing to the parts of the living Body, but Arteries and Nerves. The Arteries bring Blood and the Nerves Animal Spirits. It must needs therefore follow, that the Lympha comes either from the Arteries alone, or from the Nerves alone, or from the Arteries and Nerves together. It does not feem to come from the Arteries alone; for if you cut the Nerves which go to one part, there does not flow fo much Lympha in the beginning, and diminishing by little and little, in fine, it ceases entirely. Neither does it come from the Nerves alone, fince if you tie the Arteries which carry the Blood to one part, it ceases by little and little to furnish Lympha. It must needs be therefore that the Lympha comes partly from the Arteries, and partly from the Nerves. And confequently it must be composed of a part of the Arterial Blood and of the Animal Spirits.

The Lymphatick Parts which come from the Blood, pass after the same manner, as the particles of the Liquors which flow from the Glandules. For as these pass from the Blood by sticking in certain Pores of the Arteries,

even

Those which come from the Nerves do not get out this way. The Nerves insert their Filaments into the Tendinous Fibres of one part, and send out the Animal Spirits into their Cavity. The Fibres have Pores through which they escape, and mingle themselves with what runs from the Arteries, to compose

the Lympha by their mixture.

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Since we have prov'd in the discourse of Nerves that the Animal Spirits are nothing but a Sulphureous Alcali, we may well suppose that the Lympha is nothing but a Composure of Volatile Sulphurs, Volatile Alcali's, and a little Phlegm. The Volatile Sulphurs, and Volatile Alcali's are the Animal Spirits which enter into its composition; and the Phlegm with the fixt Sulphurs are those of its parts which come from the Blood by the Pores of the Arteries.

Unerring experience confirms this Opinion.
That is, if you gather of the Lympha in a Silver Spoon, and place the Spoon on the Fire, as foon as it begins to warm, there goes from

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the Lympha a small Vapour, and then it hardens like the white of an Egg that is boil'd.

I say this Experiment confirms, that the Lympha is nothing but a Composure of a great deal of Fixt Sulphur, a little of Volatile, a little of Phlegm and much Volatile Alcali. For the Lympha is fluid whilst the Volatile Alcali's keep its Sulphurs dissolved, and it hardens like the white of an Egg, as foon as the Fire has exhal'd them. For then the Fixt Sulphurs being alone, do so entangle their branches one with another, that they cannot move fo as to compose a Liquor. As to the Volatile Sulphur and the Phlegm, it cannot be denied but there are some of them in the Lympha; because the Animal Spirits which compose a part of it, are made up of them, and the Vapours going from the Lympha, when fet on the Fire, do sufficiently resemble the Vapours of Water.

We conclude from this, that the use of the Lympha is to nourish the parts, between whose Fibres it passes. As will appear most plain when what we are going to say of Nutrition shall be considered.

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It is an Indisputable truth, that many Particles of our Bodies are separated and do exhale; and because these parts pass through the Pores of the Skin, like Wind imperceptibly, they call this Transpiration.

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The parts which pass from our Bodies by Transpiration, are ordinarily Salts dissolved in Phlegms, with which there are some Sulphurs mingled. They are separated from the Blood by the means of an infinite number of small Glandules, which are situated under the Skin, and whose excretory Vessels end at small Holes, which are on the Surface of the Body,

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and which we call Pores.

These Glandules which we shall call Subcutaneous, do receive Arteries, send forth Veins, and have some Filaments of Nerves. So that judging of them by others, we may well suppose their use is, to separate the saline parts from the Mass of Blood, which are formed there by the Conjunction of the Acids and Alcah's. Whence I conclude, that the parts which pass away by Transpiration, are parts of the Humours of the living Body, and not

Particles of its folid parts.

The Acids which are mingled with the Humours pass away, not only when they are join'd with the Alcali's, but also when they are join'd to the Sulphurs. The Author of the Animal Oeconomy, has put a considerable number of Glandules in the Membrane, which cover the thin Leaves of Bone in the Nose, which are proper to separate from the Blood the Sulphurs united with Acids: And this is the reason that there runs from the Nostrils a Glewy and whitish Liquor.

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By this we see after what manner the Alcali's, Sulphurs and Phlegms of our Humours are consum'd. Which makes me think that they would be very soon spent entirely, if they were not repair'd. And it is this reparation of the Humours which we call Nutrition.

The Animal Body is never better nourish'd, than when all its parts are sull of Humours which Circulate, or are in motion. And because it is the Lympha which slows amongst the Fibres of the solid parts and fills up their Interstices, it is this also which is that Humour whose abundance makes Nourishment.

Discourse VIII.

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Of the Mouth.

THE Mouth in all Animals is a certain hollow place in the head, through which Nourishment is conveyed to the Body. In which four principal things are taken notice of; namely, the Teeth, the Palate, the Spittle and the Tongue.

But before we begin to enquire into these things, it will not be impertinent to observe, that the Mouth is made by the upper and under jaws. The most part of Animals open the Mouth by putting down the nether Jaw,

and they shut it by taking it up. The contrary is observed in Crocodiles, Serpents, and Lizards. di daily sur estem did W 15 molaco

The sides of the Jaws are pierced with many Holes of a considerable depth. They receive into their Cavities the roots of those little Bones, which are more smooth, white and hard than others, which adorn the entry of the Mouth like to a Pallisade, and are called Teeth.

That part of the Teeth which enters into the Holes of the laws, is called their Root, and that which stands out is more particularly nam'd the Teeth. The Roots are usually much longer than the Teeth themselves, which is the Cause they stick so fast in the Jaws.

Some have three Roots or points, others two, and many of them but one. When we break the Teeth with a Hammer, we find in the Body of them a hollowness, which ex-

tends its self to the very Root.

The Teeth are not only fixt to the Jaws by their Root, but they are likewise fastned to them by a hard and firm Flesh which covers their sides, and whose Fibres are extended from one end of the laws to the other. This Flesh is called the Gums.

Moreover the Teeth are of three forts. Those which are plac'd in the entry of the Mouth are broad, and their extremities made

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with an edge. They are called Dentes Incisivi. The other which are farther within the
Mouth, and which the Cheeks cover have a
thick, strong and large Body, and their extremities broad and unequal, which makes
them fit to break and bruise; whence they are
called Dentes Molares, or the Grinders. And
there are yet others which are very strong,
and have their Extremities pointed, and are
most fit to hold any thing fast. There is always one of them placed on each side, between
the Incisivi and the Grinders, and they are
called the Dog-Teeth or Eye-Teeth, because
they receive a branch of a Nerve from the
Optick Nerves.

The Number of the Teeth is not always the same. Some men have 14 in each Jaw, some have 15, and others 16. Usually they reckon four Incisive, two Dog-Teeth, and eight Grinders, as well in the upper as the nether

law.

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The use of the Teeth is to chew the Food. The Incisive cut it into little Morsels, and the Grinders break and bruise it very small, to the end it may pass forwards, and the Dog-Teeth cut it in pieces, when the Incisive are not strong enough to do it.

The Palate is that part of the Mouth which makes its Roof, and which is extended from the upper Jaw-bone even to the bottom of the

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Mouth.

Mouth. The surface of it is unequal, and its Fore-part cut into small narrow furrows, plac'd near one another, from the Incisive Teeth to the middle of the Mouth, and its hinder part is of a pretty even Surface.

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It is furnish'd outwardly with a very delicate Coat under which there is another more thick and strong. When this is raised we discover an almost infinite number of small Glandules. These, being form'd like the stones of Raisins make up the Body of the furrows of the Palate. Their Excretory Vessels do pierce the Membrane which covers the Membrane which covers the furrows, and fhed into the Mouth a pretty clear and fomewhat viscous Liquor. The hinder part of the Palate, whose Surface is even, hath under its Membranes small Glandules of the bigness of Millet seed. They differ from those which make the furrows of the Fore-part in this, that they are not ranked about their Excretory Vessels, as the stones of Raisins about the stalk of the Grape: but they pierce the Membranes of the Palate by as many Excretory Vessels, as there are Glandules. All these Glandules of the Palate receive Arteries from the Carotides, fend Veins to the external Jugulars, and receive Filaments of Nerves from the Seventh Pair.

We find at the bottom of the Palate three remark-

remarkable Bodies, to wit, two Glandules on each side one. They call them the Almonds; and between these Glandules a small piece of Flesh of a Conical Figure, which they call the Uvula.

The Almonds are Vesicular Glandules of a Yellowish colour. Though they seem two in number, yet they are but one, the middle of which is covered by the Membrane of the Palate, and the Extremities appear like two Lobes. This middle part which makes the Communication of the two Lobes, is both more strait and more delicate, than the two ends of this Glandule.

Each Lobe has a Sinus or Cavity, which is divided in many Apartments, the Excretory Vessels of these small Vessels tend thither, and shed a glewy and whitish Humour, which is not unlike to the Snot of the Nose. They receive Arteries from the Vertebre, they send Veins to the Jugulars, and their Nerves come from the third, fourth, and fifth Pair.

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As for the Uvula, it is nothing but a small bag of the Membrane of the Palate. It hangs between the two Lobes, which make the Almonds. This Bag is full of an infinite number of small Vesicular Glandules, which are of the colour of the Flesh, because of the great number of Arteries which they receive from the Vertebra and the Carotides, and the many

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Veins

Veins which they fend to the Jugulars. Their Excretory Vessels do pierce on all sides its outward Membrane, and wet it with a Transpa-

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rent and somewhat viscous Liquor.

The Mouth is not only watered with the Liquor which flows from the Glandules of the Palate and the *Ovula*, but there are likewise four other great streams which empty themselves into it. They discharge themselves of a sweet and Transparent Water, in which there is some Viscosity remarkable. This Liquor is called the *Spittle*.

We find within the Mouth two small Holes, the one on the Right, the other on the Left side. They pierce the Cheeks towards the Molar Teeth, or Grinders: And because we find them always wet, we make no doubt but they are the opening of two streams of Spittle.

And if we put a Bodkin into them, we find that it easily passes into a small Membranous Pipe, which extends it self along the Cheeks, and is divided into many small Branches when it comes under the Ear. This Vessel is always found sull of Spittle, and the small Branches which are at the root of it lose themselves in a heap of Vascular Glandules. These Glandules are placed about the Inner-part of the Ear, and are called Parotides. So that the small Excretory Vessels which go from each Glandule, coming to be inserted one into another,

ther, make up Vessels somewhat larger. These larger Vessels joining together compose a greater, which encreaseth according as it approacheth nearer the Mouth, where it empties the Spittle which the Parotides have separated from the Blood.

Moreover the Parotides receive their Arteries from the Carotides, and send Veins to the External Jugulars; there are amongst them many Branches of Nerves which come from the hard Part of the Seventh Pair.

The opening of the other two streams which discharge the Spittle into the Mouth, is to be seen under the point of the Tongue towards the Incisive Teeth. They are so small that they cannot admit a Hog's Bristle. They appear at the end of two sleshy Papilla, which serve them for small Sphineters. They extend themselves along the Tongue, and when they come near its root, they are divided into many Branches which lose themselves in a heap of Glandules, which are called the Maxillar Glandules.

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They are placed within the under-Jaw, and extend themselves from the root of the Tongue as far as the Chin. The part of this Conglomerated Glandule which comes nearest the Parotides, is grosser and more red than the rest. As it advanceth towards the Chin, it diminisheth, so that it becomes by little and

ferved towards its middle part a little compression, which joins its fore-part to the hinder. And afterwards, after having encreased considerably, it extends its self as far as the

Chin in the Form of a Quince.

All the Glandules which compose it are nothing but a Complication of Vessels which are inserted into one another, and make by their Concourse two considerable Canals. These Canals extend themselves on each side, along the Tongue, and end at the two Papille fastned to the Gums, near the two Incifive Teeth, within the Mouth.

The Maxillar Glandules receive their Arteries from the Carotides, and send Veins to the Jugulars: Their Nerves come chiefly from the third, sourth, and seventh Pair. They separate the Spittle from the Blood, and the Vessels, of which we have been speaking,

empty it into the Mouth.

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Besides the four streams of spittle, we observe also many small Rivulets of it within the under Lip, and along the Gum on the inside the Mouth. It comes from some Glandules latent amongst the Carneous Fibres of these parts, and whose Excretory Vessels pour into the Mouth the Liquor which they have separated from the Blood.

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The little Viscosity that is observed in the Spittle, makes us imagine it is composed of some Sulphurs, some Acids, and much Phlegm, mixt with some Salt. It mingles with Victuals in the Mouth, and facilitates the Chewing by Moistning of them. It renders them more fluid, and by consequence fitter to convey through the Passages which must carry them elsewhere. It may be said also that by its Acids and Salts, it opens their small parts and makes the beginning of a dissolution. By the wonderful Foresight of the Author of the Animal Oeconomy, the Sulphurs are made to inclose the Acids to the end they may not corrode the parts which must be watered with Spittle.

The necessity of the mixture of Spittle with the Victuals appears in that all parts concur to the making of it. The Victuals press the Palate, and fo oblige the Spittle, which its Glandules contain, to run into the Mouth, by the little Excretory Vessels, which pierce its Membrane. The Crotaphite Muscle and the Masseters, by straitning and dilating themselves press the Parotides, and through their Vessels make two little streams of Spittle to run which enter on the right and left Side into the Mouth. The Digastrick by its contraction and dilatation agitates the Maxillar Glandules, and presses the Spittle out of them, which runs through their Excretory Vessels like

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like two little streams, which discharge themselves into the Mouth. And seeing in the time of chewing all these parts act at once as is said before, it must needs be granted that this mixture of the Spittle with the Victuals

is most necessary.

In the last place the Tongue comes to be examined, which is a piece of Flesh almost of a Conical Figure. Its Root is fastned to the furthest part of the Mouth by a little Bone which is called Os Hyoides: And from the Root as far as the middle it is fastned by its under-part to the Muscles, which fill the Cavity of the Under-Jaw; but its point is free, and does not cleave to any part.

Under the free part of the Tongue there is a small Line composed of small Tendinous Fibres, which reach from one end, as far as the place where the Tongue disingages it self from the parts which fill the Cavity of the Under-Jaw. This small Line is called the

Bridle.

The Os Hyoides is plac'd in the further part of the Mouth at the Root of the Tongue. It is in form like a Fork extended, whose Arms cleave to a heap of Cartilages, called the Larynx. It is composed of many little Bones, which are join'd by Cartilaginous knots. Sometimes there are but three of them, and at other times they reckon thirteen, six on each

each side. As for the Bone in the midst to which the Tongue is fastned, it is large in Comparison with the rest, which are very slender. It is likewise somewhat broad, rising towards the Tongue and hollow towards the Larynx. On its raised side it has two small appendages which are ordinarily Cartilaginous. They call them the Horns of the

Os Hyoides.

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There are five pair of Muscles which make it move with the Tongue. The first is the Geniobyoidaus which has its rife from within the Chin, and reaches to the Root of the Os Hyoides. These Muscles serve to raise it by the shortning of their Fibres. The second is the Sternobyoidaus. It comes from the top of the Sternum, ascends along the Arteria Trachea, and is fastned to the Root of the Os Hyoides. This pair of Muscles draws it downwards. The third is the Milobyoideus: It arises from within the Under-Jaw towards the Hammers, and is inserted into the Root of the Os Hyoides, which draws it up taking it by the sides. The fourth pair is the Coracobyoideus. It comes from the Coracoide Apophysis of the Homoplate. These have two Bellies, and are inserted into the Horns of the Os Hyoides, which they draw downwards, taking it by the sides. The fifth is the Stylo-Ceratobyoidans, it ariseth from the Apophysis Styloides, and

and is inserted into the Horns of the Os Hyoides: These Muscles restore it to its ordinary
Situation, when it has been mov'd by others.
They are pierced to give passage to the Di-

gastrique.

As for the Tongue, it is covered with an outer Membrane, or Cuticula. We find under it a fort of viscous Substance. It is moderately thick, white on the fide that touches the outer Membrane, and black on the other. It is call'd the Reticular Body. This Reticular Body is perforated like a Sieve, and there arise from each of its Holes small Conical Bodies of an indifferent hard Substance. They appear in an extraordinary manner on the Tongues of Cats. They are very long and crooked towards the point of the Tongue, like so many little Horns. We find them also on the Tongues of Oxen and other Animals of the same bigness. When those small Conical Bodies are pluck'd off, they leave confiderable Holes in the Reticular Body, and their covers remain in the outer Surface of the Tongue.

Under the Reticular Body, there is a Coat woven of Tendinous Fibres, and Filaments of Nerves of the fifth and ninth pair, upon which appears a prodigious quantity of small Nervous Papille. Each of these Papille is covered with one of those Conical Bodies of which we have

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spoken. They pierce the Reticular Body, and terminate upon the Surface of the Tongue.

Upon the Tongues of men there are none of those Conical Bodies which are chiefly seen on the Tongues of sour-stooted Creatures. But the Papilla pass as far as the outer Coat of the Tongue, which they raise in small Knobs, and thereby render its Surface very

unequal.

There are reckoned three kinds of Papille both on the Tongues of men, and on those of Oxen, &c. The first are like the Horns of Snails, having on the top a small round head. They are not numerous; some being placed on the fides of the End of the Tongue, none of them above, but many of them are found on the side of its Root. The second are divided into small Fibres, which lose themselves in the risings of the outer Coat of the Tongue, and they are plac'd on its upper part. Third are Conical, and we find them placed confusedly amongst the rest. They rise all from the Papillar Bodies, they pierce the Reticular Body, and go to the outer Membrane of the Tongue, which they raise in Knobs in men, and there they rencounter the roots of the Conical Bodies in Oxen and other Animals which have them.

In fine, the Tongue has five orders of Fibres by which it makes all its motions, besides those which

which are performed by the Muscles of the Os Hyoides. The first is of those which are extended in a straight line from its Root to the End, passing through the middle of its Body: By their Contraction they ferve to draw its End towards the Root. The second is of those which passing from its Root as far as the End, furnish its two sides. By their Contraction, they move the Tongue to the right and left. The third is of those which passing from one side to the other, are inter-Jaced with the first and cut them at right Angles. When they are shortned they make the Tongue round. This appears much more towards the End of the Tongue than elswhere. The fourth is of those which coming from its Root embrace a part of the Tongue; they are interlaced with the Fibres of the first and third Order, cutting them obliquely. The effect which the shortning of them produceth, is that they draw the Tongue backward, without any considerable Contraction. And the fifth is a few Fibres which derive their Origin from the Chin, and are inserted into the under part of the Tongue, passing a considerable way into its Body. When they are shortned, they draw the Tongue without the Mouth.

Towards the Root of the Tongue, we find many small Glandules, situated amongst its Fibres. They have Excretory Vessels, which

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fend forth Spittle into the Mouth, whose Apertions appear in many places of its Surface. Besides these, there are likewise some others observed situated on the sides of the Tongue, they call them Sublinguales. They have many Excretory Vessels, whose Orisices do appear on the Gums towards the Hammers. There runs from them, as from the rest, a clear Transparent, and somewhat viscous Liquor.

The Fibres of the Tongue shew us that its use is to order the Meat in the Mouth, and to make it pass by its different motions under the Grinders, there to be divided and broken. And by all these motions it strikes the Palate, agitates the Maxillar Glandules, its proper Glandules being prest from time to time, it obliges all its Glandules to send forth a considerable quantity of Spittle into the Mouth. Thus is it a chief Instrument of

And in fine, when it is drawn back and raifed at the same time by the Muscles of the Os
Hyoides, it presses the Meat into a Pipe, called the Oesophagus, which comes to the Cavity of the Mouth, and by this means serves
for swallowing.

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Kud forth Spittle into the Mouth, whose DISCOURSE IX.

Of the Oesophagus.

THen we trace the Victuals, we find they go from the Mouth into a hollow Pipe which is extended along the Neck and Breast, pierces the Diaphragma and is inserted into the Stomach. 'Tis call'd the Oefo-

phagus.

It is very true that the Victuals pass over a Cartilage, which covers the Orifice of a Pipe that enters into the Breast. This Cartilage ordinarily lies high, and the Victuals press it down, when they are thrust by the Tongue into the Oesophagus. 'Tis call'd the Epiglottis. But because the Victuals pass over it, without stopping there, and it has no use as to them, we shall not stop at it here, but shall reserve it to another place.

Next after the Epiglottis appears the Orifice of the Oesophagus which is call'd the Pharynx. It is ordinarily shut, and does not open but to give passage to what is thrust forward that way by the Tongue, or to let out what is

voided by the Stomach into the Mouth.

It opens and shuts as there is occasion, by the help of seven Muscles. The first is called Oesophagaus. It is strongly fastned to the two

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sides of the Schtiform Cartilage, and covers the Oesophagus in its winding. Its use is to shut

the entry of the Oesophagus.

The others are double. The first are called Sphano-pharyngai. They take their beginning from within the sharp Apophyses of the Os Sphanoides; and are obliquely inserted into the sides of the Pharynx, which they open by drawing it upwards.

The second are the Stylo-pharyngai. They arise from the extremity of the Apophyses Styloides of the Bones of the Temples, and are inserted into the sides of the Pharynx, which they dilate by drawing its sides to the right

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The third are the Cephalo-pharyngai. They derive their Original from the Articulation of the Head with the first Vertebra, and spread their Fibres into the substance of the Pharynx, which they shut by contraction of their Fibres.

Moreover, the Oesophagus extends its self in a straight line from the Pharynx to the Stomach. It is composed of three Coats, which may be called, the inner, the middle, and the outer Coat. The inner is made up of nothing but Tendinous Fibres diversly interlaced. The middle is made up of Carneous Fibres, of which they reckon two Orders, both in Men and in other Animals. In Men the Fibres of the first Order reach all along from the Pha-

rynx to the Stomach, and thence are named Fibri Longitudinales; and those of the second Order are like so many little Circles which encircle the Oesophagus, above which the Longitudinales are placed. They are called Circulares. In Animals, which eat with the Head downward, they have another Polition. The two Orders of Fibres go spirally round about the Oesophagus. And for as much as the one go from the right to the left, whilft the others pass from the left to the right, they do in many places pass one over another. There is somewhat fingular in this passing, to wit, That the Fibres which pass in one place over the others, go under them at the next meeting, at the second they go over; and at last pass under them again. The outer Coat is composed of Tendinous Fibres, more fine and slender than those of the inner. The inner and outer Coat serve for Tendons to the middle. So that we may consider the Oesophagus as a Muscle, whose inner Coat is the Head, the middle the Belly, and the outer Coat the Tail. So that in Men the Oesophagus is shortned by the swelling of the Fibri Longitudinales; and straitned by the shortning of the Circulares. This Contraction and Compression of the Oe-Sophagus is called its Peristaltick Motion.

In Beasts, the shortning and straitning of the Oesophagus is much greater than in Men,

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because the Musculous Fibres descend spirally and crofs one another. For when they fwell, and by consequence are shortned, thereby shortning the Oesophagus also, they make its Cavity less, because by their Action they wreath it.

The use of the Peristaltick Motion is to help forward what has once pass'd the Pharynx, that it may not stop in the Cavity of the Oelophagus. So that we may boldly fay, the Oefophagus was fram'd in this manner, on purpose to thrust the Meat forward by its Peristaltick motion into the Stomach.

In Beasts the Peristaltick motion of the Oefophagus straitens its Cavity much more than in Men, because they Eat ordinarily with their Head downward. There is therefore occasion for more force to make the Meat pass through

the Oesophagus into the Stomach.

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Laftly, This Peristaltick motion is called Vermicularis, because the Oesophagus moves as Worms do, by straitning and shortning its felf in one place, and swelling in another, which is continued from one end to the other by Undulation. The cause of this may be, because the Filaments of the Nerves enter obliquely into the Tendinous Fibres of the Coats. For as foon as the Animal Spirits were entered into one Fibre, they would be that up by blowing up the end of the Nervous Filament from whence

they come. And fo shutting the door upon others, they would hinder them more from flowing in, till the Fibres were restored to their former Estate by the force of their spring. And in as much as the Fibri Longitudinales are all of a piece, and the Circular ones communicate all together by the small Tendinous Fibres, the animal Spirits passing farther into the Fibri Longitudinales, and running into the neighbouring Circular ones, they would produce there the same effect which they had done in the former. So that continuing to run thus from one end of the Oesophagus to the other, they would produce a Vermicular or Undulating motion, by which one place becomes more straitned and shortned, then is restored into its former estate, whilest this straitning and shortning defcends farther, by degrees to the end.

DISCOURSE X.

follow at nomen is called

Of the Stomach, and of Chylification.

HE Oesophagus is inserted into a kind of bag made almost like a Bag-pipe; and this is call'd the Stomach. It is short and open at both ends. The place where the Oesophagus joyns it, is on the left side, call'd the upper Orisice of the Stomach; and the other place where

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Of the Stomach, and of Chylification. 83 where it is open, which is on the right, is called the Pilorus. Dans own

The inner Coat of the Oefophagus lies within close about the upper orifice for the space of three inches.

We find that the Stomach is made up of three Coats; the outer and inner are woven of Tendinous Fibres, and the middle is made of Carneous Fibres. All between the inner Tunicle and the middle is fill'd with fmall Veffcular Glandules. Their Excretory Vessels pierce the inner Tunicle, and form in its Cavity a fmall Down, whence it is call'd the Velvet Tuit with two confiderable branches of Mc. sin

When we examine the Composition of the middle Coat, we find ordinarily three orders of Fibres in Beafts, and two in Men. The first is nothing but the continuation of the Longitudinal Fibres of the Oesaphagus, which extend themselves from the upper Orifice of the Stomach as far as the Pilorus. And the other is nothing but the Continuation of the Circular Fibres of the Oefophagus, which are cut by the Longitudinals at right Angles. Thus they appear in Men, in Dogs, Cats, &c. Besides these two orders of Longitudinal and Circular Fibres, there are two Bundles of Fibres extremely close, which extend themselves to the right and left above the Stomach, from its upper Orifice as far as the Pilorus. They are nothing G 2 Bodies

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but the Spiral Fibres of the Oesophagus which are separated into two Bundles at the upper Orifice, and parting the one from the other, they passalong above the Stomach, and are reunited at the Pilorus.

All these different orders of Fibres are made to produce a Peristaltick motion in the Stomach. It is by means of this motion that the Victuals which enter the Stomach by its upper

Orifice, are fent out by the Pilorus.

Moreover the Stomach receives Arteries from the Caliack, sends Veins to the Splenick and to the Vena Porta, the Parvagum furnishes it with two considerable branches of Nerves, and many Nervous Filaments come from the Mesenterical Plexus: and in fine, it gives rise to some Lymphatick Vessels which go into the Refervatory of the Chyle.

There needed be no more faid of the Stomach, were it not that we observe that the Victuals receive considerable change during their stay there. In short it is observed that they become Liquid and of a whitish colour. This Liquor is called the Chyle, and the action

that produced it is call'd Chylification.

To begin to examine the nature of Chylification, I obsere it produceth sluidity in the Victuals which were folid. We have learned from Phylick that Fluidity consists in the divifion and various motion of the Particles of fluid BUG

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Bodies. So that by Chylification the parts of the Viltuals must be separated from one ano-

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This separation of the parts of Food cannot be done but by bruising or Fermentation. We know nothing in the Stomach that can so perfectly break and grind the Victuals as to change them into Chyle. We must conclude then, that this Separation of the parts of the

Aliments is made by Fermentation.

We have observed in our Discourse of the Elements of the living Body, that Fermentation is only made by the mixture of two Bodies of a different nature, and that it is done for the most part by the mixture of Acids and Alcali's. Nevertheless, since Alcali's are needful to dissolve Sulphurs, Phlegms to dissolve Salts, and Acids to dissolve Alcali's, we cannot affirm that the Ferment which by its mixture makes the dissolution of Food in the Stomach, is only an Acid, an Alcali, or a Phlegm; seeing by Chylisication, both Salts, Sulphurs and Alcali's are dissolved.

But the Ferment must be composed of Principles capable of making a Fermentation, such as dissolve Sulphurs, Alcali's and Salts. And since we have asserted that Alcali's dissolve Sulphurs, Acids Alcali's, and Phlegms Salts, we must from thence necessarily conclude that the Ferment of Chylisication, is a composure of Acid, Alcali and Phlegm.

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If the Ferment of the Stomach be such, as soon as the Victuals shall begin to mingle with it, its Acids will act upon their Alcali's, and by the Fermentation which they shall excite with them, will begin to dissolve the whole Mass of Victuals. The Alcali's of the Ferment coming afterwards to pass amongst the Sulphureous parts of the Food will keep them separated from one another.

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And in fine, the *Phlegms*, after having diffolved the *Salts*, will find place amongst all the parts of the Victuals, whose union will be broken by the Action of the *Acids* and *Alcali's*.

Some difficulty may be raised upon what we have faid, that the Ferment of the Stomach was composed of Acid and Alcali; because these two Principles cannot sublist together without a Fermentation, which would change them immediately into Salt. But if we consider, that certain Acids may have their Angles very pointed, and the sides of these Angles very flender, and that the Pores of an Alcali may be large enough to let the Æthereal matter pals through, though an Angle of these Acids be thrust in there, we shall easily comprehend after what manner an Acid may be mingled with an Alcali without exciting Fermentation, and without uniting closely with it. For in this case there will be Intervals large enough between the Concavity of the Pores of the Alcali's

calv's, and the sides of the points of the Acids which are placed there, to give passage to the matter which flows through their Pores. And fince it is the obstacle which this Æthereal matter meets with in its passage, which makes it separate the parts of Bodies, it is clear that it needs not here produce any Fermentation.

When therefore the Victuals descend into the Stomach by their weight, they press the fmall Glandules, which are placed between its inner and middle Coats. And being nothing but little Vesicles, as soon as they are prest they empty themselves, and Distill into the Cavity of the Stomach, a fufficient dew of Ferment, which mingles with what is found there, Ferments it, dissolves it, and makes it Liquid.

That which is Liquified gets above, and obeying the Peristaltique motion of the Stomach goes out by the Pilorus. So long as this Fermentation lasts there goes away always somewhat of this fort, and when it is finished, the Animal must eat or he is exposed to hunger, which proceeds hence because the Ferment being altogether pure in the Stomach it frets the inward Tunicle.

The Ferment of the Victuals never entirely dissolve the parts, there are always some of them which escape it. This is the Cause that the Chyle is not to be met with at the going out of the Stomach, and that it is mingled with

G 4 many

many gross and useless parts. It is for this reason that nature has made the Chyle to pass through a long Pipe of Intestines, in which it is mingled in divers places with different Liquors, which ferve to separate what is good from what might be hurtful to the Preservation of the living Body. When therefore the Victoria defend

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the Stomach by their weight, they pa DISCOURSE XI.

Of the Intestines.

THE Chyle in going out of the Stomach 1 passes into a Duct or Drain join'd to the Pilorus, called the Guts, or Intestines. This Ductus makes many Circumvolutions; And at last, after a great many windings, terminates in the Fundament. mach goes out by the

Anatomists divide them into fix parts, to which they give different Names. The first, which they call the Duodenum, begins at the Pilorus, and ends at a place where a yellowish and oleous Liquor is discharged into the Cavity of the Intestines. It is ordinarily fill'd with the Chyle as it comes from the Stomach.

The second, which is usually found almost empty, is called Intestinum Jejunum. It begins at the end of the Duodenum, and ends where the Excrements begin. They fay, 'tis ten or The twelve Palms in length.

The third is called Ilion. It begins at the the end of the Jejunum, and ends at the small end of a Gut, which is fastned to the Cavity of the rest, like the bottom of a Sack. Thus far the Intestines are very delicate and their Cavity but small; wherefore they are called the Small Guts. The fourth is called the Cacum, which is the small end of a Gut fastned to the rest, of which we have made mention. The fifth is called the Colon. It begins at the Cacum, and makes a great Circuit about the other Guts: We find at its entry a Membranous folding, which is fo framed, that it permits the Excrements to pass easily from the Ilion to the Colon, but does not fuffer them to pass without difficulty from the Colon to the Ilion. The Cavity of the Colon is all divided into little Cells, and it ends at the place where the rest of the Guts go directly to the Fundament. This makes the fixth Intestine, which is called Reltum. The Cacum, the Colon, and the Rectum, are called the Great Guts, because their Coats are stronger and grosser than those of the Small Guts.

All the Intestines are made up of three Tunicles, as the Oesophagus of the Stomach. The inner is a Texture of Tendinous Fibres diversly interlac'd; the middle has two Orders of Carneous Fibres, of which the one is Circular, and the other Longitudinal: And the outer

is a Texture of Tendinous Fibres. These Tunicles serve to make the Peristaltick motion of
the Guts, after the same manner as in the Oesophagus and Stomach. This Vermicular motion
serves to force what is lodg'd in the Guts
down to the Fundament, in order to Evacuation.

Besides the three Tunicles of which we have spoken, we observe in the substance of the Small Guts, a heap of little Glandules, which send their Excretory Vessels into the Cavity of the Intestines, and Distill there a clear and transparent Liquor. We shall shew its use when we speak of the changes which the Chyle

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receives in passing into the Intestines.

The Chyle is not very Liquid when it comes out of the Stomach: It resembles somewhat Paste made of Meal and Water; being of a grayish colour, like to it, and has much of Viscosity: But it continues not long so. For it has no sooner past the Duodenum, but a yellow and extremely bitter Liquor, which is called the Bile, mingles with it.

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interlared ; the middle has two Orders of

Carnetus Elbres, of which the one is Circular,

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Discourse XII.

Of the Bile and Liver.

When we enquire by Chymistry what are the Elements of the Bile, we find that it is composed of much fixt Alcali, a little Volatile, a little of Sulphur, yet less of Earth, and

much of Phlegm.

From whence we may conclude, that the Bile, mingling its self with the Chyle, receives in its Alcali's both fixt and Volatile, a part of the Acids, which hold its Sulphurs united together, and thereby keep up the Viscosity which it has in the Duodenum. So that the Sulphurs of the Chyle are after this more at liberty, and more separated one from another. Wherefore they receive amongst their parts, the Phlegm of the Bile, which dilate the whole Mass and give it a greater fluidity.

The Bile is discharged into the Cavity of the Guts, at the end of the Duodenum by a small Hole, round which is observed a small Spongious edge. If you put a Probe into this small Hole, it passes into a Membranous Dust, which reaches to the Liver. This Dust is always full of Bile, and is therefore called Ca-

nalis Cholidochus.

one of its branches govern

The Insertion of this Vessel into the Intestines is something remarkable. At first it creeps above the hinder part of the Duodenum, and then pierces its outer Coat: Afterwards it pierces its middle Tunicle after having descended for some space between that and the outer Coat: And at last, after having gone some way between the middle Tunicle and the inner, it pierces the inner at the place where we have observed the little Hole through which the

Bile flows into the Intestines.

The Obliquity of this Infertion serves to make the Bile run into the Intestines. And the spongious edge which environs the little Hole hinders the Bile from returning from the Intestines into the Ductus Cholidochus. For the spongious edge is a small Sphincter which keeps the little Hole shut, when the Bile does not keep it open by flowing into the Guts. And the Peristalick motion of the Intestines passing towards the little Hole, serves successively that part of the Ductus Cholidochus which creeps amongst the Membranes of the Duodenum; and thereby obliges all the Bile that is in this part of the Ductus Cholidochus to run into the Cavity of the Guts.

After having considered all this exactly, I follow the Ductus Cholidochus towards the Liver, and sind that it is forked there, and that one of its branches goes to a Bladder situated

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near the concave part of the Liver, whilst the other goes to the Liver. They call the branch which goes to the Bladder Dustus Cysticus, and that which goes to the Liver, Dustus Hepaticus, and the Trunck which arises from the joyning of both these which is inserted into the end of the Duodenum, Dustus Communis.

The Hepatick Duct enters into the Liver, accompanied with two Arteries, two Nerves and the Vena Porta. All these Vessels are shut up in a Membranous sheath, which they call Glisson's Capsula. As soon as they enter the Liver, they are divided into many branches, and these branches into others, and thus they continue to divide till they be spread through all the substance of the Liver.

It is here to be observ'd that all these Vessels continue still to be shut up in Glisson's Capsula. It accompanies them through all, and follows all their ramifications. So that where ever there is a branch of an Artery, there is also a branch of the Vena Porta, and one of the Ductus Cholidochus, and the whole is shut up in a branch of the Capsula. As for the Nerves they sollow also the ramification of the other Vessels for some space, and at last form a small net, which enfolds the Arteries.

From this by the way we may conclude that the Vena Porta does not beat in the Liver, as some Authors have imagined; but that the beating beating of the Capsula proceeds from the beating of the Arteries which are shut up in it.

All these Vessels enter into small Lobes, the Meeting whereof makes up the Liver. Each Lobe is shut up in a very delicate Membrane which divides it from all the rest. Nevertheless it ceases not to adhere to them by small Tendinous Fibres. The Membrane which enfolds each Lobe changes into a part of the Capsula, enfolding all the Vessels which enter into the Lobe. So that Glisson's Capsula is nothing but the continuation and re-union of all the Membranes which encompass the small Lobes of the Liver.

All these Lobes are made up of little Vascular Glandules, which touch one another. Each Glandule receives a branch of an Artery and of the Vena Porta, and there goes from it a branch of the Ductus Cholidochus, which is only a continuation of the Vessel of the Glandule. They are fastned to these small Vessels as Raisins to the Stalk of the Grape. There goes also from each Glandule a branch of the Hepatick Vein; which being united make up a considerable Trunk, which goes from the Liver at its convex part, and enters into the ascending Vena Cava.

The Vena Porta and the Arteries bring the Blood to the Glandules of the small Lobes, the branches of the Hepatick Vein carry it away again

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colo whe again into the Vena Cava, and the Ductus Cholidochus transports the Bile into the end of the Duodenum, which the Glandules of the small

Lobes have separated from the Blood.

This is what we have discovered in following the Ramifications of the Ductus Hepaticus. Let us now trace the Ductus Cysticus: And first tis observable that it is straitned by a small Fibrous Ring at its Insertion into the Vesicle of the Bile. So that this Fibrous Ring performs the office of a small Sphinster, which shuts the entry of the Vesicle, and hinders the Bile which usually fills it, from getting out, unless it be forced. Afterwards I consider the Vesicula Fellis. It has the figure of a small Pear, and receives Arteries from the Arteria Caliaca, which are called the Cystick Arteries. It is made up of two Tunicles, between which there are a prodigious number of small Veficular Glandules; which receive branches from the Cystick Arteries. The Excretory Vessels of these little Glandules pierce its inner Coat, and make within its Cavity a small Down, from whence their flows a very clear and transparent Bile in form of a Dew. This Bile differs from that which flows from the Ductus Hepaticus, in this, the former is of a deeper colour and abounds more in a fixt Alcali, whereas this is more fluid, and has more of a Volatile Alcali than the other.

All the Bile found in the Vesicula Fellis, comes not only from the Vesicular Glandules situated between its Tunicles; but a great part of it from the Lobes of the Liver which are about the Vesicle. They discharge themselves into its Cavity by two or three Dustus Cholidochi, which are inserted into that part of it that adheres to the Liver. Amongst the rest there is one pretty large which pierces the Tunicles of the Vesicula Fellis near the Fibrous Ring. The mouth of this Vessel is encompassed with a small Spongious border, which serves it for a Sphinster.

There goes a great number of Lymphatick Vessels, both from the concave part of the Liver, and from the Vesicle, which enter into the Reservatory that is placed above the Ver-

rebra of the Loins.

In fine, the Liver has three Ligaments which keep it in its situation. The first keeps it strongly fastned to the Diaphragma, and pierces into the substance of the Liver, even to Glisson's Capsula. The second is of a good length, fastned to the Liver near the Bladder of the Gall, and goes to the Navel. The third is slack, but strong and large. It derives its Origin from the Membrane which encompasses the whole Liver, and which is a production of the Peritonaum, and goes from thence to the Xiphoid Cartilage.

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Its upper part is Convex, and its under Concave, is divided into three or four great Lobes, and with its under part it embraces a part of the Stomach. So that when the Stomach is full of Meat, the Bladder of the Gall being then prest, the Bile goes out by the Cystick Channel, and runs in abundance into the Duodenum, to dissolve the Chyle as it comes from the Stomach.

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From all this therefore, we may conclude that the use of the Liver is to separate the Bile from the Blood, to perfect the Chyle in the Intestines, by dissolving its Sulphurs by its Alcali's, and by diluting it with its Phlegm.

DISCOURSE XIII.

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Of the Changes, which the Chyle receives in the Intestines.

Besides the Bile which is discharged into the Duodenum; there is also another Liquor, clear and transparent as Water, which advances thither, and which they call the Pancreatick Juyce. This Pancreatick Juyce is somewhat of the same nature with the Lympha, that is, it is composed of Sulphurs, Phlegms and Volatile Alcali's.

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98 Of the Chyle in the Intestines, &c.

As foon as it falls into the Intestines, it mingles with the Chyle. If it meets with any Acids in the Chyle, which keep its Sulphurs united, its Volatile Alcali charges its self with them, which frees the Sulphurs from the other Principles. The Sulphurs which are in the Pancreatick Juyce, thrust themselves amongst the parts of the Chyle. They moderate the Fermentation of the Alcali's with the Acids, and hinder it from being done with too much Violence, which would occasion much disorder. And the Phlegm makes way to the Alcali's and Sulphurs, and they mingle more readily with

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From all this it clearly follows that the Pancreatick Juyce perfects the Chyle and renders it more Liquid. In men the Pancreatick Juyce and the Bile enter the Intestine at the same Hole. And in most part of other Animals the Ductus Pancreaticus is inserted into the Jejunum two Inches below the Insertion of the Ductus Cholidochus. We observe in this Insertion of the Ductus Pancreaticus, almost the same circumstances which have been observed in the Insertion of the Ductus Cholidochus. About the little Hole from whence the Pancreatick Juyce flows into the Cavity of the Intestines, there is a little Fibrous edge, which ferves it for a Sphincter, and hinders any thing from passing from the Intestines into the Ductus Pancreaticus. This

Of the Chyle in the Intestines, &c. 99

This Duct is made of many others, which spread through a Glandulous Body, called the Pancreas. The Glandules which compose it, are Vascular of a reasonable bigness. There goes from each a small Duct which is inserted into the Ductus Pancreaticus, and Distills into its Cavity the Liquor which the Glandule has separated from the Blood.

The whole Pancreas is covered with one Tunicle. It receives Arteries from the Arteria Caliaca, it sends Veins to the Splenica, and some Ramifications of the Intercostalis come this

ther, and spread through all its Body. In bas

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It is so necessary for the conservation of a living Creature, that the Chyle be freed of its Acids, that the Author of nature has plac'd many heaps of Vesicular Glandules between the Tunicles of the small Intestines. They distill into these places a Liquor like unto the Pancreatick Juyce, which by its mixture with the Chyle, sinisheth what the Bile and the Pancreatick Juyce had so well begun.

These small heaps of Glandules are of different bignesses. Some of them contain more than two hundred Glandules, and others not thirty. Sometimes there are four of them, sometimes sive, and sometimes six. Sometimes there are two of them in the Jejunum, sometimes three, and sometimes but one: we find always two or three such heaps in the Ilion.

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AII

100 Of the Chyle in the Intestines, &c.

All the parts of the Chyle are not fit to pass into the small Vessels which are called the La-Heal Veins. Some of them being too gross, viz. the gross Excrements. The Chyle abounds in parts fit to pass into the Lacteal Veins, after that it has been prepared by the Bile, and the Pancreatick Jayce: For this reason it is that its mass diminishes so much in the Intestinum Jejanum, because its more subtile parts get out and pass into the Lacteal Veins. So it is obferved, there are more Lacteal Veins of the Jejunum, than of all the other Intestines. At the end of the Jejunum some Excrements are found mingled with many Chylous parts. The Glandulous juyce mingles with them and dissolves the Sulphurs from the Chylous parts which are there. What has thus been prepared passes likewise into the Latteal Veins. These Excrements afterwards pass into the Ilion, where in divers places they receive again of the Glandulous juyce, which produces the same effect as formerly. In fine, after they are entirely freed of their Chylous parts, they pais into the greater Intestines. They are then composed of parts which the Ferment of the Stomach could not dissolve, and of Salts which are formed by the union of Alcali's, of the Bile, of the Pancreatick juyce, and of the Glandulous juyce with the Acids which were engaged amongst the parts of the Chyle, with order negent doub sould no one a

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DISCOURSE XIV.

Of the Mesentery, the Lacteal Veins, Pecquet's Reservatory, and the Thoracick Duct.

THE Intestines adhere to the Circumserence of a Membranous Russ, which they call the Mesentery. The middle of it is so strongly fastned to the Vertebra of the Loins, that it cannot be separated from them, unless you tear a part of it, or cut it. It is composed of two Membranes, of which the upper is a continuation of the Peritonaum, and the inferiour a Texture of Tendinous Fibres which come

from the Vertebra of the Loins.

The Mesenterick Artery spreads many branches amongst the Membranes of the Mesentery, one part of which goes to the Intestines, and the other is spread amongst the Fibres of the Membranes which compose it. The Veins which come from the Intestines are likewise spread between the Membranes of the Mesentery, and many small Veins which come from amongst their Fibres, go thither. They are called the Mesaraick Veins. They go to the Vena Porta. Many Nerves which arise from the Vertebra of the Loins, and from the Intercostal, are so interwoven one with another

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upon the Mesentery, that they form a Plexus which is called the Mesenterick Plexus. Many Nervous Fibres go from it, which are spread amongst the Fibres of the Membranes of the Mesentery, a part of which passes as far as

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The middle between the Membranes of the Mesentery is fill'd with Fat. It appears chiefly about the Mesaraick Veins. In the midst of it we find a large Glandule, and sometimes two, three or four. In Oxen and some other Animals there are many more near the small Guts. The knowledge of the structure of these Glandules does admirably serve to explain their uses. They are a heap of angular Vesicles. There is a communication between their Cavities. This is found by blowing into them after you have thrust out all that fills them. The Air passes from one Vesicle to another, and makes them appear fuch as we have deferibed them.

In fine, we discover between the Membranes of the Mesentery certain small Vessels, which come from the Intestines and pass into the Glandules of which we have spoken.

These Vessels are ordinarily full of Lympha, and sometimes we find them full of a Liquor like Milk, which is the reason why they are call'd the Lacteal Veins, nio 1 and 10 and 119 9118

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This Milk is nothing but pure Chyle, which has past from the Cavity of the small Guts into that of the Lacteal Veins. There are four Experiments which confirm us in this Opinion. The first is, that the Milk which runs into the Lacteal Veins comes from the Intestines; this truth is evident beyond exception; for when the Lacteal Veins are prest with the Fingers, they empty themselves of the Milk, and we see it come afterwards from the side of the Intestines to fill the Vein which has been emptied. The second is, that Milk is not to be found in the Lacteal Veins, except it be some Hours after the Animal has eaten. The third is, that we find the Jejunum almost always empty, because of the great number of La-Eteal Veins which go from it.

Further, the Lacteal Veins have many Valves plac'd very near one another. They are fo disposed that they permit the Chyle to run eafily into the Lacteal Veins in going from the Intestines to the Glandules of the Mesentery, but they hinder its return. They go from the Intestines in great number, and they are Inoculated many of them together according as they advance. By this means they make up some greater Vessels which empty the Chyle that they carry, into the Vesicles of the Glandules of the Mesentery.

The Chyle goes into the Vesicles of these Glandules, there to receive Animal Spirits, which come thither in abundance by many Nerves which proceed from the Plexus Mesentericus. These Spirits render the Chyle more subtile and sluid by their Volatile Alcali, and if there be any acidity in it, they correct it, by receiving it into their Alcali's and changing it into Salt.

After the Chyle has past through the Vesicles of the Mesaraick Glandules, it discharges it self into two or three Canals which rise under them. They end afterwards in a Membranous bag situated above the Vertebra of the Loins, they call it the Reservatory of the Chyle. The Reservatory is the same with the Cistern of the Lympha, of which we have spoke before. In this place the Chyle is mingled with much Lympha, with which the Reservatory is always full. It dilates it, and renders it more Liquid, that it may run the more easily.

In fine, there goes from the Reservatory of the Chyle, a Duct or Drain, which is called the Thoracick Duct, because it goes along the Vertebra of the Thorax. Sometimes this Ductus is forked, and its branches unite again, some-

times it is altogether simple.

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The Thoracick Duct or Drain is inserted into the Subclavian Vein; above its Insertion there is a Valve, which like a small Vault, co-

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vers it. So that the Blood which runs through the Subclavian Vein, runs by without hindring

the entry of the Chyle.

When we blow in the Thoracick Duet, we perceive many Valves in its Cavity. They are plac'd at very small distances from one another, and are so disposed that they permit the Chyle easily to run towards the Subclavian Vein, but they hinder it from descending into Pec-

quet's Reservatory.

From whence we may conclude that the Chyle runs from its Reservatory by the Thoracick Duct into the left Subclavian Vein. There it mingles with the Blood, whose course it follows and goes into the Vena Cava, which carries it into the right Auricle of the Heart. The Auricle discharges it into the right Ventricle. And as the Chyle makes then a part of the Blood, it follows its course, and circulates with it through all the Body.

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7 Hen the Chyle is once entered into the Subclavian Vein, it mingles its self with the Blood, and follows its course. We must therefore follow the Blood, if we would know what becomes of the Chyle. The

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The Circulation of the Blood shews us that it runs from the Subclavian Vein into the Vena Cava, and from the Vena Cava it passes into a bag adhering to the right side of the Heart. This little bag they call the right Auricle of the Heart. When this Auricle is full of Blood it contracts its self, and in contracting sheds it into a Cavity which we find in the Body of the Heart on its right side. This Cavity is called the right Ventricle of the Heart. As soon as the Ventricle is full of Blood, it contracts its self, and thereby empties by contraction.

It is here to be observ'd, that at the opening of the right Auricle into the right Ventricle of the Heart, there are certain small Skins, call'd Valves. They are three in number, almost of a triangular Figure, whose fides are notched. Their Root joins to the opening of the Auricle, and they terminate within the Ventricle. Their Extremity is upheld only by finall Tendinous Fibres, strong and of a good Length, which without being stretch'd are strongly fastned to small carneous Supporters, plac'd upon the concave surface of the Ventricle. This disposition plainly shews that these Valves are fo many fmall doors, which the Blood opens of its felf, when it runs from the Auricle into the Ventricle, and which it shuts after it is entered there. Indeed as foon as the Venericle is full of Blood it contracts its felf, and the Blood What becomes of the Chyle, is thereby prest equally on all sides. By this means it gets under these Values, lifts up the end thereof towards the opening of the Auricle, which is thereby fo close shut, that no drop of Blood can pass that way. Thus the Blood shuts up it felf, and cannot get out the way by which it entered. Nevertheless it does not stay in the right Ventricle of the Heart, it goes out by another door, to which the Rife of an Artery is strongly fastned. This Artery is divided into many branches, which diffribute themselves into the Lobes of the Lungs. As it passes from the right Ventricle, it has in its Cavity three Valves made like Crescents, and ranked each at the fide of the other. Their Convexity cleaves to the Artery and turns towards the Ventricle, and their Concavity is difengag'd and turned towards the Artery. This fituation shews us that they do not oppose the motion of the Blood when it comes from the Ventricle to the Artery, but by rifing up they stop its course if it press from the Artery into the Ventricle.

After the Blood has past from the right Ventricle into the Lungs by the Pulmonary Artery, it returns from them by a Vein, which is called the Pulmonary Vein. This Pulmonary Vein discharges its self into a little bag, fastned to the left side of the Heart, which is called the left Auricle. As soon as this Auricle is full, it

contracts

contracts its felf, and thereby forces the Blood into a Cavity in the substance of the Heart, plac'd on its left side, which is called the left Ventricle. As soon as this Cavity is full of Blood it contracts it self, and thereby throws

out all the Blood which it contains.

That we may learn where the Blood goes when it passes from the left Ventricle of the Heart, we are to take notice that at the opening of the left Auricle there are Valves lituated, after the same manner as at the opening of the right Ventricle. Their use also is the same. They permit indeed the Blood to run from the Auricle into the Ventricle, but they hinder it from coming out of the Ventricle into the Auricle when the Heart contracts its felf. The Blood therefore takes another way. It goes out of the left Ventricle by another passage, which makes the beginning of the great Artery, call'd Aorta. We find in the Cavity of this Artery next to the Heart, three Valves made Crescent ways, disposed after the same manner as those of the Pulmonary Artery. They permit the Blood to go out of the left Ventricle and to run into the Aorta, but they hinder the Blood from flowing back from the Aorta into the left Ventricle.

There is yet an important Observation to be made upon the motion of the Auricles and Ventricles of the Heart; which is this, The

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two Auricles contract and dilate themselves at the same time, and the two Ventricles in like manner. With this Difference, that when the Auricles contract themselves, the Ventricles are dilated, and when the Ventricles contract themselves, the Auricles are dilated in course. Which makes us conjecture, that the Heart is a Muscle, whose Auricles may well be reputed the Antagonist Muscles.

Before we enquire if this conjecture be a truth, it will not be impertinent to observe, that since the Auricles contract themselves at the same time, they do also at the same time pour the Blood into the Ventricles of the Heart. By the same reason the Ventricles of the Heart do at one time press the Blood into the Pulmo-

nary Artery, and into the Aorta.

When we consider the Heart narrowly, we perceive that it is composed of sleshy Fibres, which, have all of them communication with a Membrane made of Tendinous Fibres. This Membrane is plac'd at the Base of the Heart, and keeps the Auricles sixt to it. Which makes us indeed that the Heart is a Membrane who the Membrane who

us judge that the Heart is a Muscle.

In the Heart we observe three orders of Fibres, the first is, of those which go in a straight line from the Basis of the Heart just to its Extremity; lying in a small number over the right Ventricle. The second is of those which go from the Base, and after they have exten-

ded themselves to the middle of the Heart; return again to the Base from whence they came. The third is of those which go from the Base and come to the Extremity, describing about the Heart a spiral Line. There they re-enter within the Heart, and return spirally towards the Base. Some of them end in the Ventricles, where they make a Texture of their Tendinous Fibres, which covers them on all sides. Some of those also which come into the Ventricles make those little Eminencies which are called Pillars. From the Extremity of these Pillars go many Tendinous Strings, which are joined to the Teeth of the Valves that are plac'd in the opening of the Ando at one time preis the Blood into the P. salais

All these Orders of Fibres serve by the shortning of themselves to contract the Ventricles of the Heart. The straight Fibres shorten it, the circular ones straiten it, and the spiral wring it. The Heart cannot be thus shortned, straitned and wreathed, but the Ventricles must needs be contracted. From whence we must conclude, that the Heart is a Muscle, whose action consists in straitning the Cavities

which are amongst its Fibres.

As for the Auricles, they are also composed of Carneous Fibres, of which some of them are interwoven with others. They are extended for the most part at full length, and those

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Ner! Par of them which are interwoven feem to crofs them to become Circular. The shortning of the first diminishes the length of the Auricles. and the shortning of the other diminisheth their breadth. Which shews us that the Anricles are nothing but Cavernous Muscles. whose action consists in the contraction of their Cavity.

There is a communication between the Fibres of the Heart and those of the Auricles, by the interpolal of the Tendinous Fibres, which are united in their purity at the Bale of the Heart. We may look upon them as a Tendon common to the Heart and the Auricles. The Animal Spirits therefore which the Nerves distill into this Tendon, do easily pass from the Fibres of the Heart into the Fibres of the Auricles, and from the Fibres of the Auricles into those of the Heart.

If we would yet form to our selves an Idaa of the Heart as clear and distinct as may be, we may consider it as a Muscle with three Bellies. Each Auricle makes one, and the Body of the Heart makes the third, and the Membrane which is at the Base of the Heart where the Fibres of the Heart and of the Auricles

meet, would be the common Tendon.

The Heart receives Arteries from the Aorta, it sends Veins to the Cava; it receives Nerves from the Plexus Cardiacus and the Par Vagum. In

In fine, the Heart is shut up in a Membranous Bag called the Pericardium. The Pericardium is strong and formed of a Texture
of the Tendinous Fibres of the Heart, of some
Veins, some Arteries and some Nerves. It contains always a little Serosity, which the small
Glandules that are plac'd amongst the Fat of

the Base of the Heart distill into it.

From what has been faid, we may conclude, that when the Auricles are full of Blood, the Ventricles of the Heart are empty. And because the Auricles, as soon as they are full of Blood, contract themselves; the Blood which they press into the Ventricles of the Heart, being aided by the spring of their Fibres, dilate them, and forces the Animal Spirits out of them, into the Auricles to compleat their contraction. But as foon as the Auricles are contracted, the Blood which advances on all fides, joyn'd with the force of the spring of their Fibres, restores them to their former state. And the Spirits passing in that moment from the Auricles to the Heart, shut it up, and cause its contraction. For this Reason it is that the Auricles empty themselves when the Ventricles of the Heart are filled, and the Auricles fill themselves when the Ventricles are emptied. most saires Arteries from bitgme

The Heart by its Contraction throws the Blood from its Ventricles into the Arteries.

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But because the Arteries become still narrower, the Blood cannot be thrown out impetuoufly without swelling them. When they are thus blown up, they restore themselves to their former state by the spring of their Fibres, and by this means make a part of the Blood which they have received run into the Veins of the Heart. And fince the Heart throws out the Blood into the Arteries by feveral strokes, the Arteries must needs be blown up and fall again as they fill or empty by the Blood to forced into them. It is this motion of the Arteries which they call the Pulse, concerning which it is to be observed that the dilatation of the Arteries accompanies the contraction of the Heart, and the contraction of the Arteries accompanies its dilatation.

Those that will be satisfied with what is demonstrable, will allow the Heart to be the office for pressing the Blood into the Arteries, and the principal Instrument of its Circulation. Hereafter we shall make appear the Falsity of that ill-grounded Opinion, of the Heart's being the Organ of Sanguification; in the mean time, leave those of that Opinion to enjoy the Satisfaction of being deceived.

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DISCOURSE XVI.

Of the Lungs.

TE have said in the preceeding Chapter, that when the Blood goes from the right Ventricle of the Heart it passes into the Pulmonary Artery. This Artery is divided into many great branches which enter into the Body of the Lungs, and these branches are again divided into others, and these into others, till at last the smallest of them are lost

into the fubstance of the Lungs.

The Pulmonary Artery is not spread alone in the Lungs. It is every where accompanied with the Pulmonary Vein, a branch of a Nerve which comes from the Par Vagum, a small Artery which goes from the Aorta, and which they call the Bronchial Artery, with a small Vein which is passing into the Vena Cava, and which they call the Bronchial Vein; and a certain Cartilaginous Duct, which is called the Bronchie.

The Bronchia are only the Ramifications of a great Cartilaginous Pipe, which extends its self from the bottom of the Mouth, as far as the Lungs. It lieth above the Oesophagus, and is plac'd in the fore-part of the Neck.

call it the Arteria Trachea.

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There is at the top of the Arteria Trachaa a horny part, called the Larynx. It is made up of five Cartilages. That which takes up its fore-part, makes that Eminence which in men they call Adam's Bit. Its Figure is almost like unto that of the Buckler, which the Latines call Scutum. For this reason they name it the Scutiform Cartilage. The second is called the Annular. It is made like the Ring which the Turks make use of for drawing the Bow. It is strait before and large behind. It embraces the whole Larynx, and is fastned into the Scutiform. The third and fourth are called the Arytanoides. They are the productions of the Annular, placed on its hinder part, and separated from one another by a small slit. They make that part of the Larynx which they call the Glottis. The fifth is a Cartilage fastned above the upper part of the Scutiform Cartilage. They call it the Epiglottis. Its Figure is Triangular, and its substance softer than that of the others. Its Root cleaves to the Scutiform Cartilage, and the rest of its Body is disengag'd from any other part. It is usually lifted up. This is that Cartilage which the Victuals depress in passing from the Mouth into the Oesophagus. When it is down it shuts the entry of the Trachaal Artery, and thereby hinders the Food from going into it.

The Larynx is reckoned to have thirteen Muscles.

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Muscles. There are four of them common to it with other parts, and nine properly appertain to it. The first pair of the common ones are nam'd Sternothyroidai. They arise from the top of the Sternum, lie above the Tracheal Artery, and are fastned to the inferiour part of the Scutiform Cartilage. When their Fibres are contracted they draw the Scutiform downwards. The second pair is made of the Hyothyroidai. They arise from the Root of the Os Hyoides, and are fastned to the Bottom of the Scutiform. They serve by the contraction

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of their Fibres to raife the Larynx.

The first pair of Muscles proper to the Larynx is made of the anteriour Cricothyroidai. They derive their Origin from the fore-part of the Annular Cartilage, and end at the lower part of the same Cartilage. By their Action they dilate it. The second is made of the Posteriour Cricothyroidei. They arise from the top of the Annular at its hinder part, and come to the sides of the Scutiform at its upper part. When they act they straiten the Scutiform. The third is made of the Cricoarytanoidai. They derive their Origin from the inner, and side-part of the Annular, and are inferted into the under-part and the sides of the Arytanoides. By their Contra-Ction they dilate the Glottis. The fourth is made of the Thyroarytanoidai. They come from within, and from the middle of the Scutiform, and estimate way to med to have the

Muscles.

terminate in the sides of the Arytanoides. By their action they shut the Larynx. The ninth Muscle is call'd the Arytanoidaus. It ariseth from the place where the Annular is join'd with the Arytanoides which it straitens when it acts.

The Larynx covers the top of the Trachaal Artery, whose frame is very singular. First we find it covered with a very delicate Membrane, whose Fibres are diversly interwoven: Then under this Membrane there are Cartilaginous Rings: These Rings are entirely Cartilaginous except on their Back-side, where they are Membranous, and where they touch the Oesophagus. They are Membranous and not Cartilaginous that they may give way to the Oesophagus, when any great and hard morsel passes along its Cavity.

These Cartilaginous Rings are not all of the same Bigness. That which upholds the Larynx is greater and larger than the next to it, and this larger than the next, and so forward. So that the nearer they approach the Lungs they diminish in breadth. They are all united together by carneous Ligaments, and it is observable that they are all equally

distant one from another.

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When they enter into the Body of the Lungs they are called *Bronchia*. There they cease to be Membranous on their back-part, and become entirely Cartilaginous. And whereas

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in the Tracheal Artery its Rings are equally distant from one another, in the Bronchia they are joined in fuch a manner as that a part of the Inferiour Ring enters into the Cavity of

its Superiour.

The Cartilaginous Rings of the Trachaal Artery, and of the Bronchia, cover a Tunicle composed of three principal Parts. As soon as you raise up one of the Cartilaginous Rings you find a Musculous Tunicle. Its Fibres are disposed as the Fibres of the middle Tunicle of the Intestines. The Longitudinales appear first and then the Circulares, which are plac'd exactly under the Longitudinales. This Carneous Tunicle covers another Tunicle which is only a Collection of small Glandules, just as the Carneous Tunicle of the Stomach immediately covers the Glandulous. Lastly, under this Glandulous Tunicle is another, which is only a Texture of Tendinous Fibres which come from the Carneous Tunicle. There are some Filaments of Nerves, and some small Arteries and Veins.

In the Lungs the Tracheal Artery is divided into many branches. These branches are again fub-divided into many more, and these again into many others, and so onward till the last end in an infinite number of small Vesicles. These Vesicles make the Substance of the Lungs.

The Vesicles which are gathered about one end of the Bronchia are all encompassed with

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one Membrane. This Membrane is nothing but the continuation of the outer Tunicle which covers the Tracheal Artery and the Bronchiæ. It is these parcels of the Lungs thus distinguish'd from one another by the small Membranes which enfold them, that are call'd the

Lobules of the Lungs.

These Lobules are all fastned to large Trunks of the Bronchia as grapes to the stalk of the Cluster. It is from these Trunks of the Bronchia that the small branch proceeds, whose Capillary branches end in their Vesicles. The Lobules are likewise join'd together, by small Tendinous Filaments, which keep their Tunicles contiguous. Therefore to discern them well they must be separated with the point of a Pen-knife.

The Bronchie are every where accompanied with Arteries and Veins: So we need only trace the Bronchie to find the course of these Vessels. By this means we find that their Extremities are spread into the Coats of the Vesicles, which

compose the substance of the Lungs.

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And because the Bronchia are also accompanied with a Nerve which follows all their Ramissications, and is lost into the Vesicles of the Lungs; and because the inner Tunicle of the Bronchia is composed of Tendinous Fibres, in all appearance the Vesicles of the Lungs are made of nothing but a Texture of Tendinous

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Fibres,

Fibres, Filaments of Nerves, some Arteries and fome Veins. Tomo out to noiseunings out

When we blow into the Tracheal Artery all the Lungs swell, and all the Vesicles are fill'd with Air. From whence I conclude that there is a communication between the Bronchia and the Vesicles. And since we see that the Trachaal Artery communicates with the outward Air by the Mouth and Nostrils, we may with reason conclude that all this Apparatus of the Tracheal Artery and the Bronchie has been made for conveying of the External Air into the Vesicles of the Lungs. red togot b'nio eliwedil ers adae

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But because we find that the Longitudinal and Circular Fibres of the Trachaal Artery and the Bronchia, must by their action shorten the Bronchia and render their Cavity more narrow, we are obliged to think that the External Air is thrust out of the Vesicles of the Lungs. But fince they were made to receive it, it appears that it re-enters as foon as 'tis out, and gets out as foon as it has re-entred, and continues thus to go in and out, as long as the Animal lives. And it is this Ingress of the Air and its Egress from the Lungs, which is call'd Respirational and oddi flot al and enoissouth

After we have thus examined the Structure of the Lungs, we have found indeed the force which thrusts out the Air, when it had entred the Veficles, but we do not perceive what may

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be the force which makes it re-enter there. This makes us think that that force which presses the Air into the Lungs, is not to be fought for in the Lungs themselves, but in

fome other part.

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In searching what this force may be, I consider that the Lungs are shut up in a large Cavity call'd the Breast, and the Breast is so closely shut up on all sides, that the Air cannot get into it but by the Trachaal Artery. By this I perceive that if the Breast dilate it self it will press the External Air into the Lungs to fill the place, which the sides of the Breast abandon, when it dilates its self, just as the Air from without is drawn into the Hollow of a pair of bellows, by raising the Boards.

Indeed we find that the Air enters into the Lungs according as the Breast is enlarged, and goes out as it is straitned. But because it may be enlarged by the Air's entring into the Lungs, and diminished by its going out, for the better determination of the point we

they leave between them is all fill'd with Muf-

must examine the structure of the Breast.

cless, which keep them mated to one another. The first which appear are cloven in numbers. They derive their Origin from the top and

yads trag-proladion builded Discourse

DISCOURSE XVII.

Of the Breast.

THE first thing I meet with in examining the Cavity of the Breast, is a very slender Membrane which covers it on all sides, and which Anatomists call the Pleura. This Membrane is doubled on the middle of the Breast. It extends its self thus from the top of the Breast to the lower part of it, and divides it into two parts, of which the one is on the Right, the other on the Lest-side; and this is call'd the Separation, the Mediastinum,

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or Midriffe.

On the out-side of the Pleura are the Ribs, which are inserted on one side into the Vertebra. They are bended in form of a Parabola, and are united by a Cartilaginous knot, to a Bone which covers the fore-part of the Breast, call'd Sternum. The Ribs touch one another towards the Vertebra. They are separated as they advance toward the Sternum. The space which they leave between them is all fill'd with Muscles, which keep them united to one another. The first which appear are eleven in number. They derive their Origin from the top and bottom of each inferiour Rib, and ascending obliquely from behind to the Fore-part, they draw

draw the Superiour Rib to the Inferiour.
They are called the Inner Intercost al Muscles.

Beyond the inner Intercostals are eleven Muscles, call'd the outer Intercostals. They arise all from the Inferiour and outer part of each Superiour Rib, and are obliquely inserted in the fore-part unto the Superiour and outer part of each Inferiour Rib. Their Fibres cross those of the inner Intercostals, in form of a Burgundy Cross.

These Muscles can be of no other use by the contraction of their Fibres, but to incline the Ribs towards one another. But for as much as the Ribs are so situated that they cannot approach one another, but the Cavity of the Breast must be enlarged, we conclude that the use of the Intercostal Muscles is to enlarge the

Breast, by drawing the Ribs upward.

The External Intercostals are covered with many other Muscles. We observe amongst the rest one of them which comes from the Os Sacrum and the Thorny Apophyses of the Loins, and is inserted into the upper Ribs near their Roots. It gives to each one of them a double Tendon. 'Tis call'd the Sacro-Lumbar; when it acts it removes the Ribs from one another by drawing them downward.

There is after this another, which derives its Origin from the middle of the Sternum. It

is fastned to the Cartilages of the true under Ribs, and to the second and third of the bastard ones. They give it the Name of the Tri-

angular Muscle.

After this appears a great large Muscle, which arises from the inner Base of the Homoplate, and is joined to the five true inferiour Ribs, and to the two bastard inferiour ones by five Tendons which resemble the Teeth of a Saw, and is therefore call'd the Great Teethed Muscle. And when it acts, it draws all the Ribs towards the Homo-plate to which it sends the Tendons.

Then when we go back towards the top of the Breast, we find a Muscle which derives its Origin from within the Clavicle near the Acromion, and is fastned to the first Rib near the Sternum. Its use is to draw the first Rib upwards towards the Clavicle. They call it the Subclavian.

We find also another Muscle which comes from the Thorn of the three Inferiour Vertebra of the Neck, and the first of the Back. It is terminated by digitation into the three or four upper Ribs. They call it the upper small Feethed Muscle. It draws the Ribs into which it is inserted upwards towards the Neck.

In fine, there is yet one which ariseth from the three Inferiour Vertebræ of the Back and

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the first of the Loins, it is inserted into the three or four Inseriour Ribs by digitation. It draws the Ribs into which it is inserted outward. They call it the Inseriour small Teethed Muscle.

The Ribs are so disposed that they cannot be moved upwards without enlarging the capacity of the Breast. And since the sour last Muscles of which we have spoken draw the Ribs upwards, we may truly affirm that their use is to enlarge the Breast, and the use of the others to diminish it.

The Breast is shut up below by a musculous wall, call'd the Diaphragm. This wall is not always bended, as may appear, in that when the Animal is dead, it is Convex towards the Breast, and Concave on the other side; so that by its Convexity it takes up a part of the

Capacity of the Breaft.

Its figure is almost round. We observe in it two essential parts, the Carneous and the Tendinous. The Tendinous occupies the middle. It is Transparent and woven of Tendinous Fibres and Nervous Filaments. The Carneous part encompasseth the Tendinous. It extends its self to the Sternum, to the Ribs, and to some Vertebra of the Back, as well as to some of those of the Loins. It is strongly fastned to all these parts. Its Fibres go in a strait line from the Tendinous part, even to the places of their Insertion. From

when the Diaphragm acts, the Carneous Fibres by their contraction draw the Tendinous part towards the fides, and cause the Diaphragm to lose its Convexity. And since thereby it leaves the place which it occupied in the Breast, this Cavity is considerably enlarged. Which makes us imagine that the Diaphragm serves by its action to enlarge the Cavity of the Breast.

The Diaphragm is brought down also by the action of the Muscles which make the Ribs move upwards. The reason is that the Ribs cannot move after this manner without drawing the Diaphragm by its Extremities, which must of necessity make it lose its Convexity.

We find therefore by the search that we have made into the whole Breast, that it is composed of certain parts which enlarge the Cavity of it, and of other parts which diminish it. By this we so certainly know the way of Respiration, that we cannot almost doubt but it is performed after the following manner.

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DISCOURSE XVIII.

Of Respiration.

TE distinguish two times in Respiration. The time of the entry of the Air into the Breaft, call'd Inspiration; and the time of its going out, call'd Exspiration. The Inspiration is made, when the Subclavian, the Great, the two small Teethed, and the Intercostal Muscles do unanimously draw the Ribs upwards. The Diaphragm is extended also at the same time by the rising of the Ribs which draw it by its Extremities, and by the Spirits which do then run into its Fibres. the Cavity of the Breast is enlarged and the external Air pressed by the Walls of the Cavity of the Breaft. It cannot move then but on the fide where it meets with the least resistance. It finds none at the entry of the Tracheal Artery, and it rencounters every where else. There it enters, and goes into the Bronchia, from whence it passes into the Vesicles of the Lungs. It blows them up as much as is needful to fill up the vacant space caused by the Defertion of the Walls of the Breast. Even as the motion given to the two Boards of a pair of Bellows when they are raifed from one another, thrusts as much Air into the Bellows

Bellows as is needful to fill the space which

the Boards of the Bellows have left.

By this means the Muscles which serve to draw down the Ribs have their Fibres extremely stretcht to the length. The Fibres of the Museulous Tunicle of the Tracheal Artery and of the Bronchia, are also greatly stretcht. They both by their spring rebound. The Nerves fend some Spirits into their Cavity. They are shortned. By this Contraction the Ribs are forc'd downwards. The Cavity of the Breast is diminisht, and the Cartilages of the Bronchia do re-enter into one another. So the Air which the Vesicles of the Lungs did contain is so prest that it goes out. It passeth from the Vesicles into the Bronchia, from the Bronchia into the Trachaal Artery, and from thence out of the Body. And this we call Exspiration.

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Since Respiration is nothing but Inspiration, immediately followed by Exspiration, and this Exspiration followed as quickly by a new Inspiration, and so forward; we may very well affirm that Respiration is made by means of the Muscles of the Breast, of the Diaphragm, of the musculous Tunicle, of the Trachael Artery and of the Bronchia. These Organs act successively. And the action of the one hinders the action of the other. From whence we conclude that we may reasonably consider them as Antagonist Muscles.

All the Blood which passeth through the right Ventricle of the Heart, goeth from thence into the Lungs, and the Lungs receive the External Air into their Vesicles: So that we may justly suppose that this Air produceth some change in the Blood which passeth through the Lungs.

We find indeed a great difference between the Blood which enters into the Lungs, and that which comes out of them. That which enters by the *Pulmonary Artery* is of a pretty deep red, whereas that which returns from the Lungs by the *Pulmonary Vein* is of a bright

and faint Red.

See here a very considerable change which happens to the Blood in passing through the Lungs, which can be made no otherwise but by the Air which blows up their Vesicles, and by this means present the small Arteries, and the small Veins which are spread there. This pressure mingles more exactly the Principles of Blood, and obliges it to run quicker into the branches of the Pulmonary Vein, and from thence into the lest Ventricle of the Heart.

But because this exact mixture of the Principles of the Blood and this passage from the Arteries into the Veins, is not capable of producing the change that we have taken notice of; some Principle of Air extremely subtile, must certainly mingle with it. This Princi-

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ple may pass through the Pores of the Arteries, and insinuate its self among the parts of the Blood.

That which makes the thing yet more probable is, that the Blood which is exposed to the Air acquires a surface extremely Red and like in colour to that which comes from the Lungs by the Pulmonary Vein. By which we see that the Air produces in the Blood a bright and florid Red by being mingled with it.

Since therefore the Air produces this effect, we cannot in reason doubt, but the change of colour which happens in the Blood's passing through the Lungs, comes from the Air which

fwells its Vesteles.

All the difference between the Blood of the Veins and that of the Arteries, is the same with that of the Blood which enters the Lungs, and of that which comes from them. So we may truly affirm that this difference is made in the Lungs and not in the Ventricles of the Heart, where the Blood does not receive any Alteration. For if you take Blood out of the Vena Cava, and afterwards out of the Pulmonary Artery, you shall find no difference between these two Bloods; notwithstanding that which is taken out of the Pulmonary Artery has past through the right Ventriele of the Lastly, if you take of the Blood of Heart. the Pulmonary Vein and afterwards of the Aorta, non

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you shall see that these two Bloods are alike in all things, though the one has been taken at its entry into the lest Ventricle of the Heart,

and the other at its going out.

It remains as yet to examine what are the principles of Air which produce the change that the Blood contracts in passing through the Lungs. When we consider the Air narrowly, we find amongst many principles which compose it a Nitrous Spirit spread through all its Mass. There are in Physick and Chymistry a prodigious number of Experiments, which render the thing certain. And because the Spirit of Nitre produces in the Blood the same change with the Air, we have reason to think that the change which the Air makes in the Blood as it passes through the Lungs, proceeds from the Nitrous Spirit of the Air's mingling with it.

The Spirit of Nitre is composed of Acids and Alçali's. The Alcali's rarific the Sulphurs of the Blood, and the Acids ferment with its Volatile Alcali's. The Blood becomes thereby more subtile, more agitated and more ra-

rified.

From all this we may conclude that the Respiration serves to make the Blood pass from the Pulmonary Artery into the Pulmonary Vein, and to keep up the sermentation of it by means of the Nitrom Spirit which mingles it self with

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it. And fince this Spirit heightens the Red colour of the Blood, it may be also said that the Respiration serves to maintain it, and that by its means the Lympha and Chyle which mingle with it, take by degrees its Colour and Nature.

DISCOURSE XIX.

Of the Spleen.

When we follow the Blood, which goes out of the left Ventricle of the Heart, we find that the first Entrail, of those which we have not yet examined, to which it goes, is the Spleen. It is of a red Colour, of a considerable bigness, plac'd in the lower Belly, on the left side, and a little lower than the Liver.

In the Spleen there is an Artery and a Nerve, which enter jointly into it, and a Vein which goes out at the same place. These Arteries end in little Membranous Cells, whose Figure nearly resembles the Leaf of the Fearn. The Vein derives its Origine from the same Cells. This appears when we blow into the Artery, or the Vein, for the Breath passeth into the Cells.

These Cells are all filled with small Glandules heaped upon one another, like a Cluster of Grapes.

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Grapes. These Glandules receive small Branches of Arteries from the Trunk of the Splenical Artery, and Nervous Filaments from the Nerve which enters with the Artery into the Spleen. From each heap of these Glandules goes a root of a Vein, which being join'd together, compose the Splenick Vein.

On the Surface of the Spleen we perceive many Lymphatick Vessels, which empty their

Lympha into Pecquet's Reservatory.

By what we have said, it appears, that nothing enters into the Spleen, but the Animal Spirits which come by the Nerves, and the Blood which comes thither by the Arteries. There goes nothing out also but the Lympha which runs by the Lymphatick Vessels into the Reservatory of the Chyle, and the Blood which goes by the Splenical Vein. The Lympha is nothing but the Remains of the Nutritive Juyce of the Spleen, and it appears not to have any other quality in this place, than what it has every where else. As for the Blood, it has the same colour and consistence which we observe in other Veins.

These Observations do extremely perplex us as to the use of the Spleen. For if the Arteries bring Blood unto it, it may be said, that this is but to nourish it, and if the Nerves bring thither Animal Spirits, this is but to give the Nutritive Juyce, the necessary suidity?

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so that we find nothing yet but what simply

serves to the Nourishment of this part.

Yet we cannot fay that it is entirely useless. For 'tis not likely that an useless part should still be found in the Body of a living Creature always of the same frame and in the same stuation. Nature, it is like, would not have been so exact in this matter, if it served for nothing. So that it is probable it has in the Animal Occonomy some use which we do not know.

But because on such occasions we must be satisfied with conjectures till we find better, we may suppose that a ferment distills from the Vesicles of the Glandules and that it mingles with the Blood which passeth through the Spleen. That the nature of this ferment is such that it disentangieth from the other parts of the Blood, the parts which are proper to compose the Bile.

The reason which makes us of this opinion, is, because all the Blood which goes from the Spleen palles into the Vena Porta and from thence to the Liver, where we know it rids it self of those parts which are fittest to compose the Bile. But this sentiment, though the

most probable, has many difficulties.

All know that an Animal can live many years after the taking out of the Spleen; but this is nothing as to its Use or Inutility, fince

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the cutting out of the Pancreas, whose uses are known, and which is acknowledged to be most necessary for the maintaining of the Animal Occonomy, does not hinder a Dog from living many years.

DISCOURSE XX.

Of the Reins, and Ureters.

Here are in the lower Belly two Bodies made like to French beans plac'd upon the loins, on the two fides of the descending Aorta, and the ascending Vena Cava. These Bodies receive Arteries from the Aorta, call'd the Emulgent Arteries, and fend Veins to the Vena Cava, call'd the Emulgent Veins: And these Bodies are called the Reins.

We find them first wrapt up in a Tunicle which covers the whole Cavity of the lower Belly. Next to this there is another Tunicle which immediately covers them. And lastly, when we have taken off thefe two Tunicles we discover the surface of the Reins, upon which we have the pleasure to observe an agreeable ramification of Sanguineous Veffels.

These Sanguineous Vessels enter into the Reins upon their Concave fide which looks towards the Aorta and the Vena Cava. Many fmall

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136 Of the Reins and Ureters.

small Nerves go from the Plexus Renalis accompanying them all along as they pass. They are all shut up in a small Membranous Cover, and the Nerves are lost in its substance. Afterwards these Vessels are spread through the outer substance of the Reins and enter into small Glandules, of which this whole outer substance is composed.

These Glandules are fastned to the Vessels as the Grapes to the Trunk of the Cluster. By this means they make small Lobes wrapt up in a particular Tunicle. This Tunicle enters partly into the Capsula, and partly into the Cavity of the Reins, which they call the Bason. All these small Lobes cleave to one or other of

these by small Tendinous Filaments.

From each Glandule goes an Excretory Veffel. They descend in a straight line to the Bason, being plac'd one close by another. When they come near to pierce the Tunicle which makes its inward Cover, many of them join together and make up a great Pipe. This Pipe has an opening by which it communicates with the Bason, about which opening we find a little Rising, call'd Papilla.

The Cavity of the Bason is covered with a very thick Tunicle. It is formed of the Expansion of the small Pipes which pierce it. It is afterwards so much contracted towards the Concave side of the Reins, that it takes the

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Of the Bladder, and of the Urine. 137

form of a Vessel of the bigness of a Goose feather. It descends in the form of an S, and goes into a Bag, placed in the lower part of the Abdomen, under the Petten, call'd the Bladder.

These Vessels they call the Ureters. They are wrapt up in the Peritoneum, and in a proper Tunicle, which communicates with that which immediately covers the Reins. Their Substance is Membranous and very Thick. Their Fibres are so variously interwoven that they keep no order.

The use of the Reins is to separate a Saltish Serosity from the Blood, which passeth from the Glandules into the Bason, and from thence runs by the Vreters into the Bladder. This Liquor they call Urine.

DISCOURSE XXI.

Of the Bladder, and of the Urine.

THE Bladder is a Bag receiving the Urine, separated by the Reins from the Blood. Its Figure is like to that of a Pear; and is fo Situated, that its wider part, call'd the Bladder, is always upwards, and its narrower part call'd the Neck of the Bladder, is always downwards. It 138 Of the Bladder, and of the Urine.

It is kept in this posture by two considerable Ligaments. The first goes from its bottom to the Navel, and hinders it from falling downwards. The second is very short. In Men it keeps it fixt upon the Rectum, in Women upon the Matrix, so that the Bladder cannot turn either to the left or right side. The first is inserted into its fore-part, and the

fecond into its hinder part.

The Bladder is made up of three Tunicles. The fieft is only a production of the Peritonaum, which enwraps it outwardly. It is composed of Tendinous Fibres variously interwoven. The middle Tantele is made of Carneous Fibres. Of these they reckon three Orders. The first is of some large Fibres placed on the fore part of the Bladder, which go in a strait line from its bottom as far as the The second is of Fibres which Neck of it. furround the Bladder Circularly, and may be called Circular Fibres. And the third plac'd under the Circular, is of Fibres which cross the former obliquely, going from the left to the right, from the bottom of the Bladder as far as its neck. We shall call them Transverse Fibres. Laftly, the inner Tunicle is compofed of Tendinous Fibres, of fuch a Texture as has not been yet discovered. When the Blidder is not blown up, it is all wrinkled, and within it is always covered with a Mucilage.

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Of the Bladder, and of the Urine. 139
At the neck of the Bladder there is a Muscle made of strong and Circular Fibres. It is a Sphinteer which keeps it always shut.

From all this we may conclude that the Bladder is a Concave Muscle, whose outer and inner Tunicles are Tendons, and the middle

Tunicle, the Belly.

The infertion of the Vreters into the Bladder, sufficiently shews that its use is to be the Reservatory of the Vrine, and that all we have observed in its frame, tends to no other end but to keep the Vrine in its Cavity, and to thrust it forth when it is therewith filled.

I fay that the Bladder is the Reservatory of the Urine, because the Ureters are inserted into its Cavity after such a manner, as that the Wrine can easily enter there, but cannot return again into the Treters. They creep for fome space between the outer and middle Tunicles, afterwards they pierce the middle Tumicles, and creep a little farther between it and the inner, which they pierce towards the neck of the Bladder. So the Urine can pais without much difficulty from the Vreters into the Bladder. But as the Bladder swells by the abundance of Urine it straitens the ends of the Ureters which creep amongst its Tunicles, to that the Vrine in the Bladder cannot enter there.

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The Sphinster of the Bladder is the cause that the Urine makes some stay in its Cavity. And lest in staying there its salts should prick the inner Tunicle, nature has conveyed thither the Mucilage which anoints it on all sides.

The Longitudinal Fibres shorten the Body of the Bladder when the Animal Spirits contract them. The Circular and the Transverse do by their action straiten it. So when the Fibres are filled with Spirits the Bladder is lessened in all respects. And if then there be Vine in its Cavity, it makes way notwithstanding the opposition of the Sphinster, and gets out of the Body by a small Pipe call'd the Vrethra.

This Pipe is only the Continuation of the inner Tunicle of the Bladder. In Women its opening is in the Pudendum, and in Men it extends its self into the Body of the Yard, and

terminates in the end of the Balanus.

By what has been faid we see that the Reins, the Ureters, the Bladder and the Urethra, have been made to separate the Urine from the Blood, and to convey it out of the Body, not only as useless, but even as hurtful to the maintaining of the Animal Occonomy.

To understand these truths aright, it is to be observed that the Urine is composed of little else but Phlegms and Volatile Salts; ha-

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Of the Bladder, and of the Urine. 141 ving but very little of Sulphur, Earth, and fixt Salt.

The Nitrous Spirit which mingles with the Blood in the Lungs is composed of Acids and Alcali's. Its Acids coming to join with the Alcali's of the Blood make a Salt. And because most part of the Alcaline parts of the Blood are Volatile, the Salt which is made of them is also Volatile. These Volatile Salts might diminish the natural Fermentation of the Blood and stopits Course. To prevent this mischies the Author of Nature has plac'd the Reins into the Bodies of Animals, which separate these Saline parts from the Mass of the Blood. And feeing also a too great abundance of Phlegma would make the Blood too flow and hinder the Spirits from acting, the Reins do not only feparate the Salts, but also the Phlegms, which are the two Principles whose too great abundance would be capable of choaking the ordinary Fermentation of the Humours, upon which the life of Animals depends.

Moreover it is observed that when the Urine abounds with Alcali's, that is to say, when its Salis are not strongly charged with Acids, it is thick and troubled. And when it has a deal of Acids, that is, when its Salis are well furnisht with them, it is more clear and Transparent. And when there is much Sali in a little Phlegm, the Urine is of a reddish

Colour.

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Colour. And when there is much Phlegmand little Salt, it is clear, and very near the ordi-

nary Colour of Water.

There is found in the Vrine a little Cloud, made of some parts of the Mucilage, which we have said is in the Bladder. The Salts of the Vrine dischage them by little and little, and carry them along with them. This Cloud appears when the Vrine begins to cool, because the coolness condenses it, and thereby renders it more visible.

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