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# COMPENDIUM

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OF

# ANATOMY.



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# COMPENDIUM

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OF THE

# ANATOMY

OF THE

# HUMAN BODY.

INTENDED PRINCIPALLY FOR THE USE OF STUDENTS.

IN THREE VOLUMES, WITH PLATES.

FIFTH EDITION, ENLARGED AND IMPROVED.

TO WHICH IS NOW ADDED,

A FOURTH VOLUME,

CONTAINING

OUTLINES OF COMPARATIVE ANATOMY.

BY ANDREW FYFE.

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ATTON - PARTY 1

### CONTENTS

#### OF THE

# SECOND VOLUME.

### PART IV.

# OF THE VISCERA, AND ORGANS OF THE SENSES.

-	rag.
OF THE COMMON INTEGUMENTS,	3
Appendages of the Skin,	8
Of the Brain,	15
Membranes and Principal Sinuses, -	ib.
Cerebrum,	22
Cerebellum, &c	38
Origin of the Nerves,	38
Of the Eye,	41
Orbits, – – – – –	ib.
Eye-lids, and Lacrymal Organs,	42
Ball of the Eye,	47
Coats,	ib.
Humours,	

CONTENTS.

Pag.

	8.
Humours, – – – – –	58
Muscles, – – – –	66
Vessels, – – – –	70
Nerves,	71
Of the Ear,	73
External Ear,	ib.
Muscles of the External Ear, -	74
Internal Ear,	79
Tympanum, – – –	ib.
Labyrinth,	86
OF THE NOSE,	97
OF THE MOUTH AND THROAT, WITH THEIR AP-	
PENDAGES,	105
Mouth,	ib.
Tongue,	108
Salivary Glands,	111
Teeth,	115
Structure of the Teeth in the Adult,	ib.
Temporary Teeth,	123
Origin of the Permanent Teeth,	128
Appearing of the Temporary Teeth,	129
Formation of the Permanent Teeth,	130
Shedding of the Temporary, and the	
Appearing of the Permanent Teeth,	131
Growth of the Jaws,	133
Throat,	134
Pharynx,	135
Larynx,	137
OF THE THORAX,	145
External Parts of the Thorax,	ib.
Mammæ,	146
Internal	

CONTENTS	
CONTINIO.	Viz
Internal Parts of the TIL	Pag.
Diana	151
· L'eura,	ib.
Wiedrastimum,	152
Pericardium, – – –	154
Lleart,	156
Lungs,	173
Trachea,	176
Esophagus,	184
Thoracic Duct,	185
OF THE ABDOMEN,	187
Peritoneum,	101
Stomach,	109
Intestines,	191
Small Intestines,	197
Great Intestines.	198
Mesentery,	200
Omentum,	203
Structure of the Intestines	205
Liver.	208
Spleen.	216
Pancreas.	227
OF THE ORGANS OF LIDENT	230
THE MALE	
Kidneuc	235
Renal Glands	ib.
Vesica Itaina	241
Testes	243
Variante Chine	248
Pesiculæ Seminales and Prostate Gland,	256
tenis,	259
0.7	

JĘ

# CONTENTS.

	Pag.
OF THE ORGANS OF URINE, AND OF THE UNIM-	
PREGNATED PARTS OF GENERATION, IN THE	
FEMALE,	269
Internal Parts,	270
Uterus,	ib.
Appendages of the Uterus,	272
External Parts,	279
OF THE GRAVID UTERUS,	284
Of the Ovum,	ib.
Changes produced in the Uterine System by Im-	
pregnation,	288
Contents of the Uterus about the end of Preg-	
папсу,	293
Peculiarities of the Factus,	299
Position of the Fretus,	307
Circulation of Blood in the Factus, -	ib.

# viii

1

PART IV.

OF THE

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VISCERA,

ORGANS OF THE SENSES.

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OF THE

### VISCERA,

AND

#### ORGANS OF THE SENSES.

#### OF THE COMMON INTEGUMENTS.

#### CUTICLE.

**THE** Cuticle, Epidermis, or Skarf-skin, is a thin semitransparent insensible Membrane, which covers the Skin, and adheres to it by small Vascular Filaments.

The Cuticle is readily *separated* from the Cutis by boiling water, or by putrefaction, and, in the living Body, by the application of blisters.

It is not every where of the same *density*, being, even in the Fœtus, thickest in the Palms and Soles; in which parts, the thickness is afterwards much increased by pressure.

The *External Surface* is marked by *Furrows*, which correspond with those in the Cutis Vera.

Upon the Surface of the Body it is perforated by the terminations of the Exhalent Vessels, which throw out

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the Perspirable Matter; and this Matter, when increased in quantity, is considered by most of the modern Physiologists as forming the Sweat. It is perforated also by the ends of the Excretory Ducts, which are found only in particular parts of the Skin; by the beginning of the Absorbents, which take in certain Substances applied to the Surface of the Skin; and by the different hairs.

The *Perforations*, or *Pores*, are most evident upon the Palms and Soles, and upon the Nose, Ears, and external parts of Generation.

The Cuticle *covers* the Skin through its whole extent, excepting under the Nails.

From the external Surface of the Body, it is *reflectcd inwards*, to line the large passages; as the Nose, Mouth, Alimentary Canal, the Trachea, Urethra, Vagina, &c.

In these Passages, however, the Cuticle becomes less uniform in its texture; and in some of them, as in the *Stomach*, it is either wanting, or is so much changed in structure, as to have the appearance of being so.

From the Surface of the Cuticle, certain *Processes* are sent into the Skin, which line the passages by which the Cutis is perforated.

Many opinions have been advanced concerning the Origin of the Cuticle. The latest and most probable is, that it is formed by a condensation of the Corpus Mucosum, or by the extremities of Excretory Vessels ; its density, however, is such, that no Vessels can be traced in it, either by the eye, or by the assistance of glasses.

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#### PART IV.7 OF THE INTEGUMENTS.

The Cuticle serves to protect the sensible parts under it, and to regulate the proportion of the Fluids thrown out, or taken in, by the Surface of the Skin ;—particularly, to prevent too great a degree of evaporation.

#### CORPUS MUCOSUM.

The Corpus Mucosum has been commonly called Rete Mucosum, from the supposition that it is formed of a Mucous Net-work. It is situated under the Cuticle, which it connects to the Cutis Vera.

It is *composed* of the terminations of extremely minute Vessels passing between the Cutis and Cuticle, which are surrounded by a Mucilaginous or Viscid Substance, properly called *Corpus Mucosum*.

It is the chief cause of that variety of colour, which characterises the natives of different climates, and different people of the same climate, being white, or rather of a light grey semi-transparent colour in the European, black in the Ethiopian, brown in the Asiatic, &c.

It is *thicker* and *stronger* in the Negro than in the White Person, and in the former can be separated into two Layers.

It covers every part of the Surface of the Cutis, excepting below the Nails, where it is wanting; and is of such a light colour in the Palms and Soles of the Negro, as to have been supposed by some Authors to be deficient there also.

Its Origin has not yet been sufficiently ascertained, A 3 nor

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nor is it fully determined what particular purposes it serves.

Among other purposes, however, it contributes to preserve the structure of the tender Vessels, Ducts, and Papillæ, placed between the Cutis and Cuticle; and in the Negro, it is supposed to serve as a defence against the heat of the climate, by preventing the rays of the Sun from penetrating the Skin.

#### CUTIS VERA.

The Cutis Vera, or Skin, properly so called, lies immediately under the Corpus Mucosum, and gives a general covering to the whole Body.

It is formed of Fibres intimately interwoven, and running in every direction, like the hairs in the felt of a hat, and is so plentifully supplied with Nerves and Blood-vessels, that the smallest puncture cannot be made in any part of it, without occasioning pain and a discharge of blood.

The Blood-ressels of the Cutis arc so numerous, as to appear to form almost the whole of its Substance, and are of such a size as to be injected with facility.

It is strong and elastic, and may be elongated in every direction, after which it recovers its former dimensions.

It forms the Body of the Skin, or Dermis, and is that part in Quadrupeds of which Leather is made.

The outer part of it is dense and firm, the inner loose, and gradually degenerating into the common Cellular Substance.

#### PART IV.] OF THE INTEGUMENTS.

It is thicker and looser on the posterior than on the anterior part of the Body, and thicker and firmer in the Palms and Soles than in the other parts of the extremities.

The colour of the Cutis also differs in different parts of the Body, in proportion to the quantity of Blood in the extreme Vessels, and to the thinness of the Cuticle.

At the edge of the Eye-lids, the red part of the Lips, and margin of the Anus, the Cutis becomes so immediately and remarkably thin, as to appear to be lost.

Upon the Surface of the Cutis, and produced chiefly by the extremities of the Cutaneous Nerves, small Eminences are observed, called Papillæ, Papillæ Nervosæ, and Papillæ Pyramidales :—the term being borrowed from the Papillæ of the Tongue, which were first discovered, and to which the name is most applicable.

They are considered as forming the Organ of Touch, from their being extremely sensible; and from their being very Vascular, they are also regarded as furnishing a passage to part of the Perspirable Matter.

The *Papillæ* are most evident on the Tongue and edge of the Lips, and in the Palms and Soles, where they are placed in double rows upon the Ridges, which, on the points of the Fingers and Toes, generally run in a somewhat spiral and parallel direction.

The *Ridges* are supposed to defend the Papillæ, and to increase the Surface for Perspiration.

In some places, as in the red part of the Lips, the Papillæ, from their resemblance to the pile of Velvet, are termed *Villi*.

Various kinds of Folds are observed in the Skin; some

depending

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depending upon the form of the Cellular Substance, as in the Hips; others on Muscular Contraction, as in the Fore-Head; and others on Articular Motion, as at the Joints of the Extremities,—particularly those of the Fingers and Toes;—and these Folds, to allow easy motion, are thinner than the rest of the Skin.

A sort of Cutis, as well as a Cuticle, is attempted to be traced from the external parts of the Body along the great passages; but in its course through these, it becomes softer and looser, changing into a fine Cellular Substance.

In an *inflamed Skin*, as in the case of Small-pox, a Reticular Texture of Vessels is observed, which can be casily injected, and has been considered by some as the Corpus Mucosum, and by others as an additional Cuticle ;—but no such appearance is to be met with in the sound Skin.

The Cutis Vera serves to cover and give form to the Body; unites the different parts, and defends them from injury; forms the External Organs of Sensation or of Touch; and gives passage to the Fluids which are perspired or absorbed.

#### APPENDAGES OF THE SKIN.

#### NAILS.

The Nails were formerly regarded as a continuation of the Papillæ of the Cutis, but are now more generally considered as a continuation of the Cuticle.

They

#### PART IV.7 OF THE INTEGUMENTS.

They are removed along with it by boiling water, or by maceration.

Like the Cuticle, they are insensible, are renewable after having been separated, and have no evident Vessels.

They differ from it, however, in structure; being formed of *Plates*, and the Plates of *Longitudinal Fibres*, which are closely compacted, as may be seen when they are thoroughly dried, or in a diseased state.

They begin by a square root, a little before the last Joints of the Fingers and Toes.

When separated from the Skin, they are *transparent* like Horn, but are coloured in the living Body by the Vessels of the Cutis, to which they adhere, and from which they derive their nourishment.

They are fixed at their roots to a *semilunar Fold* of the Cutis, and are there covered by a reflection of the Cuticle, which firmly adheres to them.

They grow from the roots, and not from the points; and begin to be formed about the third month of Conception.

The Nails strengthen, and defend the ends of the Fingers and Toes, and thereby serve as Buttresses.

In the Fingers they increase the power of apprehension, being useful in laying hold of minute objects.

#### HAIRS.

The Hairs arise by Roots or Bulbs, which are situated in the Skin, or in the Cellular Substance under the Skin.

3

The Bulbs are of various shapes in different parts of the Body, and have Blood-vessels dispersed upon them for their nourishment.

Each of the Bulbs has two Membranes, or Capsules, containing an Oily Fluid between them, which gives colour to the Hair, and for want of which, as in advanced life, when the Capsule shrivels, or in certain diseases, the Hair is supposed to change its colour, and become white. It may be remarked, however, that the Hair, after being cut off, continues uniformly to preserve its colour.

The colour of the Hair has some relation to the Corpus Mucosum, since in the Negro the tint of the Hair corresponds with that of the Skin, and in a Person with red or with dark-coloured Hair, there is a rosy or a dark complexion.

The Hairs, in passing from the Skin, carry with them *Processes* of the Epidermis, which serve them as Sheaths, and which are so thin and transparent, as to allow the colour of the Hairs to appear through them.

In the Human Body, the Hairs are so slender, that it is difficult to trace their structure; but in the strong Hairs of certain Quadrupeds, this becomes apparent.

By the assistance of a good glass, these large Hairs are observed to be composed of a bundle of smaller Hairs, among which are one or two Canals for containing their nourishing fluid, termed the *Medulla*.

By desiccation, the Hairs separate at their points into thin constituent Filaments.

The Hairs, like the Nails, grow from their bases, in consequence of which, when they are cut short, they seem

# PART III.] OF THE INTEGUMENTS.

seem to increase in number, though it is only in diameter.

The Hairs serve in general for the ornament, warmth, or protection of the different parts on or near which they are placed.

#### SEBACEOUS DUCTS OF FOLLICLES, and MILIARY GLANDS.

The Sebaceous Follicles derive their name from the Fluid they contain, becoming like Suct, after acquiring a certain degree of consistency, or being inspissated by stagnation.

They are seated under the Cutis, and are found in greatest abundance in those parts which are exposed to the air, or to attrition; as in the Nose, Ears, Nipples, Groins, and external Parts of Generation.

The Schaceous, or Miliary Glands, are so called from their Contents, and from their resemblance to Millet Seeds, and are seated in the Axilla.

Other Miliary Glands are described by Authors as being placed under the Skin over the whole Surface of the Body, and as serving for the Secretion of Perspirable Matter;—but they are not demonstrable to such a general extent, and the Sweat is considered as being derived from the Exhalents, as already observed.

These Follicles and Glands secrete a Fluid which serves to lubricate the Skin, and defend it from the inclemency of the weather, or from the effects of friction.

MEMBRANA

#### MEMBRANA CELLULARIS, OF TELA CELLULOSA, OF RE-TICULAR, OF CELLULAB SUBSTANCE.

This is generally considered as one of the Integuments, though common to these and to the other parts of the Body.

It is *composed* of a fine Web, formed of many Membranes joined irregularly together, and these made up of Cells, which communicate freely with each other wherever they are found.

It is very elastic, may be drawn out to a considerable extent, after which it suddenly recoils, and may be condensed or compacted to a great degree.

It lines the Skin, covers the Muscles in general, and insinuates itself between their different Fibres ;—is an universal covering to all the other parts, and even enters into the composition of almost every one of them.

It is thickest where the parts are most exposed to pressure, as in the Hips, Palms, and Soles.

The different Cells of which it is composed are constantly moistened by an Interstitial Fluid, and in many parts of the Body are filled with Fat.

It has little or no Sensibility, can be handled freely, or cut, or punctured, without giving pain.

It serves to connect parts to each other, but so as to prevent them from growing together :—it covers them, supplies them with Sheaths to move in, and contains the Fat.

CORPUS

CORFUS ADIPOSUM, ADEFS, PINGUEDO, OF FAT.

The Fat is lodged in the common Cellular Substance, and is made up of Masses composed of small Vesicles, and these are surrounded by a net-work of Blood-vessels, from which the oily matter composing the Fat is supposed to be secreted, without the intervention of Glands.

The Vesicles are not found to have any communication with the Cellular Substance, or with each other, nor have any Excretory Ducts yet been perceived in them,—the Fat being supposed to transude from the Cells.

It is of *different consistency* in different parts of the Body: In the living Body it is generally fluid, though in some parts it approaches to a solid, and is altogether of this nature in the dead Body.

In the Bones, it forms the Marrow, which has been already described.

The Fat is chiefly *situated* immediately under the Skin, and covers almost the whole Surface of the Body. It is also found between the different Muscles and Fibres of Muscles,—within the Orbits, and in the Cheeks,—in the Substance of the Mammæ, and about the Heart.

It abounds in the Abdomen, about the Kidneys, Loins, Omentum, and Mesentery ;—and in the Joints it forms the Substances called *Glands of the Joints*, already mentioned.

The Fat is wanting in the Scrotum, Penis, and Eyelids, and is found only in small quantity in the Fore-Head, Head, or about the Joints, where, from its bulk, it would have been inconvenient.—It is also wanting in the Substance of the Viscera situated in the great Cavities of the Body; as the Brain, Lungs, Liver, Spleen, Kidneys, &c.

The Fat serves to lubricate every part of the Body to which it is connected, and facilitates the action of the Muscles. It fills the Interstices, so as to give form and smoothness, and guard against pressure. It serves also as a reservoir of nourishment, to be occasionally re-absorbed and carried into the constitution.

#### PANNICULUS CARNOSUS, Vel TUNICA CARNOSA.

This is a general Covering found in the Quadruped, and formed by a thin Subcutaneous Muscle, which serves to agitate the Skin.

It exists only in certain parts of the Human Body; as in the Fore-Head, where it is formed by the Occipito-Frontalis; and in the Neck, where it is formed by the Platysma Myoides.

The Ancients described this as an additional Covering.

OF

OF THE BRAIN.

THE term *BRAIN* is applied to the whole of that Mass which, with its surrounding Membranes, fills the Cavity of the Cranium; and is larger in Man, in proportion to the size of the Body, than in any other Animal.

The Membranes of the Brain were called Meninges and Matres by the Ancients, from an idea that they gave birth or origin to all the other Membranes of the Body.

They consist of the Dura Mater, Tunica Arachnoidea, and Piu Mater.

The DURA MATER, named from its being of a firmer texture than the other two Membranes, incloses the Brain with all its Appendages, and lines the different parts of the Cranium.

It is composed of one Membrane, which, in several parts, is divisible by maceration into two or even more layers of Fibres.

The Texture of the Dura Mater is very dense. It is the

the thickest and strongest Membrane of the Body, and is composed of Tendinous-like Fibres, which have a shining appearance, particularly in its inner Surface. In many parts these Fibres run in a variety of directions, and decussate each other at different Angles.

16

The Dura Mater *adheres* every where to the Surface of the Cranium, in the same manner as the Periosteum adheres to the Bones in the other parts of the Body; but it is more firmly connected at the Sutures and Foramina than elsewhere; and so much more firmly in Children than in Adults, that, in separating it from the Cranium, it is apt to bring along with it some of the Fibres of the Bone to which it is attached.—In the Adult, the separation of the Bone from the Membrane is less difficult, in consequence of many of the Fibres being ohliterated.

The *inner Surface* of the Dura Mater, which is remarkably smooth, is in *close contact* with the Brain, but *adheres only* where the Veins go into the Sinuses ;—and is lubricated by a Fluid discharged through its Vessels, which guards the Brain from danger, according as it may be affected by the different states of Respiration.

The Dura Mater serves as a *defence* to the Brain, and supplies the place of a *Periosteum* to the inside of the Bones of the Cranium, giving nourishment to them, as is evident from the numerous drops of Blood which appear after removing the Skull-cap.

From the inner side of the Dura Mater, *Processes* are sent off, which divide the Brain into certain parts, and serve to keep it steady; viz.

I. The

I. The FALX, Septum Cerebri, or Superior Longitudinal Process, which is formed by a doubling of the Dura Mater, and is situated between the Hemispheres of the Brain.

It begins at the middle of the Sphenoid Bone, and Crista Galli of the Ethmoid Bone, and runs along the upper and middle part of the Head, adhering first to the Frontal, then to the joining of the Parietal, and afterwards to the middle of the Oceipital Bone.

In its passage, it becomes gradually broader, extends from the Cranium to near the Corpus Callosum, and terminates behind in the middle of the Tentorium.

It runs from behind forwards in a straight direction, and has some resemblance in shape to a *Sickle* or *Scythe*, from which circumstance it has obtained the name of *Falx*.

Between the under edge of the Falx and Base of the Cranium, there is a *large space of an oval form*, occupied by that part of the Brain which is common to the two Hemispheres.

The Falx supports the Tentorium, and is considered as preventing the two sides of the Brain from pressing upon each other, though there have been instances where part, or even the whole, of this Process has been wanting.

II. The TENTORIUM CEREBELLI, or Transverse Septum, or Lateral Processes of the Dura Mater.

The Tentorium is continued laterally from the Falx, is connected behind to the inner Transverse Ridges and Grooves of the Occipital Bone, and at the fore and Vol. II. B outer outer edges to the Ridges and great Angles of the Temporal Bones, and terminates at the posterior Clinoid Process of the Sphenoid Bone.

Between the middle and inner edges of the Tentorium and posterior Clinoid Process of the Sphenoid Bone, there is a large *Notch*, or *Foramen Ovale*, where the Cerebrum and Cerebellum are united, or where the Tuber Annulare is chiefly situated.

The Tentorium keeps the Falx *tense*, and forms a *Floor* or *Vault* over the Cerebellum, which prevents the Cerebrum from pressing upon it.

III. The FALX MINOR, or Septum Cerebelli, which is placed between the Lobes of the Cerebellum. It descends from the under and back part of the Falx and middle of the Tentorium, adheres to the inferior Longitudinal Spine of the Os Occipitis, and terminates insensibly at the edge of the Foramen Magnum of that Bone.

Besides the Processes of the Dura Mater already described, there are four of inferior consideration, two of which are situated at the sides of the Sella Turcica, and two at the edges of the Foramina Lacera.

Several other Processes pass out at the different openings of the Cranium, to be connected to the Pericranium, or to accompany the Spinal Marrow and Nerves. —These of the last description shall be afterwards taken notice of.

The Arteries of the Dura Mater are derived chiefly from the External Carotids, and partly from the Internal Carotids and Vertebrals.

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#### PART IV.] OF THE BRAIN.

The Veins of this Membrane are of two kinds. One set of them, like the Veins in other parts of the Body, accompany the Arteries ;—the others are termed Sinuses, and differ from Veins only in this, that their Transverse Sections are of a triangular Figure, and that they are inclosed in a doubling of the Dura Mater, which is so tense over them, as to be little affected by the pressure of the surrounding parts.

In the bottom of the Sinuses are small Transverse Cords, termed Chordæ WILLISII, which may add a little to their strength, and assist in preventing them from being too much distended.

The Sinuses serve to carry the Blood from the Brain, and convey it to the Veins of the Neck; for which purpose they are properly fitted, their Covering from the Dura Mater giving them strength, and their frequent communications preventing congestion.

#### The Principal SINUSES are,

I. The Superior Longitudinal Sinus, which begins at the Crista Galli of the Ethmoid Bone, runs along the upper edge of the Falx, becomes gradually larger in its progress, and terminates in the lateral Sinuses.

II. The Torcular Herophili, or Fourth Sinus of the Ancients ;—the term Torcular applied from a supposition that the blood is squeezed in this Sinus as in a Winepress.—It is chiefly formed of the Vena Galeni, runs between the Falx and Tentorium, and terminates with the former Sinus in the beginning of the lateral Sinuses.

B2 III. The

III. The two Lateral Sinuses, which are formed by the Longitudinal and Torcular Sinuses. They run in depressions of the Occipital and Temporal Bones, first transversely, then in a winding direction downwards, and terminate at the Base of the Cranium, in the beginnings of the Internal Jugnlar Veins.

Besides the Sinuses mentioned above, several others of less consideration will be pointed out in the particular description of the Veins.

The Nerves of the Dura Mater are so very minute, that they have not as yet been distinctly traced; and it is found to possess very little sensibility in the sound state.

Upon the side of the Superior Longitudinal Sinus, and parts of the Brain contiguous to it, there are numerous small Granulations, of a whitish colour, called Glandulæ PACEHIONI.

Besides these Granulations, there are others of the same name, of a *Fleshy* colour, situated on certain parts of the outer Surface of the Dura Mater, and frequently projecting so much as to form deep Pits in the Skull.

The nature of these Granulations is still unknown.— By some they have been supposed to belong to the Lymphatic System.

The TUNICA ARACHNOIDEA, named from its cobweb appearance, is an exceedingly thin, tender, and transparent Membrane, in which no Vessels have been hitherto observed.

It is spread uniformly over the Surface of the Brain, inclosing inclosing all its convolutions, without insinuating itself between any of them.

At the upper part of the Brain, it adheres so closely to the subjacent Coat by fine Cellular Substance, that it can scarcely be separated from it; but in different parts of the Base of the Brain, particularly about the Tuber Annulare and Medulla Oblongata, it is merely in contact with the Membrane under it, and may readily be raised from it by the assistance of the Blow-pipe.

The Tunica Arachnoidea, like the Cuticle, covers and defends the parts under it.

The PIA MATER, named from its tenderness, is somewhat of the nature of the former Covering, but is extremely Vascular.

It envelopes the Brain in general, enters double between all its Convolutions, and lines the different Cavities called *Ventricles*.

It serves to contain and support the Vessels of the Brain, and allows them to divide into such minute parts, as to prevent the Blood from entering the tender Substance of this Viscus with too great force.

The Arteries of the Pia Mater are the same with those of the Brain, and are derived from the Internal Carotids and Vertebrals.

The Veins differ in no respects from those of the other Viscera, excepting in this, that they do not accompany the Arteries.

The Brain is divided into Cerebrum, Cerebellum, Tuber Annulare, and Medulla Oblongata.

**B3** CEREBRUM.

#### CEREBRUM.

The Cerebrum, or Brain, properly so called, is situated in the upper part of the Cranium, which it completely fills.

It is divided into two halves, termed *Hemispheres*, which are separated from each other by the Falx.

Each of the Hemispheres is of an *oval form*, or they somewhat resemble an Egg cut longitudinally into two equal parts. The inner sides are flat, and closely applied to the Falx, the upper and onter parts convex, and the under Surface irregular.

The under Surface is divided into two Anterior, two Lateral, and two Posterior Lobes, or Processes.

The Anterior Lobes are situated in the fore part of the Base of the Cranium.

The Lateral or Middle Lobes are lodged in the Fossæ formed by the Temporal and Sphenoid Bones.

The *Posterior Lobes* are placed over the Cerebellum, and are separated from it by the Tentorium.

Between the Anterior and Lateral Lobes, there is a *Furrow* formed by the Anterior Clinoid Processes of the Sphenoid Bone, which has been termed *Fossa*, or *Fissura Magna* SYLVII.

The Surface of the Brain is divided by deep Fissures, into many turnings or windings, termed *Circumvolutions*, which run in various directions, and are of different sizes and lengths on different parts of the Brain.

The Circumvolutions are every where connected to the/Pia Mater by an infinite number of small Vessels, called

#### OF THE BRAIN. PART IV.]

called by RUYSCH, Tomentum Cerebri,-which run into the Substance of the Brain; as may be readily seen, upon separating the Circumvolutions a little from each other.

Between the Hemispheres, a white Substance is observed, called Corpus Callosum, from its being a little firmer than the rest of the Brain. It goes across the Brain, under the Falx, and is merely a continuation of the Medullary Substance, running horizontally, and joining the two sides of the Hemispheres to each other.

In the middle of the Corpus Callosum there is a longitudinal Raphe with a Medullary Cord on each side, from which many Transverse Streaks issue. These Cords, like the Corpus Callosum itself, become gradually broader towards the Posterior Extremity.

An horizontal Section, a little above the middle height of the Brain, or upon a level with the Corpus Callosum, shews the division of the Substance of the Brain into outer and inner, or Cortical and Medullary parts.

The outer Substance is termed Cineritious, from its being of a greyish or ash colour,-though a little tinged with brown ;---and Cortical, from its surrounding the inner part of the Brain, as the Bark does the inner parts of a Tree.

It is termed by some Authors Glandular, and by others Secretory, from a supposition that a Fluid was secreted in it.

The Cineritious Substance covers the Brain in general, and enters deep between its Convolutions, is of a soft consistence, and composed of numerous small Vessels, carrying

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carrying red Blood; but it is uniform, and without any appearance of a Fibrous Texture.

The inner Substance is termed White or Medullary, and is considered as giving origin to the different Nerves. It has been by some called *Excretory*, having heen supposed to be formed of hollow Tubes continued from the Vessels of the Cortical part; hut no Cavitics have ever been observed in the soft Fibres of which it is composed.

It is greater in quantity, and somewhat firmer in texture, than the Cincritious Substance, with which it is so intimately connected, as to appear to be a continuation of it.—The soft Fibres or Streaks of the Medullary Matter, run in general in a parallel and transverse direction.

In many parts of the Cineritious Substance, Medullary Matter appears; and, on the contrary, in different parts of the Medullary Substance, Cineritious Matter is found; the two being frequently blended together in the form of Streaks. See MONRO on the Nervous System.

The Centrum Ovale of VIEUSSENS. This is the Medullary Substance of the Brain, forming a kind of Nucleus, which is seen after removing the Cineritions Substance, and all the Mcdullary parts mixed with it, which lie between the Cortical Convolutions.

To obtain a proper view of the Centrum Ovale, the Nucleus ought to be cut in such a manner as to preserve the Corpus Callosum, and the same convexity with that of the general convexity of the Brain.

The Centrum Ovale forms an Arch or Roof over the two
two Lateral Ventricles; and the under part of this roof, which is smooth and uniform, constitutes the upper part of these Ventricles.

VIEUSSENS considered the Centrum Ovale as the Great Dispensatory of the Animal Spirits.

The VENTRICLES of the Brain are four in number, two of which are called *Lateral*.

The four Ventricles have their sides contiguous to each other, are chiefly formed of Medullary Matter, and are lined with a continuation of the Pia Mater, which differs, however, from that part of the Membrane covering the exterior Surface of the Brain, in having fewer Vessels dispersed upon it.

They are constantly moistened by a Fluid, which prevents their opposite sides from adhering to each other.

The Use of the Ventrieles, as of many other parts of the Brain, is still unknown.

The Lateral, formerly called Superior Ventricles, are situated in the Hemispheres, one in each, and run at first horizontally in the same direction with the Hemispheres themselves.

They are of an irregular form, lying under the Centrum Ovale, and have each three winding Corners, compared to Rams Horns, which are therefore called *Cornua*.

The Anterior Cornua are separated from each other only by the Septum Lucidum.

The Posterior Cornua, called also Digital Cavities, are at a considerable distance from each other, but approach nearer at their pointed extremities; while the Inferior Inferior Cornua run downwards and forwards, and terminate in the Lateral Lobes of the Brain.

In each of the Posterior Cornua there is an Elongation, which terminates in a point, and which is called *Ergot* by the French, from its resemblance to the Spur of a Cock; or *Hippocampus Minor*, from its similarity to, and connection with, the Substance termed *Hippocampus Major*.

In the fore part of the bottom of the Lateral Ventricles, are two large Eminences, called *Corpora Striata*, which become gradually narrower, and recede from each other at their posterior extremities.

The Structure of these is Cineritious externally, and mixed with Medullary Striæ within, some of which form large Transverse Medullary Arches, and others run more in a straight direction.

Between the posterior parts of the Corpora Striata, are situated the *Thalami Nervorum Opticorum*, which have a roundish form and Medullary Surface, and are of a Striated appearance within; but the Striæ are less distinct than in the Corpora Striata.

Upon the Surface of these Bodies, there are small *Eminences* or *Tubercles*, some of which are placed upon their superior, and others upon their inferior extremities.

The inner parts of the Thalami are flat and contiguous; and above, they are so closely connected as to form one continued Surface, called *Commissura Mollis* of the Optic Thalami.

The posterior parts of the Thalami turn downwards and

and outwards, after which they are elongated, to form the two white Cords, termed *Tractus Optici*.

In the Groove between the Corpora Striata and Thalami, there is a Medullary Band on each side, called *Centrum Semicirculare Geminum of* VIEUSSENS, or *Tænia Semicircularis of* HALLER, or simply *Tænia*.

Over the Thalami is placed the *Choroid Plexus*, named from its being composed of a Chorus of Vessels and Membranes. It is a fine Vascular Web, consisting of small ramifications of Arteries and Veins, connected by the Pia Mater, and spread upon the Surface of the Thalami, and some of the adjacent parts.

The Choroid Plexus frequently contains numerous round *Globules*, resembling Hydatids, which have been considered by some Authors as Lymphatic Glands.

Under the Raphè of the Corpus Callosum is placed the Septum Lucidum, which, when viewed laterally, is observed to be broad before, curved at its edge, and to become gradually narrower towards its posterior extremity.

It is connected above to the Corpus Callosum, below to the Fornix, and forms a distinct Partition between the Lateral Ventricles.

It is composed of two Cincritious and Medullary Lamina, more or less separated from each other at their fore part, by a small Cavity, called *Fissure*, or *Fossa* of SYLVIUS, or Sinus of the Septum Lucidum. This Cavity is considered by some as a fifth Ventricle. It does not, however, communicate with the other Ventricles, though in some subjects it reaches a considerable way backwards, and, as well as the other Cavities of the Brain, Brain, has been found full of water in cases of Hydrocephalus.

Under the Septum Lucidum is placed the Substance which has been compared in shape to a *Vault* by the Ancients, and from that has obtained the name of *Fornix*.

The Fornix is merely a continuation of the Corpus Callosum, and forms a sort of hollow Ceiling, with four *Pillars*, called *Crura*, or *Cornua*, from their winding direction, of which there are two anterior, and two posterior.

The two Anterior Crura are short, run close together, and become enlarged at their inferior parts.

The two Posterior Crura are long, at a considerable distance from each other, and form Curvatures which correspond with the course of the Inferior Cornua of the Lateral Ventricles.

That part of the Crura Fornicis lying in the Inferior Cornua of these Ventricles, forms thin Borders getting the name of *Corpora Fimbriata*;—but, according to V1C D'AZYR, they are more properly termed *Tania Hippocampi*, from being united with the great Hippocampus.

The Body of the Fornix is *narrow* anteriorly, and becomes considerably *broader* behind, where it is incorporated with the Corpus Callosum.

The under Surface of the posterior part of the Body of the Fornix is impressed with numerous transverse and oblique Lines, which have been called *Psalterium*, or *Lyra*, from some resemblance they bear to the ancient musical instruments of these names.

28

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The Body of the Fornix is joined above to the Septum Lucidum; and below, it is connected to the Thalami Optici by a Vascular Membrane, called *Tela Choroidea*, which spreads over the Thalami, and unites the Choroid Plexus of the Lateral Ventricles.

The PEDES HIPPOCAMPI, CORNUA AMMONIS, or GREAT HIPPOCAMPUS,—named from a supposed resemblance to these parts,—are two Medullary Eminences, which arise from the sides of the posterior extremity of the Corpus Callosum, and are situated in the inferior Prolongations of the Lateral Ventricles.

They run through the whole extent of the Prolongations, first behind, then at the outer part of the Posterior Pillars of the Fornix, and are so intimately connected with them, that they have been considered by some Authors as forming part of the Pillars themselves.

They are small at their Origin, from which they continue to increase to their farther extremity.

Like the greater part of the Ventricles, they are covered externally with a Medullary Lamina;—internally, they are found to consist of Medullary and Cineritious Laminæ, which have a convoluted appearance.

At the inner edge of the Pedes Hippocampi, there is a *plaited*, serrated, or *indented Margin*, which, in the generality of Quadrupeds, is much larger, in proportion to the size of the Brain, than it is in Man. The resemblance, however, to the human kind, in the structure of this particular part of the Brain, is more striking in the Ape than in any other Quadruped.

In the bottom of the Lateral Ventricles, behind the anterior Crura of the Fornix, and before the meeting of

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of the Choroid Plexuses of these Ventricles, below the anterior part of the Body of the Fornix, and over the fore part of the Third Ventricle, there is a *Hole* of an *oval form*, by which the Lateral Ventricles communicate freely with each other. See MONRO'S Obs. on Nerv. Syst. 1783, and Treatise on the Brain, 1797.

After dividing and turning back the Fornix, another communication from the above passage is found, called *Foramen Commune Anterius*, Vulva, or Iter ad Infundibulum: but properly, ITER AD TERTIUM VENTRICULUM, or Passage to the Third Ventricle.

Between the Commissura Mollis of the Optic Thalami and Substance called *Pineal Gland*, there is a small Passage termed ANUS, or *Foramen Commune Posterius*, which has been supposed by some Authors to form a communication between the back part of the Third Ventricle and Lateral Ventricles; but it is completely closed up by the Tela Choroidea, and also by the Fornix, which is intimately connected to this Membrane.

The THIRD VENTRICLE is in form of a deep Fissure, placed between the inner ends of the Thalami Optici, having the Commissura Mollis of these Thalami situated above, the Crura Cerebri below, and the Bodies of the Thalami on each side.

The INFUNDIBULUM, formed of a Cineritious and Medullary Substance, is a Passage of considerable size, which leads downwards and forwards, from the anterior part of the Third Ventricle; gradually contracting, and becoming solid at its under end, where it terminates in the *Glandula* 

Glandula Pituitaria, and thus, contrary to the opinion of the Ancients, preventing the passage of any Pituitous Fluid from it to the Nose.

The GLANDULA PITUITARIA is of an oval form, about the size of a field-bean, lodged in the Sella Turcica, and surrounded by a doubling of the Dura Mater.

On the outside, it is of a brownish colour, being formed of Cineritious Matter : It is whiter within, where it is mixed with Medullary Substance.

The Glandula Pituitaria was formerly supposed to absorb a Fluid from the Infundibulum, and transmit it to the Nose. It has been already mentioned, however, that the Infundibulum is impervious; and the real use of this Gland, as well as of the other Tubercles of the Brain, seems still unknown.

At the fore part of the third Ventricle, and immediately before the Anterior Crura of the Fornix, there is a white Medullary Cord, which runs transversely through the Corpora Striata, uniting these together, and having the name of COMMISSURA CEREBRI ANTE-RIOR.

At the back part of the third Ventricle, and under the root of the Pineal Gland, there is another Cord similar to the former, but shorter, called COMMISSURA CEREBRI POSTERIOR. The Commissuræ Cerebri assist in uniting the two sides of the Brain to which they are fixed.

From the under and back part of the third Ventricle, there is a Passage which leads to the fourth, under the name of ITER AD QUARTUM VENTRICULUM, Canalis Medius, vel Aquæductus SYLVII.

After

After the posterior part of the Fornix, and the Tela Choroidea to which it adheres, have been removed, there appear at the back part of the third Ventricle, behind the Thalami, and over the Iter a Tertio ad Quartum Ventriculum, the NATES and TESTES, or TUBERCULA QUADRIGEMINA, and the PINEAL GLAND.

The NATES, or *Tubercula Quadrigemina Anteriora*, are placed uppermost, and are of a rounder form than the TESTES, or *Tubercula Quadrigemina Posteriora*, which lie immediately under the former. The Testes are a little whiter in their colour than the Nates, and broader from one side to the other.

A Longitudinal Section shews the Tubercula to be covered externally with a thin Medullary Lamina, and to be Cineritious within.

In Man they are more nearly of an equal size and colour than in Quadrupeds, as in the Ox, Sheep, &c. in which the Nates are large, round, and of a brown colour, and the Testes small and long, and have a white appearance.

Over the Nates, and under the back part of the Fornix, is placed the GLANDULA PINEALIS, which is of a Cincritious nature, about the size of a Garden-pea, and of a Conoid Figure; obtaining its name from its resemblance in shape to a *Pine* or *Fir Cone*.

In consequence of its being always present, and seldom found in a diseased state, it has been celebrated by Des CARTES as the *Seat of the Soul*.

The Pineal Gland is fixed at its root to the Commissura Cerebri Posterior, and sends out two long Medullary lary Peduncles, or Foot-Stalks, to be fixed to the upper and inner side of the Thalami, and to the Anterior Crura of the Fornix.

Near, or in the Substance of the Pineal Gland, small Calcareous Concretions are frequently found, called by SOEMMERRING, Acervulus Cerebri, from their being generally found collected in a heap.

They do not appear to be the effects of disease; nor are they met with till after the age of Paberty.

#### CEREBELLUM.

The Cerebellum is situated in the Inferior Fossæ of the Occipital Bone, under the posterior Lobes of the Brain, and is separated from these Lobes by the Tentorium.

It is somewhat of a roundish form, though a little broader from one side to the other than from before backwards. It is only about a fifth or sixth part of the size of the Cerebrum, and less complex.

It is divided behind by the Falx Minor into two Lobes or Hemispheres, but has no separation above like that of the Brain.

Its Surface is divided into numerous Circumvolutions, which form Arches in many parts, decussating each other at sharp angles.

The Circumvolutions run chiefly in a lateral direction, and are formed of Laminæ, with deep Sulci between them, into which, as in the Brain, the Pia Mater insinuates itself. This may be readily seen by making a Puncture into the Arachnoid Coat, and blowing in Air, Vol. II, C till till it distend the Cellular Substance, and separate the Coats from each other.

It has two middle Eminences, called *Appendices Vermiformes*, from their resemblance to Earth-worms, one of which is situated anteriorly and superiorly, the other inferiorly and posteriorly.

Each of the Lobes of the Cerebellum is again divided into *Monticuli* or *Lobules*, which have different names according to their relative situations, connections with other parts, &c. They vary a little in different Subjects, but are easily distinguished from the direction of their Convolutions.

The Substance of the Cerebellum consists in Cineritious and Medullary Matter, as in the Cerebrum; but the Cineritious bears a greater proportion to the Medullary in the former than in the latter.

When the Cerebellum is cut in a vertical direction, the Medullary part is then found to bear a striking resemblance to the branching of the Shrub called *Arbor*  $Vit\alpha$ : from which circumstance it has obtained the name of this Shrub.

When cut in slices nearly parallel to the Base of the Brain, the Medullary Substance appears in Laminæ corresponding to those of the Surface of the Cerebellum; and when cut to a considerable depth, there is, as in the Cerebrum, a Centrum Medullare uniting the Lateral Lobes.

Between the Cerebellum, the under part of the Tuber Annulare, and upper part of the Medulla Oblongata, the Fourth Ventricle is situated, which extends from

from the Eminences called *Testes* to the posterior-inferior Notch of the Cerebellum.

A little lower than the Testes, the Ventricle becomes wider, and forms an Angle behind, from which again it contracts, and becoming narrower and pointed below like a writing-pen, has got the name of *Calamus Scriptorius*.

Over the under end of the Aquæductus SYLVII, and upper part of the Fourth Ventricle, there is a thin Medullary Lamina, called *Valvula*, but properly *Velum* VIEUSSENII.

At the sides of the Velum VIEUSSENII there are two Medullary Tracts, called *Processus ad Testes*, or *Columnæ Valvulæ* VIEUSSENII.

The under end of the Ventricle is found to be shut up by its Choroid Plexus, which prevents any communication between this Cavity and that of the Spine.

#### UNDER SURFACE OF THE BRAIN.

Near the middle of the Base of the Brain, and between its Lateral Lobes, there are two small, round, white Bodies, termed *Eminentiæ Mammillares*, or *Corpora Albicantia*, Medullary without, and Cineritious within, mistaken by some Authors for Glands.

In the Corpora Albicantia, various Medullary Strata • terminate, which come from different parts of the Brain.

Immediately before the Corpora Albicantia, is seen the Infundibulum, leading from the Third Ventricle.

On the outside of the Corpora Albicantia, two large white Cords are observed, called *Crura*, or *Pedunculi* C 2 *Cerebri*,

## OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

Cerebri, or Crura Anteriora Medullæ Oblongatæ, which arise from the Medullary Substance of the Brain, and gradually approach each other in their course, till they unite with the Tuber Annulare.

36

Their Surface is flat, and composed of distinct Medullary Fibres. Internally they are composed of a mixture of Cineritious and Medullary Matter, the former of which being of a darker colour at one particular part than in any other of the Brain, has been termed *Locus Niger Crurum Cerebri*.

Between the Crura Cerebri, and likewise between the Corpora Albicantia, there is a Cineritious Substance, called *Pons* TARINI, which joins these Bodies of the opposite sides together, and assists in forming the bottom of the Third Ventricle.

From the Medullary part of the Cerebellum, which forms the Trunk of the Arbor Vitæ, two white Cords arise under the name of *Crura Cerebelli*, or *Crura Posteriora*, or *Pedunculi Cerebelli*, which unite with the Crura Cerebri, to compose the *Tuber Annulare*, or *Pons* VA-ROLII, so named from forming a Ring or Bridge over the Crura. This Ring is intimately incorporated with, and formed by, these Crura.

The Tuber Annulare is situated over the back part of the Body of the Sphenoid and Cuneiform Process of the Occipital Bone. Many Transverse Streaks run on its Surface, and it is divided into two lateral parts by a longitudinal Depression, occasioned by the situation of the Vertebral Artery.

At the fore and back parts of the Tuber, are the Foramina Caca, Anterius et Posterius, the former placed between

between the Third, and the latter between the Sixth Pair of Nerves. These two Foramina penetrate only a little way at the edges of the Tuber, and receive a Plexus of Vessels.

The Substance of the Tuber is intermixed with a considerable quantity of Cortical Matter, formed into *Striæ* running in different directions.

Continued from the Tuber, there is a large Substance in form of an inverted Cone, which extends to the Foramen Magnum of the Occipital Bone, under the name of *Medulla Oblongata*.

Upon the Surface of the Medulla Oblongata, two small Eminences appear, which run longitudinally, and contiguous to each other, and, from their shape, have the name of *Corpora Pyramidalia*, or *Eminentiæ Pyramidales*.

Between the Corpora Pyramidalia, there is a deep Fissure, into which the Pia Mater penetrates, and where Blood-vessels pass into the interior part of the Medulla.

At the outside of the former Eminences, are two others, somewhat of the figure of Olives, from which they are termed *Corpora Olivaria*, or *Eminentiæ Oli*vares.

More externally than these, are other two Eminences, less evident than the last, which have been described by some Authors under the name of *Corpora Pyramidalia Lateralia*.

The Medulla Oblongata is divided into two lateral Portions, by an anterior and posterior Fissure. These two Portions are formed of Medullary Matter without, C 3

and a large proportion of Cineritious Matter within, joined together by Medullary Fibres.

The BRAIN is the GRAND AND PRIMARY OUGAN OF SENSE with which the Mind is supposed to be most immediately and intimately connected, and from which the Nervous Influence is found, by experiment, to be communicated to all the other parts of the Body.

## ORIGIN of the NERVES.

The Nerves arise from the Medullary parts of the Brain, some in solid Cords, others in separate Threads, which afterwards unite into Cords, and have their names in numerical succession, according to their situations, beginning anteriorly.

The First, or Olfactory Pair of Nerves, arise from the back part of the anterior Lobes of the Brain, and run towards the Crista Galli of the Ethmoid Bone, over which each forms a brownish-coloured Bulb, from whence numerous small Nerves are sent off.

The Second Pair, or Optic Nerves, are the continuation of the Thalami Optici. They are united immediately before the Infundibulum, and form an intimate intermixture of parts, and again separate, previous to their passing into the Orbits.

The Third Pair arise by numerous Threads, which are soon collected into Trunks.

The Fourth Pair, which are the smallest Nerves of the Body, arise behind the Testes, and have a long winding course.

The Fifth Pair, which are the largest Nerves in the. Brain,

Brain, have each an anterior small, and a posterior large Fasciculus, arising from the sides of the Tuber Annulare.

The Sixth Pair arise from the beginning of the Medulla Oblongata, where it joins the Tuber Annulare. Each of the Nerves of this Pair has a small Thread at its inner part.

The Seventh Pair arise from the beginning of the lateral parts of the Medulla Oblongata, and are divided on each side into a Portio Mollis, and Portio Dura.

The *Eighth Pair* arise by small Fasciculi from the Corpora Olivaria.

The Ninth Pair of Nerves also arise by small Fasciculi a little below the former, from the Corpora Pyramidalia.

The Origin of the Nerves is described at greater length in Vol. III.

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TABLE



# OF THE EYE.

THE EYES, which constitute the Organ of Vision, are situated in the Cavities of the Orbits, and are surrounded by several parts, some of which protect them from injury, and others assist in the performance of their various motions.

The Orbits are of a conical figure, situated in the fore part of the Cranium, with their Apices behind, their Axes in an horizontal direction, and their Bases turned obliquely outwards.

They are formed of different Processes of the following Bones, viz.

The upper part of each Orbit, by the Orbitar Plate of the Frontal Bone;—the inferior, by the Orbitar Plates of the superior Maxillary and Malar Bones;—the internal, chiefly by the Orbitar part of the Os Unguis and Pars Plana of the Ethmoid Bone;—the external, by the Orbitar Plates of the Sphenoid and Malar Bones;—the posterior, by the Sphenoid and Palate Bones;—and the anterior anterior edge of the Orbit, by the Frontal, Superior Maxillary, and Malar Bones.

The Cavities of the Orbits are lined with Productions of the Dura Mater, which pass through the Foramina Optica and Lacera; and at the anterior edges of the Orbits, join the Periosteum of the Face, where they supply the place of Ligaments to the Palpebræ.

#### SUPERCILIA.

The Supercilia, or Eye-Brows, which are peculiar to the Human Species, are the Arches of Hair situated upon the Superciliary Ridges of the Frontal Bone. The Hairs are placed obliquely, with their roots towards the Nose, and the Arches elevated a little above the rest of the Fore-Head, by a considerable quantity of Cellular Substance lying under the Skin.

They are moved in different directions by the action of the Occipito-frontalis, Corrugator Supercilii, and Orbicularis Palpebrarum.

They are intended partly for Ornament, and partly as Shades over the Eyes, thereby preventing them from being injured by extraneous matter, or by too great a degree of light. They also assist in expressing the Passions of the Mind.

#### PALPEBRÆ.

The Palpebræ, or Eye-lids, are chiefly composed of a Doubling of the Skin inclosing part of the Orbicularis Palpebrarum, and of the Cartilages called Tarsi; and form

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## IPART IV.] OF THE EYE.

form Angles at their outer and inner extremities, termeed Canthi, or Corners of the Eye.

The Upper Eye-lid is the one which moves principally in closing or opening the Eye. The under Eye-lid moves only when the Eye-lids are shut with more than unsual force, being then raised by that part of the Musele the belonging to it. It is depressed by its own elasticity.

The *Motions* of the Eye-lids are performed by the acttions of the Orbienlaris and Levator Palpebrarum.

The Eye-lids serve as Curtains or Veils, to defend the lEyes during Sleep. They likewise prevent them from lbeing injured by extraneous objects, or by too much llight. In certain situations, they assist vision by diminishing the rays of light when they are too strong. By their frequent motion, they increase the secretion of the Tears, apply them properly to the Surface of the Eye, and conduct what remains, after washing the Eye, to the Puneta Laerymalia.

## TARSUS.

This is a *thin Cartilaginous Arch*, situated in the edge of each Eye-lid; that in the upper one being considerably broader than the one below, and each broader at its middle than towards its extremities.

They terminate at a little distance from the inner Angle of the Eye.—Their edges are so placed, that when the Eye-lids are shut, a Groove is left next the Eye, by which the Tears are conveyed towards the Nose.

The Tarsi serve to keep the Eye-lids extended, allow them them to be accurately applied to each other, and prevent them from being collected into Folds.

#### GLANDULÆ SEBACEÆ, CILIARES, OF MEIBOMIANÆ.

The last term is obtained from these substances being described by MEIBOMIUS. They are placed between the Tarsus and lining of the Eye-lids, and are formed of a series of white Lines or Follicles, running in serpentine directions, which, when viewed through a Magnifier, appear like Rows of Pearls. From their Substance an Oily or Sebaccous Matter, resembling little Worms, may be readily squeezed out through the Foramina or Puncta Ciliaria, placed upon the edges of the Eye-lids.

The Matter of the Sebaceous Glands anoints the edges, and facilitates the motions of the Eye-lids; they likewise prevent their Accretion, or the Tears from passing over them during Sleep.

#### CILIA.

The Cilia, or Eye-lashes, are stiff Hairs placed in the edges of the Eye-lids. Those of the Upper Eye-lid are bent upwards, and are considerably longer than those of the Under Eye-lid, which are bent in the opposite direction. In both Eye-lids they are wanting near the inner Angle.

The Cilia prevent dust, insects, &c. from getting into the Eye, assist in moderating the quantity of light sent into it, and add to the beauty of the Face.

GLANDULA

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#### OF THE EYE.

#### GLANDULA LACRYMALIS.

The Glandula Lacrymalis, called, till of late years, the Glandula Innominata GALENI, is situated within the Orbit, upon the upper and outer part of the Eye, in a hollow behind the outer end of the Superciliary Ridge of the Frontal Bone.—It is a Gland of the Conglometrate kind, of a yellowish white colour, of an oblong form, and a little flattened, with one end pointing to the Nose, the other to the outer Angle of the Eye.

Besides the Glandula Lacrymalis, there is a chain of *smaller Glands*, lying between it and the upper Eye-lid, and connecting them together.

In the direction of the smaller Glands, there are six or seven Excretory Ducts,—described by DR MONRO, 1758,—which run nearly parallel to, but do not communicate with each other.

The Excretory Ducts, on account of their smallness, are not often seen, and are injected with difficulty. They terminate on the inner side of the upper Eye-lid, near the outer Angle of the Eye and upper edge of the Tarsus.

The use of the Lacrymal Gland is to secrete the Tears, which are spread over the Surface of the Eye by their own weight, and by the motion of the Eye-lids, for the purpose of preserving the delicacy of the Eye, and particularly the transparency of the Cornes.

#### PUNCTA LACRYMALIA.

The Puncta Lacrymalia are two small Orifices placed near

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near the inner Angle of the Eye, one in the upper, the other in the under Eye-lid, at the extremity of the Tarsus, and opposite to each other.

Each Punctum is seated obliquely upon a little Eminence, and is surrounded with a Cartilaginous Circle, which keeps it constantly open.

The Puncta Lacrymalia are the Orifices of two small Canals, which run in the direction of the edges of the Eye-lids towards the side of the Nose, where they approach each other, and terminate together in the Lacrymal Sac.

The Tears which remain after moistening the Eye are absorbed by the Puncta, in the manner of Capillary attraction, and are conveyed through their Ducts into the Lacrymal Sac by the impulse of the Eye-lids.

## CARUNCULA LACRYMALIS.

The Caruncula Lacrymalis is a small Gland of a reddish colour, of the Conglomerate kind, situated between the inner Augle of the Eye-lids and Ball of the Eye; supplying Sebaceous Matter to this part of the Eye-lids; and serving in particular to separate the Puncta Lacrymalia, and to keep them open, and direct the Tears to them while the Eye-lids are shut.

Minute Hairs are found upon the Surface of this body, serving to entaugle small objects which get into the Eye.

## VALVULA SEMILUNARIS.

The Valvula Semilunaris is a small doubling of the Tunica

## PART IV.] OF THE EYE.

Tunica Conjunctiva, and lies between the Caruncula Lacrymalis and Ball of the Eye.

It is larger in the Ape and other Quadrupeds than in the Human Species, and still larger in Birds, in which, as well as in Quadrupeds, it is called *Membrana Nicti*tans.

It is in form of a Crescent, the Horns of which are turned towards the Puncta Lacrymalia, and assists the Caruncula in conducting the Tears to the Puncta.

#### BALL OF THE EYE.

The Ball, Globe, or Bulb of the Eye, is of a spherical form, to collect the rays of light into a proper Focus, and is surrounded behind by a quantity of soft Fat, to allow the Eye and its Muscles to move with facility.

It is composed of *Coats*, *Humours*, *Vessels*, and *Nerves*, to be next described.

#### COATS.

## TUNICA ADNATA.

The Tunica Adnata, or Conjunctiva, named from its connecting the Eye to the Orbit, is a reflection of the Skin continued from the Eye-lids over the whole fore part of the Ball of the Eye.

It adheres slightly by means of Cellular Substance to the

the white of the Eye, but so firmly to the Cornea, as to be separated from it with difficulty till after maceration.

It is so remarkably thin, that the colour of the subjacent parts appears readily through it.

Between this Coat and the white part of the Eye, there is a quantity of loose Cellular Substance, which is very Vascular, and is the common seat of *Ophthalmia*.

The Tunica Adnata supports the Ball of the Eye, prevents extraneous Bodies from getting to the back part of it, and forms a smooth covering to lessen the friction between the Eye and Eye-lids.

#### CORNEA.

The Cornea, so called from its resemblance to Horn, is termed by many Authors Cornea Lucida, to distinguish it from the Sclerotica, which these Authors called Cornea Opaca.

It forms the anterior Pellucid Covering of the Eye, is more convex than the rest of the Ball, and is joined to the Tunica Sclerotica, like the Segment of a small Sphere to that of a larger one. The convexity, however, varies in different persons, so as to form a short or long sighted Eye, according as the Cornea is more or less prominent. It is found also to become more convex when we look at near objects, and the reverse when we view those at a distance.

In a recent Subject, it is hard, dense, and transparent; but after maceration in water, it becomes soft and opake, and may be readily separated, especially in young

# PART IV.] <sup>L</sup> OF THE EYE.

young Animals, into different Lamellæ, the anterior of which is the continuation of the Tunica Aduata.

By a slight degree of putrefaction, it may also be separated from the Tunica Sclerotica.

In the Whale, the edge of the Cornea is received into a distinct Groove, formed by the Sclerotica.

In a sound state, the Cornea has no Vessels which carry red Blood, though such are frequently seen on it when the Eye is inflamed.

Its Nerves are too small to be traced; yet it possesses exquisite sensibility.

It collects the rays of light, and transmits them to the Eye, protects the tender parts within it, and contains the Aqueous Humour.

#### IRIS.

The Iris, so named from being in some persons of different colours, is the only Coat of the Eye which possesses motion. It was considered as a continuation of the Choroid Coat, until described by ZINN, who shews that it is only connected to this Coat by the medium of the Ciliary Circle.

It is placed at a little distance from the Cornea, begins a small way behind the junction of that Coat with the Sclerotica, and, running across, it forms a Septum, a little convex anteriorly, and perforated in the middle by a Hole, called the *Pupil*, or *Sight* of the Eye; the former term applied, because it represents objects no larger than a Pupilla or Puppet.

In the Fœtus, the Pupil is occupied by a Vascular Vol. II. D Membrane,



Membrane, termed Membrana Pupillaris, which generally disappears between the seventh and ninth month of gestation.

Upon the back part of the Iris, there is a dark-coloured Pigment or Varnish, considered by the Ancients as a posterior Layer of the Iris, and called by them *Uvca*, from its resemblance in colour to the Grape.

When the Paint is washed off, the Iris exhibits two sets of Fibres, concerning which Authors have entertained various opinions; one set in the form of Radii, the different colours of which give the diversity of eolour to the Eye; the other Circular, surrounding the inner edge of the Iris, and considered by Dr MONRO as the Sphincter Musele of the Pupil.

The colour of the Iris corresponds in general with that of the Hair, being blue or grey where the Hair is light, and brown or black where the Hair and Complexion are of a dark colour.

The Iris has also many Blood-vessels, which are rendered evident by Injection; and is furnished with a greater proportion of Nerves than almost any other part of the Body.

It floats in the Aqueous Humour, and is of such a nature, that upon exposure to a strong light, or when the Eye looks upon a near object, the diameter of the Pupil is diminished; and *vice versa*.

The different motions of the Iris are supposed to be excited by the sensibility of the Retina, and by the quantity of light which falls upon that Nerve.

The Iris serves to regulate the quantity of light sent to the bottom of the Eye.

TUNICA

#### OF THE EYE.

#### TUNICA SCLEROTICA.

The *Tunica Sclerotica*, which is named from its hardness, is the largest and strongest Coat of the Eye, covering the whole Ball, excepting the parts occupied by the entrance of the Optic Nerve behind, and by the Cornea before.

It is so firmly fixed to the edge of the Cornea, that it has been considered by many Anatomists as a continuation of the same substance; but it differs from the Cornea in the following particulars :—it is of a pure white colour; is formed of Fibres running in every direction, and closely interwoven with each other, and is not divisible into Layers.

It is thicker in its posterior than anterior part, and receives a little tinge, on the inner Surface, from the Choroid Coat, with which it is in contact.

It gives form and strength to the Eye, attachment to its Muscles, and protects and supports the tender parts it incloses. It has also been conjectured, and BLUMEN-BACH thinks he has ascertained, from comparative Anatomy, the truth of the conjecture, that this Coat, by its structure, is so affected by the action of the Muscles, as to influence what are called the *Internal Changes of the Eye*; by which the form of the Eye-ball, consequently the length of its Axis, and the respective situation of the Lens, are adjusted according to the proximity or remoteness of the object.

The Tendons of the four Recti Muscles of the Eye D 2 are are fixed to the fore part of the Tunica Sclerotica. These, or the Cellular Vaginæ covering them, have been supposed to give an additional whiteness to the Eye, and the part giving this whiteness has been termed Tunica Albaginea :---But the Selerotic Coat is every where of a pure white, and can receive little additional brightness from any such covering.

## TUNICA CHOROIDES.

The Choroides lies under the Sclerotica, and is connected to it by the Trunks of Vessels and Nerves which pass from the one Coat to the other, and also by a tender Cellular Substance, of a brown colour, which tinges the inner Surface of the Sclerotica.

It begins at the entrance of the Optic Nerve into the Eye, runs between the Sclerotica and Retina, nearly to the Crystalline Lens, where it is more firmly connected to the Sclerotic Coat than it is elsewhere, by means of the Ciliary Circle.

The Ciliary Circle, or Ciliary Ligament as it is called, is composed of a quantity of condensed shining Cellular Substance, which forms a white Ring connecting the fore part of the Choroides, and the root or onter margin of the Iris, to the Sclerotica.

The Choroid Coat is much thinner and more tender than the Sclerotic, and is one of the most Vascular parts of the Body, seeming at first sight to be entirely composed of Vessels.—The greater number of those on the outside run in whirls; while those on the inside, taking a direction nearly parallel to each other, gave rise

#### PART IV.] OF THE EYE.

rise to the supposed existence of the Membrana Ruyschiana.

It is also furnished with numerous Nerves, which are united with its Vessels by a fine Cellular Texture.

In the Human Eye, the Choroides is of a dusky brown colour, both externally and internally; but the colour varies considerably in the Eyes of different Animals.

The inner Surface of this Coat, which is Villous, was described by RUYSCH as a distinct Lamina, and has been termed by many Anatomists Tunica Ruyschiana .- HAL-LER, however, ZINN, and many others who followed them, have demonstrated this Coat to consist of only one Lamina; though in Sheep, and in some of the larger Animals, it appears to be double.

- Upon the inner side of the Choroides, there is a Mucus, the colour of which, in different Animals, is found to have some connection with the general colour of the Hair and Skin, though commonly, in the Human Body, it is of a blackish brown, and termed Pigmentum Nigrum; the darkness of the shade, however, still corresponding with that of the Hair. It is supposed to be produced from the Vessels of this Coat, and is blackest and thickest at the fore part of the Eye, where it adheres so tenaciously as to be removed with difficulty; but behind it is thinner, more fluid, and more easily removed; becoming gradually less evident towards the Optic Nerve, round which it almost disappears.

In advanced age, the Pigmentum Nigrum becomes more diluted, and of a lighter colour, so that the Vessels

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sels of the Choroid Coat may be seen shining through the Vitreous Humour.

Though HALLER denies that the Membrana Ruyschiana ean ever be separated, in the Human Eye, from the Choroides,—he retains the name, to denote the black Surface of this Coat.

In Gramenivorous Animals, in Fishes, and in those Animals which go in quest of prey in the night, the Paint is of a light and shining colour in the bottom of the Eye, and is called *Tapetum*.

In some entirely white Animals, as the white Rabbit, the Paint is wanting, or transparent, and the Eye has a red colour, from the Vessels of the Choroid Coat being seen in the bottom of the Eye; but the redness disappears when the Animal is dead. In the Albinos also, and white Person born of Negro Parents, the Pigmentum Nigrum is entirely or nearly deficient, and a red colour appears in the bottom of the Eye.

At the fore part of the Choroid Coat, and opposite to the Ciliary Circle, there is a black radiated Ring, called *Corpus Ciliare*, which is about the sixth part of an inch in breadth towards the Temple, but somewhat narrower towards the Nose.

In the posterior portion of the Corpus Ciliare, there are numerous pale radiated *Ciliary Striæ*, but so covered with the Pigmentum Nigrum, as not to be distinctly seen till the Paint is removed.

Near the connection of the Corpus Ciliare with the root of the Iris, these Striæ become gradually broader and more elevated, and form white *Plicæ* or *Folds*, about seventy in number, termed *Processus Ciliares*, the intervals

# PART IV.] OF THE EYE.

intervals of which are also covered with the Pigmentum Nigrum.

The Processus Ciliares are commonly formed each of two or more Striæ. They are not all of an equal size, and many of them are forked at their extremities.

The Corpus Ciliare, formed of the Ciliary Striæ and Ciliary Processes, has no appearance of Muscularity, though the contrary has been supposed by some Authors. A fine Injection shews it to be chiefly formed of a continuation of the Blood-vessels of the Choroid Coat, the Branches of which divide into such minute parts, as to give the whole a Villous appearance.

The Corpus Ciliare is glued to the Retina, at the fore part of the Vitreous Humour, and a little behind the edge of the Crystalline Lens; but the Ciliary Processes float in the Aqueous Humour in the Posterior Chamber of the Eye, at the inner side of the root of the Iris, and may be readily turned back behind the edge of the Lens, to which they are contiguous, but do not adhere.

The Choroid Coat, with its dark paint, serves to suffocate the rays of light which pass through the Retina, thereby allowing a distinct image to be formed upon the bottom of the Eye, and preventing the rays from being reflected so as to form a second image.

In those Animals in which this Coat, or its paint, is of a bright colour, it acts as a mirror to reflect light, and make the impression stronger.

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OPTIC

## OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

## OPTIC NERVE AND RETINA.

The Optic Nerve, in its passage through the Orbit, is covered by a continuation of the Membranes which surround the Brain.

At the Foramen Opticum, the Dura Mater is divided into two Laminæ, one of which assists in forming the Periosteum of the Orbit; the other, which is again divided into two Laminæ, furnishes a Sheath to the Nerve, and accompanies it to the Tunica Sclerotica, to which it is so firmly connected by Cellular Substance, as to have induced some Anthors to describe the Sclerotica as a continuation of the Dura Mater.

The Body of the Nerve is still more closely invested by the *Pia Mater*, which also forms Sheaths round the Nervous Fasciculi, and accompanies the Nerve into the Eyc.

At the back part of the Ball of the Eye, and a little removed from the Axis, towards the Nose, the *Fasciculi* of the Optic Nerve pass through a Cribriform part of the Sclerotic and Choroid Coats.

The Nerve is contracted at its entrance through the Sclerotic Coat, but immediately after its ingress, it expands to form the Retina,—so called from its supposed Reticular appearance.

In the centre of the Optic Nerve, where it enters the Eye, the *Artery of the Retina* is seen dividing into Branches, which are dispersed upon its inner Surface.

The Retina advances between the Choroid Coat and Capsule of the Vitreous Humour, to the fore part of the

## PART IV.] · OF THE EYE.

the Eye, and terminates or disappears upon the anterior part of the edge, or greatest diameter of the Capsule of the Crystalline Lens.

The Retina is contiguous to the Choroid Coat and Capsule of the Vitreous Humour, but does not, by Blood-vessels or otherwise, adhere to either, till it reach the Corpus Ciliare.

Under the Corpus Ciliare, the Retina is so eovered externally with the Pigmentum Nigrum, and adheres internally so closely to the Capsule of the Vitreous Humour, as to be prevented from being seen till the black Paint be washed off, or till all the Coats be removed posteriorly, and the Eye viewed through the medium of the Vitreous Humour.

In the back part of the Retina, and on the side next the Choroid Coat, directly in the Axis of the Eye, there is a transparent Spot, which appears like a Foramen, surrounded with a yellow Border, which becomes paler towards the Circumference. This was first discovered by SOEMMERRING, and is termed *Foramen Centrale*, but its nature is not yet understood. It is said to be peculiar to the Human Species and Ape. According to BLUMEN-BACH, it may serve as a kind of Pupil through which concentric rays may pass, and be absorbed by the Pigmentum Nigrum of the Choroides, in those Animals which have the Axis of the Eyes parallel to each other, and thereby see objects with both Eyes at once, but are in danger from this of being dazzled by strong light.

The Retina is composed of a tender and Pulpy-like Substance, is semi-transparent, and of a light grey colour,

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lour, resembling that of ground glass, but becoming a little firmer and more opake in Spirit of Wine.

From the entrance of the Optic Nerve to the edge of the Corpus Ciliare, the Retina is of an equal and uniform Substance, and is so easily torn and separated from the edge of that Body, as to be described by many Authors as terminating there.

Under the Striæ and Processes of the Corpus Ciliare, the Retina is thinner than in the posterior part of the Eye, and is so compressed by these Bodies, as also to have the appearance of Striæ terminating in numerous minute Fibres, like Nerves in other parts of the Body.

The Retina is one of the most sensible parts of the Body. It is the seat of Vision, and therefore the primary part of the Eye, to which all the other parts within the Orbit are subservient.

#### HUMOURS.

## Aqueous Humour.

The Aqueous Humour is lodged in the space between the Cornea and Crystalline Lens.

This space is divided into two Cavities, called *Cham*bers; the anterior of which is situated between the Cornea and Iris, and is the larger of the two.

The posterior is placed between the Iris and Crystalline Lens, and is so much smaller than the former, that its existence has been denied by some Authors, though it is a distinct Cavity, demonstrable, not only in the Adult,

#### PART IV.]

## OF THE EYE.

Adult, where the Pupil is open, but in the Fœtus before the Pupil is formed.

The Aqueous Humour is as clear as the purest water, but is somewhat heavier, possesses a small degree of viscidity, contains a little Salt, and is about five grains in weight.

In the Fœtus, and for the first month after Birth, it is reddish and turbid.

When evacuated, it is quickly renewed; for within forty-eight hours after it has been discharged by puncture, the Cornca is observed to be again perfectly distended.

It is supposed to be secreted from the neighbouring Arteries, particularly from those on the fore part of the Iris and Ciliary Processes.

It serves to keep the Cornea distended, and, by its roundish form and pellucidity, it collects and transmits the rays of light to the inner parts of the Eye. It likewise guards the Iris and Lens, and admits of the motions of the former.

## CRYSTALLINE LENS.

The Crystalline Lens, which has its name from its resemblance to Crystal, and from its Lenticular form, though a solid Body, which may be moulded into various shapes,—has always been classed among the Humours of the Eye.

It is situated behind the Aqueous Humour, opposite to the Pupil, and the whole of its posterior part is received ceived into a Depression on the fore part of the Vitreous Humour.

Like a common Lens, or magnifying Glass, it has two convex Surfaces, the anterior of which is in general less convex than the posterior; the two being formed of segments of spheres of unequal size.

The anterior Surface, according to the experiments of PLTIT, forms the segment of a sphere, the diameter of which is between seven and eight lines, or twelfths of an inch; while the posterior Surface is only equal to the segment of a sphere of about five lines in diameter.

It has been observed by ZINN,—that the figure of the Lens varies at different periods, being in the Fœtus almost of a spherical form, but becoming gradually flatter on the anterior and posterior Surfaces, till about the age of thirty, after which its form does not appear to vary.

As the figure, so also the colour and consistency, are found to change at different times of life.—In the Fœtus, not only a Capsule, which covers it, but the Lens also, is of a reddish colour; but immediately after Birth, they become perfectly transparent.—In a Person considerably advanced in years, the Lens is observed to acquire a yellow tinge, which appears first in the centre, and afterwards extends gradually to the circumference; and in extreme old age, this yellow tinge becomes so deep as to resemble Amber.

An Aqueous Fluid is described as being situated between the Crystalline Lamellæ, which is supposed to decrease in quantity, and to become somewhat yellow; the Lens at the same time increasing in solidity as the Person
## PART IV.] OF THE EYE.

Person advances in life.—This difference, however, of convexity, colour, and consistence, according to the difference of age, is not met with uniformly.

The Lens becomes opake soon after death, and acquires an additional opacity when put into Spirit of Wine.

It is composed of concentric Lamellæ, laid over each other like the coats of an Onion. These Lamellæ are connected by fine Cellular Substance, and are more closely compacted the nearer they are to the centre.

This Lamellated structure may be readily observed in the Eye of an Ox, or any other large Animal, but is most evident when the Lens has been macerated in Water or Vinegar.

When the maceration is continued for some time, the Lamellæ put on a radiated appearance, the Radii running in a vertical manner, or issuing from the centre to the circumference, dividing the Surface into Isosceles Triangles, or like the Meridian lines running between the two poles of a Geographical Globe.

The Lamellæ were discovered by LEUWENHORCK to be of a Fibrous structure. By some Authors these Fibres have been considered as Muscular, and capable of varying the convexity of the Lens according to the distance of the objects we look at; but it is observed, that the Eyes from which the Lens has been removed, are, by the assistance of Glasses, enabled to form distinct vision.

The substance of the Lens somewhat resembles halfmelted Gum, is very soft and tender on the outside, but becomes becomes gradually firmer and tougher towards the centre, where it forms a Nucleus.

The Lens is surrounded by a very pellucid proper Capsule, called *Tunica Aranea*, or *Crystallina*, which is much thicker and more elastic than the Capsule of the Vitreous Humour, but adheres so slightly, and is so easily lacevated, that after a small puncture is made in it, the Lens starts out, upon applying gentle pressure to the Capsule.

The posterior part of the Capsule is much thinner, softer, and weaker, than the anterior; but is quite a *distinct Membrane* from the Tunica Vitrea; yet so firmly connected to it by Cellular Substance, that it is difficult to separate them, without lacerating both the Vitreous Coat and its Humour.

Some Authors describe an Aqueous Humour as seated between the Lens and its Capsule; while others, of no small respectability, deny the existence of this Humour, as well as of that which is said to be situated between the Lamellæ of the Lens.

The Vessels of the Lens are not to be seen in the Eye of the Adult; but in that of a Fœtus, PETIT found Vessels passing from the Corpus Ciliare over the fore part of the Capsule of the Lens.

WINSLOW afterwards observed, that in the Fœtus, and in new-born Children, a fine Injection succeeded so well, as to discover the Vessels of the Membrana Crystallina and Vitrea;—and in a Fœtus of about six months, the injected liquor seemed to him to have penetrated a part of the Crystalline and Vitreons Humours.

ALBINUS

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ALBINUS derives these Vessels from a double source. —In the Eye of a Whale, he demonstrated Vessels passing from the Ciliary Processes to the substance of the Lens; and, at a later period, he injected in the Human Eye a small Branch arising from the Central Artery of the Retina, which proceeded in a straight direction through the Vitreous Humour, and divided in the posterior part of the Capsule into numerous Branches, many twigs of which plunged into the substance of the Lens.

This Artery and its Branches have been frequently and successfully injected by succeeding Anatomists.

### VITREOUS HUMOUR.

The Vitreous Humour is situated in the back part of the Cavity of the Eye, which it occupies from the insertion of the Optic Nerve to the Surface of the Crystalline Lens.

It is round at the back part and sides, where it is covered by the Retina; but is concave before, where it forms a bed for the Crystalline Lens.

It is by much the largest of the three Humours, occupying upwards of nine-tenths of the whole Eye, and has a Gelatinous appearance,—or is somewhat like the Glaire of an Egg.

In an Adult, it is always very transparent; and in an Old Person, it does not, like the Lens, degenerate into a yellow, or any other colour.

In the Fœtus, like the Aqueous Humour, it is of a reddish colour.

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The liquor of which the Vitreous Humour is composed, is similar to the Aqueous,—very fluid, transpires readily through the Capsule, though that Coat be entire, and, like the Aqueons Humour, is somewhat thicker, heavier, and more viscid than Water.

When this Humour is evacuated by puncture, in the living Body, it is very seldom, though sometimes renewed.

Upon the Surface of this Humour there is a Coat, termed Vitrea, or Hyaloidea, from its resemblance to Glass, as transparent as the Humour itself, and so thin and Cobweb-like, as to have also the name of Aranea.

The *Tunica Vitrea* is remarkably smooth on its outer Surface; excepting at its fore part, where it is impressed by the Corpus Ciliare and Pigmentum Nigrum; but within, it sends Processes into the Body of the Humour, of the same nature with the external Membrane.

Some Authors, and among these WINSLOW, have described this Coat as consisting of two Laminæ; but SABATIER, and other late Writers, seem sufficiently satisfied that it is a single Layer; and even this single Layer cannot be raised but with difficulty, though it is demonstrable by making a puncture to allow the Humour to escape, and by afterwards distending the part with air.

The structure of the Humour consists of a set of delicate Cells, which contain the Liquor within them, as may be seen by the assistance of Acids, or by boiling Water, or by Congelation.

The Cells of the Humour communicate freely with each

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#### OF THE EYE. PART IV.7

each other, as appears from the Liquor oozing out by the smallest puncture made in the general Capsule.

Under the Corpus Ciliare, the Capsule of the Vitreous Humour sends off an external Lamina, which accompanies the Retina, and is inserted with it into the fore part of the Capsule of the Lens, a little before its anterior edge. It is termed Membranula Coronæ Ciliaris, or Zonula Ciliaris, from its striated appearance and Circular form. This Membrane, though extremely thin, assists in fixing the Lens to the Vitreous Humour.

After sending off the Ciliary Zone, the Coat of the Vitreous Humour goes behind the Capsule of the Lens, with which it is intimately connected.

Between the Ciliary Zone and part where the Capsule of the Vitreous Humour adheres to that of the Lens, -which is at the same distance behind the edge of the Lens with the distance of the insertion of the Ciliary Zone before it,-a passage is formed, named Canalis Petitianus, after PETIT, who discovered it.

The Membranes forming this Passage are pervaded by transverse Fibres, in such a manner, that when Air is introduced, it goes freely round the edge of the Lens; but the Passage has a Cellular appearance, being contracted and dilated alternately.

The Canal of PETIT is nearly of the same breadth with the Corpus Ciliare, is always empty, and has no communication with the Capsules of the Vitreous or Crystalline Humours.

No Vessels are to be seen in the Vitreous Humour of an Adult; but in the Eye of a Fœtus, an Artery is observed to arise from the Central one of the Retina, E which

VOL. H.

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which passes through the middle of the Vitreous Humour, sending Twigs to the Cellular Texture of this Humour, while the principal Trunk is continued to the Capsule of the Crystalline Lens, as has been already observed.

The Vitreous Humour serves to give shape to the Eye, to keep the Coats properly expanded, to preserve the due distance of the Lens, and direct the rays of light to the Retina.

#### MUSCLES OF THE BALL OF THE ETE.

THE Ball of the Eye is moved by Six Muscles, which are divided, on account of their direction, into four straight and two oblique Muscles, obtaining their respective names from their size, situation, direction, or use.

Of the straight Muscles, one is situated above the Eye, another below it, and one on each side. Of the oblique, one is placed at the upper and inner, and the other at the under and outer part of the Eye.

The *Recti* are not straight, as the name implies; for, on account of the situation of the Eye and shape of the Orbit, all except the internal, or that next the Nose, have somewhat of a curved direction.

Neither are they all equally long, the internal being the shortest, the external the longest. The other two are nearly of the same length with each other.

The four straight Muscles, which bear a strong resemblance to one another, arise by a narrow beginning, a little Tendinous and Fleshy, from the edge of the Foramen

66

ramen Opticum, where they embrace the Optic Nerve at its entrance into the Orbit.

In their passage forwards, they form Fleshy Bellies, which send off broad and very thin Tendons, to be inserted into the Sclerotic Coat, under the Tunica Adnata, about a quarter of an inch behind the edge of the Cornea, and at equal distances from each other.

At the place of their insertion, they are so intimately connected with the Sclerotica, that they cannot be separated from it, or be brought as far as the Cornea, without evident laceration.

The different Muscles of the Ball of the Eye, where they lie upon the Ball, are covered with a Cellular Sheath, which afterwards degenerates into that Cellular Substance which is interposed between the Sclerotica and Conjunctiva.

#### LEVATOR OCULI,

Vel Rectus Attollens, vel Superbus.

Origin: From the upper part of the Foramen Opticum below the Levator Palpebræ Superioris.

Insertion : Into the upper and fore part of the Tunica Sclerotica.

Action : To raise the fore part of the Ball of the Eye,

#### DEPRESSOR OCULI,

Vel Rectus Deprimens, vel Humilis.

Origin : From the inferior part of the Foramen Op-

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Insertion +

[PART IV.

Insertion : Opposite to the former.

Action : To pull the fore part of the Eye downwards.

### Adductor Oculi,

#### Vel Rectus Adducens, vel Bibitorius.

Origin : From the Foramen Opticum, between the Obliquus Superior and Depressor.

Insertion : Opposite to the inner Angle of the Eye.

Action: To turn the fore part of the Eye towards the Nose.

### Abductor Oculi,

### Vel Rectus Abducens, vel Indignabundus.

Origin : From the Bony Partition between the Foramen Opticum and Lacerum.

Insertion : Into the Ball of the Eye, opposite to the outer Angle.

Action: To turn the fore part of the Eye towards the Temple.

When two of the opposite Recti, or all of them, act together, they draw the Eye into the Orbit.

When two of the adjacent Recti act, they turn the fore part of the Eye obliquely in a direction towards their Origins.

### Obliquus Superior,

## Vel Obliquus Major, vel Trochlcaris.

Origin: Like the straight Muscles, from the edge of the

## PART IV.] OF THE EYE.

the Foramen Opticum, between the Levator and Adductor Oculi. From thence it runs directly forwards, sends off a long round Tendon, which passes through a Cartilaginoùs Pulley fixed behind the Internal Angular Process of the Os Frontis, and is here inclosed in a Bursa Mucosa. From this it goes a little downwards, and returns backwards and outwards, passing under the Levator Oculi.

Insertion : By a broad thin Tendon, into the Tunica Sclerotica, about half-way between the insertion of the Levator Oculi and entrance of the Optic Nerve.

Action: To roll the Ball of the Eye, by turning the Pupil downwards and outwards.

### OBLIQUUS INFERIOR,

#### Vel Obliguus Minor.

Origin: By a narrow beginning, from the anterior edge of the Orbitar Process of the Superior Maxillary Bone, near the Lacrymal Groove, from which it passes obliquely outwards, backwards, and upwards, round the Ball of the Eye.

Insertion : By a broad thin Tendon, into the Sclerotic Coat, between the entrance of the Optic Nerve and insertion of the Abductor Oculi, and opposite to the insertion of the Obliquus Superior.

Action: To roll the Ball of the Eye, by turning the Pupil upwards and inwards, and, with the assistance of the Obliquus Superior, to pull the Eye forwards; thereby becoming an Antagonist to the Recti.

The two oblique Muscles, on account of rolling the E 3 Eye,

### OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

Eye, and assisting it in the expression of certain Passions, have been called *Rotatores*, and *Amatores*.

70

#### VESSELS OF THE EYE.

The Frontal, Facial, and Temporal Arteries, which are Branches of the External and Internal Carotids, supply the Palpebræ, and communicate with those which are dispersed within the Orbit.

Some small Branches of the Internal Maxillary Artery pass through the Inferior Orbitar Fissure, to be dispersed chiefly upon the Periosteum of the Orbit and Fat of the Eye.

The Ocular Artery, which is a Branch of the Internal Carotid, passes through the Foramen Opticum, in company with the Optic Nerve, and supplies the Fat, Muscles, and Ball of the Eye, and also the Lacrymal Gland and Tunica Conjunctiva.

The Branches which belong to the Ball of the Eye, have the name of *Ciliares*. They perforate the Sclerotica in different places, and are afterwards dispersed upon the Choroid Coat and Iris.

One Branch of the Ocular Artery, called *Centralis*  $Retin\alpha$ , perforates the Optic Nerve, and is dispersed upon the Retina.

The Veins which correspond with the Arteries of the Eye, communicate freely with each other, and pass partly to the External Jugular Vein, by Branches situated about the fore part of the Orbit, and partly to the Internal Jugular Vein, by the Cavernous Sinus.

NERVES

#### OF THE EYE.

#### NERVES OF THE EYE.

Besides the Optic Nerve, already taken notice of, the Eye receives the Third and Fourth Pairs, and Branches from the First of the Fifth Pair, together with the Sixth Pair, and Branches from the Seventh.

The parts about the fore side of the Orbit are supplied by Branches from the Fifth and Seventh Pairs; -the Ball of the Eye by Nerves called Ciliary, which come from the Third and Fifth Pairs ;- the Fat, Muscles, Lacrymal Gland, &c. are supplied by the Third, Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Pairs.

The Eye receives and collects the rays of light, in such a manner as to form upon the Retina the image or picture of the object which the Eye looks at; and the point where these different rays meet is called the Focus.

The object is painted upon the Retina in an inverted manner, the rays from above falling upon its under, and those from below upon its upper part; and it is supposed to be by habit, or rather by instinct, that we judge of the real situation of any object.

That the rays of light may terminate distinctly on the Retina, it is necessary that both the Cornea and Crystalline Lens should have a certain degree of convexity.

If either the one or the other be too prominent, the Focus will be formed before it reach the Retina, as is the case in short-sighted people, who require concave E4 glasses

glasses to enable them to see objects distinctly, at the proper and ordinary distance.

If, on the contrary, the Cornea or Lens be too flat, or the refractive power of the Humours be in any way diminished, the Focus will then be imperfectly formed, till the object is viewed at a greater distance than ordinary; as is the case with persons advanced in life, to whom the assistance of convex glasses becomes necessary.

How an object, viewed with both Eyes, appears single, has been, as well as our judging of the real situation of any object, ascribed by the generality of Authors to custom and habit; and by others to instinct, which regulates the uniform motion of the Eyes, and the accurate application of both to one point.

The Eye is enabled to judge of, or accommodate itself to objects at different distances, by the action of its Muscles increasing or diminishing the length of its axis, and by the motions of the Iris allowing a greater or smaller quantity of light to be thrown into the Eye.

TABLE

## OF THE EAR.

THE EAR, or Organ of Hearing, is divided into External and Internal Ear.

### EXTERNAL EAR.

The External Ear comprehends the Auricle, or Ear, properly so called, and the Meatus Auditorius Externus.

It is again divided into *Pinna*, or *Ala*, which constitutes by much the greater part of it, and *Lobus*, which is placed at its under end.

The *Pinna* is chiefly composed of Cartilage, and is divided at its fore part, into several *Eminences* and *Ca*vities, which have received particular names; viz.

The Helix, or outer Bar, or Margin, which arises behind, at the Lobe of the Ear, surrounds its upper edge, and terminates below, nearly opposite to its origin; dividing the Concha into two parts.

The Antihelix, Anthelix, or inner Bar or Margin, which

which is situated within the former, and is composed superiorly of two Ridges, uniting together below.

The Tragus, which is a small Eminence lying over the Meatus Externus, and is connected to the under and fore part of the Helix.

The Antitragus, placed below the posterior extremity of the Antihelix.

The Cavitas Innominata, situated between the Helix and Antihelix.

The Scapha, or Fossa Navicularis, situated between the two limbs of the Antihelix.

The Concha, which is a large Cavity under the Antihelix; divided by the Helix into two parts, the inferior of which leads to the Meatus Auditorius.

The back part of the External Ear exhibits only one considerable *Eminence*, which is the convex Surface of the Concha.

The Lobus, which is the inferior soft part of the Ear, is composed of Cellular Substance, with a small quantity of Fat.

The Ear is covered by a continuation of the common Integnments, which are thinner here than on the rest of the Body, and is perforated in many parts by the mouths of Sebaccous Ducts placed immediately under the Skin.

The motions of the Ear, which are very limited, are regulated by several *Muscles*, some of which are common to the Ear and Head, and others proper to the Ear itself. The former have been already described. The latter lie close upon the Cartilage, and, in the generality of Subjects, are so thin, white, and indistinct, as to receive

### PART IV.] OF THE EAR.

ceive from some Authors the name of Muscular Membranes.—They are as follow :

### HELICIS MAJOR.

Origin : From the anterior acute part of the Helix, upon which it ascends.

Insertion : Into the Helix.

Action : To pull that part into which it is inserted a little downwards and forwards.

### HELICIS MINOR.

Origin : From the under and fore part of the Helix. Insertion : Into the Helix, near the Fissure in the Cartilage opposite the Concha.

Action : To contract the Fissure.

#### TRAGICUS.

Origin : From the middle and outer part of the Concha, at the root of the Tragus, along which it runs.

Insertion : Into the point of the Tragus.

Action : To pull the point of the Tragus a little forwards.

#### ANTITRAGICUS.

Origin: From the internal part of the Antitragus, upon which it ascends.

Insertion: Into the tip of the Antitragus, as far as the

the inferior part of the Antihelix, where there is a Fissure in the Cartilage.

Action : 'To turn the tip of the Antitragus a little outwards, and depress the extremity of the Antihelix.

TRANSVERSUS AURIS, vel Transversus Auricula.

Origin : From the prominent part of the Concha, on the back part of the Ear.

Insertion : Into the outside of the Antihelix.

Action: To draw the parts to which it is connected towards each other, and to stretch the Scapha and Concha.

The *Cartilage* of the External Ear is connected to the Temporal Bone by the common Integuments, and by its Muscles; and is furnished with Ligamentous Membranes, which fix it to the roots of the Zygoma and of the Mastoid Process.

The Auricle collects sound, and conveys it to the Meatus Externus,—the Muscles giving tension to it, so as to render the sound more distinct.

The Mcatus Auditorius Externus leads inwards, from the Concha, and in its course proceeds somewhat forwards and upwards, turning a little downwards at its farthest extremity, and terminating at the Membrana Tympani. The turns, however, are so inconsiderable, that the bottom of the passage can be readily seen in a clear light, upon pulling the Ear backwards.

It is rather of an oval form, a little contracted in the middle,

76

PART IV.]

middle, and from an inch to an inch and a half in length.

Its outer end, which is a continuation of the Concha, is Cartilaginous, and has two or three *Interruptions* or *Fissures* in it.

On the upper and back part of its circumference, there is a *Large Interruption* terminating in an oblique Margin, which is fixed to the rough edge, at the under part of the Osseous Portion of the Meatus.

At the upper and back part of the Meatus, the Cartilage has but little connection with the Bones, being there fixed by the Skin which lines the Canal.

The Osseous is continued from the Cartilaginous part of the Canal, and is the longer of the two, particularly at its upper and back part.

The Meatus is lined with a continuation of the Skin, which fills up the Interruptions in the Cartilage, but, like the Skin covering the Auricle, it is thinner than ou the rest of the Body.

Under the Skin of the Meatus, and near its outer end, there are numerous small Glands, of a yellowish colour, placed in a Reticular Substance formed of the Corpus Mucosum, and termed *Glandulæ Ceruminosæ*, which discharge the Wax of the Ear, through small excretory Ducts.

The Wax lubricates the Passage, and defends it from the injuries of the air, and, being of a viscid and bitter quality, assists in the exclusion of insects.

The Arteries of the external Ear come anteriorly from the Temporal, and posteriorly from the Occipital; both both of which are Branches of the External Carotid Artery.

The Veins pass partly to the External, and partly to the Internal Jugulars.

The Nerves which supply the fore part of the Ear, are derived from the third of the Fifth, and from the Portio Dura of the Seventh Pair. Those which supply the under and back part come from the first and second Cervicals.

The Meatus Externus conveys sound from the outer towards the inner Ear, and is supposed to do this to greater advantage on account of the winding nature of the Passage.

In the Fœtus, the Meatus is entirely Cartilaginous, and only adheres to an imperfect Bony Circle, in which the Membrana Tympani is fixed.

At the inner end of the Meatus Externus, the Membrana Tympani is situated, which is thin but firm, somewhat dry and elastic, almost transparent, and of an oval form.

It is fixed in a *Groove* which divides the Meatus from the Tympanum.

It is very tense, but has a small *Depression* in the middle next the Meatus, with a corresponding *Convexity* towards the Tympanum, where the extremity of the Malleus is fixed to it.

Its situation is somewhat oblique, the upper part being turned outwards, and the under inwards, so that the lower side of the Meatus is a little longer than the upper.

It

78

### PART IV.]

### OF THE EAR.

It forms a complete impervious Septum, though the contrary has been maintained by some Authors.

It is formed partly of a continuation of the lining of the Meatus, but chiefly of the Periosteum.

The Membrana Tympani has numerous small Vessels from the Temporal and Stylo-Mastoid Arteries, which run in a radiated manner, and which are most abundant in the Fœtus.

This Membrane serves to conduct the Sound from the Outer to the Inner Ear.

In the Fœtus, the Membrana Tympani is fixed in an imperfect Ring of Bone, being open above, and, along with the Meatus, is covered with a Mucous Membrane, which defends the parts from the too strong impulse of Sound.

#### THE INTERNAL EAR.

The Internal Ear comprehends the Tympanum, Labyrinth, and certain Passages leading into these.

The *Tympanum* is situated at the inner side of the Membrana Tympani, approaches to a hemispherical figure, and is about half an inch in width.

Between the Tympanum and Cavity called Labyrinth, there is an Osseous Septum, which forms the bottom of the Tympanum, where there are several Eminences, viz.

The Promontory, which forms the beginning of the Scala Tympani, and divides the Tympanum into anterior and posterior Regions.

A Protuberance at the upper and back part of the Tympanum, formed by the Aquæductus FALLOPH.

A Projection, called Eminentia Pyramidalis Tympani, situated behind the Fenestra Ovalis, in which is the Passage for the Stapedins.

An *Eminence* at the upper and fore part of the Tympanum, containing a semi-canal, for lodging part of the Tensor Tympani.

In the Tympanum there are various *Passages*, which communicate with the neighbouring parts, viz.

The Iter a Palato ad Aurem, or Eustachian Tube, which goes off from the upper and fore part of the Tympanum, and, running obliquely forwards and inwards to the posterior Opening of the Nostril, terminates at its outer edge, above the Arch of the Palate.

The posterior part of the Tube is Osseous, being formed in the Pars Petrosa, at the upper and outer part of the Canal for the Carotid Artery.

The anterior portion is formed above, by the Spinous Process, and root of the Pterygoid Process of the Sphenoid Bone;—and below, by Cartilage and Membrane.

It is narrower next the Ear, where it can only admit the point of a Surgeon's Probe, but becomes gradually wider towards the Nose, where it terminates by an oblique Opening with prominent sides, sufficiently large to admit a Goose-quill.

It is lined by a Membrane similar to that of the Nose, of which it appears to be a continuation; and which, on the edge of the Mouth of the Tube, is so thick as to add considerably to its prominency.

The Eustachian Tube preserves the balance of Air between the Outer and Inner Ear, and prevents it from pressing préssing too forcibly upon the different Membranes placed in the sides of the Tympanum.

It has been supposed to convey the sound of a Person's own Voice to the Inner Ear; but experiment does not favour this opinion, nor is it found to render Sound more distinct when the Mouth is open;—though Persons who have a degree of deafness are observed frequently to listen after this manner.

The Cells of the Mastoid Process, which open into the upper and back part of the Tympanum, opposite to, but a little higher than, the Eustachian Tube.

They are very irregular, and have many windings and turnings, which communicate with each other, and are lined, like the Cells of other Bones, with the Periosteum Internum.

They assist the Tympanum in reflecting Sound.

In Quadrupeds which hear acutely, there are large *Cavities*, connected with the Tympanum, which seem to supply the place of Mastoid Cells.

Above the Promontory, a *Hole* called *Fenestra Ovalis*, the upper and under edges of which are convex upwards,—for lodging the Base of the Stapes. The long diameter of this Fenestra is placed transversely, and near double the length of the short one.

The inner edges of this Hole are contracted by a narrow Border, upon which the end of the Stapes rests.

Below the Fenestra Ovalis, and at the under and back part of the Promontory, a *Hole*, smaller than the former, called *Fenestra Rotunda*.

It is placed obliquely backwards and outwards, leads to the Cochlea, but is shut up by a Membrane which Vol. II. F assiste assists in communicating Sound to the Labyrinth. The two Foramina are placed opposite to the Membrana Tympani.

82

The Sides or Walls of the Tympanum, which likewise assist in conveying Sound to the Labyrinth, are lined with Periosteum, which is reflected into the different Passages leading from it.

The Cavity of the Tympanum contains four small Bones called Ossicula Auditus, which form a Chain, stretching across from the Membrana Tympani to the Labyrinth.

The Ossicula Auditus are,—the Malleus, the Incus, the Os Orbiculare, and the Stapes,—these names being derived from Substances which they are supposed to resemble in shape.

The Malleus, or Hammer, consists of a round Head, a small Neck, a Manubrium or Handle, and two small Processes; one in the Neck, long and very slender, and therefore called *Gracilis*; the other in the upper end of the Handle, called *Processus Brevis*.

The *Handle* is by some Authors considered as one of the Processes, and is then called the longest of the three. It forms an Angle with the Neck, is slightly compressed, becomes gradually smaller, and is bent at its extremity towards the Membrana Tympani.

In the natural situation, the *Head* is turned upwards and inwards, and the *Handle* down upon the Membrana Tympani, to which it adheres.

The Incus, compared in shape to an Anvil, but more resembling one of the Dentes Molares, with its roots widely separated, is situated behind the Malleus, and is formed

# PART IV.] OF THE EAR.

formed of a *Body* and *two Crura*, one of which is termed the Short or Superior, and the other the Long or Inferior Crus.

The Body has a Cavity and two Eminences, eorresponding to the back part of the head of the Malleus, with which it is articulated.

The short Crus extends backwards, and is joined by a Ligament to the edge of the Mastoid Opening.

The long Crus, which is smaller than the other, is turned downwards, with the point a little flattened, and bent inwards.

The Os Orbiculare, or Lenticulare, is the smallest Bone of the Body, being considerably less than a grain of Mustard-seed.

It is articulated with the point of the long Process of the Ineus, and is so firmly fixed to it, that it has been frequently considered as a Process of that Bone.

The Stapes is named from a striking resemblance it has to a Stirrup. It is divided into Head, Crura, and Base.

The *Head* is placed upon a small flat Neck, and is articulated with the Os Orbiculare.

The Crura, like those of the Ineus, are unequal in length, and have each a Groove on the inside, which gives insertion to the Membrane stretched between them.

The Base is of an oval, or rather semi-oval shape, and has no Perforation in it; its edges correspond with those of the Fenestra Ovalis, with which it is articulated.

The Stapes is placed horizontally, being nearly at a right angle with the inferior Crus of the Incus. Its two

Crura

Action: To draw the Head of the Stapes obliquely upwards and backwards, by which the posterior part of its Base is moved inwards, and the anterior part outwards, and the Membrana Tympani thereby put upon the stretch.

### LABYRINTH.

The Labyrinth, so called from its Sinuosities and Windings, is situated at the inner part of the Tympanum, and is formed of the Vestible, Cochlea, and Semicircular Canals, together with the Canalis FALLOPH and Meatus Auditorius Internus.

The Vestible, named from its forming a Porch or Entry to the Cochlea and Semicircular Canals, is of an oval figure, nearly of the size and shape of a decorticated grain of Barley, and is situated at the inner side of the Base of the Stapes.

There are three contiguous *Cavities* in the Vestible, one of which, the *Semi-oval*, is situated above; another, the *Hemispherical*, below; and the third, or *Sulciform*, which is the Orifice of the Aquæductus Vestibuli, is placed behind.

In the Vestible there are several Holes which communicate with the neighbouring parts, viz.

The *Fenestra Ovalis*, situated at the outside, by which it communicates with the Tympanum.

A round Hole, situated at the fore and under part, by which it communicates with one of the Canals of the Cochlea.

Five

### PART IV.] OF THE EAR.

Five similar Foramina behind, by which it communicates with the Semicircular Canals.

Towards the Meatus Auditorius Internus, it has four or five *Cribriform Perforations*, for the transmission of Nerves.

The Cochlea is placed obliquely, next the anterior extremity of the Os Petrosum, and at the fore part of the Vestible, in such a manner as to have its Base towards the Meatus Auditorius Internus, and its Apex in the opposite direction, or facing outwards.

It has two *Canals* or *Gyri*, called *Scalæ*, from a supposed resemblance to a stair-case; one of which is placed on the outer and fore side, the other on the inner and back part. The Gyri are very close to each other, and run in a spiral direction, like the Shell of a Snail, from which the part has obtained its name.

The Cochlea forms two Circumvolutions or Turns and a half, the first of which is much larger and wider than the other turn and a half, which become suddenly smaller, the whole approaching to a globular form.

The two Canals are upon the same level, the inner one next the Base, and the outer next the point of the Cochlea.

The Gyri go round a Nucleus, Axis, or Central Pillar, which is nearly horizontal, and is formed of two hollow Cones, with their points turned to each other, the one termed Modiolus, from its resemblance to the Spindle of a winding Stair-case, the other Infundibulum, or Funnel.

The Modiolus forms the inner and larger portion of F 4 the

[PART IV.

the central Pillar, and is that Cavity seen in the bottom or outer extremity of the Meatus Auditorius Interms.

It lodges the Branch of the *Portio Mollis* of the Seventh Pair of Nerves which goes to the Cochlea, and is Cribriform, or full of small Holes, for the passage of the Twigs of that Branch.

The Modiolus consists of two Plates, with numerous Cells and Passages between them, and terminates in the middle of the second Gyrus of the Cochlea.

The Infundibulum is an imperfect Funnel, the Apex of which is common with that of the Modiohus, and the Base is covered by the Apex of the Cochlea, which is termed Cupola.

Between the Scalæ of the Cochlea there is a Partition, called Lamina Spiralis, or Septum Scalæ; the larger portion of which, next the Modiolus, is formed of Bone; the remainder, or that part next the opposite side of the Scalæ, is composed of a Cartilaginous Membrane, and termed by VALSALVA Zona Cochleæ.—This drops out by maceration, so as afterwards to leave only a partial Septum.

The Osseous part of the Lamina Spiralis is composed of two extremely thin Cribriform Plates, which gradually approach each other at their opposite edges, where they are perforated by numerous Holes.

The termination of the Lamina Spiralis, and of the Scala Tympani, forms a *Hamulus*, or small Hook, which projects into the Infundibulum.

One of the Canals or Scalæ of the Cochlea opens into the

**S**8

the under and fore part of the Vestible, and is termed Scala Vestibuli; this is not shut by any Membrane: The other, which is the smaller of the two, communicates with the Tympanum by the Fenestra Rotunda, but is shut in the Subject by a Membrane, and is called Scala Tympani.

The Partition between the two Gyri or Turns of the Cochlea, like the Osseous part of the Lamina Spiralis, is formed of *two Plates*, with a small *Cavity* between them.

The Volute, or Spiral of the Cochlea, begins below, runs forwards, and then round, so as to form, as has been already mentioned, two Circles or Turns and a half, the direction of the Gyri corresponding with those of the Shell of a Snail.

The Canals of the Cochlea are conical, becoming gradually smaller towards the Apex, where they communicate with each other, through the medium of the Infundibulum. This communication is called by CAS-SEBOHM, who gives the fullest Treatise upon the Ear, Canalis Scalarum Communis.

The Semicircular Canals are three in number,—the Superior or Vertical,—the Posterior or Oblique,—and the Exterior or Horizontal.

The Superior is placed transversely, in the upper part of the Pars Petrosa, with its convex side upwards.

The Posterior is farther back than the former one, and is parallel to the length of the Pars Petrosa, with the convex side turned backwards.—One of its extremities is placed above, and the other below, the upper extremity tremity joining with the internal one of the Vertical Canal, by which a common Passage is formed.

The *Exterior* is less than the other two, which are more of an equal size, is placed next the Tympanum, and has its extremities and curvatures nearly upon the same plane;—with the convex part of the curve placed backwards.

Each of the Canals forms upwards of three-fourths of a Circle, can admit the head of a small Pin, and has a slight Dilatation, an *Ampulla*, or *Cavitas Elliptica*, at one end, the other extremity being nearly of the same size with the rest of the Canal.

The Orifices are only five in number, two of the Canals having a common termination. Of these Orifices, three are situated at the inside, and two at the outside of the Vestible, into the posterior part of which they open, without being closed by any Membrane.

In the bottom of the Meatus Auditorius Internus, which is situated in the posterior Surface of the Pars Petrosa, there is a large under, and a small upper *Fossula*, separated by a sharp Ridge.

The fore part of the inferior Fossula leads towards the Cochlea, and is perforated with numberless *minute Holes*, through which branches of the Portio Mollis of the seventh Pair of Nerves pass to the Cochlea.

One Hole in the Centre, larger than the rest, transmits a Branch of that Nerve to the Infundibulum. This Hole, however, is frequently enlarged, in consequence of the Bone, which is extremely thin, being broken while preparing it.

In the back part of the inferior Fossula, three or four Cribriform

## PART IV.] OF THE EAR.

Cribriform Holes appear, for the transmission of Branches of that part of the Portio Mollis destined for the Vestible and Semicircular Canals.

In the upper Fossula of the Meatus Internus, there are *Two Passages*, one posterior and smaller, transmitting Nerves into the Elliptical Cavity of the Vestible.

The other, the anterior and larger, is termed *Canalis* vel *Aquæductus* FALLOPII,—from a resemblance it bears to an Italian Aqueduet; and serves for the transmission of the Portio Dura of the Seventh pair of Nerves.

The Canal of FALLOPIUS goes through the upper part of the Pars Petrosa, passes downwards and backwards between the Fenestra Ovalis and external Semieircular Canal, and terminates in the Foramen Stylo-Mastoideum.

In its passage through the Pars Petrosa, it communicates with the Foramen Innominatum, situated on the upper and fore part of the Petrous Process.

In Children, the Labyrinth is almost as large as in Adults, its Substance complete and hard, while the Bone which surrounds it is soft and spongy; on which account it is easily separated from the rest of the Pars Petrosa.

The different Cavities and Passages of the Labyrinth are lined with the Periosteum, which in the Vestible fills the Fenestra Ovalis, and of eonsequence covers the Base of the Stapes.

The Periostea lining the two Canals of the Cochlea form the Membranous portion of the Lamina Spiralis, which, together with the Osseous part, completes the Septum between the two Scalæ.

The Periosteum of the Coehlea also assists that of the Tympanum tremity joining with the internal one of the Vertical Canal, by which a common Passage is formed.

The *Exterior* is less than the other two, which are more of an equal size, is placed next the Tympanum, and has its extremities and curvatures nearly upon the same plane;—with the convex part of the curve placed backwards.

Each of the Canals forms upwards of three-fourths of a Circle, can admit the head of a small Pin, and has a slight Dilatation, an *Ampulla*, or *Cavitas Elliptica*, at one end, the other extremity being nearly of the same size with the rest of the Canal.

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In the bottom of the Meatus Auditorius Internus, which is situated in the posterior Surface of the Pars Petrosa, there is a large under, and a small upper *Fossula*, separated by a sharp Ridge.

The fore part of the inferior Fossula leads towards the Cochlea, and is perforated with numberless *minute Holes*, through which branches of the Portio Mollis of the seventh Pair of Nerves pass to the Cochlea.

One Hole in the Centre, larger than the rest, transmits a Branch of that Nerve to the Infundibulum. This Hole, however, is frequently enlarged, in consequence of the Bone, which is extremely thin, being broken while preparing it.

In the back part of the inferior Fossula, three or four Cribriform Cribriform Holes appear, for the transmission of Branches of that part of the Portio Mollis destined for the Vestible and Semicircular Canals.

In the upper Fossula of the Meatus Internus, there are *Two Passages*, one posterior and smaller, transmitting Nerves into the Elliptical Cavity of the Vestible.

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In Children, the Labyrinth is almost as large as in Adults, its Substance complete and hard, while the Bone which surrounds it is soft and spongy; on which account it is easily separated from the rest of the Pars Petrosa.

The different Cavities and Passages of the Labyrinth are lined with the Periosteum, which in the Vestible fills the Fenestra Ovalis, and of consequence covers the Base of the Stapes.

The Periostea lining the two Canals of the Cochlea form the Membranous portion of the Lamina Spiralis, which, together with the Osseous part, completes the Septum between the two Scalæ.

The Periosteum of the Cochlea also assists that of the Tympanum Tympanum in forming the Membrane of the Fenestra Rotunda, which is sometimes called *Membrana Tympani Secundarii*, from a resemblance to the Membrana Tympani, and from being also, like it, a little concave on the onter, and convex on the inner Surface, or where it faces the Scalæ to which it belongs.

Besides the Periostenni, the Vestible, Cochlea, and Semicircular Canals, contain a *Pulpy Membrane*, or there is a Membranous Labyrinth, upon which the Portio Mollis is irregularly dispersed.

In the Vestible, the Pulpy Membrane forms a Sac, in shape resembling that of the Osseous Cavity which contains it, and which is described and beautifully delineated by SCARPA.

When the Sac is laid open upon the upper and outer part, a *Partition* appears, partaking of the nature of the Sac, and termed by DR MECKEL Septum Vestibuli Nervoso-Membranaceum.

In the Cochlea, the Pulpy Membrane is in contact with the Periosteum, but can be separated from that Membrane without much difficulty.

In the Semicircular Canals, it is at some distance from the Periosteum of these Bones, and is considerably smaller; but, like them, it forms distinct Tubes, which communicate with the Vestible. Like the Osseous, the Membranous Canals also form Ampulke, or Elliptic Cavities, at one end.

The Arterics of the Labyrinth arise by one or two small Branches, chiefly from the Vertebral Artery, and pass through the Cribriform Plate, at the bottom of the Meatus Internus which belongs to the Labyrinth.

From

92

### PART IV.] OF THE EAR.

From the Labyrinth one or two Veins return, and terminate in the end of the Lateral Sinus.

The Cavity of the Vestible contains no Air, but is constantly filled with a *Watery Fluid*, called *Aqua Labyrinthi*, supposed to be secreted from the Arteries of the Periosteum, and which is found to resemble the Aqueous Humour of the Eye.

The Aqueous Fluid fills the Vestible and Scalæ of the Cochlea, and likewise surrounds the Membranous Semicircular Canals.

The Aqua Labyrinthi is considered as a medium by which sounds are communicated from the Membrane filling the round and oval Holes, and from the Base of the Stapes to the Pulpy Membrane placed in it.

The superfluous part of the Aqua Labyrinthi is supposed by COTUNNIUS to be carried off by two small Conical Ducts, more particularly described by him than by some preceding Anatomists, who were partly acquainted with them, but considered them as Bloodvessels.

One of the Aqueducts of COTUNNIUS, called Aquæductus Cochleæ, begins at the under part of the Scala 'Tympani, near the Fenestra Rotunda, and, after passing through the Pars Petrosa, is seen, in the Figures he gives of it, terminating by a wide triangular Opening, upon the Surface of the Dura Mater, between the passages of the Seventh and Eighth Pair of Nerves.

The other Duct, called Aquæductus Vestibuli, begins under the termination of the common Canal, in the Vestible, from which it descends, and terminates by a Triangular Opening between the Layers of the Dura Mater, Mater, behind the Meatus Internus, and half way between the npper edge of the Pars Petrosa and Diverticulum of the Internal Jugular Vein.

The Nerves of the Labyrinth are derived entirely from the Seventh Pair.

The Auditory Nerve is composed of two Branches, one of which is called Portio Dura, and is harder than the other, termed Portio Mollis.

The Trunk of the Auditory Nerve passes into the Meatus Internus, covered by the investing Membrane of the Brain.

The Portio Dura goes through the Canalis FALLOPH, sending off Branches through Perforations, in the sides of the Canal, to the Stapedius, and to the Mastoid Cells.

One *reflected Branch* passing through the Foramen Innominatum in the Pars Petrosa, forms a connection between the Portio Dura and the second part of the Fifth Pair.

Another, called *Chorda Tympani*, passes across the Cavity of the Tympanum, between the inferior Crus of the Incus and Handle of the Malleus, and, after running along the outside of the Eustachian Tube, joins the Lingual Branch of the Fifth Pair. In its passage, it supplies the Muscles of the Malleus, and Membranes, &c. of the Tympanum.

The remainder of the Portio Dura is dispersed upon the Face.

The *Portio Mollis* is divided into two principal parts, —one to the Cochlea, the other to the Vestible and Scmicircular Canals.

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The Branches of the Cochlea pass through the Cribriform Plates of the Modiolus, to the Pulpy Membrane lying on the Scalæ.

The Branches run between, and likewise on the outside of the Partitions which divide the Cochlea into Gyri, and the Gyri into Scalæ, and are large and numerous in proportion to the part they supply.

The largest and most numerous of these Branches are dispersed upon the Lamina Spiralis, where they form an intricate Plexus, the Threads of which are at first opaque, but are afterwards of the colour of the Retina of the Eye.

The Branches terminate, and appear also to meet, upon that part of the Pulpy Membrane which is most distant from the Modiolus.

Through the Cribriform Plate, common to the Modiolus and Infundibulum, the last Branches of this Portion of the Nerves pass to be spread out upon the Membrane lying within the Infundibulum.—For a particular description of that part of the Portio Mollis distributed to the Cochlea, and of the Cochlea itself, see Dn Monno's Treatise on the Ear.

Of that part of the Portio Mollis destined for the Vestible and Semicircular Canals, one Branch goes through the posterior Hole in the upper part of the Meatus Internus; the rest pass through the Holes in the under and back part of the Meatus, already pointed out in the description of that Passage.

Having perforated the Foramina, the Nerves are seen first in distinct Plexus, after which they become transparent, and are lost upon the Sac contained in the Vestible, tible, and upon the Ampulke of the Membranous Semicircular Canals.

The Portio Mollis is the Primary Part of the Organ of Hearing, to which all the other parts are subservient, and may be regarded as being of the same service to the Ear, as the *Retina* is to the Eye.

Sound is conveyed to the Portio Mollis, by the External Ear, by the small chain of Bones in the Tympanum, by the Membrana Tympani Secundarii, by the walls of the Tympanum and Labyrinth, by the Bones of the Head in general, and by the Aqua Labyrinthi, which communicates the tremor directly to the pulpy Substance of the Nerve.

OF

.96
# OF THE NOSE.

THE Nose, which constitutes the Organ of Smell, and contributes to the general purpose of Respiration, is divided into the External Prominent Part, and the Internal Cavity, which is separated by the Septum Narium into two smaller Cavities;—or it is divided into hard and soft Parts.

The External Part, or Nose properly so called, is composed superiorly of Bones, inferiorly of Cartilages, and has a partial Covering from the Muscles, and a general one from the Common Integuments.

On the outside of the Nose are observed,—the Radix, or upper part ;—the Dorsum, or middle prominence ; the Apex, or point ;—the  $Al\alpha$ , or lateral moveable parts ; and Columna, or under part of the Partition next the Upper Lip.

The Osseous Part of the Nose is formed by the Ossa Nasi, and Ossa Maxillaria, and Os Frontis, which form the upper and fore part :

VOL. II.

By

By the Os Ethmoides and Ossa Unguis, which form the upper, inner, and lateral parts :

And by the Ossa Maxillaria Superiora, Ossa Palati, Os Sphenoides, Ossa Spongiosa Inferiora, and Vomer, which form the under, inner, and back part.

The two Cavities, or Nostrils, terminate anteriorly in the Face, and posteriorly in the Fauces, and are much enlarged by the different Sinuses which communicate with them.

The under and fore part of the Nose consists of *Five Cartilages*, of a somewhat regular figure, and of some smaller pieces, which are more irregular, and of an indeterminate number.

Of the five Cartilages, one is situated in the middle, and the other four laterally.

The middle Cartilage is the most considerable, and supports the rest: It constitutes the Cartilaginous part of the Septum Narium, and is joined to the anterior edge of the Nasal Lamella of the Ethmoid Bone, to the anterior edge of the Vomer, and to the fore part of the Spinous Process of the Superior Maxillary Bones.

Of the lateral Cartilages, two are placed anteriorly, forming by their curved union the Tip of the Nose; and two posteriorly, which form the Alæ Nasi.

Between the anterior and posterior Cartilages, are Spaces filled with the additional Cartilages, the number, size, and figure, varying in different Bodies.

The Elasticity of the Cartilages contributes to the defence of the Nose against external injuries.

The Nose is covered by the Common Integuments, and perforated at its under and outer parts by the Ducts

of

PART IV.]

## OF THE NOSE.

of Sebaceous Glauds, the contents of which may be readily squeezed out by the pressure of the Fingers.

The Cartilages of the Nose are moved in different directions, by the following Muscles on each side, which have been already described; viz. the *Compressor Narium*, the *Nasal* part of the *Frontal* Muscle, and the *Levator* and *Depressor Labii Superioris Alæque Nasi.*—The Nose may also be moved by the neighbouring Muscles, which, in many instances, become assistants to the others.

The Internal Nares or Cavities of the Nose extend upwards to the Cribriform Plate of the Ethmoid, and to the Body of the Sphenoid Bone.

At the inner side, they are bounded by the Septum Narium, which is formed by the Nasal Lamella of the Ethmoid Bone, by the Vomer, and by the middle Cartilage of the Nosc.

On the outside, or that next the Cheek, the Ossa-Spongiosa project a considerable way into the Cavities of the Nares, and increase the Surface of the Membrane of the Nose, for enlarging the Organ of Smell; and in Animals which smell acutely, the Ossa Spongiosa are remarkably large and complex.

The bottom of the Nostrils runs directly backwards, so that a straight Probe may be passed through either of them to the Throat.

In the fore part of the Nostrils there are stiff Hairs, called *Vibrissæ*, which prevent the Mucus from constantly flowing, and insects or other extraneous matter from entering.

The general Cavity of each Nostril is divided by the G 2 Ossa Ossa Spongiosa into three Meatus, or Passages, which run from before backwards, and are described by HAL-LER according to their situations, viz.

The Meatus Narium Superior, placed at the upper, inner, and back part of the Superior Spongy Bone.

The Meatus Medius, situated between the Superior and Inferior Spongy Bones; and,

The *Meatus Inferior*, situated between the Inferior Spongy Bone and Bottom of the Nose.

The inside of the Nose is lined with a thick Spongy Substance, termed Membrana Mucosa, or Membrana Pituitaria of SCHNEIDER, or Membrana Schneideriana, which adheres to the Periosteum, and is also continued to the different Sinuses, to the Lacrymal Sacs and Palatine Ducts, to the Pharynx, Palate, and Eustachian Tubes.

This Membrane is very *Vascular* and *Nervous*, and is the Primary Organ of Smelling. It is constantly lubricated and preserved in a proper degree of moisture by the *Mucus* of the Nose, which is discharged from numerous small Follicles, every where dispersed over the Surface of that Membrane.

The *Passages* of the different Sinuses of the Bones of the Head, after having run obliquely backwards in a short winding direction, terminate by small openings in the Cavity of the Nose.

The Frontal Sinuses send Passages downwards into the anterior Ethmoid Cells, which terminate in the upper part of the Nose, behind the beginning of the Lacrymal Sacs.

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100

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# PART IV.] OF THE NOSE.

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Besides the Passages common to the Frontal Sinuses and anterior Ethmoid Cells, there are others proper to the posterior Ethmoid Cells, which terminate in the upper and back part of the Nose, near the openings of the Sphenoid Sinuses.

The Sphenoid Sinuses, open, behind the Cells of the Ethmoid Bone, into the upper and back part of the Nose.

The Maxillary Sinuses open at their upper and inner sides, each by one, and sometimes by two Passages, into the middle of the space between the Superior and Inferior Spongy Bones, nearly opposite to the under edge of the Orbit.

At the upper part of the Maxillary Sinuses, Appendices, described by HALLER, are sometimes found, which communicate with the Ethmoid Cells.

The Sides, or Walls of the Maxillary Sinuses, are formed of thin Plates of Bone, excepting where the Processes project, and give them additional strength; and below, the Bone is so thin between them and the Dentes Molares, that the roots of these Teeth are sometimes found to perforate the Septum.

The different Sinuses are lined with a continuation of the *Membrana Schneideriana*; but in these it is much thinner, and less Vascular and Nervous, than that part of it which lines the general Cavity of the Nose.

They are constantly moistened, but not filled with a Fluid.

The Sinuses increase and modulate the voice : Their hollow structure renders the Bones lighter ; they sepa-

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101

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rate a Fluid which assists in Inbricating the interio parts of the Nose; but they do not appear to constitute part of the Organ of Sniell.

Their Passages being directed backwards, prevent extraneous matter from getting into them.

Lacrymal Groove.—This is formed by the Superior Maxillary, Lacrymal, and Inferior Spongy Bones. In its descent, it runs a little obliquely backwards to the lower and lateral part of the Cavity of the Nose, where it terminates at the inner and fore part of the Antrum Maxillare, under the Os Spongiosum Inferius, a little behind the anterior extremity of that Bone, and in a direct line upwards from the second Dens Molaris.

The upper part of the Groove forms only a semicanal, the under end a complete one.

The Lacrymal Sac is a Membranous Canal, situated in the upper part of the Lacrymal Groove, behind the Tendon of the Orbicularis of the Eye-lids; about a fourth part of it above the Tendon, and forming a kind of Intestinum Cæcum, and the rest below it.

Towards the inner Angle of the Eye, behind the Tendon of the Orbicularis, the Sac is perforated by the Laerymal Duets.

The lower part of the Sac becoming a little narrower, but without forming any Valve, passes into the Nose, under the name of *Canalis Nasalis*, *Ductus ad Nasum*, or *Lacrymal Duct*, and terminates at the inferior extremity of the Osseous Canal.

The

102

## PART IV.] OF THE NOSE.

The Structure of the Lacrymal Sac and Duct is similar to that of the Membrana Schneideriana. They are defended by the same kind of Mucus with which this Membrane is lubricated, and are firmly connected to the Periosteum of the Osseous Canal.

The Use of this Passage is,—to convey the superfluous Tears to the Nose, so as to prevent them from passing over the Cheek.

The Ductus Incisious, vel Nasalo-Palatinus of STENO, is a small Canal, which, as has been already observed in the description of the Bones, is only sometimes met with in the Human Body, though it is always to be found in the Ox, Horse, Sheep, &c.

When present, it takes its Origin from a small Pit, formed in the fore part of the bottom of the Nostril, under the termination of the Lacrymal Duct. It runs obliquely downwards and forwards, placed in such a manner as to receive and conduct the Tears into the Mouth.

The Arteries of the Nose come chiefly from the External Carotids.

Those of the outer part of the Nose come from the Facial and Internal Maxillary Arteries;—those of the inner from the Internal Maxillary; and a few Twigs are furnished by the Ocular Arteries.

The Veins go to the External Jugulars. They likewise communicate with the Ocular Veins, and of course with the Lateral Sinuses and Internal Jugulars.

The Nerves with which the outer part of the Nose is chiefly supplied, come from the second Branch of G 4 the the Fifth, and from the Portio Dura of the Seventh Pair.

The inner part is principally supplied by the First Pair, or Olfactory Nerves, and by some Branches from the first and second portion of the Fifth Pair.

TABLE

104·

# OF THE MOUTH AND THROAT,

## WITH THEIR APPENDAGES.

#### MOUTH.

THE Osseous Parts of the Mouth arc,—the Ossa Maxillaria Superiora, the Ossa Palatı, the Maxilla Inferior, and the Teeth;—all of which, except the Teeth, have been already described.

The Soft Parts of the Mouth consist of the Lips and Cheeks, the Gums, the Palate, the Velum Palati, the Uvula, the Tongue, the Membrane lining, the Mouth, and the Salivary Glands.

The Lips and Cheeks, which are principally composed of Muscles, are covered on the outside by the common Integuments, and lined within by the Membrane of the Mouth, under which there are numerous Mucous Glands, obtaining their names from their situations.

The intervening space between the Masseter and Buccinator is occupied by a large quantity of Fat, which gives form to the Face.

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The *Membrane* of the Mouth is covered with fine *Villi*; but these are most conspicuous upon the edges of the Lips, as may be distinctly seen after a fine Injection, or after macerating the parts till the Cuticle can be separated.

106

From the edges of the Lips, the common Integuments, now become extremely thin, are converted into the Membrane which lines the Mouth, and which, opposite to the Dentes Incisores of the Upper and Under Jaws, forms two Doublings or *Fræna*, which fix the Lips more firmly to the Jaws.

The Lips are serviceable in the general purposes of Speaking, Eating, Drinking, &c.

The Gums cover the sides of the Alveolar Border of both Jaws, pass in between the different Teeth, and surround and adhere firmly to the Collar of each.

The Substance of the Gums is of a dense nature, and very Vascular, and the Vessels are united by a compact Cellular Substance.

They may be said to consist of the common Membrane of the Month and the Periosteum of the Jaws intimately connected.

They serve as a Covering to the Jaws, and contribute to the security of the Teeth.

The Arterics of the Lips, Cheeks, and Gums, are from the Facial, Temporal, and Internal Maxillaries, which are derived from the External Carotids.

The Vins go chiefly to the External, and partly to the Internal Jugulars.

The Nerves come from the first and second Branches

of

of the Fifth Pair, and also from the Portio Dura of the Seventh Pair.

The Palate is divided into the Palatum Durum and Palatum Molle. The former is composed of the Palate-Plates of the Upper Jaw, and is covered by the Periosteum and common Membrane of the Mouth, which prevent the Bones from being injured.

The Membrane which covers the Bones of the Palate forms numerous  $Rug\alpha$ , which assist in the division of the Food.

It is nearly of the same structure with that of the Gums, but perforated by the Ducts of the Palatine Glands, for the excretion of Mncus, which serves to lubricate the Palate, and assists in dissolving the Food.

The Palatum Molle, Velum Pendulum Palati, or Soft Palate, is that part which depends from the posterior edge of the Ossa Palati, and from the Pterygoid Processes of the Sphenoid Bone, and forms a Musculo-Membranous Partition between the Nose and Mouth.

It is composed of the Membranes which line the Nose and Mouth, and of the Expansions of the Circumflexus and Levator Palati, and likewise of numerous Mucous Glands, which serve to lubricate the Mouth and Throat, and facilitate Deglutition.

The Palatum Molle conducts the Fluids of the Nose into the Mouth, and acts like a Valve in preventing what we swallow from passing into the Nose.

In the middle of the Posterior edge of the Velum Palati, the *Uvula* or *Pap* of the Throat takes its origin, and hangs pendulous from the Velum over the root of the Tongue.

It

It is of a Conical form, and is covered by the Membrane of the Mouth. Numerous Mucous Glands are found in its Substance, and it has a small Muscle within it, by which it is elevated and shortened;—its other motions depending upon the Muscles of the Palate.

The Use of the Uvula in speaking and in Deglutition, is evident from the inconveniences which result from its being destroyed by disease.

The Arterics of the Palate, &c. come from the Facial and internal Maxillary.

The Veins go to the External and Internal Jugulars.

The Nerves are chiefly from the second of the Fifth, with some Twigs from the Eighth Pair.

# TONGUE.

The Tongue is of an Oval form, and is divided into Base, Body, and Apex.

The *Base*, or posterior part of the Tongue, is connected to the Os Hyoides, and, by the medium of this, to the adjacent Bones and Muscles.

The *Body*, or middle part of the **Tongue**, terminates anteriorly in the loose moveable point.

On the Dorsum or Upper Surface, there is a Linea Mediana, or middle Groove, running longitudinally, and dividing it into two lateral Convexities.

The inferior Surface, which reaches only from the middle of the Tongue to the point, is connected to the parts below it by the Sublingual Ligament, or Frænum Linguæ, which is a Doubling of the Skin or Lining of the Mouth.

The

The sides of the Tongue are fixed to the Lower Jaw and Styloid Processes, and parts adjacent, by Membranous Ligaments.

The Tongue is chiefly composed of the Fibres of the Muscles, which serve for its motions.—These Fibres are disposed in various directions, and intermixed with Medullary Fat.

The upper and lateral parts of the Tongue are composed of the Stylo-Glossi.—Its middle portion, between the two former Muscles, is formed of the Linguales.— The lower part is chiefly formed of the Genio-Glossi; —and behind, the Stylo-Glossi enter into its composition.

The Tongue is covered by a continuation of the common Integuments, which are preserved soft and moist by the Saliva.

The Cuticle of the Tongue forms Vaginæ for receiving the Substances called *Papillæ*.

The Corpus Mucosum of the Tongue is thicker than in other parts of the Body, but more moist.

The third Covering of the Tongue, the Cutis Vera, is very plentifully supplied with Nerves.—The Papillæ, which take their origin from it, are very Vascular, especially near the Apex of the Tongue, but are wanting on its under Surface.

The Papillæ are divided into three kinds, the Maximæ, Mediæ, and Minimæ.

The first class, called *Papillæ Maximæ*, *Lenticulares Capitatæ*, vel *Vallatæ*, are by much the largest, and of a Lenticular form, having round Heads and short Stems.

They

They are placed at the Base of the Tongue, in superficial Fossulæ, and the whole are arranged in such a manner as to form an Angle with its point backwards.

They are Glands of the Salivary kind, and have each of them a small Perforation in the middle of its convex Surface.

Besides the Papillæ Capitatæ, there are numerous Mucous Follicles, which cover the greater part of the Surface of the root of the Tongue.

At the root of the Tongue, and behind the Angle formed by the Papillæ Maximæ, there is a Hole called *Foramen Cæcum* of MORGAGNI, by whom it was first described.

It penetrates only a small way into the Substance of the Tongue, and receives the Mouths of several Excretory Ducts which terminate in it.

The second class, called *Papillæ Mediæ*, *Semi-lenti*culares, vel *Fungiformes*, are much smaller than the former, and are scattered over the upper Surface of the Tongue, at some distance from each other.

They are of a Cylindrical form, supported on a small Pedicle, and terminated by a round extremity.

The third class, called *Papillæ Minimæ*, vel *Conicæ*, vel *Villosæ*, are by much the most numerous, but very minute. They occupy almost the whole upper Surface of the Tongue, becoming gradually shorter at its sides, and are most abundant towards the Apex, where the sensation of taste is most acute.

This and the second class have been supposed to be formed chiefly of the extremities of Nerves, and to constitute the real Organ of Taste; though other parts, as the

the Palate, and even the Pharynx and Esophagus, possess the faculty of Taste in a certain degree.

The principal Blood-vessels of the Tongue are large in proportion to the size of that Organ.

They are called *Linguales*, vel *Raninæ*, on account of the dark-coloured Branches which appear under the Tongue.

The Arteries, which are Branches of the External Carotids, are not found to communicate so freely on the opposite sides of the Tongue, as they do in other parts of the Body.

The Veins open chiefly into the External Jugulars.

The Nerves, like the Arteries, are large and numerous, and have little connection on the opposite sides.

They come from the Fifth, Eighth, and Ninth Pairs.

The first set supply the parts next the point of the Tongue, and are therefore considered as being principally concerned in conveying the sensation of Taste.

The second set supply the root, and the third the middle of the Tongue, and are chiefly dispersed upon its Muscles. There is a considerable intermixture, however, between the three sets on the same side.

Besides being the principal Organ of Taste, the Tongue is the chief instrument of Speech, and of the articulation of the Voice.—It also assists in Manducation, Deglutition, Spitting, Sucking, &c.

## SALIVARY GLANDS.

The Salivary Glands consist of three large Glands on each side of the Face, viz.—the Parotid, the Submaxillary, lary, and the Sublingual,—besides many small Glands named from the parts to which they belong.

They are of a yellowish colour, and irregular on their Surface, being of the Conglomerate kind.

The Parotid Gland, which is the largest of the Salivary Glands, is named from its situation near the Ear.

It occupies the whole space between the Ear, Mastoid and Styloid Processes, and Angle of the Lower Jaw.

It extends superiorly to the Zygoma, and anteriorly to the Masseter, part of which it covers.

The under end of it lies contiguous to the Submaxillary Gland.

From the different parts of the Gland, numerous small Branches arise, which join together to form a large Duct, sometimes called STENO'S Salivary Duct, or Ductus Superior, which passes from the upper and fore part of the Gland.

The Parotid Duct is of a white colour, and large size, but, from the thickness of its Coats, the Cavity is small, in proportion to the general size of the Duct.

It traverses the Masseter about its middle height, and where the Muscle is tendinous; in consequence of which, it is free from compression, and descends a little to perforate the Buccinator, and Membrane of the Mouth, by an orifice without any Papilla, opposite to the second or third Dens Molaris of the Upper Jaw.

In crossing the Mässeter, it receives sometimes one, sometimes two minute Ducts, from an equal number of small Glands, called by HALLER Glandulæ Accessoriæ.

The Submaxillury Gland is smaller and rounder than

the

the Parotid, and is situated on the inside of the Angle of the Lower Jaw, between it and the Tendon of the Digastricus, and directly under the Platysma Myoides.

From the upper and fore part of this Gland, a Duct arises, called, by some Authors, *Ductus* WHARTONI, vel *Ductus Inferior*, which is much thinner in its coats than the former Duct, but longer.

It passes forwards between the Mylo-Hyoideus and Genio-Glossus, along the under and inner edge of the Sublingual Gland, to the side of the Frænum Linguæ, and terminates behind the Dentes Incisores, by a small Orifice in form of a Papilla.

The Sublingual Gland is smaller, longer, and softer than the Submaxillary, and is flat, and of an oval form.

It is situated under the anterior lateral portion of the Tongue, above the Duct of the Inferior Maxillary Gland, near the Lower Jaw, between the Mylo-Hyoideus and Genio-Hyo-Glossus; the former of which sustains it.

Its extremities are turned forwards and backwards, and the edges obliquely inwards and outwards.

It is covered by a continuation of the Skin of the under side of the Tongue, which fixes the Gland in its place.

It opens by several Orifices arranged in a line near the Gums, a little to the outside of the Frænum.

Sometimes this Gland sends off a Duct which communicates with that of the Submaxillary; but generally it is otherwise.

In many Quadrupeds, there is a distinct Duct belonging to this Gland, like that of the Submaxillary.

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Vol. II.

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The smaller Glands of the Mouth are in great numbers, lying between the inner Lining of the Mouth and its Muscles, and deriving their names from their situations.

They are much inferior in size to the former, each forming a simple little Lobe, which is somewhat flattened, or Lenticular. Each Gland sends out a Duct, which perforates the Skin of the Mouth, and opens into its Cavity. They consist of—

The Buccales, which are dispersed over the whole of the Check, but most plentifully near the termination of the Parotid Duct;

The *Molares*, which are in a Group, and are part of the Buccal, situated opposite to the large superior Dentes Molares;

The Labiales, lying on the inside of the Lips;

The Palatina, upon the Palate; and,

The Linguales, at the root of the Tongue.

The Arteries of the Salivary Glands are from different Branches of the External Carotids.

The Parotid Gland is supplied from the Temporal, the Inferior Maxillary Gland from the Facial, and the Sublingual Gland from the Lingual Artery.

The Veins of these Glands go to the External Jugulars.

The Nerves are chiefly from the third part of the Fifth, and from the Portio Dura of the Seventh Pair.

The Salivary Glands serve for the secretion of the Saliva, which they pour out in large quantity, and which is promoted by the motion of the Lower Jaw. The Sa-

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114

liva assists in the solution of the Food in the Mouth, in lubricating the Throat for its passage downwards, and in the digestion of it in the Stomach.

#### OF THE TEETH.

OF THE STRUCTURE OF THE TEETH IN THE APULT.

THE Teeth are situated in the Alveoli of the Jaws, and are sixteen in number in each Jaw.

Each Tooth consists of a *Base* or *Body*, and one or more *Roots* or *Fangs*; the former appearing without, the latter within the Sockets.

Around the Surface, where the Body ends and the Root begins, the Tooth is a little depressed where it forms the *Cervix* or *Collar* of the Tooth.

The Roots are of a Conical form, becoming gradually smaller as they recede from the Body of the Tooth, in consequence of which, pressure is removed from the tender parts placed at their points, and divided equally over the Surface of the Fangs.

Upon the Body of each Tooth, there is an additional Covering, termed *Cortex Striata*, or *Enamel*, which is spread over all that part of the Tooth that, in the healthy state, is not covered by the Gums. The Enamel has no Cavity for Marrow, and is so hard, that a Saw or a File impresses it with difficulty.

The action of Fire does not much affect its colour. It is almost completely dissolved in the Acids.

It is thicker towards the Body, and becomes gradually thinner towards the Cervix of the Tooth.

It is composed of Fibres so disposed as to form Radii round the Body of the Tooth; or they are nearly perpendicular to its Surface.

The Fibres are straight on the cutting Edges and grinding Surfaces of the Bodies, but eurved at the sides, with their convex part turned towards the Fangs of the Teeth, which better enables them to resist the impression of hard Substanees placed between them during Manducation; nor are they, from this structure, so easily fractured by the inordinate motion of the Jaws.

At the point of each of the Roots of the Teeth, there is a *Foramen*, and a passage leading from it into a common Cavity in the Body of the Tooth, for lodging the Substance called *Pulp* of the Teeth.

The Foramen is placed towards one side of the point, which prevents the Vessels and Nerves entering from being injured by pressure.

In old People, the Foramen is sometimes obliterated; in such eases the Vessels and Nerves are destroyed.

The shape of the Cavity resembles that of the Body of the Tooth, being narrow next the Fangs, and gradually expanding towards the opposite extremity.

The Cavity has no Cancelli nor Marrow, being filled with

with the Pulp, which is inclosed in a fine Membrane, connected to the Tooth by Cellular Substance.

The Pulp consists of minute Vessels and Nerves, intermixed with Gelatinous Matter, the remains of that which gave origin to the Tooth.

The Arteries of the Teeth, called Dental, are Branches of the Internal Maxillary; the Veins returning from them pass into the Internal Jugular Veins.

After the Arteries have entered the Teeth, they are dispersed upon the Membrane which lines their Cavity, as may be seen by injecting them ;—by the appearance produced by age, the Cavity in old People often filling up with Osseous Matter, and the Teeth acquiring a horny transparency ;—by accident, as when a Tooth is loosened by a blow, the Tooth being sometimes fixed again in its Socket, at other times becoming black, from its nourishing Vessels being destroyed ;—by disease, as in Anchylosis of the Roots of the Teeth, or in some rare cases, of the Roots of one Tooth to those next it ; —but especially by the Blood which is observed by Dentists to issue from the Cavity of the Teeth in sawing them across, for the purpose of fixing other Teeth.

The Nerves of the Teeth are from the Fifth Pair, those of the Teeth of the Upper Jaw being from the Second, and those of the Teeth of the Lower Jaw from the Third Branch of that Pair.

In the Upper Jaw, the Nerves enter through various parts of the Ossa Maxillaria Superiora. 'In the under Jaw, the Trunk which furnishes the Dental Nerves is lodged in the inferior Maxillary Canal.

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The Nerves which supply the Teeth, though small, can be observed to enter the Foramina at the points of the Fangs, and by properly preparing the Teeth, can be distinctly traced in their Osseous Canals.

The Absorbents of the Teeth have not been seen, but their existence is proved,—by the Absorption of the Fangs of the Temporary Teeth during the second Dentition;—the removal of part of the Teeth in consequence of ulceration within them; and the disappearing of part of the Internal Substance of the Teeth of such large Animals as the Elephant, where the Tusks have been found with extraneous Bodies forced into, and lodged within them.

The Substance of the Osseous part of the Teeth is like that of Bone in other parts of the Body, differing only in being harder and more dense, in having its Fibres generally in a longitudinal direction, and in having a partial covering from the Enamel.

The Teeth are fixed in their Sockets by Gomphosis, and attached to the Alveoli by a strong Periosteum. This Periosteum lines the Sockets, and is reflected upon the Fangs as far as the Necks of the Teeth, where it is intimately connected with the Gums.

The Teeth serve to masticate the Aliment, to assist in pronouncing several of the Letters, and are ornamental to the Face.

Analysis

Analysis of the Teeth, as made by MR PEPYS of London.—See MR Fox's Natural History of the Human Teeth.

100 parts of Enamel yielded,	
Phosphat of Lime, -	78
Carbonat of Lime,	6
Water of composition and loss,	16

100 parts of the Osseous Substance yielded,Phosphat of lime,-Carbonat of Lime,-Gelatine,---Water of composition and loss,10

100

100

So far the Teeth agree in their general structure; but, in consequence of certain differences among them, they are in each Jaw divided into four classes, viz. Four Incisores, Two Cuspidati, Four Bicuspidati, and Six Molares.

The Incisores, or Cutting Teeth, are placed in the fore part of the Jaw, and have their Bodies formed into Wedges, sloped out behind. Viewed anteriorly, their cutting edges appear broader than the rest of the Tooth; when seen in a lateral direction, they appear thicker towards their roots. Their Fangs, when taken laterally, H 4 appear broader than when examined in their anterior and posterior Surfaces. Each of these Teeth has a single Fang.

Their Enamel is thicker on their anterior and posterior Surfaces than at the sides, where it is remarkably thin, and thicker before than on the back part of the 'Tooth.

The middle Incisores of the Upper Jaw are the broadest of the Incisores, while the lateral Incisores of the Under Jaw are larger than the middle ones.

The Cuspidati, or Canine Teeth, are placed at the sides of the Incisores, and, like them, have their Bases in form of Wedges, but pointed in the middle.

The Enamel covers more of these Teeth than of the Incisores, and is more equal in thickness all round the Teeth.

The Fangs are thicker, larger, and more depressed at the sides, than those of the Incisores, and appear broadest when viewed in a lateral direction.

The Fangs being the largest of any of the Teeth, project more in the Jaw, as is obvious both to the sight and touch; hence the Incisores and Canini are almost in a straight line, especially in the Under Jaw. They have each commonly but one long root, though in some rare cases two, and are crooked at the point. They resemble the Tusks of Carnivorous Quadrupeds, especially those of the Dog tribe, from which they have got their name.

The two of the Upper Jaw are a little larger and longer, and have their roots more crooked than those of the under one.

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120

In the Upper Jaw, they are placed immediately under the Orbitar Plates, and are termed *Eye-Teeth*, from a supposed connection with the Eyes. The two below are placed almost as deep as the Base of the Bone, and are called *Angular Teeth*, from supporting the Angles of the Mouth.

The Bicuspidati, formerly termed Small Molares, or First and Second Grinders, are situated behind the Cuspidati, and bear in intermediate resemblance between these and the Molares.

Viewed in the Jaws, they are somewhat like each other, and not unlike the Cuspidati. The Body of each has two points upon its grinding Surface, one external, the other internal; and those in the Upper Jaw are nearly upon a level. In the Under Jaw the points project most on the outside of the Teeth.

The Enamel is nearly equal in thickness round the Body of the Tooth, but is thinner at the sides than on the Cuspidati.

The Fangs resemble two Fangs united, with a depression between them; sometimes, however, the Bicuspidati of the Upper Jaw have distinct roots.

The Bicuspidati of the Under Jaw are smaller than those of the upper one, the points on their grinding Surfaces are not so distinct, and the Teeth themselves have a slight inclination inwards in the Jaws.

The Molares, formerly termed Large Molares, are behind the Bicuspidati, are the largest of the Teeth, and have broad Bases with several points. The roots divaricate from each other, and have partitions of the Sockets between them, which assist in lessening the pressure pressure on their points during Manducation. They have thinner Enamel than the other Teeth.

The first of the Molares of the Under Jaw has five, and each of the other has four points.

Each has two roots, one placed forwards, the other backwards, and these are flat and broad, their flat Surfaces facing anteriorly and posteriorly. Sometimes there are three roots.

In the Upper Jaw, the first Molaris has four, and each of the others only three points.

In the two anterior Molares of the Upper Jaw, there are generally three roots, of which two are on the outer side; the third is on the inner side, and placed obliquely, and is the largest and roundest of the three. Sometimes, though rarely, there are four roots.

The Molares above have a perpendicular direction in respect to the Jaw, those below have an inclination inwards, which should be attended to by Dentists in the extraction of the Teeth.

The backmost Molares are termed Dentes Sapientia, from appearing later than the rest of the Teeth.

They are smaller than the other Molares, and have generally fewer roots; these are often quite indistinct, as if squeezed together; and frequently there is only a single Fang.

The Dentes Sapientiæ of the Under Jaw have frequently curved roots, and are sometimes placed so obliquely inwards, as scarcely to appear beyond the Gums.

The Incisores of the Upper Jaw being for the most part much broader than those of the under one, the other

other Teeth are thrown farther back than the corresponding Teeth of the Under Jaw; in consequence of which, in well-formed Teeth, when the Jaws are shut, the Teeth of the Upper Jaw are opposed to the Interstices of the Teeth of the Under one, and the third Molares of the Upper Jaw being smaller than those of the Under, allow the Teeth to close even at their posterior parts.

By such a construction, the Teeth are properly adapted to the Manducation of the Food, and one Tooth being lost, its opponent remains useful, by acting upon the parts of the Teeth immediately opposed to it.

## OF THE TEMPORARY TEETH.

IN a Fœtus of three or four Months after conception, the Jaws are distinctly formed; but in place of Sockets, there are Grooves running along the Jaws, with impressions within them, forming the origins of the future Alveoli.

The Grooves are narrow and deep at the fore part of the Jaws, and become wider and more shallow towards their posterior extremities.

In the bottom of the Groove of the Lower Jaw, the Inferior Maxillary Vessels and Nerves are placed, which have afterwards a Canal peculiar to themselves.

Within the Alveolar Grooves, there are, at this time, Ridges which gradually extend from the bottom and inner sides, forming Arches; and the Cavities becoming deeper, their external Openings contract, till, at the time time of birth, they are almost closed. In consequence of this, cousiderable pressure can be made in the time of Suction, without injuring the tender Teeth they contain.

The Alveoli of the Molares are produced directly before the roots of the Coronoid Processes of the Under Jaw, and in the Bulges or Tubers of the Upper Jaw, and come forwards as the Jaws increase in length and size.

In a Fœtus of about four Months, small Pulpy Processes are found to proceed from the inner Surface of the Gums, and to be lodged in the Alveolar Grooves of both Jaws. These are the Rudiments of the future Teeth.

At this time they are of a Gelatinous or Pulpy nature, resembling in shape the Bodies of the Teeth which are to be formed in them; each contained in a Membranous Capsule proper to itself.

By degrees the Pulp becomes firmer, and extremely Vascular, and having increased to near the size of the Body of the Tooth, Bone is deposited upon its extreme points by the Blood-vessels, the Pulp itself continuing to grow for some time after this.

About the fifth or sixth Month, Bone begins to appear on that part of the Surface which is afterwards to form the cutting Edges and grinding Surfaces, and in as many points as there are Eminences on the Pulp.

The Ossification begins in the Incisores at three points, and in the other Teeth at points corresponding with the number of the future points of the Teeth.

The Osseous points gradually increase, unite, and form

124

form a Layer of Bone, which extends over the Surface of the Pulp to the Necks of the Teeth.

Between the eighth and ninth Month, Ossification is considerably advanced in all the Pulps, and,

In the full grown Fœtus, the outer Shells of five Teeth in each side of each Jaw are found, which are termed *Temporary*, *Deciduous*, *Shedding*, or *Milk Teeth*.

Of these there are in each side two *Incisores*, one *Cuspidatus*, and two *Molares*; besides, there is the Shell of the Anterior Permanent Molaris; but the whole of the Temporary Teeth are much smaller than the corresponding classes of Teeth in the Adult.

In the Upper Jaw, the points or eminences of the Shells correspond with the depressions in the Teeth of the Under Jaw.

After the outer Shell of a Tooth is formed, the Osseous Matter gradually penetrates the greater part of the Pulp, and, having completed the Body, it contracts, and forms the *Cervix* of the Tooth.

Having formed the Cervix, the Cavity of the Tooth is by degrees diminished, and in proportion as it is lessened, part of the Pulp is pushed out or elongated, and assumes the part of the respective Fang. Upon this Pulp also Bone is deposited.

While the Fang is extending, the Socket is found to accommodate itself to it, by extending along with it till the Fang is completed.

Where there are two or more Fangs, the Osseous Fibres shoot across at the Cervix, and form the beginuing of these, after which the Ossification of each Fangadvances advances in the same manner as that of a Tooth with a single root.

At birth, the Capsnles containing the Pulps of the Teeth can be separated into two Membranes, the external of which is of a Spongy and somewhat Vascular nature, and adheres to the Gums, while the internal, smoother and firmer than the former, and extremely Vascular, adheres to the Pulp.

The Membrane of the Pulp derives its Vessels from those of the Gums, the Pulp receives its Vessels from those which enter the Foramina at the points of the Fangs.

The Membrane containing the Pulp is firmly attached to the inside of the Gum, and to the Basis of the Pulp, and has the same form with the Tooth it incloses.

The Vascularity of the Pulp is shewn by injection, as is also that of the Membrane by which it is covered; and this appearance is rendered still more evident by examining the growing Teeth of large Animals, as those of the Elephant.

That part of the Pulp has the most Vascular appearance which is covered with Bone, but the Osseous Shell is found to adhere so slightly to the Pulp, as to be readily separated from it without apparent laceration.

The Osseous Matter of a Tooth is formed in Strata, one Layer being added within another, till the Tooth is completed.

After the Osseous Substance is formed, the Enamel is added, which increases in thickness, till within a little while

123

while of the time at which the Tooth begins to pass through the Gum.

The Enamel is secreted by the Capsule which contains the Pulp, soon after the Osseous Shell has begun to be formed. It is always thickest where first deposited; of course, it is thicker upon the Body than upon the Cervix of the Tooth.

The Enamel is secreted in the form of a pure white earthy Substance, moistened with a Mucilage, and has much the appearance of crystallization.

The deposition of the Enamel continues nearly as long as the Teeth are contained in their Capsules. It is at first, and even for some time after birth, so soft, as to be little firmer than Chalk, being easily scraped by the Nail, but soon acquiring a flinty hardness and a striated appearance.

After the Bodies of the Teeth have attained their full size, no addition of Substance is made to the Enamel, the Membrane which produces it being destroyed previous to the appearance of the Teeth beyond the Gums. The Osseous part of the Teeth, on the contrary, continues to grow for a considerable time afterwards, one third of the length of the Fangs being added, after the Teeth have first appeared in the Mouth.

While the Teeth are extending in their Sockets, they press upon their Capsules, and occasion an absorption of them; the remains of the Capsules surround the Necks of the Teeth, and are gradually removed as the Tooth is completed.

ORIGIN

127

# ORIGIN OF THE PERMANENT TEETH.

The Permanent Incisores and Cuspidati succeed-to the Temporary Incisores and Cuspidati; they are similar in form to these, but much larger; but the Temporary Molares are succeeded by the Bieuspides, which are much smaller.

When the Rudiments of the Temporary Teeth are somewhat advanced, a New Sac is sent off at the under and inner part of the Saes of the Temporary Teeth of the Upper Jaw, and at the upper and inner part of the corresponding Sacs of the Under Jaw, the new Sacs lying between those of the Temporary Teeth and the Internal Alveolar Plate, each being on the inner side of the Tooth it is to succeed, and connected to the Gum. See Dr Blake's Thesis, Edin. 1798.

These Sacs are at first contained in the same Soekets with the Temporary Teeth, and are loosely connected with the Membranes of these.

By degrees, little Nitches are formed in the internal Alveolar Plate, and these gradually form a distinct Socket round each of the Saes.

When the Temporary Teeth have advanced in their Sockets, the Saes of the Permanent Teeth become elongated, but still remain attached to the Sacs and Gums at the Necks of the Temporary Teeth, by means of Processes which pass through small Foramina at the inner edge of the Jaw.

At the time of birth, Ossification has commenced upon the anterior Permanent Molaris, and there are small Membranous

Membranous Sacs, containing a Pulp with the Rudiments of the other two Molares. Ossification commences upon their tips some time after, but always first in the lower Jaw.

The second Permanent Molaris is formed from the first in the same manner as the other Permanent Teeth are formed from the Temporary Set. A small Sac is sent back, which is at first contained in the same Socket with the Pulp of the first Molaris; a new Socket is afterwards formed, in which the Pulp of the second Molaris becomes perfect; this, in a similar way, sends off another Process, in which the Third Molaris is formed.

## OF THE APPEARING OF THE TEMPORARY TEETH.

The Temporary Teeth generally begin to appear beween the sixth and eighth Month after Birth, the corcesponding Teeth commonly appearing about the same time, first in the Under, then in the Upper Jaw, though they frequently appear a little sooner, and often consi-Herably later than this period.

They commonly appear in the following order: First, one of the Central Incisores of the Under Jaw, and soon after the other one; a few weeks afterwards, the Central Incisores of the Upper Jaw pass through; these are soon succeeded by the Lateral Incisores of the Un-Her Jaw, and then by those of the Upper one.

About the sixteenth or eighteenth Month, the antetior or small Molares of the Under Jaw appear, and are succeeded by those of the Upper Jaw.

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The Cuspidati come next in order, and first those of the Under Jaw, which are soon followed by those of the Upper Jaw.

About the end of the second Year, or a little later, the second, or posterior, or large Molares, appear, which complete the first Set; though to the above rule there are many exceptions.

## OF THE FORMATION OF THE PERMANENT TEETH.

The anterior Permanent Molares are first formed, the Pulps being found in the Fœtus previous to its birth, and are situated in the back part of the Jaws.

The Permanent Incisores and Cuspidati are formed on the inner side of the Temporary Incisores and Cuspidati, in Capsules peculiar to themselves, but in the same Sockets with the Temporary Set.

The Bicuspidati are formed at the roots of the Temporary Molares, small Osseons Partitions being found between the two Sets.

At the time of birth, Ossification has commenced upon the anterior Permanent Molares; and there are small Membranous Sacs containing a Pulp, with the Rudiments of all the other Molares. Ossification commences upon the tips some time after, but always first in the Under Jaw.

By degrees, as the Alveoli increase in size, the Permanent Teeth get Sockets of their own, as is seen by removing the outer Alveolar Process in a Child of about four years of age.

At this period, the Ossification of the Incisores, Cuspidatus;

pidatus, first Bicuspidatus, and first Molaris, in each side, is much advanced; the second Molaris is also partly formed, and soon after the Ossification of the second Bicuspidatus commences.

About six years of age, all the Permanent Teeth, excepting the Dentes Sapientiæ, have made considerable progress. Twenty now are commonly seen without the Gums, which are to be succeeded by twenty-eight, that at this time lie concealed in the Jaws.

In the eighth or ninth year, the Dentes Sapientia begin to be formed.

# OF THE SHEDDING OF THE TEMPORARY, AND THE AP-PEARING OF THE PERMANENT TEETH.

About seven years of age is the common time at which Children begin to shed their Teeth, though some shed their Teeth a little sooner, others considerably later than this period; and it not unfrequently happens, that some of the first Set remain in the Jaws to adult, or even old age.

The anterior Permanent Molares first appear, soon after the Temporary Central Incisores of the Under Jaw are removed, and are succeeded by the Permanent Central Incisores, one coming a little while before the other; then the Central Incisores of the Upper Jaw come out, and the Permanent Central Incisores succeed them.

Next the Lateral Incisores are succeeded by the Permanent ones.

Then the first or anterior Temporary Molares come out, and are succeeded by the anterior Bicuspides.

Then

Then the second Temporary Molares and Cuspidati. are succeeded by the posterior Bicuspidati and the Permanent Cuspidati; the whole shedding of the Teeth occupying a space of five or six years.

The Dentes Sapientiæ do not appear till between the eighteenth and twenty-first year; sometimes, however, they appear a year or two sooner, and frequently not till some years later.

The number of the Teeth does not increase till between the sixth and eighth year, when the Teeth that first made their appearance through the Gums are shed, and replaced by others, and more soon begin to appear farther back in the Jaws.

The second Set of Teeth, it is found, contrary to the opinion of former times, do not push out the first, the second Set being formed in Sockets of their own, and the Fangs of the first Set gradually decaying as the succeeding Teeth grow; the decaying of the Fangs of the first Set being in proportion to the decay of the first Set of Sockets.

The Permanent Teeth arise in Sockets appropriated to themselves, and are inclosed in these Sockets after the Temporary Teeth have been shed.

During the growth of the Permanent Teeth, absorption proceeds in the Fangs of the Temporary Set, which facilitates their removal from the Sockets, and affords a Passage for the Permanent Teeth.

While the Permanent Teeth increase in size, they occupy more space, come forwards, produce a pressure against the Bony Partitions placed between them and the Temporary Teeth, and then against the posterior Surface
## PART IV.] OF THE MOUTH, &c.

Surface of the roots of these Teeth, till at length the greater portion, or the whole of the parts pressed against, are absorbed.

The Permanent Teeth now come forwards under the Temporary Set, which, by the pressure being continued, soon drop out.

Besides the causes mentioned above, with respect to the shedding of the Teeth, others contribute; for now and then the Temporary Teeth drop out long before the Permanent Teeth appear, and sometimes where they never appear.

That absorption of the first Set is much influenced; however, by pressure on the second Set, is rendered probable, from the instances where one or more of the Temporary Teeth have been observed remaining in the Jaws for many years, and where, upon examination, no Permanent Teeth have been found to be formed.

OF THE GROWTH OF THE JAWS.

After all the Temporary Teeth have appeared through the Gums, the Jaws are observed to grow little in the parts the Teeth occupy.

The Lower Jaw receives its greater increase between the second Temporary Molaris and the Coronoid Process, the lengthened part being destined for the Permanent Molares.

The Temporary Incisores and Cuspidati being much smaller than the Permanent, while the Temporary Molares are larger than the Bicuspidati which succeed

13

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them, space is gained for the Front Teeth, which otherwise would be distorted in the Jaws.

The Jaws grow uniformly throughout for about a year after birth, and as far as the Teeth extend, form nearly half of a circle; after all the Temporary Teeth have appeared, the Jaws elongate, so that in the Adult they form half of a long Ellipsis.

The extension which takes place between the last Temporary Molaris and the Coronoid Process, and in the corresponding parts of the Upper Jaw, continues to increase till the eighteenth or twentieth year, the anterior part of the Jaw adapting itself to the Permanent Teeth, but scarcely receiving any additional size.

# OF THE THROAT.

THE Throat consists of the Arches of the Palate, of the Pharynx and Larynx, with the Muscles, Vessels, Nerves, &c. which surround them.

The Arches of the Palate are two in number in each side of the Throat, one of which is termed the Anterior, the other the Posterior Arch.

They are formed of a Doubling of the Skin, with a few scattered Muscular Fibres.

The Anterior Arch arises from the middle of the Velum Palati, at the side of the Uvula, and is fixed to the edge of the Base of the Tongue.

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# PART IV.] OF THE MOUTH, &c.

The Posterior Arch has its Origin likewise from the side of the Uvula, and passes downwards, to be inserted into the side of the Pharynx.

The Anterior Arch contains the Circumflexus Palati, and, with its fellow on the opposite side, forms the opening into the Throat, called *Isthmus Faucium*.

The Posterior Arch has within it the Levator Palati. Between the Anterior and Posterior Arches, and close by the sides of the Base of the Tongue, the Amygdalæ, Tonsils, or Almonds of the Ears, are situated.

They are of a reddish colour, of the figure of Almonds, full of Cells, which communicate with each other, and have large irregular Openings, which convey Mucus into the Throat; the discharge of which is promoted by the motion of the surrounding parts.

# PHARYNX.

The *Pharynx*, so called from its conveying Food to the Stomach, and Air to the Lungs, is a large Muscular Bag, in form of an irregular Funnel, with the Tube termed *Esophagus* descending from it, and forming the under end of that Funnel.

It is bounded above by the Cuneiform Process of the Occipital Bone, the Pterygoid Processes of the Sphenoid Bone, and back part of the Jaws; with all of which it is intimately connected.

The anterior Margins of its Fleshy parts are connected to the edges of the Larynx, and its sides are covered by the great Blood-vessels of the Neck.

The fore part of the Pharynx is formed by a Mem-I 4 brane brane common to it and to the back part of the Larynx.

Behind, it lies flat upon the Cervical Vertebræ, and upon the Muscles which cover the fore part of the sides of these Vertebræ.

It has several Openings by which it communicates with the neighbouring Cavities.

Two of these lead upwards and forwards by the posterior Nares into the Nose; two go laterally by the Eustachian Tubes to the Ears; one passes forwards through the large Opening termed Fauces, or Top of the Throat, to the Mouth; one goes downwards and forwards through the Larynx and Trachea, to the Lungs; and another directly downwards by the Esophagus to the Stemach.

The Pharynx is surrounded by a loose Cellular Substance, and consists of different Layers of Muscles, called *Constrictores Pharyngis*, which have been already described.

On the inner side, it is lined by the continuation of the Membrane of the Mouth, which is perforated by the Ducts of numerous Glands, for the secretion of Mucus.

The lower end of the Pharynx, opposite to the under edge of the Cricoid Cartilage, describes a complete Circle, which forms the beginning of the Esophagus.

The Pharynx is supplied with Blood by the Pharyngeal Branches, which come directly or indirectly fro.n the External Carotids.—It returns its Blood to both Jugular Veins.—Its Nerves are from the Eighth Pair.

The Pharynx receives the Aliments from the Mouth, and,

# PART. IV.] OF THE MOUTH, &c.

and, by the action of its Muscles, conveys them to the Esophagus. It must likewise assist in the modification of the Voice.

### LARYNS.

The Larynx, so called from its being the principal Organ of Voice, is situated at the upper and fore part of the Neck, immediately under the Os Hyoides, which is placed at the root of the Tongue.

It is composed of Cartilages, Muscles, Ligaments, Membranes, and Mucous Glands; and is connected above to the Tongue and Os Hyoides, and behind to the Pharynx.

The Cartilages of the Larynx are generally considered as being Five in number, though, besides these, some choose to enumerate small Projections which are connected with them.

The Five Cartilages are,—the Thyroid, the Cricoid, the Two Arytenoid, and the Epiglottis.

The *Thyroid*, *Scutiform*, or *Shield-like Cartilage*, is placed at the upper and fore part of the Larynx, and is the largest of the whole.

When spread out, it is of an oblong shape; but, in the natural situation, it consists of two lateral Wings or Portions, of a quadrangular form, uniting before in a longitudinal Angle, which can be readily felt in the fore part of the Throat, and which, from its projecting more in Men than in Women, has obtained the name of *Pomum Adami*.

The upper part of the Angle is formed into a Notch, from

# OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

from which, and from the upper edge of the Cartilage in general, a *broad Ligament* ascends, to fix it to the under part of the Os Hyoides.

From the posterior corners four Processes project, called *Cornua*, two of which, termed *Superior*, are long, and ascend to be joined by round Ligaments to the extremities of the Cornua of the Os Hyoides.

In the middle of these Ligaments, one or two small Cartilaginous, or even Osseous Substances, of an oval form, are frequently found.

The other two Cornua, called *Inferior*, are shorter than the Superior, and curved backwards, to be fixed by smooth articulating Surfaces to the sides of the Cricoid Cartilage.

The Thyroid Cartilage serves for the protection of the other Cartilages, and, along with the Os Hyoides, preserves the passage open, for the transmission of Food to the Stomach.

In old age, this Cartilage is frequently ossified.

The Cricoid, Annular, or Ring-like Cartilage, is placed below, and also behind the Thyroid, and, like it, may be readily felt in the fore part of the Throat.

It is narrow before, where it lies under the Thyroid Cartilage, and thick, broad, and strong posteriorly, where it is placed behind that Cartilage.

Its posterior Surface is divided by a *Ridge* into *two lateral Cavities*, for the reception of the posterior Crico-Arytenoid Muscles.

Its under edge is horizontal, and fixed to the whole circumference of the beginning of the Trachea.

The upper edge slants considerably, or rises between the

# PART IV.] OF THE MOUTH, &c.

the wings of the Thyroid Cartilage, and has its anterior parrow part fixed to the under edge of that Cartilage.

It has four small Articular Surfaces, with distinct Capsular Ligaments, of which two are placed above, for the articulation of the Arytenoid Cartilages, and two at the under and lateral parts, for the connection of the inferior Cornua of the Thyroid Cartilage.

The Cricoid Cartilage forms part of the general Tube of the Trachea, constitutes the Base of the Larynx, and gives a firm support to the Arytenoid Cartilages.

The two Arytenoid Cartilages are much smaller than the other Cartilages, and are placed upon the upper, posterior, and lateral parts of the Cricoid Cartilage, at a small distance from each other.

They are of a *triangular* form, and a little twisted, and are bent back, so as to have a broad concave Surface behind.

Their upper extremities, or Cornua, are turned towards each other, and are now and then found loose in the form of Appendices, which are considered by some Authors as distinct Cartilages, and termed *Cuneiform* or *Tuberculated*.

Their Bases are broad and hollow, where they are articulated by Capsular Ligaments with the Cricoid Cartilage, upon which they are moved in different directions, by the action of various Muscles.

They are connected to each other, and to the adjacent Cartilages, by different Muscles and Ligaments.

The Arytenoid Cartilages form a part of the Opening called *Glottis*, and give attachment to its Ligaments.

The Epiglottis, obtaining its name from its situation above

above the Glottis, is of an oval form when surrounded by its Ligaments and Membranes; but when divested of these, it is found to be narrow below, broad above, and rounded, and slightly notched, at its upper extremity.

It is convex towards the Tongue, and concave towards the Glottis, with its point reflected a little forwards.

It is placed behind the upper part of the Thyroid Cartilage, is situated obliquely over the Glottis, and may be seen and examined in the living Body, by pressing down the root of the Tongue.

Its under end is fixed by a broad and short Ligament to the middle Notch of the Thyroid Cartilage; laterally it is attached by two Ligaments to the whole length of the Arytenoid Cartilages.

It is fixed to the roots of the Os Hyoides and Tongue by another Ligament, which is a doubling of the inner Membrane running along the middle of its anterior Surface, and forming the *Frænum Epiglottidis*.

It is very elastic, and is much more pliable than the other Cartilages, being of a Cartilago-Ligamentous nature.

It is found to have a number of *Fissures*, in which *Lacunæ* are placed, and to be perforated by numerous *Foramina*, which are the Mouths of so many Mucous Follicles, and which are in a great measure concealed by the Membrane which covers it.

It breaks the current of the Air coming from the Mouth and Nose, and prevents it from rushing too forcibly into the Cavity of the Lungs. Pressed and drawn

# [PART IV.] OF THE MOUTH, &c.

drawn down by the Tongue and by small Muscles, it defends the Glottis, and shuts it completely in the time of Swallowing. After the action of Swallowing, it is raised by its own elasticity, and by the root of the 'Tongue, to which it is fixed; returning to its former position.

Ligamenta Thyreo-Arytenoidea, or Ligaments of the Glottis.—From the fore part of the Body of each of the Arytenoid Cartilages, a Ligamentous Cord passes horizontally forwards, to be fixed by its other extremity, at the side of its fellow, to the inner Surface of the anterior Angle of the Thyroid Cartilage.

The Opening formed between these Ligaments is called Glottis, Mouth of the Larynx, and Rima Glottidis, and is of a triangular figure, the Ligaments being in contact before, but at a considerable distance from each other at their posterior extremities.

• Under these two Ligaments there are two others, larger and more distinct than the former, and which are commonly considered as the *Vocal Ligaments*, or the *proper Ligaments of the Glottis*. They arise from the Base of the Arytenoid Cartilages, and run in the same direction with the former, to be fixed also to the Thyroid Cartilage.

In the Interstice of the Superior and Inferior Ligaments, on each side there is a *Fissure*, which leads to a small semicircular Membranous Cavity or Depression, with its bottom turned outwards.

These are the Ventricles of the Larynx of GALEN.— They are chiefly formed by the inner Membrane of the Larynx. They differ in size in different people, have Mucous Follicles opening into them, and are found to be serviceable in the modulation of the Voice.

On the anterior Surface of the Arytenoid Cartilages, there is a small Depression, filled by a *Glandular Body*, which not only covers the fore part of these Cartilages, but is continued over the posterior extremities of the Ligaments of the Glottis.

The Arytenoid Glands are larger in some Subjects than in others. They were discovered, and are particularly described and delineated, by MORGAGNI.

The Ligaments which connect the Epiglottis to the Notch of the Thyroid Cartilage, and to the under side of the Os Hyoides, together with one which ties the Base of the Os Hyoides, form a *Triangular space*, which is also occupied by Cellular Substance and by Mucous Glands.

In a Woman, the Larynx is proportionally smaller than in a Man, and the Thyroid Cartilage projects less in the fore part of the Throat.

The Cavity of the Larynx is lined by a Membrane which is extremely irritable, and is every where perforated by the Mouths of small Mucous Glands, for the purpose of moistening it.

The Larynx has a number of Muscles, for its different motions; all of which have been already described.

The Arteries of the Larynx are the two Superior Laryngeals, which come from the External Carotids, and the two Inferior Laryngeals, which are sent off from the Subclavian Arteries.

The

# PART IV.] OF THE MOUTH, &c.

The Superior Laryngeal Veins return to the Internal Jugulars; the Inferior to the Subclavians, or Superior Cava.

The Nerves are chiefly the Superior and Inferior Laryngeals, which are Branches of the Eighth Pair.

The Larynx serves the purpose of Respiration, forms and modulates the Voice, and is also useful in Deglutition.

It is the principal Organ of Voice ;—for, if a Hole be cut in the Trachea, of sufficient size to allow the Person to breathe freely through it, the power of producing Voice is destroyed till the cut is closed up.

Voice is formed by the Air, in its passage through the Glottis, acting upon the Ligaments of the Glottis and Cartilages of the Larynx and Trachea, and thus producing a Tremor;—and is different in different Persons, according to the form and structure of the Larynx.

The strength of Voice is in proportion to the quantity of Air expired, and the narrowness of the Glottis.

A Tone is acute in proportion to the tension of the parts of the Larynx and Trachea in general, and of the Ligaments of the Glottis in particular.

A Tone is grave in proportion to the reverse of the above.

Speech is performed chiefly by the different parts of the Mouth, assisted by the Cavity of the Nose,—the Larynx moving only in a small degree.

When the Air passes through the Larynx without producing a tremor, it occasions a Whisper.

When

When a person speaks during Inspiration, the Voice is thereby very materially altered, and, by practice, may be made to appear as coming from other places than the Month of the Speaker; as is the case with those who call themselves *Ventriloquists*.

TABLE

# OF THE THORAX.

THE Thorax, or Breast, extends from the Neck to the Diaphragm, and is divided into External and Interanal parts.

EXTERNAL PARTS OF THE THORAX.

The *External* Parts of the Thorax, besides the common Integuments and Mammæ, are,

The Muscles, consisting of the Pectorales, Subclavii, and under end of the Platysma Myoides on each side, which are situated anteriorly.

The Serrati Magni, which are placed laterally.

The Trapezii, Latissimi Dorsi, and numerous other Muscles, placed posteriorly.

The Inter-costales and Sterno-costales, which are sittuated, the former between, and the latter on the inner iside of the Ribs.

The Bones, consisting of Sternum, Ribs, and Dorsal Wertebræ.—All these parts, excepting the Mammæ, have been already described.

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MAMMÆ.

## MAMMÆ.

The Mammæ are two Glandular Bodies, of a circular form, situated on the anterior, and a little towards the lateral parts of the Thorax, adhering loosely by Cellular Substance to the Surface of the large Pectoral Muscles.

The term Mamma is peculiar to the Breasts of Women.—In Men these parts are called Mammilla;—in the Brute kind Ubera.

In the Ape, and a few other Animals, these parts are placed, as in the Human Body, upon the Thorax; but in the generality of Quadrupeds, they are situated under the Abdomen.

The Mammæ vary in size in different Women, and in the same Woman at different periods of life.

In Girls, previous to the age of puberty, they are remarkably small.

About the age of fourteen, at which time the Menses, in this Climate, most commonly begin to appear, they evolve and become prominent.

During Gestation they increase in size, and soon after Delivery, they arrive at their greatest *extent*.

After the age of forty-five, or from that to fifty, the period when the Menses generally disappear, they decrease in size, and become soft, pendulous, and flaccid.

Under the Skin, there is a large quantity of Fat, which constitutes a considerable portion of the bulk of the Mamma, defends the Glandular part, and is not found

# PART IV.7 OF THE THORAX.

found to pass into or communicate with the Lactiferous Ducts, which some have asserted.

To the quantity of Fat in the Mamma, much of the bulk of the Breast depends; from this circumstance, a Woman with small Breasts frequently produces more milk in suckling, than those whose Mammæ are of a larger size.

The *Glandular* part of the Mamma is of a whitish colour, is of the Conglomerate kind, and therefore irregular in its Substance.

It is composed of Lobes and Lobules, or of a number of smaller Masses or Glands, which are separated by Fat, and these again are divided into still smaller parts, in which the Milk is originally secreted.

Near the centre of the Mamma, but a little towards the outside, is the *Papilla* or *Nipple*, which is of a Cylindrical form, and of a redder colour than the rest of the Integuments of the Breast. It has a delicate Skin, and is extremely sensible.

It is of different sizes in different ages and constitutions, and is always larger in the time of Gestation, or of Nursing.

It is capable of distension from titillation, or when influenced by the passions of the Mind.

It is composed of a tough Cellular or Ligamentous Substance, which incloses the Lactiferous Tubes, and which is so elastic, that after the part is drawn out or distended, it readily recovers its former dimension, when the cause of distension is removed.

Upon the Apex of the Nipple, the Orifices of the Lac-K 2 tiferous tiferous Ducts appear, and are of the same number with those which enter its Base.

Around the Nipple, there is a *Circle* or *Disk*, called *Arcola*,—nearly of the same colour with that of the Nipple itself.

The colour here, however, varies at different times of life,—being florid in Girls, of a pale brown in Women more advanced in life, and in old age of a livid and dull colour.

During Pregnancy, it is of a darker colour than at other times, in consequence of a change which takes place in the Corpus Mucosum which forms it.

Under the Skin of the Areola, there are numerous Sebaceous Glands, or Follicles, the Orifices of which discharge an oily Mucus, to defend the Nipple and Areola around it.

The Arteries of the Mamma are partly from the Internal, and partly from the External Mammaries; the former of which are sent off from the Subclavian, and the latter from the Axillary Artery;—the Branches entering the Mamma at many different places.

The Vcins accompany the Arteries, and are distinguished by the same name.

The Absorbents, like the Blood-vessels of the Mamma, are numerous. The greater part of them pass through the Axillary Glands; others penetrate the Interstices of the Ribs, near the Sternum, and enter the Glands which belong to the Internal Mammary Vessels.

The Nerves are chiefly from the Axillary Plexus, a few Branches being also sent off from the Intercostals.

From the extremities of the Arteries in the Substance

of

#### OF THE THORAX. PART IV.7 . 149

of the Mamma, numberless Tubes arise, called Ductus or Tubuli Lactiferi. They gradually unite into Trunks, which run in a radiated manner, and, becoming greatly enlarged in the time of Suckling, serve as Reservoirs in which the Milk is contained.

The Laetiferous Duets are accompanied, in the Substance of the Mamma, by a tough white Elastic Substance, which follows them to the Nipple.

At the root of the Nipple they become contracted, and are there from Twelve to Eighteen and upwards in number.

Either from the want of uniformity, however, with respect to their number in different Subjects, or from the difficulty of perceiving them, they have been variously estimated by different Authors.

Near the root of the Nipple, they have been supposed by DR MECKEL to form a eirele of communication ;but this has been ascribed, by still later Anatomists, to a laceration of Vessels. Numerous preparations and experiments,-particularly that of throwing in an Injeetion at one Duet, and finding that it fills only one part of the Mamma, without returning by any other Duet, -seem sufficiently to indicate, that there is no such eircular communication.

In the Substance of the Nipple, the Laetiferons Tubes are at a little distance from each other, and are coiled up in such a manner, that the spontaneous flow of the Milk is prevented, unless it be accumulated in a large quantity.

But when the Nipple is drawn out and extended,-as by the application of the Child's Mouth,-the Ducts be-K 3

coine

come straight and parallel to each other, so as to allow an uninterrupted flow of the Milk.

After Sucking, the Nipple, and consequently its Ducts, immediately recover their former situation.

Sometimes one or more of the Lactiferous Ducts terminate upon the Surface of the Areola, from which MORGAGNI supposed that the Glands there were of the Lactiferous kind.

In Children of both Sexes, the Mammæ are merely Cutaneous Tubercles, and at the time of Birth contain a *Milky-like Fluid*, which can be readily squeezed out.

This Fluid commonly disappears a short time after Birth;—but there are various examples on record, where Milk has been brought to the Breasts, both of young Girls and Old Women, by the frequent application of a Child to the Nipples, and where there was no cause for suspecting this to be the consequence of Impregnation. Nor are instances wanting of Milk having been brought to the Mammillæ of Men by the same application.

The Mammæ add much to the ornament of the Sex, but serve in particular for furnishing Nourishment to the Child, which is conveyed through the medium of the Nipple.

The Secretion begins soon after Delivery, and continues to flow for many months, and even for some years, if the Woman suckle her Child; and the more frequently the Milk is extracted, the greater is the quantity received in a given time.

The operation of Sucking depends upon the principles of the Air-pump.—The Child embraces the Nipple "closely with its Lips, which prevents the external Air from

## PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

from entering, draws the Ducts to a straight Line, and prepares a space for the Milk, which is forced from the Breast by the pressure of the Atmosphere, and flows to the Mouth in the manner a Fluid follows the Pistern of a common Pump or Syringe.

#### INTERNAL PARTS OF THE THORAX.

THE Mammæ and Muscles, covering the fore and lateral parts of the Thorax, being turned aside, and the Ribs afterwards cut from the Sternum and turned back, the *Internal Parts* of the Thorax are brought into view.

They consist of the *Pleura*, which lines the Thorax; the *Mediastinum*, which divides it into right and left Cavities, and contains several Vessels, Nerves, &c. between its Layers;—the *Pericardium* and *Heart*, which occupy the middle;—and the *Lungs*, which surround the Heart, and fill the greater part of the Thorax.

### PLEURA.

The *Pleura* is a thin Membrane, with some degree of transparency, and of considerable strength, which lines the inner side of the Thorax, and covers the most of its Contents.

Its External Surface is *Cellular*, and adheres closely to the parts with which it is connected.

Its Internal Surface is smooth and polished, being K 4 moistened moistened by a Serous Fluid, which exudes from its Arteries.

l is divided into two Lateral Sacs or Pleuræ, the form of which corresponds exactly with that of the surrounding Bones of the Thorax.

The Pleuræ adhere to the Periosteum of the Ribs, line the Intercostales and Sterno-costales, the Sternum, and Dorsal Vertebræ, and cover the Pericardium, Lungs, and Lateral or Fleshy parts of the Diaphragm.

Behind the Sternum, the Pleuræ are contiguous to each other, and form the *Partition* called *Mediastinum*, which extends between the Sternum and Vertebræ.

The Arterics of the Pleura are from those of the adjacent parts, viz. from the Intereostal, Mammary, Diaphragmatie, Bronchial, and Esophageal Arteries.

The Vcins, which return the Blood, accompany the Arteries, and are distinguished by the same name.

The Nerves are from the Intercostals and Diaphragmatics, but too small to be easily traced; and the Membrane itself is not observed to possess much sensibility in the sound state.

The Pleura, by its smoothness, facilitates the motions of the Heart and Lungs, divides the Thorax into Cavities, and strengthens its containing and contained parts.

#### MEDIASTINUM.

The Mediastinum, so named from its situation in the middle of the Thorax, extends, as has been already observed, between the Sternum and Vertebræ; but is intercepted

# PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

tercepted by the Heart and root of the Lungs, and divides the Thorax into two distinct Cavities, which have no communication with each other.

It is formed by a reflection of the Pleura, and is of course double, and contains between its Layers a considerable quantity of Cellular Substance, by which they are united.

It is divided into Anterior and Posterior Mediastinum, the former of which is situated at the fore, and the latter at the back part of the Thorax.

The Anterior Mediastinum is connected before to the Sternum; and behind, to the Pericardium and large Vessels of the Heart.

The two Layers of the Anterior Mediastinum are closely applied to each other, excepting at the upper part of the Thorax, where they are separated by the remains of the *Thymus Gland*.

At the upper part of the Thorax, it lies exactly behind the middle of the Sternum; but in its descent, it inclines gradually to the left edge of that Bone.

;In consequence of its obliquity, a pointed instrument, pushed through the centre of the Sternum, is generally found to pass into the right Cavity of the Thorax.

Frequent deviations, however, from this general rule have been met with.—In particular, LIEUTAUD and SA-BATIER relate several instances where the Anterior Mediastinum was found to descend along the middle of the Sternum; and others, though rare, where it descended even to the right side of this Bone.

The Posterior Mediastinum reaches from the root of the

the Lungs and back part of the Heart, to the Dorsal Vertebra.

Between the Layers of the posterior Mediastinum, a *Triangular space* is formed, in which are situated the under end of the Trachea, the Esophagus, the Aorta Descendens, the Vena Azygos, and Thoracic Duct, with the Eighth Pair of Nerves.

The *Blood-vessels* of the Mediastinum are from those of the neighbouring parts :—The Anterior Mediastinum is supplied by Branches from the Subclavian, Internal Mammaries, and Diaphragmatics,—and the Posterior Mediastinum, by Branches from the Intercostals and Esophageals.

The Veins accompany the Arteries, and have the same names.

The Mediastinum divides the Thorax into two Cavities, supports its general Contents, hinders one Lung from pressing upon the other when the Person lies on his side, and prevents Fluids,—which, in consequence of accidents or disease, may be contained in the Cavity of the Thorax,—from passing from one side to the other.

### PERICARDIUM.

The Pericardium, Sac, or Capsule of the Heart, is one of the strongest Membranes of the Body, and its size such as to be properly adapted to that of the Heart, which it contains.

It is formed of *two Layers*; the *External* of which is a continuation of the Anterior Mediastinum, which afterwards

1.54

# PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

terwards passes to the Lungs and Lateral parts of the Diaphragm.

The Internal Layer is smooth, tendinous-like, polished on its inner Surface, and stronger than the other.

It adheres so firmly to the Tendinous part of the Diaphragm, as not to be separated from it without much difficulty.

The Pericardium extends a considerable way beyond the base of the Heart, and includes the large Blood-vessels, as far as the roots of their first principal Branches, in consequence of which it forms several Angles, which have been termed *Cornua* of the Pericardium.

While the External Layer is reflected to cover the parts which surround it, the Internal is also reflected, first over the roots of the large Blood-vessels, and then over the Heart, to form its proper covering; in the same manner the Tunica Conjunctiva is reflected from the Eye-lids to cover the fore part of the Eye.

From the ends of the Extreme Arteries upon its Surface, a Fluid, called *Liquor Pericardii*, is discharged, by which it is lubricated, and the effects of friction diminished.

The Liquor Pericardii is commonly found, after death, in the quantity of a few Drachms, though not unfrequently of one or two Ounces.

Its colour is redder in a young Subject than in a Person advanced in life, in whom it becomes paler, or more of a straw colour.

The Arteries of the fore part of the Pericardium are from the Internal Mammaries and Diaphragmatics; those those of its back part from the Bronchials and Esophageals.

The Veins correspond with the Arteries, and have the same names.

The Pericardium preserves the Heart in situ, defends it from being injured by the parts which surround it, and restrains its inordinate motions.

#### HEART.

The *Heart* is a hollow Muscle, divided into different Cavities, and inclosed in the Pericardium.

It is situated in the Cavity of the Thorax, behind the Sternum, between the Right and Left Lungs.

It is of a Conical figure, flattened at one side, and is divided into Base, Body, and Apex, with a Superior and Inferior Surface, and a Right and Left Margin.

The Base is placed backwards next the Spine, the Upper part opposed to the Eighth Dorsal Vertebra, while the Body and Apex are turned forwards, and obliquely over to the left side.

In Quadrupeds, the Heart is placed upon a line with the Sternum; the point of it being the only part which touches the Diaphragm.—In the Human Body, the Apex is but a little lower than the Base, and projects between the two Lobes of the Left Lung, behind the Cartilages of the Fifth and Sixth True Ribs of the left side, or a little below the left Nipple, where the Pulsation may be felt. The situation, however, varies in a small

## PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

small degree, according to the position of the Body, and state of Respiration.

Though this be the common situation of the Heart, a few rare and singular instances have occurred, where it has been found to occupy the right side of the Thorax; and a displacement has sometimes happened, in consequence of different kinds of Tumours in the left side of the Thorax.

The Superior or Anterior Surface of the Heart is convex, and is opposed to the posterior Surface of the Sternum; the anterior edges of the Lungs intervening.

The Inferior or Posterior Surface is flat, and rests upon the Tendon of the Diaphragm which supports it. The Heart is not much affected, however, by the motions of that Muscle in time of Respiration; its Tendon moving only in a small degree.

The right side of the Body of the Heart is sharp, and is called *Margo Acutus*.

The left side is round, and is termed Margo Obtusus. The Base is formed of a Right and Left Auricle, and the Body of a Right and Left Ventricle.

When the Heart is distended, the Right Auricle, and part of the corresponding Ventricle, occupy the right, and the rest of the Heart the left Cavity of the Thorax.

The Heart is connected above and behind to the upper and back part of the Thorax, through the Medium of the great Vessels which go into, or pass out from it.

The other parts of the Heart are free, being merely contiguous to the inside of the Pericardium.

The External Surface of the Heart is covered with a thin, smooth, Membranous Coat, which is a reflection of the the inner Layer of the Pericardium, and which gives additional strength to its Fleshy Fibres.

Between this Coat and the Substance of the Heart, there is commonly a considerable quantity of *Fat*, which lubricates it, and facilitates its motions.

The Substance of the Heart consists of Muscular Fibres, firm and more closely connected than the Fibres of Muscles generally are in the other parts of the Body.

The Fibres of the Heart run in different directions, longitudinally and transversely, but most of them obliquely.

Many of them run over the point of the Heart from one Surface to the other, and the whole are so much twisted and folded, and so variously intermixed, as to render it difficult to unravel or describe them.—In general, however, their course is such as to lessen the Cavities of the Heart in all their dimensions.

The *Cavities* of the Heart are lined with a Membrane extremely thin, but dense and strong to defend it against the pressure of the Blood.

The Heart is formed of an Anterior or Right, and a Posterior or Left side, or of a Right and Left Heart, joined together by a Partition, which prevents the two sides from having any direct communication with each other.—The terms Right and Left, however, are more applicable to the Heart of the Quadruped, and those of Anterior and Posterior to the Human Heart.

Each side of the Heart is furnished with a set of Veins, with an Auricle, a Ventricle, and an Artery, and also with two sets of Valves, one of which is situated between

1.55

# PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

tween the Auricle and Ventricle, the other between the Ventricle and Artery.

At the right side of the Heart are two Veins, called from their large size  $Ven \alpha$  Cav $\alpha$ ; the one Superior, the other Inferior.

The Superior Vena Cava, called also Vena Cava Descendens, conveys the Blood from the upper parts of the Body; and the Inferior Vena Cava, termed likewise Ascendens, conveys it from the lower parts; and both terminate in the right Auricle. The Blood in the Auricle is prevented from returning by the fulness of the Veins, and by the pressure of the Blood a tergo.

The Auricle is situated upon the right, and partly upon the back part of the Heart. It is somewhat of an oval form, and is divided into the *Right Sinus Venosus*, and *Proper Auricle*.

The Sinus Venosus is formed by the union of the two Venæ Cavæ, which swell out towards the anterior and left side. It is notched at its anterior edge, is a Muscular Bag of considerable strength, and both upon its outer and inner Surface is uniform and smooth.

At the upper and left side of the Sinus, is the Projection or Appendix, termed, from its supposed resemblance to the Ear of a Quadruped, *Proper Auricle*. It is formed by a blind Sac, which is serrated and notched on its posterior edge, and convex or rounded on the other, and terminates obliquely in an obtuse point.

The Sinus and Proper Auricle form one common Cavity, have no valve between them, and are therefore filled and emptied at the same time.

Where the two Cavæ meet in the Hearts of Quadrupeds, peds, there is a *Projection* seen in the Sinus Venosus, called *Tuberculum* LOWERI, which is supposed to prevent the Blood of the one Cava from rushing upon that of the other, and to direct it into the Auricle.

At the meeting of the two Cavæ in the Human Heart, an Angle is formed, which also has frequently got the name of *Tuberculum* LOWERI.—This Term, however, is peculiar to the Projection in the Hearts of Brute Animals.

Under this Angle or joining of the Venæ Cavæ, there is the Vestige of the *Foramen Ovale*, which, in the Fœtns, forms a communication between the Right and Left Auricles, but in the Adult, is filled up by its Membrane, and forms the *Fossa Ovalis*.

The Fossa Ovalis has thick and strong sides, called Columnæ Foraminis Ovalis, Isthmus VIEUSSENII, vel Annulus Fossæ Ovalis.

At the left side of the Month of the Inferior Cava, where it joins the Sinus, is the Value of EUSTACHIUS.

It is in form of a Crescent, with the convex edge fixed to the union of the Sinus and Cava, and the concave edge turned obliquely upwards, reaching about half way over the Mouth of the Cava. Its size and appearance, however, vary much in different Subjects.

Its posterior Cornu is continued with the left side of the Isthmus of the Foranien Ovale; the other end vanishes in the opposite side of the Sinus.

It is equally distinct in the Adult as in the Fœtus; but in the former it is frequently found reticulated, or Cribriform, which appearance is seldom, though sometimes, met with in the latter.

# PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

In the Adult, it is supposed to prevent the Blood of the Auricle from passing into the Inferior Cava; and in the Fœtus, to direct the Blood of the Inferior Cava to the Foramen Ovale.

Upon the left side of the Valve of EUSTACHIUS, in the under part of the Auricle, is the Orifice or Termination of the great Coronary Vein of the Heart.

Over the Orifice of this Vein, there is a Semilunar Valve, to prevent the Blood in the Auricle from passing into the Vein.

The inner side of the proper Auricle is readily distinguished from the Sinus, by having a number of *Fleshy Pillars* in it, which, from their supposed resemblance to the Teeth of a Comb, sometimes obtain the name of *Musculi Auriculæ Pectinati*.

The Musculi Pectinati have smaller Columns running in different directions, giving the whole a reticulated appearance.

Between the Fleshy Pillars, are *Depressions* or *Fur*rows, where the sides of the Auricle are thin, and semittransparent, being chiefly formed of the outer and inner Membranes only.

At the under and left side of the Sinus Venosus, and opposite to a *Groove* situated externally between the Muricle and Ventricle, there is a *Hole*, above an inch in diameter, which opens into the upper and right part of the corresponding Ventricle.

The Right Auricle receives the Blood from the Venæ Tavæ and Coronary Veins, and, by its Muscular conraction, discharges it into the corresponding Ventricle, out of which it is prevented from returning by a Valve, ralled *Tricuspid*, placed within the Ventricle.

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Vol. II.

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# OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

The *Right* or *Pulmonary Ventricle* is situated on the fore side of the Heart, is of a triangular form, and much thicker and stronger than the corresponding Auricle.

It has many strong Eminences, Columns, Lacertuli, or Cords, called *Columnæ Carneæ*.

The Columnæ run in different directions, but the strongest of them longitudinally, and are of various sizes, forming so many distinct Muscles, which are extremely compact in their structure, and compose a beautiful, intricate, and irregular Net-work.

In general, they adhere through their whole length to each other, or to the sides of the Ventricle; but many of them are loose in their middle, and may be raised by a Probe put under them.

They assist the Ventricle in its Systole or contraction, and prevent it from being overstretched in its Diastole or dilatation, and agitate the Blood in its passage through the Ventricle.

They are supposed to bring the opposite sides of the Ventricle completely together, during its contraction.

Between the Columnæ are many deep Grooves, Pits, or Foveæ, into all of which the Blood readily enters.

Around the Passage, between the Auricle and Ventriele, there is a *Tendinous Margin* or *Ring*, from the whole edge of which a circular Membrane is sent off, called *Valvula Tricuspis*, or *Triglochin*, from its having three principal points or divisions.

From the edge of the Tricuspid Valve, many small round *Tendinous Cords* of unequal size are sent off.

The Chordæ Tendineæ descend obliquely within the Ventricle

# PART IV.7 OF THE THORAX.

Ventricle in the same direction with the Valve from which they arise.

They are fixed to the extremities of a few strong Papillæ or Columnæ Carneæ, which are joined by their other extremities to the corresponding sides of the Ventricle. Besides the three principal portions of the Valve, it has some Tendinous Cords, and Fleshy Pillars of inferior size, fixed in the same manner with the rest.

The Tricuspid Valve prevents the reflux of the Blood to the Auricle, during the contraction of the Ventricle.

The Tendons allow the Valve to be pushed back by the Blood, until a Septum or Partition is formed by it at the Mouth of the Ventricle, during the contraction of the latter.—The Papillæ, by their contraction, prevent the Valve from going into the Auricle.

The Valve is opened and pressed back by the Blood, in its passage from the Auricle to the Ventricle.

The upper and left side of the Ventricle becomes smooth and uniform, and leads to a large Opening, about an inch in diameter, which is the Mouth of the Pulmonary Artery.

The Right Ventricle, by its dilatation, receives the blood from the Auricle, and sends it, by a strong and sudden convulsive contraction, to the Pulmonary Artery, from whence it is prevented from returning by Three Valves placed in the Mouth of the Artery.

The Valves at the Mouth of the Pulmonary Artery are called Valvulæ Semilunares, vel Sigmoideæ, from the resemblance of their edges to those of a Crescent. Two

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163

OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PARTIV.

of them are placed in the fore, and one in the back part of the Artery.

Each of them forms a small Sac, one edge of which adheres to a third part of the circumference of the inside of the Artery; the other edge is loose in the Cavity of that Vessel, and is somewhat thicker and stronger than the rest of the Valve,—the thickened edges serving as Ligaments to it.

The loose edge has a general Curve, divided into two smaller ones, which meet in a point at the middle.

The Valves are chiefly formed of a doubling or extension of the inner Coat of the Artery.

In the middle point, or loose edge of each of the Valves, there is a small hard *Triangular Granula*, of a somewhat redder colour than the rest of the Valve, called, from its reputed Discoverers, *Corpusculum* AURAN-TII, vel *Corpusculum* MORGAGNI; or, from its resemblance in shape to the Secd of the Sesamum, *Corpusculum Sesamoideum*.

The Corpuscles complete the Valves at the centre of the Artery, and enable them to make a stronger resistance against the Blood, while the Artery is in action.

The Semilunar Valves are concave towards the Artery, convex towards the Ventricle, and, when shut, their loose edges are opposed to each other, so as to enable them to form a complete *Partition* between the Ventricle and Artery.

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Opposite to the Semilunar Valves, the Artery bulges 1 out, and forms Three Projections, which have corre- The sponding the

## PART IV.7 OF THE THORAX.

sponding Pits or Depressions within, and are called, from their Discoverer, Sinus VALSALVÆ.

The Sinuses of VALSALVA are of the same nature with those Dilatations which are found in the Veins and Lymphatics, between their Sides and Valves; and, like them, are partly formed by the pressure of the Fluids upon the sides of the Vessels.

The Pulmonary Artery receives the Blood from the Right Ventricle, and, by its contractile power, assists the Ventricle in driving it through the Lungs.

The Semilunar Valves, pressed back by the Blood in the Artery, prevent its return into the Ventricle.

The Valves are opened again in consequence of their being driven towards the sides of the Artery by the current of the Blood, upon the next contraction or stroke of the Ventricle.

The Pulmonary Artery passes behind the Sternum, and separates into *Right* and *Left Branches*, which go to the corresponding parts of the Lungs.

The two Branches of the Pulmonary Artery, like those of the Arteries of the Viscera in other parts of the large Cavities, suddenly divide into still smaller Branches.

From the extreme Arteries of the Lungs, corresponding Veins arise, which are merely the continuation or reflection of the Arteries, without any intermediate Cells or dilatations.

The Pulmonary Veins, in the Substance of the Lungs, gradually unite, and form *Four Principal Trunks*, which terminate in, and carry the Blood to, the Left Auricle,

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Of the Pulmonary Veins, Two come from the right, and Two from the left Lung, and terminate in the corresponding sides of the Left Auricle, towards its upper part.

The Left Auricle is considerably thicker and stronger than the Right, and is also divided into Sinus Venosus and Proper Auricle, which form one common Cavity without the intervention of any Valve.

The Left Sinus Venosus, called also Sinus Pulmonalis, is turned towards the Spine, is more of a cubic form than the Right one, but resembles it in the uniformity and smoothness of its outer and inner Surfaces.

From the fore and left part of the Sinus, the Proper Auricle projects, and forms a distinct flat Appendix or Bag, with different. Curvatures or Indentations upon its edges.

The inner part of the Proper Auricle is longer, but nurrower than that on the right side; like it, however, it is formed of Columnæ, with Furrows between them.

The Proper Auricle is somewhat less capacious than that on the right side; but the Sinus is as much larger as to render the two common Cavities of the right and left Auricles nearly equal.

The two Auricles have a *Fleshy Septum* between them, in which, as has been already mentioned, there is the *Foramen Ovale* in the Fœtus;—but in the Adult the Partition is generally perfect, leaving merely the vestige of the Valve which belonged to this Passage.

From the under part of the Sinus Venosus, a Passage leads down to the Cavity of the Left Ventricle, and is opposite

# PART IV.]. OF THE THORAX.

opposite to a *Groove* seen externally between the Auricle and Ventricle, similar to that on the right side.

The Left Auricle receives the Blood from the Pulmonary Veins, and, by its Muscular contraction, drives it into the Left Ventricle, from which it is prevented from returning, by a Valve in the Ventricle, called *Mitralis*.

The Left Ventricle is situated in the posterior and left part of the Heart, and is somewhat of an egg shape.

Its sides are about three times thicker and stronger than those of the Right Ventricle; the thickness being in proportion to the force required to propel the Blood to the most remote parts of the Body.

It is narrower and rounder, but considerably longer, both on its External Surface and in its Internal Cavity, than the right Ventricle, and generally descends some way below the other, and forms the Apex Cordis.

The Cavity is commonly described as being less than that of the Right Ventricle;—but the apparent difference, which takes place after death, is accounted for with seeming propriety by some Authors,—from the Left Ventricle being then for the most part found empty, and the Right one full, and from the greater degree of contractility in the former.

That the capacity of the Cavities of the right and left sides of the Heart, is more nearly equal during life than after death, or than it is generally supposed to be, is evident from the appearance of the Heart of the Human and also of the Brute kind, and from Injections thrown into the two sides of the Heart, where the force applied is in proportion to the relative strength of each zide.

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# OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

The inner Surface of the Left Ventricle has the same general appearance with the Ventricle of the right side, but differs from it in having its Columnæ Carneæ larger, and more numerous, firmer, and stronger; more detached, and more varied in their directions. They form Meshes in the shape of Lozenges, in which are Columnæ of a more slender nature, intercepting Meshes of an inferior size.

In the Passage of communication between the Auricle and Ventricle, there is a *Ring*, from which a *Circular Valve* goes off, with all its Apparatus similar to that between the right Anricle and Ventricle, and differing in no respect from it in structure and use, excepting in being stronger, and in being divided into two principal Portions only.

This Valve has been supposed to bear some resemblance to a Bishop's Mitre, from which it has been called Valvula Mitralis.

One of the Portions of this Valve is larger than the other, lies over the Mouth of the Aorta, and is supposed to cover it while the Ventricle is filling.

The Valvula Mitralis prevents the reflux of the Blood during the contraction of the Ventricle.

After the contraction is over, the Valve returns to its former situation, by the impulse of a fresh current of Blood from the Auricle.

Between the Right and Left Ventricle, there is a thick, strong, impervious *Partition*, which forms a share of the General Septum Cordis, and is composed partly by the Wall of the Right, but chiefly by that of the
#### PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

Left Ventricle; the Right being united to the Left, almost in the form of an Appendix.

The Partition prevents any direct communication between the two Ventricles.

Opposite to the outer edge of the Septum, both upon the upper and under Surfaces of the Heart, there is a *Groove* in which some of the principal Trunks of the Coronary Vessels are situated.

At the fore and right side of the Valvula Mitralis, and behind the beginning of the Pulmonary Artery, there is a *Round Opening*, which is the Mouth of the Aorta, and which is nearly of the same size with that of the Pulmonary Artery.

Under this opening, the Surface of the Ventricle becomes smooth and equal, having none of the Collumnæ Carneæ which are seen on the other parts of its (Cavity.' : . . .

The Left Ventricle receives the Blood sent to it from the Auricle, and, by a contraction similar to, but much stronger than that of the Right Ventricle, propels it to the Aorta.

At the Mouth of the Aorta, there are three Semilumar Valves, with their Corpuscula AURANTII, perfectly ssimilar to those of the Pulmonary Artery,—but somewhat stronger.

On the outside of the Semilunar Valves, are the Siinuses of VALSALVA, resembling those of the Pulmonary Artery,—but a little more prominent.

The Semilunar Valves are pressed back by the Blood, the reflux of which they prevent during the contraction of the Aorta.—They are returned towards the sides of the the Aorta in the same manner, and from the same cause, as those in the Pulmonary Artery.

The Aorta passes upwards from the top of the Left Ventricle, and is situated first behind, and then on the right side of the Pulmonary Artery, and between it and the Superior Cava.

It bears nearly the same proportion in thickness and strength to the Pulmonary Artery, which the sides of the Left Ventricle do to those of the Right.

When the Aorta is about to send off the first of its large Branches at the top of the Thorax, it is of great size, and is sometimes called the *Large Sinus* of VAL-SALVA.

The Aorta receives the Blood from the Left Ventricle, and by its Muscular contraction re-acts upon it, and assists the Ventricle in sending it by numberless a Branches through the different parts of the Body, from whence it is returned by the Veins to the Right Auricle.

Besides the Blood-vessels already taken notice of, and which are common to the Heart and the rest of the Body, the Heart is furnished with Vessels peculiar to itself, termed *Coronary*, from a *Corona* which they form upon its Surface.

The Coronary Vessels consist of two Arteries, a right and left, and one principal Vein.

The Coronary Arteries arise from the Sinuses at the Mouth of the Aorta, opposite to two of the Semilunar Valves.

One runs in a Groove between the Right Auricle and Ventricle, and supplies chiefly the right side of the Heart. The

### PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

The other passes partly between the Left Auricle and Ventricle, and partly in the Groove between the Venttricles, on the fore side of the Heart,—supplying the lleft side of the Heart, and communicating with the Branches of the other Artery on its upper and under Surfaces.

The Coronary Arteries are entirely dispersed upon the substance of the Heart, and upon the roots of the great Vessels, forming upon these some of the minute Branches, termed Vasa Vasorum.

The Coronary Arteries, from their situation opposite to the Valves, have been supposed to be filled at a different time from that of the rest of the Arterious System; --but from Experiment, it seems now sufficiently ascertained, that the Coronary Vessels have their Pulsation at the same instant with the other Arteries.

The Coronary Veins return the Blood from their corresponding Arteries. The greater part of them join into a Trunk, called the Great Coronary Vein, which, after making a turn from the left side, and running between the Left Auricle and Ventricle, terminates in the under and back part of the Right Auricle, where it is covered by its Semilunar Valve.

Other Coronary Veins, much smaller than the former, terminate in different parts of the right side of the Heart.

The Absorbents of the Heart go to the neighbouring Lymphatic Glands.

The Nerves are from the Great Sympathetics and Eighth Pair.

With respect to the Circulation of the Blood in general :--

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ral :— The Veins, by a slow and equal motion, and without Pulsation, return the Blood, from all the different parts of the Body, to the Auricles, which, on account of the quantity and stimulating quality of the Blood, contract suddenly and at the same time, and send it to the Ventricles.

The Ventricles, from the same cause which stimulates the Auvicles, and from the stroke they receive from them, contract convulsively, with a force proportioned to the thickness of their sides, and send the Blood to the Arterics; and, during their Contraction, they are thrown by the dilating Auricles against the Ribs, where the stroke occasioned by the Pulse of the Heart may be felt.

The Arteries, by their contractile power and elasticity, send the Blood suddenly to the Veins, through which, by the united force of the Ventricles and Arteries, and likewise, as some suppose, by a contractile power of the Veins, and pressure of the surrounding parts, it is driven again to the Auricles.

In its course, the Blood performs a double Circulation,—one called the Lesser, the Pulmonary, or that through the Lungs,—the other called the Greater, the Aortic, or that through the rest of the Body.

In the former, it passes from the Right Ventricle to the Lungs, and returns to the Left Auricle.—In the latter, it goes from the Left Ventricle to the different parts of the Body, and returns to the Right Auricle.

During this Circulation, the Auricles and Arteries, and the Ventricles and Veins, act in concert, contracting and dilating at the same time. The

# PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

The Heart is the Centre of the Vascular System, and the principal agent in the Circulation of the Blood.

The right side of the Heart receives the Blood, which is contaminated in passing through the Body, and sends it to the Lungs, where it is purified through the medium of the Air.

From the Lungs, the Blood, now purified, is returned to the left side of the Heart, to be circulated through all the other parts of the Body, thereby imparting nourishment, growth, and strength, to the general System; being found also to be the source of Sensibility, Irritability, Motion, and Animal Heat.

### LUNGS.

The *Lungs* are two soft Spongy Bodies, which occupy the far greater part of the Cavity of the Thorax.

They completely fill the two Bags of the Pleura, and are every where in contact with the parts adjacent; no Air intervening between them and the Thorax.

In Figure, they have been compared to that of the Foot of an Ox, with the back part turned forwards ; or, their shape corresponds exactly with the inside of the Thorax; being rounded next the Ribs, hollow towards the Diaphragm, and irregularly flattened and depressed next the Mediastinum and Heart.

They are of a reddish or pink colour in Children, of a light blue or greyish colour in Adults, and more of a purple and livid colour in Old Age, at which period they

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they are also observed to be tinged with black spots, proceeding from a matter secreted in their Substance.

They are joined to the Neck by the Trachea; to the Spine, by the two Layers of the Mediastinum, which serve them as Ligaments; and to the Heart, by the Pulmonary Vessels; the rest of them being free and unconnected, unless when an adhesion takes place in consequence of Inflammation.

They are divided into *Right* and *Left Portions*, or *Langs*, which are separated from each other by the Heart and Mediastinum, and which have no communication, except through the medium of the Trachea.

Each of the Lungs is again divided by Fissures, varying in depth in different Bodies, into large Portions, called *Lobes*, which facilitates their motion and the dilatation of their Cells.

Of the Lobes, *Three* belong to the Right Lung, corresponding with the larger Bag of the Pleura, and *Two* to the Left, between which there is a Notch or Sinus, occupied by the Point of the Heart. Sometimes an *additional Lobe* is found in the Left Lung, or the reverse in the Right one; but mistakes may arise in numbering these, in consequence of morbid adhesions.

Each of the Lobes is subdivided into many smaller parts, termed *Lobules*, which are of different sizes, and of an irregular angular form.

The Lobules diminish in size, and degenerate at last into small *Vesicles* or *Cells*, which constitute a large share of the Lungs.

The Cells of the Lungs are purely Membranous, of an irregular figure, but nearly of the same size, compressed

# FART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

pressed and closely connected, and have a free communication with each other.

Between the different Lobes, Lobules, and Cells, a large quantity of common Cellular Substance, destitute of Fat, is interposed, which unites and strengthens them, and allows the Blood-vessels to be minutely dispersed over them.

The Cells of the Lungs have no communication with this common Cellular Substance; for when Air is blown into it, the Lobules are compressed; but when the Air is blown in through a Branch of the Trachea, the Cells are again distended, and the Lobules recover their former dimensions.

In the Fœtus, the Cells are empty and in a collapsed state ;—but as soon as Respiration begins, they become distended, and continue so during life, and in every state of Respiration, and even in the recently dead Body :— But if an Opening be made into the Cavity of the Thorax, whether in the living or dead Body, and the Air in this or in any other way freely admitted, they immediately collapse by their weight and elasticity, the pressure of the Air being then the same on the outer Surface of the Lungs, and inner Surface of the Trachea.

The Lungs are covered by Two Coats, an External or Common, and an Internal or Proper one.

The *External* or *Common Coat* is a continuation or reflection of the Pleura, is extremely thin, but dense, and, like the other parts of the Pleura, is found to possess little Sensibility. It forms a general covering to the Lungs, but does not enter between their different Lobules.

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The Internal or Proper Coat adheres so firmly to the former, as to appear to constitute part of its Substance. It not only covers the Lungs, but insinuates itself between their Lobules, and is intimately connected with their Cellular Substance.

Besides the Cells, various kinds of Vessels, viz. the Vessels or Branches of the Trachea, Blood-vessels, and Absorbents, together with small Branches of Nerves, enter into the composition of the Lungs.

### TRACHEA.

The Trachea, vel Aspera Arteria, so called from the inequality of its Surface, and from its conveying Air, begins at the under part of the Cricoid Cartilage, and descends in the fore part of the Neck, between and behind the Sterno-Hyoidei and Sterno-Thyroidei.

From the Neck, it passes into the Thorax, where it is situated between the Layers of the upper part of the Posterior Mediastinum.

Behind the Curvature of the Aorta, and opposite to the Third Dorsal Vertebra, the Trachea divides into two Lateral Branches, termed *Bronchi*; one of which goes to the Right, and the other, which is the longer, but rather the smaller of the two, to the Left Lung.

Each of the Bronchi is subdivided at the place where it enters the Lung, the Right separating into three Branches, the Left often only into two. In the substance of the Lungs, the Bronchial Branches run between their corresponding Arteries and Veins. They divide

# PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

livide and subdivide after the manner of the branching of a Tree.

They become smaller and smaller, till at length they form an infinite number of Capillary Tubes, which, ditating, end in the *Cells* of the Lungs.

The Cells of the Lungs, in a Child, are barely visible to the naked Eye. In the Adult they are larger, and in both they communicate so freely together, that, upon introducing Air into a Bronchial Tube of moderate size, large portion of the Lungs may be inflated.

The Trachea consists of *Cartilaginous Rings*, about ixteen or eighteen in number, which give strength and irmness to it, and preserve it constantly open for the ransmission of Air. They are incomplete, however, eehind, where the Trachea is formed of a soft Fleshy substance, which yields to the Esophagus in the time of Deglutition.

Each Cartilage forms a large Segment of a Circle, bout a line or one-twelfth of an inch in breadth, and me-fourth of a line in thickness.

The Cartilages are situated horizontally, with their diges opposed to each other; small spaces intervening estween them.

They are united to each other by a Ligamentous Subance, which is so elastic, that when the Lungs are ken out of the Body, it draws the Cartilages closely gether.

At the upper end of the Trachea, two or three of the hartilages are frequently joined by an union of Subhance; but below this, they are perfectly distinct from cch other. The last of the Cartilages is now and then 'Vol. II. M triangular,

# OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

triangular, to adapt itself more readily to the beginning of the Bronchi.

The Bronchi, at their beginnings, have the same kind of Cartilages with the Trachea; but after they enter the Lungs, each Cartilaginous Ring is divided into two or three pieces, which, however, are so connected to each other, as to go completely round the Bronchi, and keep the Passage open and free from compression.

Upon tracing the smaller divisions of the Bronchi, the Cartilages are observed to become less numerous, and more separated from each other, till at length they vanish; the Capillary Branches becoming entirely Membranous, as well as the Vesicles in which they terminate.

The Trachea has several *Coats* entering into its composition, some for strengthening it, others for giving it, a certain degree of motion, viz.

A Cellular Coat, which, in the Thorax, is covered by the Mediastinum;

An Elastic Ligamentous Coat, which passes along the Trachea, and also upon the different Branches in the Lungs, adding much to the elasticity of these;

A Muscular Coat, placed between the Cartilages and the in the back part of the Trachea, and composed of Cir. cular Fibres without, and Longitudinal Fibres within —the former for straitening, the latter for shortening the general Passage.

The Longitudinal Fibres are collected into Bundles & which are distinctly seen through the inner Coat, and it is in the inner Coat,

# PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

may be traced considerably farther, in the Substance of the Lungs, than the Cartilages;

A very Vascular and Irritable Membrane, continued from the Mouth, which lines the inner side of the Trachea, and forms at last the extreme Branches, which tterminate in the Cells of the Lungs.

The inner Membrane of the Trachea is every where perforated by the *Ducts* of *Mucous Glands*, and by the *Mouths* of the *Exhalent Arteries*, the former pouring out Mucus to hubricate the Lungs, the latter the Vapour which is thrown off in Perspiration.

Three different kinds of Glands are connected with the Trachea,—the Thyroid, the Tracheal, and the .Bronchial.

The *Thyroid Gland* has its name from its connection with the Thyroid Cartilage, though more immediately connected with the Trachea.

It is a large Mass, of a deep red colour, situated at the under and fore part of the Larynx, behind the Sterno-Hyoidei and Sterno-thyroidei, and is proportionally larger in Man than in any other Animal.

It has two triangular Lobes placed at the under and llateral parts of the Larynx, descending over two or three Rings of the Trachea, and also part of the Esophagus, with the Bases of the Lobes undermost.

The Lobes are joined by an intermediate portion, called *Isthmus*, which lies across the upper and fore partof the Trachea.

Sometimes a Process from the middle Portion, which may be mistaken for a Muscle, ascends between the M 2 SternoSterno-hyoidei, and is fixed to the Base of the Os Hyoides.

This Gland has a Granulous appearance within, and a Viscid Liquor is sometimes observed in it, which has been supposed by SABATIEN and some others, to lubricate the parts in the neighbourhood.

It is supplied with large Blood-vessels, and with several Nerves, from the Superior and Inferior Vessels and Nerves of the Larynx. It is likewise furnished with numerous Lymphatics.—But no Excretory Duct has yet been observed to come from it; nor is its office yet understood.

The Tracheal Glands are small, but numerous, and of different sizes, surrounding the Muscular Coat of the Trachea, and its Branches in the Lungs;—the largest of them are placed in the Fleshy Substance behind.

From each of these Glands, a small Duct issues, and throws out a Mucus, to defend the inner Surface of the transfer from being injured by the Air, or by the extraneous Particles which it carries along with it.

The Bronchial Glands are placed in the Cellular Substance round the under end of the Trachca and roots of the Bronchi, where these penetrate into the Substance of the Lungs.

They are of various sizes, from that of the point of the Little Finger to that of a Millet-seed, and have a bluish or blackish colour, corresponding in a great measure with the colour of the darkest parts of the Lungs.

They were formerly considered by many Authors as its sending Fluids to the Trachea, but are now universally in known

known to be entirely of the Lymphatic kind,—the Absorbents of the Lungs passing through them in their way to the Thoracic Duct.

The Trachea is furnished with *Blood-vessels* from the Inferior Laryngeals, and *Nerves* from the Recurrents, and Great Sympathetic Pair.

The Trachea serves to convey Air into, or out from, the Cells of the Lungs, during Respiration, and to ccarry off the Perspirable Matter from the Arteries in the time of Expiration.

The Blood-vessels of the Lungs consist of the Pulmomary and Bronchial Vessels; the one for the general circulation, the other proper to the Lungs.

The Pulmonary Blood-vessels have been already taken notice of in page 165. Here it may be proper to observe, that the minute Branches of the Artery, running in the common Cellular Substance of the Lungs, form at last a *Plexus* upon the proper Cells, sometimes called *Rete Mirabile*, vel *Rete Vasculosum* MALPIGHI. Part of this Plexus terminates in the Cells, and their corresponding Bronchi, by Exhalent Vessels, from which lhat Halitus is derived which is expelled by the Lungs in Expiration.

The Pulmonary Veins are commonly observed to be maller, in proportion to the corresponding Arteries, than Veins are to Arteries in other parts of the Body, which has been supposed to be owing to the large quantity of Fluids expired.

The Bronchial Arteries arise by three or four small Branches; one of which is from one of the right Supeior Intercostals, the rest from the Trunk of the Aorta.

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They are dispersed upon the Bronchi and Bronchial Glands, and the Substance of the Lungs in general, and are found to communicate with the Pulmonary Artery.

The Bronchial Arteries are supposed to serve for the nourishment of the Lungs, and for the secretion of the Mucus.

The Veins return the Blood to the Vena Azygos, and Left Superior Intercostal Vein.

The Lymphatics form a Plexus upon the Surface of the Lungs:—They communicate freely with the deepseated Absorbents, and pass through the Bronchial Glands.

The Nerves of the Lungs are partly from the Great Sympathetics, but chiefly from the Eighth Pair, and are rather small in proportion to the bulk of the Organ on which they are dispersed.

The Lungs serve the general purpose of *Respiration*, which consists of *Inspiration* and *Expiration*, or the passage of the Air into or out from the Lungs, by the alternate dilatation and contraction of the Thorax.

Moderate *Inspiration* is performed in consequence of the Thorax being dilated by the action chiefly of the Diaphragm, assisted in a small degree by the Intercostales; the Lungs, which are passive, and in contact with the Thorax, following it, and the Air rushing into the Trachea by its own gravity.

In strong Inspirations, additional Muscles are brought into action, as the Scaleni, Serrati Postici Superiores, Serrati Magni, and Pectorales Minores.

*Expiration* is performed in consequence of a relaxation of the Muscles which dilate the Thorax,—of the contraction

### PART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

contraction of the Abdominal and a few other Muscles, —assisted in strong Expirations chiefly by the Trianguares Sterni, Sacro-lumbales, and Serrati Postici Inferiores,—of the elasticity of the Cartilages of the Ribs, and the elasticity and contractile nature of the Bronchi, by which the Cavity of the Thorax is diminished, and the Air is expelled from the Lungs.

According to late Experiments, it appears,—that the Wenous Blood passing to the Lungs of a dark red or purple colour, is charged with Carbon and Hydrogen; —that, while circulating upon the Bronchial Cells, one part of the Oxygen, contained in the common Air which has been inspired, unites with the Carbon and lHydrogen, and forms fixed Air and a Watery Halitus, which are carried off by Expiration;—that another part of the Oxygen is imbibed by the Blood, which, in consequence of these changes, or having received an Artetrial quality, returns from the Lungs of a florid red collour, and full of heat in a latent state, which becomes sensible in the course of the general circulation, and is M 4 diffused diffused over the different parts of the Body;—and that the Blood thus changed also affords a Stimulus to the Arteries, and promotes the different Secretions.

#### ESOPHAGUS.

The ESOPHAGUS, called also Gula or Gullet, derives its name from carrying what is eaten into the Stomach.

It is a Fleshy Canal, which begins from the Inferior part of the Pharynx, descends along the Neck, and through the Thorax, following near the direction of the Spine.

It is situated between the Trachca and Vertebræ; and in the Thorax, it proceeds behind the Base of the Heart, and between the Layers of the Posterior Mediastinum, from which it receives a lateral covering.

Soon after entering the Thorax, it makes a slight turn to the right, and passes down upon the fore and right side of the Aorta, consequently the Artery and it are prevented from injuring each other by pressure.

In its progress, it inclines more forwards and to the left side; and about the Ninth Dorsal Vertebra, it perforates the Muscular part of the Diaphragm, and terminates in the upper Orifice of the Stomach.

It has several *Coats* proper to it, the first of which is *Cellular*, and connects it to the adjacent parts.

The second Coat is *Muscular*, and is sometimes termed *Vaginalis Gulæ*.—It consists of two Layers; the external of which has thick, strong, longitudinal Fibres; the internal is formed of circular and transverse Fibres, and is thinner than the former.—The outer Layer is fitted

### FART IV.] OF THE THORAX.

fitted for shortening and relaxing, and the inner for contracting the Canal, during Deglutition.

The third Coat is termed Nervous, and is considered by some as a continuation of the Cutis Vera, but is properly Cellular, being formed of loose Cellular Substance, which connects the Muscular to the inner Coat.

The Inner Coat is continued from the lining of the Mouth: It consists of many longitudinal Plicx, which are scarcely visible when the Esophagus is dilated, and is furnished with numerous Foramina, which discharge a Mucus, for lubricating the Passage, and facilitating Deglutition.

The Arteries of the Esophagus are Branches of the Inferior Laryngeals, which supply the Cervical part of it, and the Esophageals and Branches of the Bronchials, which are derived from the Aorta Descendens, and supply the Thoraeic Portion.

The Veins go to the Inferior Laryngeals, to the Vena Azygos, and to the left superior Intercostal Vein.

The Absorbents are numerous, and intermix with those of the Heart and Lungs.

The Nerves are chiefly from the Eighth Pair.

The Esophagus receives the Aliments from the Pharynx, and conveys them to the Stomach.

#### THORACIC DUCT.

The THORACIC DUCT is a small Membranous-like Canal, situated in the back part of the Thorax, and is the principal Trunk of the Absorbent System.

It begins upon the third Vertebra of the Loins, and passes passes behind the Aorta, crossing obliquely from left to right, till it gets to the right side of that Artery.

Upon the first Lumbar Vertebra, it forms an Oval Sac, termed Receptaculum Chyli, which is placed behind the Right Crus of the Diaphragm, and a little higher than the Right Renal Artery.

The Duct afterwards passes between the Crura of the Diaphragm, and ascends in the Thorax, on the anterior part of the Spine, between the Layers of the posterior Mediastinum, on the right side of the Aorta, and between it and the Vena Azygos.

It crosses behind the upper part of the descending Aorta, and emerges from the Thorax, to reach the under part of the left side of the Neck.

In the Neck, it passes behind the Internal Jugular Vein, and a little higher than the Subclavian.

It then turns downwards, forming an Arch, which terminates in the upper part of the Angle, between the Internal Jugular and Subclavian of the Left Side.

The Thoracic Duct receives the Chyle from the Lacteals, and Lymph from the Lymphatics, and discharges these into the red Veins.

OF

# OF THE ABDOMEN.

THE Abdomen or Belly extends from the Thorax to the under part of the Trunk.

It is bounded above by the Diaphragm, and the Bones to which that Muscle is fixed; below, by the Pelvis; behind, by the Lumbar Vertebræ and Muscles of the Loins; anteriorly, by its proper Muscles; and laterally, by the False Ribs, Ossa Ilii, and Muscles connected with these;—all of which have been described in their places.

It is divided into three Regions, termed Upper, Middle, and Under Region; each of which is subdivided into three others.

The Upper Region begins opposite to the Cartilago Ensiformis, at a small depression called Scrobiculus Cordis, and extends to about a hand-breadth from the Umbilicus.

The middle of this Region is termed Epigastrium, or upper part of the Belly, and the two lateral parts Hypochondria,

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chondria, from their lying under the Cartilages of the False Ribs.

The Middle Region occupies an equal distance above and below the Umbilicus.—The middle part of it is called the Umbilical, and its lateral parts the Lumbar Regions or Loins.

The Under Region begins where the middle one terminates, or at a line drawn between the superior-anterior Spinous Processes of the Ossa Ilii, and forms, in the middle, the Hypogastrium or bottom of the Belly; and at the sides, the Iliac Regions.

The Abdomen is covered on the outside by the common Integuments, and lined within by the Peritoneum, in the manner the Thorax is lined by the Pleura, but without being divided by the intervention of a Partition.

The Abdomen contains the Chylopoietic and Assistant Chylopoietic Viscera, or Organs of Digestion,—the Organs of Urine, and part of those of Generation, with the Vessels and Nerves which belong, some of them to these Viscera, and others to the lower parts of the Body.

The Chylopoietic Viscera comprehend the Stomach, which is situated in the upper and left part of the Abdomen,—the Intestines, which fill the greater part of it, —and the Membranes, termed Omenta and Mesentery, which are connected with these.

The Assistant Chylopoietic Viscera consist of the Liver, which is placed in the upper and right side of the Abdomen ;—of the Spleen, which is situated in the upper and

# PART IV.] OF THE ABDOMEN.

and left side of it, and of the Pancreas, which lies under the Stomach.

Of the Organs of Urine, the Kidneys are placed in the back part of the Abdomen, and the Bladder, with some of the Organs of Generation, in the Pelvis.

#### PERITONEUM.

The *Peritoneum*, named from its being stretched or spread around the Bowels, is a firm but simple Membrane, by which the Abdominal Viscera are surrounded and partly supported, and the Walls of the Abdomen lined, as already observed, somewhat after the manner the Pleura covers the Lungs, and lines the Cavity of the Thorax.

Its External Surface is rough and Cellular, and closely connected with the parts to which it belongs.

The Internal Surface is remarkably smooth, and lubricated by a Liquor which is exhaled from its own Vessels, without the interference of Glands.

It is very elastic, and admits of great extension, as happens in Gestation, Corpulency, Ascites, and Hernia; but, upon the causes of extension being removed, it returns to its former dimensions.

It lines the Diaphragm, and passes downwards, adhering firmly to the Abdominal Muscles.—It also lines the containing, and covers the contained parts of the Pelvis, from which it is reflected in the back part of the Abdomen, lining the Muscles there, and, by its reduplications, covering the Bowels and great Blood-vessels of that Cavity. Strictly speaking, however, the Abdominal minal Viscera may be said to lie on the outside of the Peritoneum.

In its passage from one Bowel to another, it forms Doublings which serve as Ligaments to fix the Bowels to each other, and likewise to the Body.

It gives a general covering to most of the Bowels, a partial one to a few, and to those which are deep seated, and project least, a still more partial covering.

It forms a large Sac, the posterior part of which adheres firmly to the different Viscera, and the anterior to the Abdominal Muscles ;—the part lining the Abdomen being merely in contact with its contents, and allowing a small degree of motion.

The Cellular Substance on the External Surface of this Membrane, is not every where of equal thickness, being in some parts, as upon the Bowels, remarkably thin; in others, as over the Kidneys, filled with a considerable quantity of Fat.

The Cellular Substance forms various Processes or Productions, some of which, as those on the Spermatic Cords, pass through Foramina, to be connected with the neighbouring parts; and the Processes are sent off, without affecting the Internal Membrane; the one not accompanying the other.

The Arteries of the Peritoneum come from the Internal Manmary, Epigastric, Inferior Intercostal, Lumbar, Sacral, and Ilio-Lumbar Arteries, and from those which supply the Abdominal Viscera.

The Veins have the same course, bear the same names with the Arteries, and in general pass to the Inferior Cava.

### PART IV.] OF THE ABDOMEN.

The Absorbents are numerous, and run chiefly to the Iliac and Lumbar Plexus.

The Nerves, which are few in number and small, are from the Inferior Dorsal, the Lumbar, the Great Sympathetic and Sacral Nerves.

Its Blood-vessels, however, are not very numerous, neither does it possess much Sensibility when free from disease.

The Peritoneum lines and strengthens the Cavity of the Abdomen; incloses and assists in supporting its different Viscera; furnishes most of them with an External Coat; connects them to the Body; and, by its smoothness and slipperiness, prevents the effects of Friction.

Upon the outside of the Peritoneum are Four White Lines, or small Cords, three of which are Vessels in the Fœtus,—one of them a Vein, and two of them Arteries; the fourth is the Urachus.—In the Adult, they are shrivelled up, and serve as Ligaments; the Vein forming the Round Ligament of the Liver, the three other Cords forming Ligaments of the Bladder.

# STOMACH.

The Stomach is a large Bag or Reservoir, situated obliquely across the upper and back part of the Abdomen, in the Epigastric and left Hypochondriac Regions.

It is turned downwards and forwards, so as to form an Angle with the Esophagus, the Angle becoming more conspicuous

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conspicuous in proportion as the Stomach is more distended.

The right part of the Stomach is situated under the left part of the Liver, the rest of it is placed immediately under the Diaphragm; and in the upright position of the Body, the Stomach rests upon the Intestines.

The Stomach is long, round, and tapering, and has been compared in shape to the Bag of a Bagpipe, or to a Cone, with the Base drawn back, towards the summit.

The size is in proportion to the quantity of Aliment it has been accustomed to receive, and therefore is commonly larger in Men than in Women.

It has a Large and Small Extremity, an Upper and Under Surface, a Great and Small Curvature, a Left and Right Orifice, and consists of several Layers or Coats.

The Large, called also the Left Extremity, or Base, is situated in the Left Hypochondriac Region, and forms the great Cul de Sac of the French. This is in contact with the Spleen, and is considerably higher than the Small or Right Extremity, or small Cul de Sac, which is placed in the Epigastrie Region, and approaches more or less towards the Right Hypochondrium, in proportion as the Stomach happens to be more or less distended.

The Upper Surface is turned towards the Diaphragm, the Under towards the Intestines ;—but when the Abdomen is laid open,—unless the Stomach be considerably distended,—the superior Surface becomes anterior, and the inferior Surface posterior.

The Large Curvature is turned obliquely forwards and downwards

### PART IV.] OF THE ABDOMEN.

downwards towards the Abdominal Muscles, and extends from one Orifice to the other.

The Small Curvature is opposed to the other, and turned backwards and upwards, towards the Spine, exttending also between the two Orifices.

The Orifices are next the Small Curvature. The Left is termed Cardia, or Os Ventriculi, or Upper Oriifice of the Stomach.—It is placed at the right side of the great Extremity, and is opposed to the Spine, but tat a little distance from it, and is formed by the termiination of the Esophagus.—It allows a free passage for the Food into the Stomach, the return of which is prevented by the Angle formed between the Stomach and lEsophagus, by the Fleshy parts of the Cardia, and by the Fleshy Crura of the Diaphragm, between which the (Cardia is situated.

The Right or Inferior Orifice, commonly termed Pylorus, is situated under the small Lobe of the Liver, a little to the Right Side of the Spine,—is turned more forwards than the Cardia, and is considerably lower, but rises in proportion to the Distension of the Stomach.

The Stomach is connected by the Cardia to the Esophagus,—by the Pylorus to the beginning of the Intestrines,—by the Peritoneum and Blood-vessels to the Spleen,—and by a reflection of the Peritoneum to the troot of the Liver, and to the great Intestines.

The Structure of the Stomach is in general similar to what of the Esophagus, of which it is a kind of Expansion.

The Coats of the Stomach are Four in number. Vol. II. N The

The First, or *External Coat*, called also *Peritoneal*, is a Reflection of that part of the Peritoneum which comes from the root of the Liver.

It strengthens the Stomach; by its smoothness it diminishes the effects of Friction; and possessing few Nerves or Blood-vessels, it is not very susceptible of pain or inflammation.

The Cellular Substance under the Peritoneal Covering, is described by some Authors as a distinct Coat, called *Tunica Cellulosa Ruyschiana*;—but ought not to be numbered among the Coats of the Stomach.

The Second, or *Muscular Coat*, is composed chiefly of two Planes of Fibres variously disposed.

The External Plane is longitudinal, extends from the longitudinal Fibres of the Esophagus, and follows the same general course with that of the Stomach from the Great to the Small Extremity.

Upon each side of the small Curvature, the longitudinal Fibres form a thick, strong, Muscular Band.

The second Plane is chiefly transverse or circular, and considerably thicker and stronger than the other.

Its Fibres are intersected by many small, white, Tendinous-like Lines ;—these, however, are in a great measure formed of that Cellular Substance by which the two Coats are united.

The Muscular Coat assists in the Digestion of the Food, by giving a gentle motion to the Stomach, according to the direction of its Fibres; the one set shortening it, the other rendering it narrower.

The Pylorus is formed by a Doubling of the two inner Coats, which project into the Passage between the Stomach

### PART IV.] OF THE ABDOMEN.

Stomach and Intestines, and contain a Ring of Muscular Fibres, which form a Sphincter, called Sphincter Pylori.

This Substance, by contracting, prevents the grosser indigested parts of the Aliment from escaping, and, by dilating, allows the Pulpy digested part to pass to the Intestines.

The Third Coat, commonly called Nervous, sometimes Vascular, but properly Cellular, consists of a large quantity of fine Cellular Substance without Fat, and is intermixed with, and supported by, small Aponeuroticlike Filaments, which cross each other obliquely, but which are also of a Cellular nature.

This Coat strengthens the Stomach, and allows the Vessels to be distributed to the Inner Coat, with which it is intimately connected.

The Fourth, or *Inner Coat*, called also *Villous*, is continued from the Inner Coat of the Esophagus, but has much more of a Velvet appearance than it.—It is formed of fine, short, prominent Villi, which are crowded with Small Vessels, some for furnishing a Mucous Liquor to the Stomach, others for absorbing a portion of the thinner part of the Food.

The two last Coats are more extensive than the rest, and form, upon the inner part of the Stomach, many Doublings, termed Rugæ, the greater number of which run in a wavering transverse direction, and are afterwards divided into a sort of Net-work. Near the Orifices, however, especially towards the upper one, they run more in a longitudinal direction, corresponding with

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# OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

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the Plicæ of the Esophagus, and have a radiated appearance at the Cardia.

The Rugæ of the Stomach, like the Plicæ of the Esophagus, are most distinct when the Stomach is empty; —when it is full, they are much less evident.

They admit of distension without endangering the Vessels and Nerves dispersed in them, and assist a little in detaining the Aliment till properly digested.

From the inner Surface of the Stomach, a Liquor issues, which is found to approach to the nature of Saliva, and is termed Gastric Juice.—This was formerly supposed to come from Glands seated in the Third Coat, but is now more frequently considered as a Secretion from the Arteries of the Stomach, no Glands being evident there, at least in the sound state of this Viscus, unless we consider the Villi as such.

The Arteries of the Stomach are derived from the Cæliac Artery. They consist of the Superior Gastric, which supplies the place next the small Curvature; of the Right Inferior Gastric, which is a Branch of the Hepatic; of the Pyloric Arteries, which are small Branches from the Gastrics and from the Hepatic; and of the Left Gastric and Arteriæ Breves, which are Branches of the Splenic Artery.

When the Arteries arrive at the small Curvature of the Stomach, they separate into two Layers; the inner is spread out upon the Nervous Coat, and is distributed to the Villi by Filaments, which form a most delicate Plexus. The External Layer is expanded under the Peritoneal Coat, supplying it and the Muscular one with

#### PART IV.7 OF THE ABDOMEN.

with numerous Branches, which form frequent Anastomoses with each other.

The Veins have the same names, and nearly the same course with the Arteries. The whole of them terminate in the Vena Portæ.

The Absorbents of the Stomach are numerous and large. They pass through small Glands situated upon its Curvatures, and go afterwards to the Thoracic Duct.

They appear to carry Lymph only, no Chyle having been detected in them, even in cases where the Lacteals were found full of it.

The Nerves are chiefly from the Eighth Pair, and partly from the Great Sympathetics, and are most numerons upon the Cardia.

The Stomach receives the Food from the Esophagus, and afterwards prepares it, by Digestion, for the Intestincs.

The Digestion of the Food in the Stomach is found to be effected,—by Triture, which is performed by the motions of the Stomach and surrounding Muscles,—by Dilution,—by a partial Fermentation,—but chiefly by the action of the Gastric Juice serving as a Menstruum.

# INTESTINES.

The Intestines consist of a long Cylindrical Canal, which begins at the Inferior Orifice of the Stomach, N 3 and, and, after winding in various directions, terminates in the Anus.

In general, they are about six times the length of the Body to which they belong; though, in a person of short stature, the proportional length of the Intestines is greater, and *vice versa*.

They occupy a large part of the Abdomen, and are connected to the Body through their whole extent, by a Doubling of the Peritoneum.

On account of the inequalities of their size, they are divided into *Small* and *Large* Intestines, and each of these again have their subdivisions.

#### SMALL INTESTINES.

The Small Intestines are smooth on their outer Surface, and of a tapering form, becoming gradually less in their diameter from their upper to their under extremity, and are divided into the Duodenum, Jejunum, and Ilium.

The Duodenum begins at the Pylorus, and makes a short turn upwards and backwards, by the Neck of the Gall-Bladder, to which it is contiguous; having the Anterior Layer of the Omentum fixed to its inferior part, and the Omentum Minus to its opposite side.

It then passes obliquely downwards and to the right side, before the Great Vessels which go into the Liver, and likewise before the Renal Artery and Vein; the Gut being included in the Cellular Substance of the Meso-colon.

Opposite to the under part of the Kidney, it makes a turn

## PART IV.] OF THE ABDOMEN.

turn to the left side, where it is lodged in the common root of the Meso-colon and Mesentery, receiving into its back part the ends of the Biliary and Pancreatic Ducts, and going over the Aorta and Vena Cava, at the upper part of the Lumbar Vertebræ.

In passing across these Vessels, it is involved in the root of the Mesentery, and ascends a little till it gets to the left side of the Spine; then, perforating the common root of the Mesentery and Meso-colon, it makes a turn forwards, and obtains the name of *Jejunum*.

The Jejunum, so named from its being commonly more empty than the other Intestines, in consequence of the thinner parts of its Contents being sooner absorbed, begins at the last turn of the Duodenum, and forms numerous Convolutions, which run in all directions, and are situated in the upper part of the Umbilical Region.

The *Ilium*, named from its numerous Turns, begins where the Jejunum terminates, or where the Internal Plicæ become less conspicuous, and is distinguished externally from that Gut, by being smaller, thinner in its Coats, and paler, and from its forming about threefifths of the length of the two Intestines.

The Ilium, like the Jejunum, forms many convolutions, which are situated on the under part of the Umbilical Region, and extend as far as the Hypogastric and Iliac Regions, and not unfrequently, especially in Women, into the Cavity of the Pelvis.

It surrounds the lateral parts of the Jejunum, and is supported by the Ossa Ilia; and, the last turn of the Gut passing across towards the upper edge of the Right

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Os Ilium, it terminates by a Valve in the left side of the beginning of the Colon.

Through the whole of this course, the Jejunum and Ilium are fixed to the Spine by a continuation of the Mesentery.

# GREAT INTESTINES.

The Great, like the Small Intestines, form one continued Canal, which tapers from its upper to near its under extremity; but they differ from them in being considerably wider, shorter, and straighter, in being irregular in their outer Surface, and tacked up into Cells, and in having many Processes upon them, termed Appendiculæ Pinguedinosæ.

Like the Small Intestines, also, they are divided into three parts, termed Cæcum, Colon, and Rectum.

The Intestinum Cæcum forms a round short Bag, only about three or four fingers-breadth in length, and nearly the same in diameter. The Cæcum, properly so ealled, is that part of the Intestine which lies under the insertion of the Ilium, though frequently the dilated beginning of the Colon is distinguished by the same name.

It is situated in the Right Iliac Region, resting on the Cavity of the corresponding Os Ilium, at the under end of the Right Kidney, and is concealed by the last Convolutions of the Ilium.

The bottom of it is turned downwards, and forms a short Sac; the mouth of which is directed towards the Colon, and may be considered as forming the Cacum Caput Colli.

### PART IV.7 OF THE ABDOMEN.

At the last Vertebra of the Loins, it forms the Mesorectum, which by degrees becomes narrower, and disappears towards the under part of the Pelvis; the Rectum being then immediately connected to the Os Sacrum.

Between the Layers of the Meso-colon are placed the Arteries, Veins, and Nerves, with the Absorbents and Glands of the Colon.

The Mesentery, in general, suspends, connects, and retains the Intestines in their places, furnishes them with an external Coat, receives their Glands, Vessels, and Nerves, and allows the two last to be properly distrilbuted.

#### OMENTUM.

The Omentum or Caul, formerly called Epiploon, from its seeming to float upon the Intestines, is a fine Memlbranous Bag, produced from the Peritoneum, and intermixed with much Fat, and covers a large portion of the Anterior Surface of the Abdominal Viscera.

It is divided into Omentum Gastro-colicum, and Omentum Colicum; the former common to the Stomach and (Colon, the latter proper to the Colon: They are, however, a continuation of one and the same Substance.

The Omentum Gastro-colicum consists of an Anterior and Posterior Part, each of which is formed of two Membranes intimately united.

In young Subjects, the Omentum forms a distinct Bag; but in old People, the Layers of which it is composed. posed become more or less incorporated, and Cribriform or Reticular, and varies much in its extent and general appearance in different bodies.

The Anterior Layer is a continuation of the Peritoneal Coats, produced from the upper and under Surfaces of the Stomach.

This Production arises from the whole length of the large Arch of the Stomach, and beginning of the Duodenum; its origin extending as far as the Spleen. It descends commonly a little below the Umbilicus, especially in fat people; sometimes, however, it does not reach this depth, at other times it is found as low as the Pubes, but without adhering to the Abdominal Muscles, behind which it is situated.

Its under edge is reflected, to form the posterior Layer, which ascends without adhering to the Small Intestines over which it is spread, till it reaches the Arch of the Colon, to the greater part of which Arch, and to the Vessels of the Spleen, it is connected.

The Omentum Colicum, which is merely an Appendix of the Omentum, arises from the right part of the Arch of the Colon, in the same manner as the other part of the Omentum arises from the Stomach, and sends downwards and to the right side a Cunciform Process, which is connected with the Colon Dextrum as far as the Cæcum.

Besides the Omentum, there is a Membrane much smaller, situated between the Liver and Stomach, termed Omentum Hepato-gastricum, or Omentum Minus of WINSLOW, or Membrana Macilentior of HALLER, from its having little Fat in it.

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#### PART IV.7 OF THE ABDOMEN.

It passes from the fore-part of the Sinus of the Porta, to the under and back part of the Liver, to be connected to the whole edge of the small Curvature of the Stomach, and to the beginning of the Duodenum.

Like the other Omentum, it is composed of two Layers, but is thinner, less fat, and more uniform in its structure, and also differs from it in having no reflection npwards.

After the Omentum Minus reaches the Stomach, its two Layers separate from each other, inclose that Viscus, and form its External Coat.

At the Great Curvature of the Stomach, they rejoin, and form the Auterior, and then the reflected or Posterior part of the Omentum Majus.

The Posterior part separates again into two Layers, which inclose the Colon, and form its External Coat.

At the opposite side of the Colon, the Layers re-unite, and form the Meso-colon.

By the Membrane thus continued, a large irregular Bag is formed, of which the Omentum Minus, Stomach, and anterior portion of the Omentum Majus, constitute the anterior, and the reflection of the Large Omentum, the Colon, and Meso-colon, the posterior part.

At the upper and right side of the Sac, there is a Passage large enough to admit a Finger, termed *Foramen* WINSLOWI.

It is situated immediately behind the Cord of the Great Vessels which lead to the Liver, and is of a Semicircular form.

It is composed of the Peritoneum, under the appear-

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ance of two Ligaments which connect the surrounding parts to each other.

The Foramen of WINSLOW maintains a communication between the Large Sac of the Omentum and common Cavity of the Abdomen; from which circumstance, Fluids generated by disease may readily pass from one of these Cavities to the other.

The Omentum, by its Fatty nature, serves to lubricate the Viscera, and to prevent them from being injured by Friction. Being suspended as a Curtain over the Intestines, it has also been supposed to retain the Heat that would otherwise escape from them, but a large portion of the Intestines has no covering from this Substance.

STRUCTURE OF THE SMALL INTESTINES IN GENERAL.

The Structure of the Small Intestines is nearly similar to that of the Stomach, and the number of their Coats the same.

The *External Coat*, excepting in a portion of the Duodenum, is a continuation of that part of the Peritoneum which forms the Mesentery. It closely surrounds the Intestines, adhering to them by fine Cellular substance.

'The Second or Muscular Coat, as in the Stomach, is composed of two Planes of Fibres; the External or Longitudinal of which are more minute than the Internal.

The Circular Fibres are distinct and numerous: They consist
consist of Segments of Circles, which unite at different distances, so as to surround the Canal.

The Longitudinal Fibres shorten, and the Circular contract the Intestines; and upon the alternate relaxation and contraction of these Fibres depends that Vermicular motion called *Peristaltic*, by which the contents are pushed through the Canal.

The Third, commonly called Nervous Coat, like that in the Stomach, is white and firm, and composed of Cellular Substance without Fat;—its firmness giving strength to the Intestines.

The Fourth, or Villous Coat, differs from that of the Stomach, in forming, with the Cellular Coat, numerous transverse Folds, termed Valvulæ Conniventes, from their serving as a kind of Valves, to retard the motion of the Food.

One edge of these Valves is fixed to the Intestine, the other is loose. They are much deeper than the Rugæ of the Stomach, and placed opposite to the Interstices of each other, and are of different lengths, not forming entire Circles.

The Villi of the Inner Coat are much more conspicuous than in the Stomach, being composed not only of the extremities of Arteries, Veins, and Nerves, but particularly of the Mouths of Lacteal Vessels, the Origins of which are extremely small, and have a fungous appearance.

Numerous Ducts of Simple and Compound Glands terminate on this Coat, for the secretion of Mucus.

The former are called Solitary, and the latter Con-<br/>YoL. II.Ogregate ;

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gregate ; and, from their Describers, Glandulæ PEYERI, and Glaudulæ BRUNNERI.

They are in the form of Papillæ, but so minute as seldom to be seen, excepting in the diseased state; though they are supposed to be dispersed over the whole of the Canal.

# STRUCTURE OF THE SMALL INTESTINES IN PARTICULAR.

The Duodenum is the most lax, and the straightest of the Small Intestines, and so large as to have been considered as a Ventriculus Succenturiatus, or Secondary Stomach.

It is of a redder colour than the rest, has a thicker Muscular Coat, receives only a partial Covering from the Peritoneum, and is fixed more closely to the Body, without floating like the other Intestines.

It is perforated at the distance of three or four fingers-breadth from the Pylorus, by the ends of the Biliary and Pancreatic Ducts, for the reception of Bile and Pancreatic Juice.

On the Duodenum, the Lacteal Vessels begin to make their appearance, and numerous Mucous Glands are found in it, especially near the Pylorus. The inner surface presents only some irregular Rugæ, in place of Valvulæ Commentes.

The Duodenum receives the Food from the Stomach, and detains it till it be mixed with the Bile and Pancreatic Juice.

The Jejunum differs from the Duodenum in deriving

its common Coat wholly from the Peritoneum,—in being smaller,—in having a weak Muscular Coat, the external Fibres of which are extremely minute,—in the Valvulæ Conniventes, Villi, and Lacteals, which proceed from them, being much more conspicuous and numerous.

The Ilium differs from the former, in being less in diameter, and its Coats thinner and of a pale colour, and in having fewer and smaller Lacteal Vessels.—In this Intestine the Valvulæ Conniventes gradually deccrease in size and number, and at length entirely disappear.—At its under end, the Mucous Glands are disttinct and frequent.

The Small Intestines in general promote the formattion of the Chyle,—allow it to be absorbed, and—propel the remains of the Food into the Large Intestines.

#### STRUCTURE OF THE GREAT INTESTINES IN GENERAL.

The Great have the same number of Coats with the Small Intestines, but differ from them in being thicker and stronger.—The Valvulæ Conniventes are deep, and placed opposite to each other, and, like the Small Inttestines, diminish in number and size towards the under textremity.—The Villous appearance is much less disttinct.—The Mucous Glands are larger, but simpler than those of the Small Intestines.

# STRUCTURE OF THE GREAT INTESTINES IN PAR-TICULAR.

The Intestinum Cæcum is of the same general struc-O 2 ture

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ture with the rest of the Great Intestines : Its Villi are very short; and it has a number of solitary Mucous Glands, broader than those of the Small Intestines, which, when diseased, sometimes appear like Small-pox, with a Perforation in each.

The Appendix Vermiformis is of the same structure with the other Intestines, contains no Fæces, but is furnished with numerous Glands similar to those of the Duodenum, the contents of which pass into the Cæcum, a little below the Valve of the Colon, and assist in lubricating that Intestine, and in facilitating the expulsion of the Fæculent Matter.

In the Cæcum and beginning of the Colon, the Food coming from the Ilium is retained for some time, and, in consequence of Absorption, acquires a greater degree of consistency, and receives a fætid smell.

The Valvula Coli,—sometimes called Valvula Ilii, or Valvula BAUHINI, from its supposed Discoverer, and Valvula TULPII, from the Author who gives a particular description of it,—is situated at the beginning of the Colon, and is placed transversely in the posterior and left part of that Intestine.

It is formed of a Projection of the Villous and Nervous Coats, and Circular Muscular Fibres of the Ilium, Cæcum, and Colon, and has two Folds or Lips, with an Aperture in form of a Mouth or Chink between them.

At the ends of the Valves are two Cords, termed Retinacula, or Fræna MORGAGNI, which retain the Valve in its proper situation.

The Valve of the Colon allows a free passage for the Contents

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Contents of the Small into the Large Intestines, but completely prevents their return.

The Colon is of a similar structure with the Cæcum. —The inner Surface is smooth.—The Longitudinal Muscular Fibres are collected upon it into three Fasciculi or Bands, which arise at the root of the Vermiform Process, and are continued along the Colon to the Rectum.

The Longitudinal Bands are shorter than the rest of the Colon, and of conrse assist in contracting it, and forming it into Plicæ, which lie across the Gut, answering to the Valvulæ Conniventes; only they are at a greater distance from each other, and much larger; dividing the Colon into little apartments, called *Cells*.

The Cells of the Colon, with their Partitions, have a threefold order, the Intestine being almost quite smooth or plain, opposite to the Longitudinal Bands.

The Cells assist in preventing the too rapid descent of the Fæces.

The Colon receives the Excrementitious parts of the Aliment, retains them, changes them into Fæces, and then, by the Peristaltic motion of the Intestines and power of Respiration, pushes them, by slow degrees, to the Rectum.

The Rectum differs from the Colon in being covered conly auteriorly and laterally by the Peritoneum :—Its Muscular Fibres are stronger and thicker, and spread uniformly over the Intestine. The Circular Fibres are so thick at the end of the Rectum, as to have been named Internal Sphincter.

It has no Cells like the Colon; but the Cellular and Q8 Inner Inner Coat are so much larger here than they are higher up, as to fall into transverse Folds, which, however, disappear in proportion to the distension of the Intestine.

The middle and under end of the Rectum has numerous large Mucous Glands or Follicles.

The extremity of the Rectum forms a firm Circle, which acts as a Valve, and assists the proper Sphincter in preventing the involuntary discharge of the Fæces.

The Verge of the Anus is surrounded with deep Follicles, the contents of which prevent the tender Skin of the Anus from being excoriated by hard or acrid Fæces.

The Anus is also surrounded with a great deal of Fat, which admits of the dilatation of the Rectum, and facilitates the discharge of the Fæces.

The Rectum receives the Fæces from the Colon, retains them for a certain time, till, by their weight and acrid nature, it is stimulated to discharge them; which it does by the power of its Muscular Coat, and of the Levator Ani, assisted by the action of the Diaphragmatic and Abdominal Muscles.

The Blood vessels of the Intestines are large and numerous, and are derived from different sources.

The Duodenum receives Branches from the Splenic and Hepatic Arteries.

The Jejunum, Ihum, and right half of the Colon, are supplied by the Superior Mesenteric Artery; and the left half of the Colon with the Rectum, by the Inferior Mesenteric Artery.

The Veins of all the Intestines send their Blood to the Vena Portæ.

The Absorbents of the Intestines are large and numerous.

#### PART IV:7 OF THE ABDOMEN:

rous.—They arise from their inner Surface, and run in the Mesentery and Meso-colon, passing through their numerous Glands.—The Absorbents of the Small Intestines terminate in the Receptacle of the Chyle; those of the Large Intestines, which are smaller than the former, go partly to the Thoracic Duct, and partly to the Lymphatics of the Loins.

The Nerves of the Intestines are very small, yet numerous, and are derived partly from the Eighth Pair, but chiefly from the Great Sympathetics.

The Vessels and Nerves of the Omenta are Branches of those which supply the Stomach, and have the name of *Gastro-Epiploic*.

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# OF THE LIVER.

THE Liver is the largest of the Conglomerate Glands; it forms a solid Mass, of a dusky red colour, situated immediately *under* the Diaphragm, extending downwards to the Margin of the Thorax, but not going beyond it.

It is placed partly in the right Hypochondrium, which it in a great measure fills, and partly in the Epigastrium, reaching over a little way into the left Hypochondrium.

It is convex and very smooth on the upper Surface, where it is opposed to the Diaphragm, though a little flattened on the upper part of its left side, where it is placed opposite to the Heart.

It is *irregularly concave* on the under side, where it rests upon the Stomach and Intestines, and is perforated by several large Blood-vessels.

It is thick on its right and posterior part, and becomes gradually thinner towards the left side; is obtuse or blunt posteriorly, where it is opposed to the Lumbar Vertebræ,

Vertebræ, and *acute* or *sharp* on its anterior edge, where it follows the Margin of the right False Ribs.—It is considerably broader from one side to the other, than from before backwards.

It is divided into *Prominences* or *Lobes*, two of which, called *Great* and *Small*, or *Right* and *Left Lobes*, are so considerable as to form the Body and whole upper part of the Liver:—The other Lobes, which are very inferior in size, are placed upon the under side of the former.

The Great Lobe is situated obliquely in the Right Hypochondriac Region, following the Curve of the Diaphragm, and rests upon the Pylorus, Colon, and top of the Right Kidney.

The Small Lobe, distinguished from the Great one by a broad Ligament, is placed almost horizontally, chiefly in the Epigastric, only a small portion of it lying in the Left Hypochondriac Region.

The other Lobes are,

The Lobulus SPIGELII, which is small when compared with the two former Lobes, but is the principal one below.

It is situated near the Spine, upon the left side of the Great Lobe, and is of a Pyramidal form, projecting like a Nipple, at the small Curvature of the Stomach.

The Lobulus Caudatus, which is merely the Root, or one of the Angles of the Lobulus SPIGELII, advancing towards the middle of the lower side of the Great Lobe.

The Lobulus Anonymus, or Quadratus, which is placed between the passage of the Round Ligament and the GallOF THE VISCERA, &c. [FART IV.

Gall Bladder, and is less prominent, but broader than the former Lobule.

From the Lobulus Anonymus, a Bridge, called *Pons* or *Isthmus Hepatis*, runs across the passage for the Round Ligament, to be joined to the Left Lobe :—It is sometimes wanting.

Upon the under side of the Liver, there are several *Fissures*, of which the following are the principal :--

The Great Fissure, called Fossa Umbilicalis, between the Right and Left Lobes, at the under and fore part of the Liver.

This is terminated by a Notch at the fore part of the Liver,—of different depths in different Bodies;—and behind, it is commonly covered with the Bridge above mentioned.

The Principal Fissure, termed Sulcus Transversus, or Sinus Portarum, extending from right to left, between the Great and Small Lobes, and bounded by these Lobes at its extremities, and by the Lobulus Anonymus before, and the Lobulus Spigelin behind; the two latter forming parts compared by the Ancients to a Gate, and therefore called Porta.

The Depression between the Great Lobe and Lobulus SPIGELII, for the passage of the Inferior Vena Cava, which has frequently a Bridge over it, forming it into a Canal.

A Small Depression, called Fossa Ductus Venosi, between the Left Lobe and Lobulus SPIGELII, running a little obliquely from right to left side, and receiving a Ligament, formerly a Branch of the Umbilical Vein in the Fortus.

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218

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The Liver is connected to the Body by different Protesses, termed its Ligaments; all of which, excepting one, are formed by Doublings of the Peritoneum, viz.

The Ligamentum Latum, or Suspensorium Hepatis, placed between the Right and Left Lobes above, and extending below into the Fossa Umbilicalis.

It is fixed obliquely to the Diaphragm and tip of the Ensiform Cartilage, and then descends in the same oblique direction, adhering to the inner part of the Vagina of the Right Rectus Abdominis, as far as the Umbilicus.

The Ligamentum Rotundum, which was the Umbilical Vein in the Fœtus, placed in a Doubling at the under part of the Ligamentum Latum, and fixed to the Umbilicus.

These two Ligaments have been supposed to resemble a Falx, with the edge turned uppermost, from which circumstance the Ligamentum Latum is sometimes also called Falciforme.

The Ligamentum Dextrum, or Right Lateral Ligament, which is short, and connects the back part of the right extremity of the Great Lobe to the Diaphragm.

The Ligamentum Sinistrum, or Left Lateral Ligament, which is longer than the former, and connects the left extremity of the Small Lobe to the Diaphragm.

The Ligamentum Coronarium, considered by some as merely Cellular Substance, and by others as a Reflection of the Peritoneum, or both.—It unites the root of the Liver to the Tendinous Portion of the Diaphragm.

Besides the Ligaments already mentioned, two others are described by HALLER; one called *Hepatico-Colicum*, which

# OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

which passes from the Gall-Bladder and contiguous Sinus Portarum, across the Duodenum, to the Colon; —another termed *Hepatico-Renalç*, which descends from the root of the Liver to the Kidney.—These, as well as the other Ligaments of the Liver in general, are productions of the Peritoneum.

The Ligaments of the Liver preserve it in its proper situation, and of course prevent it from inclining too much in any direction.—The Stomach and Intestines support it when the Body is upright, and the Diaphragm when the Body is inverted.

The Liver has a simple Coat adhering closelv to it, which it derives from the Peritoneum, and is every where covered by this Membrane, excepting behind, where it adheres to the Diaphragm by Cellular Substance.

The Substance of the Liver is composed of several kinds of Vessels, the extreme Branches of which are intermixed in such a manner, as to form numerous Pulpy Corpuscles, named *Acini*, which, when minutely examined, are observed to be composed of Vessels in the form of radiated *Villi* or *Penicilli*.

The Vessels of the Liver are, the Hepatic Artery, Vena Portarum, Venæ Hepaticæ, Absorbents, and Biliary Ducts.—It has likewise numerous Nerves.

The Trunks of the Hepatic Artery, Vena Portæ, Biliary Ducts, and Nerves, with the Absorbents and Lymphatic Glands of the Liver, form a large *Cord*, at its under part.

The Artery is situated in the left part of the Cord, the Vein in the right, with the Trunk of the Biliary Ducts . before

before it ;---the Nerves and Lymphatics surrounding the great Vessels.

The Cord of Vessels and Nerves is intermixed with much Cellular Substance, and covered externally by a Reflection of the Peritoneum, which has obtained the name of *Capsule of GLISSON*.

The Branches of the Vessels and Nerves accompany each other through the Substance of the Liver, forming small Fasciculi, in a manner somewhat similar to the Fasciculus of which the Cord is formed by their Trunks.

In their course through the Liver, the Branches of the different Vessels and Nerves, but particularly those of the Vena Portæ, are inclosed in a large portion of Cellular Substance, which is also frequently called *Cap*sule of GLISSON, from that Author supposing it to be a continuation of the Capsule which covers the Vessels before they enter the Liver.

The Hepatic Artery is derived from the Cœliac, and is dispersed throughout the whole Substance of the Liver, and also upon the Coat which covers it, and is so small, when compared with the Bulk of the Liver, as to have been generally supposed to be destined for the nourishment merely of that Viscus; but from injections passing from the Artery to the Biliary Ducts, and from other causes, it has been supposed by some Anatomists, that the Hepatic Artery is not only intended to nourish the Liver, but is capable of secreting part of the Bile;—and this supposition is farther confirmed, from the Vena Portæ having, in a recent case, been found wanting, while at the same time the Hepatic Artery

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Artery was larger than nsual, and the Veins, which commonly form the Vena Portæ, terminated in the Vena Cava.

The Vena Portæ is named from its situation with respect to the Porta of the Liver.

It partakes of the nature of an Artery and a Vein :-Like the former, it carries the Blood from the Trunk to the Branches, and, like the latter, it carries it to the Heart ;--or it is peculiar in the Blood flowing in one part from the Branches to the Trunk, and in another from the Trunk to the Branches.

It is formed by the Veins of the Stomach and Intestines, joined to those of the Spleen, Omentum, and Pancreas, and approaches to the nature of an Artery in the thickness of its Coats, though it has no Pulsation.

It passes to the Porta, where, from its great size, it is named Sinus Vence Portee, and divides into Branches which accompany those of the Artery in their course through the Substance of the Liver, terminating at last in the Pulpy Corpuscles.

The Vena Portie serves to carry Venous Blood to the Liver, for the secretion of the Bile.

The Venæ Hepaticæ are numerous. They are reflected partly from the extremities of the Artery, and partly from those of the Vena Portæ. They unite by degrees, and accompany the other two Sets of Vessels; but, at the root of the Liver, they form two or three large Trunks which terminate in the Vena Cava, where it is about to perforate the Diaphragm. They likewise send off some small Branches which terminate

minate in the Cava, where that Vein lies behind the Liver.

The Venæ Hepaticæ receive the Blood from the Hepatic Artery and Vena Portæ, after the Bile has been secreted, and return it to the Vena Cava, to be conveyed by it to the Heart.

The Vessels of the Liver communicate with each other in such a manner, that, after Death, a good Injection may be made to pass from the Artery into the Vena Portæ, Venæ Hepaticæ, and Biliary Ducts, though into these last with difficulty.

The Lymphatics of the Liver are so numerous as to cover almost the whole of its outer Surface. They discharge their contents partly into the beginning of the Thoracic Duct, and partly into a Plexus situated behind the Sternum.

The Nerves of the Liver are also numerous. They arise from the Great Sympathetics and Eighth Pair, and accompany the Blood-vessels.

The Biliary I ucts arise by extremely minute Branches, termed Pori Biliarii, or Tubuli Biliferi, chiefly from the extremities of the Vena Portæ, in the Substance of the Corpuscles, through the whole of the Liver.

The Pori Biliarii run in company with the branches of the Artery and Veins, and unite into larger and larger Branches, which atterwards go into two, and these again iinto a single Trunk in the Sinus Portarum, called *Ducitus Hepaticus*.

The Ductus Hepaticus serves to carry the Gall or Bile, which is of a yellow green colour, from the Liver,—and ito convey it, by the power of the Heart, Hepatic Artery, and and Vena Portæ, assisted by the pressure of the surrounding Muscles, to the Duodenum, and partly to the Vesicula Fellis.

The Vesicula, or Cystis Fellis, or Gall-Bladder, is a small, oblong, Pyriform Bag, consisting of a Fundus, Body, and Cervix, situated upon the concave side of the Great Lobe of the Liver, and placed in a transverse direction from behind forwards.

It extends from the Sinus Portarum, where the Cervix is situated, to the anterior edge of the Liver, and, when full, advances beyond the edge of the Liver, so as sometimes to have its Fundus opposed to the soft parts of the Abdomen, under the edge of the False Ribs.

The Fundus is a little lower than the Cervix, when the person is in the erect posture. It then also inclines a little to the right side, and rests upon the Colon at the beginning of the Duodenum.

It is composed of several *Coats*, the *external* of which is a continuation of the Membrane of the Liver: This, however, is only a partial Coat, covering that part of the Gall Bladder which projects beyond the Surface of the Liver.—It serves to give strength to the Gall-Bladder, and to fix it to the Liver.

Under the former Coat, a few pale scattered Fibres, running in various directions, are sometimes observed; which have been considered as a *Muscular Coat*; and under this there is some Cellular Substance, intermixed with a Plexus of Vessels, which has obtained the name of *Nervous Coat*.

The Inner Coat, sometimes called Villous, is full of Reticular Rugæ or Folds, which become extremely minute

nute towards the Cervix, where they run in a longitudinal direction.

The Surface of this Coat is every where perforated by the Ducts of small Follicles, which discharge a Viscid Mucus, to defend it from the Stimulant nature of the Bile.

The Gall-Bladder is connected through its whole length to the Liver by Cellular Substance, Blood-vessels, and Absorbents.

In many Brute-Animals, the Gall-Bladder is connected to the Liver also by a set of Ducts, called *Hepato-Cystic*, which convey the Bile found in the Gall-Bladder immediately from the Liver. No such Ducts, however, are demonstrable in the Human Body, though, in former times, the contrary has been maintained by different Authors.

The Gall-Bladder has Blood-vessels, Absorbents, and Nerves, in common with those of the Liver.—Its Veins pass into the Vena Portæ.

The Cervix or Neck of the Gall-Bladder is twisted and folded against itself, and afterwards contracts and sends out a Duct called *Cysticus*, which runs near the *Ductus Hepaticus*, and then joins it, at a sharp Angle, to form the *Ductus Communis Choledochus*.

The Ductus Cysticus is smaller than the Ductus Hepaticus, and differs from it also in having a number of imperfect Partitions or *Plicæ*, running in a somewhat spiral direction, and forming it into Cells, which retard the flow of the Bile.

The Gall-Bladder serves as a Receptacle for the Bile, when the Stomach and Intestines are empty, and have Vol. II. P no need of it, and retains it till wanted for the purpose of Digestion.—It is afterwards discharged from the Gall-Bladder, when the Stomach is full, into the Ductus Communis, and from that to the Duodenum, chiefly by the pressure of the surrounding Viscera, and partly, as some Anatomists suppose, by a small degree of contractile power in the Gall-Bladder itself.

The whole of the Bile contained in the Gall-Bladder, is found, by experiment, to pass from the Liver through the Hepatic Duct to the Ductus Communis, and from that by the Cystic Duct into the Gall-Bladder.

The Bile returning from the Gall-Bladder, is observed, from the thinner parts being absorbed, to be thicker, more acrid and bitter, and of a deeper colour, than that which flows from the Liver.

The Ductus Communis Choledochus is about the size of a Goose quill, and is considerably larger than either of the Ducts which open into it.

It descends at the posterior and left side of the first portion of the Duodenum, and passes for some way obliquely between the Muscular and Inner Coats of the Gut.—the Obliquity answering the purpose of a Valve.

It terminates in the left posterior, and nearly in the under part of the second turn of the Intestine, by a projecting Orifice, which is rounded above, and pointed below.

The Structure of the Ductus Choledochus, and of the Biliary Ducts in general, is of the same nature, being entirely Membranous. The Inner Surface of the Ducts also agrees in being perforated by numberless Pores, which

which are the Mouths of Mucous Follicles, similar to those upon the inside of the Gall-Bladder.

The Bile serves to mix the different parts of the Food properly together, for the formation of the Chyle,—to correct too great a disposition to acidity,—and to excite the Peristaltic motion of the Intestines.

#### SPLEEN.

The Spleen is a soft and very Vascular Substance, and of a purple colour.

It is somewhat depressed, is of a long oval form, and of considerable size, but varying in this respect in different Subjects.

It is situated under the Diaphragm, and almost vertically, in the Left Hypochondriac Region, between the large extremity of the Stomach and corresponding False Ribs;—its under end lying behind the Colon, and over the top of the Left Kidney.

The situation of the Spleen varies a little, according to the state of Respiration, and to the fulness or emptiness of the Stomach ;—rising or falling as the Lungs are less or more dilated, and becoming more oblique in its situation,—with its inferior extremity turned more forwards,—in proportion as the Stomach becomes more distended. Its form and size also vary a little, according to the degree of pressure it receives from the Stomach.

Its *External Surface* is convex and uniform, like that of the Ribs, &c. to which it is opposed.

Its Internal Surface, or that next the Spine, is irregularly concave, and is divided into an Anterior and P 2 Posterior Posterior Plane, by a longitudinal Groove or Fissure, where the Vessels and Nerves enter.

The Anterior Plane is more concave than the Posterior, corresponding to the contiguous convexity of the Stomach.

The Spleen has frequently deep *Fissures* upon its edges;—sometimes it has small *Appendages* attached to it, and not unfrequently there is one or more *Small Spleens* connected with it.

At the inner side, it is fixed to the Omentum, and by means of that and Blood-vessels, to the Stomach and Pancreas.—Behind, it is connected to the Diaphragm, and below, to the Left Kidney and Colon, by Reflections of the Peritoneum, and by Cellular Substance.

It is covered by a *double Membrane*, one Layer of which is a production of the Peritoneum, the other proper to the Spleen itself, but so closely connected to the common Coat, that they appear to be one and the same. Membrane.

The substance of the Spleen is remarkably soft, and it is by much the most tender of the Abdominal Viscera.

It consists of a Congeries of Blood-vessels, Lymphatics, and Nerves, joined together and supported by a large quantity of Cellular Substance.

The extreme Branches of the Blood-vessels put on the appearance of *Penicilli*, which have been mistaken for Glands.

These Vessels are so tender, that when an Injection is forcibly thrown into either Artery or Vein, particularly the latter, it bursts into the common Cellular Substance, and gives the appearance of Follicles or Cells.

The *Blood-vessels* of the Splcen are among the largest of the Body, in proportion to the size of the Viscus on which they are dispersed.

The Artery is a principal Branch of the Cœliac.—It runs in a serpentine direction, and, after sending Branches to the Pancreas, &c. and the Arteriæ Breves to the left end of the Stomach, it goes into the Substance of the Spleen, where it is subdivided into Branches, which are crowded together, and run in every direction, forming at length Plexus and Penicilli, which terminate in the Branches of the corresponding Vein.

The Vein, like that in most other Viscera, is larger than the Artery: It receives the Blood immediately from the terminations of the Artery, without the intervention of Cells.

The Splenic Vein receives the Venæ Breves of the Stomach, the Pancreatic Veins, &c. and forms one of the principal Branches of the Vena Portæ.

The Lymphatics from the superficial parts of the Spleen join the deep-seated Absorbents at the Fissure where the Blood-vessels enter, and afterwards pass through several Conglobate Glands lying over the Splenic Artery.

They intermix with Lymphatics belonging to several other Viscera, and terminate in the Thoracic Duct.

The Nerves of the Spleen, which arc small, but considerable in number, are Branches of the Great Sympathetic and Eighth Pair, and form an irregular Plexus which surrounds the Vessels.

No Exerctory Duct has been found to proceed from the Spleen, in consequence of which very various opi-

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229

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nions have been entertained with respect to the use of this Organ.

Many of the Ancients were of opinion,—that besides the Bile of the Liver, there was an *Atra Bilis*, or *Black Bile*, and that the Spleen was the receptacle of it.

Others have thought a particular Menstruum was secreted in it, and conveyed to the Stomach for the purpose of Digestion.

Others again,—that the Blood of the Spleen promotes the sluggish circulation of the Blood of the Vena Portæ.

The late MR HEWSON, who has written particularly on the Spleen, was of opinion, it concurred with the Thymus and Lymphatic Glands, in forming the red Globules of the Blood, and that these Globules were rendered complete in the Spleen.

It has been also supposed,—that as the Stomach becomes full, the Spleen is compressed by it, in consequence of which a greater quantity of Blood is sent to the Pancreas, for the secretion of the Pancreatic Juice.

But the present most prevalent opinion is,—that the Blood undergoes some change in it, which renders it useful in the secretion of the Bile; and the opinion is supported from the great quantity of Blood with which this Organ is known to be supplied, and from its Vein, not only in Man, but in other Animals, passing to the Vena Portæ.

#### PANCREAS.

The Pancreas is a long flat Gland of the Conglomerate

rate kind, and of the same nature with the Salivary Glands, of which it may be reckoned the largest.

It is situated in the Epigastric Region, and is placed transversely in the back part of the Abdomen, between the Stomach and Spine.

It has a large or Right Extremity, and a small or Left one, an Anterior and Posterior Surface, and an Upper and Under Edge.

The Right Extremity is attached to the left side of the second turn of the Duodenum, or to that part where the Intestine is about to go across the Spine.

From the under part of the Right Extremity, the Pancreas sends down an Elongation or Process, which adheres closely to the Duodenum.

This Process was discovered by WINSLOW, and termed by him *Pancreas Minus.*—It is also called *Head of* the Pancreas.

The Body of the Pancreas passes before the upper edge of the transverse portion of the Duodenum, and over the Aorta, Vena Cava, and part of the Splenic Vessels, to all of which it is attached.

It becomes gradually narrower and thinner towards its Left Extremity, which is rounded, and is fixed to the Spleen, through the medium of the large Omentum.

The Pancreas is covered anteriorly by the two Layers of the root of the Meso-colon ;—posteriorly, it is only covered with Cellular Substance, which connects it to the Vertebræ.

It is of a pale red colour, bordering upon yellow, and is composed of Acini, which form small Glands or Lobes, that are connected loosely by Cellular Substance,

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in such a manner as to give an appearance of uniformity and smoothness to the External Surface.

By a good Injection, each of the Acini is found to be composed of an assemblage of Blood-vessels, and of the origins of an Excretory Tube.

The Arteries of the Pancreas are derived, partly from the Hepatic, but chiefly from the Splenic, by several small Branches, which pass at various places into its Substance, in a transverse direction.

The Veins correspond in name and course with the Arteries, and assist in forming the Vena Portæ.

The Lymphatics run to the Splenic Plexus, and terminate in the Thoracic Duct.

The Nerves of the Pancreas are small. Like those of the other Viscera of the Abdomen, they are derived from the Great Sympathetic and Eighth Pair.

From the different Acini of the Pancreas, small Ducts arise, which join into larger ones, running transversely in the Substance of the Pancreas, and forming a common Duct, called *Ductus Pancreaticus*.

The Pancreatic Duct, termed also Ductus WIRTSUNGI, after the Discoverer of it in the Human Body, is remarkably thin, of a white colour, and semi-transparent.

It begins at the Left Extremity of the Pancreas, runs somewhat Serpentine in the Substance of the Gland, a little below its middle height, becoming gradually larger in consequence of receiving the different Branches which compose it,—and is at last about the size of a Raven's Quill.

At the Right Extremity of the Pancreas, it receives the principal Duct of the Pancreas Minus, and terminates

nates obliquely in the Duodenum by an Orifice common to it and the Ductus Communis Choledochus.—In some rare cases, however, it terminates at a little distance from the Biliary Duct; and sometimes also, the Duct of the Pancreas Minus ends separately in the Duodenum.

The Pancreas secretes a *Liquid*, resembling Saliva in quality and appearance, and discharges it by its Excretory Duct into the Duodenum.

The *Pancreatic Juice* incorporates the Bile with the Alimentary Mass, and may be said also to answer the same purpose to the Contents of the Intestines, which the Gastric Juice does to those of the Stomach; or, it finishes that Digestive Process in the Intestines, which was begun in the Stomach.

#### TABLE



#### ORGANS OF URINE.

of the

# ORGANS OF URINE AND GENERA-TION IN THE MALE.

#### KIDNEYS.

THE Kidneys are two Glandular Bodies, of a pale red colour, situated in the upper and back part of the Abdomen, in the Lumbar Region.

They are placed one on each side of the Spine, extending from the eleventh pair of Ribs to near the Ossa Ilia, and rest 'upon the Diaphragm, large Psoæ, Quaarati Lumborum, and Transversales Abdominis.

The Right Kidney is situated at the under and back part of the large Lobe of the Liver, behind the Colon, and is commonly a very little lower than the left.

The Left Kidney is placed at the under and back part of the Spleen, and behind the left portions of the Stomach, Pancreas, and Colon.

The Kidney is about five or six fingers-breadth in length,

#### OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

length, but considerably less from the outer to the inner side, and less still from before backwards; or, it is compared in shape to a *French* or *Kidney Bean*.

It is rounded anteriorly, flattened posteriorly, convex and uniform at its outer margin, and has a deep Depression or Sinus towards the Vertebræ, surrounded with unequal edges, where the Renal Vessels and Nerves enter.

It is a little broader behind than before, and a little broader and more curved above than below; from which circumstances, but more particularly from the disposition of the Vessels, to be afterwards mentioned, it is easy to distinguish the Right from the Left Kidney when taken out of the Body.

The Right Kidney is connected to the Liver and Duodenum, the Left to the Spleen, and both to the Muscles on which they are placed, and to the Renal Glands and Colon, by Cellular Substance, and by the Peritoneum.

They are also connected to the Aorta and Vena Cava by their Blood-vessels, and to the Bladder of Urine by the Ureters.—They accompany the motions of the Liver and Spleen, in the different states of Respiration.

Each Kidney is surrounded by loose Cellular Substance, which commonly contains a considerable quantity of Fat, from which it is termed *Timica Adiposa*.

The *Tunica Adiposa* covers not only the Kidney, but the large Vessels, and defends them from the pressure of the surrounding Viscera.

Under the Tunica Adiposa, there is a Membrane composed

#### PART IV.] ORGANS OF URINE.

posed of the original proper Coat and Cellular Substance incorporated, which adheres closely to the Kidney, and is reflected over the edges of the Sinus, to be joined to the Pelvis and large Vessels.

The Substance of the Kidney is commonly smooth and uniform, though sometimes it is irregular, in consequence of the Lobes which originally form it not being completely incorporated. It consists of an outer part called *Cortical*, and an inner termed *Medullary*.

The Cortical Substance, termed also Secerning, surrounds the Kidney, and forms about a third of its breadth. —It likewise sends in partitions which separate the Medullary parts from each other.

The Medullary, termed also Uriniferous Substance, is of a paler colour than the former, and is divided into a number of distinct Columns, each of which terminates in a Projection called Papilla, or Processus Mammillaris.

The *Papillæ* are merely the continuation of the Uriniferous part, though frequently considered as a third division of the Substance of the Kidney.

Each Kidney has one, and sometimes more Arteries, which run transversely from the Aorta, and a Vein still larger than the Artery, which terminates in the Cava. —They enter at the Sinus of the Kidney, and are included in Cellular Substance, which accompanies them throughout their course.

The Right Renal Artery is longer than the Left, in consequence of the Vena Cava, behind which it passes, being placed upon the right side of the Aorta.

The Artery, as it approaches the Kidney, is divided inte

into Branches, which are afterwards minutely distributed through the Cortical Substance, forming Arches and Anastomoses; but these are found to be much less frequent than are commonly described; for a fine Injection thrown into a Branch of the Artery, fills only the ramifications belonging to that Branch.

The small Branches, after turning and winding in various directions, pass partly towards the Surface of the Kidney, where they form irregular *Stars*, some of which supply the proper Membrane.

Others turn inwards in a waving direction, and form Corpuscles, disposed somewhat after the manner of Clusters of small Berries, which can only be seen distinctly by the assistance of Glasses, after a minute Injection.

The Corpuscles were considered by DR NICHOLS as the Globular Terminations of Blood-vessels, and termed by him Globuli Arteriarum Termini; but these Globuli were afterwards observed by MR HEWSON, and others, to consist of small Vessels intimately intermixed.

The Veins returning from the extremities of the Arteries, unite in the Cortical Substance of the Kidney.

The Branches of the Renal Vein are much larger than those of the Artery; they communicate freely, especially on the Surface of the Kidney, but correspond with them in their course.—They form a large Trunk on each side, which lies anterior to the corresponding Artery, and runs transversely to the Cava; the left, which is the longer of the two, passing across the fore part of the Aorta.

The Lymphatics of the Kidney run from without inwards, and terminate in the Lumbar Glands, and afterwards

#### PART IV.] ORGANS OF URINE.

wards in the Thoracic Duct.—The Superficial Lymphatics are so small as seldom to be seen, excepting in the diseased state of the Kidney.

The Nerves are from the Semilunar Ganglion formed by the Great Sympathetic and Eighth Pair. They compose a Plexus which surrounds the Blood-vessels, and accompanies them in the Kidney.

From the minute extremities of the Renal Artery, in the Corpuscles seated in the Cortical Substance, the Uriniferous Tubes arise. They are mixed with some extremely small Blood-vessels, and constitute the Medullary Substance of the Kidney.

By degrees they unite into larger Tubes, which run in a radiated manner, the direction being from the outer edge or circumference, towards the Sinus or inner part of the Kidney.

The Radiated Tubes, becoming still larger in their passage, terminate in the *Papillæ*, which are of a compressed Conical form, and at a little distance from each other.

The *Papillæ* are twelve or more in each Kidney, the number varying according to that of the Original Lobes of which the Kidney is composed, and likewise from some of the Papillæ being incorporated with each other.

Upon the Points of the Papillæ are the Terminations of the Uriniferous Tubes,—large enough to be distinguished by the naked Eye,—through which the Urine distils from the Substance of the Kidney.

Round the root of each Papilla, a Membranous Tube arises, arises, termed Infundibulum or Calix, which receives the Urine from the Papillæ.

The Infundibula are commonly the same in number with the Papillæ; the number, however, varying in different Subjects, two or more of the Papillæ sometimes opening into the same Infundibulum.

The Infundibula join into two or three larger Trunks, at the Sinus of the Kidney, which afterwards form a Dilatation of considerable size, of the shape of an inverted Cone, and termed *Pelvis* of the Kidney.

The *Pelvis* is placed partly within, but the greater part of it without the Body of the Kidney, and contracts into a long Tube, about the size of a writing-pen, called *Ureter*.

The Urcters are commonly one to each Kidney, though in some rare instances they are double on one or on both sides.

The Artery of the Kidney is placed uppermost,—the Vein in the middle and fore part,—and the Pelvis and beginning of the Ureter at the under and back part of the Blood vessels; which disposition of the Vessels serves as a distinguishing mark between the Right and Left Kidney, when separated from the Body.

The Ureters descend in the Loins obliquely inwards behind the Peritoneum, and go over the Psoæ and Iliac Vessels, opposite to the anterior and lateral part of the Os Sacrum.

They pass afterwards into the Pelvis, and terminate in the under, outer, and back part of the Bladder.

### PART IV.] ORGANS OF URINE.

neither are they cylindrical, as they form slight dilatations and contractions in their course, two of which contractions are more observable in their passage over the Psoæ Muscles, and at their insertion into the Bladder.

The Ureters are covered anteriorly by the Peritoneum, and composed of an *External Membranous Coat*, a *Middle Muscular* one, formed chiefly of Circular Fibres, and an *Internal Coat*, sometimes called *Villous*.

The Inner Coat is very Vascular, and is perforated by the Mouths of small Ducts, which line it with a Mucus to defend it from the Urine.

The Vessels and Nerves of the Ureters are from those of the contiguous parts.

The Kidneys secrete the Urine from the Blood, and convey it by means of the Ureters to the Bladder.

#### RENAL GLANDS.

THE Renal Glands, termed also Capsulæ Atrabilariæ, Capsulæ Renales, Renes Succenturiati, and Glandulæ Supra-renales, are two small, flat, Glandular-like Bodies, of a dark-yellow colour, lying in the upper and back part of the Abdomen.

They are situated at the upper, inner, and fore part of the Kidneys, over the large Psoæ Muscles and Diaphragm, and higher than the Renal Vessels.

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VOL. II.

They

They are of an irregular figure, somewhat triangular, and are about a couple of fingers-breadth in length, but much larger proportionally in the Fœtus than in the Adult; in the latter case being only about a fiftcenth part of the size of the Kidney.

The Right one is connected to the Liver, the Left to the Spleen and Pancreas, and both to the small Muscle of the Diaphragm, and to the Psoæ Muscles and Kidneys, by Cellular Substance. They are likewise retained by numerous Vessels and Nerves which are spread over them.

They are surrounded by Cellular Substance, which is part of the Tunica Adiposa of the Kidneys, and have a thin proper Coat, which adheres firmly to them.

Their Inner Parts are softer than the Outer, are of a brown colour, and can be easily separated from the Outer, after which the Glands have the appearance of being real Capsules. They are frequently observed to be hollow, and to contain a dark-coloured Bilious-like matter, which is considered by many Anatomists as the Infternal very Vascular and tender parts melted down by Putrefaction.

Their Arteries come from those of the adjacent parts, particularly from the Renal, and also from the Aorta, and Diaphragmatic Arteries.

Of the principal Veins, the Right goes to the Vena Cava, and the Left to the Renal Vein.

The Lymphatics go chiefly to those of the Kidneys. The Nerves come principally from the Renal Plexus. They have no Excretory Ducts.

The Renal Glands have been supposed to furnish Lymph

#### ORGANS OF URINE. IPART IV.]

ILymph for the dilution of the Blood returning in the IRenal Veins, after the secretion of the Urine;

Or, to restore to the Blood of the Vena Cava, the iirritable parts lost in the secretion of the Urine and Bile ;

Or, to convey something useful to the Thoracic Duct ;

Or, in the Fœtus, to divert the Blood from the Kidmeys, and thereby lessen the quantity of Urine.

But their use is still undiscovered; though it is supposed, from their vicinity to the Kidneys, not only in Man, but in many other Animals, that they are subserwient to these Organs, particularly in the Fœtus.

# VESICA URINARIA.

The Vesica Urinaria, or Bladder of Urine, is a large Sac situated in the Pelvis, in the bottom of the Hypogastric Region.

It is placed in the fore part of the Pelvis behind the Ossa Pubis,-before the upper, and above the under portion of the Intestinum Rectum.

When empty, it is contracted into a small size, which ccupies the under and fore part of the Pelvis; but, when fully distended, it rises above the Brim of that Cavity, and sometimes, as in a suppression of Urine, it ascends to within a little distance of the Umbilicus.

When moderately dilated, it is of a roundish, or erregular oblong form, but a little flattened before, more onvex behind, and broader at its anterior and posterior

rior than towards its lateral parts,—a little more capacious, also, below than above, especially at its posterior part.

It is distingulshed into *Fundus*, *Body*, and *Cervix*; the first of which is placed upwards and a little forwards, and the last at the under and fore part.

It is connected below to the Rectum, and at the sides to the Pelvis, by the reflected Peritoneum and Cellular Substance; the former of which, when the Bladder is empty, has the appearance of lateral Ligaments.

It is attached, at the fore part of its Body, by Cellular Substance, to the Ossa Pubis, without the intervention of the Peritoneum.

It is also fixed to the Umbilicus by three Ligaments situated between the Peritoneum and Abdominal Muscles.—They are formed of the Urachus running upwards from the Fundus, and of the shrivelled Umbilical Arteries passing obliquely from the sides of the Bladder.

The firmest connection is by means of a Ligamentous Expansion, which runs from each side of the Neck of the Bladder and Prostate Gland, to be fixed to the under and inner part of the Symphysis of the Ossa Pubis.— It is connected, also, at this place, to the Penis, by the Urethra.

It is composed of different *Coats* joined together by Cellular Substance; the first of which is only a partial one continued from the Peritoneum.

The Peritoneal, or Common Coat, recedes from the Abdominal Muscles at the top of the Pubes, and passes over the superior, and down upon the posterior and lateral

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### PART IV.] ORGANS OF URINE.

iteral parts of the Bladder, to near the termination of the Ureters, where it is about a finger's-length from the Anus, and is there reflected upon the Reetum and back part of the Pelvis.

When the Bladder is much distended, it carries the Peritoneum with it, and leaves a space between that Membrane and the Pubes, of such length, that an Incision has frequently been made here, and large Calculi extracted from the Bladder, without penetrating into the Abdomen, or wounding the Peritoneum.

The second Coat is termed Muscular.—It is composed of distinct Fleshy Fibres, interwoven with each other, and forming Fasciculi.

The External Fibres run chiefly in a longitudinal diceetion, and are connected, at the under and fore part of the Bladder, with the Ossa Pubis.

More internally, are Fibres which run in all directions, and are intermixed with each other in the form of an arregular Net-work.

The Museular Fibres are contracted about the Neck of he Bladder, and form what has been termed *Sphincter Wesicæ*;—these, however, are merely the continuation of the other Fibres.

The Museular Coat, by its contraction, occasions the complete evacuation of the Bladder.—The Fibres about the Neek of the Bladder, by acting separately from the rest of the Muscular Coat, prevent the involuntary disbharge of the Urine.

The Cellular Substance under the Muscular Fibres, ss frequently termed Nervous Coat.

The Inner Coat, though often called Villous, is smooth Q 3 like like the inside of the Peritoneum, and, though thin, is so dense as to prevent the exudation of the Urine.

This Coat is rendered somewhat unequal by the projection of the Fasciculi of the Muscular Fibres; and when the Bladder is empty, it forms large Wrinkles or Rugæ.

The inside of the Bladder is very irritable, in consequence of which a desire to expel the Urine is occasionally excited. It is lined, however, by a Mucus discharged from its Arteries, which prevents it from being constantly irritated by that Fluid.

The under part of the Bladder is perforated by three Openings; of which one is placed anteriorly, and two posteriorly.

The anterior opening is the beginning of the Passage called *Urethra*, and is surrounded by the Neck of the Bladder.

It comes off almost at a right Angle from the lower part of the Bladder, without any tapering of that Viscus.

The inner Lining of the Urethra at the posterior part of the Neck of the Bladder is frequently formed, in old people, into longitudinal folds. These, in the diseased state of the Prostate Gland, assist in the formation of the Lobes, which often project so much into the Cavity of the Bladder, as to have the effect of a Valve in closing up the Orifice of the Urethra.

The other two openings of the Bladder are formed by the terminations of the Ureters, which run obliquely forwards and inwards, between the Muscular and Inner Coat of the Bladder.

They

They terminate in the Bladder at a little distance from each other, and at the same distance behind the beginning of the Urethra, each by a somewhat oval opening, which is more contracted than the Ureter is immediately above it.

Each of these openings is fixed by a Retinaculum formed by the inner Coat of the Bladder. This passes obliquely inwards and forwards, but is more distinctly seen when a probe is introduced into the orifice, and the part gently raised.

Between the terminations of the Ureters and the beginning of the Urethra, is a space of a triangular form, —the *Trigone* of LIEUTAUD.

The Arteries of the Bladder come from various sources, but chiefly from the Umbilicalis and Pudenda Communis.

The Veins return to the Internal Iliacs :- They form a Plexus of considerable size upon each side of the Bladder, particularly about its Neck.

The Lymphatics accompany the principal Veins on the Bladder, and at the under part and sides, pass into the Hiac Glands.

The Nerves are Branches of the Great Sympathetic and Sacral Nerves.

The Bladder receives the Urine from the Ureters by drops, and sometimes by small Thread-like streams or squirts, till, by its accumulated quantity and acrimony, it forces that Viscus to contract and expel it.

The Urine is expelled, partly by the contraction of the Bladder itself, and partly by the action of the Ab-Q 4 dominal dominal Muscles and Diaphragm pressing the Intestines against the Bladder.

The frequency of the evacuation depends upon the size and sensibility of the Bladder, upon the quantity of Urine secreted, and the degree of acrimony it possesses.

#### TESTES.

The Testes, formerly termed Didymi or Gemini, are two Glandular Bodies situated in the Cavity of the Scrotum.

The Scrotum, which furnishes an External Covering to the Testes, is a continuation of the common Integuments; has the same structure with the Skin in general; but is more plentifully supplied with Sebaceous Follicles, has no Fat in its Cellular Substance, and is occasionally relaxed and corrugated in a greater degree than the Skin in the other parts of the Body.

Upon the Surface of the Scrotum, there is a superficial, longitudinal, projecting *Line*, which divides it into two equal parts, and has the name of *Raphè*.

The inner Surface of the Scrotum is lined with Cellular Substance, which is firmer and more Vascular than in other places.

The Cellular Substance of the Scrotum, in consequence of its redness, Fibrous appearance, and supposed power of contraction, has, by many Anatomists, been considered as a Muscle, and called *Dartos*.—This opinion, however, has been rejected.

The Cellular Substance of the Scrotum involves each Testicle

Testicle singly, and forms a Septum between the two, which prevents Air or Water from passing readily from one side of the Scrotum to the other.

The Vessels and Nerves of the Scrotum are chiefly from those of the neighbouring parts.

The Blood-vessels are Branches of the Pudendal and Femoral.

The Lymphatics go mostly to the Inguinal,—but some of them accompany those of the Testes to the Lumbar Glands.

The anterior part of the Scrotum derives its Nerves from the Lumbar, and the posterior from the Pudendal, and Sciatic Nerves.

The Scrotum assists in supporting and protecting the Testes.

Under the Scrotum are two Membranes or Coats, proper to each of the Testes, the one termed Vaginalis, the other Albuginea.

The Tunica Vaginalis, named from its forming a Sheath, is of the name nature with the Peritoneum, being originally a Process of that Membrane, which, in the Fœtus, descends with the Testicle from the Abdomen.

It forms a shut Sac, which has no communication with any other part.

It incloses the Testicle, as the Pericardium does the Heart, being only in contact with it, excepting behind, where it is *continuous* with the Albuginea.

It is considerably larger than the Testis which it incloses, reaching as far above and below it as to allow it a certain degree of motion. It is connected by its external Surface to the Cremaster, and partly by that Muscle to the inner Surface of the Scrotum.

It assists the Cremaster in supporting the Testis, and by being constantly moistened within by a Fluid exhaled from its Surface, and from that of the Tunica Albuginea, it allows the Testicle to move easily.

The *Tunica Albuginea*, so called from its white colour, is like the former Coat, a continuation of the Peritoneum, and invests the Body of the Testicle closely.

It is a thick, strong, dense, and inelastic Membrane, of a glistening appearance.

It is remarkably smooth on the outside, but internally it is rough and unequal, adhering every where firmly to<sup>°</sup> the Body of the Testis.

It covers both the Testis and Substance called *Epididymis*, connects them to each other, gives strength to them, and conducts their Vessels in the same manner the Mesentery does those of the Intestines.

The Body of the Testis is of a yellowish colour, and has a pulpy appearance,—is of an oval form, a little flattened at its outer and inner sides; and frequently one Testicle is a little larger than the other.

The Testes are placed obliquely, with one end upwards and forwards, and the other end backwards and downwards.

The *Epididymis* is situated at the outer and back part of the Testis, and is inclosed in the same Covering.

The Epididymis begins at the upper part of the Testicle, immediately above the entry of the Blood-vessels; and

and this part of it being large and of a round form, is termed Globus Major, or Head of the Epididymis.

In its descent, it becomes somewhat smaller and flatter, and is attached behind to the Body of the Testicle where the Blood-vessels enter; but it is loose at its fore part, the Tunica Albuginea dipping in this place, and forming a Cavity or Pouch between it and the Testicle.

The under part of it becomes more firmly attached to the Body of the Testicle, and forms the *Cauda*, or *Globus Minor*. It is then turned backwards upon itself, after which it sends out the Excretory Duct of the Testicle.

The Body of the Testis has numerous Arteries, Veins, Absorbents, and Nerves; 1-ut is principally composed of a collection of minute, tender, elastic Filaments, intricately convoluted, termed *Tubuli Seminiferi*, or *Vasa Seminalia*.

The *Tubuli Seminiferi* are disposed in Fasciculi or Bundles, between Partitions, which are formed of Blood-vessels and Cellular Substance.

These Septulæ begin at the root or Nucleus, sometimes termed Corpus Highmorianum, situated at the back part of the Testicle, and extend in a radiated manner to the Tunica Albuginea.

The Testis is fixed behind by its Vessels, which are collected into a *Cord* termed *Spermatic*, but is loose and free before, to prevent it from being pinched.

The Spermatic Cord, properly so called, extends from the Ring of the Obliquus Externus to the Body of the Testis, and is composed of the Trunks of the different Vessels belonging to it, and of a quantity of Cellular Substance. Substance.—The Cord is covered by the Cremaster, and within it, by the same Process of the Peritoneum which forms the Tunica Vaginalis Testis, and which is now called the *Tunica Vaginalis* of the Spermatic Cord. Here, however, the Process is so incorporated with the common Cellular Substance of the Cord, as to appear to form part of it.

The under part of the Vagina of the Cord is separated by a Partition formed by the upper end of the Vaginal Coat of the Testicle, and by condensed Cellular Substance, so that no Liquor can pass easily from the Cord to the Testicle, or *vice versa*.

The Arteries of the Testes, termed Arteriæ Spermaticæ, and Arteriæ Preparantes, arise, one on each side, from the fore part of the Aorta, a little below the Renal Arteries, opposite to, but at a little distance from, each other.

The Spermatic Artery crosses over the Psoas Muscle and Ureter, and descends, behind the Peritoneum, to the under part of the Abdomen.

At the lower part of the Abdomen, it perforates the Ring of the Obliquus Externus, and passes in the Spermatic Cord to the Testicle.

In its descent, it gives Branches to the adjacent parts, and is so interlaced with the corresponding Veins, as to have been supposed by the Ancients to have large lateral communications with them.

After passing the Ring, it divides into Branches which go to the Testis at its posterior edge. They are partly dispersed upon the Epididymis, but the larger Branches run

run in a serpentine direction into the Substance of the Testis, where they are minutely distributed upon the Surface of the Seminal Tubes.

Besides the Spermatic Artery, there is a smaller one from the Hypogastric, and frequently also a minute Branch from the Epigastric Artery, which accompanies the Vas Deferens, and is dispersed along with the other Artery.

The Veins are much larger than the corresponding Arteries, and have several Valves in them, especially without the Abdomen, contrary to what belongs to the Veins of the other Viscera.

They form a *Plexus*, which accompanies the Artery on each side, and is sometimes called *Corpus Pampyniforme*, from a supposed resemblance to the Shoots of the Vine; or *Corpus Pyramidale*, from giving a Pyramidal form to the Cord.

The Plexus ascends in the Abdomen, upon the Surface of the Psoas; and about the part where it recedes from the Artery, it forms a single Trunk, which, in the right side, terminates in the Vena Cava, nearly opposite to the origin of the Artery, and, in the left side, goes into the Renal Vein.

There is also a small inferior Spermatic Vein, which accompanies its Artery, and ends in the Hypogastric Vein.

The Nerves of the Testes are derived from the Renal, Aortic, and Lumbar Plexus, and, though very minute, they give the Testicle a more exquisite feeling than is bestowed on any other Secretory Organ.

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'The Tubuli Seminiferi in the Body of the Testicle consist of numberless extremely minute Ducts, which are of a Cylindrical form, have no division into Branches, and, when drawn out, are found to be several feet in lngth.

They are first collected into Bundles between the Septulæ of the Testicle, and these again into others still smaller, each of the smaller being formed of a simple Tube, coiled up into a Conical form, with its Base forwards, and its Apex towards the posterior edge of the Testicle.

From the convoluted Seminal Tubes, an equal number of straight Vessels are sent out at the back part of the Testicle, under the name of Vasa Recta.

At the upper and back part of the Testicle, the Vasa Recta communicate, and form an irregular Plexus or Net-work, called *Rete Vasculosum Testis*.

The Rete Testis sends out from twelve to eighteen straight Tubes, termed Vasa Efferentia, which carry the Semen from the Testicle to the Epididymis.

The Vasa Efferentia soon become convoluted, and form Conical Bundles, termed Coni Vasculosi.

The Coni Vasculosi are firmly connected by Cellular Substance, and are observed by DR Monro, in his Treatise *De Testibus*, to compose somewhat more than a third part of the Epididymis.

The Vascular Cones gradually unite into a single Tube, which constitutes the rest of the Epididymis, and though only about the size of a Hog's Bristle, transmits the whole of the Semen.

The single Tube becomes larger in its course and less convoluted,

convoluted, and at last, expanding its convolutions, it comes out greatly increased in size, and almost in a straight direction, under the name of Vas Deferens.

Besides the Ducts already described, a Vas Aberrans is sometimes observed, which is one of the Vascular Cones, wandering off, and terminating in the Epididymis lower than usual.

At other times, the same kind of Vessel forms a Processus Cæcus, or Blind Duct, with a dilated Extremity, which does not communicate with any other part.

The Vas Deferens is about the size of a Surgeon's Probe, and is of a Cylindrical form through the greater part of its length. It has no inflections in its course, but such as are necessary for its arrival at the place of its destination.

It ascends in the back part of the Spermatic Cord, having the Spermatic Blood-vessels on its fore part, but from which it is readily distinguished by the firmness of its Coats.

At the under part of the Abdomen, it passes in through the Ring of the External Oblique Muscle, then separates from the Blood-vessels, and descends by the side of the Pelvis, covered by the Peritoneum.

In its descent in the Pelvis, it gets behind the Bladder, to which it closely adheres, follows the Curvature of that Viscus, gradually approaching its fellow till it arrives at the Vesicula Seminalis of the same side.

In this course it passes between the corresponding Umbilical Artery and Bladder, and also between the Bladder and Ureter, where it increases considerably in size, size, and becomes Cellular within. It continues under this appearance to near its termination, where it again contracts in its diameter, and becomes thinner and more tender in its Coats.

# VESICULÆ SEMINALES AND PROSTATE GLAND.

The Vesiculæ Seminales are two small white Pyriform Receptacles, situated between the under and lateral parts of the Bladder and the Intestinum Rectum,—about *three fingers-breadth* in length, and the third part of that in breadth, and a little flattened.

They are at a considerable distance from each other behind, but anteriorly they converge, and become contiguous to each other.

Each of them is composed of a convoluted Tube, with *irregular Processes*, and surrounded by a quantity of tough Cellular Substance, and by many Vessels and Nerves, but they have no Muscularity.

Internally, they have a Villous appearance, and are formed of irregular Cells, which correspond with the irregularities on their External Surface, and communicate freely with each other.—Their shape, size, and general appearance, however, vary in different Subjects, and not unfrequently in the opposite sides of the same Person.

Between the Vesiculæ Seminales, the ends of the Vasa Deferentia now become larger and Cellular, pass forwards till they arrive at the Prostate Gland, where each Vas

'Vas Deferens again contracts, and joins the Vesicula of that side at a very sharp Angle, but communicates so ffreely with it, that injected Fluids readily pass from the cone to the other.

From each Vesicula Seminalis and Vas Deferens of the same side, a *small Canal*, about a *finger's-breadth* in llength, passes out, which is firmly connected to its felllow, without communicating with it, and becomes gradually smaller, piercing obliquely the Prostate Gland, and terminating in the under and back part of the Neck cof the Bladder, a little before the beginning of the Urethra.

The Orifices of these Canals sometimes open in a Lacuna, which is covered behind by a Valve, which has its concave edge forwards; but more generally the are separated from each other by a Caruncula, or round Projection of the Membrane of the Urethra, termed Weru-montanum, from its supposed resemblance to a Javelin of the Ancients;—or Caput Gallinaginis, from its being broad behind, and rostriform before, and theretore compared to the Head and Beak of the Woodcock.

The Vesiculæ Seminales are commonly considered as deservoirs of the Semen, receiving it from the Vasa Deferentia, and afterwards,—by a power inherent in themselves, assisted by the action of the neighbouring Muscles, particularly of the Levatores Ani,—propelling it into the Urethra.

The Semen is prevented from passing into the Bladder, the Opening from it being shut while that fluid is expelled.

Various Experiments have been made on the Vesicu-Vol. II. R læ ke Seminales by the late MR HUNTER,—from which he was of opinion,—that they are not Reservoirs of Semen, but Glands secreting a particular Mucus;—that, with other parts, they are subservient to the purposes of Generation;—and that the Bulb of the Urethra is the Receptacle of the Semen, in which it is accumulated previous to its ejection.

The Prostate Gland, or Corpus Glandulosum, lies immediately behind the under end of the Symphysis Pubis, and rests upon the Intestinum Rectum.

It surrounds and closely embraces the Neck of the Bladder, or beginning of the Urethra; but the greater part of it is placed posteriorly and laterally, having a Lobe projecting on each side.

It is about the size of a Walnut, and of the figure of a Spanish Chesnut,—or it resembles a heart as commonly painted on Playing-cards, with the Base towards the Bladder, and the point towards the Penis.

The middle of the Base of the Prostate Gland, between the common Seminal Ducts and Bladder, is sometimes, especially in the diseased state, of a rounded form, and has been described by MR HOME, in the Philosophical Transactions 1806, as a *Third Lobe* of this Gland.

The Prostate has a red Fleshy appearance, and is of a Spongy substance, but is one of the firmest Glands of the Body, and generally sends out *Ten* or *Twelve Ducts*, which open obliquely near the beginning of the Urethra, at the sides of the Caput Gallinaginis, the Orifices of these Ducts surrounding the terminations of the Seminal Canals.

From

From the Ducts of the Prostate Gland, a thin white Liquor is discharged,—from the same causes, and at the same time with the Semen,—into the Urethra, and is supposed to be useful in the Process of Generation ; or, according to some Authors; this Fluid facilitates the passage of the Semen through the Urethra.

The Blood-vessels, Absorbents, and Nerves of the Vesiculæ Seminales and Prostate Gland, are in common with those of the parts which surround them.

#### PENIS.

The Penis consists of three Spongy Substances, two of which form the upper part and sides, or Body of the Penis, and are termed Corpora Cavernosa Penis; the third surrounds the Urethra, and has the name of Corpus Spongiosum Urethra.

The Penis is covered with a continuation of the common Integuments, which are thinner here than elsewhere, and instead of Fat, there is, as in the Scrotum, a Reticular Substance only under the Skin.

At the anterior extremity of the Penis, the Integuments form a loose Fold, termed *Prepuce*, which covers the part called *Glans Penis*, when the Penis is in a state of relaxation. The Prepuce is connected to the anterior and under part of the Glans, by a triangular Fold, termed *Frænum Preputii*, which serves as a Ligament.

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The Corpora Cavernosa Penis resemble two equal but irregular Cylinders, or rather Portions of Cylinders, R 2 closely closely applied to the sides of each other, and each covered by a strong, elastic, Ligamentous Sheath, the Fibres of which run in a transverse, and partly in an oblique direction.

They arise one on each side, by two blind Conical extremities, called their *Crura*, from the inner part of the Crura of the Ossa Ischia and Ossa Pubis, to both of which they are very firmly connected by Ligamentous substance, being in a manner confounded there with the Periosteum.

In their ascent along the Bones, they approach each other, and at the under part of the Symphysis Pubis, they unite, and continue united till they reach the Glans, where they terminate in a rounded extremity.

At the upper part of the root of the Penis, the Ligamentous Sheath of the Corpora Cavernosa sends up a Process of a triangular form, to be connected to the Symphysis Pubis, under the name of *Ligamentum Suspensorium*, by which the Body of the Penis is supported, and prevented from pressing too much upon the Scrotum.

By the union of the Corpora Cavernosa, a *Groove* is left above for the principal Vein of the Penis, and a *Channel* below, for the Spongy Substance of the Urethra.

The internal Substance of the Corpora Cavernosa consists of *loose Reticular Plates*, somewhat similar to the Cancelli in the ends of long Bones, and, like them, readily communicating with each other.

Upon the Cells of the Corpora Cavernosa the Arteries are plentifully dispersed, and open freely into them,

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the Blood of the Arteries tinging the Cells in the relaxed state of the Penis, and filling them completely when it is distended.

CUVIER considers the Corpora Cavernosa as being formed of a texture extremely complicated, of ramifications of Blood-vessels, and particularly of Veins.

The Corpora Cavernosa are united to each other by a Septum, formed by a continuation of the Elastic Ligaments which cover these Bodies.

The Septum Penis is composed of firm Tendinous-like (Cords, extending across, nearly in a parallel direction, ffrom the Dorsum Penis to the Corpus Spongiosum [Urethræ, and thus guarding against an over-distension.

Between the different Cords *Fissures* are left, through which the Blood, or an Injected Fluid, passes without cobstruction, from one of the Corpora Cavernosa to the other, rendering the Penis in this manner one general (Cavity, separated by the Septum into two apartments.

The Corpus Spongiosum Urethræ is situated under and between the Corpora Cavernosa Penis, but projects considerably beyond them.

It begins a little behind the part where the Corpora (Cavernosa are united, adheres to them by condensed (Cellular Substance, and terminates at the anterior extremity of the Penis.

It has an external Covering similar to that of the Corpora Cavernosa Penis, but more delicate, and has more of a Membranous appearance.

The posterior part of the Corpus Spongiosum is diated into a Longitudinal Prominence, of a Conical form, ituated within the Skin of the Perinœum, and termed R 3 Bulb Bulb of the Urethra. It extends from the root of the Penis to near the Anus, projects most towards the under and back part, and is divided anteriorly by a Septum.

From the Bulb, the Corpus Spongiosum is continued along the under part of the Corpora Cavernosa, in a Cylindrical figure, and at the end of these expands into the *Glans Penis*, which is of an oval form, and placed obliquely. The Glans covers and incloses the ends of the Corpora Cavernosa.

The Glans is separated from the Corpora Cavernosa by a continuation of the Ligamentous Sheath which covers them, and is encircled at its posterior part by a prominent Margin, called *Corona Glandis*; behind which is a Cervix.

The Surface of the Glans is covered with a *Plexus* chiefly of Venous Vessels, and with *Nervous Papillæ*; and these are inclosed in the Skin, continued from the inside of the Prepuce, but now become so delicate, that the colour of the Corpus Spongiosum of the Glans appears through it.

The Nervous Papillæ render the Glans the principal seat of the sensibility of which the Penis is susceptible.

About the Cervix and Corona of the Glans, are many Follicles, termed Glandulæ Odoriferæ, which discharge a Sebaccous Matter, to preserve the sensibility of the Glans, and allow the Prepuce to move backwards and forwards upon it with facility.

The Internal Structure of the Bulb of the Urethra and Glans Penis, is of the same nature with that of the Corpora

Corpora Cavernosa; and the Internal Structure of the rest of the Corpus Spongiosum differs from that of the Corpora Cavernosa only in this, that the Cells are smaller and of a more delicate texture. Some Anatomists consider the greater part of the Corpus Spongiosum as merely a Plexus of convoluted Blood-vessels, particularly of Veins.

The Urethra is a long Canal, the Diameter of which is nearly equal to that of a writing-pen. It begins at the under and fore part of the Bladder, runs through the Corpus Spongiosum, and terminates in the point of the Penis by a longitudinal Orifice.

At its Origin it descends a little, and then passes forwards under the Symphysis of the Ossa Pubis; to which it is closely connected by Cellular Substance.—It then ascends at the outer and fore part of the Ossa Pubis; varying in the remainder of its course, according to the different degrees of relaxation or distension of the Cells of the Penis.

There are commonly three Dilatations in the Urethra; one of which is at the Prostate Gland, the second in the Bulb of the Urethra, and the third about the beginning of the Glans.

In general, it has also the same number of *Slight Contractions*; the first at its Origin from the Bladder, the second between the point of the Prostate Gland and Bulb of the Urethra, and the third at the point of the Glans.

Between the point of the Prostate Gland and part where the Urethra penetrates the Corpus Spongiosum, R 4 —including —including nearly the space of a finger's-breadth, the Urinary passage is entirely *Membranous*, and covered only with the common Cellular Substance.

At the upper side of the Bulb, the Urethra enters the Corpus Spongiosum, in which it is inclosed to its termination in the point of the Penis.

The inside of the Urethra is lined by a very Vascular and sensible Membrane, continued from the inner Coat of the Bladder, but which is observed to possess a certain degree of Contractility, and is therefore presumed by several Anatomists to be endowed with Muscular Fibres.

Between the Corpus Spongiosum and Membrane which lines the Urethra, especially towards the Septum Penis, numerous *Lacunæ* of different sizes are situated; one or two of which in particular, next the Glans, are often considerably larger than the rest.

They run in a longitudinal direction from behind forwards, and, perforating the Urethra by Orifices large enough to admit a Bristle, they discharge a Bland Mucus for the defence of the Urethra.

Besides the Lacunæ, two small Bodies of a yellowish colour, each about the size of a Garden-pea, are frequently met with, and are termed, from their Discoverer, COWPER'S Glands. They have likewise the name of Antiprostatæ and Prostatæ Inferiores.

They are situated at the sides of the Membranous part of the Urethra,—between its Bulb and the point of the Prostate Gland,—and covered by the Acceleratores Uring.

Each

Each sends out a small Duct, which terminates obliquely in the Urethra, at the bulbous part.

They are observed to discharge a Fluid, which is supposed to serve the same purpose with that of the Lacunæ.

The Arteries of the Penis are chiefly from the Pudicæ Communes, which are Branches of the Internal Iliacs, and partly from the Femoral Arteries.

Each of the Pudic Arteries having passed out of the Pelvis through the great Notch of the Os Ilium, runs between the Sacro-Sciatic Ligaments to the inner side of the Tuber Ischii, from which it passes along the Crus of that Bone and of the Os Pubis, to the root of the Penis.

In its course, it furnishes Branches to the adjacent parts, and afterwards gives off three principal Branches, which belong to the Penis:—One of these goes to the Bulb of the Urethra, to be dispersed in the Corpus Spongiosum;—the other two, which are larger than the former, go to the Body of the Penis; one of them penetrating its Crus, and running in the axis of the Corpus Cavernosum, as may be readily seen by a longitudinal section of this part; the other passing between the Symphysis Pubis and joining of the Crura Penis, and extending along the Dorsum as far as the Corona Glandis.

The Branches of the Femoral Artery to the Penis communicate with those of the former, and are chiefly dispersed upon the Integuments.

The Arteries of the Penis are divided into minute Ramifications, which communicate with each other, and with with their fellows on the opposite side, and terminate partly in the corresponding Veins, and partly in the Cells of the Penis.

The Veins arise, some from the extremities of the Arteries, and others by large open Mouths from the Cells of the Penis.

The greater number of the Veins unite into a Trunk, called *Vena Magna Penis*, which runs in the superior Groove formed by the union of the Corpora Cavernosa, and is furnished with Valves, and with thick strong Coats.

The Vena Magna, at the under end of the Symphysis Pubis, separates into Right and Left Plexus, which pass to the corresponding Iliac Veins.

To an obstruction of the course of the Blood through the Veins, by the pressure of the Muscles at the root of the Penis, together with an increased influx through the Arteries, is owing that accumulation of Blood in the Corpora Cavernosa and Corpus Spongiosum, which occasions a distension of the Penis.

The relaxation of the Penis happens from the causes which produced the distension being removed; the elastic Ligamentous Membrane which covers the Penis again forcing the Blood from the Cells into the Veins.

Upon the Surface of the Penis, there are small superficial Veins, which communicate with those deeper seated, and commonly terminate by one or more Branches in the Veins at the top of the Thighs.

These Branches assist in carrying on the circulation, and return part of the Blood during the distension of the Penis.

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Of the Lymphatics of the Penis, those from the Prepuce and Skin, in general, go to the right and left Inguinal Glands, while the Lymphatics from the Glans and Body of the Penis accompany the Arteries into the under part of the Pelvis.

The Nerves of the Penis are large in proportion to the size, but are quite in proportion to the great sensibility of that Organ. They come from that part of the Spinal Nerves which gives origin to those termed Sciatic, and are distributed chiefly upon the Ligamentous Sheath which incloses the Corpora Cavernosa.

The most considerable of them are large Cords, situated upon the Dorsum Penis, more laterally than the Arteries which lie between them and the principal Vein.

For the Muscles of the Penis, see Part II.

The Penis serves to eject the Semen into the Vagina, and to convey the Urine from the Bladder. The distension of the Penis serving to give the proper degree of consistence for its introduction into the Vagina : The Glans, by Friction, exciting the feelings requisite for the expulsion of the Semen in the Male, and for conception in the Female.

TABLE





OF THE

ORGANS OF URINE, AND OF THE UNIM-PREGNATED PARTS OF GENERATION, IN THE FEMALE.

THE Kidneys, Renal Glands, and Ureters, have the same situation and structure as in the Male.

The *Bladder* also has the same situation behind the Ossa Pubis, but rises higher when it is in the distended state.

It is proportionally larger than the Bladder of the Male, and is broader from one side to the other, corresponding to the Cavity of the Pelvis to which it belongs.

The Urethra is much shorter,—being scarcely two inches in length,—and straighter than in the Male, having only a slight bend downwards between its extremities.

It is produced from the most depending part or Neck of the Bladder, and is directed almost horizontally under the Symphysis of the Ossa Pubis. It has no Prostate Gland, but is furnished, as in the Male, with Lacunce, Lacunce, which open into it, and discharge a Mucus to defend it from the Urine.

The Parts of Generation are divided into Internal and External. The former consists of the Uterus and its Appendages.

## INTERNAL PARTS.

The Uterus, Matrix, or Womb, is a hollow Viscus; situated in the Pelvis, in the Hypogastric Region, between the Bladder and Rectum, with which it is connected. It is naturally placed in an oblique situation, with its under end directed a little forward; but the obliquity must vary according to the state of the Bowels, with which it is in contact.

It is of a *Triangular Figure*, and a little flattened before and behind, but more so anteriorly; is large above, small below, and has two angles at its upper and lateral parts, called *Corners* of the *Uterus*.

It is distinguished into *Fundus*, or upper part, which includes the space above the insertion of the Fallopian Tubes, the *Body* or middle, and *Cervix* or under part; the two last being nearly of equal length.

The extent and figure of the Uterus varies considerably in different Subjects.—In Women who have never been pregnant, it is commonly about two inches and a half in length, from one inch and a half to two inches in breadth at the Fundus, and about half as broad at the Cervix.—It is near an inch in thickness, and is larger in Women who have born Children, than in Virgins.

The Cavity, like the external part of the Uterus, is of a *triangular form*, but is small in proportion to the size of the Organ,—being scarcely capable of containing the Kernel of an Almond,—and has its sides closely applied to each other.

It is covered externally through its whole length with a smooth polished Coat, continued from the Peritoneum, which, after covering the beginning of the Vagina, especially at its under or back part, is reflected forwards upon the Bladder, backwards over the Rectum, and laterally towards the sides of the Pelvis.

Its Substance is of a compact, cellular, and fleshy nature, and plentifully supplied with Blood-vessels: The Fleshy Fibres, however, are seen distinctly only in the Gravid Uterus.

It is remarkably Vascular in its Body, less so in its Cervix, and is nearly of the same thickness throughout, excepting at its Corners, where the Uterine or Fallopian Tubes terminate.

It is lined with a fine and very Vascular Membrane, of a somewhat Porous and Villous appearance, in which the Arteries terminate which discharge the Menstrual Fluid.

The Cavity of the Cervix has two small Longitudinal Lines projecting in it, one in the anterior, the other in the posterior part, on each side of which are numerous  $Rug\alpha$ .

The Rugæ run in an oblique transverse direction, and are formed, not only of the inner Membrane, but also by the Fibres which compose the Body of the Uterus.

Between

Between the Rugæ are many small *Follicles*, which discharge a Mucus for lubricating the parts near which they are placed:—Some of them, being of a roundish form, were mistaken by NABOTH for Female Ovula.

The under part of the Cervix projects into the Vagina, somewhat in form of the Glans Penis, and is perforated by a transverse Slit, termed Os Internum Uteri; or, from the resemblance of this part to the Mouth of the Tench, Os Tincæ.

The Os Tincæ, in a Virgin Uterns, is about the size of the Orifice of the Urethra in the Male, but nearly twice as large in the Uterus of a Woman who has born Children.

It is smooth on its external Surface, is placed obliquely, in a direction towards the back part of the Vagina, and is surrounded with several Mucous Follicles.

The Appendages of the Uterus are, the Broad and Round Ligaments, the Ovaria, the Fallopian Tubes, and the Vagina.

The Ligamenta Lata, termed sometimes Alæ Vespertilionis, are two Membranous Productions or Doublings of the Peritoneum, sent from the edges of the Uterus and posterior extremity of the Vagina, to be fixed to the sides of the Pelvis.

The Uterus and Ligamenta Lata separate the Pelvis into anterior and posterior Cavities, and are themselves divided into large and small, or anterior and posterior Alæ or Pinions.

They contain and support the Ovaria and Uterine Tubes, with part of the Spermatic and Uterine Vessels and

and Nerves; inclose a portion of the Ligamenta Rotunida, &c. connect the Uterus to the sides of the Pelvis, and assist in retaining it in its place. In the time of (Gestation they become effaced, by furnishing the Uterus with part of its external covering.

The Ligamenta Rotunda are two long and slender (Cords, composed of Vessels and Ligamentous Fibres, arising from the Corners of the Uterus, immediately before and below the Fallopian Tubes, from which they descend obliquely in the Ligamenta Lata, diminishing a little in their course towards the Groins.

They pass through the Rings of the Abdominal Musbles, in the same manner as the Spermatic Cords do in the Male, and are afterwards inserted by separate Branches into the upper and lateral parts of the Pudenlum, where they are insensibly lost.

They assist the Ligamenta Lata in preserving the equilibrium of the Uterus.

The Ovaria, anciently called Testes Muliebres, are siuated at the sides of the Fundus Uteri, about an inch listant from it, and are contained in the posterior Pibions of the Ligamenta Lata, which form a Coat to hem, similar to the Tunica Albuginea Testis.

The Ovaria are plain above, and prominent and semiwal below, flattened at their anterior and posterior turfaces; and the size of each, when in a state of the reatest maturity, is nearly equal to that of half of the IIale Testicle.

In the vigour of life, they are large, uniform, and nooth, but become small, unequal, and shrivelled, in lid Women, and in those who have born many Chil-Vol. II. S dren. dren. This unequal appearance is greatly owing to the habit of Body, as it is frequently met with in a young Adult Virgin.

They are attached to the Uterus by the Ligamenta Lata, and by two small Cords, termed Ligamenta Rotunda Ovarii, which were mistaken by the Ancients for Vasa Deferentia, carrying a secreted Liquor to the Uterus.

They are composed internally of a loose whitish Cellular or Spongy Substance, intermixed with Vessels and Nerves, and contain a number of small Vesicles, called Ova, filled with a limpid Fluid which partakes of the qualities of the white of an Egg.

These Vesicles differ much in size in the same Ovarium;—the largest of them are seldom equal to the size of a small Garden-pea, and are commonly placed nearest the Surface.

The number of Ova is differently estimated by different Anatomists;—from ten to twenty and upwards having been found in one Ovarium.

According to experiments made by MR HUNTER, it is ascertained,—that the number of originally existing Ova in each Ovarium, whether that number be great or small, may be diminished, but cannot be increased.

The Ovaria serve for the nourishment of the Ova, which contain the Rudiments of the Fœtus.

The Uterine, or Fallopian Tubes, compared in shape, by FALLOPIUS, to that of a Trumpet, are two Conical and Vermitorm Canals, attached to the Corners of the Uterus, and terminating in it, each by a small Opening which scarcely admits the entrance of a Bristle.

They

They become gradually larger in their passage towards the sides of the Pelvis : Near their outer extremiity, they are convoluted and considerably dilated, but tare afterwards suddenly contracted, and terminate by copen Mouths, sufficiently large to admit the point of a Goose-quill.

Their outer ends are free and fluctuating in the Pelwis, and expand into many irregular jagged or pointed extremities, called Fimbriæ, which are considerably Honger at one side of the Tube than the other.

They are commonly upwards of a hand-breadth in llength, and contained in a Doubling of the Ligamenta ILata.-In their natural situation, they lie near the Ovaria; but when drawn out and extended, are a finger'sbreadth distant from them.

The Structure of the Tubes is nearly the same with that of the Uterus, and, like it, they are capable of dillatation and contraction: Their inner side, however, lhas a different appearance, being furnished with many small longitudinal Plicæ, which have a Muscular appearance, and which are most conspicuous towards the outer extremities. They have a very large proportion of Blood-vessels, which run between their outer and inner Membranes.

The Tubes are supposed to convey the prolific part of the Male Semen from the Uterus to the Ovaria, in order Ito fecundate the Ova; and by grasping that part of the Ovarium where the ripest Ovum is situated, to carry the Ovum according to some Authors, or its Contents only according to the opinion of others, to be mixed with the Male Semen, and to be lodged in the Cavity of the Uterus. The

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The Vagina is a Membranous Canal, which extends from the Neck of the Uterus to the Opening of the Pudendum.

It is situated at the under and back part of the Bladder and Urethra, and over the under part of the Intestinum Rectum; to each of which it is closely connected by Cellular Substance.

It begins a little above the internal Orifice of the Uterus, which it embraces, but reaches higher at the posterior than anterior part; from which circumstance, together with a slight curvature it has backwards, the Canal is found to be longer in its posterior than anterior Surface.

From the Os Tincæ it passes downwards and forwards, and terminates between the Labia Pudendi; the Axis of the Vagina forming a considerable Angle with that of the Uterus.

•The dimensions of the Vagina correspond with the size of the Penis in the Male, but vary according to the temperament of the Body, and become larger in Women who have born Children.

The Body of the Vagina is composed of thick, strong, Membranous parts, which are very dilatable, and plentifully supplied with Blood-vessels. It is furnished internally with numerous irregular Rugæ or Wrinkles, and Nervous Papillæ; the former of which considerably diminish the capacity of the Canal, and the latter add to its sensibility.

The Ruga run in a transverse direction, and are so disposed as to divide the Vagina into anterior and posterior Columns, which join together laterally, and produce a Raphè at the right and left sides.

They

They are deepest, largest, and most crowded upon the anterior and towards the outer part of the Vagina; are most conspicuous in Virgins, less so in married Women, and become more and more effaced in those who have born Children .- The Rugæ augment the Friction during Coition, and facilitate the distension of the Vagina during Child-birth.

The whole extent of the Vagina, particularly towards its outer extremity, is furnished with small Follicles, the Orifices of which can frequently be seen.

They supply a Mucus, with which the Canal is always lubricated, and which is discharged, in time of Coition, in such abundance, as to have been formerly considered as an emission of Female Semen.

The outer end of the Vagina is covered, on each side, by a Substance composed of Blood-vessels and Cells similar to those of the Penis, and described by DE GRAAF under the name of Plexus Reteformis, and by later Anatomists, under that of Corpus Cavernosum Vaginæ.

The Corpora Cavernosa are covered by the Sphincter Vaginæ, the action of which, joined to the Dilatation of these Bodies, serves to contract the entry of the Vagina in the time of Coition.

The Vagina receives the Penis and Semen, and conveys from the Uterus the Menstrual Flux, the Fœtus, the Secundines, and the Lochia.

The Uterus, with its Ligaments, Ovaria, and Uterine Tubes, are supplied with Blood from the Spermatic and Uterine Arteries.

The Spermatic Arteries arise from the Aorta, and, as in the Male, descend for some way through the Abdomen.

#### OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

men. They run next in the Ligamenta Lata, to be dispersed upon the Ovaria and Uterine Tubes, and afterwards upon the Fundus of the Uterus. In the progress of their course, they have a Serpentine appearance.

The Uterine Arteries are derived from the Internal Iliacs, and are much larger than the Spermatics. They direct their course, first to the under part of the Uterus, after which each splits into the proper Uterine and the Vaginal Arteries. The Uterine Arteries ascend along the edges of the Uterus, and near its upper part join the Spermatic Arteries. The Vaginal Arteries run along the lateral parts of the Inner Portion of the Vagina.

Chiefly from the Uterine, and partly from the Spermatic Arteries, many small Branches are furnished, which run in a Serpentine manner, and communicate with their fellows in the opposite sides of the Uterus, so : s to supply the whole Substance of that Viscus.

The Vagina is supplied on each side by the Vaginal Arteries from the Uterine, and by small Branches from the Umbilical, middle Hæmorrhoidal, and Pudic Arteries.

The Spermatic Veins, in passing from the Ovaria and Uterus, form a complicated Plexus. They have the same termination as in the Male, but are considerably larger.—The other Veins run into the Internal Iliacs.

The Lymphatics, like the Blood-vessels, run also in two Sets. Those of the one Set accompany the Spermatic Blood-vessels, and, like the Absorbents of the Testes in the Male, go to the Lumbar Glands. Those of the other correspond with the Hypogastric Bloodvessels, and terminate in the Glands at the lateral parts of the Pelvis.

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The Nerves are from the Lumbar, Sacral, and Great Sympathetics.

The Uterns receives from the Ovaria, by means of the Fallopian Tubes, the Rudiments of the Fœtus, nourishes it, and, after bringing it to maturity, expels it through the Os Internum Uteri and Vagina.—From the Inner Surface of the Uterus, the Menstrual Evacuation is also discharged.

#### EXTERNAL PARTS.

The External Parts, called Pudendum or Vulva, are formed of two prominent sides, termed Labia Pudendi, Labia Externa, or Alæ Majores. These are contiguous when the Limbs are not much separated, thereby preventing the access of Air to the Internal Parts, which they at the same time protect and conceal.

The upper part of the Pudendum, named *Pubes*, or Mons Veneris, is situated on the fore side of the Ossa Pubis, and is covered with Hair similar to that in the Male, to prevent the Skin from being injured by the approach of the Sexes. In both Sexes, the Hairs begin to grow about the same period of life.

The Pubes is composed of the common Integuments, under which a considerable quantity of Fat is situated, rendering it thick, soft, and prominent.

The Labia Pudendi extend from the Pubes to within about an inch of the Anus, the space between the Pudendum and Anus obtaining the name of *Perinceum*, from a Moisture supposed to flow about this part of the Skin.—It is sometimes also called *Anterior Perinceum*,

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### OF THE VISCERA, Sc. [PART IV.

to distinguish it from that part which extends from the Anus to the Coccyx, termed by some Anatomists Posterior Perinceum.

The Opening between the two Labia has the name of *Fossa Magna.*—It increases a little in size and depth as it descends, and forms a small boat-like Cavity at its under extremity, termed *Fossa Navicularis*.

The Labia are thickest above, becoming thinner below, and terminate in a transverse Fold of the Skin, named *Frænum*, *Furcula*, or *Fourchette*, which is frequently lacerated in the first Delivery.

The Labia are composed of the Skin elevated by a large quantity of Cellular Substance and some Fat, and lined by a very Vascular Membrane, which is thin, tender, and red like the inside of the Lips, and furnished with numberless Sebaceous Follicles, secreting a Liquor whereby the parts are preserved smooth and moist.

Between the upper ends of the Labia, is the Substance named *Clitoris*, and by some *Mentula Mulicbris*,—not extending an inch in length, and little more than the third part of that in thickness, and tied down to the fore part of the Symphysis Pubis.

It is extremely Vascular and Nervous, and is composed, like the Penis in the Male, of two Crura and Corpora Cavernosa, which are occasionally distended with Blood, and are contained in a Ligamentous Sheath, with a Septum between them.

The Crura are upwards of twice the length of the Body of the Clitoris, and, together with Muscles belonging to them, arise, as the Crura of the Penis do in the
#### PART IV.7 ORGANS OF GENERATION. 281

the Male, from the Crura of the Ossa Ischia and Ossa Pubis.

The Clitoris is also provided with a Ligamentum Suspensorium, by which it is connected to the Ossa Pubis, and with a Glans, which, like that of the Penis, is extremely sensible, but has no perforation in it for the passage of the Urine.

It is covered by a continuation of the Skin of the Labia, which, at its inferior extremity, forms a Semilunar Fold, termed *Preputium Clitoridis*.

The Prepuce is furnished with Glandula Odoriferante of the second state of the sec

In the time of Coition, the Glans Clitoridis is snpposed to produce nearly the same sensation in the Female, as the Glans Penis does in the Male.

At the under and outer part of the Clitoris are two Bodies, called Nymphæ; which arise narrow from the lPrepuce and Glans, and run obliquely downwards and contwards along the inside of the Labia, increasing in breadth, but suddenly contracting again at their lower extremity.

They are chiefly formed by a production of the inside of the Labia, have the same florid colour with them, and in their natural state are contiguous, and cover the Oriflice of the Urethra.

They are sometimes of unequal size, and not unfrequently, particularly in warm Climates, they project bewond the edges of the Labia.

Their internal Structure consists of Cellular Substance, with a large proportion of Blood-vessels : They have have also many Nervous Papillæ, which render them very sensible, and Sebaceous Follicles, the Contents of which, of a Fœtid nature, prevent them from being injured by the Urine.

The Nymphæ assist in directing the course of the Urine from the Urethra, and in preventing the Air from entering the Vagina.—They also tend to enlarge the passage for the Child in the time of Parturition.

Between the Perincenn and Nymphæ, there is a Vestibulum, or smooth Cavity, which is most complete in Virgins, and leads to two Passages,—to the Urethra above, and to the Vagina below.

The Onfice of the Urethra is placed a little below the Glot, of the Clitoris, and between the two Nymphæ, and is surrounded by a Spongy Eminence, which projects at its under part,—called by some Authors Corpus Glandulosum, or Glandulæ Prostatæ Mulierum.

The Corpus Glandulosum is perforated by *Lacunæ*; some of which are of considerable depth, and discharge a Viscid Matter round the Orifice of the Urethra.

The Corpus Glandulosum directs the point of the Finger to the Orifice of the Urethra, in discharging the Urine by the Catheter.

The Orifice of the Vagina, termed likewise Os Externum Uteri, is placed immediately under that of the Urethra, and is naturally straiter than the rest of the Canal; but in the Virgin state, is still more contracted by the Substance called Hymen, or Circulus Membranosus, which forms an incomplete Septum between the Vagina and External Parts.

The Hymen is formed of a double Membrane, and is

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### PART IV.] ORGANS OF GENERATION. 283

red and sensible like the Vagina itself, the inner part being derived from that Canal, the outer from the Labia Pudendi. It approaches to a Circular Figure, but the Circle is frequently incomplete next the Orifice of the Urethra, or is of a Semilunar form, the broad part being turned towards the Perinœum.

When the Hymen is ruptured, it degenerates into small Conical Papillæ, termed *Carunculæ Myrtiformes*, from their supposed resemblance to Myrtle-berries.

The Hymen has been considered as a test of Virginity;—but neither the presence nor the absence of this Membrane can be depended on as a certain criterion.

About the Orifice of the Vagina are several Mucous Follicles, similar to those round the Opening of the Urethra.

The Blood-vessels and Nerves of the External Parts are from the Pudic Branches, and are dispersed in numerous Ramifications upon the end of the Vagina, Labia Externa, and Clitoris.

The Absorbents pass partly to the Inguinal Glands, and partly to those placed at the sides of the Pelvis, or upon the Lumbar Vertebræ.

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# OF THE GRAVID UTERUS.

WHEN the Rudiments of the Fœtus have been conveyed from one of the Ovaria into the Cavity of the Uterus, through the medium of the corresponding Uterine Tube, whether in the state of a Fluid only, or of a complete Ovum, *Impregnation* is said to have taken place.

Some days after Impregnation, an Ovum, consisting of a Vesicle filled with a limpid Fluid, is found in the Cavity of the Uterus.

The Ovum, when first visible, is observed to have a smooth Surface, but in a short time thereafter it sends off flocculent Branches, the greater part of which are by degrees 'converted into a *Placenta* at that part of the Uterus where the Ovum happens to be first attached; the Branches covering the rest of the Ovum become matted together, and form part of what is termed Spongy Chorion.

The Rudiments of the Fœtus, however, are not always

# PARTIN.] ORGANS OF GENERATION. 285

ways conveyed to the Uterus after Impregnation, for sometimes a Fœtus is found in the Ovarium; at other times in one of the Uterine Tubes; and some rare instances have occurred, where the Embryo has dropped from one of the Ovaria or Tubes into the Cavity of the Abdomen, where a Placenta has been formed, by which it has been nourished. In these cases which are called *Ex-uterine Conceptions*, the Uterus is also found to be somewhat enlarged.

The Ovum, at an early period of Gestation, consists of a thin *Membranous Capsule*, which incloses the Embryo or Germ with the Umbilical Cord and Waters; and the Capsule, again, consists of an internal Membrane called *Amnios*, on the outside of which is another, thicker and stronger than the former, termed *True Chorion*, which is covered with a Filamentous and Spongy Substance, named by RUYSCH *Tunica Filamentosa*, and by more modern Authors, the *False* or *Spongy Chorion*.

The Spongy Chorion is described by DR HUNTER as consisting, in early Gestation, of two Layers; one lining the Cavity of the Uterus, and termed by him Membrana Decidua, from being supposed to be cast off from the Uterus; the other, covering that part of the Ovum which does not adhere to the Uterus, he terms Decidua Reflexa; the one appearing to be a continuation of, or reflected from, the other; of course, four Layers or Coats are found in the Uterus in the beginning of Pregnancy.

The Decidua is least distinct between the Uterus and Placenta. Near the edge of the Placenta, the Decidua and that part of it called Reflexa, are thickest and strongest, strongest, and decrease in thickness towards the other end of the Uterus and Ovum, in proportion as these become more expanded.

The inner Surface of the Decidua, and outer one of the Decidua Reflexa, gradually approach each other, and unite into one Membrane in advanced Gestation. They have been supposed to be formed originally by an Efflorescence thrown out upon the parts on which they are placed, in the manner it is thrown out upon inflamed Surfaces.

Between the Amnios and Chorion, a large proportion of *Gelatinous Fluid* is contained in the early Months, which separates them at a considerable distance from each other. At this period a small *Bag*, filled with a milky-like Fluid, is observed on the Amnios, near the insertion of the Umbilical Cord, and is termed *Vesicula Umbilicalis* vel *Alba*.

The Vesicula Umbilicalis is connected to the Cord by a Filament consisting of an Artery and Vein, Branches from the Umbilical Vessels, which, with the Fluid and Bag, soon disappear. The use of this Vesicle, which has sometimes been mistaken for an Allantois, is not yet understood.

In early Gestation, the Ovum is large in proportion to the Embryo; but towards the latter period of Pregnancy, the proportion is reversed, as appears from the following Observations.

No well-authenticated account has been yet received, of the Embryo being observable till near the end of the third Week, when it is found to appear like an oblong curved

#### PART IV.] ORGANS OF GENERATION. 287

curved Vesicle floating in the Limpid Liquor of the Ovum.

In the fourth Week, the Ovum is about the size of a Pigeon's Egg, and the Embryo not larger than that of a common Fly.

At the end of the sixth Week, the Embryo is about the size of the common or Honey-Bee, with the Head turned forwards, towards the farther extremity of the Trunk. The size of the Head is almost equal to that of the rest of the Body. The Eyes and Mouth appear evident.

In the eighth Week the Ovum is about the size of a Heu's Egg, and the Embryo is about an inch in length. The Nose and Ears now begin to be visible; the Limbs extend beyond the Trunk. The Cord is at this period nearly as long as the Embryo, but the Vessels run parallel to each other, nor do they receive their twisted appearance till a few weeks afterwards.

About the end of the third Month, the Oyum is of the size of a Goose's Egg, and weighs eight ounces, while the Embryo is between two and three ounces in weight, and three inches in length; and the Head and Extremities being now distinctly observable, it obtains the name of Factus, which it retains from this time till the end of Gestation.

Towards the end of the fourth Mouth, the motions of the Child begin to be felt by the Mother, in consequence of which, the term Quickening has been applied.

In the sixth Month, the Placenta and Membranes weigh seven or eight ounces, the Fœtus twelve or thirteen. It is then eight or nine inches in length, and perfect in all its external parts.

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OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PARTIV.

In the seventh Month, the Foctus is about a foot in length.

At Birth, the Secundines weigh between a pound and a pound and a half. The Fœtus is then six or seven pounds, and is from eighteen to twenty-two inches in length.

Still, however, from the difficulty of ascertaining when Pregnancy commences,—from the difference of Fœtuses of the same age in different Women, and in the same Women in different Pregnancies,—and from the Fœtus being frequently retained in the Uterus some time after it is dead, as well as from the inaccuracy of many of the Figures representing these Parts,—the above Observations are not altogether to be depended on.

# CHANGES PRODUCED IN THE UTERINE SYSTEM BY IMPREGNATION.

Immediately after Impregnation, a large Orifice is constantly observed in the Ovarium, leading to a Cavity in that part of it from whence the Rudiments of the Fœtus have been derived.

This *Cavity* appears first flocculent, and is afterwards filled up with a Granulous Substance, which has the name of *Corpus Luteum*, from the yellow appearance it assumes, especially in Quadrupeds.

The Corpus Luteum consists of an outer Vascular, and an inner Inorganic-looking Substance, which has been considered by some Authors as the remains of the Ovum.

A real Corpus Luteum is not found till after Impregnation,

#### PART IV.] ORGANS OF GENERATION. 289

nation, though diseased appearances of the Ova have sometimes been shewn as such. It continues during Pregnancy, and for some time after Delivery, when it gradually vanishes, but leaves a *Scar* in the Ovarium, which continues for life.—The number of Corpora Luttea corresponds with that of the Ova impregnated.

After the Embryo is received into the Cavity of the Uterus, the Uterine Extremities of the Tubes are closed Iby the Membrana Decidua; the Os Tincæ is shut up Iby a *Ropy Mucus* secreted from the Follicles in the Cervix Uteri, which excludes the Air, and prevents the chance of Abortion; the Menstrua *cease to flow*,—and the Uterus by degrees is changed from a triangular to an *oval* form, though the oval appearance is not disttinctly observed till the latter Months of Pregnancy.

From the Influx of Blood, and the growth of the Owum, the Cavity of the Uterus gradually enlarges from a size capable only of admitting an Almond, to that which contains the full-grown Fœtus, the Secundines, and Waters; composing together a Mass equal to nine for ten pounds in weight.

Some time after Impregnation, the Fundus and Body tof the Uterus, being softer and looser than the Cervix, ffirst yield to the parts which it contains, but continue ssomewhat flat through the whole period of Gestation, iin consequence of pressure from the anterior and postemior parts of the Abdomen; the fore part of the Uterus, lhowever, continuing flattest.

For the two first Months, the Uterus increases so little as to remain in the Cavity of the Pelvis, and it is Vol. II. T generally generally after the Third Month, before the Tumour formed by it can be felt above the Symphysis Pubis.

About this period it has acquired so much additional size and weight, that it is found lower than formerly in the Cavity of the Pelvis; in consequence of which, the Os Tincæ is felt projecting nearer to the Os Externum Uteri.

After this time, its bulk increasing, it presses against the Pelvis, and ascends in the Abdomen, carrying the Os Tincæ higher than its original situation; at the same time elongating the Vagina.

In the fifth Month the Uterus renders the Abdomen tense, and forms a sort of Ball between the Pubis and Umbilicus.

It continues to rise through the whole period of Ges-. tation, and after ascending above the Pelvis, it commonly inclines, with its Fundus, forwards, and is frequently also turned a little to one side; but the ascent is observed to be more in the first Gestations, and the inclination greater in later Gestations, owing to the nature of the Integuments of the Abdomen.

In the seventh Month, it reaches the Umbilicus, and at last touches the Scrobiculus Cordis, Stomach, and Colon, being now about a foot in length from the upper to the under extremity; occupying the whole of the Umbilical and Epigastric Regions, and having the Intestines at the upper, lateral, and posterior parts of it.

In the progress of Gestation, the whole Uterus becomes softer, looser, and more Vascular, and the Vessels are greatly enlarged; the proportional increase being nearly similar to that of the Uterus.

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#### FART IV.] ORGANS OF GENERATION. 291

The Arteries in their course are remarkably convolated,—fully as much so as they are previous to Conception,—and greatly more so than the corresponding Vcins.

The Veins are much larger than the Arteries, their diameters being such as to have distinguished them by the name of *Sinuses*;—and to them the great bulk of the Uterus is chiefly owing.

The Substance of the Uterus was formerly supposed by some to be thicker, and by others to be thinner in the Gravid, than in the unimpregnated state; but it appears now to be sufficiently ascertained, that it is nearly of the same thickness in both states, and during the whole term of Pregnancy, unless it be at the end of Gestation, where it becomes thinner towards the under extremity.

After the third Month, the Cervix Uteri begins to become softer, wider, and more spongy, and continues to do so till the seventh or eighth Month, when it is completely obliterated.

During all this period, the Os Tincæ is undergoing similar changes. In proportion as the Cervix stretches, the Tubercle of the Os Uteri becomes less prominent, but its circumference is enlarged. At the latter Months it becomes thin, flat, and irregular on its edges, and the firmness of its texture is converted to the Spongy softness of the Body of the Uterus. Its Orifice is changed from a Transverse Slit into an oval Pit; and in Women who have born several Children, it is considerably dilated near the end of Gestation. There is now merely the Mucus as a Septum between the Uterus  $T_2$  and

#### OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

and Vagina; this comes away before Parturition, the Follicles which form it, throwing out, afterwards, a thinner fluid, to lubricate the parts.

The situation of the Appendages of the Uterus is also considerably altered. The Ovaria, with the Tubes and Ligaments of the Uterus, are situated lower, in respect to the Fundus Uteri, in proportion as it ascends. At the full time, they lie close upon the Surface, and the broad Ligaments, by assisting in forming a covering to the Uterus, are nearly obliterated.

The Tubes descend by the sides of the Uterus, and are thicker and more Vascular, and have the Fimbriæ more expanded than formerly.

In the enlarged state of the Uterus, the Muscular Fibres, though pale, are distinctly seen.—They form Fasciculi which run in various directions, but cannot be traced far without interruption. They are variously described by different Authors; their course, however, is such, that they are capable of contracting the Uterus in all its dimensions during the time of Delivery.

A description is given by RUYSCH of a Circular Muscle in the bottom of the Uterus, for the expulsion of the Placenta;—but the Placenta is found to adhere to other parts besides the Fundus Uteri; nor has such a Muscle been observed by later Anatomists. In HUN-TER's Plates the Fibres are seen running transversely in the Body of the Uterus, and describing Concentric-Circles about the Orifices of the Fallopian Tubes.

The Muscular Fibres of the Uterus assist in the Delivery of the Child and expulsion of the Placenta; and in a few weeks after Delivery, the Uterus, partly by the contractile

#### PART IV.] ORGANS OF GENERATION. 295

contractile power of these Fibres, and partly by that of the Blood-vessels, is restored to near its former dimensions.

# CONTENTS OF THE UTERUS ABOUT THE END OF PREGNANCY.

The Contents of the Uterus, towards the end of Pregnancy, consists of the Fætus, the Umbilical Cord, Placenta, Membranes, and Waters.

The Cord, Placenta, and Membranes, are named the Secundines, or After-birth, with which some include the Waters, though these are discharged previous to the expulsion of the Child.

The Cord is fixed by one end to the Umbilicus of the Fœtus, and by the other it is attached to the Placenta at a little distance from its middle; from which circumstance the extraction of the Placenta is more easily effected.

It is commonly about two feet in length,-sometimes considerably shorter, and often much longer ;- but in general it is of sufficient length to allow the Birth of the Child, while the Placenta adheres to the Uterus of the Mother.

Its thickness is nearly equal to that of one's Finger, but it is smaller and weaker at the extremity next the Placenta. It is seldom of a Cylindrical form, being marked with Sulci corresponding to the course of its Vessels.

It is composed of One Vein and Two Arteries, which twist about each other in a spiral direction, from right te

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to left, and frequently form short Coils upon themselves. Sometimes there is a Knot upon the Cord.

The Cord is covered by a smooth Coat, derived from the Membranes. Neither Lymphatics nor Nerves have ever been demonstrated in it.

The Trunks of the Vessels are inclosed in a Gelatinous, Ropy, Cellular Substance, which adds to the strength and elasticity of the Cord, and allows the Blood to pass freely between the Fœtus and Placenta, without being in danger of interruption from pressure.

The Vein is much larger than the Arteries, its area being about equal to the area of both of these. It is destitute of Valves, and sends off no Branches till it reach the Fortus.

It arises from the Substance of the Placenta, and, after perforating the Umbilicus, it passes in the inferior part of the Ligamentum Suspensorium, to the under side of the Liver.

The Arteries arise from the Iliac Arteries of the Fœtus, perforate the Umbilicus, and run to the Placenta, in the Substance of which they divide into their ultimate Branches. Here the one Artery frequently forms a large Anastomosis with the other, and the Ramifications of the Arteries communicate with those of the Vein, in the manner Arteries and Veins do in other parts of the Body.

The Cord, by means of the Vein, conveys pure Blood from the Placenta for the nourishment of the Fœtus, and, through the Medium of the Arteries, returns what is not used in Nutrition, again to be mixed with the Blood

### PART IV.] ORGANS OF GENERATION. 295

Blood of the Uterus.—By the intervention of the Cord, also, the Placenta is more readily extracted.

The *Placenta*, or *Cake*, is a Spongy Mass, of a round form, though sometimes oblong, or lobular, occupying near a fourth part of the Ovum, and is common to the young of many other Animals.

It is about seven or eight inches in breadth, and upwards of one inch in thickness; but is thinner at the edges where the Membranes go off. While attached to the Uterus, it is concave next the Child, and convex towards the Womb.

The External Surface, or that next the Uterus, is divided into Lobules with Fissures between them, while the Internal, or that next the Fœtus, forms a regular Mass, which has numerous large Branches of the Umbilical Vessels dispersed upon it in a radiated manner.

In the Placenta are to be observed,—on the side next the Child,—the Ramifications of the Umbilical Vessels forming the principal part of its Substance;—on the side next the Mother,—Branches of the Uterine Arteries, almost of the size of Crow-quills, passing in a convoluted manner between the Uterus, and Placenta, and terminating in the latter;—Veins corresponding with these Arteries, but flat and of great size, running obliquely from the Placenta to the Uterus,—and, in the Substance of the Placenta, an appearance which has been supposed by many Authors to be the common Cellular Membrane, of a tender nature, and easily ruptured by Injection, but which is considered by late Authors as a regular Spongy Substance, similar to that in the Body of the Penis.

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The Placenta is connected to the Uterus on one side by Blood-vessels and by the Decidua, and to the Fœtus on the other, by means of the Umbilical Cord.

The common place of attachment is near the Fundus Uteri; though it is found at different times adhering to all the other parts of the Uterus, not even the Os Tincæ excepted.

In the case of Twins, there is sometimes only one, but most frequently two distinct Placentæ, adhering together by the intervention of a Membrane in which the Vessels of the two Placentæ occasionally communicate with each other.

There are in this case also two distinct Apartments, separated by a Partition; each Apartment containing its own Waters and Cord.

The Placenta receives Blood from the Uterus, and, according to the opinion of modern Anatomists, purifies the Blood, as the Lungs do in the Adult, for the nourishment of the Fœtus.

The Membranes consist of the Spongy Chorion, the True Chorion, and the Amnios.

They form a complete but slender *Bag*, which lines the Cavity of the Uterus, and incloses the Fœtus, Umbilical Cord, and Waters.

The Spongy Chorion is a thick opake Substance, which adheres to the Uterus, and forms the outer Layer of the Ovum, but scarcely penetrates between the Lobules of the Placenta, though, in the early Months, it enters more into the composition of that Substance.

Between the Uterus and Placenta, it is less distinct than elsewhere, being perforated there, and in some degree

## PART IV.] ORGANS OF GENERATION. 297

gree concealed by the Blood-vessels proceeding from the inside of the Uterus.

It has a Spongy and Villous appearance, and is full of small Blood-vessels, which can be readily injected from those of the Uterus.

The *True Chorion* is thinner, smoother, and much denser, than the former, is connected with the Spongy Chorion as far as the edge of the Placenta, where it separates from it. It is next reflected over the Surface of the Placenta which is opposed to the Fœtus, and is afterwards continued over the whole of the Cord.

It is uniform in its texture, has a transparent appearance, adheres to the Spongy Chorion and Surface of the Placenta by a delicate Cellular Substance, and has no Vessels visible to the naked Eye, or which can be injected.

The Amnios lines the Surface of the True Chorion, and, with it, is reflected from the Placenta upon the Cord, which it supplies with an External Covering.

It is thinner, (but at this period stronger), more dense, and transparent, than the Chorion, to which it adheres every where by a tough Jelly.

It is smooth and polished on the side next the Fœtus, and is destitute of Blood-vessels.

The Membranes, besides containing the Child and Waters, give origin to the latter, and, in the time of Labour, assist in opening the Orifice of the Uterus.

The Waters, called Liquor Annii, are thinnest and clearest in the first Months, after which they acquire some degree of colour and ropiness.

The Liquor Amnii is chicfly composed of the Serum

of the Blood. In its natural state, it has all the characters of the Liquor Pericardii, or of the Liquors exhal d from the Surfaces of other Membranes similar to the Vericardium.—It is supposed to be derived from the Eximient Arteries of the Amnios.

It is proportionally greater in quantity in the first than in the last Months; at the full time there are generally about a couple of pounds; the proportion and quantity varying considerably in different Women, and in the same Women in different Pregnancies.

Between the Annios and Chorion, Water is frequently collected, but in much smaller quantity than in the Amnios, and is termed *False Water*, or *False Delivery*.—It is frequently discharged some time previous to the Birth of the Child, without any danger.

The Liquor Amnii defends the Child and Umbilical Vessels from the pressure of the Uterus, assists in distending the Uterus during Gestation, and allows the Fœtus a certain degree of motion; but forms no part whatever of the nourishment of the Child, that being accomplished entirely by the Blood from the Umbilical Vein. Nor does it appear that any part of the Liquor Amnii is swallowed by the Child, as full-grown Fœtuses have in different instances been born without a Mouth.

In the time of Labour, it also assists in dilating the Mouth of the Uterus, and, by lubricating the Vagina, facilitates Delivery.

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#### PART IV.]

# PECULIARITIES OF THE FETUS.



ALL the Bones in the Fœtus, excepting a few, are soft, yielding, and imperfect, and many of them entirely in a state of Cartilage. The Gelatin in their composition is observed to be in greater proportion than in Adults, in whom the Fibrin, and Saline Matter found in them, predominate.

The Head is *large* in proportion to the rest of the Body, and the Bones of the Cranium are united by *Membrane*, which admits of some alteration in the form of the Head, whereby its Passage is facilitated in the time of Delivery.

Between the Frontal and Parietal Bones, is the Membrane called *Bregma*, formed of a Membranous Substance, which commonly disappears before the Child is two years of age, the margins of the Bones being then united.

—The other Peculiarities of the Bones of the Fœtus are taken notice of along with the description of the Bones of the Adult.—

In the Fœtus, the Fluids are proportionally larger in quantity, and the Solids generally softer, than in the Adult.

The Skin is of a *bright red colour*, in consequence of its greater degree of Vascularity, and is covered with an Unctuous Substance, supposed to be secreted from the Vessels upon the Surface of the Skin.

That part chiefly of the Cellular Membrane is Adipose, which is near the Surface of the Body; scarcely any Fat being found in the more interior parts, where it gradually accumulates till the person arrive at a considerable time of life.

The Brain, Spinal Marrow, and Nervous System, are proportionally larger, but softer.

The Sanguiterous System, and Glandular Organs, are larger.

The Pupil of the Eye is occupied and completely covered by the Membrana. Pupillaris, which arises from the inner margin of the Iris, and continues there till the seventh Month, when it gradually vanishes. It is a very Vascular Substance, and separates the Cameræ from each other. According to BLUMENBACH, it keeps the Iris expanded during the rapid increase of the Ball of the Eye.

The Crystalline Lens is almost Spherical, and has numerous Vessels dispersed upon its Capsule.

The Meatus Anditorius is wholly *Cartilaginous*, and adheres by its extremity to an imperfect Bony Circle, in which the Membrana Tympani is placed.

The Meatus Externus, and Membraua Tympani, are lined by a *Mucous Membrane*, which is cast off after Birth.

The Thymus Gland, in the Fœtus, is a *large* Substance, situated in the upper part of the Thorax, between the Layers of the Anterior Mediastinum.

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#### PART IV.] OF THE FŒTUS.

It lies over the Pericardium, and occupies the space where the Aorta sends off the Carotid and Subclavian Arteries, and extends a short way into the fore part of the Neck.

It has two Long Cornua above, and two Broad Lobes below, is of a pale red colour, and becomes afterwards of a darker hue.

A white Serous Liquor can frequently be squeezed from its Substance; but it has no Excretory Duct; nor is the use of the Fluid, nor of the Gland itself, yet ascertained.

Some Anatomists are of opinion, that the white Fluid is Chyle sent by a retrograde motion from the Thoracic Duct, and that the Thymus Gland is a Diverticulum to the Chyle when too great a quantity of Lymph is sent to the Subclavian Vein.

In the Adult, the Thymus Gland is so completely absorbed, that scarcely any thing but Cellular Substance remains in its place.

The Blood-vessels of the Thymus are Branches of the Subclavian and Internal Manmary; the Nerves come from the Great Sympathetics and Eighth Pair.

Its Lymphatics have not yet been very accurately traced.

The Lungs are small, firm, and of a dark red colour, and *sink* when thrown into Water, in consequence of the Bronchial Cells having not yet received Air. But if Air be admitted to them, by Putrefaction or otherwise, they swim in Water, in the same manner as if Air had been conveyed to them in consequence of Respiration.

The Valve of EUSTACHIUS is distinct in the Fœtus, but but frequently Cribriform in the Adult; is *larger* in proportion, and is supposed to direct the Blood of the Inferior Cava immediately through the passage termed Foramen Ovale to the Left Auricle.

In the back part of the Septum, between the Right and Left Auricles, is the *Foramen Ovale*, nearly equal in size to the Month of the Inferior Cava, bounded by a thick Muscular Edge, termed *Annulus Foraminis O*valis.

Upon the left side of the Foramen Ovale, a Membranous Valve is placed, which allows part of the Blood of the Right Auricle to pass through this opening directly to the Left Auricle, but which completely prevents its return.

The Blood going through the Foramen Ovale, assists in keeping up the balance of Circulation between the two sides of the Heart, till the Lungs be ready to receive it.

The Pulmonary Artery divides into three Branches, the right and left of which run to the Lungs, while the middle one, called *Ductus Arteriosus*, larger than both the other Branches, and its Area nearly equal to that of the Foramen Ovale, passes in an oblique direction to the beginning of the descending Aorta.

The Ductus, or Canalis Arteriosus, forms nearly one half of the Aorta, carries part of the Blood of the Right Ventricle into that Artery, without allowing it to pass to the Lungs, and thereby assists the Foramen Ovale in keeping up the balance of Circulation till the Child has breathed; and the Aorta, formed in this manner, receives the force of both Ventricles, by which it is more enabled

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#### PART IV.] OF THE FŒTUS.

enabled to drive the Blood through the Umbilical Arteries to the Placenta.

The Stomach is of a *rounder* form than in the Adult, and commonly contains a small quantity of *Gelatinous Matter*.

The Plicæ on the inner side of the Intestines are only beginning to appear. The Appendix Vermiformis is *larger* in proportion, and is inserted into the extremity of the Colon, which at this time does not project to form a proper Cæcum.

The Colon, and frequently also the end of the Ilium, are filled with a greenish-black Fæces, of a viscid consistence, termed *Meconium*, which is considered to be a mixture of the Bile with the Secretions from the Intestines.

The Liver is so large as to occupy both Hypochondriac Regions.

The Umbilical Vein passes from the Umbilicus, in a Duplicature of the Peritoneum, to the left Branch of the Vena Portæ, and carries the Blood from the Placenta to the Liver.

From the Trunk of the Umbilical Vein, where it terminates in the Liver, a Branch, called *Ductus* vel *Canalis Venosus*, runs in a somewhat waving direction, and joins the Left Vena Hepatica, where that Vein enters the Cava.

The Ductus Venosus is much smaller than the Trunk of the Umbilical Vein, and carries part of the Blood of that Vein directly to the Heart, without allowing it to enter the Circulation in the Liver.

The Umbilical Vein sends Branches to the Right Lobe of the Liver, but is principally distributed through the Left Lobe; while the Right Branch of the Vena Portæ OF THE VISCERA, &c. [PART IV.

Portæ carries the Blood of the Splenic and Mesenteric Arteries to the Right Lobe of the Liver.

After Birth, the Left Lobe of the Liver, which was formerly more particularly supplied by the Umbilical Vein, receives an additional proportion of Blood from the Vena Portarum.

The reason why the Umbilical Vein goes partly to the Cava, and not entirely to the Heart, is not understood.

The Kidneys are irregular on their Surface, being formed of *Lobes*, the number nearly corresponding with that of the Papillæ in the Kidney of the Adult.

Each of the Lobes consists of a Cortical, a Medullary part, and a Papilla, and is covered by a Proper Membrane.

The Glandula Renalis is almost *as large* as the Kidney, but afterwards rather diminishes than increases in size.

The Bladder of Urine is of a long form, and extends almost to the Umbilicus. The greater part of it is above the Pelvis, and is more particularly covered by the Peritoneum than in the Adult.

The Urachus, which is of a *Conical form*, ascends from the bottom of the Bladder, between the Umbilical Arteries, and between the Peritoneum and Linea Alba, to the Umbilicus, and vanishes by degrees in the Umbilical Cord.

It is formed by a Production of the Fundus Vesicæ, and in the Human Body is a solid Substance, forming a Suspensory Ligament of the Bladder.

It has been sometimes found hollow at its beginning, and has been said to be so, in one or two instances, throughout its whole length.

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#### PART IV.] OF THE FŒTUS.

In the Fœtal Quadruped, it is a large Tube, which transmits Urine from the Bladder to a Bag between the Amnios and Chorion, called *Allantois*.

The common Iliac Arteries divide, on each side, into a *small* External, and *large* Internal Branch, in consequence of which, the Lower Extremities are less in proportion than in the Adult.

The principal part of the Internal Iliacs is occupied in forming the *Umbilical Arteries*, which mount by the sides of the Bladder, on the outside of the Peritoneum, and perforate the Umbilicus in their progress to the Umbilical Cord.

Soon after Delivery, the Foramen Ovale, Ductus Arteriosus, and Venosus, with the Umbilical Vein and Arteries, begin to contract, and are, in general, completely closed, and the Vessels shrivelled into Ligaments, within a vear after Birth.

This Obliteration is produced by a contractile power in the parts, by a pressure in the surrounding Viscera, and by the Blood being directed through other channels.

The Pelvis of the Fœtus is commonly so small, that the principal parts of its Viscera are contained in the open Cavity of the Abdomen.

The Prepuce of the Clitoris is proportionally so much *larger* in a young Fœtus than it is afterwards, that, in an Abortion, a Female Fœtus has frequently been mistaken for a Male.

The Testes are lodged, during the greater part of Gestation, in the Cavity of the Abdomen, over the Psoæ Muscles, and a little below the Kidneys.

· VOL. II.

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They constitute a part of the Abdominal Viscera, and, in a similar manner with them, are connected to the Body by a Production of the Peritoneum, which forms their Tunica Albuginea.

Between the Testicle and Scrotum, a Fibrous and Vascular Substance, of a Conical form, is extended, called by MR HUNTER, *Gubernaculum*, vel Ligamentum Testis, which he considers as a principal agent in directing the course of the Testicle, and in making way for it in its descent.

About the eighth Month of Pregnancy, the Testis, by means not yet completely ascertained, passes gradually along to the Scrotum, a Process of the Peritoneum preceding it, which afterwards forms its Vaginal Coat.

The Testis, through the whole of its course, continues to be covered by the Peritoneum, is connected to the parts on which it rests, and has its Vessels passing to it from behind forwards, the same as when situated in the Abdomen.

While the Testicle is passing through the Ring of the Abdominal Muscle, the Ligamentum Testis is found to be in some measure inverted, and to form the under and fore part of the Vaginal Coat, on which the Cremaster is expanded.

After the descent of the Testicle, the Peritoneal Process, which descends along with it, begins to contract at the Ring; and a firm adhesion of its sides, to within a little distance of the Testicle, is commonly found to be produced by the time of Birth.

POSITION

PART IV.]

#### -OF THE FŒTUS.

#### Position of the Fœtus.

In the first Months, the Embryo swims in the Liquor Amnii, free from the pressure of the surrounding parts; —and from many Dissections and Observations made by the latest Anatomists, it is ascertained,—that the Head preponderates, and in general continues undermost during the whole time of Gestation.

Formerly it was supposed, that the Embryo, in the first Months, was situated with the Head uppermost, and that, in the latter Month, the attitude of the Fœtus was inverted.

The Fœtus is observed to be coiled up into an oval form, so as to be properly adapted to the Cavity of the Uterus.

The Head is bent towards the Thorax, and the Arms are folded :— The Knees are drawn towards the Abdomen, and the Heels towards the Nates.

The Spine is bent into an Arch, and one side of the Body of the Fœtus is frequently turned forwards.

The Head is placed diagonally, with its long diameter corresponding to that of the Pelvis, and the Occiput opposed to the Os Tincæ.

#### CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD IN THE FOTUS.

The Blood is sent by the Arteries of the Uterus to the Substance of the Placenta, from which, according to the opinion of most of the ancient Anatomists, it passes to the Umbilical Vein by a direct communication of Branches;

#### OF THE VISCERA, &c.

[PART IV.

Branches; or, according to that of the greater part of modern Authors,—by Absorption.

By the Umbilical Vein, it goes principally to be circulated in the Liver; a small portion of it passing by the Ductus Venosus to the Right Auricle of the Heart.

The Blood sent from the Inferior Cava is transmitted first to the Right Auricle, then, by the Foramen Ovale, directly to the Left Anricle; and that sent by the Superior Cava is transmitted to the Right Auricle and Ventricle, and from thence to the Pulmonary Artery.

From the Pulmonary Artery one portion of it passes through the Circulation of the Lungs, and another goes by the Ductus Arteriosus to the Aorta Descendens.

From the Lungs it is returned by the Pulmonary Veins to the Left Auricle, where it mixes with that coming from the Right Auricle by the Foramen Ovale, and is sent by the Aorta to the different parts of the Body.

From the Iliac Arteries, it is conveyed by the Umbilical Branches to the Substance of the Placenta, where one portion of it returns by corresponding Veins to the Fœtus, the rest going to the Uterus in the manner it was discharged from the Uterine Arteries to the Branches of the Umbilical Vein.

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# TABLE XVI.

VIEWS of the BRAIN and its MEMBRANES.

#### FIG. 1.

After turning down the INTEGUMENTS, and raising the SKULL-CAP, the DURA MATER is shewn at the Upper Part of the Figure. On the Right Side, that Membrane is raised to shew the PIA MATER, with the CON-VOLUTIONS of the BRAIN shining through it.

ia, a, The cut edge of the cranium.

- b, b, Part of the dura mater which covers the left hemisphere of the brain.
- c, c, A portion of the dura mater covering the right hemisphere.
- d, Some of the small pits commonly occupied by the glands of PACCHIONI:
- e, c, The course of the superior longitudinal sinus.
- f, f, The right hemisphere of the brain, covered by the tunica arachnoidea and pia mater, and divided into convolutions, which appear of different sizes and lengths in different parts of the figure.

#### FIG. 2.

- A SECTION of the CRANIUM, giving a View of the Principal Processes and Sinuses of the DURA MATER.
- a, a, The cranium cut in a vertical direction, a little to the right side of the falx.

VOL. II.

b, b, The

#### TABLE XVI. CONTINUED.

- b, b, The right side of the cranium cut horizontally, a little above the tentorium.
- c, c, The foramina optica, behind which are the cut and ends of the carotid arteries.
- d, d, The falx adhering at its anterior extremity to the spine of the frontal bone, and crista galli of the ethmoid one.
- c, c, The right side of the tentorium.
- f, The left side of that membrane. Between the two sides of the tentorium the foramen ovale appears, where the tuber annulare was chiefly seated.
- g, g, The superior longitudinal sinus.
- h, The torcular HEROPHILI, or fourth sinus, at its anterior extremity receiving the inferior longitudinal sinus, which runs along the under edge of the falx.
- i, The right lateral sinus, the left being concealed.
- k, The circular sinus, surrounding the sella Turcica.
- 7, The seat of the right cavernous sinus.
- m, The superior petrosal sinus.
- n, The inferior petrosal sinus, in its way to the end of the lateral sinus.

#### FIG. 3.

Gives a View of a Transverse SECTION of the BRAIN, upon a level with the CORPUS CALLOSUM, or near the Middle Height of the BRAIN.

a, a, The cranium, sawed at its greatest diameter.

b, The dura mater turned back.

c, c, c, c, The cortical or cineritious part of the convolutions of the brain, with fissures running between the convolutions.

d, d, The

#### TABLE XVI. CONTINUED.

*id*, The medullary part of the brain forming the centtrum ovale.

*ic*, The corpus callosum, with a *raphè* in its middle, con each side of which is a longitudinal cord, and farther out, transverse streaks, of medullary matter.

Arteries which were placed upon the corpus callosum, now drawn towards the fore part of the brain.

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### TABLE XVII.

VIEWS of the BRAIN.

#### FIG. 1.

The Right Side exhibits a deeper SECTION than that shewn in Tab. XVI. Fig. 3. and the Left one a SECTION still deeper than that of the Right Side. The CEREBELLUM is cut in a vertical direction from before backwards, and the Lateral Part turned a little outwards.

#### RIGHT SIDE.

a, a, The cut edge of the cranium.

- b, The frontal sinus, with its opening into the nose.
- c, c, The cut edges of the convolutions of the brain, with the fissures between them.
- d, The fissure which separates the anterior lobes of the brain.
- e, The corpus striatum, placed in the fore part of the lateral ventricle.
- f, The anterior cornu of the lateral ventricle.
- g, The septum lucidum.
- h, The posterior pillar of the fornix, the anterior being concealed by the septum lucidum.
- *i*, The back part of the corpus callosum, joined to the fornix and septum lucidum.
- k, The choroid plexus of the lateral ventricle, placed over, and concealing a large share of, the thalamus nervi optici.
- l, The tænia, or centrum semicirculare geminum.

A 3

m, The

- m, The beginning of the inferior cornu of the lateral
- n, The posterior cornu of that ventricle.
- o, The hippocampus minor, or small elongation placed in the posterior cornu.

#### LEFT SIDE.

- a, b, c, As on the right side.
- d, d, The medullary part of the brain, which surrounds,
- e, The corpus striatum.
- f, A section of the anterior pillar of the fornix.
- g, The tænia semicircularis.
- h, The thalamus opticus.
- i, The cavity of the third ventricle, at the fore and back parts of which are observed two white lines, representing the anterior and posterior commissures of the brain.
- k, The left half of the pineal gland, with its corresponding peduncle passing forwards at the inner edge of the thalamus opticus.
- 7, One of the nates.
- m, The corresponding testis.
- n, A medullary lamina between the testes and valve of VIEUSSENS, which covers the passage to the fourth ventricle.
- o, One of the two medullary tracts, called Processus ad Testes, or Columnae Valvulae VIEUSSENII.
- p, p, The medullary part of the cerebellum, termed Arbor Vita.
- q, The fourth ventricle, in the bottom of which is the furrow called Calamus Scriptorius.
- 7, The choroid plexus of the fourth ventricle.

s, s, The

f

1,

k,

1,

- s, s, The surface of the cerebellum; the dark lines representing the sulci between the convolutions.
- .t, A perpendicular section of the brain.
- u, The cornu Ammonis, or great hippocampus.
- v, The corpus fimbriatum.

#### FIG. 2.

- The HEAD cut in a perpendicular direction from before backwards, close to the Right Side of the FALX CERE-BRI and Septum Narium.
- ia, a, A section of the cranium.
- 17, Part of the right frontal sinus.
- cc, Part of the right sphenoidal sinus.
- ad, The septum narium, composed above of the nasal plate of the ethmoid bone, below of the vomer, and before of cartilage.
- ie, The opening from the left nostril into the throat.
- *if*, The roof of the mouth, and teeth of the left side of the upper jaw.
- g, The cancelli of the cunciform process of the occipital bone.
- ih, The root of the falx, the rest being removed, to shew the convolutions of the inner side of the left hemisphere of the brain.
- ii, Part of the tentorium cerebelli, and the situation of the torcular HEROPHILI.
- 1k, The termination of the superior longitudinal sinus.
- 12, A section of the corpus callosum.
- m, The septum lucidum, and situation of the right lateral ventricle.
- n, The body of the fornix.

o, The

- o, The two anterior crura of the fornix, one of which is cut and turned forwards.
- p, A section of the anterior commissure of the brain.
- q, The passage by which the two lateral ventricles communicate with each other, and with the third ventricle.
- s, The infundibulum, at the bottom of the third ventricle.
- t, The glandula pituitaria, lodged in the sella Turcica.
- u, A section of the right optic nerve.
- v, A section of the right corpus albicans.
- v, Part of the choroid plexus.
- x, A vein running upon the right side of the septum lucidum, to terminate in the choroid plexus.
- y, The pineal gland, at the root of which is a section of the posterior commissure of the brain.
- z, A section of the nates.
- 1, A section of the testes.
- 2, The valve of VIEUSSENS.
- 3, 3, The arbor vitæ of the cerebellum.
- 4, A passage to the fourth ventricle.
- 5, The cavity of the fourth ventricle, the under end of which is shut by the choroid plexus, and pia mater.
- 6, A section of the tuber annulare,
- 7, \_\_\_\_\_ of the medulla oblongata,
- 8, \_\_\_\_\_ of the spinal marrow.
- 9, The basilar artery.

#### FIG. 3.

#### A VIEW of the Base of the BRAIN.

a, a, The anterior lobes of the brain.

b, The division of the anterior lobes, on each side of which

which is a groove, where the first pair of nerves were situated.

- .c, c, The lateral lobes, separated from the anterior by the fissures of SYLVIUS.
- d, d, The posterior lobes.
- e, The infundibulum, placed behind the union of the optic nerves, and before the corpora albicantia.
- f, f, The cerebellum, divided into its two lobes or hemispheres.
- g, g, The superior and anterior lobules, called also the superior and inferior vermiform processes of the cerebellum.
- h, h, The crura cerebri.
- i, i, The crura cerebelli.
- k, The tuber annulare, in the middle of which is an impression made by the basilar artery.
- *l*, The medulla oblongata, composed of two lateral portions, with a fissure between them.
- m, m, The corpora pyramidalia.
- n, n, The corpora olivaria.







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### TABLE XVIII.

VIEWS of the EYE and its Appendages.

#### FIG. 1.

Represents the RIGHT EYE with its MUSCLES, viewed obliquely from its Upper and Outer Side.

- a, The eye-ball.
- b, Part of the upper eye-lid.
- c, The tunica adnata, adhering to the edge of the cornea.
- d, The integuments of the right side of the nose.
- e, e, The optic nerve.
- f, The four straight muscles, with the levator palpebræ superioris, and obliquus superior, embracing the optic nerve where it enters the orbit.
- g, The levator palpebræ superioris drawn aside.
- h, The levator oculi.
- i, The abductor oculi.
- k, The adductor oculi.
- 7, The depressor oculi.
- m, The obliguns superior, or trochlearis.
- n, The trochlea of the superior oblique.
- o, The insertion of the tendon of the obliquus superior in the eye-ball.
- p, The inferior oblique muscle taking its rise from the superior maxillary bone.
- g, The insertion of the tendon of the inferior oblique muscle in the eye-ball.

FIG.

#### FIG. 2.

#### The COATS of the EYE dissected.

- $\alpha$ , The optic nerve.
- b, b, The sclerotic coat, cut and turned outwards.
- c, The sclerotic coat, cut and turned forward with,
- d, The cornea.
- c, c, Half of the iris in its place, the other half being removed.
- f, The pupil, with the crystalline lens in its place.
- g, The ciliary circle.
- h, h, The choroid coat.
- i, The ciliary processes seen in their place, by cutting off a portion of the iris.
- k, A portion of the iris, cut and turned back.
- *l*, The floating points of the ciliary processes, also turned back.
- m, The middle smooth part of the retina, seen by cutting a hole in the choroid coat.
- n, The roots of the ciliary processes of the retina, to which the black paint of the ciliary processes of the choroid coat adheres.
- o, The ciliary processes of the retina, inserted into the capsule of the crystalline lens.

#### FIG. 3.

#### The Natural Size of the PASSAGES of the TEARS.

- a, The lacrymal gland; shewing its natural situation with respect to the eye-lids.
- b, b, The eye-lids widely opened.
- c, The situation of the puncta lacrymalia.

d, d, The

d, d, The ducts continued from the puncta lacrymalia:
e, e, The angles the ducts form after leaving the puncta.
f, The termination of the lacrymal ducts in,
g, g, The lacrymal sac.
h, The nasal duct, continued from the lacrymal sac.

#### FIG. 4.

# Presents a LONGITUDINAL SECTION of the LEFT EYE and ORBIT.

a, The upper eye-lid shut.

b, The cornea.

c, c, The cut edge of the iris.

d, The pupil.

e, e, The cut edge of the sclerotic and choroid coats, with the retina.

- g, g, The ciliary processes, continued from the choroid coat.
- $\lambda$ , The optic nerve running in a waving direction to the ball of the eye.
- i, The levator palpebræ superioris.
- k, The levator oculi.
- 1, The depressor oculi.
- m, A section of the obliquus inferior.
- n, n, A section of the blood-vessels and nerves, with a large quantity of fat surrounding the optic nerve.

f, The crystalline lens.





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## TABLE XIX.

VIEWS of the EAR. All the Figures belong to the Right Side of the HEAD.

#### FIG. 1.

The EAR, seen from its Outer and Fore Part, in a Dried Preparation.

- a, A portion of the squamous part of the temporal bone.
- b, The mastoid, and,

ć, The styloid processes.

- d, The under end of the condyloid or articular cavity, concealing the passages of the carotid artery, and internal jugnlar vein.
- e, f, g, h, The outer ear; e, The helix; f, The antihelix; g, The lobe of the ear; h, The concha.
- i, i, i, The meatus auditorius externus, laid open to its bottom.
- k, The connection of the cartilage of the ear to the osseous part of the meatus externus.
- *l*, The membrana tympani, fixed in an osseous groove at the inner end of the meatus auditorius, and hollow near its middle, where it is connected to the under end of the malleus, which is seen shining through it.
- in, A section of the carotic canal.
- n, The point of the pars petrosa.
- At the inner side of the membrana tympani, the labyrinth is exposed, with its passages laid open, of which the following appear in this view; viz.
- o, The superior or vertical semicircular canal.
- p, The external or horizontal semicircular canal.

VOL. II,

q, The

g, The vestible.

- r, r, The cochlea.
- s, The beginning of the canalis FALLOPH, or the passage for the portio dura of the seventh pair of nerves.

#### FIG. 2.

- The MEMBRANA TYMPANI, with the SMALL BONES of the EAR, seen from the Inner and Fore Part; the PARS PETROSA being removed.
- α, α, The ring of bone which incloses the membrana tympani.
- b, The membrana tympani inclosed in that ring.
- c, Part of the tympanum.
- d, e, f, The malleus; c, Its long process; f, The point of the manubrium or handle of the mallens, bent towards the membrana tympani, and connected with it.
- g, The incus, connected to the head of the malleus.
- h, The basis of the stapes, the other parts of the bone being concealed in this fore-shortened view.
- i, i, The part where the pars petrosa was joined with the pars squamosa.
- k, The squamous part.
- 1, The zygomatic process.

#### FIG. 3.

Shews the Natural Size of the SMALL BONES of the EAR, and their ARTICULATION with each other.

a, b, c, d, c, The mallens; a, Its head; b, Its neck or collar; c, The short process; d, The long or slender process.

e, The

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- c, The manubrium, or handle, with its point bent outwards and forwards.
- f, g, h, i, The incus; f, Its body; g, The eavity which receives the head of the malleus; h, Its short crus;
  i, Its long crus.

k, The os orbiculare, or subrotundum.

*i*, *m*, *n*; The stapes; *l*, The apex, or head, with a small cavity, which corresponds with the os orbiculare; *m*, The crura, of which one is longer than the other; *n*, The basis, which was fixed in the fenestra ovalis of the labyrinth.

#### FIG. 4.

The TEMPORAL BONE of a CHILD, viewed from the Outer, and a little towards the Under side ;—the Membrana Tympani being removed.

a, The squamous plate.

- b, The part which afterwards forms the mastoid process.
- c, The pars petrosa.
- d, The zygomatic process.
- e, The tympanum.
- f, The handle of the malleus.
- g, The long process of that bone.
- h, The long process, or crus of the incus.
- i, The stapes, with its basis fixed in the fenestra ovalis.
- k, The fenestra rotunda.
- l, A groove for lodging the tensor muscle of the tympanum.
- m, The foramen stylo-mastoideum, for the passage of the portio dura of the seventh pair of nerves.
- 71, Part of the Eustachian tube.

F ?

FIG.

#### FIG. 5.

The LABYRINTH shewn, by removing that part of the TEMPORAL BONE which covers it.—This viewed from the Outer side.

a-g, The labyrinth.

- a, b, c, The three semicircular canals; a, The superior, or vertical; b, The exterior, or horizontal; c, The posterior, or oblique.
- d, The vestible.
- c, The cochlea.
- f, The fenestra ovalis.
- g, The fenestra rotunda.
- h, The margin to which the squamous part of the temporal bone was connected.
- i, Part of the tympanum.
- k, The jugular fossa.
- 1, The canalis caroticus.
- m, Part of the Eustachian tube.

#### FIG. 6.

- The TYMPANUM and LABYRINTH viewed from the Upper and Fore Part, after removing the Osseous Substance which covered them.
- a, a, The membrana tympani, with the light shining. through it from the outside; shewing at the same time the boundary of the tympanum.
- b, The incus, with the os orbiculare at its under extremity; the stapes being removed, to procure a view of the vestible.
- c, The malleus, joined to the incus, and to the membrana tympani.

d, c, f, The

- .*d*, *e*, *f*, The three semicircular canals laid open; *d*, The vertical canal.
- g, The vestible also laid open.
- h, h, A section of the auditorius internus.
- i, The beginning of the canalis FALLOPH.
- k—p, The different turns of the cochlea; k, k, The scalæ; l, The lamina spiralis, complete behind; the osseous part only is represented before; m, The modiolus.
- n, The partition between the first and second gyri or
  turns of the cochlea. o, The second gyrus of the cochlea, in which are seen the two scalæ, with the lamina spiralis between them. p, The infundibulum, with the hamulus, or termination of the lamina spiralis, projecting in it.
- q, The passage of the internal carotid artery.
- r, The point of the pars petrosa.
- s, t, The passage of the lateral sinus; t, The part where it goes through the cranium,
- u, u, The cells of the bone.

в З







### TABLE XX.

- Gives a FRONT VIEW of the CONTENTS of the THORAX and ABDOMEN, after removing the Parts which cover them.
- A, The right lung, part of which is cut off, to shew large blood-vessels.
- B, The left lung.
- C, The right ventricle of the heart, with the point of the left ventricle.
- D, The right auricle of the heart.
- E, The vena cava superior.
- F, F, The subclavian veins.
- G, G, The internal jugular veins.
- H, The aorta ascendens.
- I, The pulmonary artery.
- K, K, The diaphragm.
- L, L, The right and left lobes of the liver, with the vestige of the ligamentum latum between them.
- M, The ligamentum rotundum.
- N, The fundus of the gall-bladder.
- O, The stomach, pressed by the liver towards the left side.

P, The spleen.

- Q, Q, The situation of the kidneys behind the intestines.
- R, R, R, The convolutions of the small intestines.







### TABLE XXI.

REPRESENTS the CHYLOPOIETIC and ASSISTANT CHYLO-POIETIC VISCERA, removed from the Body.

- A, A, A, The concave part of the liver turned up.
- B, The ligamentum rotundum.
- C, C, Its passage under,

#### D, The isthmus of the liver.

- E, The vena portæ.
- F, The arteria hepatica.
- G, The ductus hepaticus.
- H, The gall-bladder.
- I, The ductus cysticus.
- K, The ductus communis choledochus. The rest of the viscera are placed in the same manner as when in the body.
- L, The great, or left extremity of the stomach.
- M, M, M, The great curvature of the stomach, and gastro-epiploic vessels, the branches of which are represented too large.
- N, N, The small curvature of the stomach.
- O, The small extremity of the stomach, and seat of the pylorus.
- P, The duodenum.
- Q, The spleen.
- R, S, S, &c. The convolutions of the jejunum and ilium.
- T, The intestinum cæcum.
- U, U, &c. The colon, along which one of its muscular ligaments is seen.
- V, V, V, The mesocolon, with its blood-vessels and glands.

W, X, The

- W, X, The sigmoid flexure of the colon, with the muscular ligament continued.
- Y, Y, The intestinum rectum.
- y, y, y, The three ligaments of the colon expanding upon the rectum.
- Z, Z, The levatores ani.
- &, The anus, surrounded by the sphincter ani.
- The white spot above the sphincter ani points out the seat of the prostate gland.





### TABLE XXIa.

A VIEW of the ABDOMINAL VISCERA of a YOUNG A-DULT, who suffered a Violent Death during the Summer of 1812.—The Parts are in the perfectly sound State, and the natural situation is preserved as much as circumstances would allow. A CRUCIAL INCISION is made through the INTEGUMENTS, MUSCLES, and PERITONEUM, and the Flaps turned back. The Fore part of the FALSE RIBS is cut and removed, and their remaining Portions gently drawn outward, to obtain a more complete VIEW of the VISCERA at the upper end of the ABDOMEN. The STOMACH and IN-TESTINES are slightly distended, by Air blown in at the ŒSOPHAGUS.

- A, The outlines of the cartilago ensiformis.
- B, C, A portion of the upper convex part of the liver;B, the right; and C, the left lobe.
- D, E, The stomach, lying nearly in the horizontal situation; D, the great; E, the small extremity.
- F, A portion of the omentum majus, the rest of it being separated, to give a view of the parts which it covered.
- G, The spleen, brought a little forward from its natural situation.
- H, H, II, The convolutions of the jejunum.
- I, I, I, Those of the ilium.

K, The

- K, The appendix vermiformis pulled outward.
- L, L, L, The intestinum cæcum, with one of its longitudinal muscular bands.
- M, The right portion of the colon.
- N, N, The great arch of the colon, with its appendiculæ pinguedinosæ.
- O, One of the longitudinal muscular bands of the colon, tucking it up into cells.
- P, The sigmoid flexure of the colon, with its fatty appendages.
- Q, One of the bands of the sigmoid flexure.
- R, S, The bladder of urine distended. R, shews how far the peritoneal coat descends on the fore part of that viscus; S, the muscular coat of the bladder.





### TABLE XXII.

### EXHIBITS the VISCERA in the Upper, Back, and Under Parts of the Abdomen.

- A, A, The hollow, or inferior surface of the liver, turned upwards and to the right side.
- B, The lobulus SpigeLii.—Between B and C, The porta.
- D, The ligamentum rotundum.
- E, The gall-bladder.
- F, The beginning of the cystic duct.
- G, The pancreas.
- H, The spleen.
- I, The ribs.
- K, K, The kidneys.
- L, L, The renal veins.
- M, M, The ureters.
- N, The aorta.
- O, The spermatic arteries.
- P, The beginning of the inferior mesenteric artery.
- Q, Q, The common iliac arteries.
- R, The inferior vena cava.
- S, s, The spermatic veins.
- T, T, The spermatic arteries and veins, closely embracing each other, in their way to the testes.
- U, U, The common iliac veins.
- V, The end of the colon.
- X, The beginning of the rectum.
- Y, y, y, The bladder of urine.

Y, That

- Y, That part of the bladder which is covered only by cellular substance.
- y, y, z, Shews how far the peritoneum reaches down upon the fore part of the bladder, when it is moderately distended.
- Z, The urachus.




Q

U

# TABLE XXIII.

The THORACIC and ABDOMINAL VISCERA, seen from the Left Side.

The Lateral Portion of the Diaphragm, over the Liver, Stomach, and Spleen, is cut off. The Left Lung is turned towards the Spine, that its concave Surface, which accommodates itself to the Pericardium, the bare Surface of the latter, and the Vessels proceeding from the Heart, may appear. The Kidney is raised from its place. The Iliac and Spermatic Vessels, the Ureter and Sciatic Nerve, and the Peritoneum covering this side of the Intestines, are dissected away, by which the Intestines and Omentum are brought into view.

- A, B, C, The pericardium, containing the heart and origins of the vessels ;—A, the apex and left ventricle of the heart appearing through the pericardium ;—B, the left auricle also somewhat conspicuous ;—C, the pulmonary artery.
- ID, The arch of the aorta, after emerging from the pericardium.
- IE, The arteria innominata Lowers, and,
- IF, The left carotid artery arising from the aorta.
- G, H, The arteria and vena subclavia.
- I, One of the four pulmonary vessels which terminate in the left auricle of the heart.
- K, The left lung turned towards the spine in such a manner, that what is naturally concave and embracing the pericardium, appears here convex.
- ..., A portion of the diaphragm left *in situ*, after removing







## TABLE XXIV.

- Gives a Side View of the CONTENTS of the MALE PELvis, in the distended state, after removing the LEFT Os INNOMINATUM and THIGH.
- A, The symphysis of the pubis.
- B, The joint of the os sacrum with the os ilium.
- C, c, The bladder of urine inflated, rising a considerable way above the pubes. c, The extent of the peritoneum upon the bladder, in the distended state of that viscus.
- D, The ureter, with its termination in the bladder.
- E, E, e, The intestinum rectum. e, The peritoneum descending to the bottom of the pelvis.
- F, The levator ani turned aside.
- G, The fore part of the anus.
- H, H, The fleshy parts of the loins, with the integaments.
- I, The right thigh.
- K, The spermatic blood-vessels.
- L, The left testicle, covered by the scrotum.
- M, The vas deferens.
- N, The vas deferens enlarging and becoming cellular towards its extremity.
- O, The left vesicula seminalis.
- P, The beginning of the ductus communis seminiferis.
- Q, The prostate gland, surrounding the neck of the bladder.
- R, The membranous part of the urethra.
- S, One of Cowper's glands.

T, T, A

### TABLE XXIV. CONTINUED.

- T, T, A section of the corpora cavernosa penis.
- U, A section of the corpus spongiosum urethræ.
- V, The cut end of the vena magna penis.
- W, A section of the left crus of the penis.
- X, The bulb of the urethra.
- Y, A catheter introduced through the urethra into the bladder.





# TABLE XXV.

- A Side View of the CONTENTS of the PELVIS in a Young Female, the Left OS INNOMINATUM and THIGH being separated.
- A, The anterior surface of the os sacrum, covered by cellular substance.
- B, The cartilaginous surface of the os sacrum, which was joined to the os ilium.
- C, The cartilaginous surface of the right os pubis, which formed part of the symphysis pubis.
- D, The large psoas muscle.
- E, A section of the muscles placed in the back part of the loins.
- F, A section of the pyriformis.
- G, A section of the glutei.
- H, The levator ani raised from its origin, and turned back, with a cut in it to shew,
- I, The point of the os coccygis.
- K, Part of the sphincter ani.
- L, The transversalis perinei separated from the os ischium.
- M, The sphincter vaginæ covering the corpus cavernosum vaginæ.
- N, The crector clitoridis.
- O, The left crus clitoridis.
- P, The body of the clitoris, and the angle which it forms with its crus.
- Q, The suspensorium clitoridis.
- R, The mons Veneris.

c 3

S, The







### TABLE XXVI.

- GIVES a View of the UTERUS and FŒTUS in the Fifth Month of Pregnancy. The UTERUS is fully opened, and the FŒTUS taken out, to shew the Proportions of the Child, the attachments of the UMBILICAL CORD and PLACENTA, with the dilated State of the CERVIX UTERI at this period of GESTATION.
- A, A, The opening made in the membranes, for the extraction of the child, through which is seen the inside of the placenta around the termination of the umbilical cord.
- B, B, The collapsed amnios and chorion, covered externally with the decidua reflexa, which had not as yet contracted an adhesion to the decidua.
- C, C, The uterine tubes.
- D, D, The ligamenta lata.
- E, The decidua lining that part of the uterus where the placenta did not adhere to it.
- F, F, The section, from side to side, of the substance of the cervix uteri.
- G, The upper, narrower, and smaller part of the passage in the cervix uteri, where the decidua was continued down into the inner membrane of that passage.
- H, The lower, wider, and rugous part of that passage.
- II, The inside of the posterior lip of the os uteri.
- lK, The inside of the adjacent parts of the vagina.







# TABLE XXVII.

- In a CHILD born at the full time, the INTEGUMENTS, BONES, and MUSCLES, covering the Fore Part of the THORAX, cut and removed, to obtain a View of the VISCERA. The BLOOD-VESSELS were injected with Glue thrown into the UMBILICAL VEIN.
- A, A, The cut edge of the integuments and muscles of the thorax.
- B, B, The upper part of the sternum, divided and drawn out.
- C, C, A section of the ribs and intercostal muscles.
- D, D, The flaps, formed by the under part of the integuments and muscles of the abdomen turned down.
- E, E, The two lobes of the thymus gland lying over the great vessels at the upper part of the heart; the cornua ascending some way in the neck.
- F, Veins descending from the thyroid gland.
- G, G, G, H, H, The three right, and two left 'obes of the lungs, inflated.
- I, The right auricle, and,
- K, The right ventricle of the heart.
- L, L, The cartilaginous margin of the thorax.
- M, The cartilago ensiformis.
- N, O, The right and left lobes of the liver, the left extending into the hypochondrium of that side.
- P, The stomach.
- Q, Q, The small intestines.
- R, R, The colon.
- S, The bladder of urine inflated.

T, The

### TABLE XXVII. CONTINUED.

T, The urachus.

U, U, The two umbilical arteries.

V, The umbilical vein.

W, , The umbilicus.

X, The collapsed umbilical cord





# TABLE XXVIII.

The Peculiarities of the BLOOD-VESSELS in the FORTUS, shewn from the same Subject with that represented in the former Table.

- A, The thyroid gland.
- B, B, The lobes of the thymus gland turned up.
- C, C, The left lobes of the lungs.
- D, E, The liver dissected and turned over to the right side; the inferior surface seen; D, the great, and, E, The small lobe. As much of the substance of the liver is dissected away, as to shew the veins which enter it, or come out from it.
- F, The gall-bladder, with the trunks of the biliary ducts.
- G, The renal gland of the left side.
- H, The corresponding kidney.
- I, The ureter.
- K, Part of the right kidney.
- L, The bladder of urine inflated.
- M, The urachus.
- N, O, P, The heart drawn over to the right side; N, The right ventricle; O, The left auricle; P, The left ventricle.
- Q, The left branch of the pulmonary artery.
- R, R, The corresponding veins, with their termination in the left auricle.
- S, The left subclavian vein.
- T, The arch of the aorta, with the three great arteries sent off from it.
- U, The ductus arteriosus, passing from the trunk of the

### TABLE XXVIII. CONTINUED.

the pulmonary artery into the beginning of the descending aorta.

V, The continuation of the aorta descendens.

W, The cœliac artery.

X, The superior mesenteric artery.

Y, The right renal artery, with its corresponding vein.

Z, The inferior mesenteric artery.

a, a, The two common iliac arteries.

b, The external iliac artery of the left side.

c, The root of the internal iliac artery of that side.

- $\partial$ , d, The two umbilical arteries running along the sides of the bladder.
- e, e, The common iliac veins.

f, f, The vena cava inferior.

g, The vena portæ.

h, h, The right and left branches of the vena portæ.

i, i, i, The vence cave hepatice.

- k, The collapsed umbilical cord.
- 1, The umbilical vein.
- m, The umbilical vein sending branches to the right and left lobes of the liver, but chiefly to the latter.
- $\pi$ , The trunk common to the umbilical vein and left branch of the vena portæ.

o, The ductus venosus.

p, Its termination, along with the left vena hepatica, in the vena cava, where that great vein is about to perforate the diaphragm.

FIG.

#### TABLE XXVIII. CONTINUED.

#### FIG. 2.

### The RIGHT AURICLE of the FŒTUS represented in the two last Tables, cut open to shew the FORAMEN OVALE.

- a, The vena cava superior, with its termination in the upper part of the right auricle.
- b, The vena cava inferior, with the venæ hepaticæ terminating in it.
- c, c, The right auricle cut open.
- d, The proper auricle.
- e, The valve of EUSTACHIUS over the mouth of the inferior cava, and its oblique situation seen with respect to the termination of the latter.
- f, The termination of the great coronary vein at the left side of the Eustachian valve.
- g, The beginning of the foramen ovale, which passes obliquely up between the septum of the auricles and its proper valve.
- h, A dotted line opposite to the upper edge of the valve of the foramen ovale.
- i, A dotted line at the root of this valve.
- k, k, Two dotted lines marking the size of the passage through the foramen ovale.
- 1, The annulus foraminis ovalis.
- 1m, The passage of the right ventricle.















